# Grouping Objects by Linear Pattern 

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## Outline

- Grouping by linear patterns
- Our basic building block (LGA)
- The number of random starting points
- The number of groups
- The generalized LGA (GLGA)
- Application to Biology (Allometry data)
- Application to sport (hockey data)
- Application to Genomics (SNP data)


## Clustering Goals

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> Homogeneous subgroups in a dataset
> Interesting patterns in a dataset

## Clustering Algorithms

## Clustering algorithms are effective when the clusters are

 separated groups of points

## But some patterns cannot be found this way ...



## Tilted Pi Pattern



Our Goal

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> To find groups clustered around hyperplanes of different dimensions

$$
0 \leq l_{i} \leq d-1 \quad i=1,2, \ldots, N
$$

## Example $d=3$ and $N=3$



- $l_{1}=1 \quad$ points clustering around a line.
- $l_{2}=0 \quad$ points clustering around a point.
- $l_{3}=2 \quad$ points clustering around plane.


## Formulating the Problem

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- In general, a d - j dimensional hyperplane $(\mathrm{j} \leq \mathrm{d})$ is given by the equation

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- $A$ is an orthogonal $\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{d}$ matrix
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- $A$ is an orthogonal $\mathbf{j} \times \mathrm{d}$ matrix
- $B$ is a j -dimensional vector.
- Therefore we search for N groups with "central hyperplanes"

$$
\left(\mathbf{A}_{1}, \mathbf{B}_{1}\right),\left(\mathbf{A}_{2}, \mathbf{B}_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{N}}, \mathbf{B}_{\mathbf{N}}\right)
$$

## Generalized LGA

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G L G A=L G A+G A P
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- LGA finds the "best" partition of the data around $\mathbf{k}$ hyperplanes of dimension d-1.
- GAP sequentially considers the possibility of increasing the number of clusters by one and stops when the addition of a cluster doesn't provide a significant improvement.


## Simple Example

$$
d=2 \text { and } N=3
$$



Finding 1-d Hyperplanes (Lines)


## Projecting on the Lines and Finding 0-d Hyperplanes (Points)



The Final Result


## The Basic LGA

Goal: to find k groups around hyperplanes of dimension d-1

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## Some proposed methods to find linear groups:

- Murtagh and Raftery (1984)
- Gawrysiak et al. (2000)
- Spath $(1982,1985)$
- Desarbo, Oliver and Rangaswamy (1989)
- Wedel and Kistemaker (1989)
- Kamgar-Parsi, Kamgar-Parsi and Wechsler (1990)
- Gawrysiak, Okoniewski and Rybinski (2000)


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These methods assume a specified output variable.

## Unsupervised Learning Setup

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> Unsupervised learning is characterized by the absence of a specified output variable.
> Moreover, different linear groups may involve different subsets of variables.

## Example



Response Variable $=Y$


## Response Variable = Z



## Orthogonal Regression

## Linear Residual = Vertical distance

Orthogonal Regression

## Linear Residual = Vertical distance

## Orthogonal Residual = Euclidean distance

## Orthogonal Residuals



## Orthogonal Regression

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Given $z_{1}, z_{2}, \ldots, z_{n}$ in $R^{d}$, the fitting $(d-1)$-dimensional hyperplane

$$
(\hat{\alpha}, \beta)=\left\{z: \hat{\alpha}^{\prime} z=\hat{\beta},\|\hat{\alpha}\|=1\right\}
$$

is defined as the solution to the problem:

Minimize $_{\|\alpha\|=1, \beta} \sum\left(\alpha^{\prime} z_{i}-\beta\right)^{2}$

## Orthogonal Regression

$$
\begin{gathered}
\bar{z}=\frac{1}{n} \sum z_{i} \quad \text { (Sample Mean) } \\
S=\frac{1}{n} \sum\left(z_{i}-\bar{z}\right)\left(z_{i}-\bar{z}\right)^{\prime} \quad \text { (Sample Covariance) }
\end{gathered}
$$

The OR estimates are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\alpha}=\text { normalized first eigenvector of } \mathbf{S} \\
& \hat{\beta}=\hat{\alpha}^{\prime} \bar{z}
\end{aligned}
$$

The LGA Algorithm

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OUTPUT: The "best partition" of the dataset into k groups centered around hyperplanes of dimension $d-1$

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3) Computing $k$ Hyperplanes: New hyperplanes are computed applying orthogonal regression to each group.
4) Steps 2) and 3) are repeated several times

## The Number of Random Starts

$$
\begin{aligned}
p & =\frac{\binom{n_{1}}{d}\binom{n_{2}}{d} \cdots\binom{n_{k}}{d}}{\binom{n_{1}+n_{2}+\cdots n_{k}}{d k}} \\
0.95 & =1-(1-p)^{m} \\
m & =\frac{\log (0.05)}{\log (1-p)}
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Number of Random Starts

Table 1: Number of random starts for $95 \%$ probability of at least one good subset.

|  | $k=2$ |  | $k=3$ |  | $k=4$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $1: 1$ | $1: 2$ | $1: 1: 1$ | $1: 2: 3$ | $1: 1: 1: 1$ | $1: 2: 3: 4$ |
| 2 | $7(7)$ | $9(10)$ | $23(24)$ | $42(43)$ | $73(77)$ | $201(206)$ |
| 3 | $9(9)$ | $13(13)$ | $34(35)$ | $82(83)$ | $127(135)$ | $580(586)$ |
| 4 | $10(10)$ | $17(17)$ | $44(45)$ | $145(145)$ | $187(203)$ | $1462(1431)$ |
| 5 | $11(12)$ | $52(51)$ | $53(56)$ | $244(239)$ | $253(280)$ | $3446(3207)$ |

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The needed number m of random starts depends on:

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- The the number k of groups,
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- The dimension d of the data.
- m doesnt depend much on the data size, n.


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- $k$ may be suggested by additional subject field information (species, gender, location, etc.)
- Finding the number of groups may be the most important goal of the research


## Graphical Approach

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- Mainly helpful for 2 or 3 dimensional data
- Eyes may fail to identify linear patterns in heavily overlapping regions


## Graphical Approach



Figure 4: The height and volume of young and old trees.

## The GAP Statistic

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The (modified) GAP statistic for linear grouping is obtained by replacing "distance to the center" by "distance to the hyperplane".

## The GAP Statistic (continued)

$$
G A P(k)=\left[\frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \log \left(S S R_{k}(b)\right)\right]-\log \left(S S R_{k}\right)
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$S_{k+1}=$ Standard Deviation of $\log \left(S S R_{k+1}(b)\right)$

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Grouping according to different linear patterns is necessary.
Biologists make manual assignments based on their scientific experience (Jerison 1973).

## Application to Allometry Data



Figure 6: Logarithms of Olfactory Bulb vs. Brain Weight for some mammal species: Insectivores (i), Carnivores (c), Prosimians (p), Apes (a), Monkeys (m), Human (h) and Horse (o).

## Application to Allometry Data

LGA with $k=3$ (Dr. Jerison's hypothesis)


## Application to Allometry Data

## LGA with $k=2$ (GAP result)



## Prof. Jerison

I insectivores, carnivores, horses,
II prosimians (primitive primates)
III anthropoids (monkeys, apes, human)

## LGA with $\mathrm{k}=3$

I insectivores, carnivores, horses,
II prosimians and apes
III monkeys and human

## LGA \& GAP

I insectivores, carnivores, horses, prosimians black
II monkeys, apes and human red

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| Variables | Description |
| :--- | :--- |
| PTS | \# of Goal Scored + \# of Assists |
| P/M | Plus/Minus Rating <br> - team scored, <br>  <br> - oponent team scored <br> PIM$\quad$ Total penalty time (minutes) |
| PP | Total number of power-play goals scored |

> We applied OR-grouping with $\mathrm{k}=3$
> The results:

| Group | PTS | P/M | PIM | PP |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | -0.156 | 0.015 | 0.001 | 0.988 |
| 2 | -0.221 | 0.029 | -0.003 | 0.975 |
| 3 | 0.113 | -0.010 | 0.001 | -0.994 |

## Sharp Shooters - Team Players



Figure 8: Plot of PP versus P'lS for the NHL 94-95 compention with the thee groups detected by LCiA

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- On average, SNPs occur in the human population approximately 1 percent of the time.
- SNPs found within a coding sequence are of particular interest (more likely to alter the biological function of a protein).


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- ROX account for well-to-well differences and for differences in the PCR mastermix.
- ROX dye intensities are assumed unchanged after PCR amplification and hence can be used to normalize the data.


## Call Rate vs ROX



## Plate3 - Raw Data



## Plate3-ROX Normalized Data



## Plate3 - Raw Data - LGA Grouping



## Summary

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Thanks for your attention!

