

The Metric Space of Partitions and Its Applications in Data Mining

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Applications:

- Building better classifiers
- Better discretization algorithms
- Stable incremental clustering categorical data
- Metric study of genetic codes

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Metrics and Partitions

Metrics

A **metric** on a set S is a mapping $d : S \times S \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies the following:

- $d(p, q) = 0$ if and only if $p = q$;
- $d(p, q) = d(q, p)$;
- $d(p, q) + d(q, r) \geq d(p, r)$,

for every $p, q, r \in S$.

Popular Examples ...

- Standard distance on real line:

$$d(p, q) = |p - q|$$

- Minkowski distance in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$d_k(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |p_i - q_i|^k \right)^{\frac{1}{k}}$$

for $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ and $\mathbf{q} = (q_1, \dots, q_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Examples

In \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$d_1(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = |p_1 - q_1| + |p_2 - q_2|$$

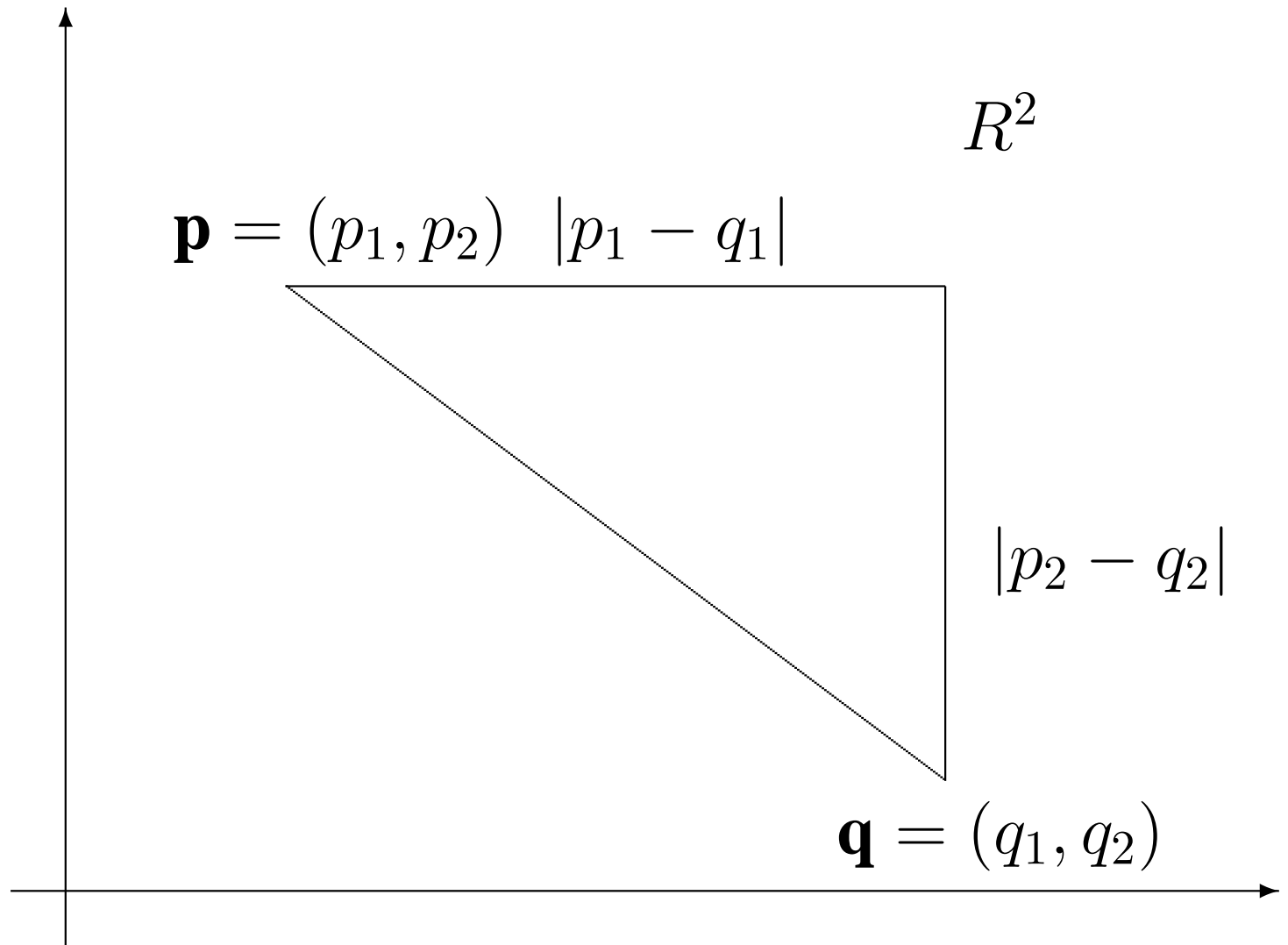
(Manhattan distance)

$$d_2(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \sqrt{|p_1 - q_1|^2 + |p_2 - q_2|^2}$$

(Euclidean distance)

$$d_\infty(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} d_k(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})$$
$$= \max\{|p_1 - q_1|, |p_2 - q_2|\}$$

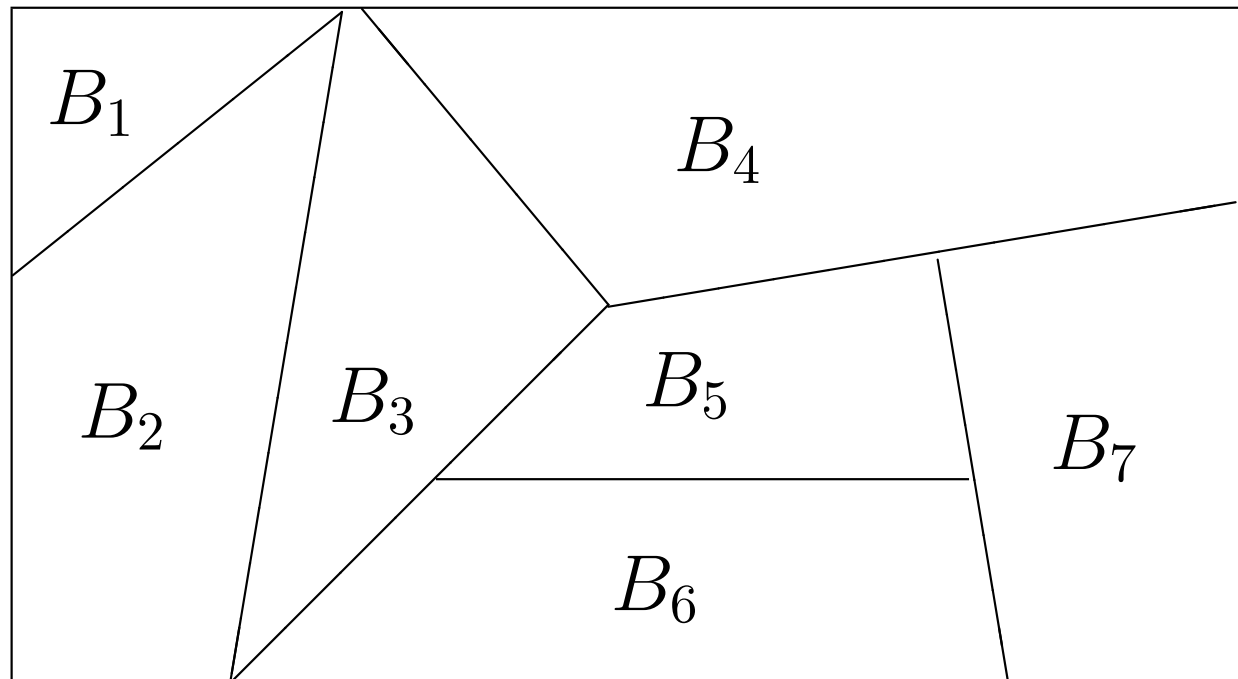
(Canberra distance)



Partitions

$\text{PART}(S)$: set of partitions of set S

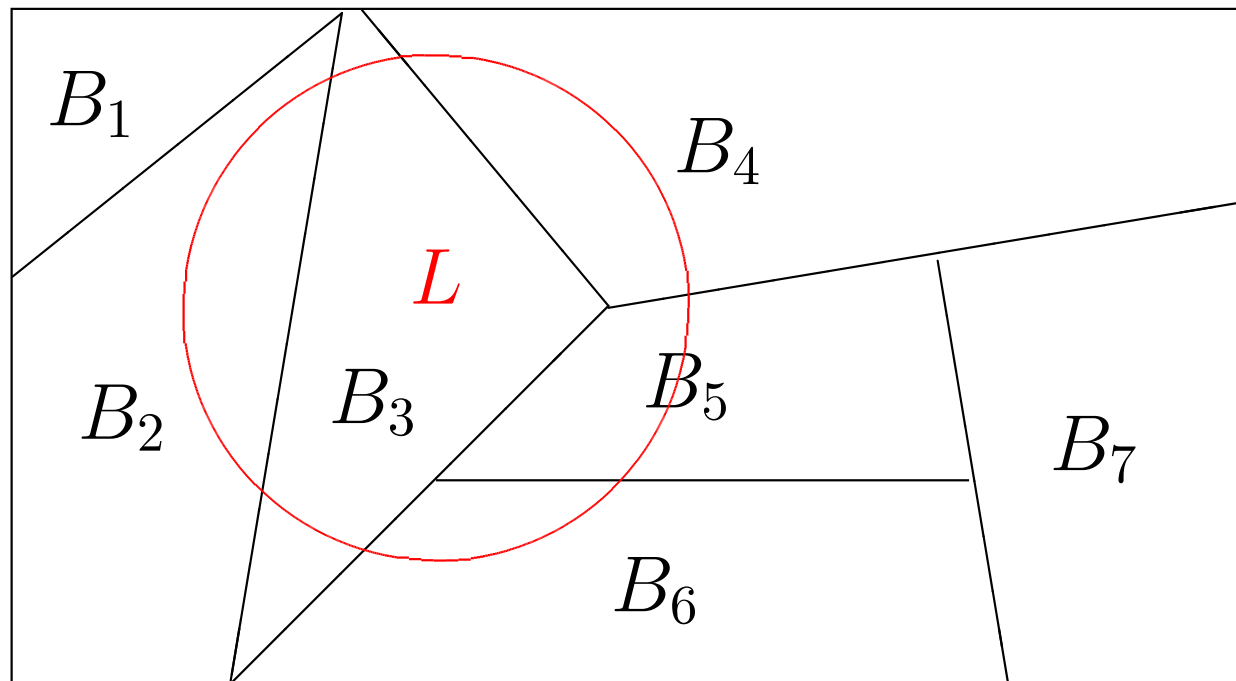
Partition $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_7\}$



Let $L \subseteq S$ and $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_n\}$. The *trace of the partition* π on L is:

$$\pi_L = \{B_i \cap L \mid 1 \leq i \leq k \text{ and } B_i \cap L \neq \emptyset\}.$$

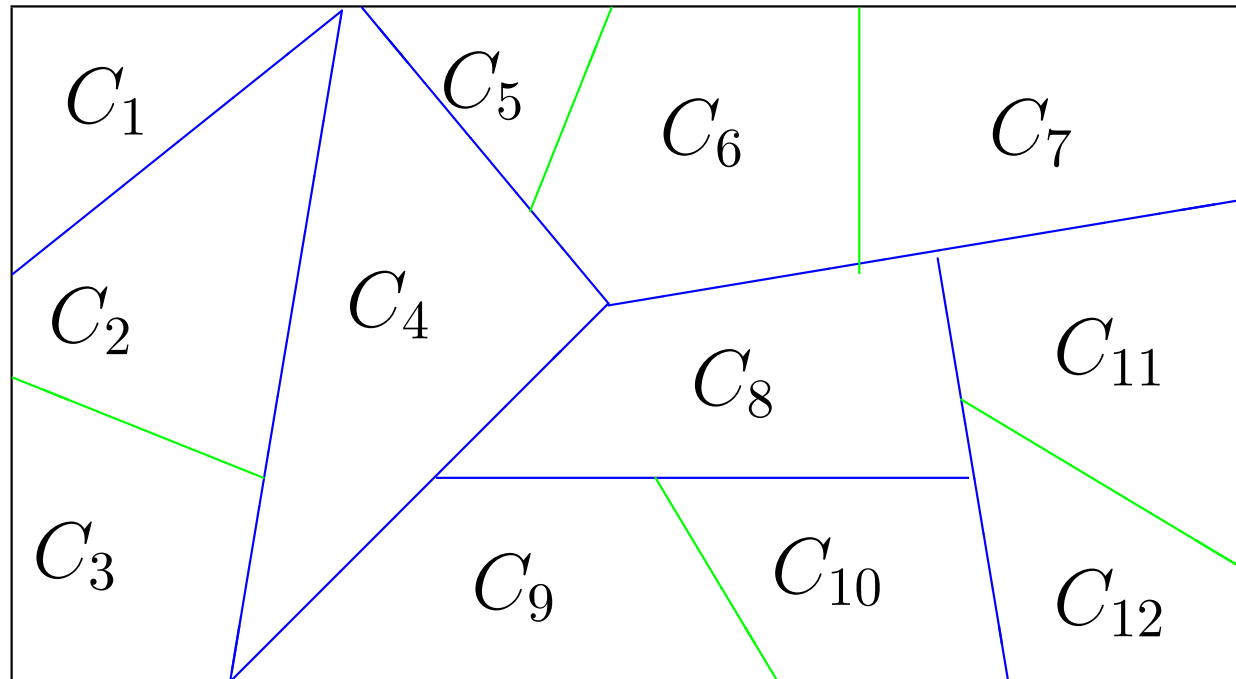
Trace of partition $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_7\}$ on set L



Partitions Partial Order

$\sigma \leq \pi$ if each block C of σ is included in a block of π .

Partition $\sigma = \{C_1, \dots, C_{12}\} \leq \pi$



Tables

A database table τ
is a triple $\tau = (T, H, \rho)$

The header:

$$H = A_1 \cdots A_n$$

$\text{Dom}(A_i)$: domain of A_i

	T			
	A_1	A_2	\cdots	A_n
t_1	a_{11}	a_{12}	\cdots	a_{1n}
t_2	a_{21}	a_{22}	\cdots	a_{2n}
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
t_m	a_{m1}	a_{m2}	\cdots	a_{mn}

The content of the table: $\rho = \{t_1, \dots, t_m\}$ where
 $\rho \subseteq \text{Dom}(A_1) \times \cdots \times \text{Dom}(A_n)$.

Partitions induced by Attribute Sets

Every attribute set $K \subseteq H$ induces a partition π_K :
 same as:
select K,count(K)
from T
group by K

		T		
		$\longleftarrow K \longrightarrow$		
t_1	\dots	k_1	\dots	\dots
t_2	\dots	k_1	\dots	\dots
t_3	\dots	k_1	\dots	\dots
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
t_l	\dots	k_p	\dots	\dots
t_{l+1}	\dots	k_p	\dots	\dots
t_{l+2}	\dots	k_p	\dots	\dots
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
t_{n-1}	\dots	k_r	\dots	\dots
t_n	\dots	k_r	\dots	\dots

Shannon's Entropy

For random variables...

The Shannon entropy is introduced for a random variable distribution

$$X : \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & \cdots & x_n \\ p_1 & \cdots & p_n \end{pmatrix}$$

is $\mathcal{H}(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 p_i.$

Shannon entropy

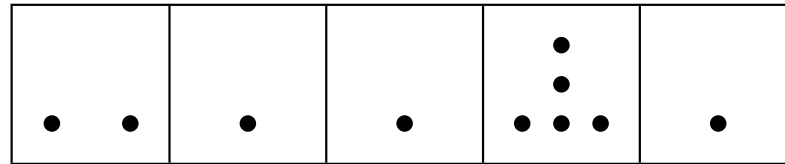
... for partitions

A partition $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_m\}$ on a finite, nonempty set A generates naturally a random variable:

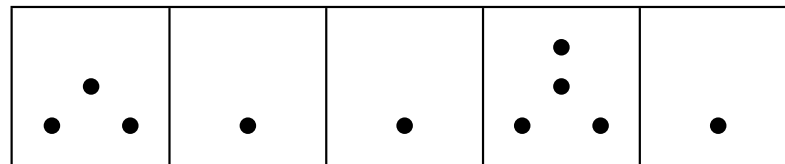
$$X_\pi : \begin{pmatrix} B_1 & \cdots & B_m \\ \frac{|B_1|}{|S|} & \cdots & \frac{|B_m|}{|S|} \end{pmatrix}$$

We define the Shannon entropy of π as the Shannon entropy of X_π .

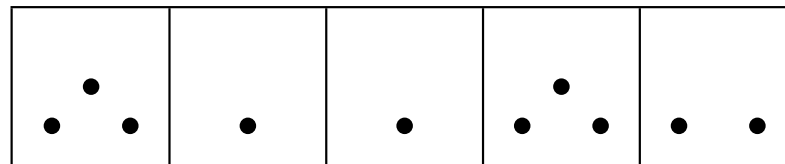
Measuring concentration of values



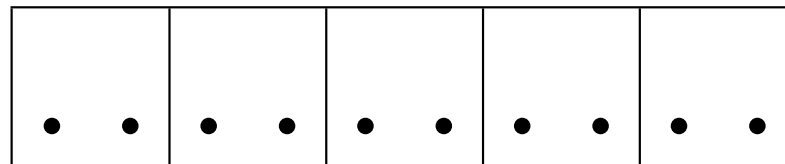
$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_4) = 1.9609$$



$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_3) = 2.0464$$



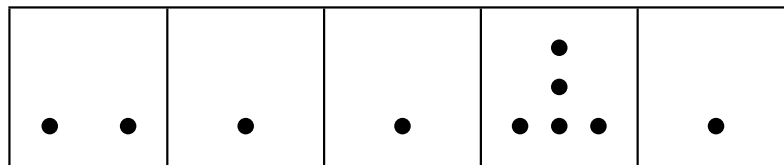
$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_2) = 2.1709$$



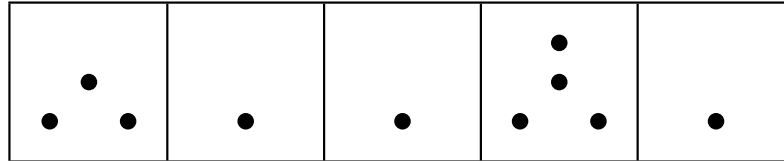
$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_1) = 2.3219$$

Gini's Index

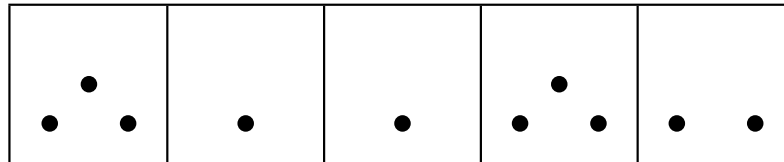
$$\mathcal{H}_2(\pi) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2$$



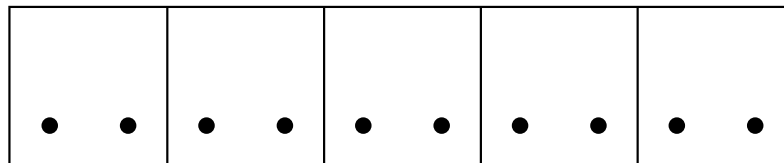
$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_4) = 0.68$$



$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_3) = 0.72$$



$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_2) = 0.79$$



$$\mathcal{H}_1(\pi_1) = 0.80$$

Generalized Entropy of Partitions

Daróczy's β -generalized entropy of $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_n\}$:

$$\mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi) = \frac{1}{1 - 2^{1-\beta}} \left(1 - \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{|B_i|}{|S|} \right)^\beta \right).$$

For $\beta = 2$ we obtain the Gini index. Also, $\lim_{\beta \rightarrow 1} \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi)$ is Shannon's entropy

$$\mathcal{H}(\pi) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|B_i|}{|S|} \log_2 \frac{|B_i|}{|S|}$$

Set Purity and Entropy

$\mathcal{H}(\pi_L)$ measures the impurity of the set L relative to the partition π : **the larger the entropy, the more L is scattered among the blocks of π .**

If $\pi, \sigma \in \text{PART}(S)$, the average impurity of the blocks of σ relative to π is the *conditional entropy of π relative to σ* :

$$\mathcal{H}(\pi|\sigma) = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{|Q_j|}{|S|} \mathcal{H}(\pi_{Q_j}),$$

where $\sigma = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_m\}$.

Generalized Conditional Entropy

For $\pi, \sigma \in \text{PART}(S)$ such that

$$\pi = \{P_1, \dots, P_k\}$$

$$\sigma = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_m\}$$

the conditional β -entropy $\mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi|\sigma)$ is:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi|\sigma) &= \sum_{j=1}^m \left(\frac{|Q_j|}{|S|}\right)^\beta \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_{Q_j}) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2^{1-\beta}-1)|S|^\beta} \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^m |P_i \cap Q_j|^\beta - \sum_{j=1}^m |Q_j|^\beta \right)\end{aligned}$$

Metrics on Partitions Sets

López de Mántaras:

$$d(\pi, \sigma) = \mathcal{H}(\pi|\sigma) + \mathcal{H}(\sigma|\pi)$$

Simovici and Jaroszewicz:

$$\begin{aligned} d_\beta(\pi, \sigma) &= \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi|\sigma) + \mathcal{H}_\beta(\sigma|\pi) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2^{1-\beta}-1)|S|^\beta} \left(2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^m |P_i \cap Q_j|^\beta \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \sum_{i=1}^n |P_i|^\beta - \sum_{j=1}^m |Q_j|^\beta \right). \end{aligned}$$

Special Cases ...

De Mántaras' Metric:

$$\lim_{\beta \rightarrow 1} d_{\beta}(\pi, \sigma) = d(\pi, \sigma)$$

The $\beta = 2$ case:

$$d_2(\pi, \sigma) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{|S|}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |P_i|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m |Q_j|^2 - 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^m |P_i \cap Q_j|^2 \right)$$

GK Classification Rule

Let X, Y be two discrete random variables.

- $P(Y = b_j | X = a_i)$: the probability of predicting the value b_j for Y when $X = a_i$

Classification rule: An event that has the component $X = a_i$ is classified in the Y -class b_j if j is the number for which $P(Y = b_j | X = a_i)$ has the largest value.

- The probability of misclassification:

$$1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} P(Y = b_j | X = a_i).$$

The Goodman-Kruskal Coefficient

The *Goodman-Kruskal coefficient* of X and Y is defined by

$$\text{GK}(X, Y)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^l P(X = a_i) \left(1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} P(Y = b_j | X = a_i) \right)$$

$$= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^l P(X = a_i) \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} P(Y = b_j | X = a_i).$$

$\text{GK}(X, Y)$ is the expected probability that in a randomly chosen case the value of Y will be incorrectly predicted from X .

$\lambda_{Y|X}$ is the relative reduction in the probability of prediction error:

$$\lambda_{Y|X} = 1 - \frac{\text{GK}(X, Y)}{1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} P(Y = b_j)}$$

$\lambda_{Y|X}$ is the proportion of the relative error in predicting the value of Y that can be eliminated by knowledge of the X -value.

The Goodman-Kruskal Coefficient for Partitions

Consider two partitions

$$\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_l\} \text{ and } \sigma = \{C_1, \dots, C_k\}.$$

The Goodman-Kruskal coefficient of π, σ :

$$\text{GK}(\pi, \sigma) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^l \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} \frac{|C_j \cap B_i|}{|S|}.$$

Interpretation of GK

For a fixed i , the largest error in predicting Y is:

$$1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} P(Y = j | X = i) = 1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} \frac{|C_j \cap B_i|}{|B_i|}.$$

Expected value of the largest error in predicting Y is $\text{GK}(X, Y)$:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{|B_i|}{|S|} \cdot \left(1 - \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} \frac{|C_j \cap B_i|}{|B_i|} \right) \\ &= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^l \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} \frac{|C_j \cap B_i|}{|S|}, \end{aligned}$$

Properties of GK

- $\text{GK}(\pi, \sigma) = 0$ if and only if $\pi \leq \sigma$.
- GK is **monotonic in its first argument** and **dually monotonic in its second**:
- GK satisfies a triangular inequality:

$$\text{GK}(\pi, \sigma) \leq \text{GK}(\pi, \tau) + \text{GK}(\tau, \sigma).$$

Metric Associated to GK

The Goodman-Kruskal coefficient generates a metric on $\text{PART}(S)$.

Let $d_{GK} : \text{PART}(S) \times \text{PART}(S) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be

$$d_{GK}(\pi, \sigma) = \mathbf{GK}(\pi, \sigma) + \mathbf{GK}(\sigma, \pi).$$

for $\pi, \sigma \in \text{PART}(S)$.

The function d_{GK} is a **metric** on the set $\text{PART}(S)$.

Goodman-Kruskal Coefficient for Attribute Sets

Let K, L be two sets of attributes of a table.

Define $\mathbf{GK}(K, L) = \mathbf{GK}(\pi_K, \pi_L)$: the expected error that occurs when we try to predict the value of $t[L]$ from the value of $t[K]$.

- If $K_1 \subseteq K_2$, then $\pi_{K_2} \leq \pi_{K_1}$, so $\mathbf{GK}(K_2, L) \leq \mathbf{GK}(K_1, L)$.
- If $L_1 \subseteq L_2$, then $\mathbf{GK}(K, L_2) \leq \mathbf{GK}(K, L_1)$.

Goodman-Kruskal Metric on Attribute Sets

$$d_{GK}(K, L) = d_{GK}(\pi_K, \pi_L)$$

The new metric can be used for:

- constructing classifiers;
- discretization of continuous attributes;
- attribute clustering, feature selection and data compression.

Data Mining Applications

Clustering Generic Codes

A Proof-of-Concept Experiment

- Aminoacids in proteins are created according to a DNA blueprint, the *genetic code* (GC).
- Each GC is a function
 $c : \{A, G, C, T\}^3 \longrightarrow \mathcal{A} \cup \{\mathbf{Ter}\}$; thus, each GC defines a partition on the set $\{A, G, C, T\}^3$.
- The NCBI site lists 16 genetic codes: 6 nuclear and 10 mitochondrial.

An Example: The “Universal” GC

Lys		Phe	Pro	Ser	Ter	Thr		Tyr	Val	Ile
AAA AAG		TTT TTC	CCT CCC CCA CCG	TCT TCC TCA TGG AGT AGC	TAA TAG TGA	ACT ACC ACA ACG		TAT TAC	GTT GTC GTA GTG	ATT ATC ATA
Ala		Arg	Asn	Asp	Cys	Gln	Glu	Gly	His	Leu
GCT GCC GCA GCG		CGT CGC CGA CGG AGA AGG	AAT AAC	GAT GAC	TGT TGC	CAA CAG	GAA GAG	GGT GGC GGA GGG	CAT CAC	TTA TTG CTT CTC CTA CTG

Trp
TGG

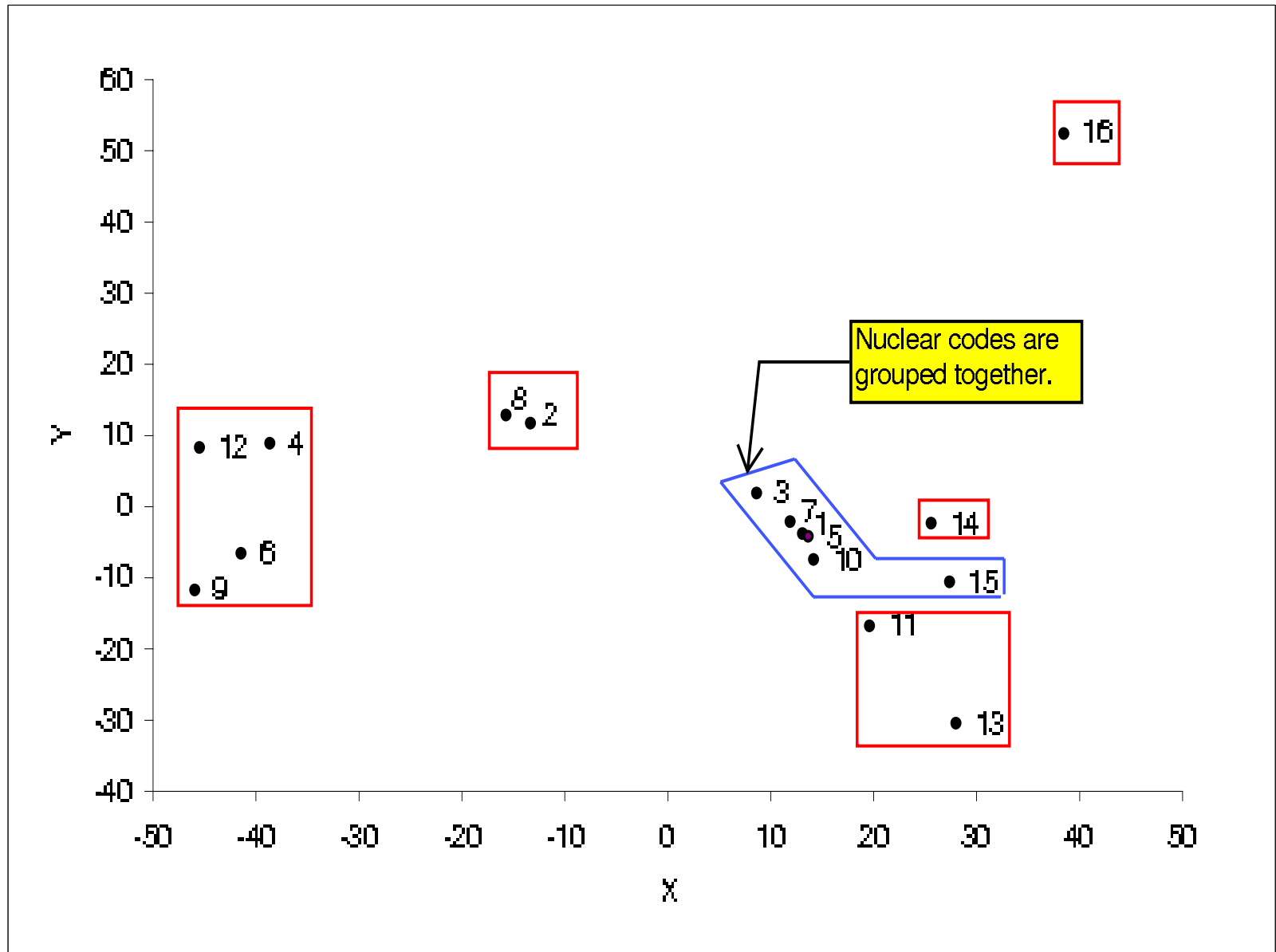
Met
ATG

Visualizing Genetic Codes

Visualization process:

- codes are viewed as partitions on the set of codons $\{A, G, C, T\}^3$;
- inter-code distances are computed using the entropic distance d_2 ;
- codes are represented as points in \mathbb{R}^2 using the “classical multidimensional scaling”.

Scaling of Genetic Codes



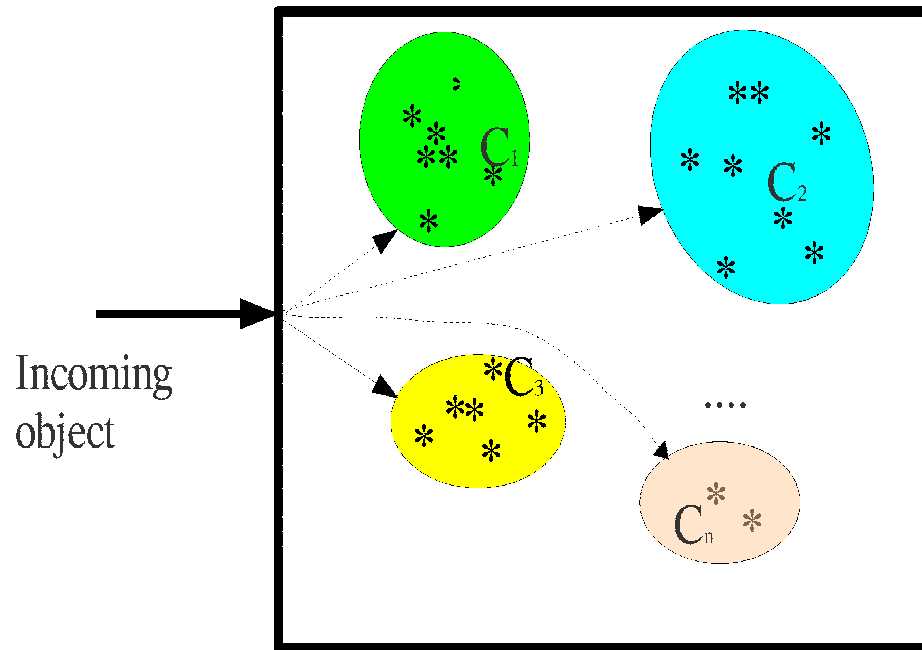
Incremental Clustering

Main focus

- Nominal data
- Incremental clustering

Main Feature of IC: Incremental clustering forms clusterings gradually by a sequential process of adding objects to clusters or initiating new clusters.

Incremental Clustering



The interest in incremental clustering

- Main memory usage is minimal.
- Algorithms are scalable with the size of the set of objects.

Valuations and Metrics

- $v : \mathbf{PART}(S) \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $v(\pi) = \sum_{i=1}^n |B_i|^2$, where $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_n\}$ is a lower valuation on $\mathbf{PART}(S)$:

$$v(\pi \vee \sigma) + v(\pi \wedge \sigma) \geq v(\pi) + v(\sigma) \quad (1)$$

for $\pi, \sigma \in \mathbf{PART}(S)$.

- For every lower valuation v , $d : (\mathbf{PART}(S))^2 \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $d(\pi, \sigma) = v(\pi) + v(\sigma) - 2v(\pi \wedge \sigma)$ is a metric on $\mathbf{PART}(S)$.

Clusterings as Partitions

We seek a clustering $\kappa = \{C_1, \dots, C_n\} \in \text{PART}(S)$ such that the total distance from κ to the partitions of the attributes:

$$D(\kappa) = \sum_{i=1}^n d(\kappa, \pi^{A_i})$$

is minimal.

Distance between clustering and attribute partitions

$$d(\kappa, \pi^A) = \sum_{i=1}^n |C_i|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{m_A} |B_{a_j}^A|^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^{m_A} |C_i \cap B_{a_j}^A|^2,$$

AMICA

A Metric Incremental Clustering Algorithm)

If $t \notin S$, and let $Z = S \cup \{t\}$. The following may occur:

1. the object t is added to an existing cluster C_k , or
2. a new cluster, C_{n+1} is created that consists only of t .

Relative to π^A , t is added to the block $B_{t[A]}^A$.

Object is added to existing cluster

$$\kappa_{(k)} = \{C_1, \dots, C_{k-1}, C_k \cup \{t\}, C_{k+1}, \dots, C_n\}$$

$$\pi^{A'} = \{B_{a_1}^A, \dots, B_{t[A]}^A \cup \{t\}, \dots, B_{a_{m_A}}^A\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & d(\kappa_{(k)}, \pi^{A'}) - d(\kappa, \pi^A) \\ &= (|C_k| + 1)^2 - |C_k|^2 + (|B_{t[A]}^A| + 1)^2 \\ &\quad - |B_{t[A]}^A|^2 - 2(2|C_k \cap B_{t[A]}^A| + 1) \\ &= 2|C_k| + 1 + 2|B_{t[A]}^A| + 1 - 4|C_k \cap B_{t[A]}^A| - 2 \\ &= 2|C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|. \end{aligned}$$

Object forms a new cluster

$$\begin{aligned}\kappa' &= \{C_1, \dots, \dots, C_n, \{t\}\} \\ \pi^{A'} &= \{B_{a_1}^A, \dots, B_{t[A]}^A \cup \{t\}, \dots, B_{a_{m_A}}^A\}\end{aligned}$$

$$d(\kappa', \pi^{A'}) - d(\kappa, \pi^A) = 2|B_{t[A]}^A|.$$

Course of Action

$$D(\kappa') - D(\kappa) = \begin{cases} 2 \cdot \sum_A |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A| & \text{in Case 1} \\ 2 \cdot \sum_A |B_{t[A]}^A| & \text{in Case 2.} \end{cases}$$

If $\min_k \sum_A |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A| < \sum_A |B_{t[A]}^A|$ add t to a cluster C_k for which $\sum_A |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|$ is minimal; otherwise, create a new one-object cluster.

Difficulties of IC

- Incremental clustering algorithms are affected, in general, by the order in which objects are processed by the clustering algorithm.
- Each such algorithm proceeds typically in a hill-climbing fashion that yields local minima rather than global ones.

Limiting the Effect of Ordering

The “not-yet” technique introduced by Roure and Talavera:

In our framework: A new cluster is created only when

$$r(t) = \frac{\sum_A |B_{t[A]}^A|}{\min_k \sum_A |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|} < \alpha,$$

is satisfied, that is, only when the effect $r(t)$ of adding the object t on the total distance is significant enough.

$\alpha \leq 1$ is a parameter provided by the user (no buffer if $\alpha = 1$)

The AMICA Algorithm:

Input: data set S and threshold α

Output: clustering C_1, \dots, C_{nc}

Method:

```

nc = 0;  $\ell = 1$ ;
while  $S \neq \emptyset$  do
    select an object  $t$ ;  $S = S - \{t\}$ ;
    if  $|B_{t[A]}^A| \leq \alpha \min_{1 \leq k \leq nc} |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|$ 
        then
            nc ++; create a new single-object cluster  $C_{nc} = \{t\}$ ;
        else
             $r(t) = |B_{t[A]}^A| / \min_{1 \leq k \leq nc} |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|$ 
            if  $r(t) > 1$ 
                then  $k = \arg \min_k |C_k \oplus B_{t[A]}^A|$ 
                    add  $t$  to cluster  $C_k$ ;
                else /* this means  $\alpha < r(t) \leq 1$  */
                    place  $t$  in NOT-YET buffer;
            end if;
        end while;
    process objects in the NOT-YET buffer as above with  $\alpha = 1$ ;

```

Experiments on Synthetic Data

- Synthetic data sets: produced by an algorithm that generates clusters of objects having real-numbered components grouped around a specified number of centroids.
- Data was discretized using a specified number of discretization intervals which allowed us to treat the data as nominal.
- The experiments were applied to several data sets with an increasing number of tuples and increased dimensionality and using several permutations of the set of objects.
- All experiments describe use $\alpha = 0.95$.

Cluster Stability

- A data set that consists of 10,000 objects (grouped by the synthetic data algorithm around 6 centroids)
- A first pass of the algorithm produced 11 clusters.
- Most objects (9895) are concentrated in the top 6 clusters, a good approximation of the “natural” clusters produced by the synthetic algorithm.

Inensitivity to Orderings

Initial Run		Random Permutation		
Cluster	Size	Cluster	Size	Distribution (Original cluster)
1	1548	1	1692	1692 (2)
2	1693	2	1552	1548 (1), 3 (3), 1 (2)
3	1655	3	1672	1672 (5)
4	1711	4	1711	1711 (4)
5	1672	5	1652	1652 (3)
6	1616	6	1616	1616 (6)
7	1	7	85	85 (8)
8	85	8	10	10 (9)
9	10	9	8	8 (10)
10	8	10	1	1 (11)
11	1	11	1	1 (7)

Scalability

Number of objects	Time for 3 permutations (ms)			Average time (ms)
2000	131	140	154	141.7
5000	410	381	432	407.7
10000	782	761	831	794.7
20000	1103	1148	1061	1104

The Mushrooms Data Set

- The data set contains 8124 mushroom records and is typically used as test set for classification algorithms.
- Classifiers seek to predict the poisonous/edible character of the mushrooms.
- The class attribute (poisonous/edible) was removed and AMICA was applied to the remaining data set.

Experimental Results

Cl. num.	Poisonous/Edible	Total	Percentage of dominant group
1	825/2752	3577	76.9%
2	8/1050	1058	99.2%
3	1304/0	1304	100%
4	0/163	163	100%
5	1735/28	1763	98.4%
6	0/7	7	100%
7	0/192	192	100%
8	36/16	52	69%
9	8/0	8	100%

Cluster Stability

C_i	Computed Clusters									
	First Random Permutation									
	C'_1	C'_2	C'_3	C'_4	C'_5	C'_6	C'_7	C'_8	C'_9	C'_{10}
	3540	1797	1095	192	1296	8	36	7	137	16
3577	3540	0	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1058	0	0	1058	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1304	0	8	0	0	1296	0	0	0	0	0
163	0	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	137	0
1763	0	1763	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	0
192	0	0	0	192	0	0	0	0	0	0
52	0	0	0	0	0	0	36	0	0	16
8	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	0	0	0

Analysis of Microarray Data

ϵ -predictors

An ϵ -predictor for a set of attributes Y is a set of attributes K such that $\mathbf{GK}(K, Y) \leq \epsilon$.

- If K is an ϵ -predictor for Y , then any superset K' of K is also a ϵ -predictor for Y .
- An ϵ -predictor such that no of its proper subsets is an ϵ -predictor is called *minimal*.

An Algorithm for ϵ -predictors

Input: Set of attributes H ,
a target attribute Y , $Y \notin H$ and an error level ϵ .

Output: Set P of all **minimal** ϵ -predictors from H .

$$(1) \quad \text{Cand} = \{\{A\} : A \in H\};$$

$$(2) \quad P = \emptyset;$$

$$(3) \quad P = P \cup \{K \in \text{Cand} : \text{GK}(K, Y) \leq \epsilon\};$$

$$(4) \quad \text{Cand} = \text{Cand} \setminus P;$$

$$(5) \quad \text{Cand} = \{L \subseteq H : \text{for all } K \subset L, \\ |K| = |L| - 1 \text{ we have } K \in \text{Cand}\};$$

$$(6) \quad \text{goto (3)};$$

- If a set is a non-minimal predictor, so are all of its supersets, which can thus be skipped.
- Initialize candidate set of predictors C_{and} to include one-set attributes.
- The set of minimal predictors P is constructed starting from C_{and} .

- Initialize P to include all singleton predictors whose error is below the threshold ϵ . Remove those from C and the search for minimal two-attribute predictors makes use of the remaining candidate attributes, etc.
- The stopping condition could be exceeding the maximum predictor size or finding a predictor with desired prediction error.

Experimental Results – KHAN

J. Khan et.al.: Classification and Diagnostic Prediction of Cancers using gene expression profiling and artificial neural networks, Nature Medicine, vol 7., 2001

Differential diagnosis of four small round blue cell tumors of childhood (SRBCTs) :

NB: neuroblastoma

RMS: rhabdomyosarcoma

BL: Burkitt lymphoma

EWS: Ewing family of sarcomas

Previous work:

single layer neural networks (Khan)

logistic regression model (Weber)

SVMs (Mukerjee)

combined classifiers (Yeo)

Khan Data

- 2308 genes were measured using cDNA microarrays
- Training Data: 63 cases (12 NB, 20 RMS, 8 BL, and 23 EWS)
- Test Data: 25 cases (6 EWS, 5 RMS, 6 NB, 3 BL, and 5 non-SRBCTs)
- The test cases include 5 cases which do not belong to any of the predicted SRBCT types. Such cases are not present in the training set.

Preprocessing

Replace each class attribute with 4 binary attributes, one for each cancer type.

original attribute	computed attributes			
Cancer type	NB	RMS	BL	EWS
NB	1	0	0	0
EWS	0	0	0	1
RMS	0	1	0	0
other	0	0	0	0

- A separate predictor is built for each binary attribute to allow for handling of cases of type ‘other’ present in the test set, but absent in the training set.
- We expect that for ‘other’ cancer type all of the predictors will give the value of 0 thus indicated that none of the 4 cancer types is present.

- Predictors may contradict each other (infrequently, because low error rate of individual classifiers).
- If presence of more than one cancer type is predicted consider it misclassified.
- Small predictors decrease the risk of overfitting (small number of training cases!)

Limitations on the Computation

- We find all predictors with 1 or 2 attributes, allowing up to one misclassified instance on the training set.
- The stopping rule: reaching the maximum prescribed size of the predictor, or obtaining an error rate less than $\frac{1}{t}$, where t is the size of the training set.
- All but 30 most predictive attributes are discarded.
- For each cancer type the first predictor with minimal training error is manually picked at random (without looking at its test set performance to avoid bias in the choice).

Cancer type	selected predictor	image ids	mtr	mte	1GP	2GP
BL	$WAS \leq 0.69 \Rightarrow BL$	236282	0	1	15	5
EWS	$FCGRT \leq 1.59 \Rightarrow EWS$	770394	1	3	2	10
NB	$MAP1B > 2.17$ or $RCV1 > 1.98 \Rightarrow NB$	629896 - 383188	0	0	2	28
RMS	$TNNT2 > 0.55$ or $SGCA > 0.44 \Rightarrow RMS$	298062 - 796258	0	2	0	25

Legend:

- mte misclassified cases in test set
- mtr misclassified cases in training set
- 1GP number of one-gene predictors
- 2GP number of two-gene predictors

- A fairly large number (12–30) of very simple predictors have been found for each cancer type.
- Each of those predictors has very good classification rate on the training set: up to one misclassified case is allowed.
- The results show that there are many genes based on which a diagnosis can be made for each cancer type.
- All genes except for the one that predicts BL were reported among the 96 selected in Khan.

- If a classifier for only one type of tumor gave a positive prediction, then the instance was classified as this type of tumor.
- If none of them gave positive prediction we declared the case as ‘other tumor type’.
- If more than one classifier was active the case was considered a prediction error.
- The combined classifier used a total of 6 genes and classified correctly 19 out of 25 test cases.
- Out of the 6 misclassified cases, 2 gave classifications when the real outcome was ‘other’, 3 SRBCT cases were undetected, and there was 1 conflict.

Experimental Results - GOLUB

- **Training data:** 38 cases (27 acute lymphoblastic leukemia and 11 acute myelocytic leukemia)
Test data: 34 cases (20 ALL and 14 AML);
- Data involves 6817 genes.
- We discretized the gene expression levels using Fayyad-Irani
- 20 genes were retained for which the Goodman-Kruskal coefficient was below 0.04.

- Five single-genes predictors and 66 two-gene predictors were identified.
- We identified two two-genes predictors (MGST1, APLP2 and CD33, CystatinA) for which the errors on the test set are 0 and 0.0294118, respectively.
- CD33 was among the 50 genes selected by Golub et al.

Voting Mechanism

- We retained 19 one-attribute predictors whose prediction error on the training set did not exceed 5.3% (that is, two errors out of the 38 training cases).
- A vote was taken, and the instance was classified according to the majority vote.
- We obtained 3 errors on the test set of 34 cases. Namely, the errors occurred on the 57th, 60th and 66th cases of the original Golub test set ("unclassifiable" in the original study (Golub)).

- The Goodman-Kruskal dissimilarity GK is a simple, but powerful measure of predictive power that can be used to produce robust classifiers.
- The small number of training cases makes reliable construction of more complex models like Bayesian networks or C4.5 trees very hard or even impossible.
- Naive Bayesian classifiers suffer from independence assumptions which may not be satisfied in the microarray setting where most genes are correlated with each other.

A New Metric Discretization Algorithm

From numerical to nominal

Previous work on discretization:

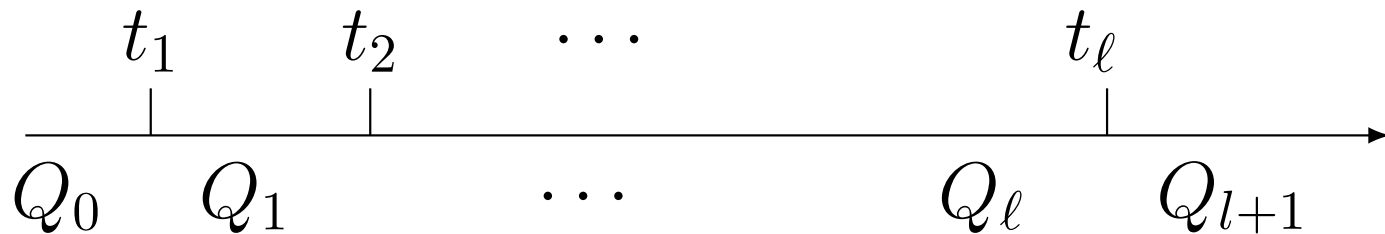
- fixed k -interval discretization (J. Dougherty, R. Kohavi, M. Sahami, 1995)
- fuzzy discretization (Kononenko 1992-1993)
- Shannon-entropy discretization (Fayyad and Irani, 1993)
- proportional k -interval discretization (Yang and Web, 2001, 2003)
- highly dependent attributes (M. Robnik and I. Kononenko, 1995)

Basic Results

- a generalization of Fayyad-Irani discretization technique
- a geometric criterion for halting the discretization process
- better results in building
 - naive Bayes classifiers
 - decision trees

Discretization of a numeric attribute B

Set of cutpoints: $S = \{t_1, \dots, t_\ell\}$ in $\text{aDom}(B)$, where $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_\ell$.



Discretization partition of $\text{aDom}(B)$:

$$\pi^S = \{Q_0, \dots, Q_\ell\}$$

Boundary Points

t_1, \dots, t_n : the list of tuples sorted on the values of an attribute B .

$\pi_{B,A}$ is the partition of $\text{aDom}(B)$ that consists of the longest runs of *consecutive* B -components of the tuples in this list that belong to the *same block* K of the partition π_A .

The *boundary points* of the partition $\pi_{B,A}$ are the least and the largest elements of each of the blocks of the partition $\pi_{B,A}$.

We have $\pi_{B,A^*} \leq \pi_A$ for any attribute B .

Main Result

Theorem: Let $\beta \in (1, 2]$.

If S is a set of cutpoints such that the distance $d_\beta(\pi_A, \pi_*^S)$ is minimal among the set of cutpoints with the same number of elements, then S consists of boundary points of the partition $\pi_{B,A}$ of $\text{aDom}(B)$.

To discretize $\text{aDom}(B)$ we seek a set of cutpoints such that

$$d_{\beta}(\pi_A, \pi_*^S) = \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(\pi_A | \pi_*^S) + \mathcal{H}_{\beta}(\pi_*^S | \pi_A)$$

is minimal.

Seek a set of cutpoints S such that the partition π_*^S induced on the set of rows is as close as possible to the target partition π_A .

Discretization Algorithm

Input: A table T , a class attribute A and a real-valued attribute B .

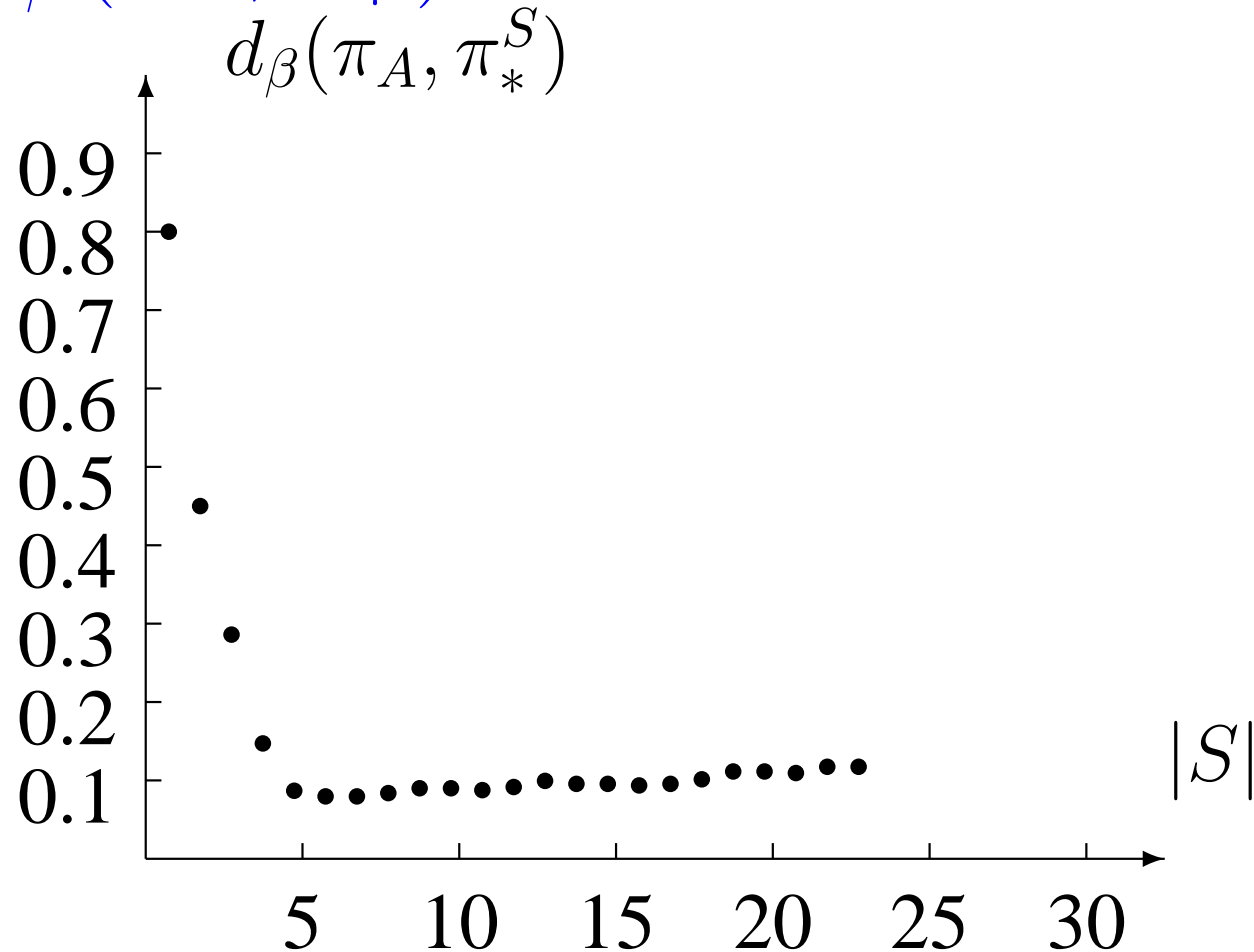
Output: A discretized attribute B .

BP is the set of boundary points of partition π_{B,A^*}

Method:

```
sort  $T$  on  $B$ ;  
compute BP;  
 $S = \emptyset$ ;  $d = \infty$ ;  
while BP  $\neq \emptyset$  do  
    let  $t = \arg \min_{t \in \mathbf{BP}} d_{\beta}(\pi_A, \pi_*^{S \cup \{t\}})$ ;  
    if  $d \geq d_{\beta}(\pi_A, \pi_*^{S \cup \{t\}})$  then  
        begin  
             $S = S \cup \{t\}$ ; BP = BP -  $\{t\}$ ;  
             $d = d_{\beta}(\pi_A, \pi_*^S)$   
        end  
    else exit while loop;  
end while  
for  $\pi_*^S = \{Q_0, \dots, Q_{\ell}\}$  replace  
every value in  $Q_i$  by  $i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq \ell$ .
```

$d_\beta(\pi_A, \pi_*^S)$ as a function of $|S|$



78% of the total time is spent on decreasing the distance by the last 1%

$$d_\beta(\pi_A, \pi_*^S) = \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_A | \pi_*^S) + \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_*^S | \pi_A)$$

If $S \subseteq S'$ then $\pi^S \geq \pi^{S'}$ and

$$\mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_A | \pi_*^S) \geq \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_A | \pi_*^{S'})$$

$$\mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_*^S | \pi_A) \leq \mathcal{H}_\beta(\pi_*^{S'} | \pi_A).$$

Process starts with $S = \emptyset$, so $\pi_*^S = \omega$.

Practical halting criterion:

$$|d - d_\beta(\pi_A, \pi_*^{S \cup \{t\}})| > 0.01d.$$

Experimental Results

- Accuracy measured in stratified 10-fold cross-validation
- UCI datasets with $\beta \in \{1.5, 1.8, 1.9, 2\}$

Experimental Results - I

heart-c:

Method	Size	Leaves	Accuracy
standard	51	30	79.20
$\beta = 1.5$	20	14	77.36
$\beta = 1.8$	28	18	77.36
$\beta = 1.9$	35	22	76.01
$\beta = 2.0$	54	32	76.01

glass:

standard	57	30	57.28
$\beta = 1.5$	32	24	71.02
$\beta = 1.8$	56	50	77.10
$\beta = 1.9$	64	58	67.57
$\beta = 2.0$	92	82	66.35

Experimental Results - II

ionosphere:

standard	35	18	90.88
$\beta = 1.5$	15	8	95.44
$\beta = 1.8$	19	12	88.31
$\beta = 1.9$	15	10	90.02
$\beta = 2.0$	15	10	90.02

iris:

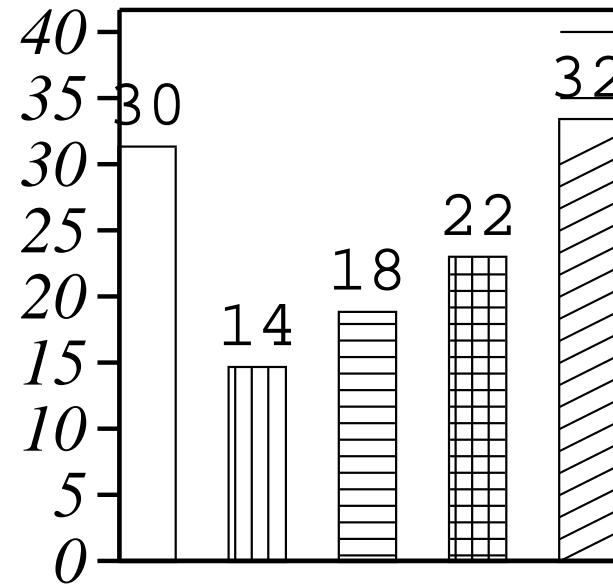
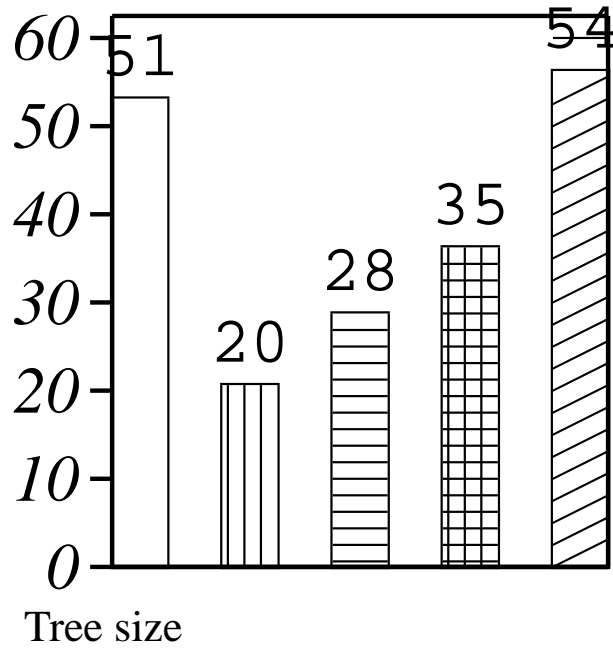
standard	9	5	95.33
$\beta = 1.5$	7	5	96
$\beta = 1.8$	7	5	96
$\beta = 1.9$	7	5	96
$\beta = 2.0$	7	5	96

Experimental Results - III

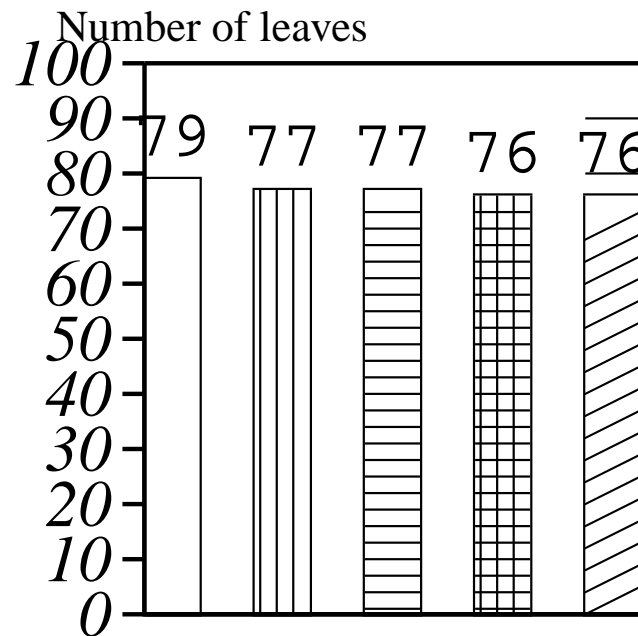
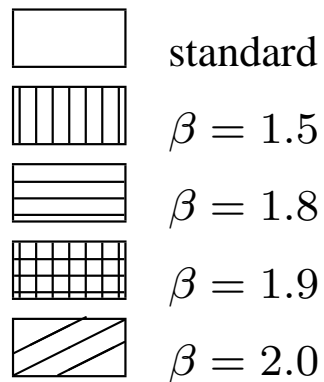
diabetes:

standard	43	22	74.08
$\beta = 1.8$	5	3	75.78
$\beta = 1.9$	7	4	75.39
$\beta = 2.0$	14	10	76.30

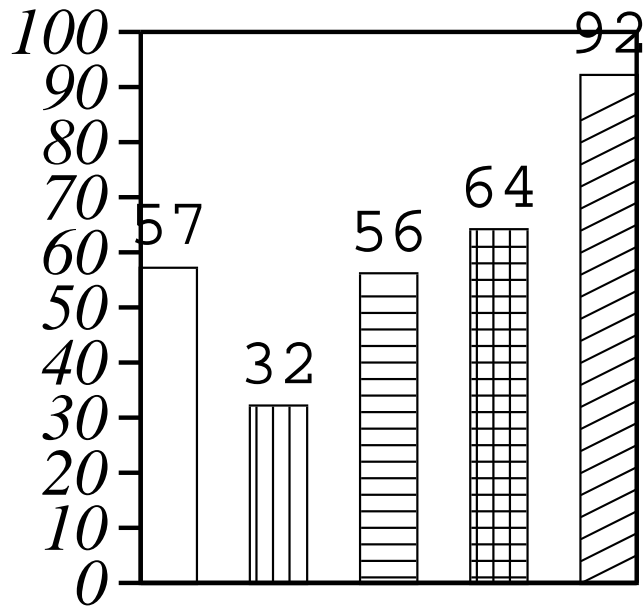
Heart-c



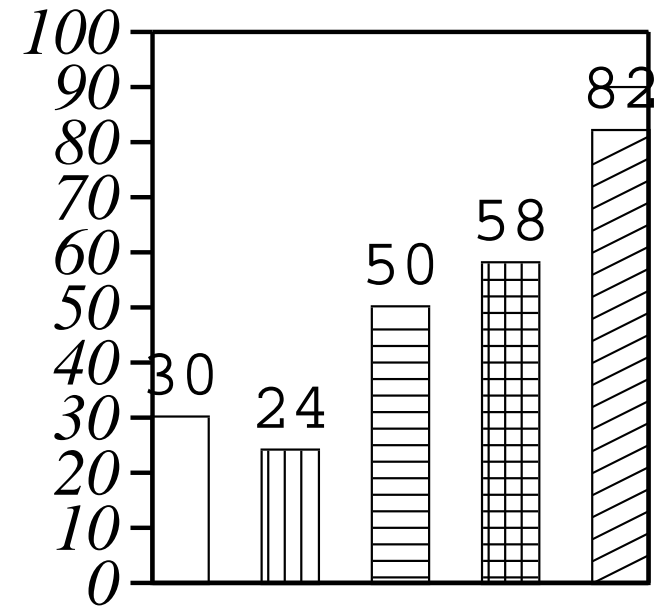
Accuracy



Glass

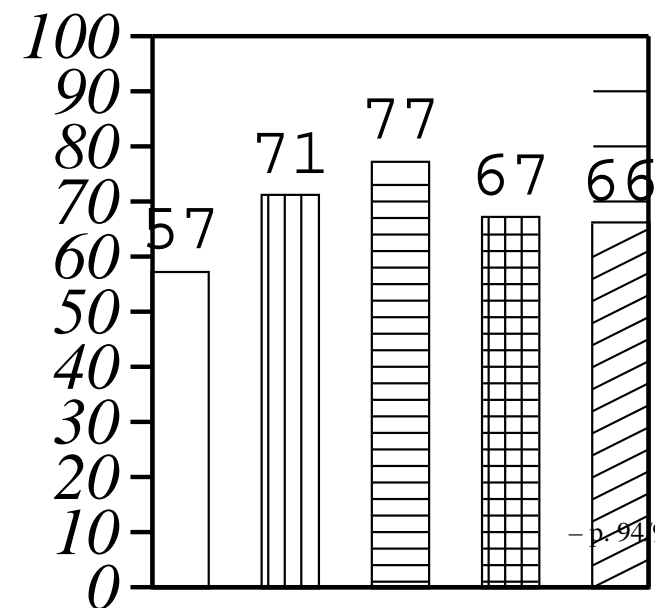
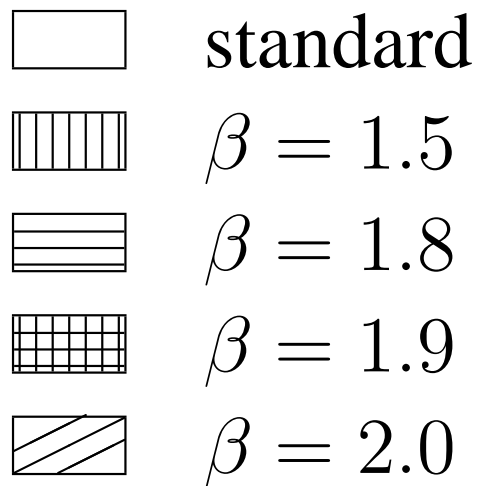


Tree size



Number of leaves

Accuracy



Naive Bayes Classifiers

Error Rate

Discretization Method	Diabetes	Glass	Ionosphere	Iris
$\beta = 1.5$	34.9	25.2	4.8	2.7
$\beta = 1.8$	24.2	22.4	8.3	4
$\beta = 1.9$	24.9	23.4	8.5	4
$\beta = 2.0$	25.4	24.3	9.1	4.7
weighted prop	25.5	38.4	10.3	6.9
prop.	26.3	33.6	10.4	7.5

An appropriate choice of β that defines the metric used in discretization, yields better classifiers (decision trees and naive Bayes)

Open issues:

- identifying simple parameters of data sets that inform the best choice of β ;
- metric discretization for data with missing values.

Future Directions of Work

- The metric space of attributes can be used to cluster attributes.
 - Similar attribute are grouped in clusters, that may have biological significance.
 - Retaining one attribute per cluster (e.g., the centroid) allows for data compression and for simplification of decision techniques.
- Study dynamic properties of clusterings.
- Classification of complex objects (that include graphs, histograms as components).
- Using wavelet transforms for studying total orderings on archeological data.