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Relevant attribute discovery in high dimensional data based on rough sets and unsupervised classification: Application to Leukemia gene expressions.

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Abstract. A pipelined approach using two clustering algorithms in combination with Rough Sets is investigated for the purpose discovering important combination of attributes in high dimensional data. In many domains, the data objects are described in terms of a large number of features, like in gene expression experiments, or in samples characterized by spectral information. The Leader and several k-means algorithms are used as fast procedures for attribute set simplification of the information systems presented to the rough sets algorithms. The data submatrices described in terms of these features are then discretized w.r.t the decision attribute according to different rough set based schemes. From them, the reducts and their derived rules are extracted, which are applied to test data in order to evaluate the resulting classification accuracy. An exploration of this approach (using Leukemia gene expression data) was conducted in a series of experiments within a high-throughput distributed-computing environment. They led to subsets of genes with high discrimination power. Good results were obtained with no preprocessing applied to the data.

1 Introduction

As a consequence of the information explosion and the development of sensor and observation technologies, it is now common in many domains to have data objects characterized by an increasingly larger number of attributes, leading to high dimensional databases in terms of the set of fields. A typical example is a gene expression experiment, where the genetic content of samples of tissues are obtained with high throughput technologies (microchips). Usually, thousands of genes are investigated in such experiments. In other bio-medical research contexts, the samples are characterized by infrared, ultraviolet, and other kinds of spectra, where the absorbtion properties, with respect to a large number of wavelengths, are investigated. The same situation occurs in other domains, and the common denominator is to have a set of data objects of a very high dimensional nature.

This paper investigates one, of the possibly many approaches to the problem of finding relevant attributes in high dimensional datasets. The approach is based on a combination of clustering and rough sets techniques in a high throughput distributed

computing environment, with low dimensional virtual reality data representations aiding data analysis understanding. The goals are: *i)* to investigate the behavior of the combination of these techniques into a knowledge discovery process, and *ii)* to perform preliminary comparisons of the experimental results from the point of view of the discovered relevant attributes, applied to the example problem of finding relevant genes.

2 Experimental Methodology

2.1 Clustering methods

Clustering with classical partition methods constructs crisp (non overlapping) subpopulations of objects or attributes. Two such classical algorithms were used in this study: the Leader algorithm [10], and several variants of k-means [1].

The leader algorithm operates with a dissimilarity or similarity measure and a preset threshold. A single pass is made through the data objects, assigning each object to the first cluster whose leader (i.e. representative) is close enough to the current object w.r.t. the specified measure and threshold. If no such matching leader is found, then the algorithm will set the current object to be a new leader; forming a new cluster. This technique is fast; however, it has several negative properties. For example, *i)* the first data object always defines a cluster and therefore, appears as a leader, *ii)* the partition formed is not invariant under a permutation of the data objects, and *iii)* the algorithm is biased, as the first clusters tend to be larger than the later ones since they get first chance at "absorbing" each object as it is allocated. Variants of this algorithm with the purpose of reducing bias include: *a)* reversing the order of presentation of a data object to the list of currently formed leaders, and *b)* selecting the absolute best leader found (thus making the object presentation order irrelevant).

The k-means algorithm is actually a family of techniques, where a dissimilarity or similarity measure is supplied, together with an initial partition of the data (e.g. initial partition strategies include: random, the first k objects, k-seed elements, etc). The goal is to alter cluster membership so as to obtain a better partition w.r.t. the measure. Different variants very often give different partition results. However, in papers dealing with gene expression analysis, very seldom are the specificities of the k-means algorithm described. For the purposes of this study, the following k-means variants were used: Forgy's, Jancey's, convergent, and MacQueen's [1].

The classical Forgy's k-means algorithm consists of the following steps: *i)* begin with any desired initial configuration. Go to *ii)* if beginning with a set of seed objects, or go to *iii)* if beginning with a partition of the dataset. *ii)* allocate each object to the cluster with the nearest (most similar) seed object (centroid). The seed objects remain fixed for a full cycle through the entire dataset. *iii)* Compute new centroids of the clusters. *iv)* alternate *ii)* and *iii)* until the process converges (that is, until no objects change their cluster membership). In Jancey's variant, the first set of cluster seed objects is either given or computed as the centroids of clusters in the initial partition. At all succeeding stages each new seed point is found by reflecting the old one through the new centroid for the cluster. MacQueen's method is composed of the following steps: *i)* take the first k data units as clusters of one member each. *ii)* assign each of the remaining objects to

the cluster with the nearest (most similar) centroid. After each assignment, recompute the centroid of the gaining cluster. *iii)* after all objects have been assigned in step *ii)*, take the existing cluster centroids as fixed points and make one more pass through the dataset assigned each object to the nearest (most similar) seed object. A so called convergent k-means is defined by the following steps: *i)* begin with an initial partition like in Forgy's and Jancey's methods (or the output of MacQueen's method). *ii)* take each object in sequence and compute the distances (similarities) to all cluster centroids; if the nearest (most similar) is not that of the object's parent cluster, reassign the object and update the centroids of the losing and gaining clusters. *iii)* repeat steps *ii)* and *iii)* until convergence is achieved (that is, until there is no change in cluster membership).

The leader and the k-means algorithms were used with a similarity measure rather than with a distance. In particular Gower's general coefficient was used [9], where the similarity between objects i and j is given by $S_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} s_{ijk} / \sum_{k=1}^{p} w_{ijk}$ where the weight of the attribute (w_{ijk}) is set equal to 0 or 1 depending on whether the comparison is considered valid for attribute k. For quantitative attributes (like the ones of the dataset used in the paper), the scores s_{ijk} are assigned as $s_{ijk} = 1 - |X_{ik} - X_{jk}|/R_k$, where X_{ik} is the value of attribute k for object i (similarly for object j), and R_k is the range of attribute k.

2.2 Rough Sets

The Rough Set Theory [12] bears on the assumption that in order to define a set, some knowledge about the elements of the data set is needed. This is in contrast to the classical approach where a set is uniquely defined by its elements. In the Rough Set Theory, some elements may be indiscernible from the point of view of the available information and it turns out that vagueness and uncertainty are strongly related to indiscernibility. Within this theory, knowledge is understood to be the ability of characterizing all classes of the classification. More specifically, an information system is a pair $\mathbf{A} = (U, A)$ where U is a non-empty finite set called the universe and A is a non-empty finite set of attributes such that $a : U \rightarrow V_a$ for every $a \in A$. The set V_a is called the value set of a. For example, a decision table is any information system of the form $\mathbf{A} = (U, A \cup \{d\})$, where $d \in A$ is the decision attribute and the elements of A are the condition attributes. For any $B \subseteq A$ an equivalence relation $IND(B)$ defined as $IND(B) = \{(x, x^{'}) \in U^2 | \forall a \in B, a(x) = a(x^{'})\}$, is associated. In the Rough Set Theory a pair of precise concepts (called lower and upper approximations) replaces each vague concept; the lower approximation of a concept consists of all objects, which surely belong to the concept, whereas the upper approximation of the concept consists of all objects, which possibly belong to the concept. A *reduct* is a minimal set of attributes $B \subseteq A$ such that $IND(B) = IND(A)$ (i.e. a minimal attribute subset that preserves the partitioning of the universe). The set of all reducts of an information system $\mathbf{A}$ is denoted $RED(A)$. Reduction of knowledge consists of removing superfluous partitions such that the set of elementary categories in the information system is preserved, in particular, w.r.t. those categories induced by the decision attribute. In particular, minimum reducts (those with a small number of attributes), are extremely important, as decision rules can be constructed from them [2]. However, the problem of reduct computation is NP-hard, and several heuristics have been proposed [18].

2.3 Experimental Methodology

The datasets consist of information systems with an attribute set composed of ratio and interval variables, and a nominal or ordinal decision attribute. More general information systems have been described in [16]. The general idea is to construct subsets of relatively similar attributes, such that a simplified representation of the data objects is obtained by using the corresponding attribute subset representatives. The attributes of these simplified information systems are explored from the point of view of their reducts. From them, rules are learned and applied systematically to testing data subsets not involved in the learning process (Fig-1). The whole procedure can be seen as a pipeline.

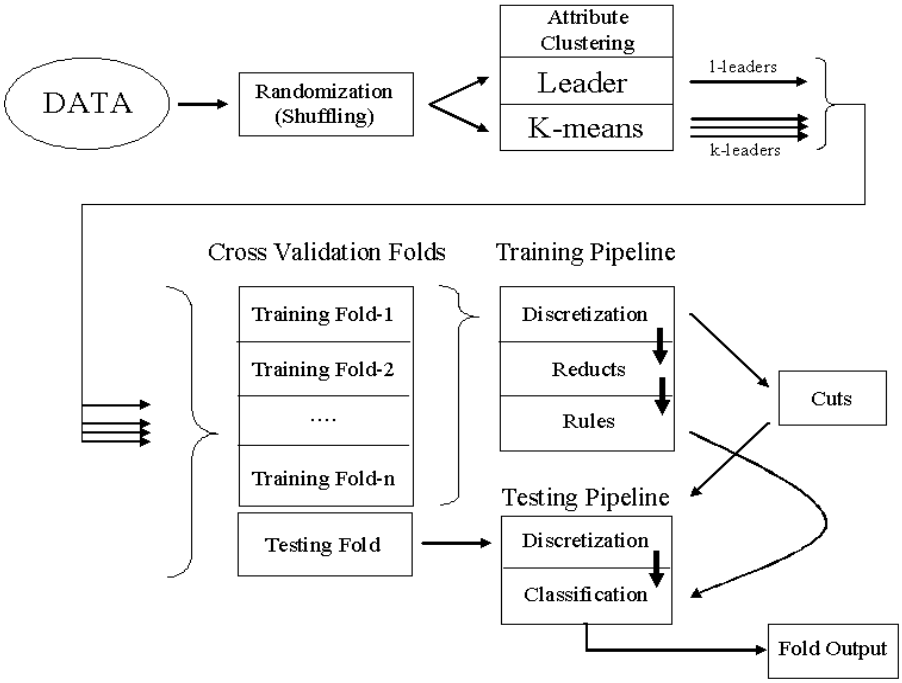

Fig. 1. Data processing strategy combining clustering with Rough Sets analysis and crossvalidation.

In a first step, the objects in the dataset are shuffled using a randomized approach in order to reduce the possible biases introduced within the learning process by data chunks sharing the same decision attribute. Then, the attributes of the shuffled dataset are clustered using the two families of fast clustering algorithms described in previous sections (the leader, and k-means). Each of the formed clusters of attributes is represented by exactly one of the original data attributes. By the nature of the leader algorithm, the representative is the leader (called an *l-leader*), whereas for a k-means

algorithm, a cluster is represented by the most similar object w.r.t. the centroid of the corresponding cluster (called a *k-leader*). This operation can be seen as a filtering of the attribute set of the original information system. As a next step, the filtered information system undergoes a segmentation with the purpose of learning classification rules, and testing their generalization ability in a cross-validation framework. N-folds are used as training sets; where the numeric attributes present are converted into nominal attributes via a discretization process (many possibilities exist), and from them, reducts are constructed. Finally, classification rules are built from the reducts, and applied to a discretized version of the test fold (according to the cuts obtained previously), from which the generalization ability of the generated rules can be evaluated. Besides the numeric descriptors associated with the application of classification rules to data, use of visual data mining techniques, like the virtual reality representation (section 2.4), enables structural understanding of the data described in terms of the selected subset of attributes and/or the rules learned from them. Each stage feeds its results to the next stage of processing, yielding a pipelined data analysis stream.

2.4 Virtual Reality Representation Of Relational Structures

A virtual reality, visual, data mining technique extending the concept of 3D modelling to relational structures was introduced in http://www.hybridstrategies.com and [15]. It is oriented to the understanding of *i)* large heterogeneous, incomplete and imprecise data, and *ii)* symbolic knowledge. The notion of data is not restricted to databases, but includes logical relations and other forms of both structured and non-structured knowledge. In this approach, the data objects are considered as tuples from a heterogeneous space [16], given by a Cartesian product of different source sets like: nominal, ordinal, real-valued, fuzzy-valued, image-valued, time-series-valued, graph-valued, etc. A set of relations of different arities may be defined over these objects. The construction of a VR-space requires the specification of several sets and a collection of extra mappings, which may be defined in infinitely many ways. A desideratum for the VR-space is to keep as many properties from the original space as possible, in particular, the similarity structure of the data [4]. In this sense, the objective of the mapping is to maximize some metric/non-metric structure preservation criteria [13], or minimize some measure of information loss. In a supervised approach, when a decision attribute is used explicitly, measures of class separability can be used for constructing virtual reality spaces with nonlinear features maximizing the differentiation of the data objects from the point of view of the classes of the decision attribute. This technique was used as a visual data mining aid for the interpretation of the datasets described only in terms of the subsets of attributes resulting from the data processing pipelines.

2.5 Implementation

A detailed perspective of data mining procedures provides insight into additional important issues to consider (e.g. storage/memory/communication/management/time/etc) when evaluating a computational methodology; consisting of combined techniques. This study presents one possible implementation, from which more software development may occur in order to integrate better and/or different tools. In addition, all of

these issues become even more pronounced when, as in this study, a complex problem is investigated.

The implementation is in the paradigm of a high throughput pipeline (Fig-2) consisting of many co-operating programs, which was automatically generated. The file generation program (written in Python and running on the local host) created a pipeline oriented towards Condor (http://www.cs.wisc.edu/condor/), a distributed computing environment developed by the Condor Research Project at the University of Wisconsin-Madison (UW-Madison). Condor is a specialized workload management system for compute-intensive jobs. Like other full-featured batch systems, Condor provides a job queueing mechanism, scheduling policy, priority scheme, resource monitoring, and resource management.

The initial preprocessing stage of the pipe, occurring on the local host after generation of files, involves shuffling the input data records as described previously and in Fig-1. The shuffled data is stored on the local host's disk, in order to provide the same randomized data to the next stage of processing, which occurs on the remote hosts (Fig-2).

A Condor submission program, which was also automatically generated, is used to specify all of the data and configuration files for the programs that will execute on the remote host. The submission process enables Condor to *i)* schedule jobs for execution, *ii)* check point them (put a job on hold), *iii)* transfer all data to the remote host, and *iv)* transfer all generated data back to the local host (submitting machine).

The final postprocessing stage of the pipe involves collecting all of the results (parsing the files) and reporting them in a database. These results may then be queried and visualized using a high dimensional visualization system (as described in the VR section above) for the purpose of aiding results interpretation.

3 Experimental Settings

3.1 Leukemia Gene Expression Data

The example high dimensional dataset selected is that of [8], and consists of 7129 genes where patients are separated into i) a training set containing 38 bone marrow samples: 27 acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) and 11 acute myeloid leukemia (AML), obtained from patients at the time of diagnosis, and ii) a testing set containing 34 samples (24 bone marrow and 10 peripheral blood samples), where 20 are ALL and 14 AML. Note that, the test set contains a much broader range of biological samples, including those from peripheral blood rather than bone marrow, from childhood AML patients, and from different reference laboratories that used different sample preparation protocols. Further, the dataset is known to have two types of ALL, namely B-cell and T-cell. For the purposes of investigation, only the AML and ALL distinction was made. The dataset distributed by [8] contains preprocessed intensity values, which were obtained by re-scaling such that overall intensities for each chip are equivalent (A linear regression model using all genes was fit to the data). In this paper no explicit preprocessing of the data was performed, in order to not introduce bias and to be able to expose the behavior of the data processing strategy, the methods used, and their robustness. That

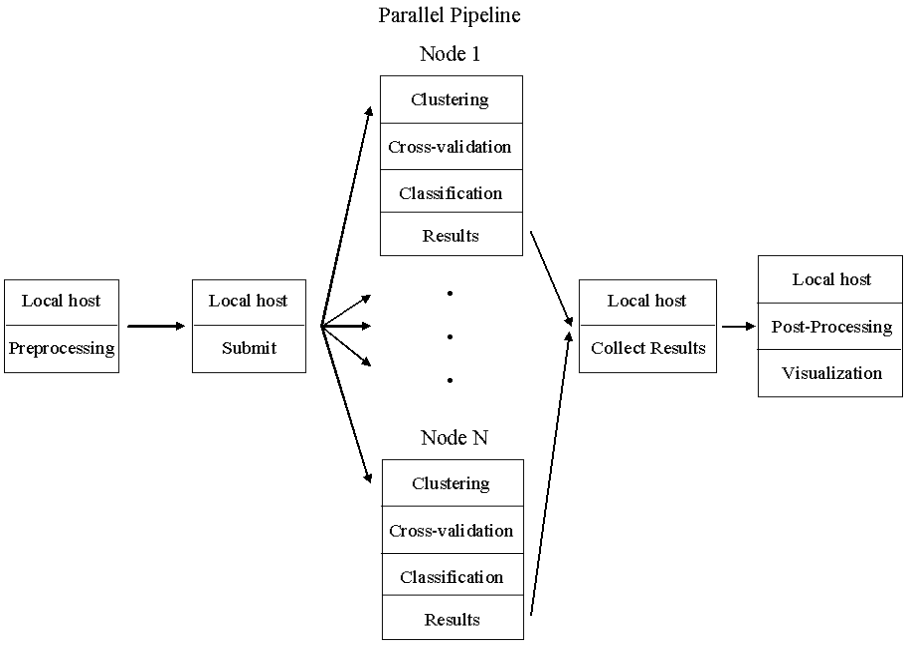

Fig. 2. Automatically generated high throughput pipeline oriented towards the Condor distributed computing environment.

is, no background subtraction, deletions, filtering, or averaging of samples/genes were applied, as it is typically done in gene expression experiments.

3.2 Settings

The pipeline (Fig-1) was investigated through the generation of 480 k-leader and 160 l-leader for a total of 640 experiments (Table-1).

The discretization, reduct computation and rule generation algorithms are those included in the Rosetta system [11]. This approach leads to the generation of 74 files per experiment, with 10-fold cross-validation.

4 Results

From the experiments completed so far, one was chosen which illustrates the kind of results obtained with the explored methodology. It corresponds to a leader clustering algorithm with a similarity threshold of 0.99 (leading to 766 l-leader attributes), used as input to the data processing pipeline containing 38 samples. The results of the best 10 fold cross-validated experiment has a mean accuracy of 0.925 and a standard deviation of 0.168. This experiment led to 766 reducts (all of them singleton attributes), which was consistent across each of the 10 folds. The obtained classification accuracy represents a slight improvement over those results reported in [17] (0.912). It was conjectured

Algorithm/Parameter	Values
Leader	ReverseSearch, ClosestSearch
Leader Similarity Threshold	0.7, 0.8, 0.9, 0.95, 0.99, 0.999, 0.9999, 0.99999
K-Means	Forgy, Jancey, Convergent, MacQueen
Cross-validation	10 folds
Discretization	BROrthogonalScaler, EntropyScaler, NaiveScaler, SemiNaiveScaler
Reduct Computation	JohnsonReducer, Holte1RReducer
Rule Generation	RSESRuleGenerator

Table 1. The set of parameters and values used in the experiments using the distributed pipeline environment.

in that study that the introduction of a cross-validated methodology could improve the obtained classification accuracies, which is indeed the case. It is interesting to observe that all of the 7 relevant attributes (genes) reported in [17] are contained (subsumed) within the single experiment mentioned above. Moreover, they were collectively found using both the leader and k-means algorithms, with different dissimilarity thresholds and number of clusters, whereas with the present approach, a single leader clustering input was required to get the better result. Among the relevant attributes (genes) obtained, many coincide with those reported by [8], [7], and [17].

At a post-processing stage, a virtual reality representation of the above mentioned experiment is shown in Fig-3. Due to the limitations of representing an interactive virtual world on static media, a snapshot from an appropriate perspective is presented. Sammon's error [13] was used as criteria for computing the virtual reality space, and also Gower's similarity was used for characterizing the data in the space of the 766 selected genes. After 200 iterations a satisfactory error level of 0.0998 was obtained. It is interesting to see that the ALL and AML classes can be clearly differentiated.

5 Conclusions

Good results were obtained with the proposed high throughput pipeline based on the combination of clustering and rough sets techniques for the discovery of relevant attributes in high dimensional data. In particular, the introduction of a fast attribute reduction procedure aided rough set reduct discovery in terms of computational time, of which the former is further improvable via its amenability for parallel and distributed computing. Cross-validated experiments using Leukemia gene expression data demonstrates the possibilities of the proposed approach. More thorough studies are required to correctly evaluate the impact of the experimental settings on the data mining effectivity. Visual exploration of the results (when focusing on selected genes) was very useful for understanding the properties of the pipeline outputs, and the relationships between the discovered attributes and the class structure. Further experiments with this approach are necessary.

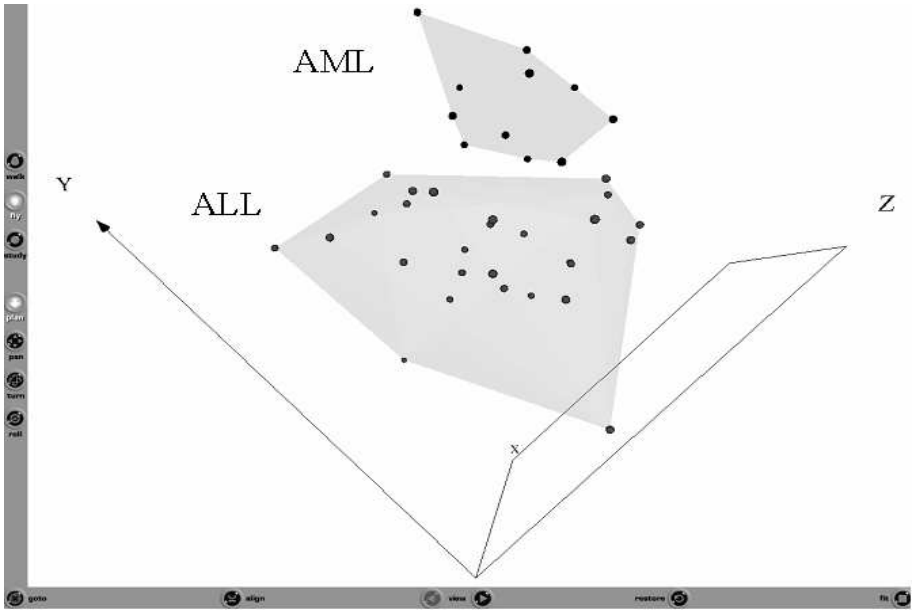

Fig. 3. Snapshot of the Virtual Reality representation of the union of all of the reducts obtained from 10 fold cross-validation input (38 samples with 766 genes). The leader clustering algorithm was used with a similarity threshold of 0.99. The ALL and the AML classes are perfectly separated. Representation error = 0.0998.

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