

2019  
怪兽  
学堂

# Unsupervised Learning



虾米

2019-4

# Road map

- **Basic concepts**
- K-means algorithm
- Representation of clusters
- Hierarchical clustering
- Distance functions
- Data standardization
- Summary

# Supervised learning vs. unsupervised learning

- **Supervised learning:** discover patterns in the data that relate data attributes with a target (class) attribute.
  - These patterns are then utilized to predict the values of the target attribute in future data instances.
- **Unsupervised learning:** The data have no target attribute.
  - We want to explore the data to find some intrinsic structures in them.

# Clustering

- Clustering is a technique for finding **similarity groups** in data, called **clusters**. I.e.,
  - it groups data instances that are similar to (near) each other in one cluster and data instances that are very different (far away) from each other into different clusters.
- Clustering is often called an **unsupervised learning** task as no class values denoting an *a priori* grouping of the data instances are given, which is the case in supervised learning.
- Due to historical reasons, clustering is often considered synonymous with unsupervised learning.
  - In fact, association rule mining is also unsupervised
- This chapter focuses on clustering.

# An illustration

- The data set has three natural groups of data points, i.e., 3 natural clusters.



# What is clustering for?

- Let us see some real-life examples
- **Example 1:** groups people of similar sizes together to make “small” , “medium” and “large” T-Shirts.
  - Tailor-made for each person: too expensive
  - One-size-fits-all: does not fit all.
- **Example 2:** In marketing, segment customers according to their similarities
  - To do targeted marketing.

# What is clustering for? (cont...)

- **Example 3:** Given a collection of text documents, we want to organize them according to their content similarities,
  - To produce a topic hierarchy
- **In fact, clustering is one of the most utilized data mining techniques.**
  - It has a long history, and used in almost every field, e.g., medicine, psychology, botany, sociology, biology, archeology, marketing, insurance, libraries, etc.
  - In recent years, due to the rapid increase of online documents, text clustering becomes important.

# Aspects of clustering

- A clustering algorithm
  - Partitional clustering
  - Hierarchical clustering
  - ...
- A distance (similarity, or dissimilarity) function
- Clustering quality
  - Inter-clusters distance  $\Rightarrow$  maximized
  - Intra-clusters distance  $\Rightarrow$  minimized
- The **quality** of a clustering result depends on the algorithm, the distance function, and the application.



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# K-means clustering

- K-means is a **partitional clustering** algorithm
- Let the set of data points (or instances)  $D$  be

$$\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\},$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ir})$  is a **vector** in a real-valued space  $X \subseteq R^r$ , and  $r$  is the number of attributes (dimensions) in the data.

- The  $k$ -means algorithm partitions the given data into  $k$  clusters.
  - Each cluster has a cluster **center**, called **centroid**.
  - $k$  is specified by the user

# K-means algorithm

- Given  $k$ , the *k-means* algorithm works as follows:
  - 1) Randomly choose  $k$  data points (*seeds*) to be the initial *centroids*, cluster centers
  - 2) Assign each data point to the closest *centroid*
  - 3) Re-compute the *centroids* using the current cluster memberships.
  - 4) If a convergence criterion is not met, go to 2).

# K-means algorithm – (cont ...)

**Algorithm**  $k$ -means( $k, D$ )

- 1 Choose  $k$  data points as the initial centroids (cluster centers)
- 2 **repeat**
- 3     **for** each data point  $\mathbf{x} \in D$  **do**
- 4         compute the distance from  $\mathbf{x}$  to each centroid;
- 5         assign  $\mathbf{x}$  to the closest centroid         // a centroid represents a cluster
- 6     **endfor**
- 7     re-compute the centroids using the current cluster memberships
- 8 **until** the stopping criterion is met

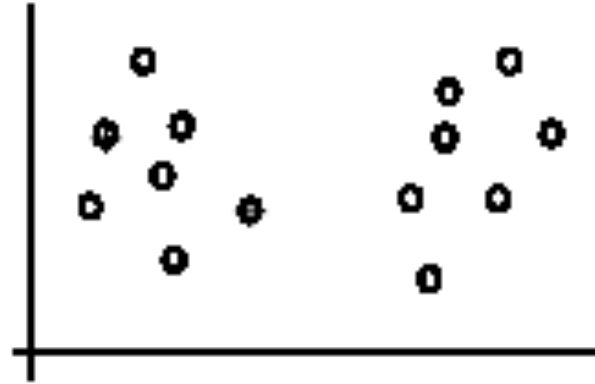
# Stopping/convergence criterion

1. no (or minimum) re-assignments of data points to different clusters,
2. no (or minimum) change of centroids, or
3. minimum decrease in the **sum of squared error** (SSE),

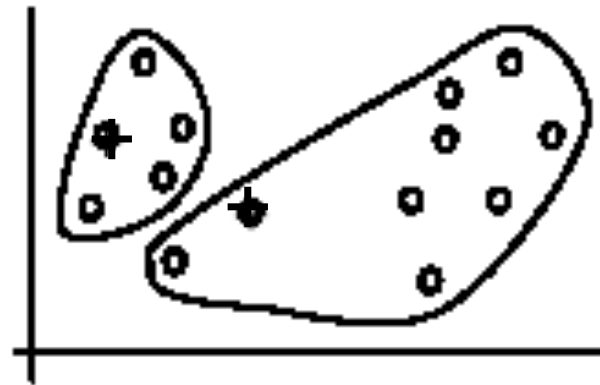
$$SSE = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_j} \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)^2 \quad (1)$$

- $C_j$  is the  $j$ th cluster,  $\mathbf{m}_j$  is the centroid of cluster  $C_j$  (the mean vector of all the data points in  $C_j$ ), and  $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)$  is the distance between data point  $\mathbf{x}$  and centroid  $\mathbf{m}_j$ .

# An example



(A). Random selection of  $k$  centers

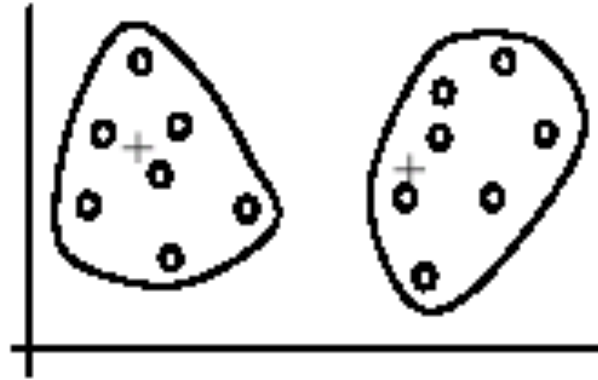


Iteration 1: (B). Cluster assignment

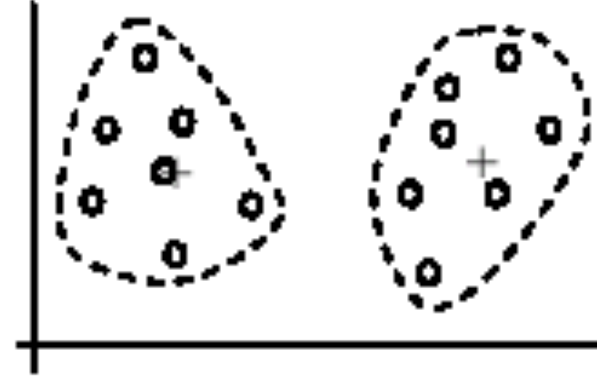


(C). Re-compute centroids

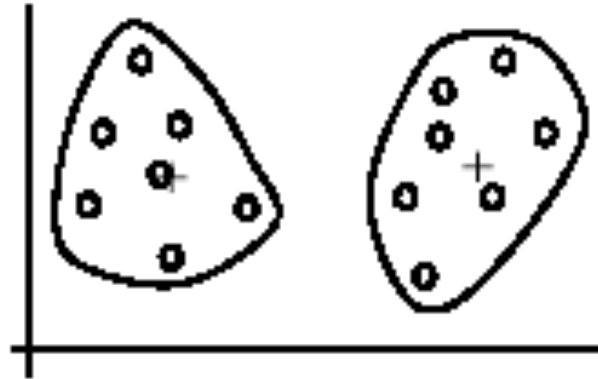
## An example (cont ...)



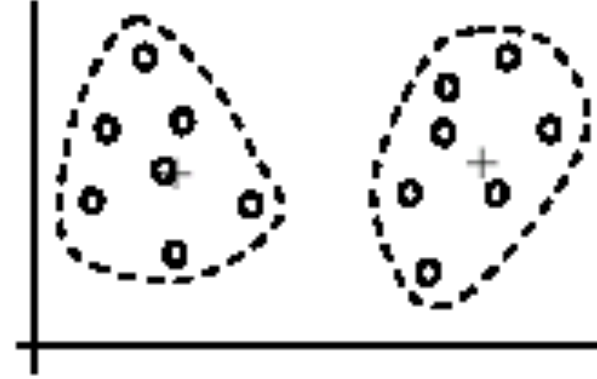
*Iteration 2: (D). Cluster assignment*



*(E). Re-compute centroids*



*Iteration 3: (F). Cluster assignment*



*(G). Re-compute centroids*

# An example distance function

The  $k$ -means algorithm can be used for any application data set where the **mean** can be defined and computed. In the **Euclidean space**, the mean of a cluster is computed with:

$$\mathbf{m}_j = \frac{1}{|C_j|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_j} \mathbf{x}_i \quad (2)$$

where  $|C_j|$  is the number of data points in cluster  $C_j$ . The distance from one data point  $\mathbf{x}_i$  to a mean (centroid)  $\mathbf{m}_j$  is computed with

$$\begin{aligned} dist(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{m}_j) &= \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{m}_j\| \\ &= \sqrt{(x_{i1} - m_{j1})^2 + (x_{i2} - m_{j2})^2 + \dots + (x_{ir} - m_{jr})^2} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$



# A disk version of $k$ -means

- K-means can be implemented with data on disk
  - In each iteration, it scans the data once.
  - as the centroids can be computed incrementally
- It can be used to cluster large datasets that do not fit in main memory
- We need to control the number of iterations
  - In practice, a limited is set ( $< 50$ ).
- Not the best method. There are other scale-up algorithms, e.g., BIRCH.

# A disk version of k-means (cont ...)

**Algorithm** disk- $k$ -means( $k, D$ )

- 1 Choose  $k$  data points as the initial centroids  $\mathbf{m}_j, j = 1, \dots, k$ ;
- 2 **repeat**
- 3     initialize  $\mathbf{s}_j = \mathbf{0}, j = 1, \dots, k$ ;                     //  $\mathbf{0}$  is a vector with all 0's
- 4     initialize  $n_j = 0, j = 1, \dots, k$ ;                     //  $n_j$  is the number points in cluster  $j$
- 5     **for** each data point  $\mathbf{x} \in D$  **do**
- 6          $j = \arg \min_j \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)$ ;
- 7         assign  $\mathbf{x}$  to the cluster  $j$ ;
- 8          $\mathbf{s}_j = \mathbf{s}_j + \mathbf{x}$ ;
- 9          $n_j = n_j + 1$ ;
- 10     **endfor**
- 11      $\mathbf{m}_i = \mathbf{s}_i / n_i, i = 1, \dots, k$ ;
- 12 **until** the stopping criterion is met

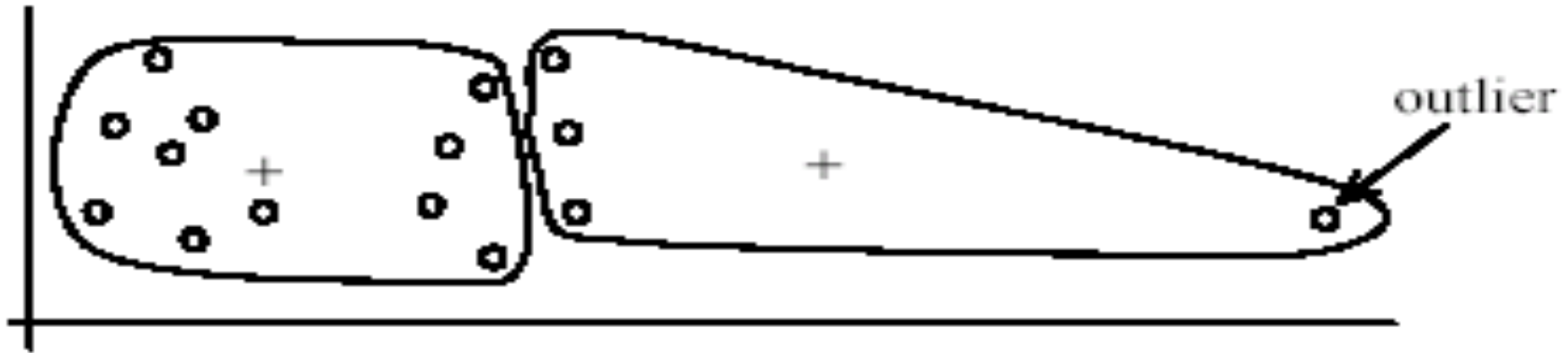
# Strengths of k-means

- Strengths:
  - Simple: easy to understand and to implement
  - Efficient: Time complexity:  $O(tkn)$ , where  $n$  is the number of data points,  $k$  is the number of clusters, and  $t$  is the number of iterations.
  - Since both  $k$  and  $t$  are small.  $k$ -means is considered a linear algorithm.
- K-means is the most popular clustering algorithm.
- Note that: it terminates at a **local optimum** if SSE is used. The **global optimum** is hard to find due to complexity.

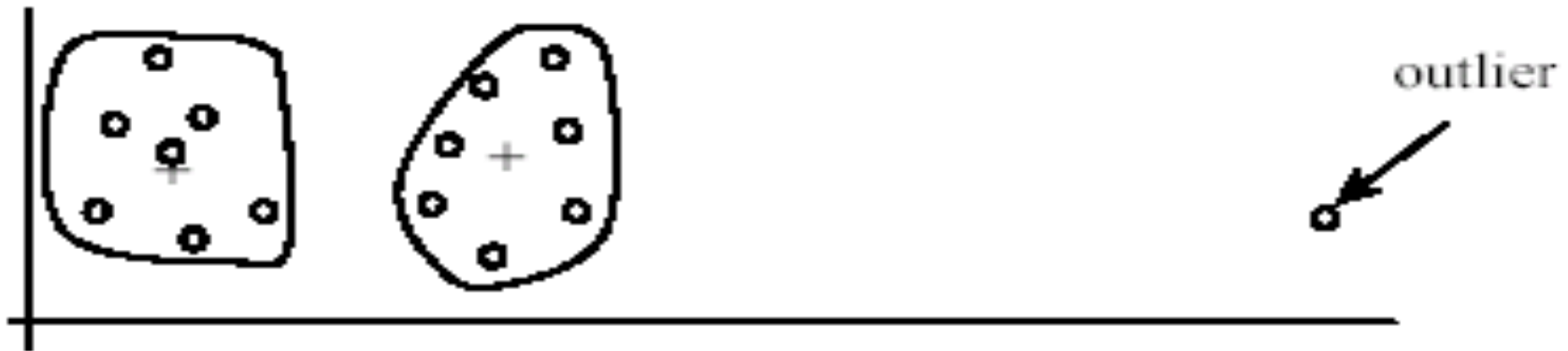
# Weaknesses of k-means

- The algorithm is only applicable if the **mean** is defined.
  - For categorical data, *k*-mode - the centroid is represented by most frequent values.
- The user needs to specify *k*.
- The algorithm is sensitive to **outliers**
  - Outliers are data points that are very far away from other data points.
  - Outliers could be errors in the data recording or some special data points with very different values.

# Weaknesses of k-means: Problems with outliers



(A): Undesirable clusters



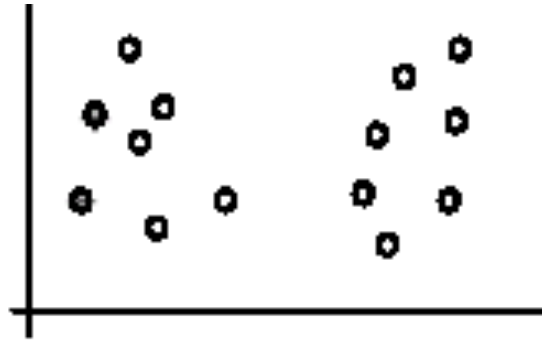
(B): Ideal clusters

# Weaknesses of k-means: To deal with outliers

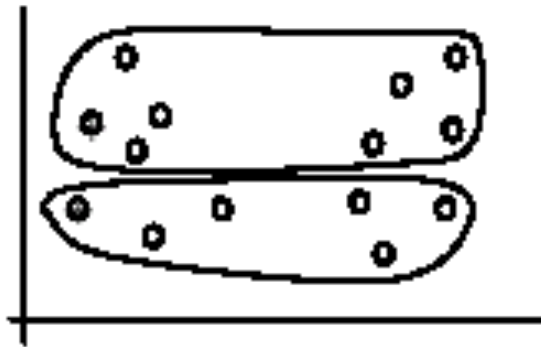
- One method is to remove some data points in the clustering process that are much further away from the centroids than other data points.
  - To be safe, we may want to monitor these possible outliers over a few iterations and then decide to remove them.
- Another method is to perform random sampling. Since in sampling we only choose a small subset of the data points, the chance of selecting an outlier is very small.
  - Assign the rest of the data points to the clusters by distance or similarity comparison, or classification

# Weaknesses of k-means (cont ...)

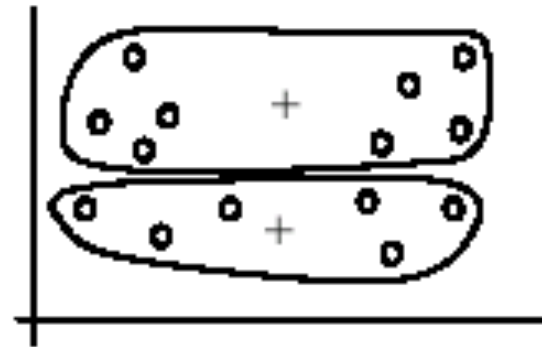
- The algorithm is sensitive to **initial seeds**.



(A). Random selection of seeds (centroids)



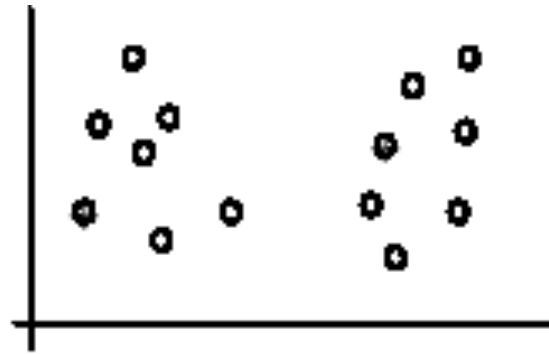
(B). Iteration 1



(C). Iteration 2

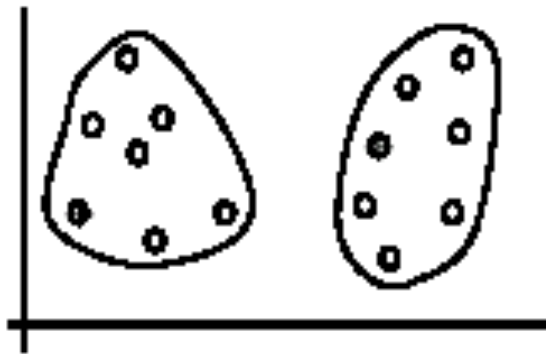
# Weaknesses of k-means (cont ...)

- If we use **different seeds**: good results

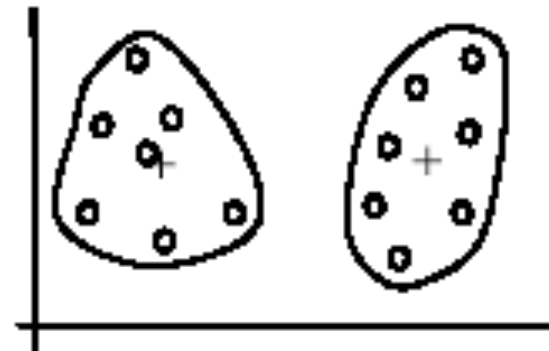


There are some methods to help choose good seeds

(A). Random selection of  $k$  seeds (centroids)



(B). Iteration 1



(C). Iteration 2



# Road map

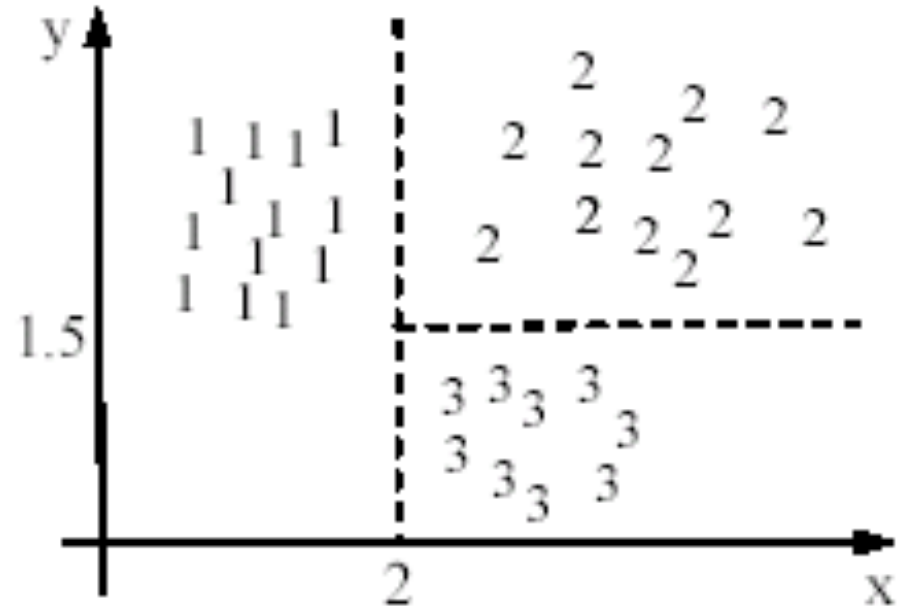
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# Common ways to represent clusters

- Use the centroid of each cluster to represent the cluster.
  - compute the radius and
  - standard deviation of the cluster to determine its spread in each dimension
- The centroid representation alone works well if the clusters are of the hyper-spherical shape.
- If clusters are elongated or are of other shapes, centroids are not sufficient

# Using classification model

- All the data points in a cluster are regarded to have the same class label, e.g., the cluster ID.
  - run a supervised learning algorithm on the data to find a classification model.



$x \leq 2 \rightarrow \text{cluster 1}$

$x > 2, y > 1.5 \rightarrow \text{cluster 2}$

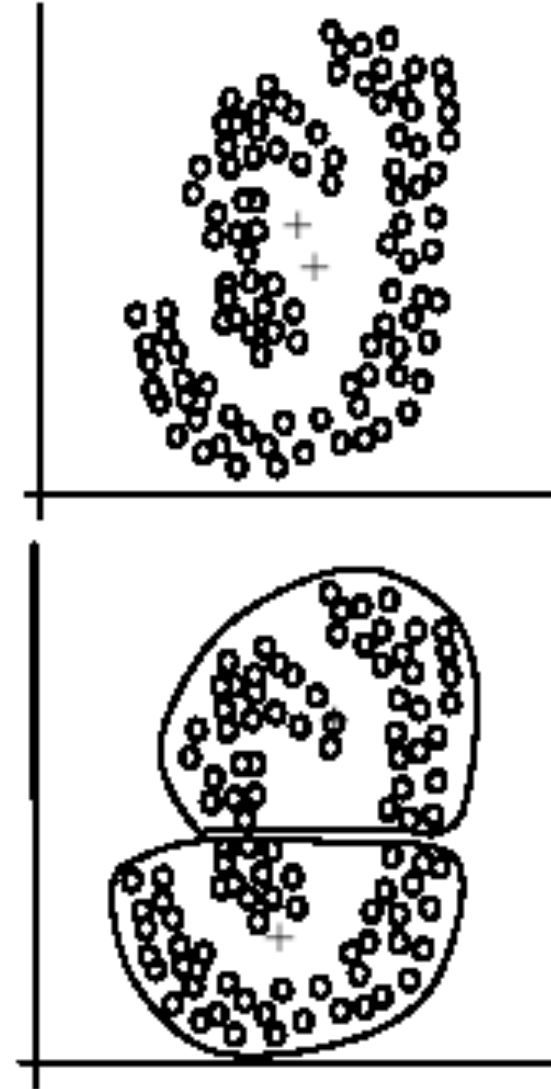
$x > 2, y \leq 1.5 \rightarrow \text{cluster 3}$

# Use frequent values to represent cluster

- This method is mainly for clustering of categorical data (e.g.,  $k$ -modes clustering).
- Main method used in text clustering, where a small set of frequent words in each cluster is selected to represent the cluster.

# Clusters of arbitrary shapes

- Hyper-elliptical and hyper-spherical clusters are usually easy to represent, using their centroid together with spreads.
- Irregular shape clusters are hard to represent. They may not be useful in some applications.
  - Using centroids are not suitable (upper figure) in general
  - K-means clusters may be more useful (lower figure), e.g., for making 2 size T-shirts.

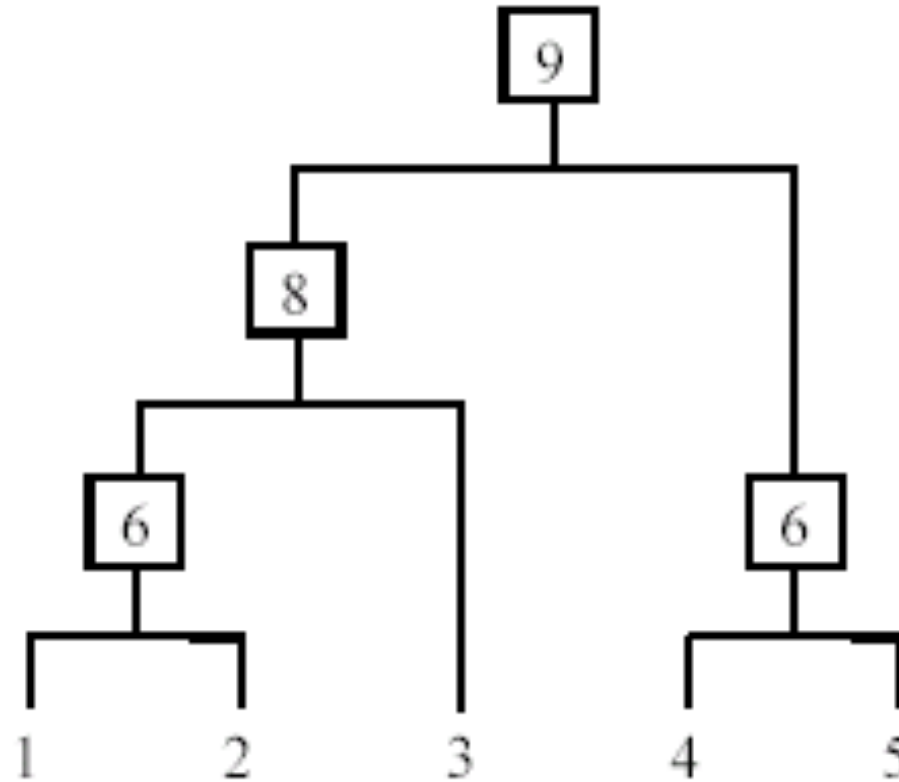


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# Hierarchical Clustering

- Produce a nested sequence of clusters, a **tree**, also called **Dendrogram**.



# Types of hierarchical clustering

- **Agglomerative (bottom up) clustering**: It builds the dendrogram (tree) from the bottom level, and
  - merges the most similar (or nearest) pair of clusters
  - stops when all the data points are merged into a single cluster (i.e., the root cluster).
- **Divisive (top down) clustering**: It starts with all data points in one cluster, the root.
  - Splits the root into a set of child clusters. Each child cluster is recursively divided further
  - stops when only singleton clusters of individual data points remain, i.e., each cluster with only a single point

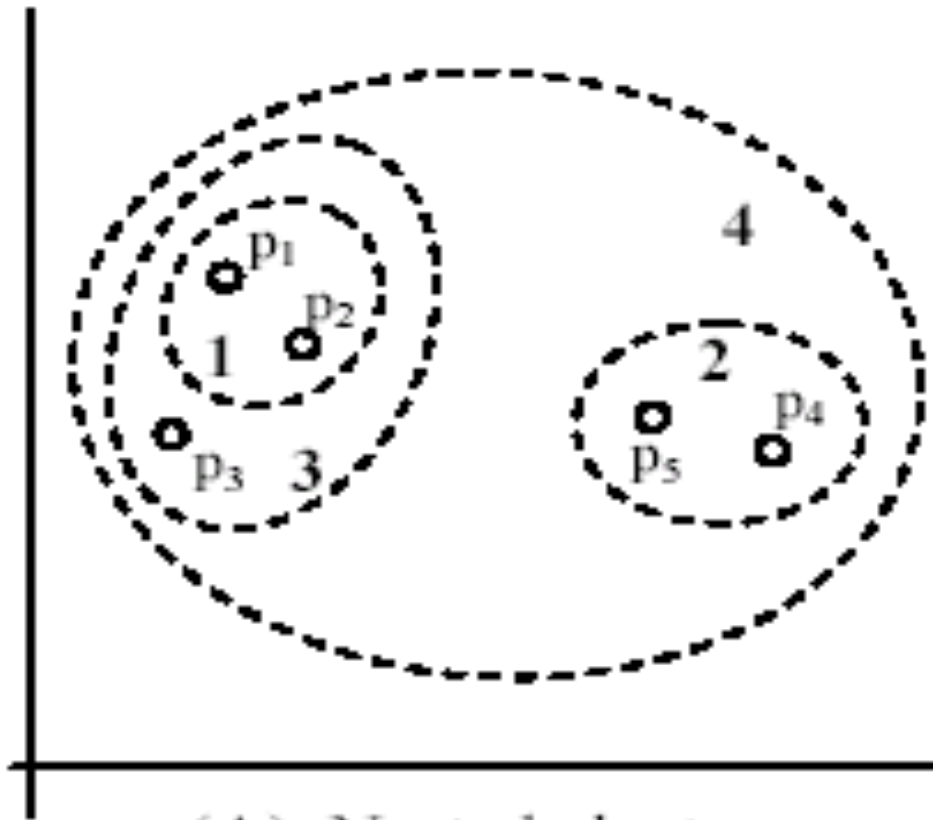


# Agglomerative clustering

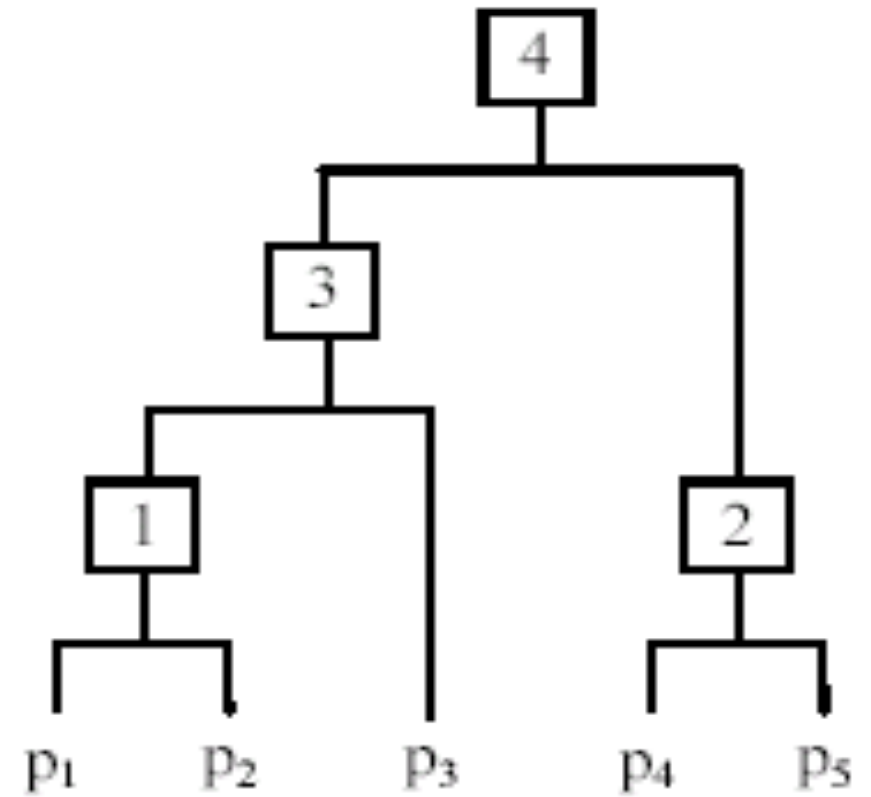
It is more popular than divisive methods.

- At the beginning, each data point forms a cluster (also called a node).
- Merge nodes/clusters that have the least distance.
- Go on merging
- Eventually all nodes belong to one cluster

# An example: working of the algorithm



(A). Nested clusters



(B) Dendrogram

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# Distance functions

- Key to clustering. “similarity” and “dissimilarity” can also commonly used terms.
- There are numerous distance functions for
  - Different types of data
    - Numeric data
  - Different specific applications

# Distance functions for numeric attributes

- Most commonly used functions are
  - Euclidean distance and
  - Manhattan (city block) distance
- We denote distance with:  $dist(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_j$  are data points (vectors)
- They are special cases of Minkowski distance.  $h$  is positive integer.

$$dist(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = ((x_{i1} - x_{j1})^h + (x_{i2} - x_{j2})^h + \dots + (x_{ir} - x_{jr})^h)^{\frac{1}{h}}$$

# Euclidean distance and Manhattan distance

- If  $h = 2$ , it is the **Euclidean distance**

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sqrt{(x_{i1} - x_{j1})^2 + (x_{i2} - x_{j2})^2 + \dots + (x_{ir} - x_{jr})^2}$$

- If  $h = 1$ , it is the **Manhattan distance**

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = |x_{i1} - x_{j1}| + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}| + \dots + |x_{ir} - x_{jr}|$$

- **Weighted Euclidean distance**

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sqrt{w_1(x_{i1} - x_{j1})^2 + w_2(x_{i2} - x_{j2})^2 + \dots + w_r(x_{ir} - x_{jr})^2}$$

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# Data standardization

- In the Euclidean space, standardization of attributes is recommended so that all attributes can have equal impact on the computation of distances.
- Consider the following pair of data points
  - $\mathbf{x}_i$ : (0.1, 20) and  $\mathbf{x}_j$ : (0.9, 720).

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sqrt{(0.9 - 0.1)^2 + (720 - 20)^2} = 700.000457,$$

- The distance is almost completely dominated by  $(720 - 20) = 700$ .
- **Standardize attributes**: to force the attributes to have a common value range



# Interval-scaled attributes

- Their values are real numbers following a linear scale.
  - The difference in Age between 10 and 20 is the same as that between 40 and 50.
  - The key idea is that intervals keep the same importance through out the scale
- Two main approaches to standardize interval scaled attributes, **range** and **z-score**.  $f$  is an attribute

$$range(x_{if}) = \frac{x_{if} - \min(f)}{\max(f) - \min(f)},$$

# Interval-scaled attributes (cont ...)

- **Z-score**: transforms the attribute values so that they have a mean of zero and a **mean absolute deviation** of 1. The mean absolute deviation of attribute  $f$ , denoted by  $s_f$  is computed as follows

$$s_f = \frac{1}{n} (|x_{1f} - m_f| + |x_{2f} - m_f| + \dots + |x_{nf} - m_f|),$$

$$m_f = \frac{1}{n} (x_{1f} + x_{2f} + \dots + x_{nf}),$$

Z-score: 
$$z(x_{if}) = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}.$$

# Summary

- Clustering has a long history and is still active
  - There are a huge number of clustering algorithms
  - More are still coming every year.
- We only introduced several main algorithms. There are many others, e.g.,
  - density based algorithm, sub-space clustering, scale-up methods, neural networks based methods, fuzzy clustering, co-clustering, etc.
- Clustering is hard to evaluate, but very useful in practice. This partially explains why there are still a large number of clustering algorithms being devised every year.
- Clustering is highly application dependent and to some extent subjective.

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THANKS

