

DM583

Data Mining

Hierarchical Clustering

Why Hierarchical Clustering?

- Oftentimes, we don't want to look at a single partition of the dataset with k
 clusters, but rather explore a whole spectrum of partitions at different levels of
 granularity, corresponding to different numbers of clusters
- In other words, we may want a clustering hierarchy, rather than a single partition
- The reasons are manyfold:
 - By building a hierarchy one doesn't need to specify the number of clusters k in advance
 - Rather, a hierarchical structure may help determine the best k (if any) a posteriori
 - The hierarchical structure may also reveal that the data is naturally organised hierarchically
 - sub-clusters inside clusters
 - The hierarchy provides a powerful visualisation tool of high-dimensional data
 - which may reveal not only clusters and sub-clusters, but also potential outliers

Clustering Hierarchies

- Hierarchy (of data partitions):
 - Sequence of nested hard partitions
 - A partition P_1 is *nested* within P_2 if each component (cluster) of P_1 is a subset of a component of P_2
- > Example:

$$\mathbf{P}_{1} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}), (\mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \mathbf{x}_{6}), (\mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{2} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \mathbf{x}_{6}), (\mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

Counter-Example:

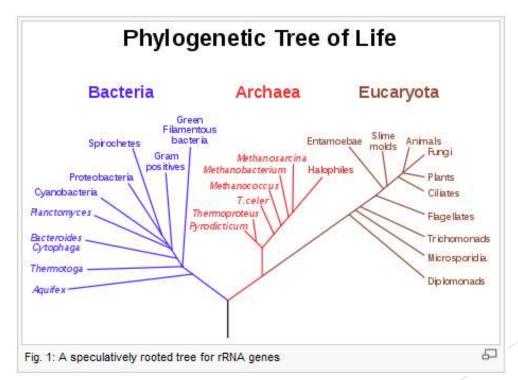
$$\mathbf{P}_{3} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}, \, \mathbf{x}_{3}, \, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \, \mathbf{x}_{6}), \, (\mathbf{x}_{2}, \, \mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_{4} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}, \, \mathbf{x}_{2}), \, (\mathbf{x}_{3}, \, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \, \mathbf{x}_{6}), \, (\mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

Clustering Hierarchies

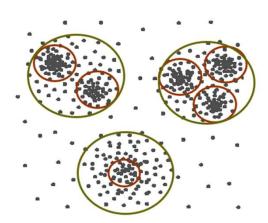
- > A complete hierarchy:
 - > Starts or ends with a completely disjoint partition/clustering
 - > Disjoint clustering: contains only atomic clusters (singletons)
 - \triangleright Example: **P** = { (**x**₁), (**x**₂), (**x**₃), (**x**₄), (**x**₅), (**x**₆) }
 - > It is also called "trivial clustering solution"
 - > Starts or ends with a single (not partitioned) component
 - Dataset itself as a single "cluster" with all data objects
 - > Example: $P = \{ (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4, \mathbf{x}_5, \mathbf{x}_6) \}$
 - \triangleright Generally, there are N-2 intermediate partitions

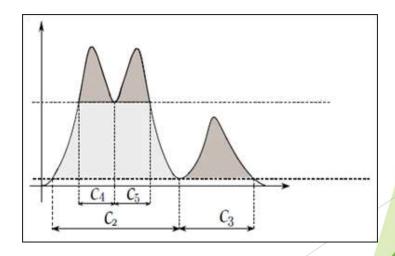
- Hierarchies are commonly used to organise information:
 - Categories and subcategories
 - Example: Phylogenetic Trees in Biology



The relationship between natural clusters and subclusters in many datasets is intrinsically hierarchical:

• Examples:





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Hierarchical Clustering as a Relational Approach

Hierarchical Clustering can operate with (dis)similarities only: they are (or can be turned into) **relational algorithms**

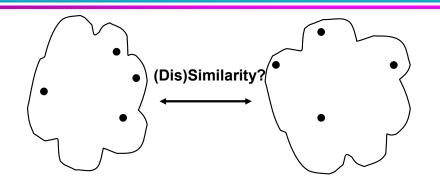
0	8	8	7	7
	0	2	4	4
		0	3	3
			0	1
				0

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Classic Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering Algorithm (AHC)

- 1. Start with each observation being a cluster on its own (i.e., a **singleton**), and compute all pairwise distances between observations (if not given as input)
- 2. Find the **closest pair** of current clusters and merge them into a single cluster
- 3. Compute the **distance** between this newly born cluster and the other clusters
- 4. Repeat Steps 2 and 3 until a single cluster remains

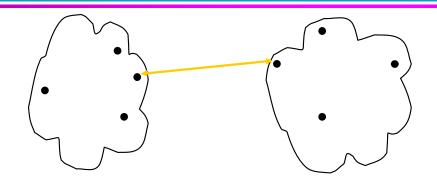
There is a number of algorithms that follow exactly the same steps above. The difference between them is how the **distances between clusters** are computed



	p1	p2	р3	p4	р5	<u> </u>
p1						
p2						
р3						
p4						
p5						
_						

- MIN
- MAX
- Average
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods
 - Ward's

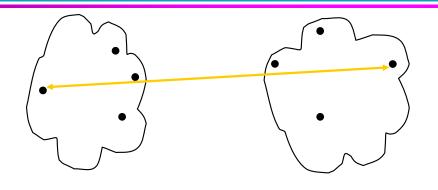
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	p1	p2	р3	p4	p 5	<u>.</u> .
p1						
p2						
p2 p3						
<u>p4</u> p5						

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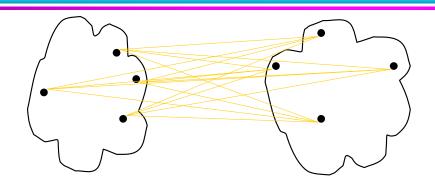
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	p1	p2	р3	p4	р5	<u>.</u> .
p1						
p2						
<u>р2</u> р3						
<u>p4</u> p5						

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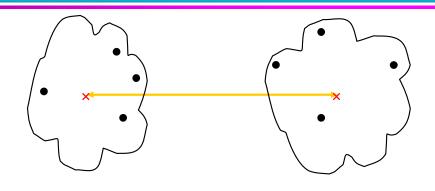
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	p1	p2	р3	p4	p 5	<u>.</u> .
p1						
p2						
p2 p3						
<u>р4</u> р5						

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	p1	p2	рЗ	p4	p 5	<u>.</u> .
p1						
p2						
p2 p3						
<u>p4</u> p5						

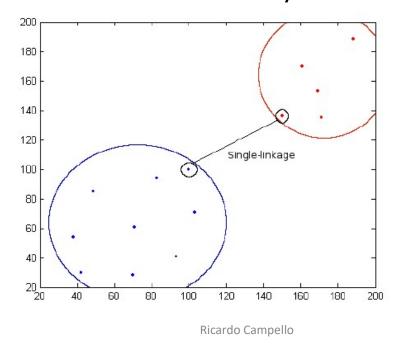
- MIN
- MAX
- Average
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods
 - Ward's

— ...

Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering Algorithm

Single-Linkage:

 Distance between two clusters is measured as the smallest distance between any two observations



Computation of Single-Linkage

- Useful property of min:
 - $min{\mathbf{D}} = min{min{\mathbf{D}}_1}, min{\mathbf{D}}_2}$
 - **D**, **D**₁ and **D**₂ are real-valued sets such that $\mathbf{D}_1 \cup \mathbf{D}_2 = \mathbf{D}_1$
 - Example:
 - $min\{10, -3, 0, 100\} = min\{min\{10, -3\}, min\{0, 100\}\} = -3$
 - Property holds recursively (for min{D₁} and min{D₂})
- Why can this property be useful for Single-Linkage ?
 - Given the distances between a cluster A and two clusters B and C that have been merged
 - It is trivial to compute the distance between **A** and (**B** \cup **C**) from the previous distances

Single-Linkage (Example):

 Initial distance matrix (D₁) for 5 observations {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}: first merge takes place between singletons 1 and 2 (closest clusters)

Updating the distances (between the new cluster and the others):

$$\begin{aligned} &d_{(12)3} = \min\{d_{13}, d_{23}\} = d_{23} = 5;\\ &d_{(12)4} = \min\{d_{14}, d_{24}\} = d_{24} = 9;\\ &d_{(12)5} = \min\{d_{15}, d_{25}\} = d_{25} = 8;\end{aligned}$$

The result is a new distance matrix (D₂)

$$\mathbf{D}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 0 & & \\ 3 & 5 & 0 & \\ 4 & 9 & 4 & 0 \\ 5 & 8 & 5 & \boxed{3} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The closest clusters now are (singletons) 4 and 5
- Merging 4 and 5 yields three clusters: {1,2}, {4,5}, {3}
- Since $d_{(12)3}$ is already available, we can update the distances as:

$$d_{(45)(12)} = \min\{d_{4(12)}, d_{5(12)}\} = d_{5(12)} = 8$$

$$d_{(45)3} = \min\{d_{43}, d_{53}\} = d_{43} = 4$$

which yields the following new matrix:

$$\mathbf{D}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ 45 \end{bmatrix}$$
 Merge *clusters* {3} and {4,5};
Finally, merge {3,4,5} and {1,2} into a single cluster

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Note on Computational Speed-Up of Single Linkage:

The (dis)similarity between 2 clusters follows immediately from the (dis)similarity matrix updated in the previous iteration, such that *there is no need to resort to the original matrix*

- For instance, in the previous example we simplified the computation of $d_{(12)(45)}$ as min $\{d_{(12)(4)}, d_{(12)(5)}\}$ by making use of the min property:
 - $\min\{d_{(12)(4)}, d_{(12)(5)}\} = \min\{9, 8\} = \min\{d_{14}, d_{24}, d_{15}, d_{25}\}$

• The sequence of nested partitions obtained in the previous example was:

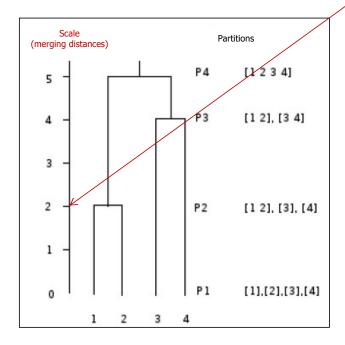
$$\{ (1), (2), (3), (4), (5) \} \rightarrow \{ (1, 2), (3), (4), (5) \} \rightarrow$$
 $\{ (1, 2), (3), (4, 5) \} \rightarrow \{ (1, 2), (3, 4, 5) \} \rightarrow \{ (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) \}$

- With this collection of nested partitions, as well as the distances corresponding to the pairs of merged clusters, we can build a dendrogram
 - Dendrogram = visual representation of the clustering hierarchy enhanced with a scale of critical distances between clusters
 - A powerful tool for data visualisation and exploratory data analysis

Dendrogram (Example):

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 & 7 & 13 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 5 & 10 \\ 7 & 5 & 0 & 4 \\ 4 & 13 & 10 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

merging distances (between **clusters**)



Dendrogram

3 4 0 4

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dataset

Exercise

Draw the complete **dendrogram** (hierarchy + vertical axis/scale)
 for one of our previous examples of Single-Linkage:

Dendrograms and Partitions

Partitions can be obtained by "cutting through" the dendrogram

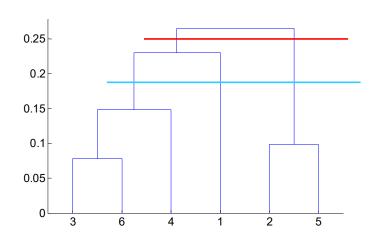
Horizontal cuts

no. of clusters = no. of line intersections

Examples:

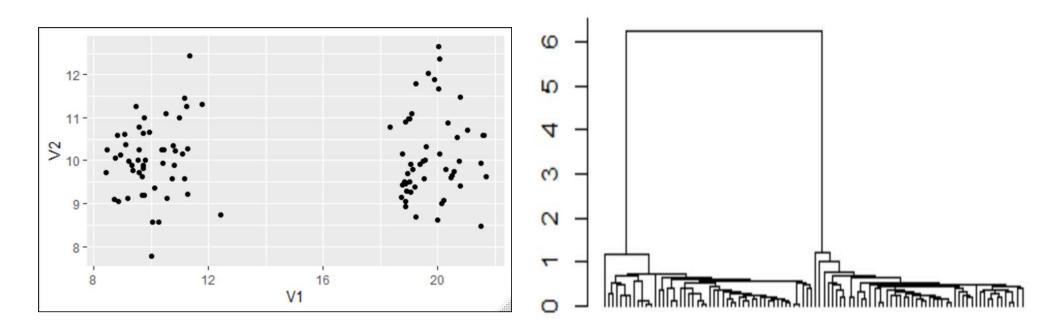
$$P_{2} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \mathbf{x}_{6}), (\mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

$$P_{1} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_{1}), (\mathbf{x}_{3}, \mathbf{x}_{4}, \mathbf{x}_{6}), (\mathbf{x}_{2}, \mathbf{x}_{5}) \}$$

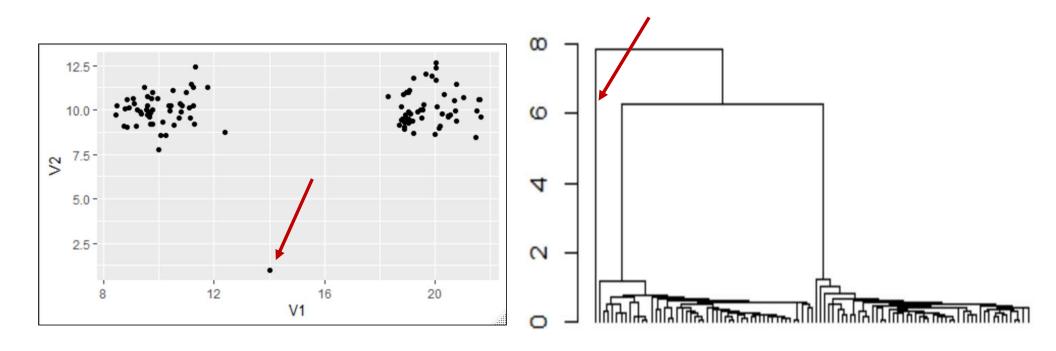


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A dendrogram may visually indicate the number of natural clusters:



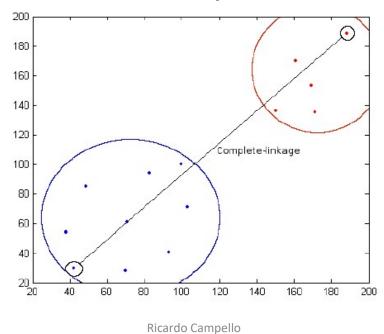
A dendrogram may also indicate the presence of outliers:



Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering Algorithm

Complete-Linkage (Max):

 Distance between two clusters is measured as the largest distance between any two observations



Computation of Complete-Linkage

- Useful property of max:
 - $\max\{\mathbf{D}\} = \max\{\max\{\mathbf{D}_1\}, \max\{\mathbf{D}_2\}\}$
 - **D**, **D**₁ and **D**₂ are real-valued sets such that $\mathbf{D}_1 \cup \mathbf{D}_2 = \mathbf{D}_1$
 - Example:
 - $-\max\{10, -3, 0, 100\} = \max\{\max\{10, -3\}, \max\{0, 100\}\} = 100$
 - Property holds recursively (for max{D₁} and max{D₂})
- Why can this property be useful for Complete-Linkage?
 - Given the distances between a cluster A and two clusters B and C that have been merged
 - It is trivial to compute the distance between **A** and (**B** \cup **C**) from the previous distances

Complete-Linkage (Exercise):

Initial distance matrix (D₁) for 5 observations {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}

$$\mathbf{D}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
2 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{D}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
2 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}$$

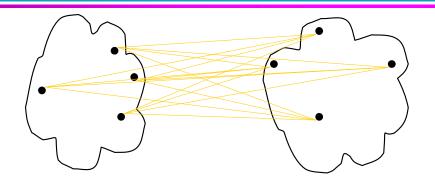
$$\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
6 \\
5
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 \\
4 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 \\
9 \\
8 \\
5
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
9 \\
8 \\
5
\end{bmatrix}$$

- First merge takes place between singletons 1 and 2 (closest clusters)
 - Rest is the same as for Single-Linkage, but now the distances are updated in a different way
- Exercise: compute the complete-linkage clustering for these data and draw the resulting dendrogram (make sure you include the height at which the cluster mergers occur, which now correspond to the complete-linkage cluster distances)



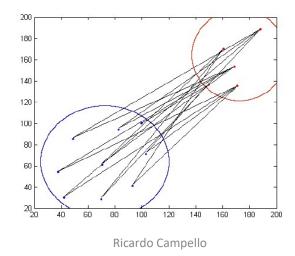
	p1	p2	р3	p4	p 5	<u>.</u> .
р1						
p2						
р3						
p4						
<u>p4</u> p5						

- MIN
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— ...

Average Linkage (UPGMA)

- Distance between clusters is given by the average distance between pairs of objects across the clusters in question
- It is also known as Group Average or UPGMA:
 - Unweighted Pair Group Method using Arithmetic averages
 - "unweighted" → every pair of objects has the same importance



Efficient Proximity Matrix Updates

- The (dis)similarity between a newly born cluster (formed by merging two existing clusters) and other clusters can be updated from the previously computed distances
 - rather than computed from scratch
- Specifically, let |C_i| be the number of objects in a cluster C_i and d(C_i,C_j) be the (dis)similarity between two clusters C_i and C_j. One can show that:

$$d(\mathbf{C}_{i}, \mathbf{C}_{j} \cup \mathbf{C}_{k}) = \frac{|\mathbf{C}_{j}|}{|\mathbf{C}_{j}| + |\mathbf{C}_{k}|} d(\mathbf{C}_{i}, \mathbf{C}_{j}) + \frac{|\mathbf{C}_{k}|}{|\mathbf{C}_{j}| + |\mathbf{C}_{k}|} d(\mathbf{C}_{i}, \mathbf{C}_{k})$$

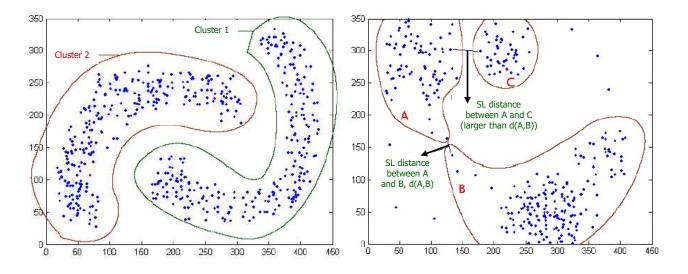
Exercise:

- Produce the complete dendrogram resulting from the application of the average linkage (UPGMA) method to the distance matrix below
 - Show, step-by-step, the updated distance matrix (using the formula in the previous slide)

Summary of Single-, Complete-, and Average-Linkage

Single-Linkage:

- It is capable of detecting clusters with arbitrary shapes (left figure)
- However, it is not robust to noisy data (figure on the right)



Summary of Single-, Complete-, and Average-Linkage

Complete Linkage:

- Less sensitive to noisy data, but
 - It can be sensitive to outliers
 - It is more prone to split large clusters (even if they are "legitimate" clusters)
 - It cannot detect stretched clusters with arbitrary shapes, close to each other

Average Linkage:

- It tends to be less sensitive to noisy data and outliers than the previous methods
- But like complete-linkage, it tends to favour "globular-shaped" clusters
- It is usually a good compromise in practice
 - Alongside with more sophisticated methods, such as Ward's and densitybased algorithms (e.g. HDBSCAN*)

Ward's Method (1963)

 This method is based on the successive minimisation of the Sum of Squared Errors – SSE (cluster within variances) at each new hierarchical level (partition) as built bottom-up:

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{j} \in \mathbf{C}_{i}} d(\mathbf{x}_{j}, \overline{\mathbf{x}}_{i})^{2}$$

where d = Euclidian distance and $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$ is the i-th cluster centre:

$$\overline{\mathbf{x}}_i = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{C}_i|} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbf{C}_i} \mathbf{x}_i$$

Ward's Method

- "Dissimilarity" between pairs of clusters C_i and C_j:
 - is <u>defined</u> as the variation that would be observed in the SSE (J criterion) of the current partition should these clusters be merged to form the next partition
 - thus, merging the two most similar clusters is equivalent to minimising the increase in within-cluster variances at each new hierarchical level

Ward's Method

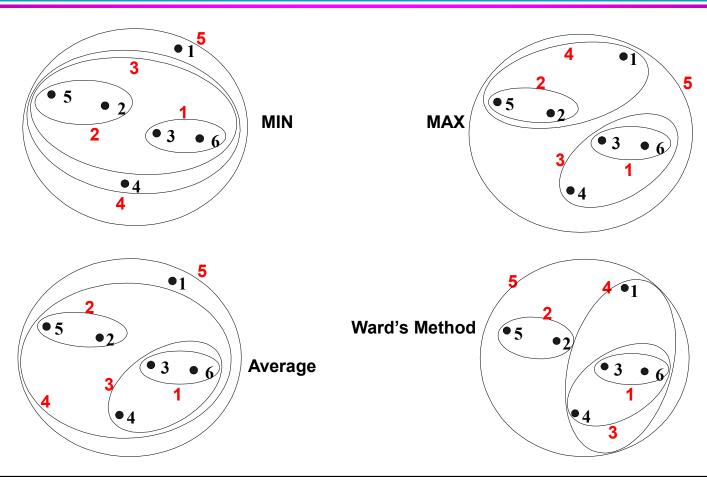
Cons:

- Like Average Linkage, it tends to produce globular clusters
- Update formula is only interpretable for real-valued vector data and Euclidean distance

Pros:

- Similar to Average Linkage regarding robustness to noise/outliers
- "Hierarchical Counterpart" of k-means (same objective function)
 - It can be used to initialise k-means
- Jain & Dubes (1988): "Several of the comparative studies discussed in Section 3.5.2 conclude that Ward's method, also called the minimum variance method, outperforms other hierarchical clustering methods"

Hierarchical Clustering: Comparison

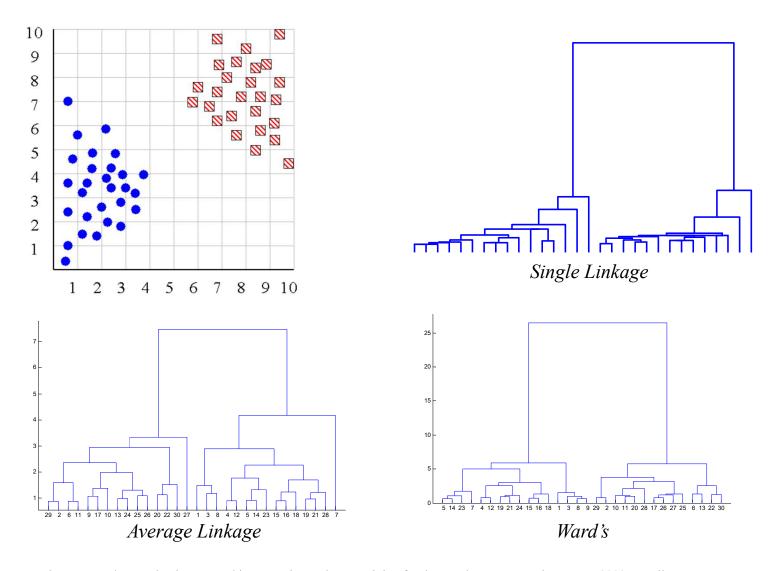


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Introduction to Data Mining

4/18/2004

(#)



Keogh, E. A Gentle Introduction to Machine Learning and Data Mining for the Database Community, SBBD 2003, Brazil.

Hierarchical Clustering: Typical Time and Space Requirements

- □ O(N²) **memory** since it uses the proximity matrix
 - N is the number of points
- □ O(N³) **runtime** in many cases
 - There are N steps and, at each step, the proximity matrix must be updated and searched
- Complexity can be reduced for some approaches,
 e.g., Single-Linkage and Complete-Linkage

Summary of Hierarchical Methods

- **No. of Clusters**: we don't need to specify the number of clusters *in advance*, but we may need to do it *a posteriori* ...
- **Greedy Procedure**: it is not possible to fix a wrong merger in previous steps optimal solution (e.g. in Ward's sense) is not guaranteed
- **Escalability**: running time complexity is $\Omega(N^2)$; N = no. of objects
- Interpretability: an entire hierarchy (rather than a partition) is produced, which is the primary goal in many applications (e.g. taxonomy) and allows data visualisation, exploratory data analysis, etc.
- **Relational Computation**: Original data is not required, since the algorithms can operate just using a distance matrix

References

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