

A decorative graphic on the left side of the slide, consisting of a 2x3 grid of squares. The top row has a blue square and a light blue square. The bottom row has a red square, a yellow square, and a light yellow square.

Chapter 5

Clustering

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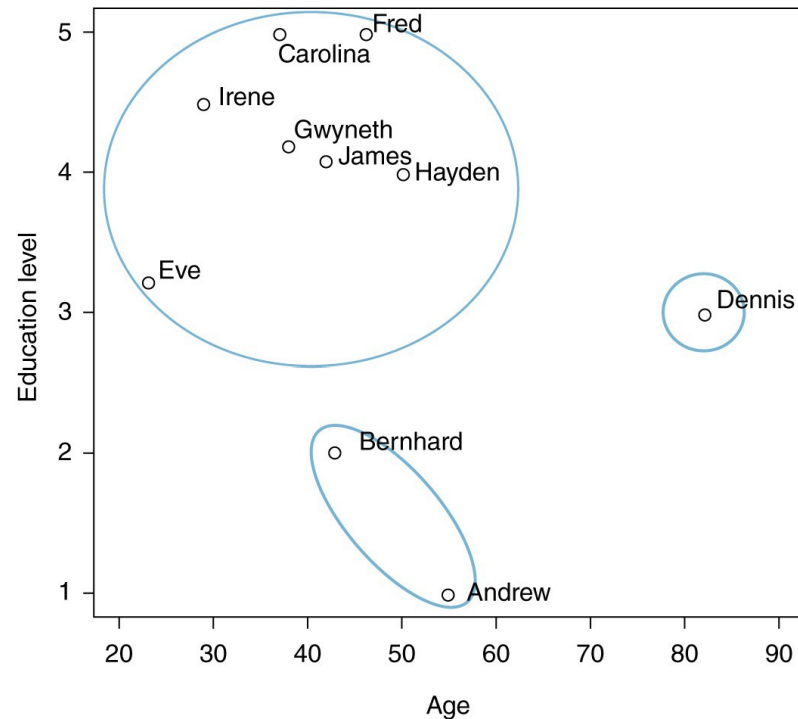
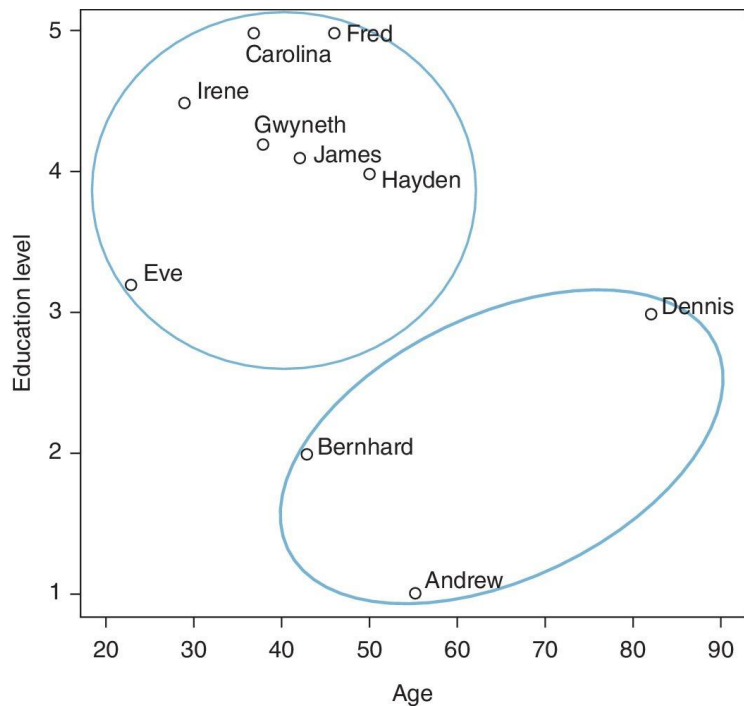
Problem definition

Partitioning the data

- Such that objects belonging to the same group (cluster) are more similar to each other than objects belonging to different groups
- Similarity of objects and groups is a key concept in clustering
- The number of clusters has to be set up by a human expert, in general

Name	Age	Educational level
Andrew	55	1
Bernhard	43	2
Carolina	37	5
Dennis	82	3
Eve	23	3.2
Fred	46	5
Gwyneth	38	4.2
Hayden	50	4
Irene	29	4.5
James	42	4.1

Example of clusters





Similarity Measurement

- Quantitative attributes

$$d(a, b) = |a - b|$$

- Qualitative attributes (ordinal)

$$d(a, b) = \frac{|pos_a - pos_b|}{n-1}$$

- Where n is the number of different values, and pos_a and pos_b are the positions of the values a and b , respectively, in a ranking of possible values.

- Qualitative attributes (nominal)

$$d(a, b) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \neq b \\ 0 & \text{if } a = b \end{cases}$$

Example

Difference between the attributes of Andrew (a) and Carolina (b) are

- Age (Quantitative)

- $d(a, b) = d(55, 37) = |55 - 37| = 18$

- Education level (Ordinal)

- $d(a, b) = d(1, 5) = |pos_1 - pos_5| / 4 = |1 - 5| / 4 = 1$

- Name (Nominal)

- $d(a, b) = d(\text{"Andrew"}, \text{"Carolina"}) = 1$



Difference between sequences

Hamming distance

- Applicable for sequences of characters
- Calculates the number of positions at which the corresponding characters in the two strings are different
- Only applicable for strings of the same length
- **Example:**
 $d_{\text{Hamming}}(\text{"James"}, \text{"Jimmy"}) = 3,$
 $d_{\text{Hamming}}(\text{"Tom"}, \text{"Tim"}) = 1$



Difference between sequences

Levenshtein or edit distance

- Calculates the minimum number of operations necessary to transform one sequence into another
 - Insertion
 - Removal
 - Substitution
- Can be calculated for arbitrary strings
- Example
 - $d_{\text{edit}}(\text{"Johnny"}, \text{"Jonston"}) = 5$
 - 4 substitutions ($h \rightarrow n$, $n \rightarrow s$, $n \rightarrow t$, $y \rightarrow o$)
 - 1 insertion (adding "n" to the end)



Difference between sequences

Bag-of-words vector similarity

- Long texts converted to a quantitative vector where each position is associated with one of the words found and its value is the number of times this word appeared in the text
- Difference of two texts is calculated as the distance between their bag-of-word vectors
- **Example:**
text A = "I will go to the party. But first, I will have to work."
text B = "They have to go to the work by bus."

	I	will	go	to	the	party	but	first	have	work	they	by	bus
A	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
B	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1

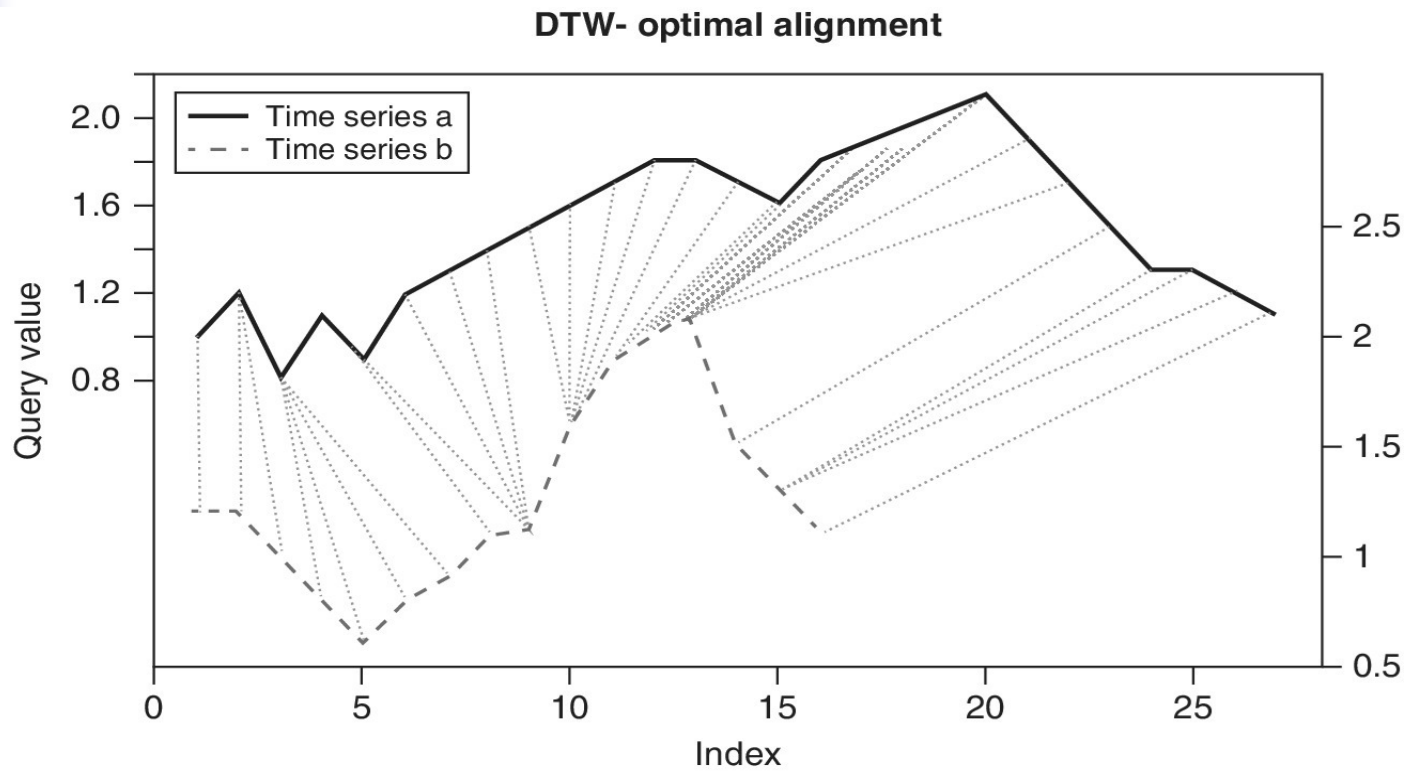


Difference between sequences

Dynamic Time Warping

- Calculates distance between time series data
- Returns the value of the best match between the two series, considering variations and shifts in time and speed
- The most optimal matching is calculated such that:
 - Each index from series *a* is matched with 1 or more index from series *b*
 - First and last index from series *a* is matched with the first and last index of series *b*
 - Monotonically increasing matches;
if i, j are indices of *series a* such that $i < j$, and k, l are indices of *series b* such that $k < l$ then they **must not** be matched $i \leftrightarrow l$ and $k \leftrightarrow j$ (No crosses can occur in matching)
- Optimality is based on the pairwise similarity cost calculation
- Computationally heavy

Difference between sequences



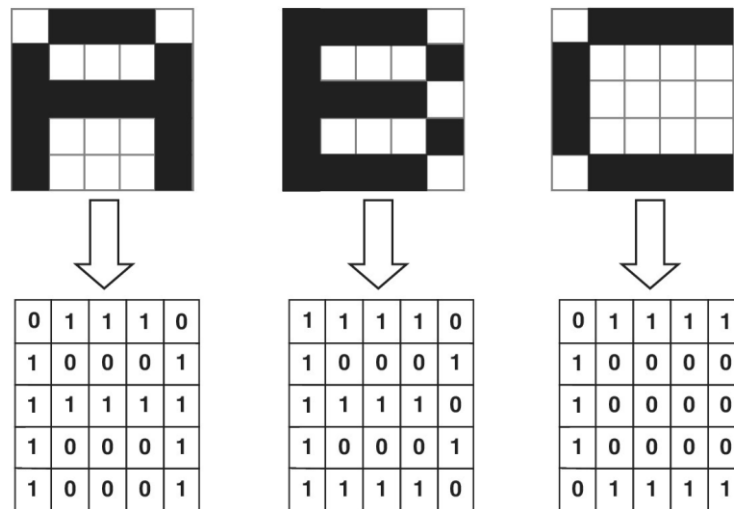
Distance between images

Features representation

- Features associated with the application are extracted from the images
 - e.g. the distance between the eyes, number of hot pixels, image brightness etc.
- An image is represented by a vector of real numbers, where each element corresponds to one particular feature

Matrix/vector of pixels

- Each pixel or some area of pixels is converted into an integer value
- The size of the area is associated with the granularity required for the image



	1 st row					2 nd row					3 rd row					4 th row					5 th row				
A	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
B	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0
C	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1

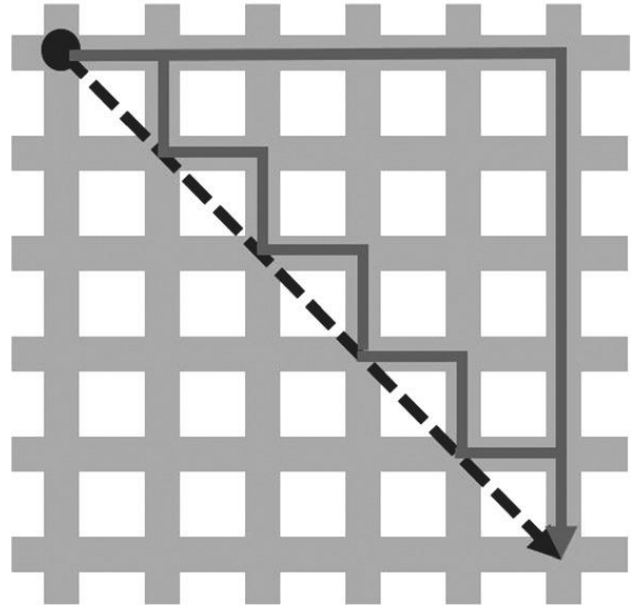
Multi-dimension distance measures

Minkowski distance

$$d(p, q) = \sqrt[r]{\sum_{k=1}^m |p_k - q_k|^r}$$

- Manhattan distance (r=1)
- Euclidean distance (r=2)

Usually, objects with mixed attribute types can be transformed to objects with only quantitative attributes.





Clustering techniques

Centroid Based

- Each object in the cluster is closer to a centroid representing the cluster than to a centroid representing any other cluster

Prototype-based

- Each object in the cluster is closer to a prototype representing the cluster than to a prototype representing any other cluster

Graph-based

- Represents the data set by a graph structure associating each node with an object and connecting objects that belong to the same cluster with an edge

Density-based

- A cluster is a region with high density of objects surrounded by a region of low density

K-means

- The most popular clustering algorithm
- Centroid/Partitional method
- Simple, good for convex clusters

DBSCAN

- Density-based method
- Excels in case of non-convex clusters

Agglomerative hierarchical clustering

- Easy-to-understand and interpret
- Graph-based method



K-means clustering

Input:

The dataset D ,

the distance measure d ,

the number K of clusters

Initialize the K centroids (cluster centers) randomly

repeat

associate each instance in D with the
 closest centroid according to d

recalculate each centroid using all
 instances from D associated with it

until no instance from D implies the change of its associated
centroid

Centroid

- a prototype or profile of all the objects in a cluster, for example the average of all the objects in the cluster

Medoid

- the instance with the shortest sum of distances to the other instances of the cluster

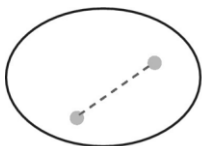
K-means clustering

Pros

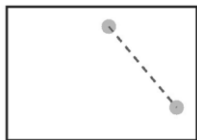
- Computationally efficient
- Often finds good results

Cons

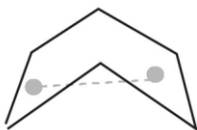
- It might get stuck in local optima
 - Multiple runs with re-initializations
- Need to define K in the beginning
- Not good in case of noisy data and outliers
- Can find only convex shaped clusters



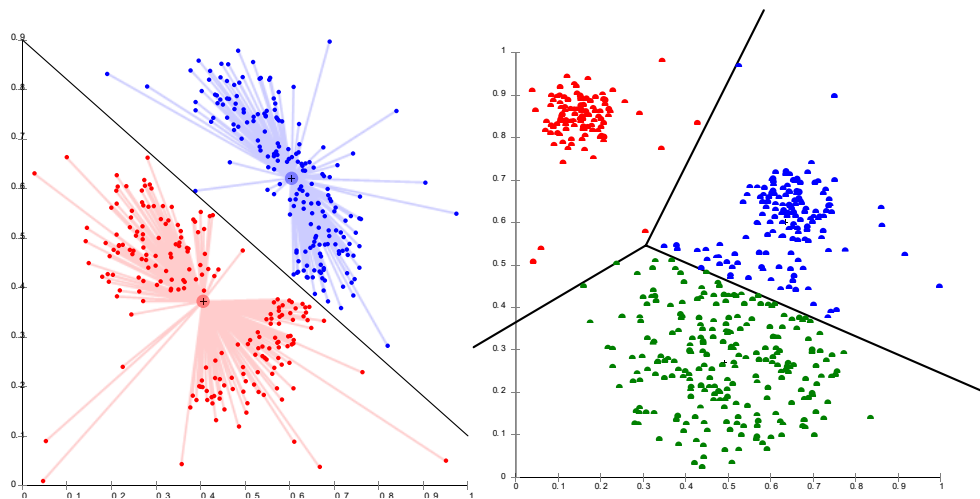
Convex



Convex



Non-convex



source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cluster_analysis#Centroid-based_clustering

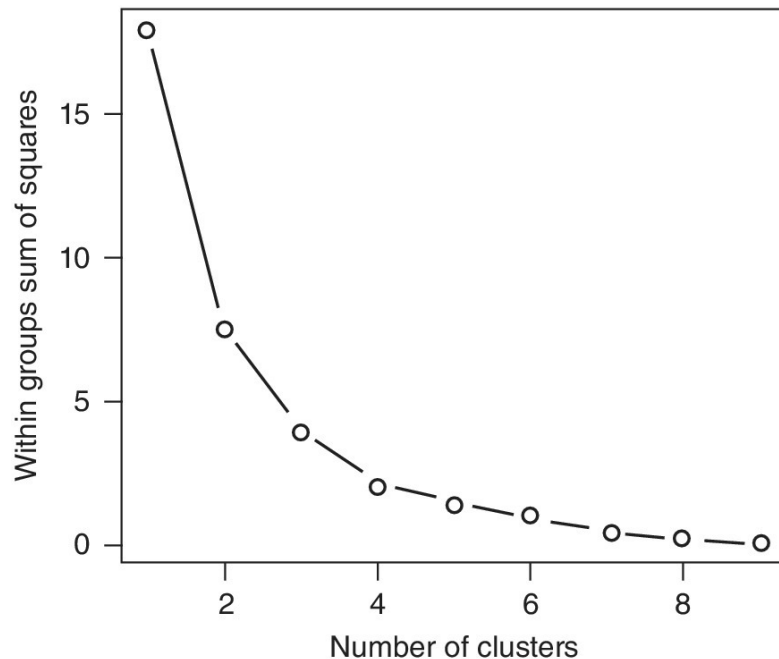
Optimal number of clusters

Within-groups sum of squares

- Sums up the squared Euclidean distance (sed) between each instance and the centroid of its cluster

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^{J_i} sed(p_j, C_i)$$

- where K is the number of clusters and J_i is the number of instances in cluster i , and C_i is the centroid of the cluster i .
- Elbow curve
 - Optimal K is at the elbow

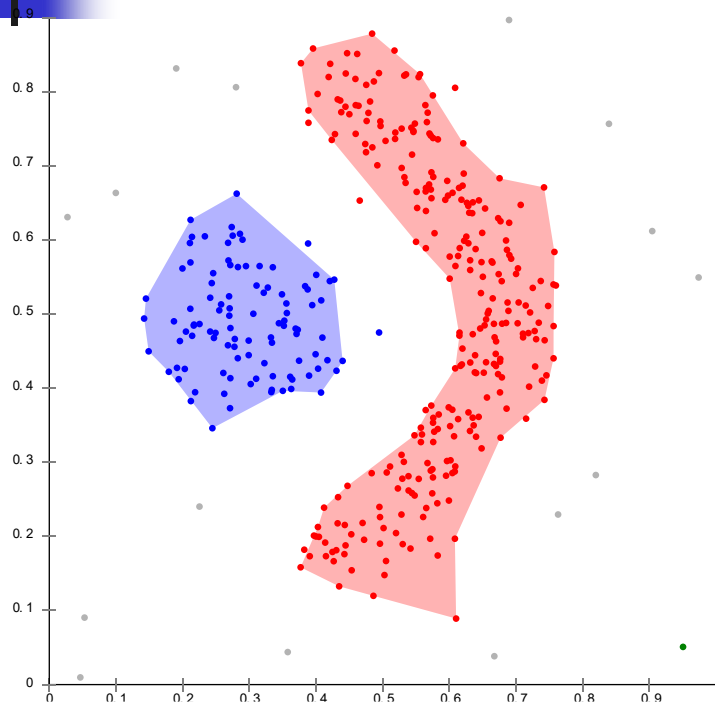




DBSCAN

- Density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise (DBSCAN)
- Input: $minPts$, ϵ
- A point p is a *core point* if at least $minPts$ points are within distance ϵ of it (including p).
- A point q is *directly reachable* from p if point q is within distance ϵ from core point p . Points are only said to be directly reachable from core points.
- A point q is *reachable* from p if there is a path p_1, \dots, p_n with $p_1 = p$ and $p_n = q$, where each p_{i+1} is directly reachable from p_i .
- All points not reachable from any other point are *outliers* or *noise points*.
- Core points form a cluster with the reachable points
- Algorithm stops when no more clusters can be formed

DBSCAN



Pros

- Automatically defines the number of clusters
- Can detect clusters of arbitrary shape
- Robust to outliers

Cons

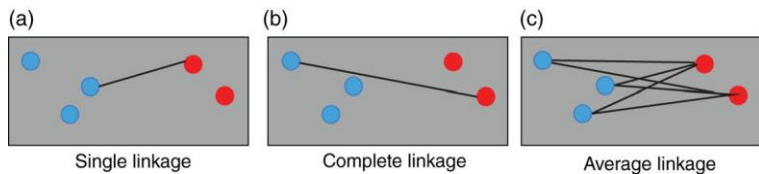
- Computationally more complex than K-means
- Difficulty in setting the hyper-parameter values ($minPts$, ϵ)

Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering

Input:

The dataset D ,

the linkage criterion



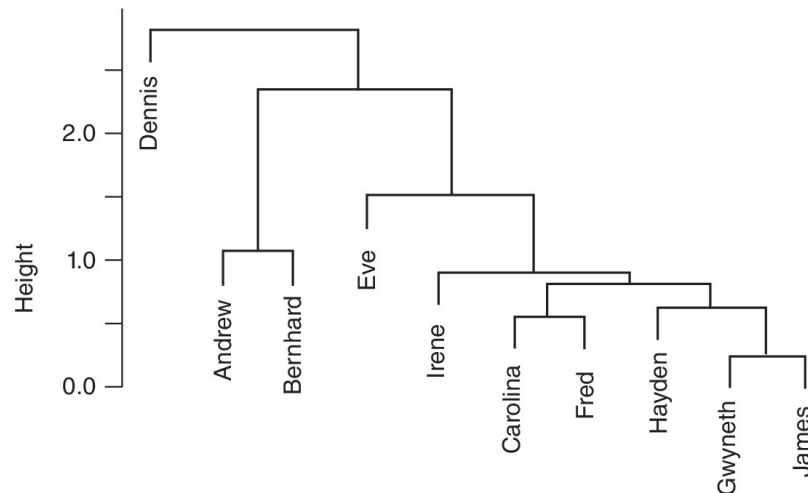
Initialize the clusters such that each object belongs to a separate cluster (Each object is its own cluster)

repeat

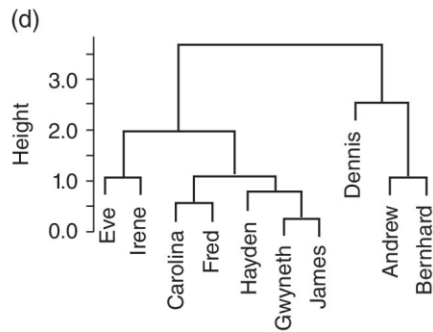
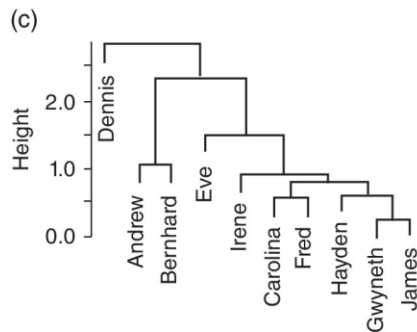
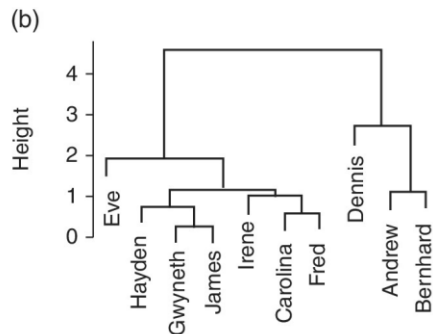
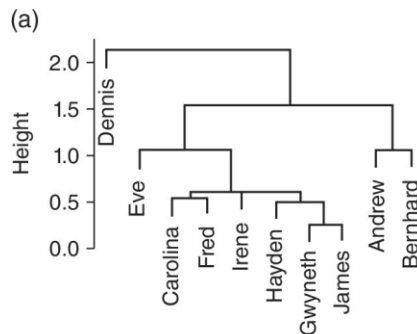
join the two most closest clusters according to the chosen linkage criterion

until the number of desired clusters is reached

Dendrograms



Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering



Pros

- Easily interpretable, but more confusing for large datasets
- Setting of hyper-parameter values is easy

Cons

- Computationally more complex than K-means
- Interpretation of dendrograms can be, in several domains, quite subjective
- Often gets stuck in local optima



Evaluation of clusters

Silhouette

- Evaluates compactness inside clusters
 - How close to each other the objects inside a cluster are
 - How far the objects in each cluster are to the closest object from another cluster
- Meaning:
 - Silhouette value close to 1 means that x is in the centre of its cluster and far away from the neighboring clusters
 - Silhouette value close to -1 means that x is probably assigned to a wrong cluster
 - Silhouette value close to 0 means that x is on the boundary of two neighboring clusters
- The average over all objects is returned as the silhouette value for the whole clustering

$$a(i) = \frac{1}{|C_i| - 1} \sum_{j \in C_i, i \neq j} d(i, j)$$

$$b(i) = \min_{k \neq i} \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{j \in C_k} d(i, j)$$

$$s(i) = \frac{b(i) - a(i)}{\max\{a(i), b(i)\}}, \text{ if } |C_i| > 1$$

Within-groups sum of squares

- Explained before



Final remarks and Literature

- Similarity measures have to be chosen carefully.
- Various techniques and even various launches of the same technique might end up with different results.
- Presence of correlated, irrelevant or redundant attributes can increase the computational cost and reduce the quality of the solutions found.
 - The lack of knowledge regarding class labels makes the identification of the relevant features in the feature selection process harder.

Literature

- Tan, P., Steinbach, M., and Kumar, V. (2014). Introduction to Data Mining, Pearson Education.



Questions?

