





### What is Clustering in Machine Learning?

- Clustering is an unsupervised machine learning technique used to group similar data points together based on their features, without using predefined labels.
- Data points in the **same cluster** are more similar to each other.
- Data points in different clusters are more dissimilar

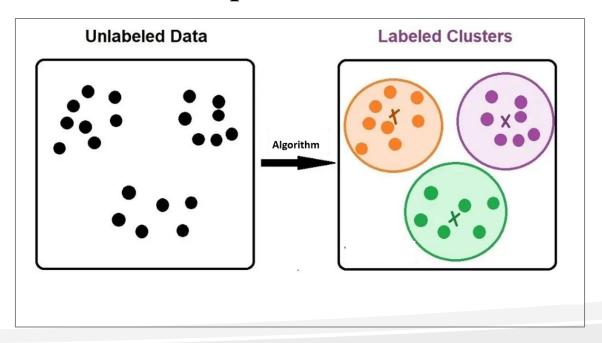
### Why Use Clustering?

- Customer segmentation (marketing).
- Image compression & pattern recognition.
- Document/topic grouping (NLP).



### **Clustering Algorithms?**

• Clustering algorithms are methods that automatically **discover natural groupings** (clusters) in a dataset by measuring **similarity or distance** between data points.





### **Key Concepts in Clustering**

- **Similarity measure** → Often Euclidean distance, cosine similarity, Manhattan distance.
- **Number of clusters** (**k**) → Some algorithms (like K-Means) require it, others (like DBSCAN) don't.
- Cluster shape → Clusters can be spherical, arbitrary, or overlapping.
- Hard clustering → Each point belongs to only one cluster.
- **Soft clustering** → A point can belong to multiple clusters with probabilities



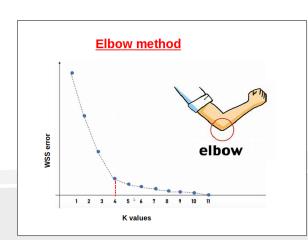
### **Types of Clustering Algorithms**

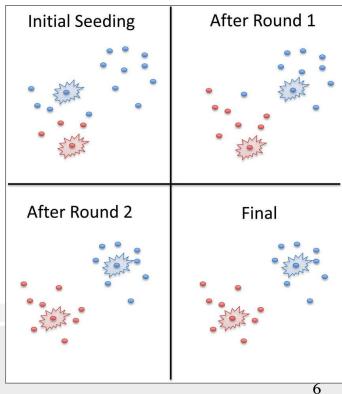
- **Partition-based** → e.g., K-Means, K-Medoids.
- **Hierarchical** → e.g., Agglomerative, Divisive.
- **Density-based**  $\rightarrow$  e.g., DBSCAN, OPTICS.
- **Model-based** → e.g., Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs).
- Others → Spectral Clustering, Mean-Shift, Affinity Propagation, BIRCH, Fuzzy C-Means.



## 1. K-Means Clustering

- **Definition:** Unsupervised ML algorithm that partitions data into K clusters.
- **Goal:** Minimize distance between data points & their cluster center (**centroid**).
- **Objective:** Minimize Within-Cluster Sum of Squares (WCSS).
- Steps:
  - 1. The Elbow Method is a technique to find the optimal no. of clusters (K)
  - 2. Choose K (no. of clusters).
  - 3. Randomly initialize centroids.
  - 4. Assign points  $\rightarrow$  nearest centroid.
  - 5. Update centroids  $\rightarrow$  mean of cluster.
  - 6. Repeat until stable.







#### Advantages:

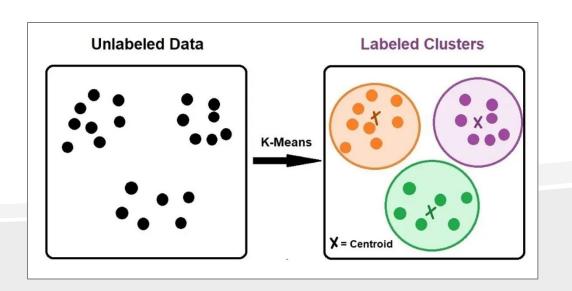
- ✓ Simple & fast.
- ✓ Works well for large datasets.
- ✓ Easy to implement

#### • Limitations:

- Must predefine K
- Sensitive to outliers & noise.
- Works best for spherical clusters.
- Results depend on initial centroids

### Applications:

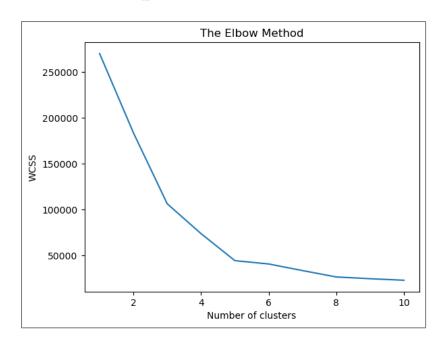
- ✓ Customer segmentation
- ✓ Image compression
- ✓ Market basket analysis
- ✓ Document clustering



# Python:

• **Elbow Method in K-Means:** The bend (elbow) shows the optimal K

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
list1 = []
for i in range(1, 11):
    kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters = i, init = 'k-means++', random_state = 42)
    kmeans.fit(X)
    list1.append(kmeans.inertia_)
plt.plot(range(1, 11), list1)
plt.title('The Elbow Method')
plt.xlabel('Number of clusters')
plt.ylabel('WCSS')
plt.show()
```

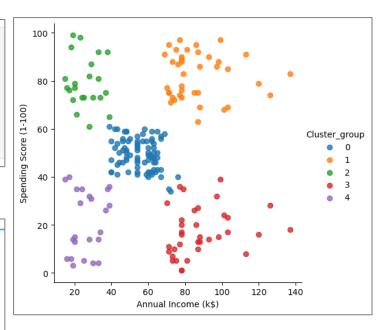




#### Model Creation

```
#model creation
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters = 5, init = 'k-means++', random_state = 42)
y_kmeans = kmeans.fit_predict(X)
```

### K-Means clustering visualization

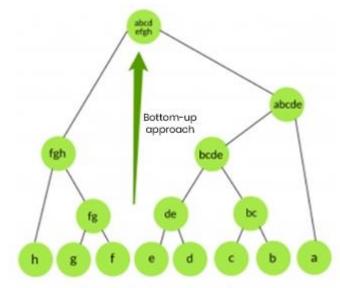




## 2. Agglomerative Clustering

- Type of **Hierarchical Clustering** (bottom-up).
- Starts with **each data** point as its **own cluster**
- Iteratively merges the **closest clusters** until all points form one big cluster (**dendrogram**).
- Output: A hierarchy of clusters (tree structure).
- Steps:
  - Start with N clusters (each data point = 1 cluster).
  - 2. Compute pairwise distance (similarity) between clusters.
  - 3. Merge the two closest clusters.
  - 4. Repeat until desired number of clusters (K) is reached.

### Agglomerative Clustering



Hierarchical agglomerative clustering

#### **Linkage Criteria** (decides cluster merging):

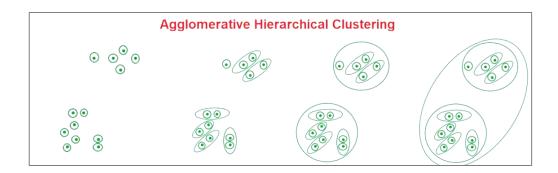
- Single linkage → min distance.
- Complete linkage  $\rightarrow$  max distance.
- Average linkage → mean distance.
- Ward's method  $\rightarrow$  minimizes variance

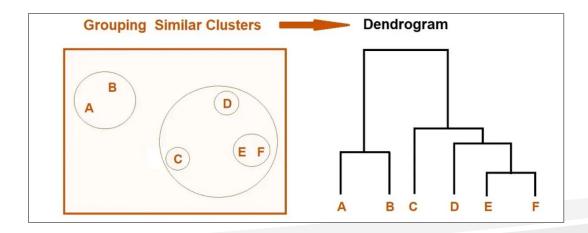


### Advantages:

- ✓ No need to specify K (can cut dendrogram later).
- ✓ Produces a full **hierarchy of clusters**.
- ✓ Works with different distance metrics

- Computationally expensive for large datasets.
- Sensitive to noise & outliers.
- Once merged, clusters cannot be split.



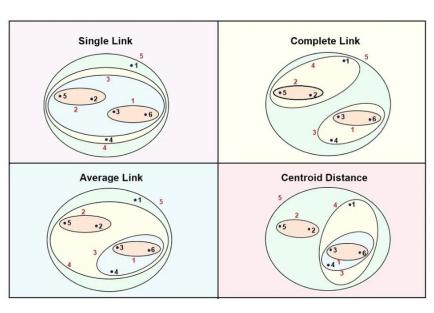


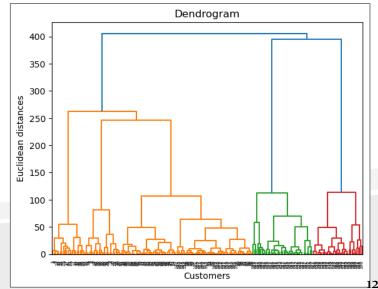


### Python:

- Choose K in Agglomerative Clustering
- Dendrogram "Cut" Method (Most Common)
- Run hierarchical clustering and build a **dendrogram** (tree diagram).
- Look for a large vertical gap (big jump in linkage distance).
- Cut the dendrogram horizontally at that gap → number of clusters = number of vertical lines cut.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import scipy.cluster.hierarchy as sch
dendrogram = sch.dendrogram(sch.linkage(X, method = 'ward'))
plt.title('Dendrogram')
plt.xlabel('Customers')
plt.ylabel('Euclidean distances')
plt.show()
```





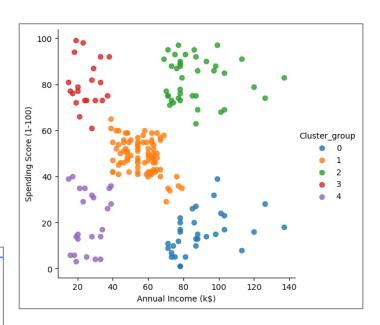


### Python:

Model Creation: Agglomerative Clustering

```
#model Creation
from sklearn.cluster import AgglomerativeClustering
clusmodel = AgglomerativeClustering(n_clusters = 5)
label = clusmodel.fit_predict(X)
```

### clustering visualization



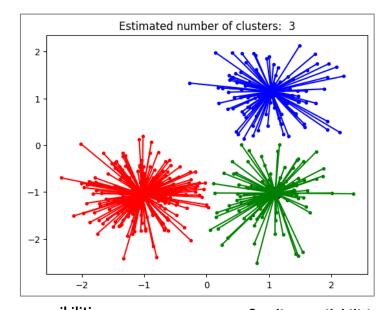


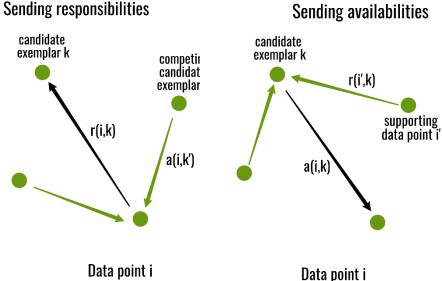
## 3. Affinity Propagation

- Affinity Propagation (AP) is an unsupervised clustering algorithm.
- Unlike K-Means, you don't need to predefine K (number of clusters).
- It works by passing **messages between data points** until clusters (exemplars) emerge.
- **Exemplars** = representative points that act as cluster centers.

#### • Steps:

- 1. Compute **similarity matrix** (measure how similar points are).
- 2. Initialize all points as potential exemplars.
- 3. Exchange two types of messages:
  - **Responsibility** (**r**): How well a point would serve as exemplar.
  - **Availability** (a): How appropriate it is for a point to choose another as exemplar.
- 4. Iteratively update messages until **convergence**.
- 5. Points are assigned to their **exemplar cluster**



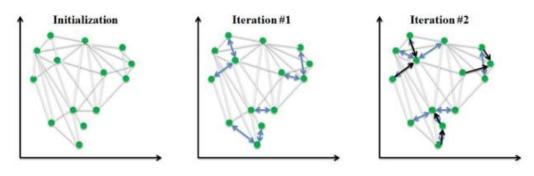




### Advantages:

- ✓ No need to choose **K**.
- ✓ Finds clusters of **different shapes & sizes**.
- ✓ Can identify outliers (points not chosen as exemplars)

- Computationally expensive for large datasets.
- Sensitive to similarity measure & preference parameter.
- Can produce many small clusters if not tuned properly.



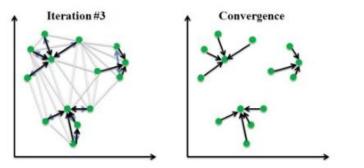


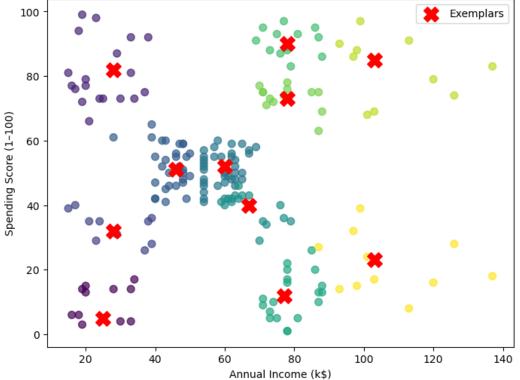
Figure 2. The progressing of the affinity Propagation.

## **Python:**

#### **Explanation of Output**

- •Points = Customers (based on Annual Income vs Spending Score).
- •Colors = Different clusters formed by Affinity Propagation.
- •**Red**  $\times$  = **Exemplars** (chosen representative customers for each cluster).



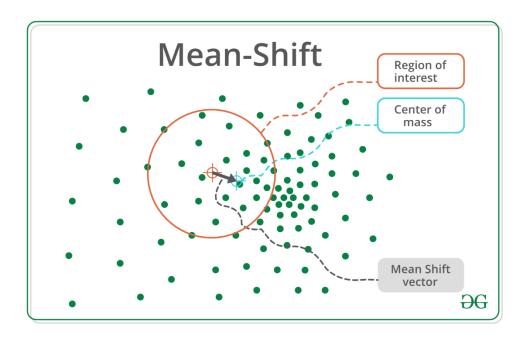


```
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
#----data collection-----
dataset = pd.read csv('Mall Customers.csv')
X = dataset.iloc[:, [3, 4]].values
#----model Creation-----
from sklearn.cluster import AffinityPropagation
ap = AffinityPropagation(random state=42)
labels = ap.fit predict(X)
cluster_centers = ap.cluster_centers_
#----Visualization-----
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.figure(figsize=(8,6))
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=labels, cmap='viridis', s=50, alpha=0.7)
plt.scatter(cluster centers[:, 0], cluster centers[:, 1],
           c='red', marker='X', s=200, label='Exemplars')
plt.xlabel("Annual Income (k$)")
plt.ylabel("Spending Score (1-100)")
plt.title("Affinity Propagation Clustering - Mall Customers")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```



### 4. Mean Shift Clustering

- Mean Shift is an unsupervised clustering algorithm.
- Works by sliding a window (kernel) towards the region of highest data density.
- Unlike K-Means. **No need to predefine K** (number of clusters), Finds **arbitrarily shaped clusters**.
- Steps:
- Choose a window radius (bandwidth).
- 2. Place a window around each data point.
- 3. Compute **mean of points inside the window**.
- 4. Shift the window center to this mean.
- Repeat until convergence → nearby windows merge into clusters





#### Advantages:

- ✓ No need to specify number of clusters.
- ✓ Can detect **arbitrary shaped clusters**.
- ✓ Good at finding **high-density regions**.

- Computationally expensive (especially for large datasets).
- Performance depends on bandwidth selection.
- Can produce too many clusters if bandwidth is smal

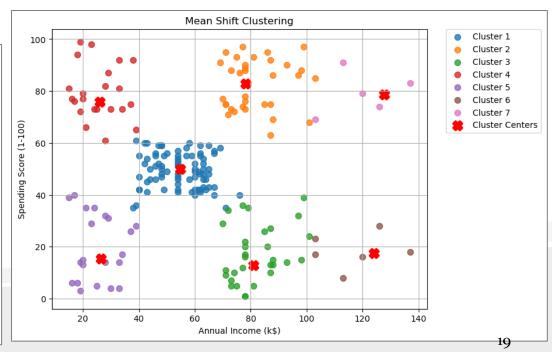
### Python: Apply Mean Shift clustering

```
# Apply Mean Shift clustering
from sklearn.cluster import MeanShift, estimate_bandwidth
bandwidth = estimate_bandwidth(X, quantile=0.1)
clustering = MeanShift(bandwidth=bandwidth,bin_seeding=True).fit(X)

# Extract results
labels = clustering.labels_
cluster_centers = clustering.cluster_centers_
n_clusters_ = len(np.unique(labels))
print(f"Number of estimated clusters: {n_clusters_}")
unique_labels = np.unique(labels)
```

- In Mean Shift clustering, the **bandwidt**h is the radius (**window size**)
- used to search for nearby points when computing the mean.
- quantile (like 0.1): → smaller window → more clusters.
- quantile (like 0.3 or 0.4): → **bigger window** → fewer clusters.

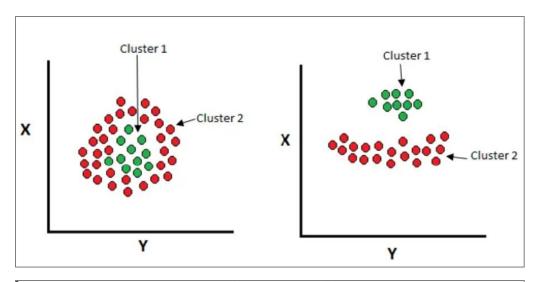
#### **Cluster visualization**

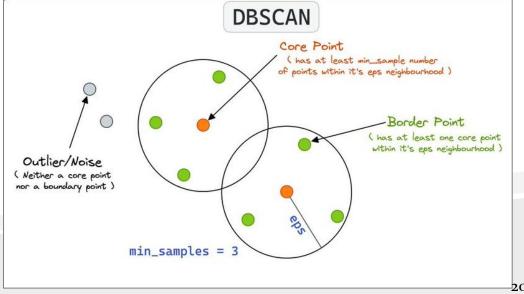




### 5. DBSCAN

- **DBSCAN** (Density-Based Spatial Clustering of **Applications** with **N**oise)
- Finds clusters of arbitrary shape
- Identifies outliers (noise)
- Groups together points that are closely packed
- Steps:
- Choose parameters: eps and min\_samples
- 2. For each point:.
  - If  $\geq$  min\_samples points within eps  $\rightarrow$  Core Point
  - Points within neighborhood → Cluster Members
  - Points not belonging to any cluster → Noise (-1)
- 3. Repeat until all points are visited







### Advantages:

- ✓ Finds clusters of **arbitrary shapes**
- ✓ Detects outliers (noise)
- ✓ No need to predefine number of clusters (unlike K-Means).

- Sensitive to parameter choice
- Struggles with varying densities
- Struggles with varying densities as it requires a single epsilon value for all points.

### **Python:** Apply DBSCAN clustering

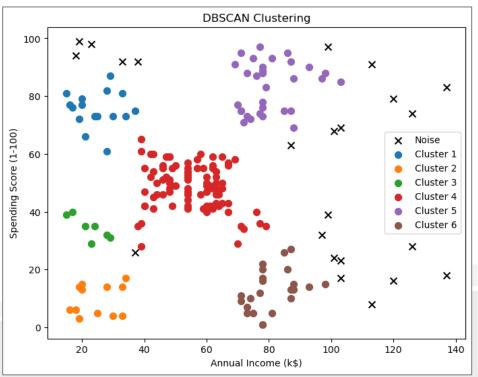
```
# Apply DBSCAN
from sklearn.cluster import DBSCAN
# tune eps for your dataset
db = DBSCAN(eps=9, min_samples=5).fit(X)

#Get cluster labels
labels = db.labels_
print("Cluster labels:", np.unique(labels))
```

#### **Cluster visualization**

```
#Plot clusters with legend
plt.figure(figsize=(8,6))
unique labels = np.unique(labels)
for cluster in unique labels:
    if cluster == -1:
        # Noise points
        plt.scatter(X[labels == cluster, 0], X[labels == cluster, 1],
                    c='black', marker='x', s=50, label='Noise')
    else:
        # Cluster points
        plt.scatter(X[labels == cluster, 0], X[labels == cluster, 1],
                    s=50, label=f'Cluster {cluster+1}')
plt.title("DBSCAN Clustering")
plt.xlabel(dataset.columns[3])
plt.ylabel(dataset.columns[4])
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

- Tune in DBSCAN:
- eps=5 is just a starting value. Since your features are in the same scale (Income in 15–137, Spending Score in 1–99), you can skip scaling.
- If clusters don't look good, adjust eps (try 3 → 10).
- -1 = noise (customers not in any cluster)

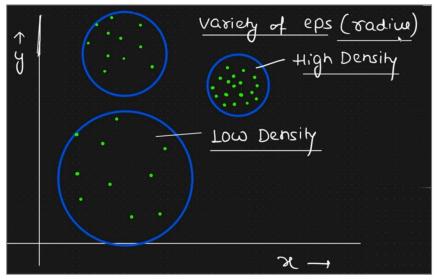




### 6. OPTICS

- OPTICS (Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure)
- Density-based clustering (like DBSCAN)
- Handles clusters of varying density
- Produces an ordering of points (reachability plot) instead of just labels
- Steps:
- 1. **Pick parameters**: min\_samples, max\_eps (optional), xi, min\_cluster\_size
- **2. Compute reachability distances** for all points
- **Order points** based on density connectivity
- **4. Generate reachability plot** to visualize cluster structure
- **5. Extract clusters** at different density levels
- **6. Label points**: Cluster IDs  $\rightarrow$  0,1,2,... | Noise points  $\rightarrow$  -1

#### **Reachability distances**



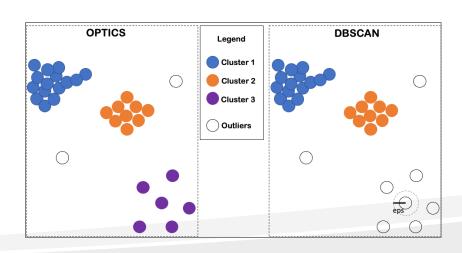




#### Advantages:

- ✓ Detects **clusters of varying density** (better than DBSCAN).
- ✓ No need to predefine eps.
- ✓ Produces a **reachability plot** → helps visualize clustering structure.
- ✓ Handles noise & outliers naturally...

- More complex and slower than DBSCAN.
- Interpretation of the reachability plot can be tricky.
- **Requires parameter tuning** (xi, min\_cluster\_size).
- May produce **many small clusters** if not tuned well



### Python: Apply OPTICS Clustering

```
# Apply OPTICS
# tune min_samples & xi/clust_method for better results
from sklearn.cluster import OPTICS
optics = OPTICS(min_samples=5, xi=0.05)
optics.fit(X)

# Get cluster labels
labels = optics.labels_
print("Cluster labels:", np.unique(labels))
```

#### **Cluster visualization**

```
# Plot clusters with legend
plt.figure(figsize=(8, 6))
unique labels = np.unique(labels)
for cluster in unique labels:
    if cluster == -1:
        # Noise points
        plt.scatter(X[labels == cluster, 0], X[labels == cluster, 1],
                    c='black', marker='x', s=50, label='Noise')
    else:
        # Cluster points
        plt.scatter(X[labels == cluster, 0], X[labels == cluster, 1],
                    s=50, label=f'Cluster {cluster+1}')
plt.title("OPTICS Clustering")
plt.xlabel(dataset.columns[3])
plt.ylabel(dataset.columns[4])
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

### Key Parameters to Tune in OPTICS 1.min\_samples

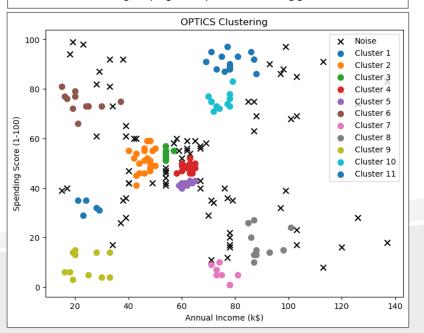
- Controls density requirement.
- Small = more clusters, including tiny ones.
- Large = fewer, denser clusters.
- Common range:  $3 \rightarrow 10$ .

#### **2.xi** (cluster steepness)

- Lower = more fine-grained clusters.
- Higher = merges clusters.
- Typical range:  $0.03 \rightarrow 0.1$ .

#### 3.min\_cluster\_size

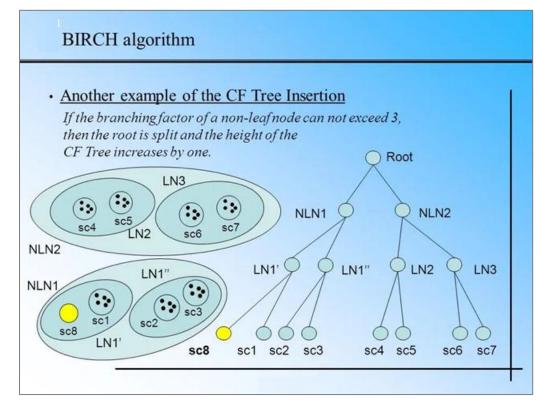
- Minimum fraction of total points in a cluster.
- Small (e.g., 0.02)  $\rightarrow$  more, smaller clusters.
- Larger (e.g., 0.1) → fewer, bigger clusters.





### 7. BIRCH

- **BIRCH Clustering** (**B**alanced Iterative **R**educing and **C**lustering using Hierarchies)
- **Hierarchical** + **centroid-based** clustering method.
- Designed for **large datasets** scalable and memory efficient.
- Uses a **CF** (**Clustering Feature**) **Tree** to incrementally build cluster.
- Steps:
- **1. Input Data** → Feed dataset into algorithm
- **Build CF Tree**  $\rightarrow$  Summarize data into compact Clustering Features (CF)
- 3. **Insert Points Incrementally** → Place each new point into closest leaf node
- **4. Split if Needed**  $\rightarrow$  If node exceeds threshold, it splits
- 5. Condense Tree  $\rightarrow$  Merge or prune clusters for compactness
- **6. Final Clustering** → Apply global method (e.g., K-Means / Agglomerative) on leaf nodes
- 7. **Assign Labels**  $\rightarrow$  Each point inherits cluster ID from its leaf





#### Advantages:

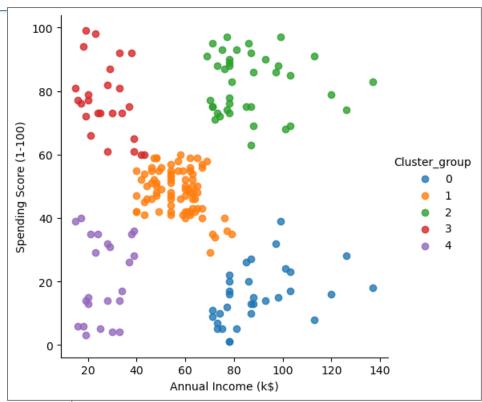
- ✓ Handles large datasets efficiently (better than K-Means, DBSCAN for huge data).
- ✓ Incremental processes data in a **single scan**.
- ✓ Good for **outlier detection**.
- ✓ Works well as a **pre-clustering step**.

- Works best with spherical-shaped clusters.
- Sensitive to parameter choices (branching\_factor, threshold).
- Not ideal for datasets with non-convex shapes (where DBSCAN/OPTICS work better).



### Python: Apply BIRCH Clustering

```
import numpy as np
                                                                      100
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
#Load your dataset
                                                                    Spending Score (1-100)
dataset = pd.read csv("Mall Customers.csv")
                                                                      60
#Select features for clustering
# Annual Income & Spending Score
X = dataset.iloc[:, [3, 4]].values
#Apply BIRCH clustering with 5 clusters
from sklearn.cluster import Birch
                                                                      20
birch model = Birch(n clusters=5)
labels = birch model.fit predict(X)
#Plot clusters with legend
supervised=pd.DataFrame(dataset)
supervised['Cluster_group']=labels
import seaborn as sns
facet = sns.lmplot(data=supervised, x=supervised.columns[3],
                   y=supervised.columns[4], hue=supervised.columns[5],
                   fit reg=False, legend=True, legend out=True)
```





# Thank You