Unsupervised Learning

Zeham Management Technologies BootCamp
by SDAIA

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Unsupervised Learning.



Clustering Methods.



Clustering Algorithms.

Introduction to unsupervised learning

Classical Machine Learning



Supervised Learning

(Pre Categorized Data)



Classification

(Divide the socks by Color)

Eg. Identity
Fraud Detection

Regression

(Divide the Ties by Length)

Eg. Market Forecasting



Unsupervised Learning

(Unlabelled Data)



(Divide by Similarity)

Eg. Targeted Marketing

Association

(Identify Sequences)

Eg. Customer
Recommendation

Dimensionality Reduction

(Wider

Dependencies)

Eg. Big Data Visualization

Obj: Predications & Predictive Models

Pattern/ Structure Recognition





Introduction to unsupervised learning

- Unsupervised learning in artificial intelligence is a type of machine learning where models learn from data without human supervision.
- Unlike supervised learning, unsupervised machine learning models are provided with unlabeled data and allowed to discover patterns and insights without any explicit guidance or instruction.



Supervised vs. Unsupervised

	Supervised Learning	Unsupervised learning
Objective	To approximate a function that maps inputs to outputs based out example input-output pairs.	To build a concise representation of the data and generate imaginative content from it.
Accuracy	Highly accurate and reliable.	Less accurate and reliable.
Complexity	Simpler method.	Computationally complex.
Classes	Number of classes is known.	Number of classes is unknown.

<u>Source</u>



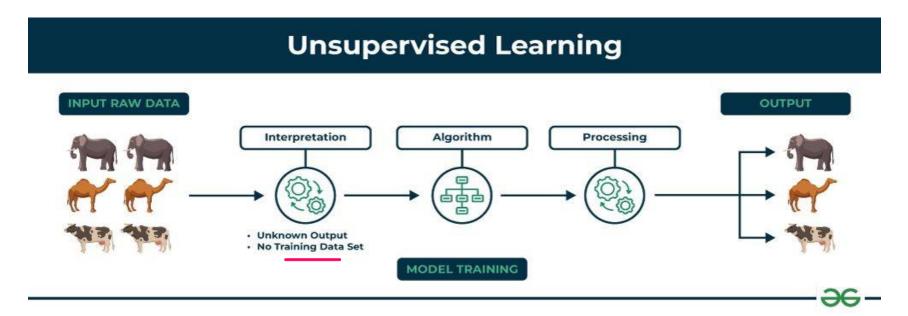
Think ©

How Large Language Model (LLM) are trained?



How does unsupervised learning work?

As the name suggests, unsupervised learning uses self-learning algorithms
that learn without any labels or prior training. Instead, the model is given
raw, unlabeled data and must infer its own rules and structure the
information based on similarities, differences, and patterns without
explicit instructions on how to handle each piece of data.





Unsupervised learning algorithms are better suited for?

- Complex Processing: Unsupervised learning algorithms excel at handling complex tasks such as clustering large datasets and recognizing hidden patterns.
- Feature Identification: They are also effective in pinpointing significant features, aiding in data categorization and reducing dimensionality.



Unsupervised Learning with a Weather Dataset

Scenario: You have a large dataset containing various weather-related measurements such as temperature, humidity, wind speed, precipitation, and more, collected over a long period.



Applying Unsupervised Learning

1.Algorithm Analysis:

1. Clustering: You apply a clustering algorithm, such as K-means or hierarchical clustering, to the dataset. The algorithm processes the data and identifies groups (clusters) of data points that share similar characteristics.

2.Pattern Identification:

- 1. Temperature Clusters: One possible outcome is that the algorithm groups data points based on temperature. For example, it might create clusters for cold, mild, warm, and hot temperatures.
- 2. Weather Patterns: Another outcome might be the identification of clusters based on overall weather patterns, grouping data points that represent similar weather conditions like rain, sleet, snow, or clear days



Interpretation and Classification

1.Reviewing Clusters:

1. Temperature Groups: Upon reviewing the temperature-based clusters, you might notice that they correspond to the four seasons. For instance:

1. Cold: Winter

2. Mild: Spring and Autumn

3. Warm/Hot: Summer

2. Categorizing Weather Patterns:

- **1. Weather Types**: When looking at clusters based on weather patterns, you can recognize categories such as:
 - **1. Rainy Days**: High precipitation, moderate temperature, and high humidity.
 - 2. Snowy Days: Low temperature, varying precipitation, and specific wind patterns.
 - 3. Clear Days: Low precipitation, moderate temperature, and low humidity



General Idea:

- Algorithm Insight: The unsupervised learning algorithm does not rely on prior labels or predefined categories. Instead, it detects patterns and groups similar data points together.
- Human Interpretation: You, as the data analyst, review these groupings and use your domain knowledge to label and understand them. For example, you might recognize that certain temperature clusters align with seasons or that certain weather pattern clusters correspond to specific types of weather events.



Unsupervised Learning with a Weather Dataset

Imagine you have a large dataset about weather. An unsupervised learning algorithm will analyze the data and identify patterns among the data points. For instance, it might group data by temperature or similar weather patterns.

While the algorithm itself does not understand these patterns based on any previous information you provided, you can review the data groupings and classify them based on your understanding of the dataset. For example, you might recognize that different temperature groups correspond to the four seasons, or that the weather patterns are categorized into types such as rain, sleet, or snow.



How does unsupervised learning work?

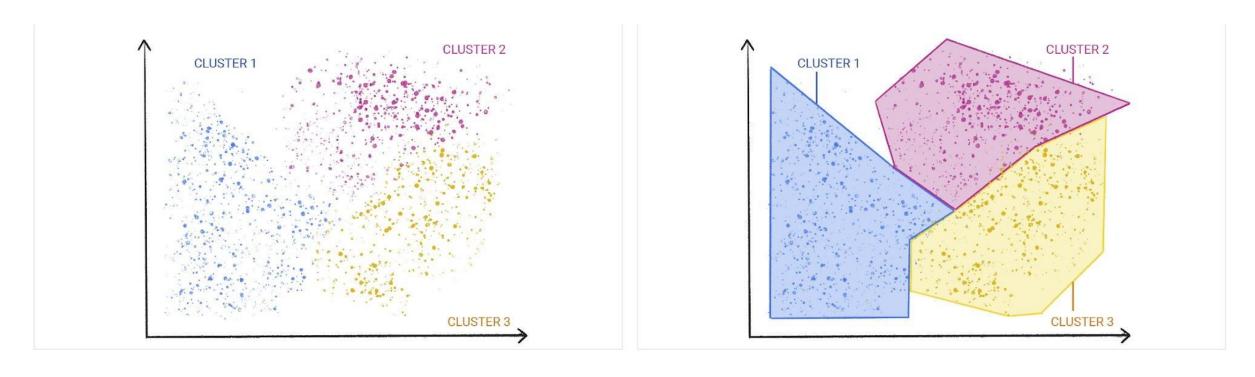
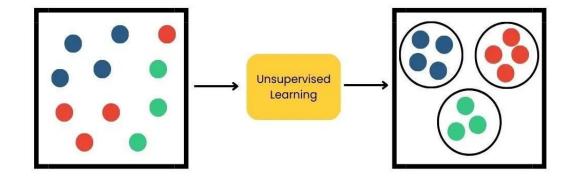


Figure 1. An ML model clustering similar data points.

Figure 2. Groups of clusters with natural demarcations.



- Unsupervised learning deals with unlabeled data.
- The goal is to find hidden patterns or structures in the data.
- Common techniques include clustering, dimensionality reduction, and anomaly detection.



Source



In general, there are **three types** of unsupervised learning tasks: clustering, association rules, and dimensionality reduction.

Unsupervised Learning Algorithms

Clustering

- K-Means
- Polynomial
- Hierarchical
- Fuzzy C-Means

Dimensionality Reduction

- Principal
 Component
 Analysis
- Kernel Principal
 Analysis

Association (Data Mining)

- Apriori
 Algorithm
- Eclat Algorithm
 - FP-Growth Algorithm



In general, there are **three types** of unsupervised learning tasks: clustering, association rules, and dimensionality reduction.

Below, we'll delve a little deeper into each type of unsupervised learning technique. Which are:

- 1. Clustering involves grouping a set of objects in such a way that objects in the same group (or cluster) are more like each other than to those in other groups. Common clustering algorithms include:
 - K-Means: Partitions the dataset into K clusters by minimizing the variance within each cluster.
 - Hierarchical Clustering: Builds a tree of clusters by either iteratively merging smaller clusters or splitting larger ones.
 - **DBSCAN (Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise):** Forms clusters based on the density of data points, making it effective for datasets with noise and outliers.



2. Association Rules: Association rules are used to find relationships between variables in large datasets. This technique is commonly used in market basket analysis to identify sets of products frequently bought together. Key concepts include:

Support

- •**Definition**: Support refers to the frequency with which an itemset appears in the dataset. It helps in identifying how common or rare an itemset is.
- •Example: If you have a dataset of 1000 transactions and the itemset {milk, bread} appears in 200 of them, the support for {milk, bread} is 200/1000 = 0.2 or 20%.



2. Association Rules: Association rules are used to find relationships between variables in large datasets. This technique is commonly used in market basket analysis to identify sets of products frequently bought together. Key concepts include:

Confidence

- •**Definition**: Confidence measures the likelihood that an item B is also purchased when item A is purchased. It is the **conditional probability** of B given A.
- •Formula: Confidence(A \rightarrow B) = Support(A \cup B) / Support(A)
- **•Example**: If {milk} appears in 300 transactions and {milk, bread} appears in 200 transactions, the confidence for the rule {milk} \rightarrow {bread} is 200/300 = 0.67 or 67%.



2. Association Rules: Association rules are used to find relationships between variables in large datasets. This technique is commonly used in market basket analysis to identify sets of products frequently bought together. Key concepts include:

Lift

- •**Definition**: Lift measures how much more likely two items are to be purchased together than if they were independent. It indicates the strength of the association between items.
- •Formula: Lift(A \rightarrow B) = Confidence(A \rightarrow B) / Support(B)
- •Example: If {bread} appears in 250 transactions (support for {bread} is 0.25), and the confidence for {milk} \rightarrow {bread} is 0.67, then the lift for the rule {milk} \rightarrow {bread} is 0.67 / 0.25 = 2.68. This means that {milk} and {bread} are 2.68 times more likely to be bought together than if they were independent.



3- Dimensionality Reduction

Definition: Dimensionality reduction is a technique used to simplify a dataset by reducing the number of variables (dimensions) while keeping as much of the important information as possible. Think of it like taking a complex, detailed picture and creating a simpler version that still captures the essence of the original.

Why It's Useful

- Simplification: Makes the data easier to understand and work with.
- •Visualization: Helps to visualize complex data by reducing it to 2 or 3 dimensions.
- •Efficiency: Reduces the computational resources needed for processing.



Common Methods

1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA):

- 1. What It Does: PCA transforms the original data into a new set of variables called <u>principal</u> components. These new variables are uncorrelated and ordered by the amount of variance (information) they capture from the data.
- 2. Simple Example: Imagine you have a dataset with height and weight. PCA can combine these into a single new variable that represents body size, simplifying the analysis.



2- t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE):

- •What It Does: t-SNE reduces high-dimensional data to 2 or 3 dimensions, making it easier to visualize. It focuses on keeping similar data points close together.
- •Example: If you have a dataset of various fruits described by many features (like color, size, and taste), t-SNE can create a 2D plot where similar fruits (like apples and pears) are placed near each other.



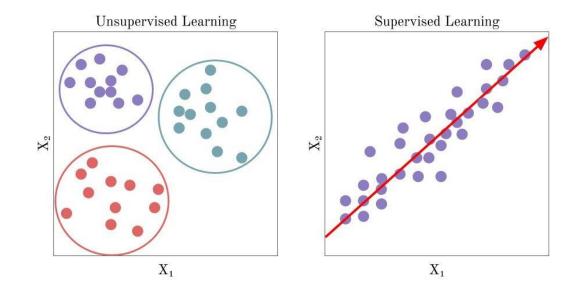
Autoencoders:

- •What They Do: Autoencoders are a type of neural network that learns to compress data into a smaller representation and then reconstruct it. They can remove noise and extract important features.
- •Example: If you have noisy images, an autoencoder can learn to create a cleaner version of those images by focusing on the essential details.



Why use unsupervised learning?

- Useful when labeled data is not available.
- Helps discover the underlying structure of the data.
- Can be used for preprocessing, such as feature extraction or noise reduction.



Source

Clustering Models

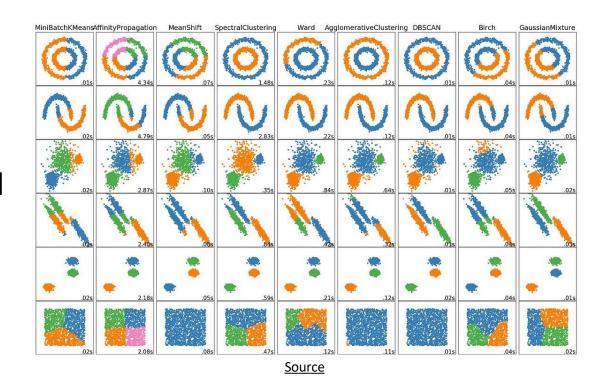


What is clustering?

 Clustering is a key technique in unsupervised learning.

 Groups similar data points together based on certain criteria.

• Excludes K-means and DBSCAN for this discussion.





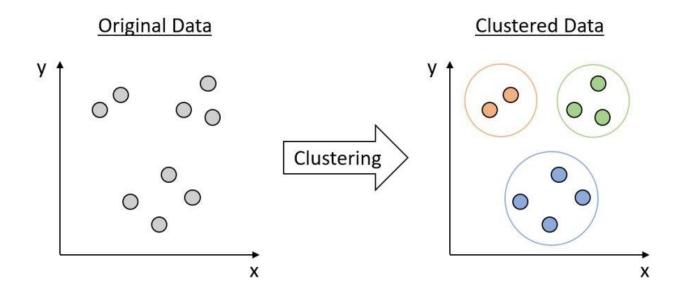
What is clustering?

 Suppose you possess a dataset containing patient details from a healthcare system, featuring both categorical and numerical data, making it complex. You wish to discover patterns and similarities within this dataset. What approach would you take for this task?



What is clustering?

 Clustering is a machine learning technique that groups unlabeled examples based on their similarities. If the examples have labels, this type of grouping is known as classification.



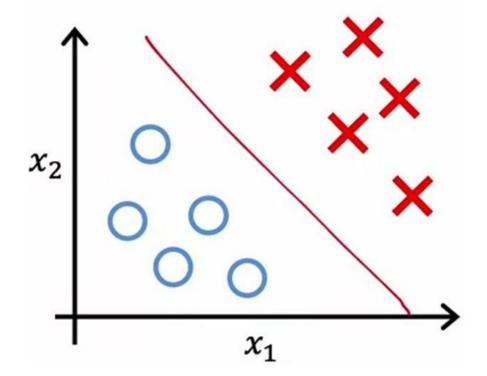


Supervised Learning vs Unsupervised Learning

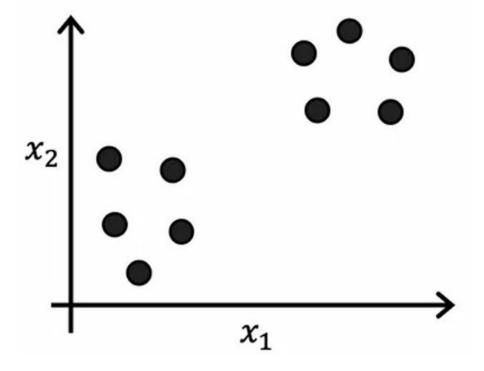
$$\{(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (x^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), (x^{(3)}, y^{(3)}), \dots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)})\}$$

$$\{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, x^{(3)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\}$$

Supervised: labels guide the learning in training phase.



Unsupervised: no labels to guide the model during training.





Clustering has many use cases and applications including:

 Market segmentation → Grouping customers into segments based on similar characteristics such as buying behavior, demographics, or preferences.

Segmentation Criteria: Age, health conditions, lifestyle, and income level.

Example: A health insurance company might segment the market into young adults, middle-aged individuals, seniors, and families. Young adults might be offered low-cost plans with essential coverage, middle-aged individuals might get plans focusing on preventive care, seniors might receive plans with extensive coverage for chronic conditions, and families might be offered comprehensive plans covering all family members.



Social Network Analysis:

- •Description: Analyzing social networks by grouping users based on their interactions, connections, and behaviors.
- •Example: In social media platforms, clustering can identify communities or groups of friends who interact frequently. This information can be used to recommend friends, content, or advertisements.



Search Result Grouping:

- •Description: Organizing search results into clusters to help users find relevant information more quickly.
- •Example: A search engine might group search results into categories such as news articles, videos, images, and academic papers, making it easier for users to navigate and find what they are looking for.



Medical Imaging:

- •Description: Analyzing medical images by grouping pixels or regions with similar properties to assist in diagnosis.
- •Example: Clustering can be used to segment different tissue types in MRI or CT scans, helping doctors identify and analyze abnormalities such as tumors or lesions.



Image Segmentation:

- •Description: Dividing an image into meaningful segments (clusters) to simplify analysis and interpretation.
- •Example: In computer vision, clustering can segment an image into different objects or regions, such as separating a person from the background in a photograph. This is useful for object detection and recognition.



Anomaly Detection:

•**Description**: Identifying unusual patterns or outliers in data that do not fit into any cluster.

•Example: In cybersecurity, clustering can help detect fraudulent activities or network intrusions by identifying patterns of behavior that deviate from the norm. Similarly, in manufacturing, it can detect defects or irregularities in products.



Clustering Methods



Density models: for example, DBSCAN and OPTICS defines clusters as connected dense regions in the data space.



Centroid models(Partitioning methods): for example, the k-means algorithm represents each cluster by a single mean vector.



Connectivity models(Hierarchical clustering): for example, hierarchical clustering builds models based on distance connectivity.



Distribution models: for example, multivariate normal distributions used by the expectation-maximization algorithm.

Clustering Algorithms



Centroid-based clustering

- **1.Define k**: Decide on the number of clusters you want to identify in the datase This value is based on your understanding of the data or the problem you're sc.....
- **2.Initialize Centroids**: Randomly select k data points from the dataset to serve as the initial centroids. These centroids are the starting points for the clusters.
- **3.Assignment Step**: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid based on a distance metric (usually Euclidean distance). This forms k clusters.
- **4.Update Step**: Recalculate the centroids by taking the mean of all points assigned to each cluster. These new centroids are then used in the next iteration.
- **5.Repeat**: Continue the assignment and update steps iteratively until the centroids no longer change significantly or the algorithm converges. This indicates that the clusters are stable.

By repeating these steps, the algorithm refines the centroids and cluster source assignments until an optimal clustering solution is achieved.

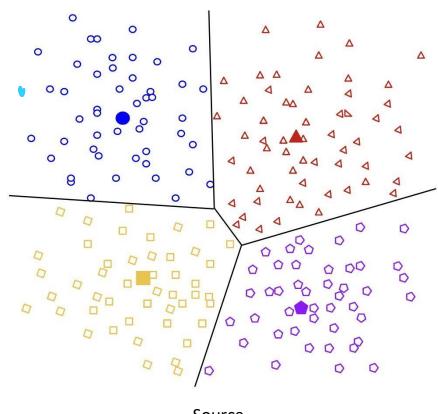


Centroid-based clustering

A cluster's centroid is the average of all points within the cluster. Centroid-based clustering arranges data into non-hierarchical clusters.

These algorithms are efficient but can be affected by initial conditions and outliers.

The most popular of these is k-means, which requires users to set the number of centroids, k, and is effective with clusters of similar size.

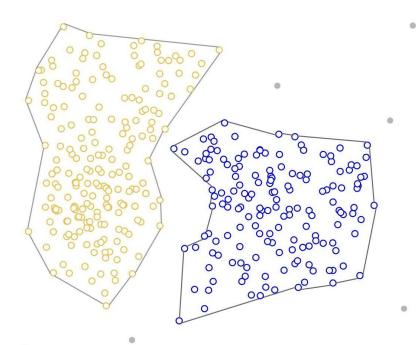


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Density-based clustering

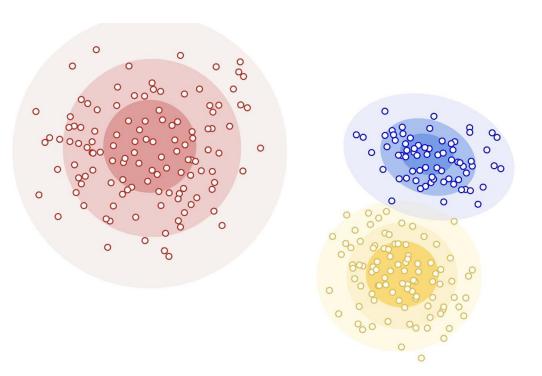
- Density-based clustering links continuous regions of high example density into clusters, enabling the detection of clusters in any number and shape.
- Outliers remain unassigned to clusters. These algorithms struggle with clusters of varying density and high-dimensional data.





Distribution-based clustering

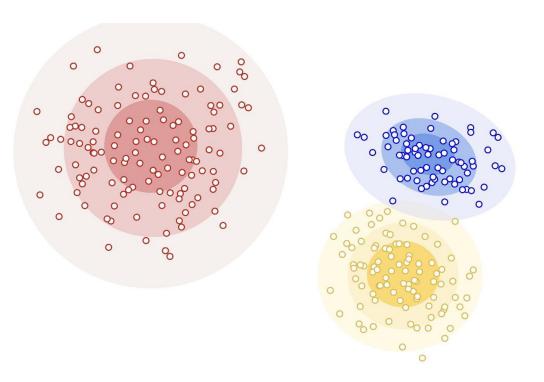
This clustering approach assumes that data consists of probabilistic distributions, like Gaussian distributions. In the figure, the algorithm organizes data into three Gaussian distributions.





Distribution-based clustering Cont.

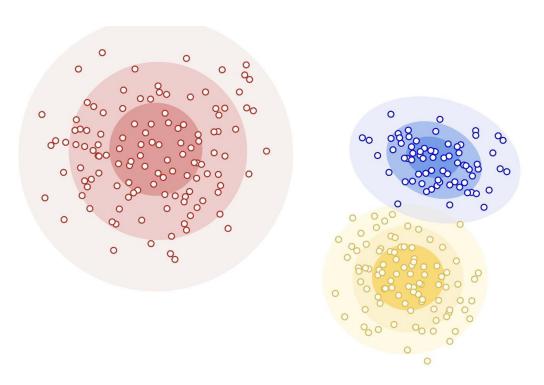
The likelihood of a point belonging to a distribution diminishes as the distance from the center increases, with bands illustrating this decrease in probability.





Distribution-based clustering Cont.

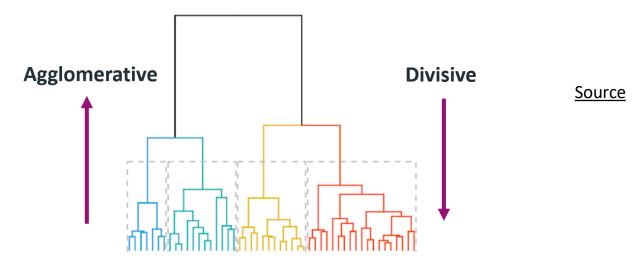
If you're not comfortable assuming a specific distribution for the data, you should opt for a different algorithm.





- •Hierarchical Clustering: Builds a hierarchy of clusters, visualized as a dendrogram, representing various levels of similarity.
- •Two Approaches:
- •Agglomerative (Bottom-Up): Starts with individual points and merges them into clusters.
- •Divisive (Top-Down): Starts with all points in one cluster and splits them into smaller clusters.

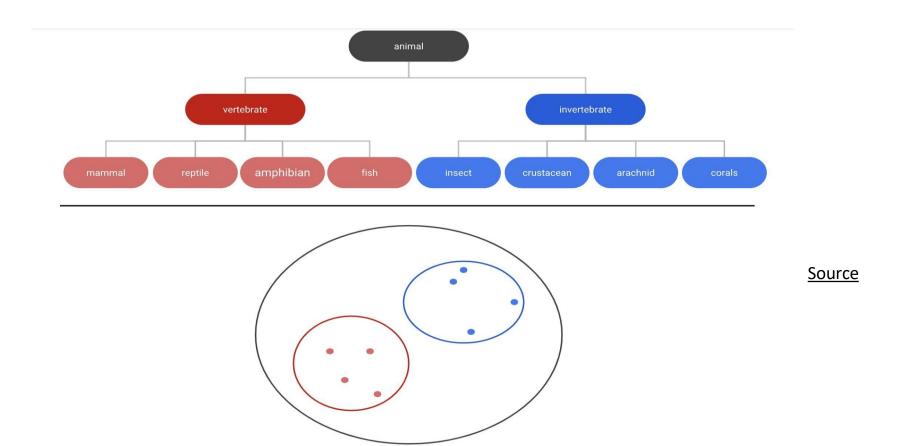
Distance Metrics: Determines how clusters are combined or divided (e.g., single linkage, complete linkage).





Hierarchical clustering

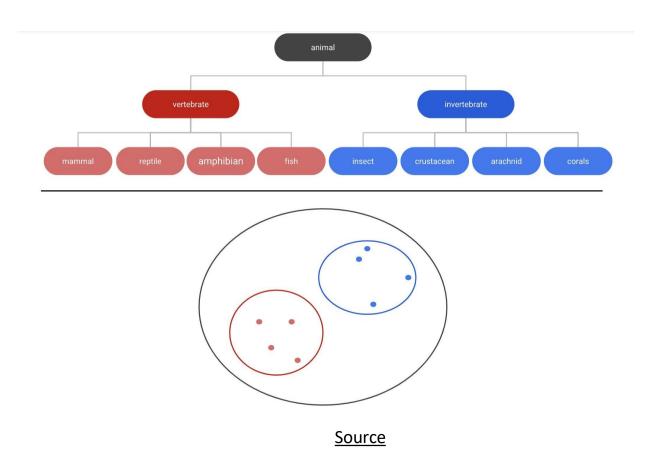
Hierarchical clustering forms a tree of clusters and is particularly suited for hierarchical data, like taxonomies.





Hierarchical clustering Cont.

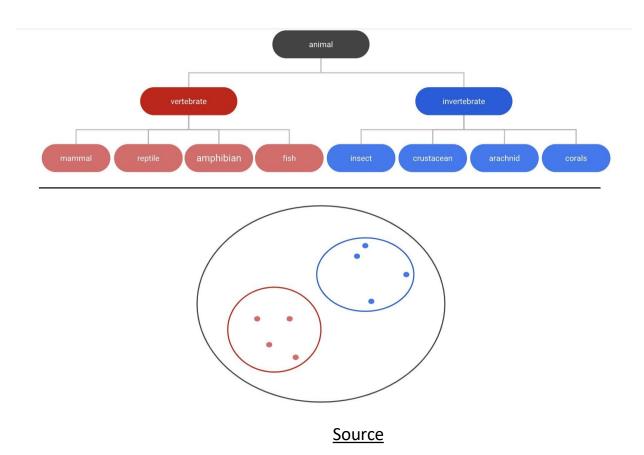
For example, see the study "Comparison of 61 Sequenced Escherichia coli Genomes" by Oksana Lukjancenko, Trudy Wassenaar, and Dave Ussery.





Hierarchical clustering Cont.

You can select any number of clusters by cutting the tree at the appropriate level.

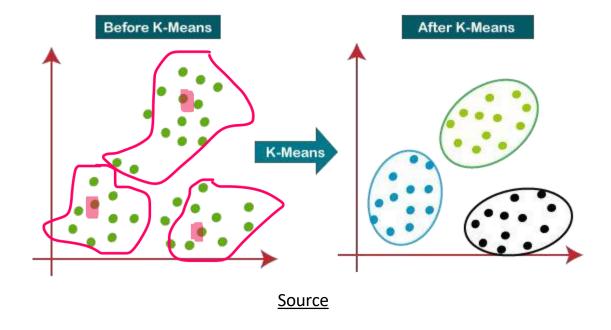


K-means Clustering



What is K-means Clustering

K-means clustering assigns data points to one of the K clusters based on their distance from the cluster centers.



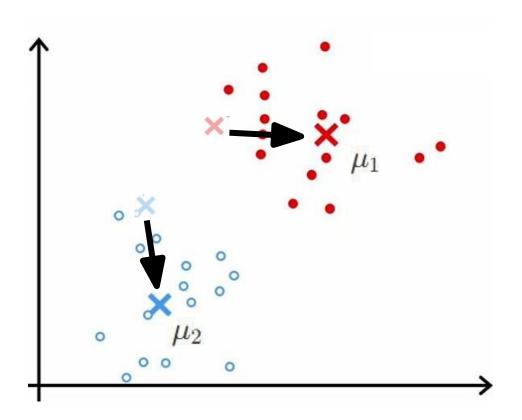


The goal of clustering is to split a population or set of data points into groups where the data points in each group are more like each other and different from those in other groups. It is essentially organizing items based on their similarities and differences.



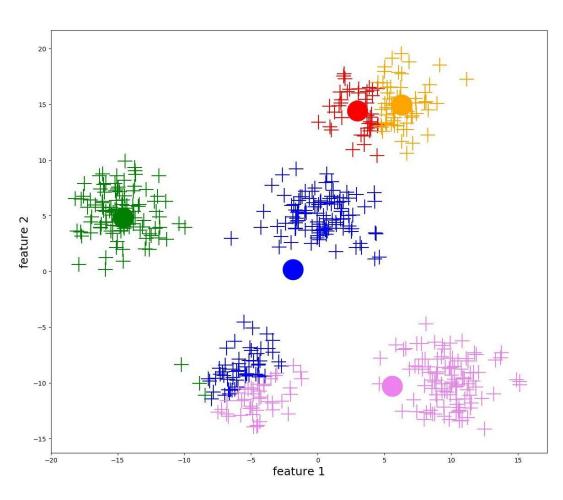
K-means Clustering Algorithm

- 1. Specify K: the number of clusters
- 2. Randomly select K data points as centroids
- 3. Repeat until convergence:
 - **1. Assign** each point in the training dataset to its closest centroid
 - **2. Recompute centroids**: center the centroid to newly assigned points
- 4. Repeat the whole thing 50-1000 times (or until convergence)





K-means with K=5 Clusters



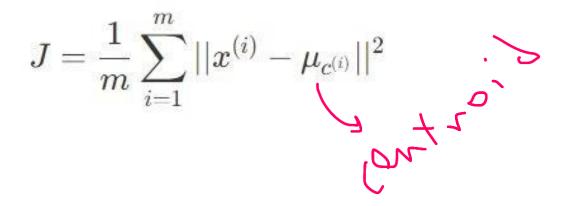
Source: K-means Clustering And Real World Use-Cases.. | by Pritee Dharme . | Medium



K-means Optimization Objective

Cost Function:

Minimize the squared distance between a training example $\chi^{(i)}$ and the location of the centroid $\mu_c^{(i)}$ to which has been assigned.



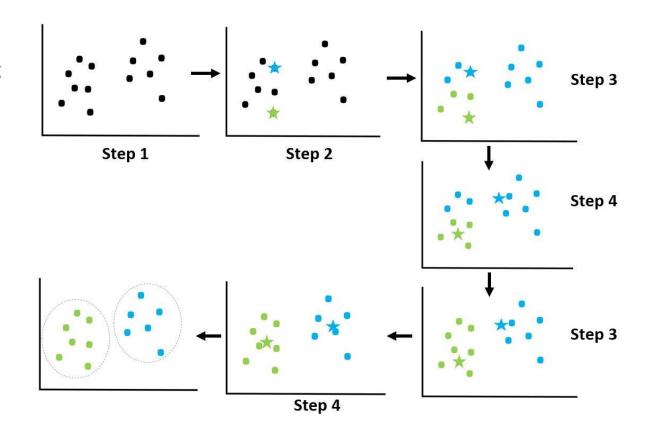


Convergence

Convergence: signifies that the centroids (cluster centers) no longer significantly change between iterations, indicating the clustering has reached a (local) optimum.

True Convergence: The algorithm might have genuinely converged on an optimal (or at least good) clustering solution. Stopping here saves computational resources.

- There's often a trade-off between achieving the absolute best and computational efficiency.
- If the cost doesn't budge in an iteration, it suggests convergence (or a "good enough" state).



Random Initialization

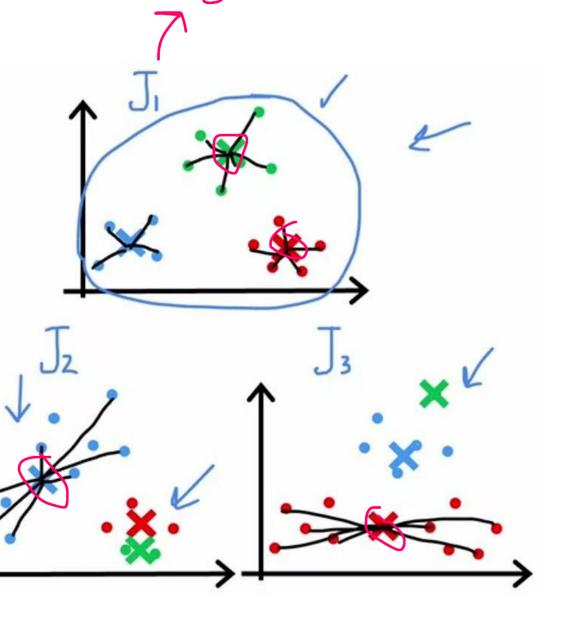
Problem:

 K-means converge to different clusters depending on initialization.

Solution:

 Run K-means multiple times with different random initializations. Then, choose the clustering with the lowest cost.

$$J = rac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m ||x^{(i)} - \mu_{c^{(i)}}||^2$$





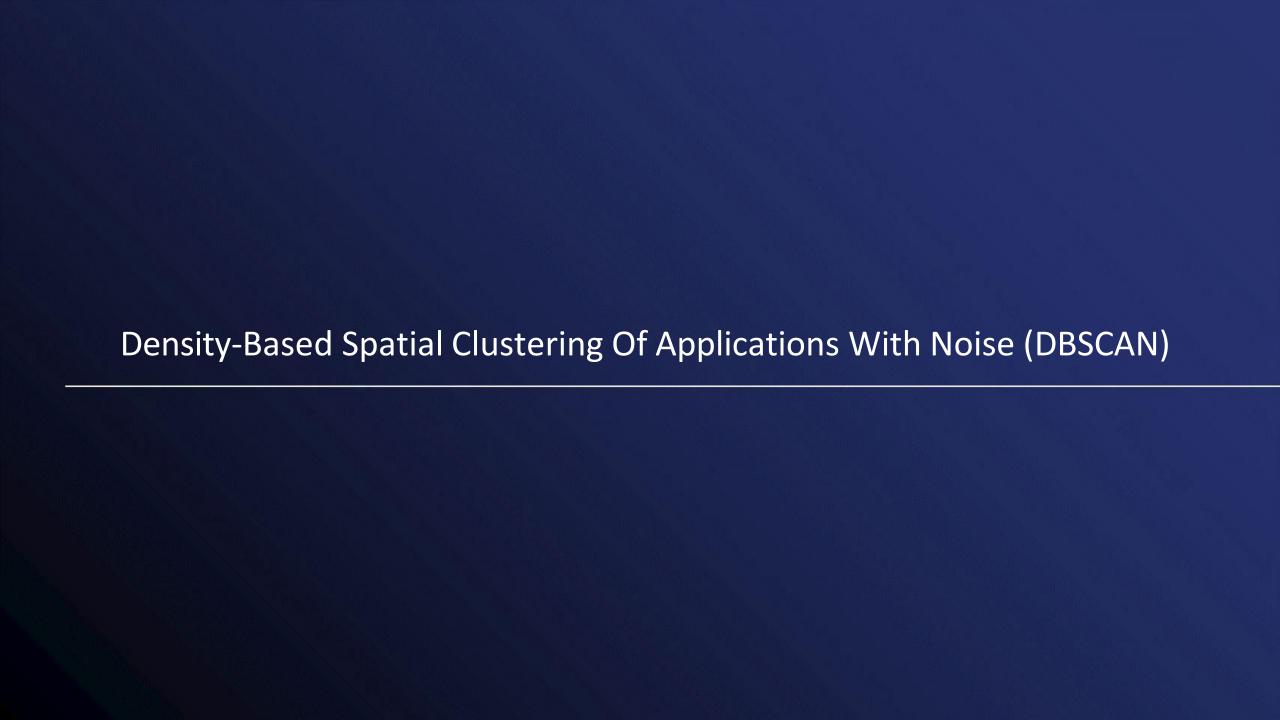
Let's practice on collab:

Tutorial:

Advanced Machine Learning/ 3- Unsupervised Learning Clustering/LAB/K-means.ipynb

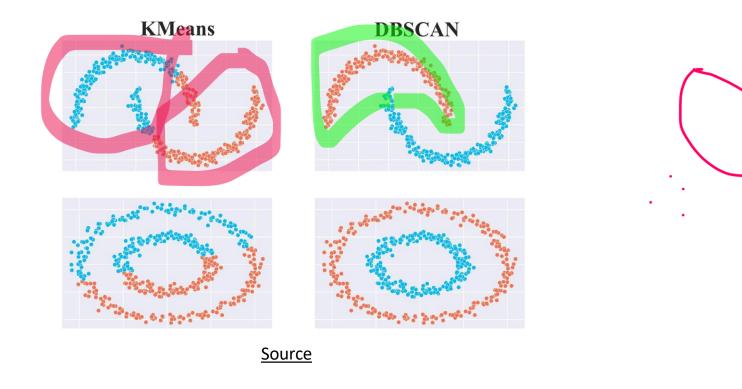
Exercise:

Advanced Machine Learning/ 3- Unsupervised Learning Clustering/LAB/K-means_Exercise.ipynb





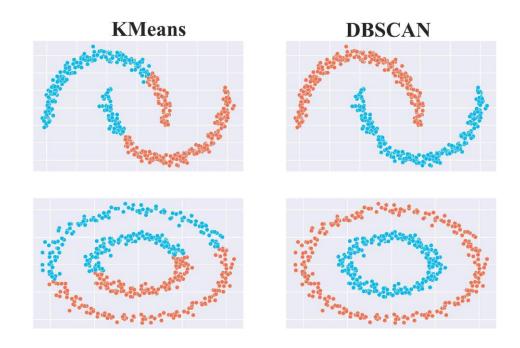
Clusters are dense areas in the data space, separated by regions with fewer points. The DBSCAN algorithm uses this idea of "clusters" and "noise." It works by requiring that each point in a cluster must have at least a minimum number of points within a given radius around it.





Real-life data may have irregularities like:

- Clusters of any shape, not just regular forms.
- Noise in the data.



<u>Source</u>



Parameters Required For DBSCAN Algorithm:

- **eps:** This defines the neighborhood around a data point. If the distance between two points is less than or equal to eps, they are considered neighbors. If eps is too small, many data points may be labeled as outliers. If eps is too large, clusters may merge, and most data points will end up in the same cluster. To find a good eps value, you can use a k-distance graph.
- MinPts: This is the minimum number of neighbors (data points) required within the eps radius. For larger datasets, you should use a larger MinPts value. A general rule is to set MinPts to at least the number of dimensions plus one (MinPts ≥ D+1). The minimum value of MinPts should be at least 3.

Data Points in DBSCAN:

- Core Point: A point that has more than MinPts points within the eps radius.
- **Border Point:** A point that has fewer than MinPts points within the eps radius but is in the neighborhood of a core point.
- Noise or Outlier: A point that is neither a core point nor a border point.



Steps Used In DBSCAN Algorithm

- Find all the neighboring points within the eps radius and identify core points, which have more than MinPts neighbors.
- 2. For each core point that is not already assigned to a cluster, create a new cluster.
- 3. Recursively find all density-connected points for each core point and assign them to the same cluster. Points a and b are density-connected if there is a point c with enough neighbors where both a and b are within eps distance from c. This forms a chaining process: if b is a neighbor of c, c is a neighbor of d, and d is a neighbor of e, which is also a neighbor of a, then b is a neighbor of a.
- 4. After processing all core points, check the remaining unvisited points. Those that are not part of any cluster are considered noise.

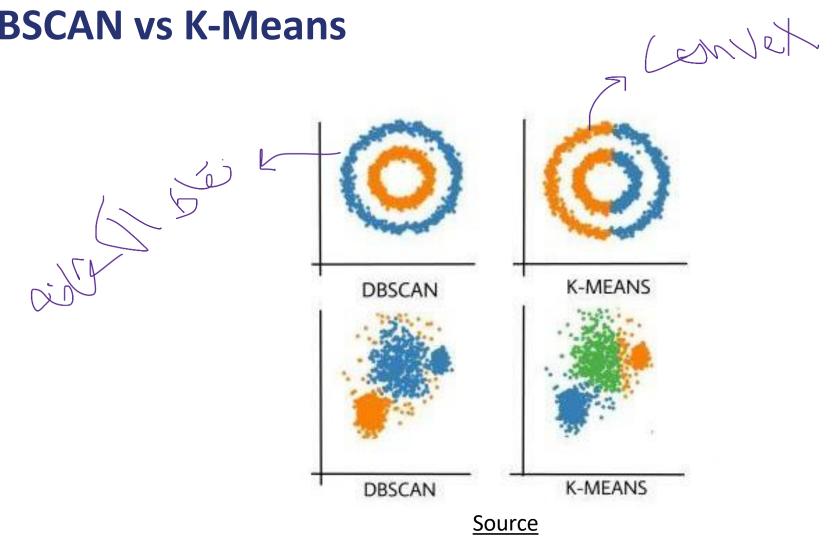
DBSCAN vs K-Means

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D.	E MODE	

	DBSCAN	K-Means		
In DBSCAN, you do not need to specify the number of clusters.		K-Means is very sensitive to the number of clusters, so it must be specified in advance.		
	Clusters formed in DBSCAN can be of any arbitrary shape.	Clusters formed in K-Means are spherical or convex in shape.		
	DBSCAN can handle datasets with noise and outliers effectively.	K-Means does not work well with outliers. Outliers can significantly skew the clusters.		
	In DBSCAN, two parameters are required	In K-Means, only one parameter is required for training the model: the number of clusters (k).		



DBSCAN vs K-Means





Let's practice on collab:

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Advanced Machine Learning/ 3- Unsupervised Learning Clustering/LAB/DBSCAN.ipynb

Exercise:

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Hierarchical Clustering



What is Hierarchical Clustering?

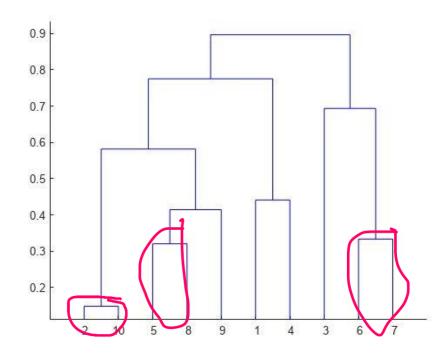
Hierarchical clustering in **Machine Learning** is a connectivity-based clustering method that groups data points that are close to each other based on similarity or distance. It assumes that data points that are nearer to each other are more similar or related than those that are farther apart.



What is Dendrogram?

- A dendrogram is a tree-like diagram created by hierarchical clustering that shows the hierarchical relationships between groups. Individual data points are positioned at the bottom, and the largest clusters, which encompass all the data points, are at the top. To obtain different numbers of clusters, you can cut the dendrogram at various heights.
- The dendrogram is created by iteratively merging or splitting clusters based on a measure of similarity or distance between data points. Clusters are divided or merged repeatedly until all data points are contained within a single cluster, or until the predetermined number of clusters is attained.

Dendogram

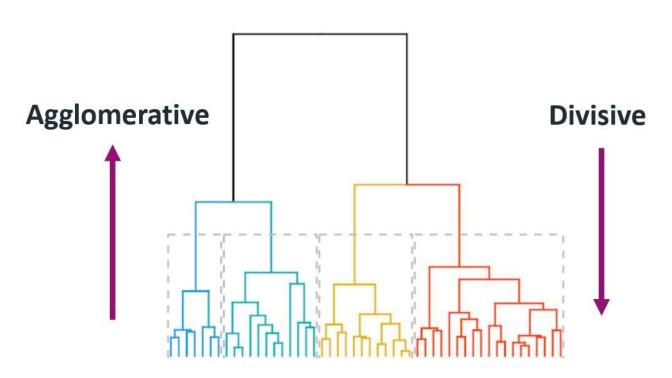




Types of Hierarchical Clustering

Imagine a hierarchy like a family tree categorized into:

- Agglomerative: Starts with individual points and iteratively merges the closest ones, forming a hierarchy of clusters.
- Divisive: Starts with all data points in one cluster and iteratively splits them based on decreasing similarity, resulting in a tree-like structure

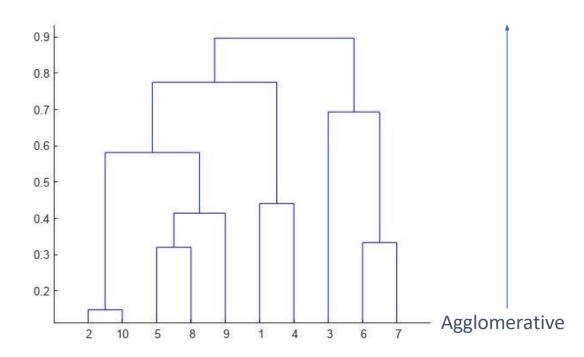




Agglomerative Clustering

This method is also referred to as the **bottom-up** approach or hierarchical agglomerative clustering (HAC). It provides a more detailed structure compared to the unstructured clusters produced by flat clustering.

<u>Dendogram</u>

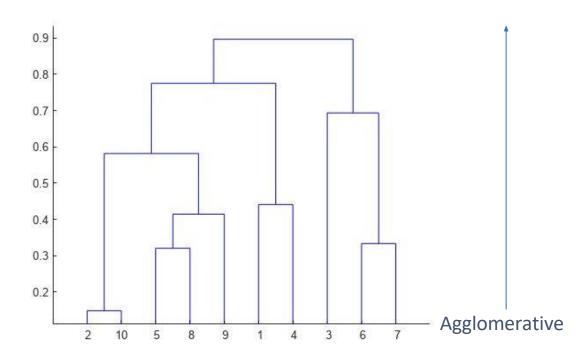




Agglomerative Clustering Cont.

Unlike other methods, this algorithm does not require us to specify the number of clusters in advance. Bottom-up algorithms start with each data point as its own singleton cluster and then progressively merge pairs of clusters until all clusters are combined into a single cluster containing all the data.

Dendogram





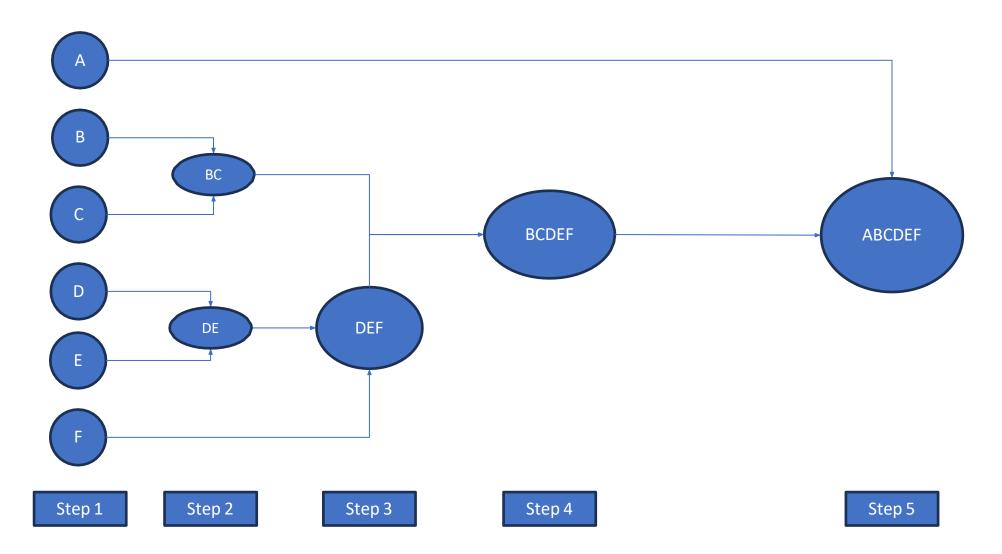
Agglomerative Clustering Graphical Representation

- 1. Start by treating each letter as an individual cluster and calculate the distance between each cluster and all other clusters.
- 2. Merge the most similar clusters. For example, if clusters (B) and (C) are very similar, merge them, and do the same for clusters (D) and (E), resulting in clusters [(A), (BC), (DE), (F)].
- 3. Recalculate the proximity of the updated clusters and merge the closest ones, such as clusters [(DE) and (F)], to form new clusters [(A), (BC), (DEF)].
- 4. Continue this process; merge clusters DEF and BC to create a new cluster, resulting in [(A), (BCDEF)].
- 5. Finally, merge the remaining clusters into one single cluster [(ABCDEF)].



Agglomerative Clustering Graphical Representation

Let's assume we have 6 data points A, B, C, D, E, and F.

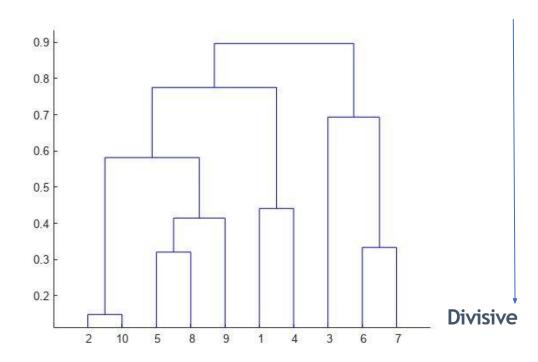




Divisive Hierarchical Clustering

This method is also called the top-down approach. Like hierarchical agglomerative clustering, it does not require specifying the number of clusters in advance. Top-down clustering starts with a single cluster containing all the data a recursively splits this cluster into smaller clusters until each data point is isolated into its own singleton cluster.

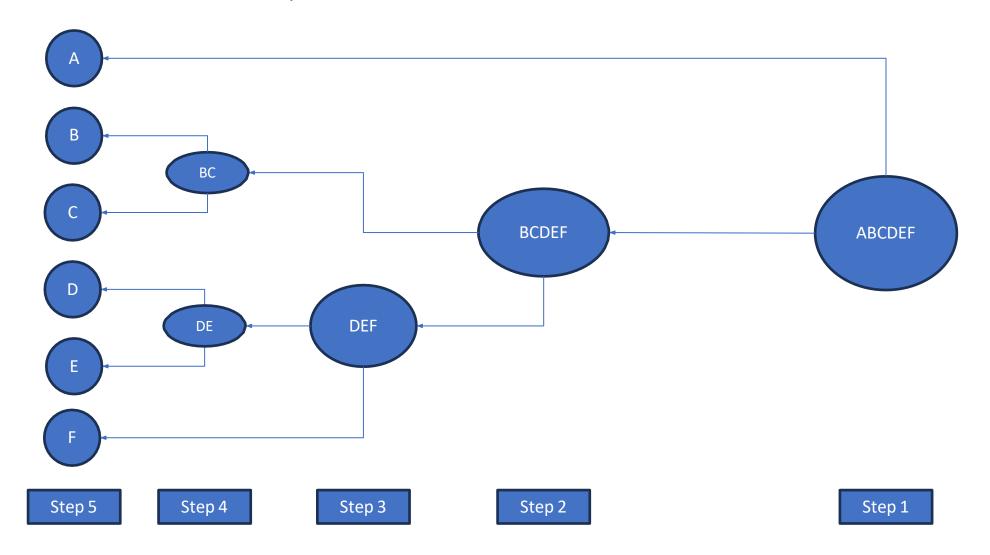
<u>Dendogram</u>





Divisive Hierarchical Clustering Graphical Representation

Let's assume we have 6 data points A, B, C, D, E, and F.





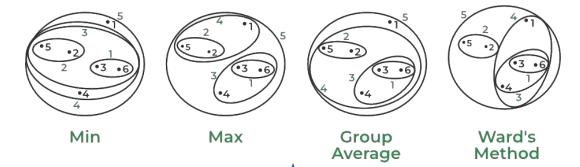
Computing Distance Matrix

When merging two clusters, the distance between them can be determined in various ways. Here are some methods:

- Min Distance: Calculate the minimum distance between any two points from the different clusters.
- 2. Max Distance: Determine the maximum distance between any two points from the different clusters.
- **3. Group Average:** Compute the average distance between all pairs of points from the two clusters.
- **4. Ward's Method:** Measure the similarity based on the increase in squared error when merging the two clusters.

For example, using different methods to group data can lead to different results:

Distance Matrix Comparision in Hierarchical Clustering





Models Summary

Method name	Parameters	Scalability	Usecase	Geometry (metric used)
K-Means	number of clusters	Very large n samples, medium n_clusters with MiniBatch code	General-purpose, even cluster size, flat geometry, not too many clusters, inductive	Distances between points
Affinity propagation	damping, sample preference	Not scalable with n_samples	Many clusters, uneven cluster size, non-flat geometry, inductive	Graph distance (e.g. near- est-neighbor graph)
Mean-shift	bandwidth	Not scalable with n_samples	Many clusters, uneven cluster size, non-flat geometry, inductive	Distances between points
Spectral clustering	number of clusters	Medium n samples, small n_clusters	Few clusters, even cluster size, non-flat geometry, transductive	Graph distance (e.g. near- est-neighbor graph)
Ward hierarchical clustering	number of clusters or distance threshold	Large n samples and n_clusters	Many clusters, possibly connectivity constraints, transductive	Distances between points
Agglomerative clustering	number of clusters or distance thresh- old, linkage type, distance	Large n samples and n_clusters	Many clusters, possibly connectivity constraints, non Euclidean distances, transductive	Any pairwise distance
DBSCAN	neighborhood size	Very large n samples, medium n_clusters	Non-flat geometry, uneven clus- ter sizes, outlier removal, transductive	Distances between nearest points
HDBSCAN	minimum cluster membership, mini- mum point neighbors	large n_samples, medium n_clusters	Non-flat geometry, uneven cluster sizes, outlier removal, transductive, hierarchical, variable cluster density	Distances between nearest points
OPTICS	minimum cluster membership	Very large n samples, large n_clusters	Non-flat geometry, uneven clus- ter sizes, variable cluster density, outlier removal, transductive	Distances between points
Gaussian mixtures	many	Not scalable	Flat geometry, good for density estimation, inductive	Mahalanobis distances to centers
BIRCH	branching factor, threshold, optional global clusterer.	Large n clusters and n_samples	Large dataset, outlier removal, data reduction, inductive	Euclidean distance be- tween points

https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/cluster/plot_cluster_comparison.html



Let's practice on collab:

Tutorial:

Advanced Machine Learning/ 3- Unsupervised Learning Clustering/LAB/Hierarchical_Clustering.ipynb

Exercise:

Advanced Machine Learning/ 3- Unsupervised Learning Clustering/LAB/Hierarchical_Clustering_Exercise.ipynb

Thank you!

