## GL Applied Data Science Program

Unsupervised Learning - Clustering

August 27, 2021

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#### Overview

#### Overview of this week / module:

- Data collection and visualization for exploratory data analysis
- Network analysis
- Unsupervised learning clustering

#### Overview of this lecture:

- Clustering methods
- Community detection in networks

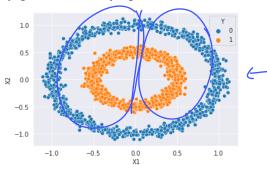
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## Case study: clustering

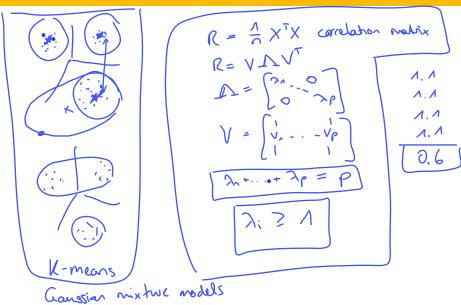
• Find groups, so that elements within cluster are very similar and elements between clusters are very different

#### • Examples:

- Find customer groups to adjust advertisement
- Find subtypes of diseases to fine-tune treatment
- Our eye is very good at identifying cluster



# Clustering



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# Clustering



# Clustering

N samples, k clusters:  $k^N$  possible assignments

- E.g., N = 100, k = 3:  $3^{100} = 5 * 10^{47}$ !!
  - ⇒ impossible to search through all assignments

#### We will discuss:

- k-means clustering
- Gaussian mixture models
- Hierarchical clusteringDBSCAN

#### Examples of dissimilarity measures between samples

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## Examples of dissimilarity measures between samples

• Euclidean distance (i.e.,  $\ell_2$  - norm)

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) = \sqrt{(x_1^{(i)} - x_1^{(j)})^2 + (x_2^{(i)} - x_2^{(j)})^2 + \dots + (x_p^{(i)} - x_p^{(j)})^2}$$

• Manhattan distance (i.e.,  $\ell_1$  - norm)

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) = |x_1^{(i)} - x_1^{(j)}| + |x_2^{(i)} - x_2^{(j)}| + \dots + |x_p^{(i)} - x_p^{(j)}|$$

• Maximum distance (i.e.,  $\ell_{\infty}$  - norm)

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) = \max_{k=1,\dots,p} |x_k^{(i)} - x_k^{(j)}|$$

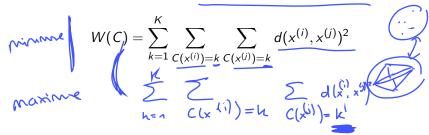
or more flexible dissimilarity satisfying

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) \ge 0, \ d(x^{(i)}, x^{(i)}) = 0, \ d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)}) = d(x^{(j)}, x^{(i)})$$

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- $\bullet$  K (fixed!) Clusters are obtained by minimizing some loss function
- Natural loss function given by within-groups sum of squares (WGSS):



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- ullet K (fixed!) Clusters are obtained by minimizing some loss function
- Natural loss function given by within-groups sum of squares (WGSS):

$$W(C) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(x^{(i)})=k} \sum_{C(x^{(j)})=k} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})^{2}$$

 $\bullet$  W(C) characterizes the extent to which observations assigned to the same cluster tend to be close to one another or observations between different clusters are further apart from each other

$$d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})^{2} = \|x^{(i)} - x^{(j)}\|_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \|x^{(i)} - \mu_{c} - (x^{(j)} - \mu_{c})\|_{2}^{2}$$

- K (fixed!) Clusters are obtained by minimizing some loss function
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- W(C) characterizes the extent to which observations assigned to the same cluster tend to be close to one another or observations between different clusters are further apart from each other
- $\bullet$  K-means clustering:  $d(x^{(i)},x^{(j)})^2=\|x^{(i)}-x^{(j)}\|_2^2$
- Then WGSS becomes:  $W(C) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} 2N_k \sum_{C(x^{(i)})=k} \|x^{(i)} \mu_k\|_2^2$ , where  $N_k$  is the total number of points in cluster k

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- Exact solution of minimization problem is computationally infeasible
  - Use greedy algorithm
  - Use random restarts to avoid local optima
- Leads to spherical shaped clusters of similar radii

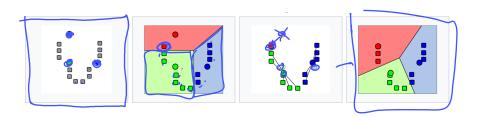


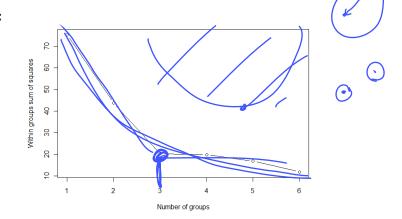
Image source: Wikipedia

## Choosing the number of clusters

- Run K-means clustering for several number of groups K
- Plot WGSS versus the number of groups

• Choose number of groups after the last big drop of the curve

#### **Example:**



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# Partitioning around medoids (PAM)

K-Means: Cluster centers μ<sub>k</sub> can be arbitrary points in space
 ⇒ very sensitive to outliers!





# Partitioning around medoids (PAM)

- K-Means: Cluster centers  $\mu_k$  can be arbitrary points in space
  - ⇒ very sensitive to outliers!
- Robust alternative: Partitioning around medoids (PAM)
  - Cluster center must be an observation ("medoid")
  - More robust against outliers
  - Also gives a representative object for each cluster (e.g., for easy interpretation)

#### Gaussian mixture model

• Soft version of k-means clustering based on a statistical model



Image source: Wikipedia

#### Gaussian mixture model

Assume underlying statistical model:

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} P(\text{cluster } k) P(x \mid \text{cluster } k),$$

where  $X \mid \text{cluster } k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$ 

- Sample x is assigned to cluster k that maximizes  $P(\text{cluster } k \mid x)$
- Estimating P(cluster k),  $\mu_k$  and  $\Sigma_k$  by maximum likelihood estimation is difficult (leads to a non-convex optimization problem)
- Parameter estimates are usually found using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm

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- Parameter estimates are usually found using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm
- Number of clusters is found for example by maximizing the Bayesian information criterion

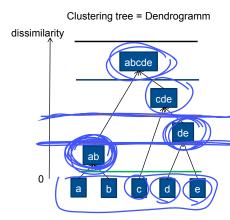
BIC = 
$$\log$$
-likelihood  $\frac{\log(n)}{2} \cdot (\# \text{ of parameters})$ 

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# Hierarchical clustering

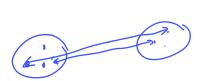
- Agglomerative clustering: Build up clusters from individual observations
- Divisive clustering: Start with whole group of observations and split off clusters



Advantage of hierarchical clustering:

- Solve clustering for all possible numbers of cluster  $1, 2, \ldots, n$  at once
- Choose desired number of clusters later

# Examples of dissimilarity measures between clusters



#### Examples of dissimilarity measures between clusters

• single linkage (i.e., minimum distance)

$$d(C_r, C_s) = \min_{x^{(i)} \in C_r, x^{(i)} \in C_s} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$$



• complete linkage (i.e., maximum distance)

$$d(C_r, C_s) = \max_{x^{(i)} \in C_r, x^{(j)} \in C_s} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$$



• average linkage (i.e., average distance)

$$d(C_r, C_s) = \frac{1}{n_r} \frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{x^{(i)} \in C_r} \sum_{x^{(i)} \in C_s} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$$

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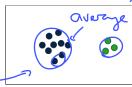
$$d(C_r, C_s) = \frac{1}{n_r} \frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{x^{(i)} \in C_r} \sum_{x^{(j)} \in C_s} d(x^{(i)}, x^{(j)})$$



How do the resulting clusters look like? Which one is which?



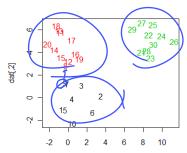




# Choosing the number of clusters

- No strict rule
- Find the largest vertical "drop" in the tree

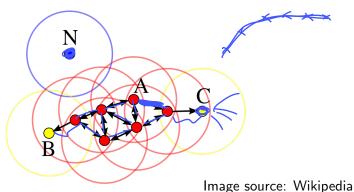
#### **Example:**



# Cluster Dendrogram

#### **DBSCAN**

- Uses 2 parameters: minPts (minimum number of points) and  $\epsilon$  (radius of neighborhood)
- ullet Core points have at least minPts within distance  $\epsilon$
- Clusters are defined by looking at all points reachable from a core point



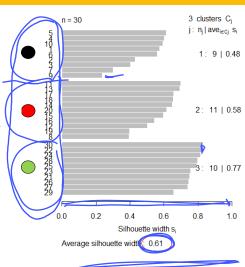
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## Quality of clustering: Silhouette plot

#### Compute for each sample $x^{(i)}$ :

- $a(x^{(i)})$  = average dissimilarity between  $x^{(i)}$  and all other points in its cluster
- $b(x^{(i)})$  = average dissimilarity between  $x^{(i)}$  and the closest cluster it does not belong to
- $S(x^{(i)}) \in [-1,1]$  with

$$S(x^{(i)}) = \frac{(b(x^{(i)}) - a(x^{(i)}))}{\max(a(x^{(i)}), b(x^{(i)}))}$$

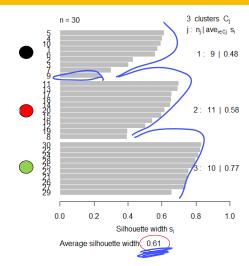


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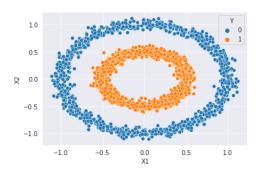
$$S(x^{(i)}) = \frac{(b(x^{(i)}) - a(x^{(i)}))}{\max(a(x^{(i)}), b(x^{(i)}))}$$



**Note:**  $S(x^{(i)})$  large (0.5 is often used as cut-off): well clustered;  $S(x^{(i)})$  small: badly clustered;  $S(x^{(i)}) < 0$ : assigned to wrong cluster

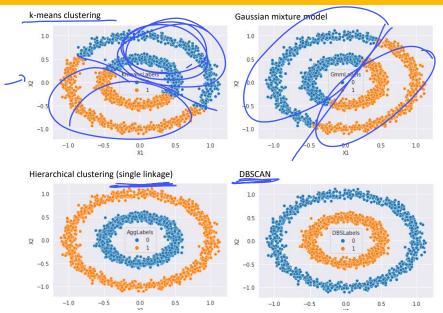
## Case study: clustering

#### Which clustering methods are able to identify the two clusters?



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## Case study: clustering



## Community detection

#### Community detection:

 detect subsets of nodes that are more densely connected between each other in the network than outside the community

#### Clustering

- determine subsets of points that are 'close' to each other given a pairwise distance or similarity measure
- can be used also for community detection by defining a vertex similarity measure (e.g., geodesic distance, number of different neighbors, correlation between adjacency matrix columns, etc.)
- can use clustering methods discussed so far based on these similarity measures

# Other methods: Divisive algorithm using betweenness



- Intuition: intercommunity edges have a large value of edge betweenness, because many shortest paths connecting vertices of different communities will pass through them
- Algorithm of Girvan and Newman (2002): iteratively remove edges with highest betweenness centrality
- can define betweenness e.g. using geodesic or random walk

## Other methods: Modularity maximization

- quality function: function that assigns a number (quality measure) to each partition of a graph
- most popular quality function: modularity

$$Q = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i,j} (A_{ij} - P_{ij}) \delta(C_i, C_j),$$

where  $P_{ij}$  is expected number of edges between i and j in a null model, for example:

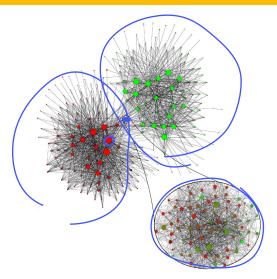
•  $P_{ij} = \frac{2m}{n(n-1)}$  where m is the total number of edges and n is the total number of nodes in the network

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# Louvain method (Blondel et al., 2008)

- modularity optimization is NP-complete (Brandes et al., 2006)
- Louvain method: very fast heuristic
  - put each node in its own community
  - ullet put node i into community j that yields biggest increase in modularity
  - replace communities by supernodes, where edge weight between supernodes is sum of edge weights between corresponding nodes
  - iterate process until Q cannot be improved
- provides decomposition of network into communities for different levels of organization
- ullet extremely fast: runs in  $\mathcal{O}(m)$

# Louvain method (Blondel et al., 2008)



Belgian mobile phone network with 2M customers (red: French-speaking, green: Dutch-speaking).

#### References

- For clustering
  - Chapter 14 in
     T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, & J. Friedman. The Elements of Statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction. Springer, 2009.
- For community detection in networks:
  - V. D. Blondel, et al. *Fast unfolding of communities in large networks*. Journal of Statistical Mechanics: Theory and Experiment 10, 2008.
  - S. Fortunato. *Community detection in graphs*. Physics Reports 486, 2010.
  - Lecture notes on Laplacian and spectral clustering (prominent method not discussed in this module) by T. Roughgarden & G. Valiant: http://web.stanford.edu/class/cs168/1/111.pdf

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Clustering

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