Descriptive Modelling

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Data Mining I - 2023/2024

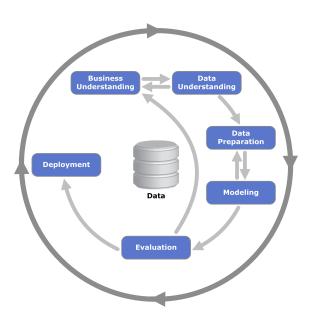




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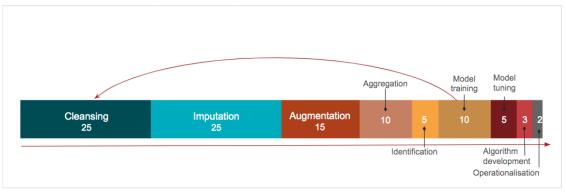
From previous class ...



Shearer C.: The CRISP-DM model: the new blueprint for data mining, J Data Warehousing (2000)

So Far ...

• We have manipulate, explore, clean and transform the data ...



"Average time allocated to machine-learning project tasks" %of total SOURCE: Cognilytica, 2019

- Now, we are entering the modelling phase * we will start by Descriptive Modelling
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Today

- Descriptive Analytics
- Clustering Methods

Descriptive Analytics

Descriptive Analytics

- Main Goal: Describe/summarize or finding structure on what we have observed
- Data summarization and visualization (e.g. PCA) can be seen as simple forms of descriptive analytics
- However, most frequently descriptive modeling is associated with clustering

- How to measure similarity between objects?
- The notion of similarity is strongly related with the notion of distance between observations
- It can be measured as the ooposite of the distance

ID	Income	Position	Age
1	2500	manager	35
2	2750	manager	30
3	4550	director	50

Which cases are more similar?

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Similarity Measures

- Similarity measure
 - · Numerical measure of how alike two data objects are.
 - · Is higher when objects are more alike.
 - Often falls in the range [0,1]
- Dissimilarity measure
 - Numerical measure of how different two data objects are
 - · Lower when objects are more alike
 - Minimum dissimilarity is often 0 Upper limit varies

Proximity refers to a similarity or dissimilarity

- Dissimilarity measure can be expressed by a distance metric
- Distance metrics d have some well-known properties
- Triangle Inequality
- Given two data points x_i and x_j
 - $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_i) \geq 0$
 - $d(x_i, x_j) = 0$ only if $x_i = x_j$
 - $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = d(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)$
 - $d(x_i, x_j) \le d(x_i, x_k) + d(x_k, x_j)$ for any point x_i , x_j and x_k
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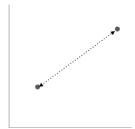
Similarity Measures

Euclidean Distance

$$d(x_i, x_j) = \sqrt{\sum_{a=1}^{m} (x_i^a - x_j^a)^2}$$

where m is the number of attributes and x_i^a and x_j^a are the a^{th} attribute value for the data points x_i and x_j , respectively

Euclidean

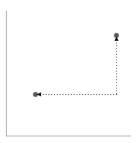


Manhattan Distance

$$d(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{a=1}^{m} |x_i^a - x_j^a|$$

where m is the number of attributes and x_i^a and x_j^a are the a^{th} attribute value for the data points x_i and x_j , respectively

Manhattan



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Similarity Measures

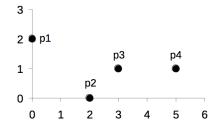
A Generalization: Minkowski Distance

$$d(x_i, x_j) = \sqrt[p]{\sum_{a=1}^{m} |x_i^a - x_j^a|^p}$$

where if

- p = 1, we have the Manhattan Distance (or L_1 -norm)
- p = 2, we have the Euclidean Distance (or L_2 -norm)
- . . .
- $p = \infty$, we have Chebyschev or *supremum* distance (or L_{∞} -norm):
 - maximum difference between any of the attributes of the data points.

Example of Minkowski Distances: L_1 -norm, L_2 -norm and L_{∞} -norm



point	x	y	
p1	0	2	
p2	2	0	
р3	3	1	
р4	5	1	

L1	p1	p2	р3	p4
p1	0	4	4	6
p2	4	0	2	4
р3	4	2	0	2
р4	6	4	2	0

L2	p1	p2	р3	p4
p1	0	2.828	3.162	5.099
p2	2.828	0	1.414	3.162
р3	3.162	1.414	0	2
p4	5.099	3.162	2	0

\mathbf{L}_{∞}	p1	p2	р3	p4
p1	0	2	3	5
p2	2	0	1	3
р3	3	1	0	2
p4	5	3	2	0

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Similarity Measures

- More examples of similarity/distance measures
 - · Canberra distance
 - Jaccard Coefficients
 - · Cosine similarity
- Several problems may arise that may distort the notion of distance:
 - · different scales of variables
 - · different importance of variables
 - different types of data (e.g. both numeric and categorical variables)

Heterogeneous Distance Functions

$$d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sum_{a=1}^m \delta_a(x_i^a, y_i^a)$$

where

• if a is a categorical variable

$$\delta_a(x_i^a, x_j^a) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x_i^a == x_j^a \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• if a is a numeric variable

$$\delta_a(x_i^a, x_j^a) = \frac{|x_i^a - x_j^a|}{|max_a - min_a|}$$

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Similarity Measures

General Coefficient of Similarity

$$s(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{a=1}^{m} w_a s(x_i^a, y_i^a) / \sum_{a=1}^{m} w_a$$

- s() is a similarity measure, m is the number of attributes,
- x_i^a and x_i^a are the a^{th} attribute value for x_i and x_j , respectively,
- $w_a \in [0, 1]$ is the weight for the attribute a.
 - Given any two data points x_i and x_j
 - $s(x_i, x_j) = 1$, only if $x_i == x_j$
 - $s(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = s(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i)$

Clustering

Clustering

Goals:

- Obtain the "natural" grouping of a set of data, i.e. find some structure on the data set
 - The key issue on clustering is the notion of similarity
 - Observations on the same group are supposed to share some properties, i.e. being similar
 - Most clustering methods use the information on the distances among observations in a data set
- Provide some abstraction of the found groups (e.g. a representation of their main features; a prototype for each group; etc.), gain novel insights of data

Clustering: Some Applications

- Biology
 - describe spatial and temporal communities of organisms
 - group genes or proteins that have similar functionality
- Business and Marketing
 - describe different market segments from a set of potetential clients
 - · group stocks with similar price fluctuations
- Web Mining
 - find groups of related documents for information retrieval
 - · find communities in social networks
 - build recommender systems
- . . .
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Clustering: Main Types of Methods

- Partitional: divide the observations in k partitions according to some criterion
- Hierarchical: generate a hierarchy of groups, from 1 to n groups, where n is the number of lines in the data set
 - Agglomerative: create a hierarchy bottom up (from n to 1 group)
 - Divisive: create a hierarchy top down (from 1 to n groups)

Goal: Partition the given set of data into *k* groups by either minimizing or maximizing a pre-specified criterion

- · Some key issues:
 - The choice of the number of groups
 - The nr of possible divisions of *n* cases into *k* groups can grow fast!

$$N(n,k) = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (-1)^{k-i} {k \choose i} i^{n}$$

e.g. for n = 100 and k = 5, $N(100, 5) \approx 6.6 \cdot 10^{67}$

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Clustering Partitional Methods

Some important properties

- Cluster compactness
 - · how similar are cases within the same cluster
- Cluster separation
 - how far is the cluster from the other clusters

Goal:

minimize intra-cluster distance and maximize inter-cluster distances

- A clustering solution assigns all the objects to a cluster
 - · hard clustering: an object belongs to a single cluster
 - fuzzy clustering: each object has a probability associated to belong to each cluster

Consider the cluster $C_k = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n_k}\}$, the centroid of C_k is given by

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k} \mathbf{x}_i$$

the centroid of C_k can also be the median of its data objects, i.e. $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}$

Goal: obtain a set of clusters C that minimize

$$h(C) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{x_i \in C_j} d(x_i, \bar{x}^{(j)})$$

(Some) Criteria for numeric data

- Sum of Squared Errors (SSE): $d(x_i, \bar{x}^{(j)}) = (x_i \bar{x}^{(j)})^2$
- L_1 measure: $d(x_i, \bar{x}^{(j)}) = |x_i \tilde{x}^{(j)}|$
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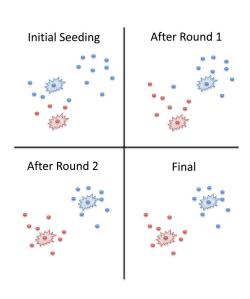
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Clustering Partitional Methods: k-Means

It is a partition-based method that obtains k groups of a data set

k-means algorithm

- Initialize the centers of the k groups to a set of randomly chosen observations
- Repeat
 - Allocate each observation to the group whose center is nearest
 - Re-calculate the center of each group
- Until the groups are stable, i.e. there is no significant decrease or there is an increase on the minimize criterion h(C)



Clustering Partitional Methods: k-Means

Some observations:

- It uses the squared Euclidean distance as criterion
- Maximizes inter-cluster dissimilarity

Advantages:

- Fast algorithm that scales well
- Stochastic approach that frequently works well. It tends to identify local minima.

Disadvantages:

- It does not ensure an optimal clustering
- We may obtain different solutions with different starting points
- The initial guess of *k* for the number of clusters, maybe away from the real optimal value of *k*.
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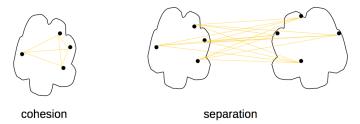
Clustering Validation

How to validate/evaluate/compare the results obtained by some clustering method?

- Is the found group structure random?
- What is the "correct" number of groups?
- How to evaluate the result of a clustering algorithm when we do not have information on the number of groups in the data set?
- How to compare the results obtained by different methods when outside information on the number of groups exists?
- How to compare alternative solutions (e.g. obtained using different clustering algorithms)?

Clustering Validation: Types of Evaluation Measures

- Supervised compare the obtained clustering (grouping) with the external information that we have available
- Unsupervised try to measure the quality of the clustering without any information on the "ideal" structure of the data
 - Cohesion coefficients determine how compacts/cohesive are the members of a group
 - Separation coefficients determine how different are the members of different groups



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Clustering Validation: Silhouette Coefficient

Silhouette Coefficient (unsupervised measure)

- Popular coefficient that incorporates both the notions of cohesion and separation
- For each object x_i:
 - obtain the average distance to all objects in the same group (a_i)
 - to any other group to which x_i does not belong, calculate the average distance to the members of these other groups; obtain the minimum value of these distances (b_i)
 - The silhouette coefficient, s_i is equal to

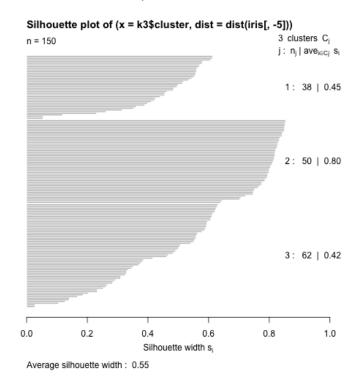
$$s_i = \frac{b_i - a_i}{max(a_i, b_i)}$$

The coefficient takes values between −1 and 1.

Clustering Validation: Silhouette Coefficient (cont.)

Example: iris data set silhouette coefficients s_i with k = 3 clusters

- Large s_i (almost 1)
 means that they are
 very well clustered.
- Small s_i (around 0)
 means that they lie
 between two clusters.
- Negative s_i means that they are probably placed in the wrong cluster.
- The closer average silhouette to 1, the better.



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Clustering Validation: Best Number of Clusters

How to select the right *k* for k-means?

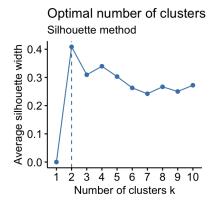
- An inappropriate choice of k can result in a clustering with poor performance.
- What happens if we select a k that is too high?
- What if the k is too low?
- Ideally, you should have some a priori knowledge on the real structure of the data.
- If no a priori value is known start with $\sqrt{n/2}$ as a rule of thumb, where n is the number of attributes.

Clustering Validation: Best Number of Clusters

Silhouette-based method

For several possible number of clusters k:

 Calculate the average silhouette coefficient value and choose the k that yields to the highest value



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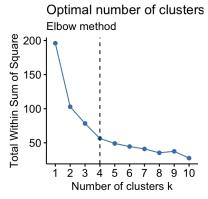
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Clustering Validation: Best Number of Clusters (cont.)

Elbow method

For several possible number of clusters *k*:

 Calculate the within-cluster SSE, also called distortion, and choose the k so that adding another cluster doesn't yield to a much smaller SSE.



Other, more sophisticated methods exist (e.g. intracluster to intercluster distance ratio)

PAM (Partitioning Around Medoids)

- It searches for the *k* representative objects (the medoids) among the cases in the given data set.
- As with k-means each observation is allocated to the nearest medoid.
- Is more robust to the presence of outliers because it uses original objects as centroids instead of averages that may be subject to the effects of outliers.
- Moreover, it uses a more robust measure of the clustering quality: $L_1 norm$, which is based on absolute error instead of the squared error used in k-means,

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Other Clustering Partitional Methods

CLARA (Clustering Large Applications)

- The PAM algorithm has several advantages in terms of robustness when compared to k-means.
- However, these advantages come at the price of aditional computational complexity that may be critical for large data sets
- CLARA tries to solve these efficiency problems
- It does that by using sampling, i.e. working on parts of the data set instead of the full data set

CLARA Algorithm

- Repeat *n* times the following:
 - Draw a random sample of size m
 - Apply PAM to this random sample to obtain k centroids
 - Allocate the full set of observations to one of these centroids
 - · Calculate sum of dissimilarities of the resulting clustering (as in PAM)
- Return as result the clustering of the n repetitions that got lowest sum of dissimilarities

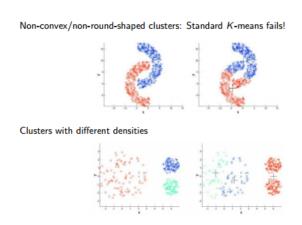
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Other Clustering Partitional Methods

These "k-means like" methods have problems with:

clusters of different sizes, densities and with non-globular shape



data that contains outliers/noise

DBSCAN (Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise)

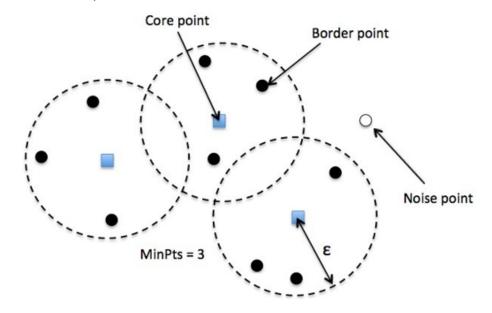
- The density of an observation is estimated by the nr. of observations within a certain radius (a parameter of the method)
- · Based on this idea observations are classified as:
 - core points: if the nr. of observations within its radius are above a certain threshold
 - border points: if the nr. of observations within their radius does not reach the threshold but they are within the radius of a core point
 - noise points: they do not have enough observations within their radius, nor are they sufficiently close to any core point

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Other Clustering Partitional Methods

DBSCAN: Core, Border and Noise Points



DBSCAN Algorithm

- Classify each observation in one of the three possible alternatives
- Eliminate the noise points from the formation of the groups
- All core points that are within a certain distance of each other are allocated to the same group
- · Each border point is allocated to the group of the nearest core point
- Note that this method does not require the user to specify the number of groups.
- But, you need to specify the radius (ε) and the minimum number of points (MinPts)

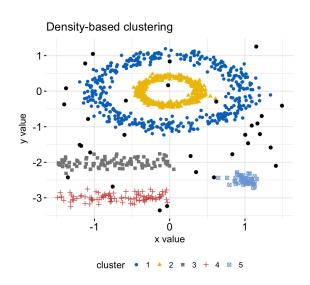
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Other Clustering Partitional Methods (cont.)

DBSCAN

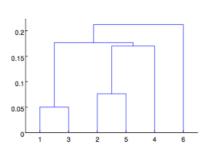
- Advantages:
 - Can handle clusters with different shapes and sizes
 - · Resistant to noise
- Disadvantages:
 - Varying densities
 - High-dimensional data

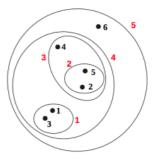


Hierarchical Clustering

Goal:

- Obtain a hierarchy of groups, where each level represents a possible solution with k groups.
- It is up to the user to select the solution he wants.
- A dendogram can be used for visualization





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Hierarchical Clustering

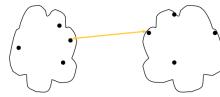
- · Agglomerative Methods bottom-up
 - Start with as many groups as there are cases
 - · On each upper level a pair of groups is merged into a single group
 - The chosen pair is formed by the groups that are more similar
- Divisive Methods top-down (much less used)
 - Start with a single group
 - On each level select a group to be split in two
 - The selected group is the one with smallest uniformity

Hierarchical Clustering

Some proximity measures for the merging/splitting step

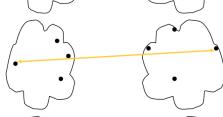
single link

$$d(C_1, C_2) = \min_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1, \mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$



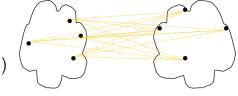
complete link

$$d(C_1, C_2) = \max_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1, \mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$



average link

$$d(C_1, C_2) = \frac{1}{n_1 n_2} \sum_{x_i \in C_1, x_j \in C_2} d(x_i, x_j)$$



Other methods: distance between the centroids, Ward's method (uses SSE).

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Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Hierarchical Agglomerative Algorithm

- Compute the proximity matrix
- · Let each data point be a cluster
- Repeat
 - Merge the two closest clusters
 - Update the proximity matrix
- Until only a single cluster remains

Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Example: Consider the following distance matrix

	Α	В	С	D	E	F
A	0					
В	4	0				
С	25	21	0			
D	24	20	1	0		
E	9	5	16	15	0	
F	7	3	18	17	2	0
Distance Matrix - Stage 0						

• Use agglomerative hierarchical clustering with single-link method

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Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Example: Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering, single-link method.

	Α	В	С	D	E	F
A	0					
В	4	0				
С	25	21	0			
D	24	20	1	0		
E	9	5	16	15	0	
F	7	3	18	17	2	0
Distance Matrix - Stage 0						

	Α	В	CD	E	F		
Α	0						
В	4	0					
CD	24	20	0				
E	9	5	15	0			
F	7	3	17	2	0		
5: 4							

CD 24 20 0 EF 7 3 15

A BEF CD
A 0 BEF 4 0 CD 24 15 0

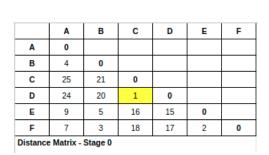
ABEF CD
ABEF 0
CD 15 0

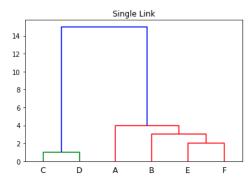
Distance Matrix - Stage 4

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Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Example: Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering, single-link method.





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Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Different proximity measures yield to different types of clusters.

- single-link
 - can handle non-elliptical shapes
 - uses a local merge citerion
 - distant parts of the cluster and the clusters' overall structure are not taken into account

Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative Methods

Different proximity measures yield to different types of clusters.

- complete-link
 - biased towards globular clusters
 - uses a non-local merge citerion
 - chooses the pair of clusters whose merge has the smallest diameter
 - the similarity of two clusters is the similarity of their most dissimilar members
 - · sensitive to noise/outliers
- average-link
 - it is a compromise between single and complete link
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Hierarchical Clustering: Divisive Methods

Hierarchical Divisive Algorithm

- Compute the proximity matrix
- Start with a single cluster that contains all data points
- Repeat
 - choose the cluster with the largest diameter, i.e. largest dissimilarity between any two of its points
 - select the data point with largest average dissimilarity to the other members in that cluster
 - re-allocate the data points to either the cluster of this selected point or the "old" cluster (represented by its center), depending on which one is nearest
- Until each data point constitutes a cluster

Clustering Methods: Wrap-up

Overall, we can compare clustering methods w.r.t

- Algorithm:
 - complexity and scalability
 - · similarity measures that can be employed
 - · robustness to noise
 - it is able to find clusters on sub-spaces
 - · different runs lead to different results
 - it is incremental

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Clustering Methods: Wrap-up

Overall, we can compare clustering methods w.r.t

- Data:
 - it is able to handle different types of data?
 - · continuous, categorical, binary
 - is there dependency on the order of data points?
- · Domain:
 - does the algorithm finds the number of clusters, or needs it as input?
 - how many parameters are necessary?
 - what is the required domain knowledge for that?
- Results:
 - · shape of clusters that is able to find
 - interpretability

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