

Lecture 9: Clustering Part I

Statistical Methods for Data Science

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Today

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Modeling for clustering
- 3 Clustering tendency
 - Are there clusters in the data?
 - Distance based approach
 - Hopkins statistic
 - Histogram based technique
- 4 First clustering model: K-means
- 5 Summary

Learning outcome

- Understand the difference between supervised learning and unsupervised learning
- Understand how to apply clustering algorithms to the applications discussed in this lecture
- Be able to compute histograms for high dimensional data
- Be able to compute the dissimilarity matrix with the Euclidean distance
- Be able to explain how to identify clusterability using the Hopkins statistic
- Be able to implement the K-means algorithm

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Clustering

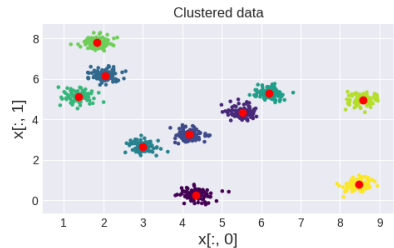
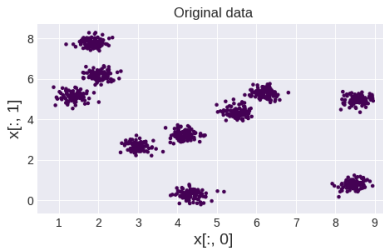
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Clustering

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- We assign some semantics to each of these data points

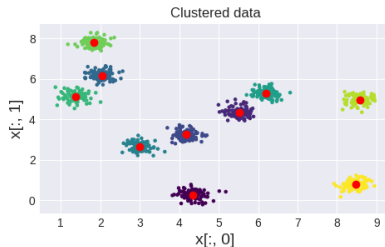
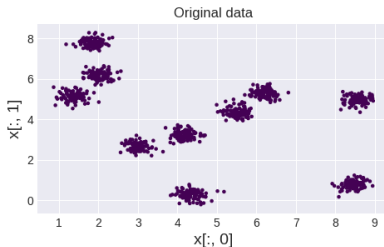
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- Each of these semantics is called a **cluster**
- The process of finding clusters is called **clustering**

Application

Clustering is widely used in different applications - clustering algorithm development **does not require expensive annotations**

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1. Clustering as a preprocessing method

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1. Clustering as a preprocessing method

- 1.1 To summarize a large amount of data using their clusters

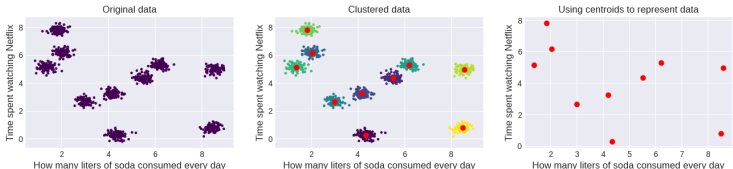
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1. Clustering as a preprocessing method

1.1 To summarize a large amount of data using their clusters

Example: you have access to the time people spend on Netflix and the amount of soda they consume everyday; you want to make a more advanced summary from this data set



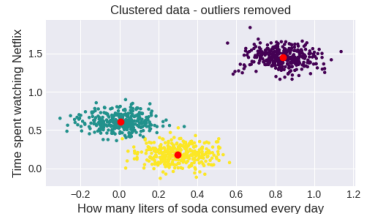
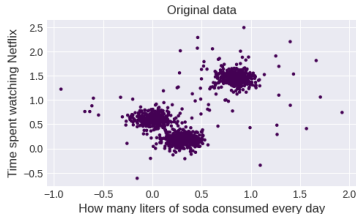
Group these people into clusters and correlate these patterns with other data sources

Application (cont.)

1. Clustering as a preprocessing method (cont.)
 - 1.2 To detect and remove **outliers** - data points that are far away from any clusters

Application (cont.)

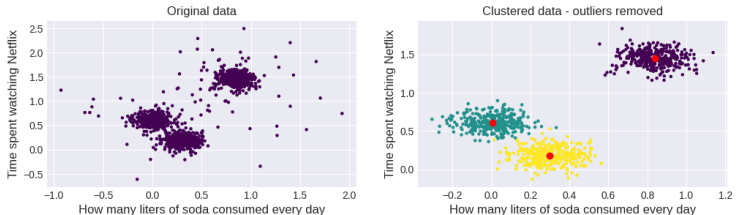
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Without clustering, it is hard to define what should be considered outliers when the data distribution is **complex**:

- High dimensionality
- Data cannot be modeled with a single probability distribution

Application (cont.)

2. Clustering as a data reduction technique

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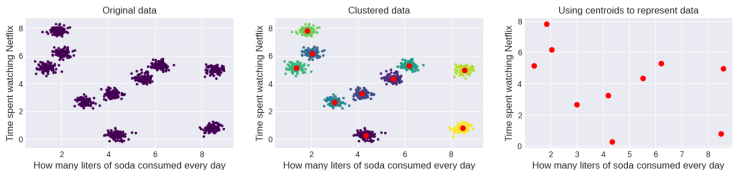
2. Clustering as a data reduction technique

- 2.1 To reduce a large amount of data into fewer data points by, e.g., representing the data set with only the centroids - the set up is similar to 1.1

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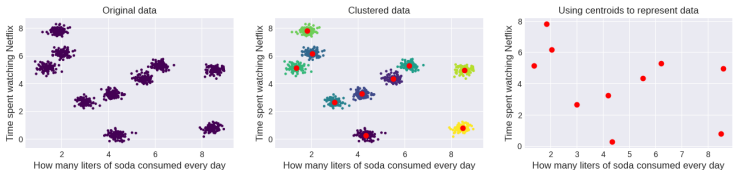
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One important application is the **recommender system**

- Task: find patterns in preferred items from massive amount of users
- Challenge: there are too many users
- Solution: we recommend items to users on a cluster level

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- Now we only use $3 \times K$ unique values to represent the image instead of 3×256 values

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- Now we only use $3 \times K$ unique values to represent the image instead of 3×256 values
- In this example, with $K = 10$ centroids, when we save the .png image, we have a reduction from 328.5 kB to 43.4 kB

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There are mainly four categories of clustering models

- **Centroid clustering**
- **Distribution clustering**
- Density clustering
- Hierarchical clustering
- θ (parameters) and h (hyperparameters) depend on g

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- **Similarity** is not well defined
- Clustering tasks do not require annotations - it is cheaper, but also more difficult because there are no predefined clusters!
- In this course, we will look at one commonly used parameter estimation technique called the **Expectation-Maximization (EM)** algorithm

Models in this course

We are going to introduce various categories of clustering techniques; then we focus on two clustering models

- K-means
 - **Parameters:** K centroids
 - **Hyperparameters:** K
 - **Parameter estimation:** an iterative method to update the centroids until convergence; this method can be interpreted as a simplified version of the Expectation-Maximization algorithm

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- K-means
 - **Parameters:** K centroids
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 - **Parameter estimation:** an iterative method to update the centroids until convergence; this method can be interpreted as a simplified version of the Expectation-Maximization algorithm
- Gaussian mixture models
 - **Parameters:** K priors, K Gaussian likelihood (the big two!)
 - **Hyperparameters:** the number of Gaussian components K
 - **Parameter estimation:** the Expectation-Maximization algorithm

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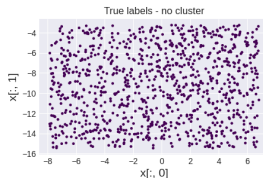
Let's try something out!

- Generate some data $\{[x_1^1, x_1^2], \dots, [x_N^1, x_N^2]\}$ from a uniform distribution for $i = 1, \dots, N, j = 1, 2$



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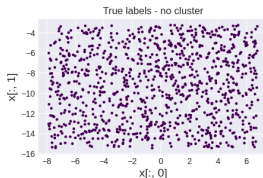
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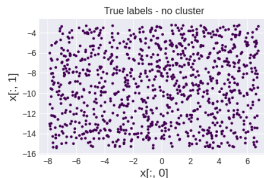
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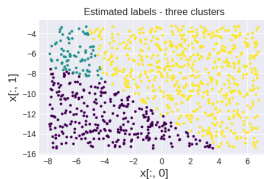
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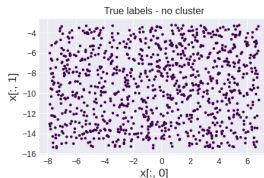


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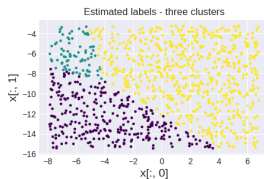


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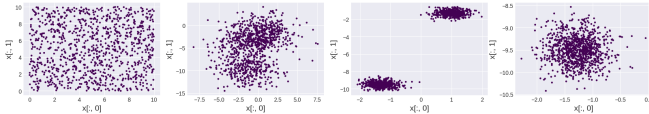


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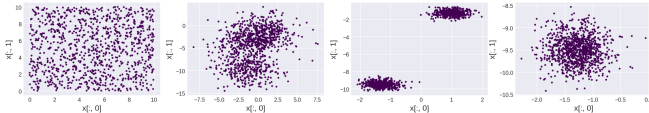
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 - Now spend 30 secs staring at the plots and try to think how you can measure if the data is clusterable

Cluster tendency

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- Comparing distributions gets trickier when $d > 1$!

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 - Histogram for high dimensional data

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$$\{d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_2), d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2), d(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{y}_2)\}$$

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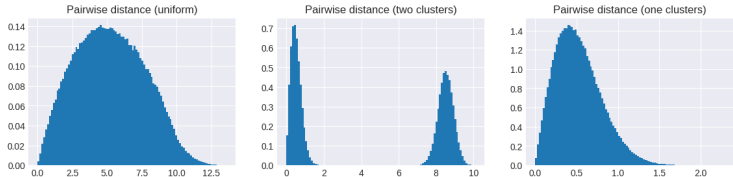
- Pairwise distance
 - Distances between all pairs of data points from two sets
 - Example: let $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3\}$ and $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2\}$ be two sets, the pairwise distance is defined as

$$\{d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_2), d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2), d(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{y}_1), d(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{y}_2)\}$$

- The general idea is to compare the **distribution of the pairwise distance computed from the data** to the one computed from a distribution without clustering tendency, e.g. a **uniform distribution**

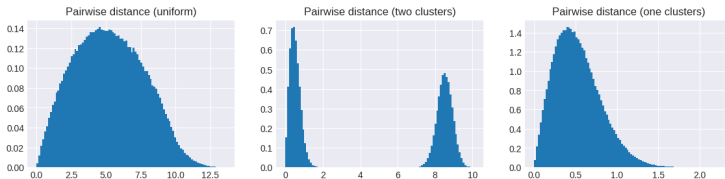
Distance based approach (cont.)

- Pairwise distance (cont.)
 - A very simplistic example



Distance based approach (cont.)

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 - A very simplistic example



- Dissimilarity matrix
 - A matrix that contains pairwise distance $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_j)$ on its $(i, j)^{th}$ position
- | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| $d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1)$ | $d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_2)$ | $d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_3)$ |
| $d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_1)$ | $d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2)$ | $d(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_3)$ |
- It is very useful in many machine learning algorithms
 - Ordered dissimilarity matrix:** reorder the similarity matrix to group similar items together

Hopkins statistic

Hopkins statistic for testing cluster tendency

- **Data:** $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ from unknown distribution
- **Null hypothesis H_0 :** there is no cluster tendency in the data set
- **Test statistic h :** Hopkins statistic

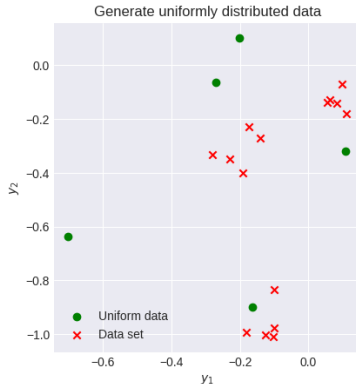
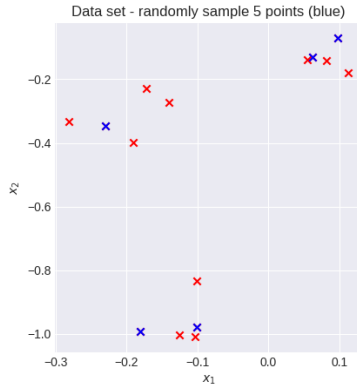
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- **Null hypothesis H_0 :** there is no cluster tendency in the data set
- **Test statistic h :** Hopkins statistic *Just when you thought you'd never see hypothesis testing ever again... Bam!*
- **Computation**
 - 1: Choose an integer $M \ll N$ (sparse sampling)
 - 2: Generate a sample of uniformly distributed data with sample size M : $\{\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_M\}$
 - 3: Randomly choose M data points (without replacement) from \mathcal{X} : $\{\mathbf{x}_{m_1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{m_M}\}$
 - 4: **for** $i = 1$ to M **do**
 - 5: Find the **nearest neighbor of \mathbf{y}_i** in \mathcal{X} : \mathbf{y}
 - 6: Compute the distance between \mathbf{y}_i and \mathbf{y} : $u_i = \text{dist}(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y})$
 - 7: Find the **nearest neighbor of \mathbf{x}_{m_i}** in \mathcal{X} : \mathbf{x}
 - 8: Compute the distance between \mathbf{x}_{m_i} and \mathbf{x} : $w_i = \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}_{m_i}, \mathbf{x})$
 - 9: **end for**
- 10:
$$h_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M u_i^d}{\sum_{i=1}^M u_i^d + \sum_{i=1}^M w_i^d}$$

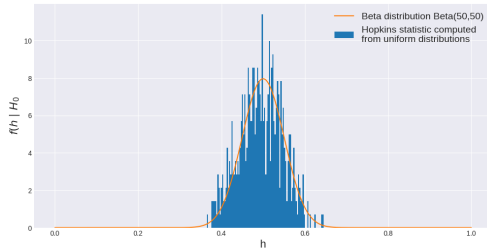
Hypothesis testing using Hopkins statistic (cont.)



Hypothesis testing using Hopkins statistic (cont.)

- **Null distribution:**

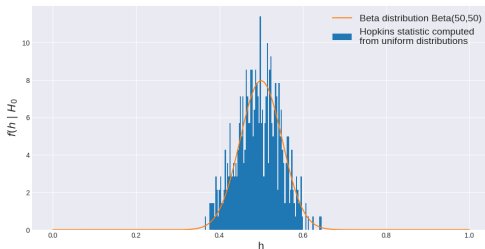
- PDF: Beta distribution with parameters $a = M$ and $b = M$
- Python: `stats.beta.pdf(x, M, M)`



Hypothesis testing using Hopkins statistic (cont.)

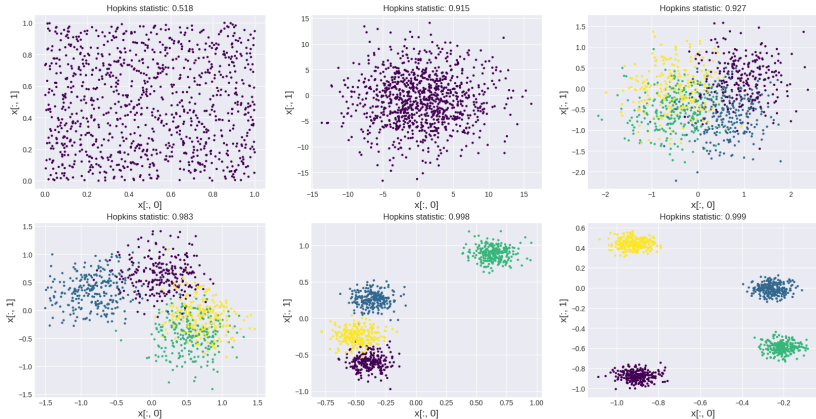
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- Python: `stats.beta.pdf(x, M, M)`



- Note: there are variations of the Hopkins statistic; in general, when the Hopkins statistic deviates from 0.5 significantly, it indicates cluster tendency

Hypothesis testing using Hopkins statistic (cont.)



Histogram based technique

Histogram for high dimensional data

- High dimensional histogram - empirical joint distribution
 $f_{X_1, \dots, X_d}(X_1, \dots, X_d)$

Histogram for high dimensional data

- High dimensional histogram - empirical joint distribution

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_d}(X_1, \dots, X_d)$$

- **Compute histogram for d dimensional data**

1: **for** $i = 1$ to d **do**

2: For dimension i , divide the range of data into n bins with the same size

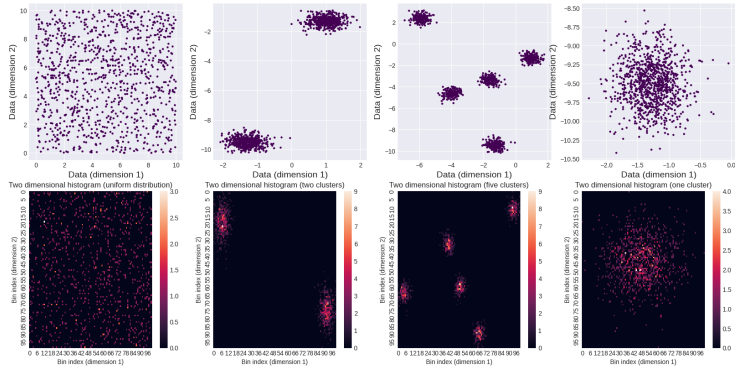
3: **end for**

4: **for** $j = 1$ to n **do**

5: Count the number of points in each cell j - each cell is a d dimensional cell

6: **end for**

Histogram for high dimensional data (cont.)



Compare two distributions using d dimensional histograms

- Recall that our task here is to compare two distributions: a high dimensional data distribution and a theoretical distribution without cluster tendency, e.g. a uniform distribution

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- But high dimensional theoretical distribution can be hard to manipulate, for example, the area under the surface with integration is difficult
- We typically approximate high dimensional theoretical distributions using sampling techniques
- Pseudo-algorithm to illustrate the idea
 - 1: Given a data set $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$
 - 2: Compute the d dimensional histogram for \mathcal{X}
 - 3: Sample N data points from a d dimensional uniform distribution and compute the d dimensional histogram
 - 4: Compare these two histograms using, e.g. the **Kullback–Leibler divergence**

What we have seen so far

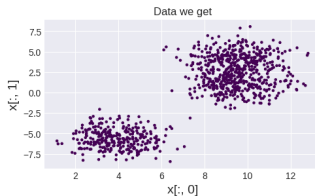
- Definition and modeling of clustering
- Applications of clustering
 - As a preprocessing technique, e.g. summarize data, detect outliers
 - As a data reduction technique, e.g. recommender system on a cluster level, image compression
- Testing cluster tendency by comparing two distributions using 1) pairwise distance, 2) Hopkins statistic and 3) d dimensional histograms

Today

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Modeling for clustering
- 3 Clustering tendency
- 4 First clustering model: K-means**
- 5 Summary

K-means

- **Data** \mathbf{x} : d dimensional feature vector \mathbf{x}



- **Target** \mathbf{y} :

$$y = \arg \min_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)$$

where $\text{dist}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a distance measure; in this course, we use the Euclidean distance (cf. page 21)

- **Parameters**: K centroids
- **Hyperparameters**: K
- **Parameter estimation**: an iterative method to update the centroids until convergence
- It is a **hard clustering** technique - one data point is assigned to only one cluster

K-means parameter estimation algorithm

- Algorithm

- **Randomly choose K centroids μ_k** for $k = 1, \dots, K$, e.g. randomly choose K data points from \mathcal{X}
- Repeat the two steps below until convergence, e.g. μ_k does not change anymore

- For all $i = 1, \dots, N$, assign x_i to a cluster \hat{k}_i by computing

$$\hat{k}_i = \arg \min_{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}} \text{dist}(x_i, \mu_k)$$

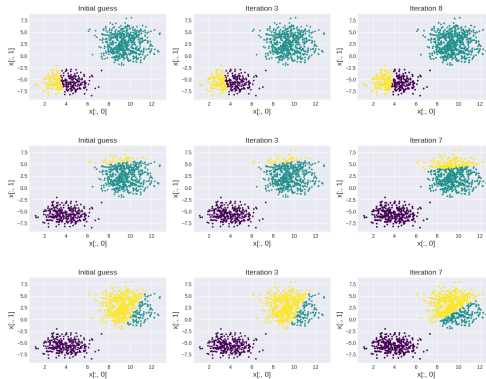
- Let \mathcal{X}_k be the set of all x_i assigned to cluster k and N_k be the size of \mathcal{X}_k , compute

$$\mu_k \leftarrow \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{x_j \in \mathcal{X}_k} x_j$$

- There is some **randomness** in the algorithm - we should always be careful when there is randomness

K-means initial guess

Different initializations result in different clusters



A typical solution is to run the algorithm multiple times with different initial points and aggregate the results

K-means parameter estimation pseudocode

- 1: Given a data set $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$
- 2: Randomly choose K data points from \mathcal{X} as the centroids μ_k for $k = 1, \dots, K$
- 3: **while** true **do**
- 4: Assign \mathbf{x}_i to the closest μ_k for all $i = 1, \dots, N$
- 5: For all $k = 1, \dots, K$, compute μ_k^{new} as the center of all \mathbf{x}_i assigned to class k
- 6: **if** $\mu_k^{new} == \mu_k$ for all k **then**
- 7: **break**
- 8: **else**
- 9: $\mu_k \leftarrow \mu_k^{new}$
- 10: **end if**
- 11: **end while**

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 - Do not work well on very high dimensional data - **apply dimensionality reduction techniques before clustering**
 - Not robust to outliers - **try to remove outliers before clustering**

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Summary

So far:

- Data types and data containers
- Descriptive data analysis: descriptive statistics, visualization
- Probability distributions, events, random variables, PMF, PDF, parameters
- CDF, Q-Q plot, how to compare two distributions (data vs theoretical, data vs data)
- Modeling
- Parameter estimation: maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) and maximum a posteriori estimation (MAP)
- Classification, multinomial naive Bayes classifier, Gaussian naive Bayes classifier
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Before next lecture:

- Gaussian distribution
- The Bayes' rule

