# Clustering

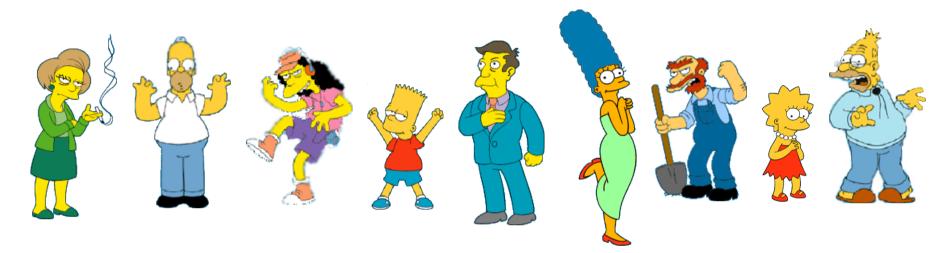
Slides by Eamonn Keogh

# What is Clustering?

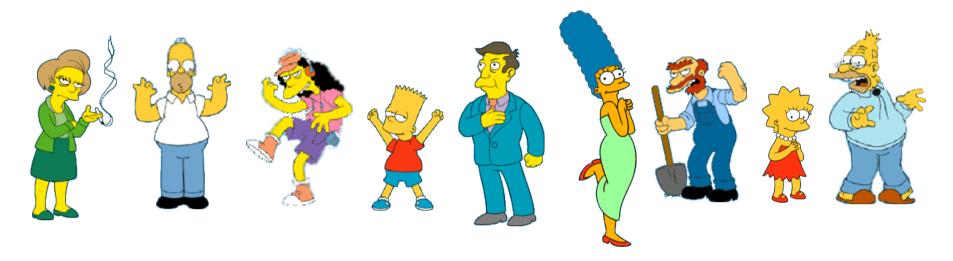
Also called *unsupervised learning*, sometimes called *classification* by statisticians and *sorting* by psychologists and *segmentation* by people in marketing

- Organizing data into classes such that there is
  - high intra-class similarity
  - low inter-class similarity
- Finding the class labels and the number of classes directly from the data (in contrast to classification).
- More informally, finding natural groupings among objects.

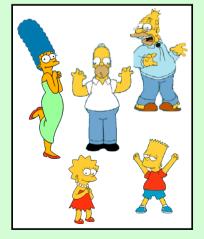
## What is a natural grouping among these objects?



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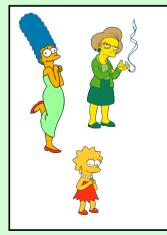
### Clustering is subjective



Simpson's Family



School Employees



Females



Males

## What is Similarity?

The quality or state of being similar; likeness; resemblance; as, a similarity of features. Webster's Dictionary

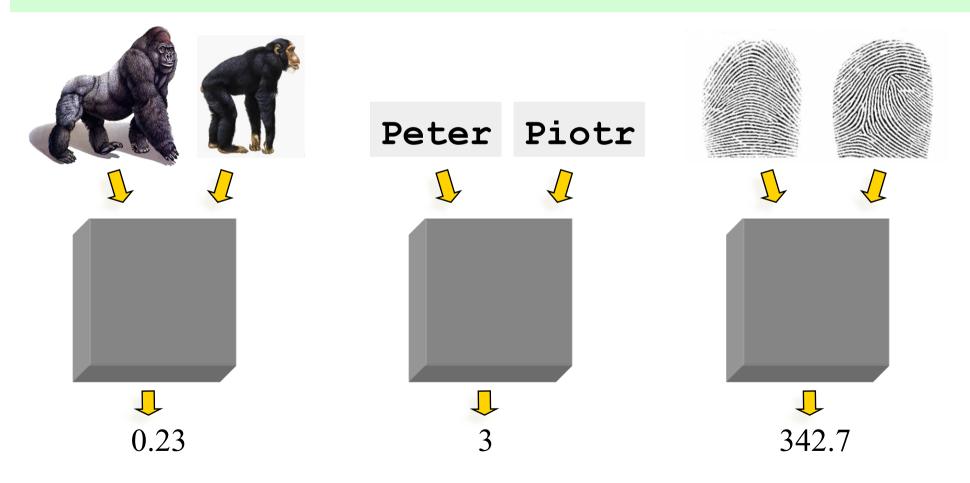


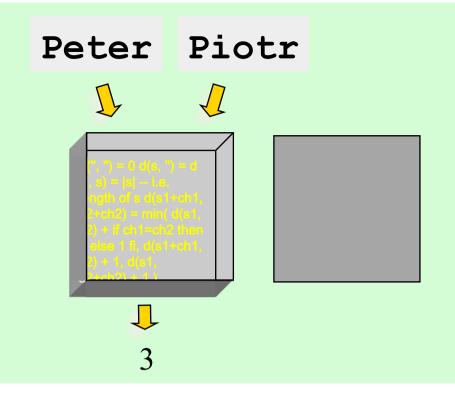
Similarity is hard to define, but... *"We know it when we see it"* 

The real meaning of similarity is a philosophical question. We will take a more pragmatic approach.

## **Defining Distance Measures**

**Definition**: Let  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  be two objects from the universe of possible objects. The distance (dissimilarity) between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  is a real number denoted by  $D(O_1, O_2)$ 





When we peek inside one of these black boxes, we see some function on two variables. These functions might be very simple or very complex. In either case it is natural to ask, what properties should these functions have?

### What properties should a distance measure have?

- D(A,B) = D(B,A)
- D(A,A) = 0
- D(A,B) = 0 If A=B
- $D(A,B) \leq D(A,C) + D(B,C)$

Symmetry

Constancy of Self-Similarity

Positivity (Separation)

Triangular Inequality

# Intuitions behind desirable distance measure properties

D(A,B) = D(B,A) Symmetry Otherwise you could claim "Alex looks like Bob, but Bob looks nothing like Alex."

D(A,A) = 0 Constancy of Self-Similarity Otherwise you could claim "Alex looks more like Bob, than Bob does."

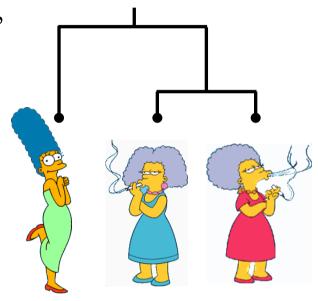
D(A,B) = 0 IIf A = B Positivity (Separation) Otherwise there are objects in your world that are different, but you cannot tell apart.

 $D(A,B) \leq D(A,C) + D(B,C)$  Triangular Inequality Otherwise you could claim "Alex is very like Carl, and Bob is very like Carl, but Alex is very unlike Bob."

### A generic technique for measuring similarity

To measure the similarity between two objects, transform one of the objects into the other, and measure how much effort it took. The measure of effort becomes the distance measure.

The distance between Patty and Selma. Change dress color, 1 point Change earring shape, 1 point Change hair part, 1 point D(Patty,Selma) = 3



#### The distance between Marge and Selma.

Change dress color, 1 point Add earrings, 1 point Decrease height, 1 point Take up smoking, 1 point Lose weight, 1 point

D(Marge, Selma) = 5

This is called the "edit distance" or the "transformation distance"

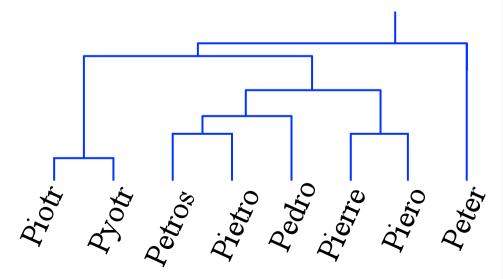
### **Edit Distance Example**

It is possible to transform any string Q into string C, using only *Substitution*, *Insertion* and *Deletion*.

Assume that each of these operators has a cost associated with it.

The similarity between two strings can be defined as the cost of the cheapest transformation from Q to C.

Note that for now we have ignored the issue of how we can find this cheapest transformation

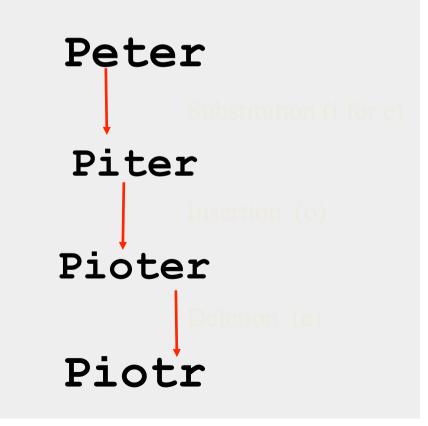


## How similar are the names "Peter" and "Piotr"?

Assume the following cost function

Substitution	1 Unit
Insertion	1 Unit
Deletion	1 Unit

D(Peter, Piotr) is 3

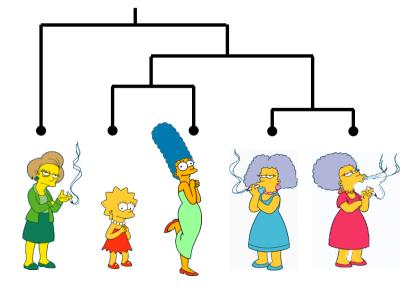


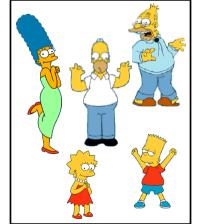
## **Two Types of Clustering**

- **Partitional algorithms:** Construct various partitions and then evaluate them by some criterion
- **Hierarchical algorithms:** Create a hierarchical decomposition of the set of objects using some criterion

### Hierarchical

### **Partitional**





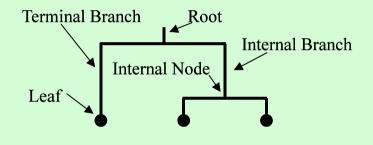


### **Desirable Properties of a Clustering Algorithm**

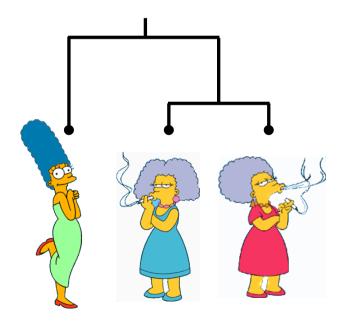
- Scalability (in terms of both time and space)
- Ability to deal with different data types
- Minimal requirements for domain knowledge to determine input parameters
- Able to deal with noise and outliers
- Insensitive to order of input records
- Incorporation of user-specified constraints
- Interpretability and usability

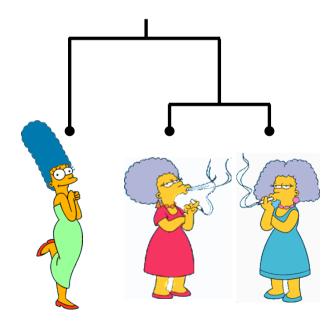
### A Useful Tool for Summarizing Similarity Measurements

In order to better appreciate and evaluate the examples given in the early part of this talk, we will now introduce the *dendrogram*.



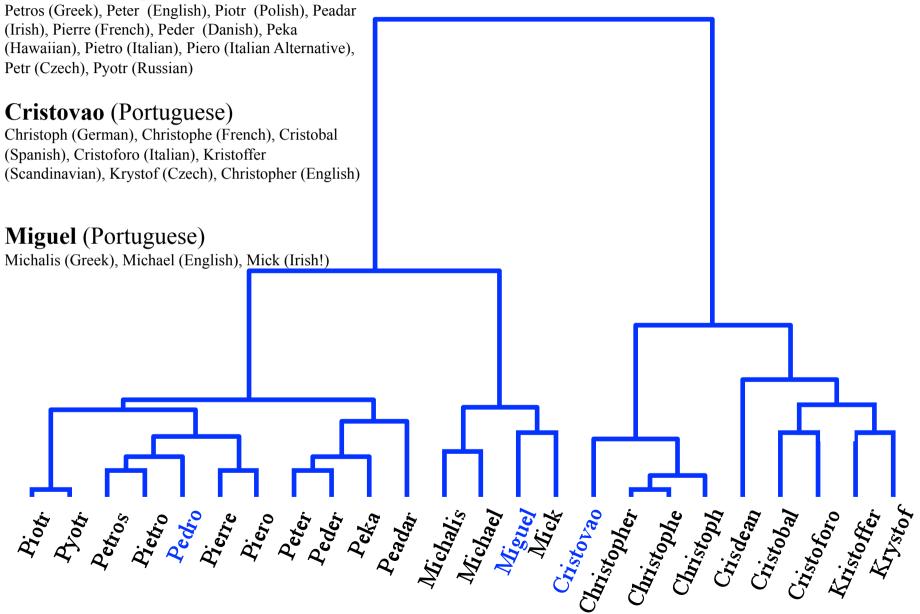
The similarity between two objects in a dendrogram is represented as the height of the lowest internal node they share.





### A Demonstration of Hierarchical Clustering using String Edit Distance

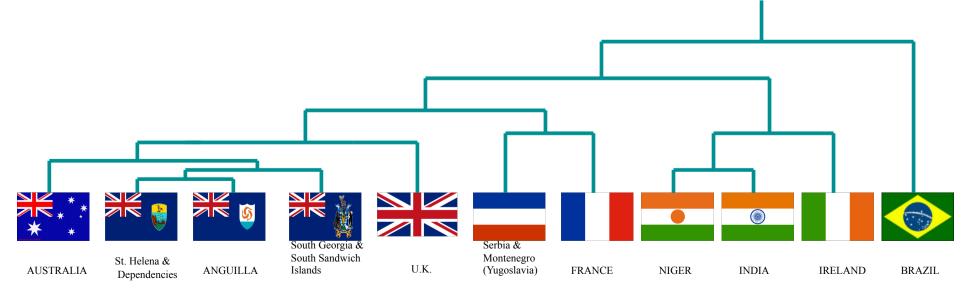
#### Pedro (Portuguese)



# Hierarchal clustering can sometimes show patterns that are meaningless or spurious

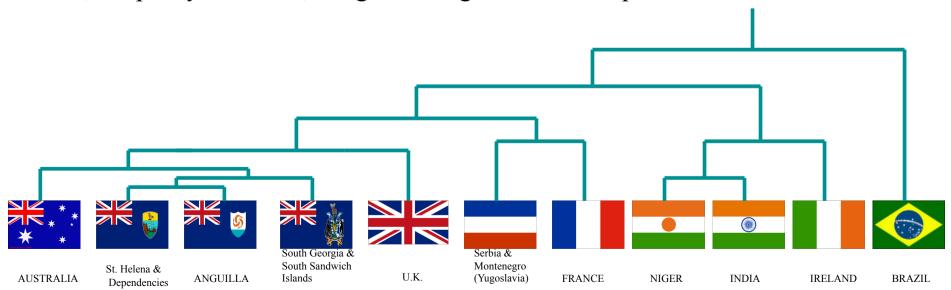
• For example, in this clustering, the tight grouping of Australia, Anguilla, St. Helena etc is meaningful, since all these countries are former UK colonies.

• However the tight grouping of Niger and India is completely spurious, there is no connection between the two.

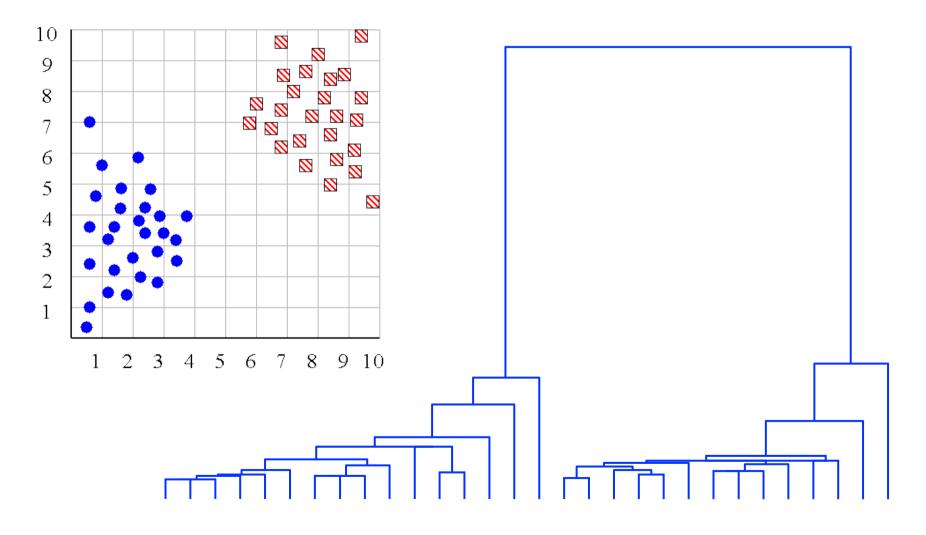


• The flag of Niger is orange over white over green, with an orange disc on the central white stripe, symbolizing the sun. The orange stands the Sahara desert, which borders Niger to the north. Green stands for the grassy plains of the south and west and for the River Niger which sustains them. It also stands for fraternity and hope. White generally symbolizes purity and hope.

• The Indian flag is a horizontal tricolor in equal proportion of deep saffron on the top, white in the middle and dark green at the bottom. In the center of the white band, there is a wheel in navy blue to indicate the Dharma Chakra, the wheel of law in the Sarnath Lion Capital. This center symbol or the 'CHAKRA' is a symbol dating back to 2nd century BC. The saffron stands for courage and sacrifice; the white, for purity and truth; the green for growth and auspiciousness.

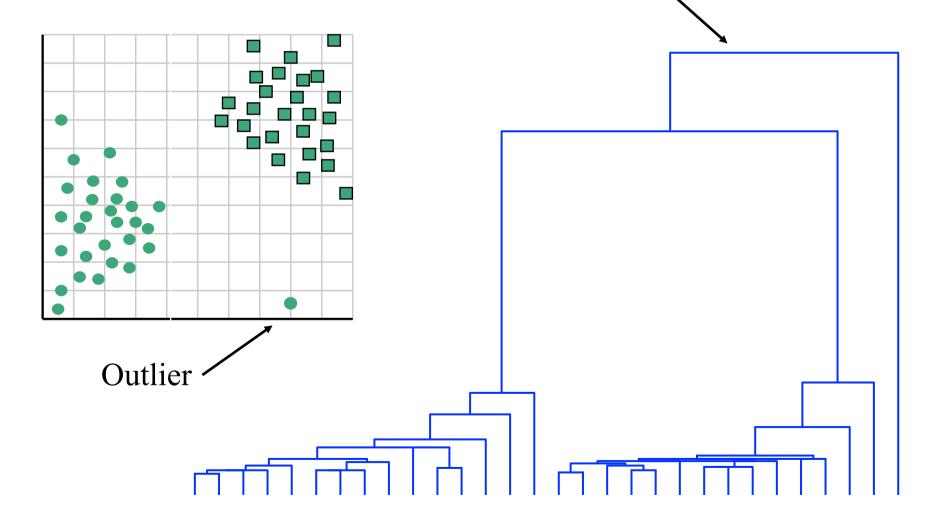


We can look at the dendrogram to determine the "correct" number of clusters. In this case, the two highly separated subtrees are highly suggestive of two clusters. (Things are rarely this clear cut, unfortunately)



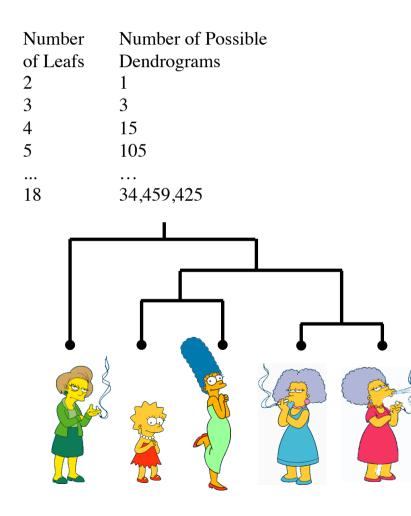
### One potential use of a dendrogram is to detect outliers

The single isolated branch is suggestive of a data point that is very different to all others



## (How-to) Hierarchical Clustering

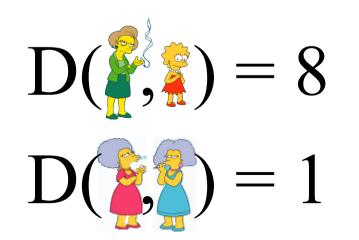
The number of dendrograms with *n* leafs =  $(2n - 3)!/[(2^{(n-2)})(n - 2)!]$ 

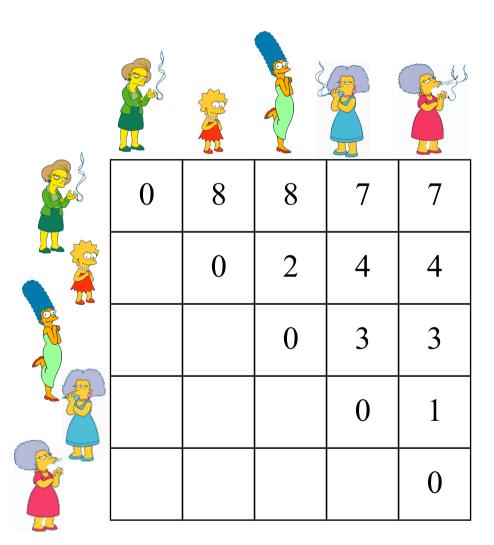


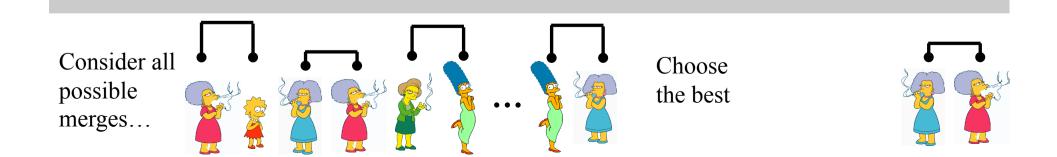
Since we cannot test all possible trees we will have to heuristic search of all possible trees. We could do this..

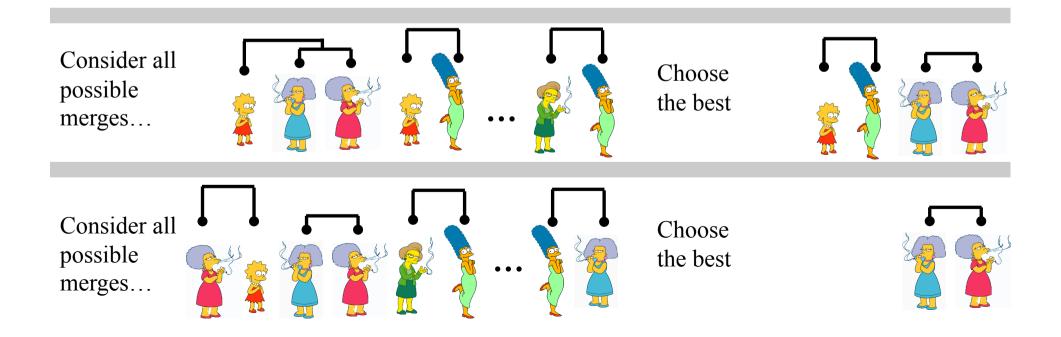
**Bottom-Up (agglomerative):** Starting with each item in its own cluster, find the best pair to merge into a new cluster. Repeat until all clusters are fused together.

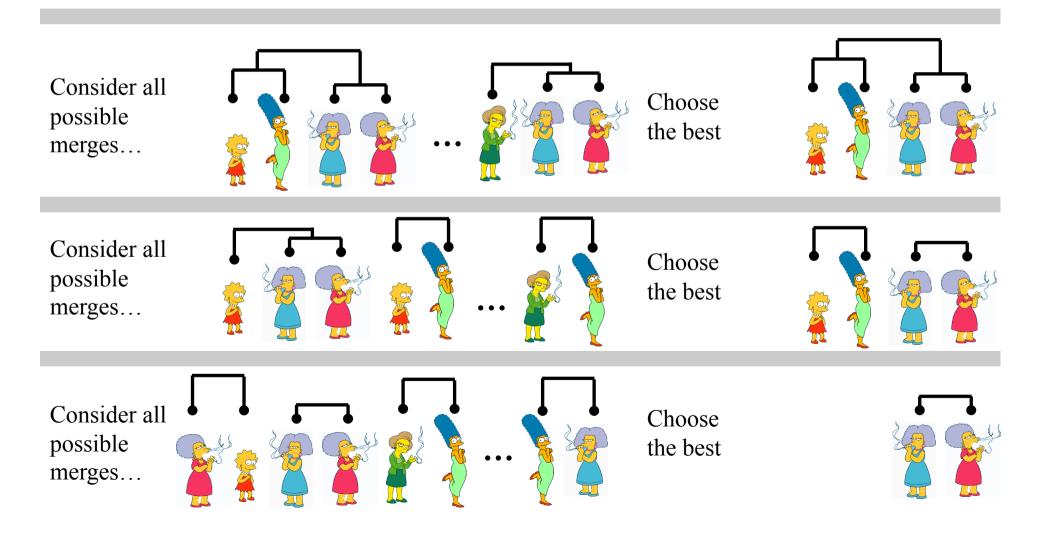
**Top-Down (divisive):** Starting with all the data in a single cluster, consider every possible way to divide the cluster into two. Choose the best division and recursively operate on both sides. We begin with a distance matrix which contains the distances between every pair of objects in our database.

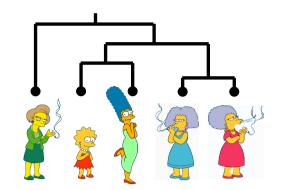


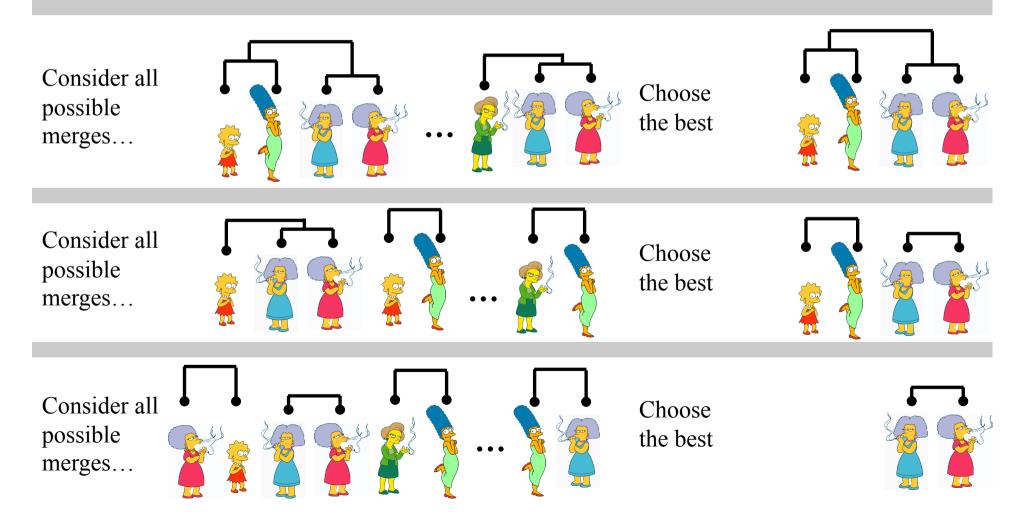






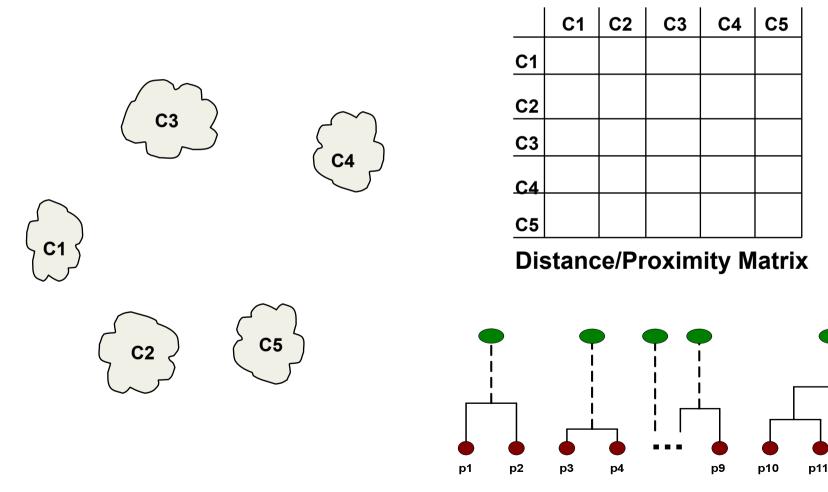






## Intermediate State

• After some merging steps, we have some clusters



p12

## Intermediate State

Merge the two closest clusters (C2 and C5) and update the distance matrix.

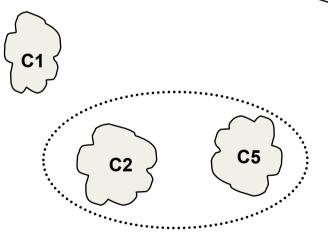
р2

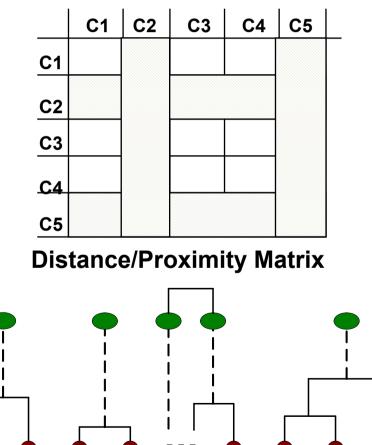
р3

p4

p1







р9

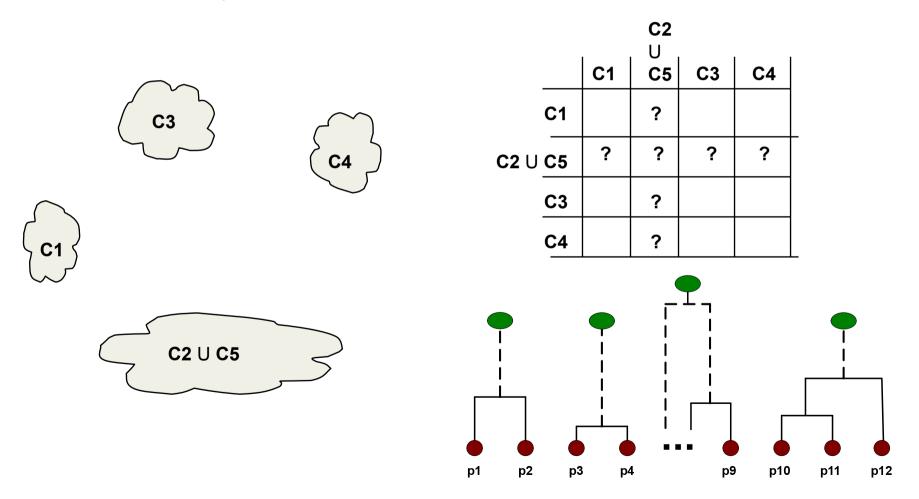
p11

p10

p12

## After Merging

• "How do we update the distance matrix?"



## Distance between two clusters

- Single-link distance between clusters C<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>j</sub> is the *minimum distance* between any object in C<sub>i</sub> and any object in C<sub>j</sub>
- The distance is defined by the two most similar objects

$$D_{sl}(C_i, C_j) = \min_{x, y} \left\{ d(x, y) \middle| x \in C_i, y \in C_j \right\}$$

• Determined by one pair of points, i.e., by one link in the similarity graph.

	1	12	13	4	15					
1	1.00	0.90	0.10	0.65	0.20					
12	0.90	1.00	0.70	0.60	0.50					
13	0.10	0.70	1.00	0.40	0.30		140			
14	0.65	0.60	0.40	1.00	0.80			13	• •	15
15	0.20	0.50	0.30	0.80	1.00	112	1,00	0,70	0,65	0 ,50 0 ,30
I						13	0,70	1 ,00	0,40	0,30
									1 ,00	
						15	0,50	0,30	0,80	1 ,00

• Determined by one pair of points, i.e., by one link in the proximity graph.

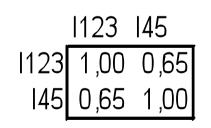
1

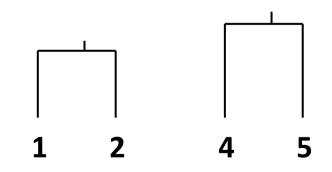
2

|4 15 112 13 1,00 0,70 0,65 0,50 112 0,70 1,00 0,40 0,30 13 |4 0,65 0,40 1,00 0,80 0,50 0,30 0,80 1,00 15 145 13 112 1,00 0,70 0,65 112 13 1,00 0,40 0.70 0,65 0,40 1,00 145

• Determined by one pair of points, i.e., by one link in the proximity graph.

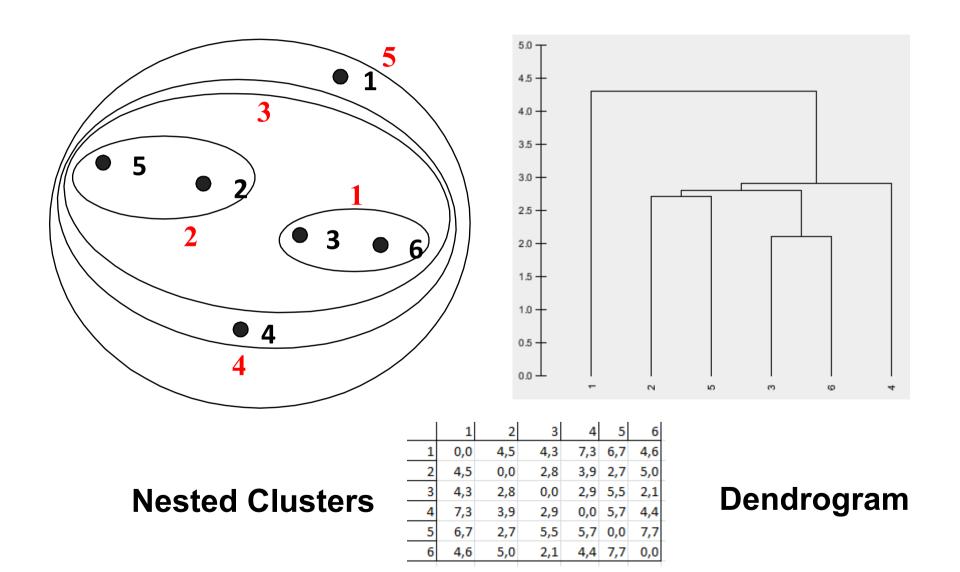
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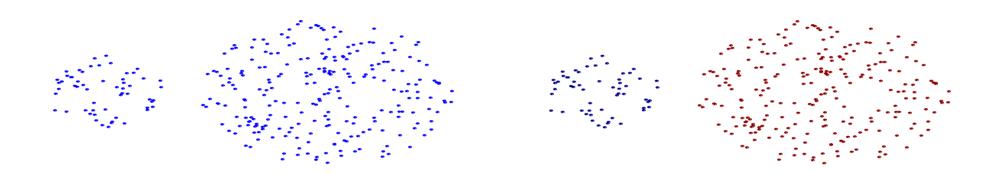


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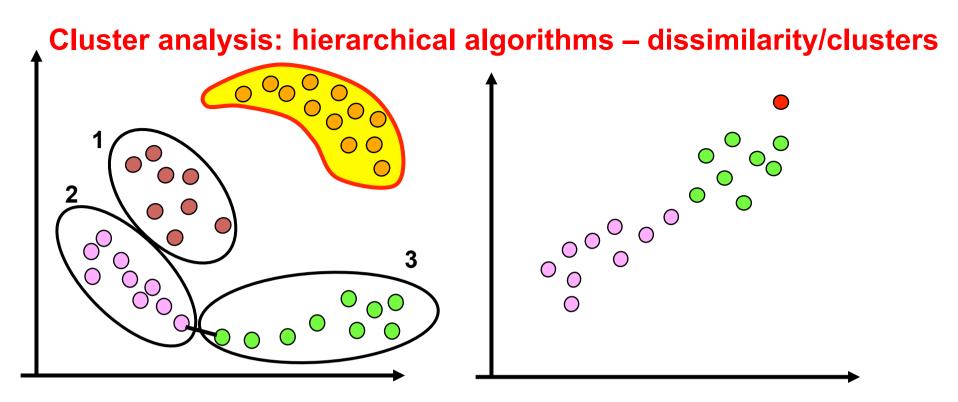
## Strengths of single-link clustering



**Original Points** 

**Two Clusters** 

Can handle elliptical shapes



**Single linkage:** It is a flexible method and it can individuate also clusters with particular shapes (elongated, elliptical)

When clusters are not well separated this method may lead to unsatisfactory solutions due to the so called **chaining effect.** 

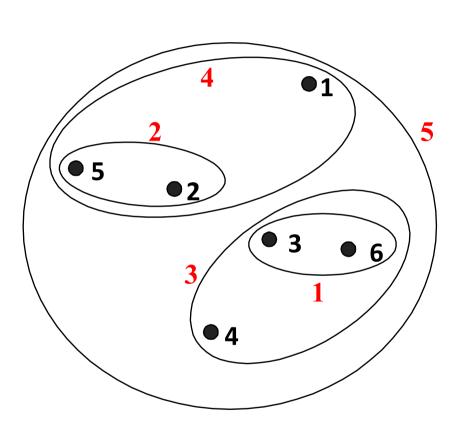
- in the left panel. Clusters 1 and 2 are ("globally") closer.
- due to the presence of two very close cases in clusters 2 and 3, they will be joined instead.
- The example in the right panel evidences that this method may be useful in outliers detection.

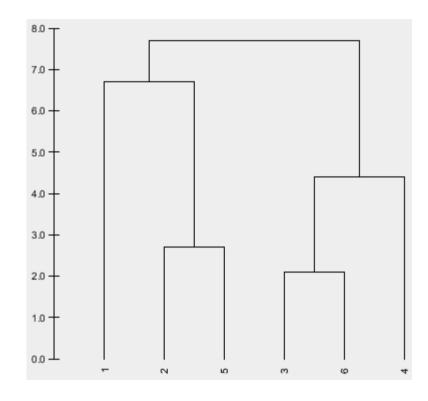
## Distance between two clusters

- Complete-link distance between clusters C<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>j</sub> is the maximum distance between any object in C<sub>i</sub> and any object in C<sub>i</sub>
- The distance is defined by the two most dissimilar objects

$$D_{cl}(C_i, C_j) = \max_{x, y} \left\{ d(x, y) \middle| x \in C_i, y \in C_j \right\}$$

### Complete-link clustering: example



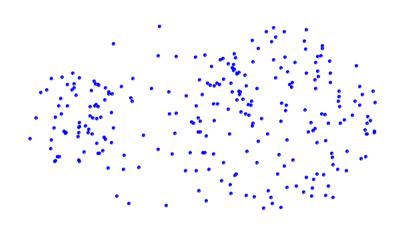


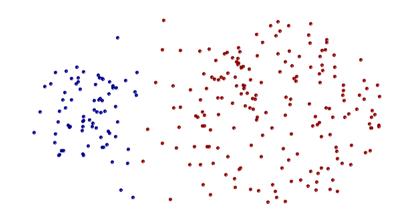
**Nested Clusters** 

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0,0	4,5	4,3	7,3	6,7	4,6
2	4,5	0,0	2,8	3,9	2,7	5,0
3	4,3	2,8	0,0	2,9	5,5	2,1
4	7,3	3,9	2,9	0,0	5,7	4,4
5	6,7	2,7	5,5	5,7	0,0	7,7
6	4,6	5,0	2,1	4,4	7,7	0,0

#### Dendrogram

### Strengths of complete-link clustering



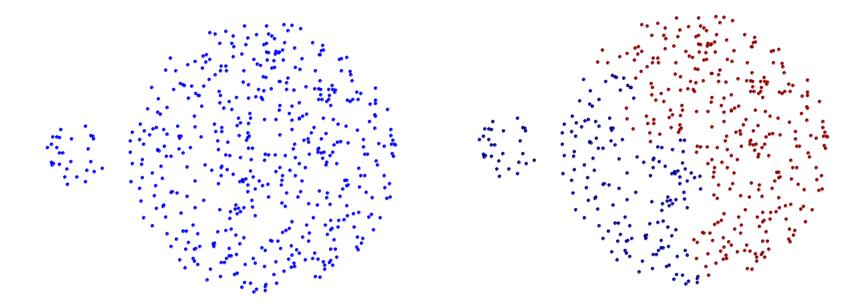


#### **Original Points**



- More balanced clusters (with equal diameter)
- Less susceptible to noise

### Limitations of complete-link clustering



#### **Original Points**

**Two Clusters** 

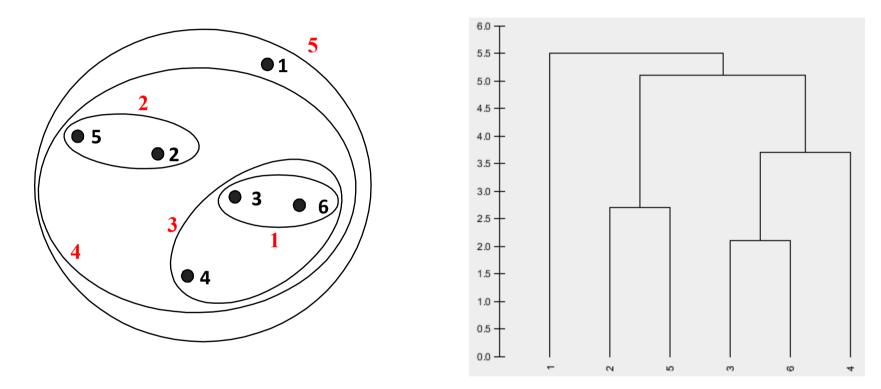
- Tends to break large clusters
- All clusters tend to have the same diameter small clusters are merged with larger ones

### Distance between two clusters

 Group average distance between clusters C<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>j</sub> is the *average distance* between any object in C<sub>i</sub> and any object in C<sub>i</sub>

$$D_{avg}\left(C_{i},C_{j}\right) = \frac{1}{\left|C_{i}\right| \times \left|C_{j}\right|} \sum_{x \in C_{i}, y \in C_{j}} d(x,y)$$

### Average-link clustering: example



#### **Nested Clusters**

Dendrogram

## Average-link clustering: discussion

- Compromise between Single and Complete Link
- Strengths
  - Less susceptible to noise and outliers
- Limitations
  - Biased towards globular clusters

### Distance between two clusters

 Centroid distance between clusters C<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>j</sub> is the distance between the centroid r<sub>i</sub> of C<sub>i</sub> and the centroid r<sub>j</sub> of C<sub>j</sub>

$$D_{centroids}(C_i, C_j) = d(r_i, r_j)$$

### Distance between two clusters

Ward's distance between clusters C<sub>i</sub> and C<sub>j</sub> is the difference between the total within cluster sum of squares for the two clusters separately, and the within cluster sum of squares resulting from merging the two clusters in cluster C<sub>ij</sub>

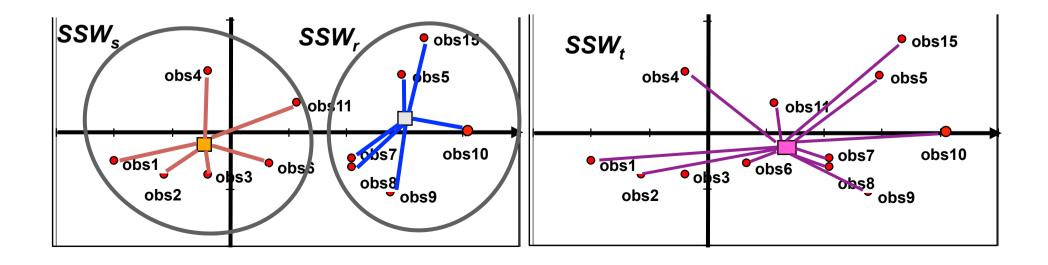
$$D_{w}(C_{i}, C_{j}) = \sum_{x \in C_{ij}} (x - r_{ij}) - (\sum_{x \in C_{i}} (x - r_{i})^{2} + \sum_{x \in C_{j}} (x - r_{j}))$$

- r<sub>i</sub>: centroid of C<sub>i</sub>
- r<sub>j</sub>: centroid of C<sub>j</sub>
- r<sub>ij</sub>: centroid of C<sub>ij</sub>

## Cluster analysis: hierarchical algorithms – dissimilarity/clusters **Ward's method**

It will be SSW<sub>t</sub> > SSW<sub>r</sub> + SSW<sub>s</sub>

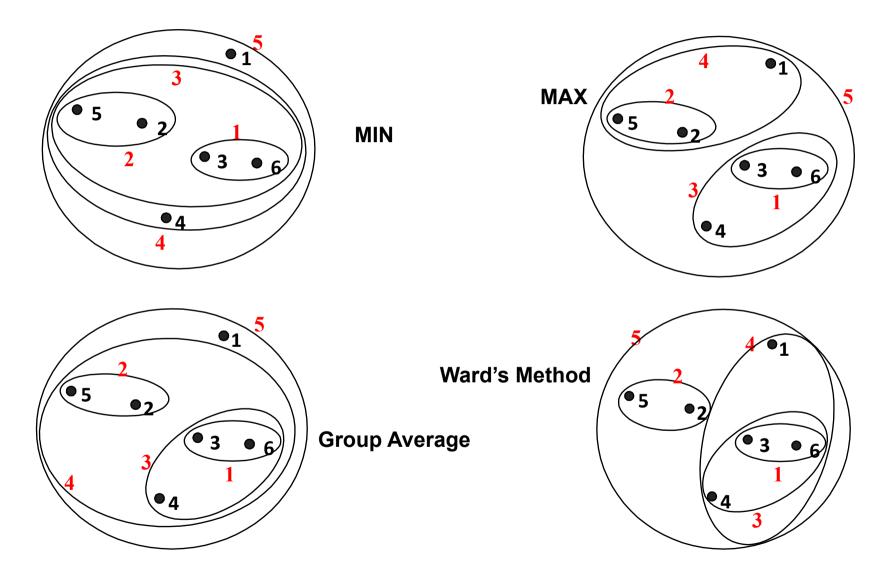
The quantity  $SSW_t - (SSW_r + SSW_s)$  is called **between** sum of squares (SS). Ward's method: the two clusters with the smallest **Between SS** are joined.



### Ward's distance for clusters

- Similar to group average and centroid distance
- Less susceptible to noise and outliers
- Biased towards globular clusters
- Hierarchical analogue of k-means
  Can be used to initialize k-means

#### Hierarchical Clustering: Comparison



## **Divisive Clustering**

#### Outline

- Define
  - N<sub>c</sub>: Number of clusters
  - N<sub>EX</sub>: Number of examples
- 1. Start with one large cluster
- 2. Find "worst" cluster
- 3. Split it
- 4. If  $N_C < N_{EX}$  go to 2

#### How to choose the "worst" cluster

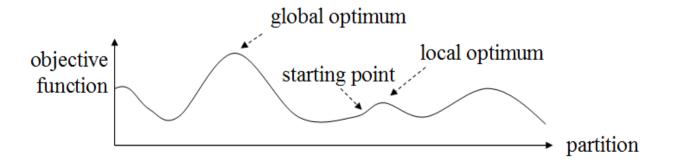
- · Largest number of examples
- Largest variance
- Largest sum-squared-error
- ...
- How to split clusters
  - Mean-median in one feature direction
  - · Perpendicular to the direction of largest variance
  - ...
- The computations required by divisive clustering are more intensive than for agglomerative clustering methods
  - · For this reason, agglomerative approaches are more popular

# Hierarchical Clustering: Time and Space requirements

- For a dataset X consisting of n points
- O(n<sup>2</sup>) space; it requires storing the distance matrix
- O(n<sup>3</sup>) time in most of the cases
  - There are n steps and at each step the size n<sup>2</sup> distance matrix must be updated and searched
  - Complexity can be reduced to O(n<sup>2</sup> log(n)) time for some approaches by using appropriate data structures

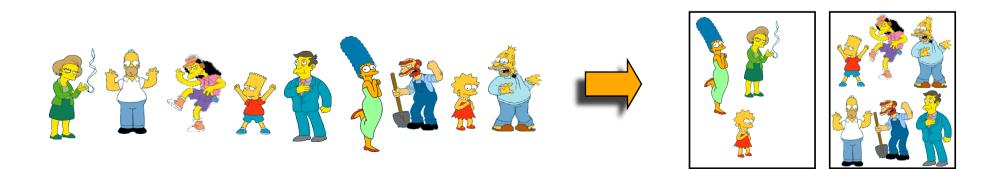
### Summary of Hierarchal Clustering Methods

- No need to specify the number of clusters in advance.
- Hierarchal nature maps nicely onto human intuition for some domains
- They do not scale well: time complexity of at least  $O(n^2 \log(n))$
- Like any heuristic search algorithms, local optima are a problem.
- Interpretation of results is (very) subjective.

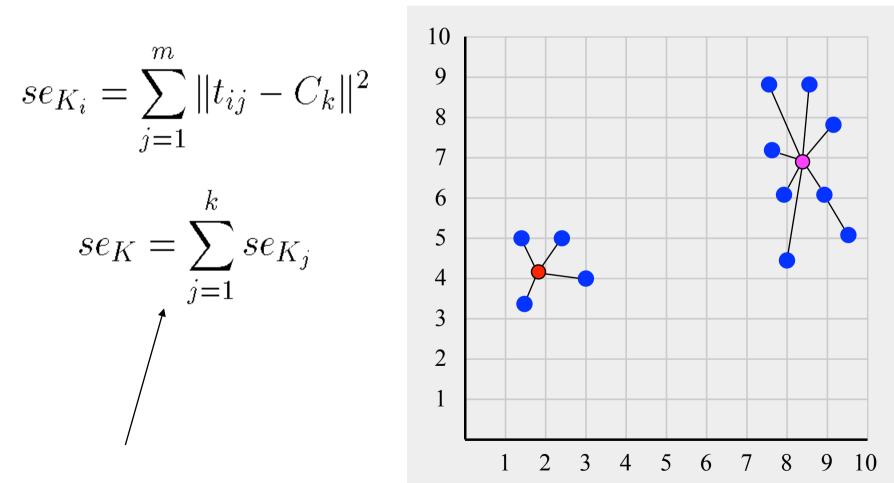


## **Partitional Clustering**

- Nonhierarchical, each instance is placed in exactly one of K nonoverlapping clusters.
- Since only one set of clusters is output, the user normally has to input the desired number of clusters K.



## Squared Error



**Objective Function** 

## Algorithm *k*-means

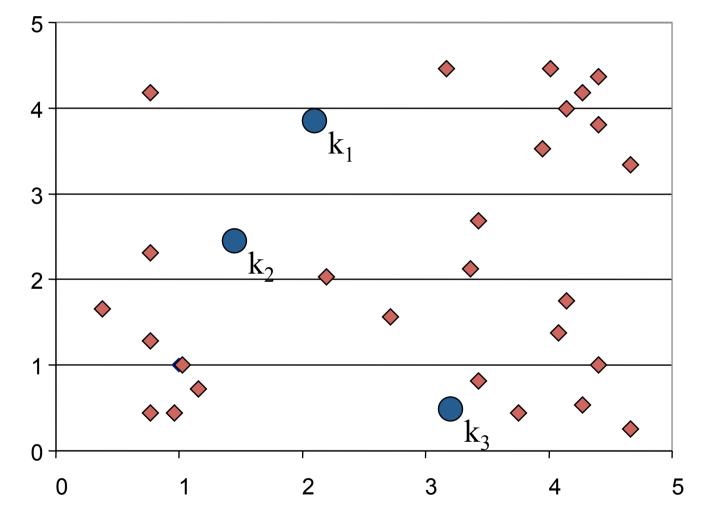
1. Decide on a value for *k*.

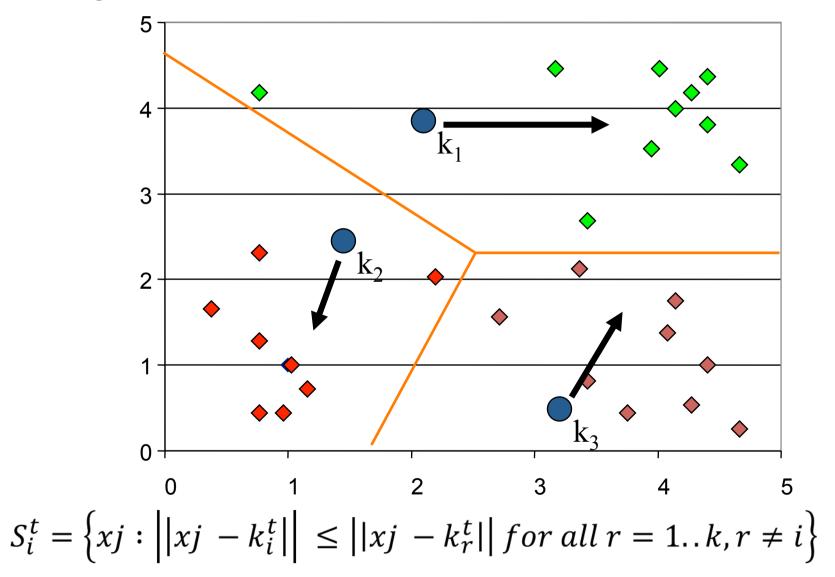
2. Initialize the *k* cluster centers (randomly, if necessary).

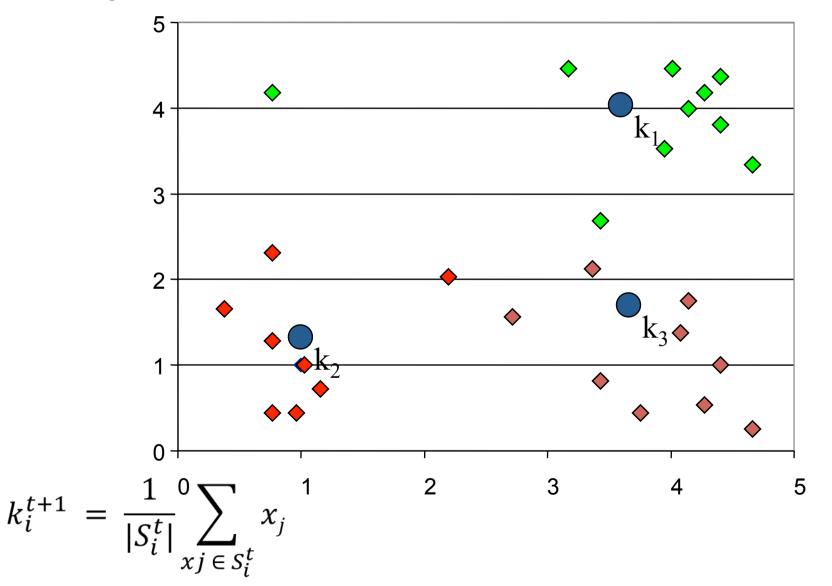
3. Decide the class memberships of the *N* objects by assigning them to the nearest cluster center.

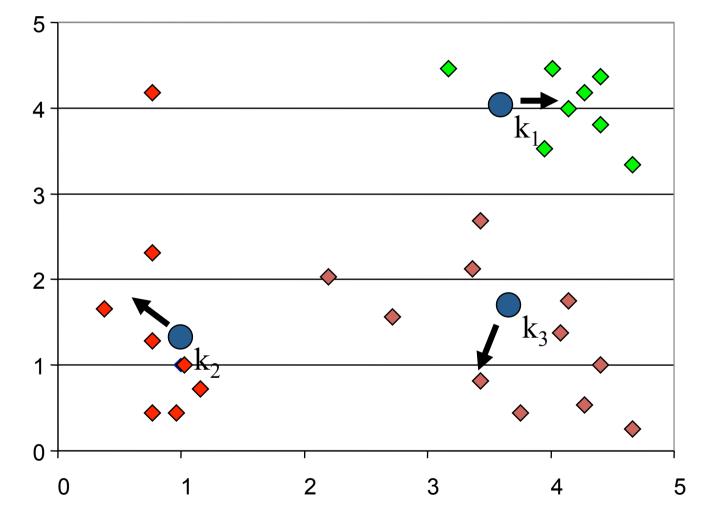
4. Re-estimate the k cluster centers, by assuming the memberships found above are correct.

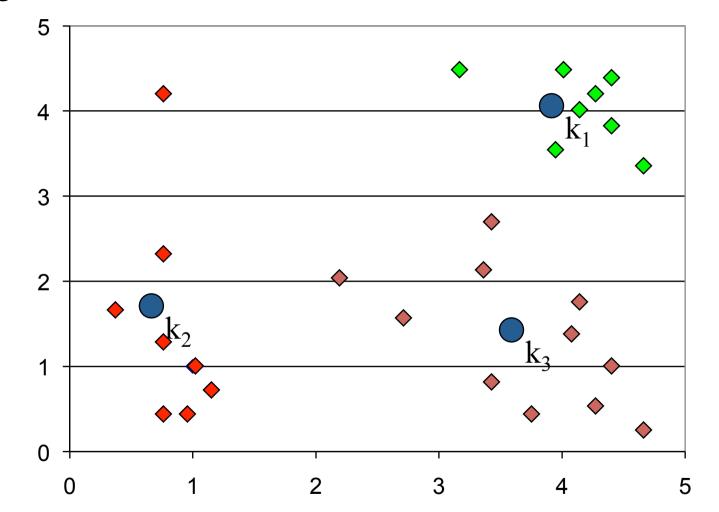
5. If none of the *N* objects changed membership in the last iteration, exit. Otherwise goto 3.











### Comments on the K-Means Method

- <u>Strength</u>
  - *Relatively efficient*: O(tkn), where n is # objects, k is # clusters, and t is # iterations. Normally, k, t << n.</li>
  - Often terminates at a *local optimum*. The *global optimum* may be found using techniques such as: *deterministic annealing* and *genetic algorithms*
- Weakness
  - Applicable only when *mean* is defined, then what about categorical data? Need to extend the distance meassurement.
    - Ahmad, Dey: A k-mean clustering algorithm for mixed numeric and categorical data, Data & Knowledge Engineering, Nov. 2007
  - Need to specify k, the number of clusters, in advance
  - Unable to handle noisy data and *outliers*
  - Not suitable to discover clusters with non-convex shapes
  - Tends to build clusters of equal size

## **EM Algorithm**

- Initialize K cluster centers
- Iterate between two steps

- Expectation step: assign points to clusters

$$P(d_i \in c_k) = w_k \operatorname{Pr}(d_i | c_k) / \sum_j w_j \operatorname{Pr}(d_i | c_j)$$
$$w_k = \frac{\sum_i \operatorname{Pr}(d_i \in c_k)}{N} \qquad P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$

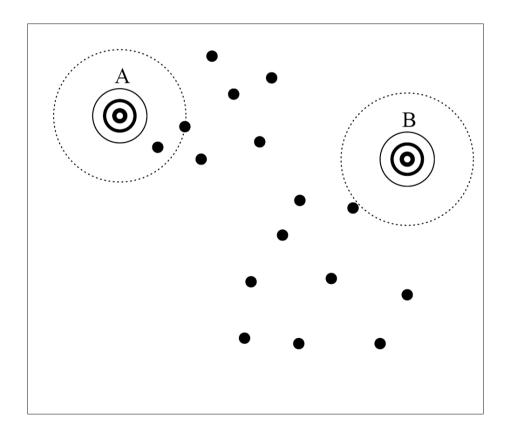
– Maximation step: estimate model parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i} \leftarrow \sum_{j} p_{ij} \mathbf{x}_{j} / p_{i}$$
  
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{i} \leftarrow \sum_{j} p_{ij} \mathbf{x}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}^{\top} / p_{i}$$
$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} \mathcal{N}(x, \mu_{i}, \Sigma_{i})$$

## Processing : EM Initialization

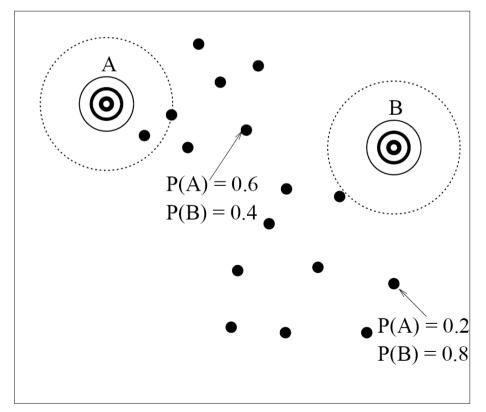
– Initialization :

• Assign random value to parameters



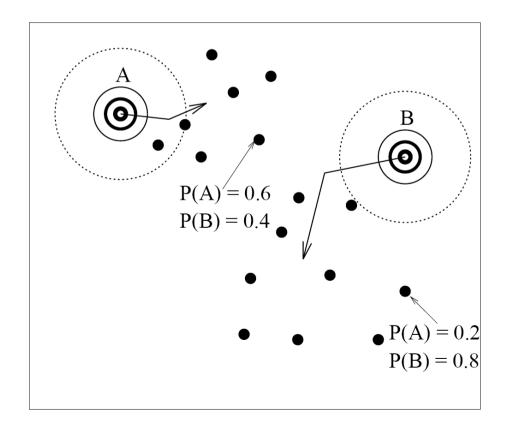
## Processing : the E-Step

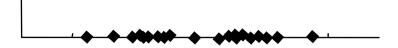
- Expectation :
  - Pretend to know the parameter
  - Assign data point to a component

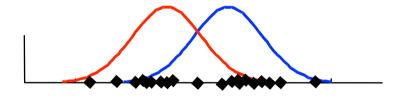


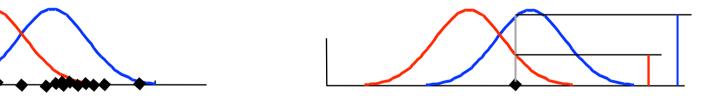
## Processing : the M-Step (1/2)

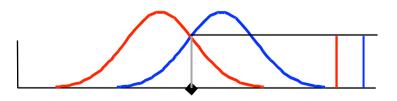
- Maximization :
  - Fit the parameter to its set of points



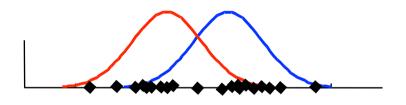


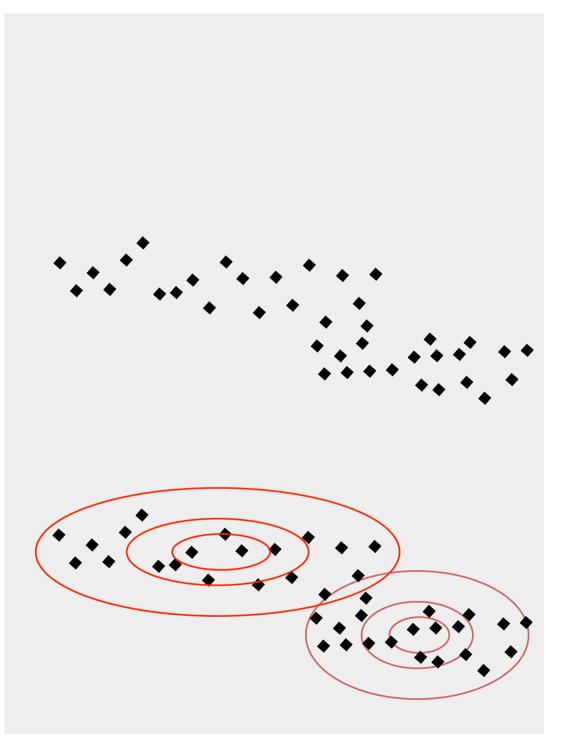


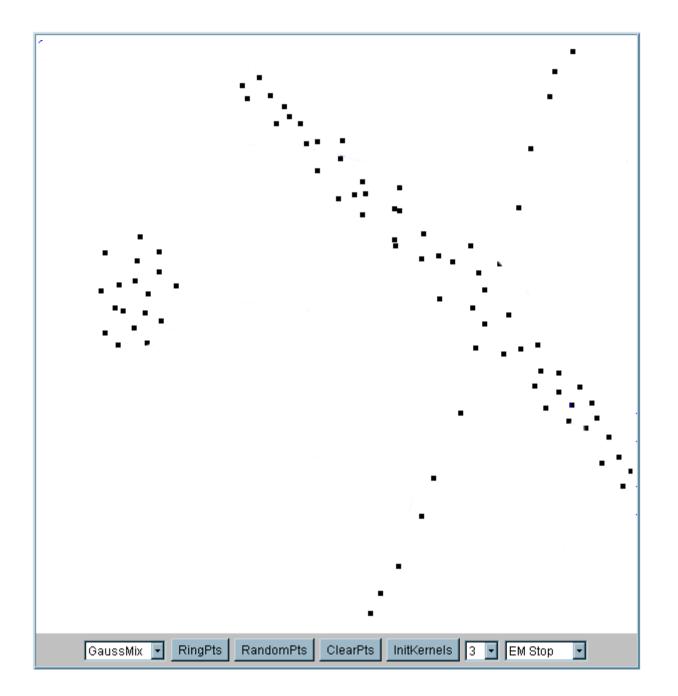


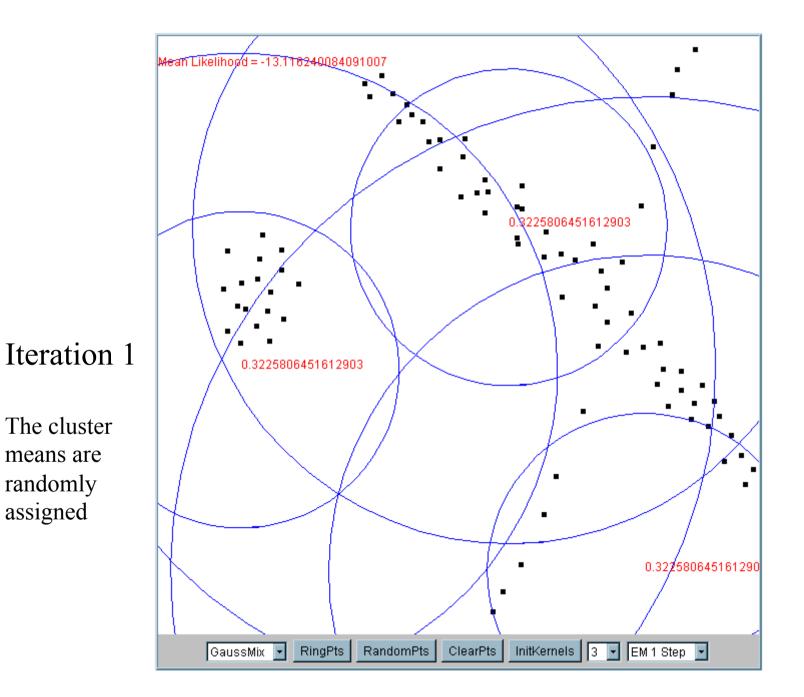


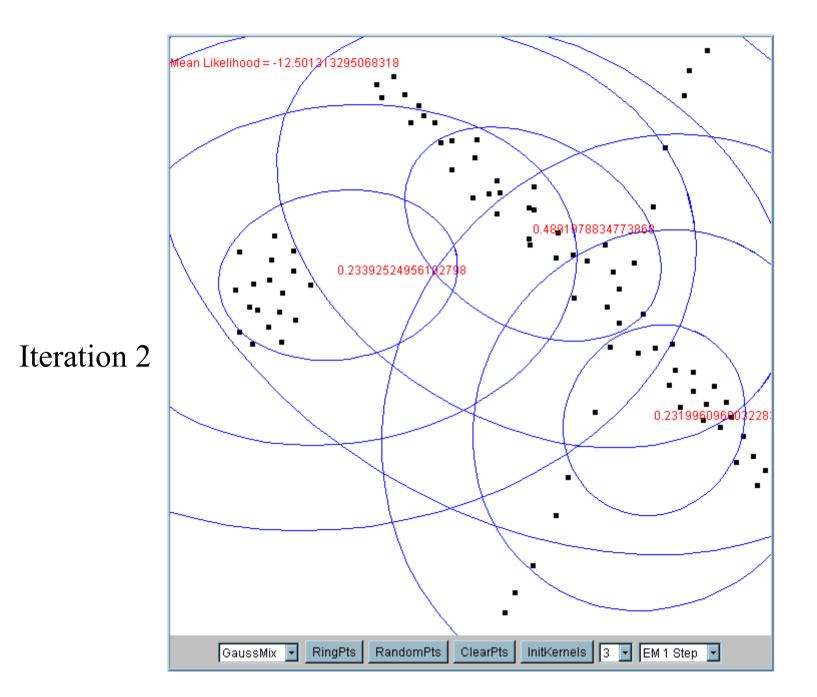


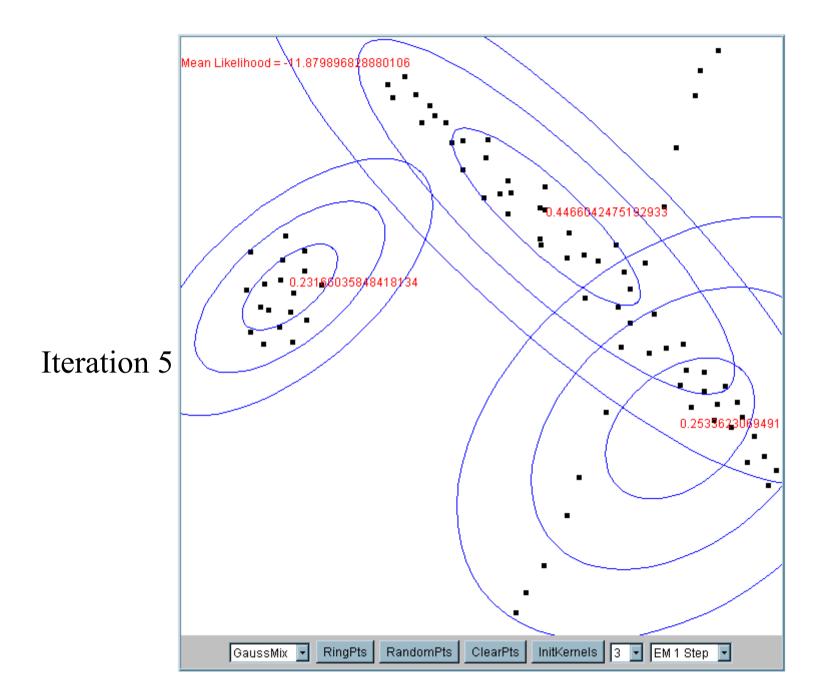


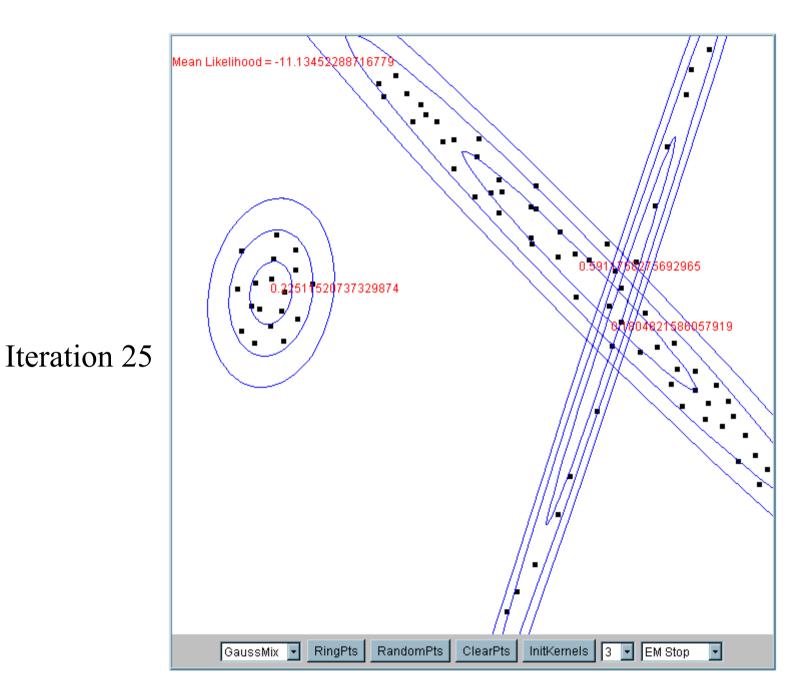






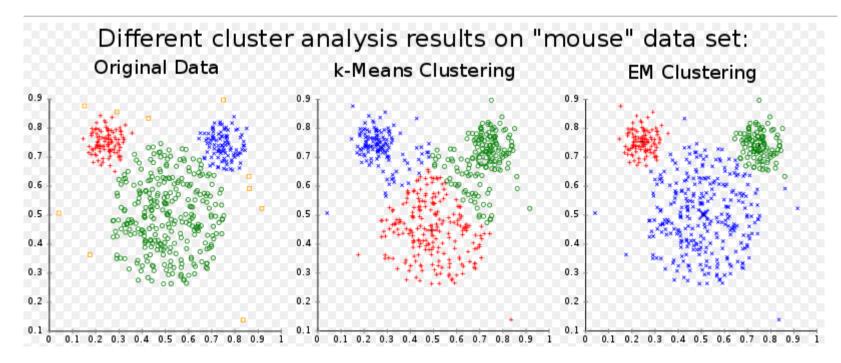






### Comments on the EM

- K-Means is a special form of EM
- EM algorithm maintains probabilistic assignments to clusters, instead of deterministic assignments, and multivariate Gaussian distributions instead of means
- Does not tends to build clusters of equal size



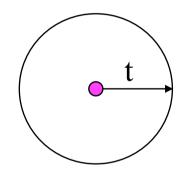
Source: <u>http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/K-means\_algorithm</u>

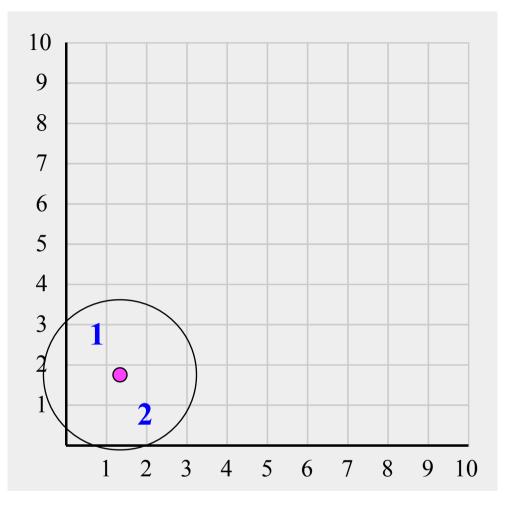
What happens if the data is streaming...

#### Nearest Neighbor Clustering Not to be confused with Nearest Neighbor Classification

- Items are iteratively merged into the existing clusters that are closest.
- Incremental
- Threshold, t, used to determine if items are added to existing clusters or a new cluster is created.

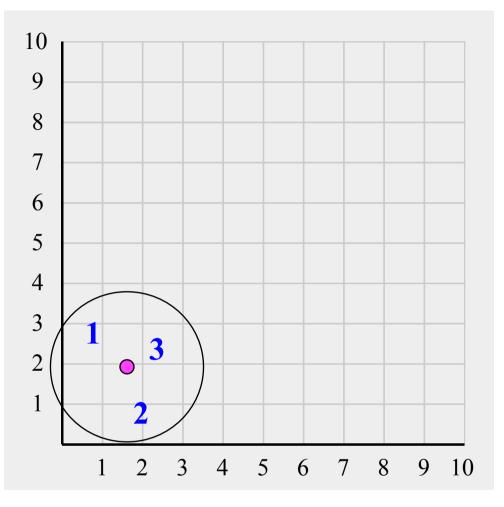
#### Threshold t





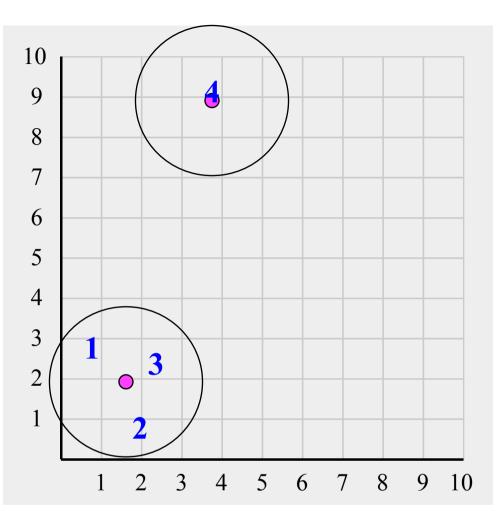
New data point arrives...

It is within the threshold for cluster 1, so add it to the cluster, and update cluster center.



New data point arrives...

It is **not** within the threshold for cluster 1, so create a new cluster, and so on..

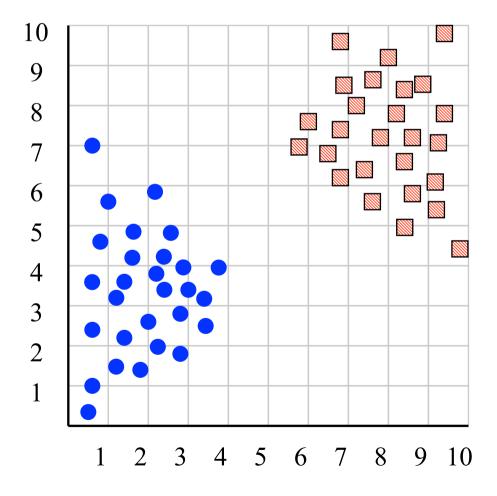


Algorithm is highly order dependent...

It is difficult to determine t in advance...

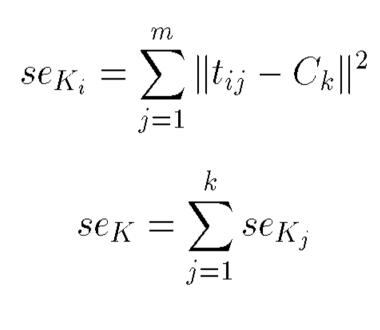
### How can we tell the *right* number of clusters?

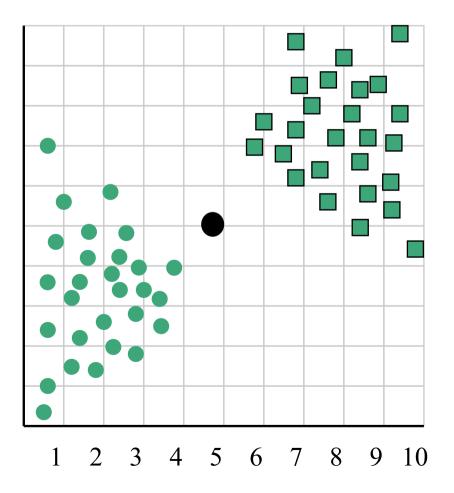
In general, this is a unsolved problem. However there are many approximate methods. In the next few slides we will see an example.



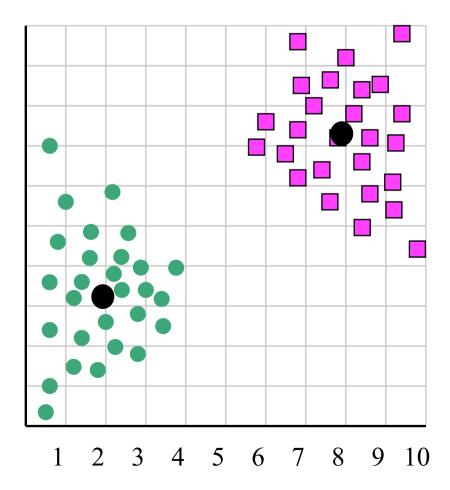
For our example, we will use the familiar katydid/grasshopper dataset.

However, in this case we are imagining that we do NOT know the class labels. We are only clustering on the X and Y axis values. When k = 1, the objective function is 873.0

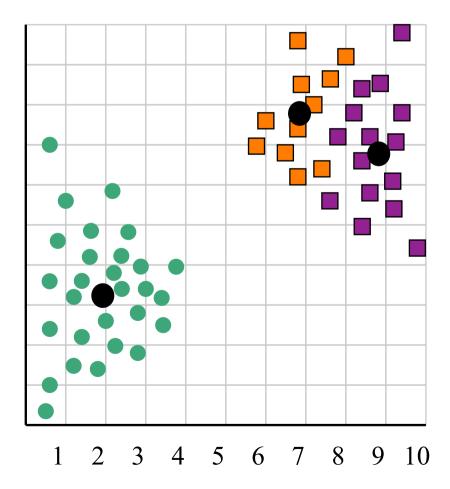




#### When k = 2, the objective function is 173.1

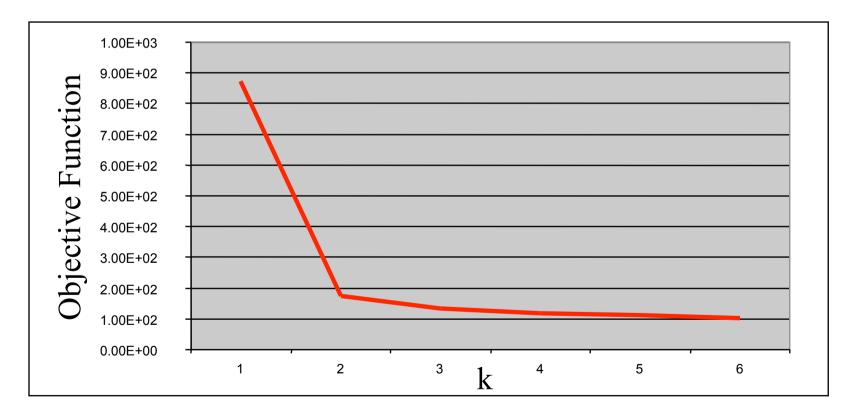


#### When k = 3, the objective function is 133.6



We can plot the objective function values for k equals 1 to 6...

The abrupt change at k = 2, is highly suggestive of two clusters in the data. This technique for determining the number of clusters is known as "knee finding" or "elbow finding".



Note that the results are not always as clear cut as in this toy example