



# Unsupervised Learning

- Unsupervised machine learning is the machine learning task of inferring a function to describe hidden structure from "unlabeled" data
  - a classification or categorization is not included in the observations.
- Since the examples given to the learner are unlabeled, there is no evaluation of the accuracy of the structure that is output by the relevant algorithm
  - which is one way of distinguishing unsupervised learning from supervised



# Unsupervised Learning

- Here we will discuss a class of unsupervised machine learning models:
  - clustering algorithms.
- Clustering algorithms seek to learn an optimal division or discrete labeling of groups of points solely from the properties of the data,.
- Perhaps the most popular clustering algorithm is the *k-means algorithm*.



# The k-Means Algorithm

The *k*-means algorithm searches for a *pre-determined* number of clusters within an unlabeled multidimensional dataset.

It accomplishes this using a simple conception of what the optimal clustering looks like:

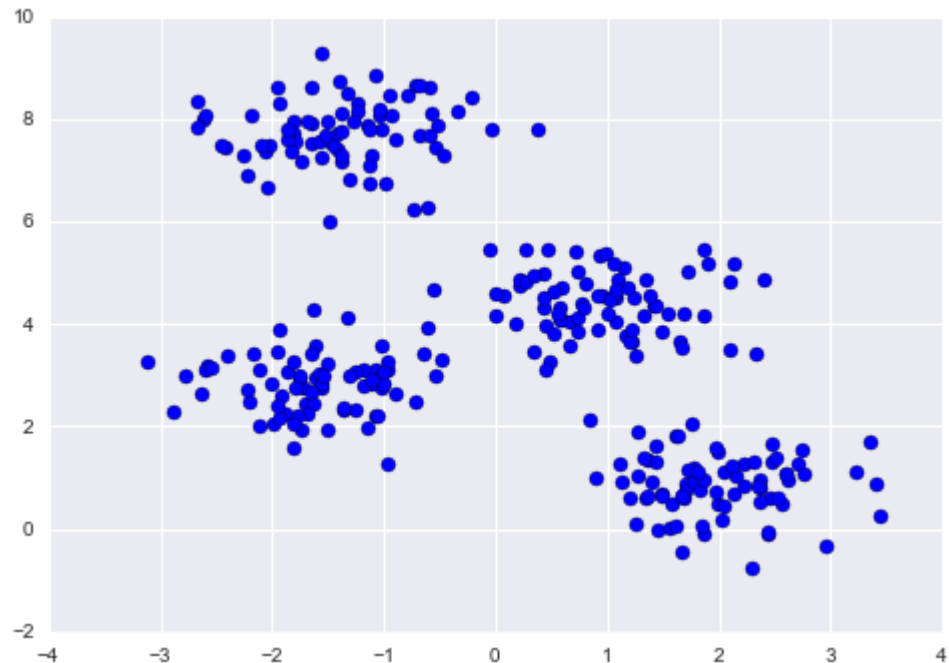
- The "cluster center" is the *arithmetic mean* of all the points belonging to the cluster.
- Each point is closer to its own cluster center than to other cluster centers.

Those two assumptions are the basis of the *k*-means model.

# The k-Means Algorithm



```
from sklearn.datasets.samples_generator import make_blobs
X, _ = make_blobs(n_samples=300, centers=4,
                  cluster_std=0.60, random_state=0)
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], s=50);
```

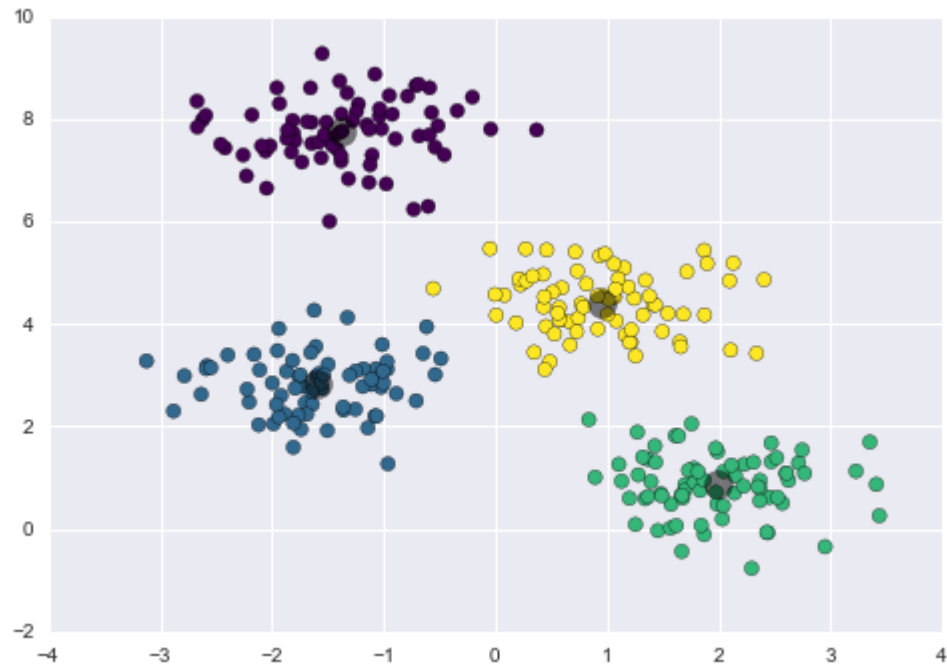




# The k-Means Algorithm

```
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=4)
kmeans.fit(X)
y_kmeans = kmeans.predict(X)

plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=y_kmeans, s=50, cmap='viridis')
centers = kmeans.cluster_centers_
plt.scatter(centers[:, 0], centers[:, 1], c='black', s=200, alpha=0.5);
```





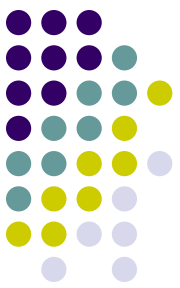
# k-Means Algorithm: Expectation Maximization

The expectation–maximization approach here consists of the following procedure:

1. Guess some cluster centers
2. Repeat until converged
  1. *E-Step*: assign points to the nearest cluster center
  2. *M-Step*: set the cluster centers to the mean

Here the "E-step" or "Expectation step" is so-named because it involves updating our expectation of which cluster each point belongs to - in this context expectation is just a fancy word of mean/average.

The "M-step" or "Maximization step" is so-named because it involves maximizing the mean of the data in each cluster.



# k-Means

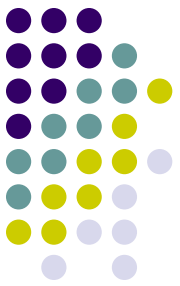
**Assignment step:** Assign each observation to the cluster whose mean has the least squared **Euclidean distance**, this is intuitively the "nearest" mean.<sup>[7]</sup> (Mathematically, this means partitioning the observations according to the **Voronoi diagram** generated by the means).

$$S_i^{(t)} = \{x_p : \|x_p - m_i^{(t)}\|^2 \leq \|x_p - m_j^{(t)}\|^2 \forall j, 1 \leq j \leq k\},$$

where each  $x_p$  is assigned to exactly one  $S^{(t)}$ , even if it could be assigned to two or more of them.

**Update step:** Calculate the new means to be the **centroids** of the observations in the new clusters.

$$m_i^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{|S_i^{(t)}|} \sum_{x_j \in S_i^{(t)}} x_j$$



# The k-Means Algorithm

## (a) Setup:

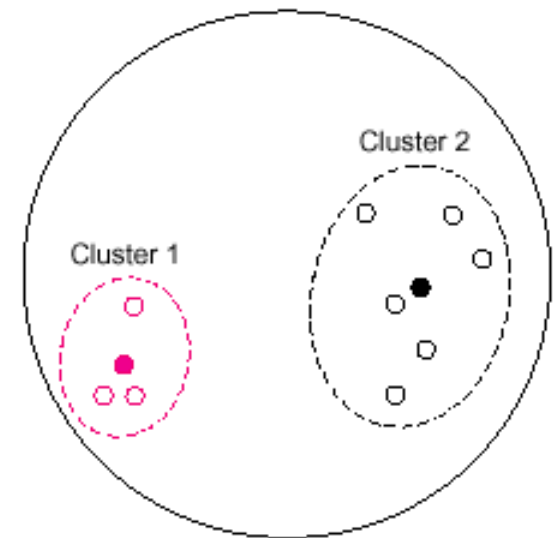
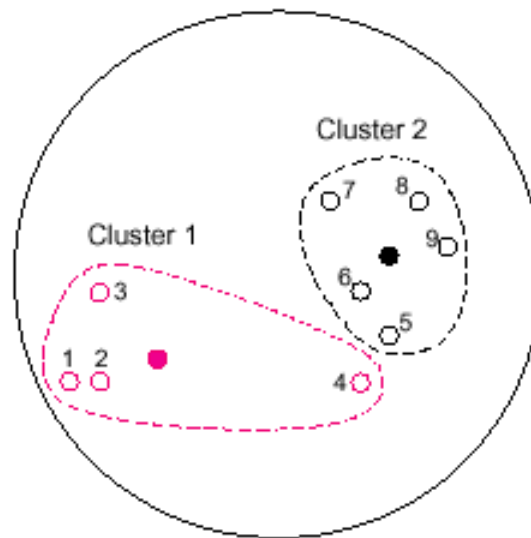
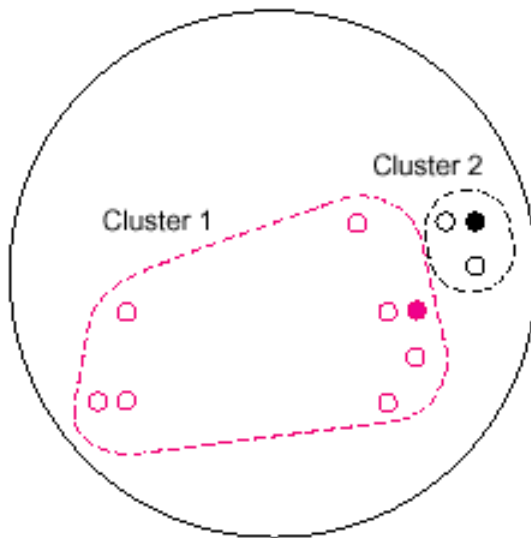
Reference point 1 (filled red circle) and reference point 2 (filled black circle) are chosen arbitrarily. All data points (open circles) are then partitioned into two clusters: each data point is assigned to cluster 1 or cluster 2, depending on whether the data point is closer to reference point 1 or 2, respectively.

## (b) Results of first iteration:

Next each reference point is moved to the centroid of its cluster. Then each data point is considered in the sequence shown. If the reference point closest to the data point belongs to the other cluster, the data point is reassigned to that other cluster, and both cluster centroids are recomputed.

## (c) Results of second iteration:

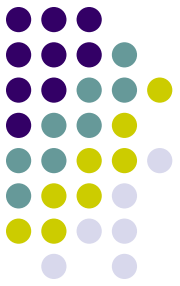
During the second iteration, the process in Figure 3(b) is performed again for every data point. The partition shown above is stable; it will not change for any further iteration.



Iterations of the k-means algorithm with  $k = 2$ .



# Visualizing the k-Means Algorithm



<http://stanford.edu/class/ee103/visualizations/kmeans/kmeans.html>



# k-Means: selection of k

The selection of k can have a serious effect on the quality of your clusters.

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans

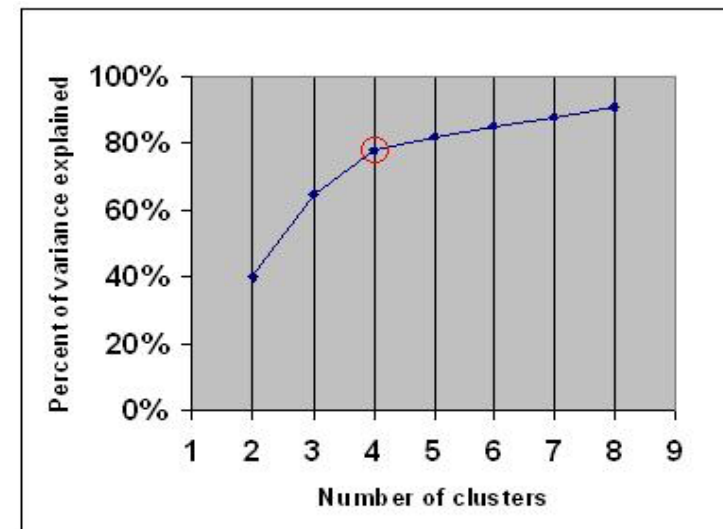
labels = KMeans(6, random_state=0).fit_predict(X)
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=labels, s=50, cmap='viridis')
plt.show()
```





# K-Means: The Elbow method

- The elbow method looks at the percentage of variance explained as a function of the number of clusters:
  - One should choose a number of clusters so that adding another cluster doesn't give much better modeling of the data.
- More precisely, if one plots the percentage of variance explained by the clusters against the number of clusters, the first clusters will add much information (explain a lot of variance), but at some point the marginal gain will drop, giving an angle in the graph. The number of clusters is chosen at this point, hence the "elbow criterion".

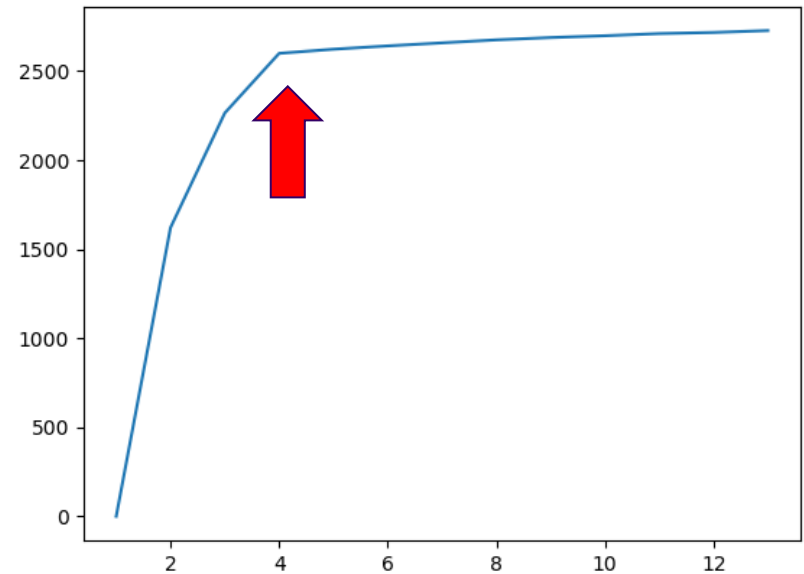
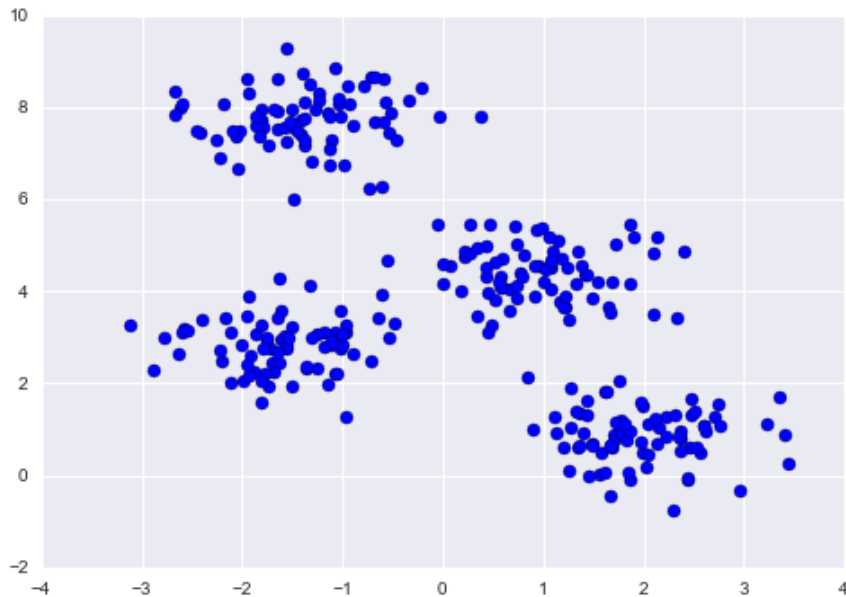


[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elbow\\_method\\_\(clustering\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elbow_method_(clustering))



# k-Means: The Elbow method

Looking for the 'elbow' in the variance plot





# k-Means: The Elbow method

```
def elbow(df, n):  
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt  
    from sklearn.cluster import KMeans  
    import numpy as np  
    from scipy.spatial.distance import cdist, pdist  
    # kmeans models for each k  
    kMeansVar = [KMeans(n_clusters=k).fit(df.values) for k in range(1, n)]  
    # get the centroids of the models  
    centroids = [X.cluster_centers_ for X in kMeansVar]  
    # find the distances of the values to the centroids  
    k_euclid = [cdist(df.values, cent) for cent in centroids]  
    # find the distance of each point to its cluster center  
    dist = [np.min(ke, axis=1) for ke in k_euclid]  
    # total within cluster sum of squares  
    wcss = [sum(d**2) for d in dist]  
    # total sum of squares  
    tss = sum(pdist(df.values)**2)/df.values.shape[0]  
    # between clusters sum of squares  
    bss = tss - wcss  
    plt.plot(list(range(1,n)),bss)  
    plt.show()
```

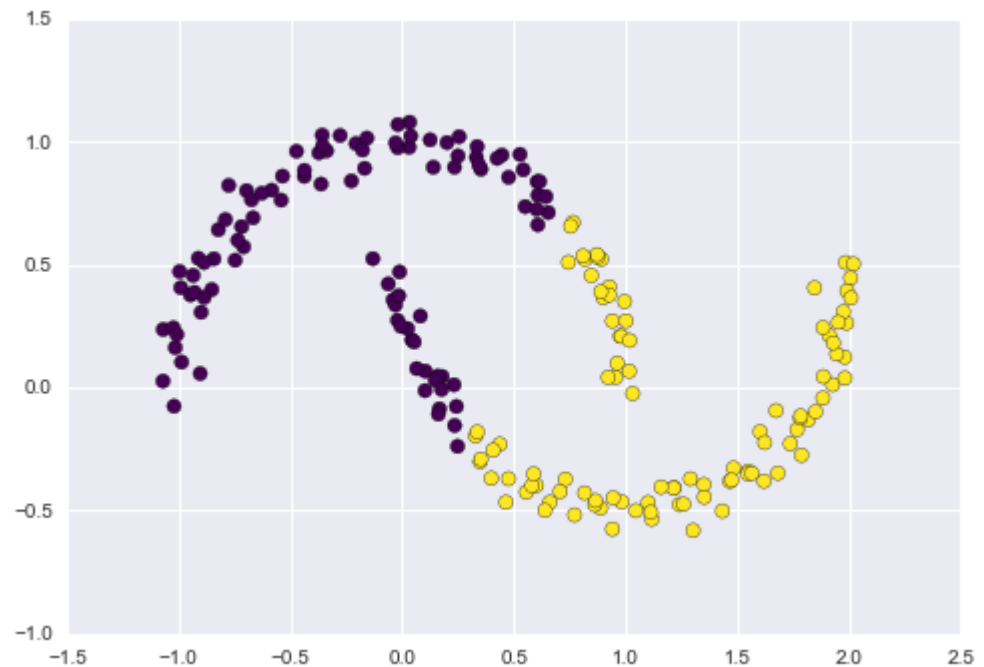
Demo elbow



# k-Means: non-linear boundaries

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
from sklearn.datasets import make_moons

X, y = make_moons(200, noise=.05, random_state=0)
labels = KMeans(2, random_state=0).fit_predict(X)
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1], c=labels, s=50, cmap='viridis');
```





# The k-Means Algorithm

- Pros:
  - Fast convergence
  - Conceptually simple
- Cons:
  - Very sensitive to the choice of numbers of clusters  $k$
  - Only considers convex cluster boundaries
  - No easy visualization for high-dimensional spaces



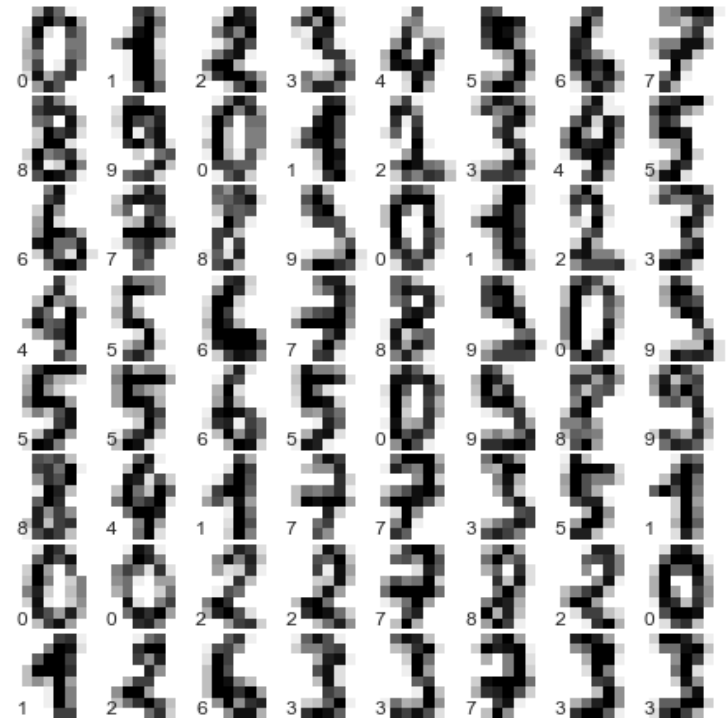
# Example: Clustering Digits

The digits data set consists of 1,797 samples each consisting of an  $8 \times 8$  grid of pixels (64 features) representing a handwritten digit between 0 and 9.

Here are a few samples from this data set.

```
from sklearn.datasets import load_digits
digits = load_digits()
```

**Question:** can we use k-means to cluster in this data set and retrieve the digits?







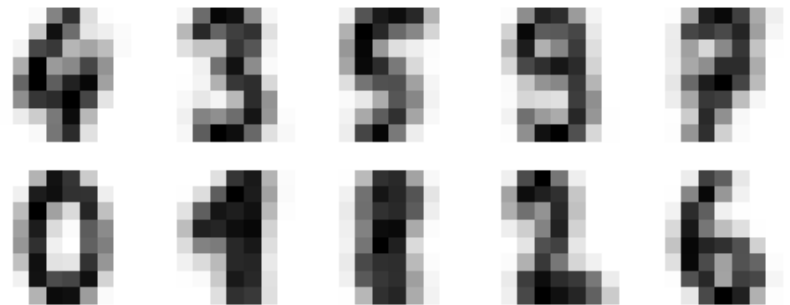
# Example: Clustering Digits

The idea is to set up 10 clusters and then each cluster should contain all the rows representing one of the digits.

The result is 10 clusters in 64 dimensions. Notice that the cluster centers themselves are 64-dimensional points, and can themselves be interpreted as the "typical" digit within the cluster.

```
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=10, random_state=0)
kmeans.fit(digits.data)

fig, ax = plt.subplots(2, 5, figsize=(8, 3))
centers = kmeans.cluster_centers_.reshape(10, 8, 8)
for axi, center in zip(ax.flat, centers):
    axi.set(xticks=[], yticks=[])
    axi.imshow(center, interpolation='nearest', cmap=plt.cm.binary)
```

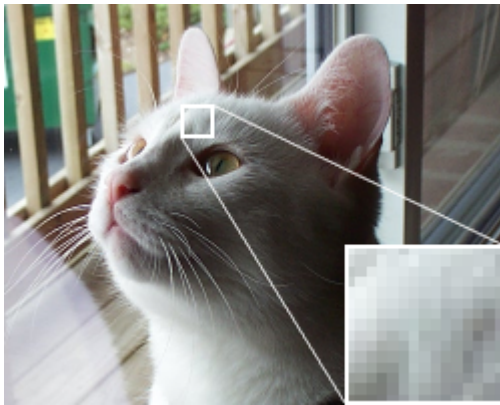


We see that even without the labels, KMeans is able to find clusters whose centers are recognizable digits, with perhaps the exception of 1 and 8.

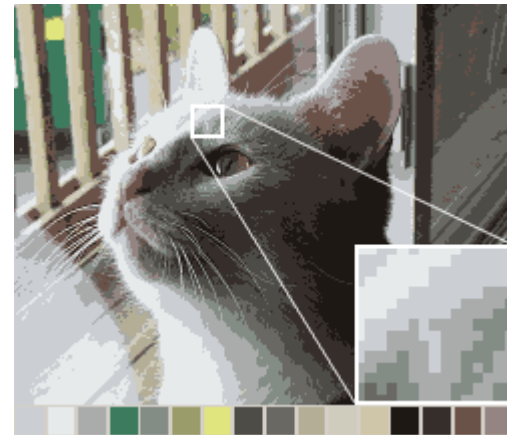


# Example: Color Quantization

In computer graphics, color quantization or color image quantization is a process that reduces the number of distinct colors used in an image, usually with the intention that the new image should be as visually similar as possible to the original image.



An example image in 24-bit RGB color



The same image reduced to a palette of 16 colors specifically chosen to best represent the image; the selected palette is shown by the squares above



# Example: Color Quantization

Most standard techniques treat color quantization as a problem of clustering points in three-dimensional space, where the points represent colors found in the original image and the three axes represent the three color channels.

Almost any three-dimensional clustering algorithm can be applied to color quantization, including k-Means.

After the clusters are located, typically the points in each cluster are averaged to obtain the representative color that all colors in that cluster are mapped to.

The three color channels are usually red, green, and blue.

# Example: Color Quantization

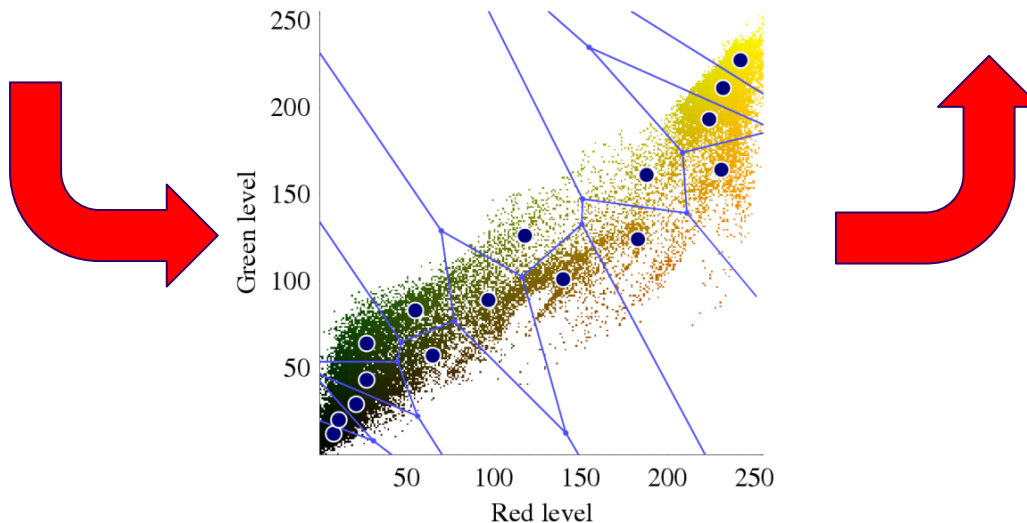
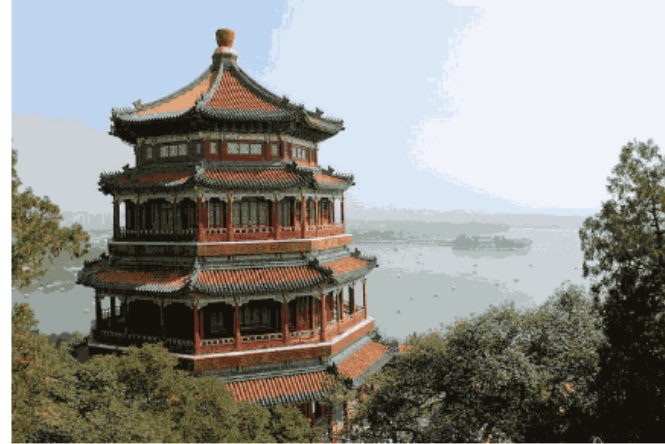
Let's apply k-Means as a color quantizer.

```
>>> data = china / 255.0 # use 0...1 scale  
>>> data = data.reshape(427 * 640, 3)  
>>> data.shape  
(273280, 3)
```

Original Image



16-color Image



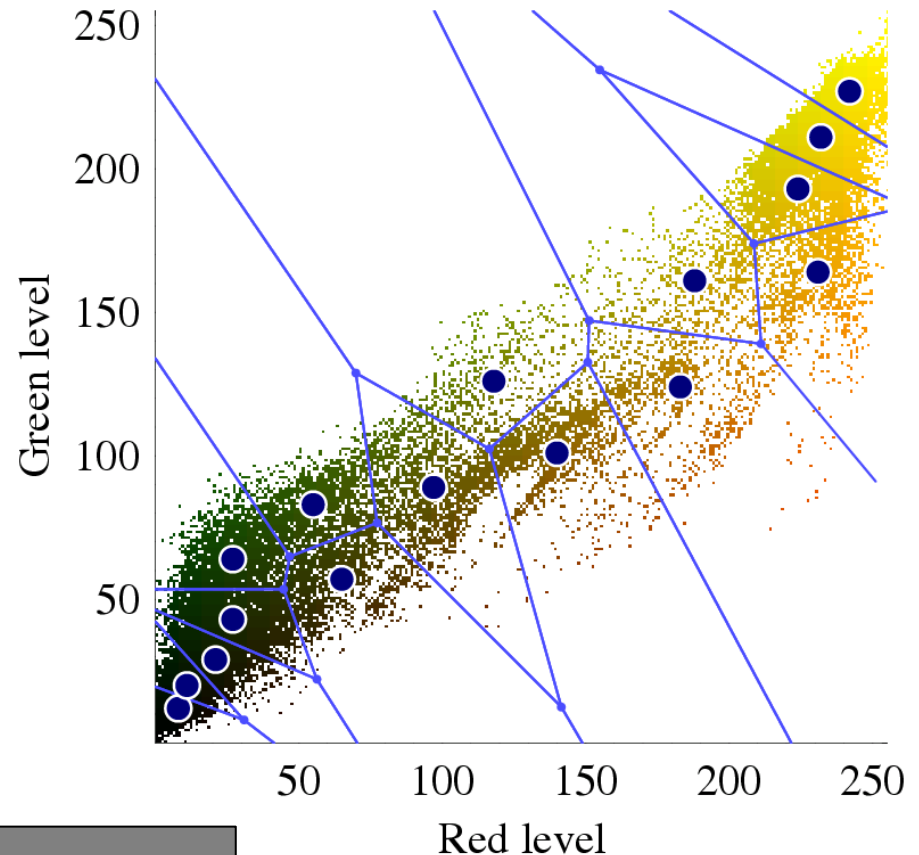


# Example: Color Quantization

k-Means cluster partition space into a *Voronoi diagram*.

All the points in a particular Voronoi diagram partition will be coded with the average color for that partition.

Compressing millions of colors into 16 colors.



```
from sklearn.cluster import MiniBatchKMeans
kmeans = MiniBatchKMeans(16)
kmeans.fit(data)
new_colors = kmeans.cluster_centers_[kmeans.predict(data)]
```



# Single-Link(age) Clustering

- This is also called hierarchical clustering
  - The algorithm builds a hierarchy of clusters.



# Single-Link(age) Clustering

## Algorithm:

- Start with each point of the dataset as a cluster by itself.
- Merge two clusters with the smallest gap
  - distance between the closest points
- Keep merging until you've reached K clusters
  - K is user defined just like in k-means

Mathematically, the linkage function – the distance  $D(X, Y)$  between clusters  $X$  and  $Y$  – is described by the expression

$$D(X, Y) = \min_{x \in X, y \in Y} d(x, y),$$

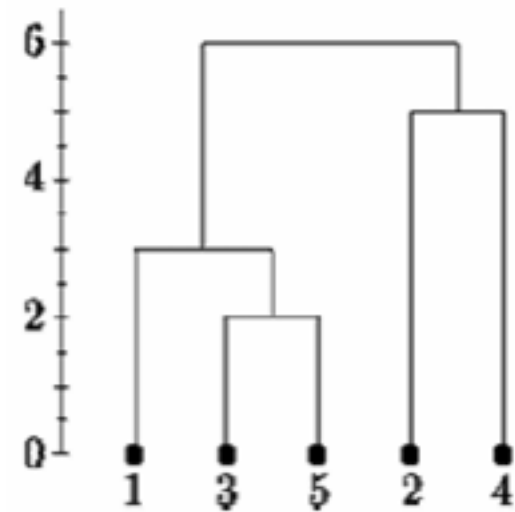
where  $X$  and  $Y$  are any two sets of elements considered as clusters, and  $d(x, y)$  denotes the distance between the two elements  $x$  and  $y$ .



# Single-Link(age) Clustering

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0				
2	9	0			
3	3	7	0		
4	6	5	9	0	
5	11	10	2	8	0

Distance Matrix



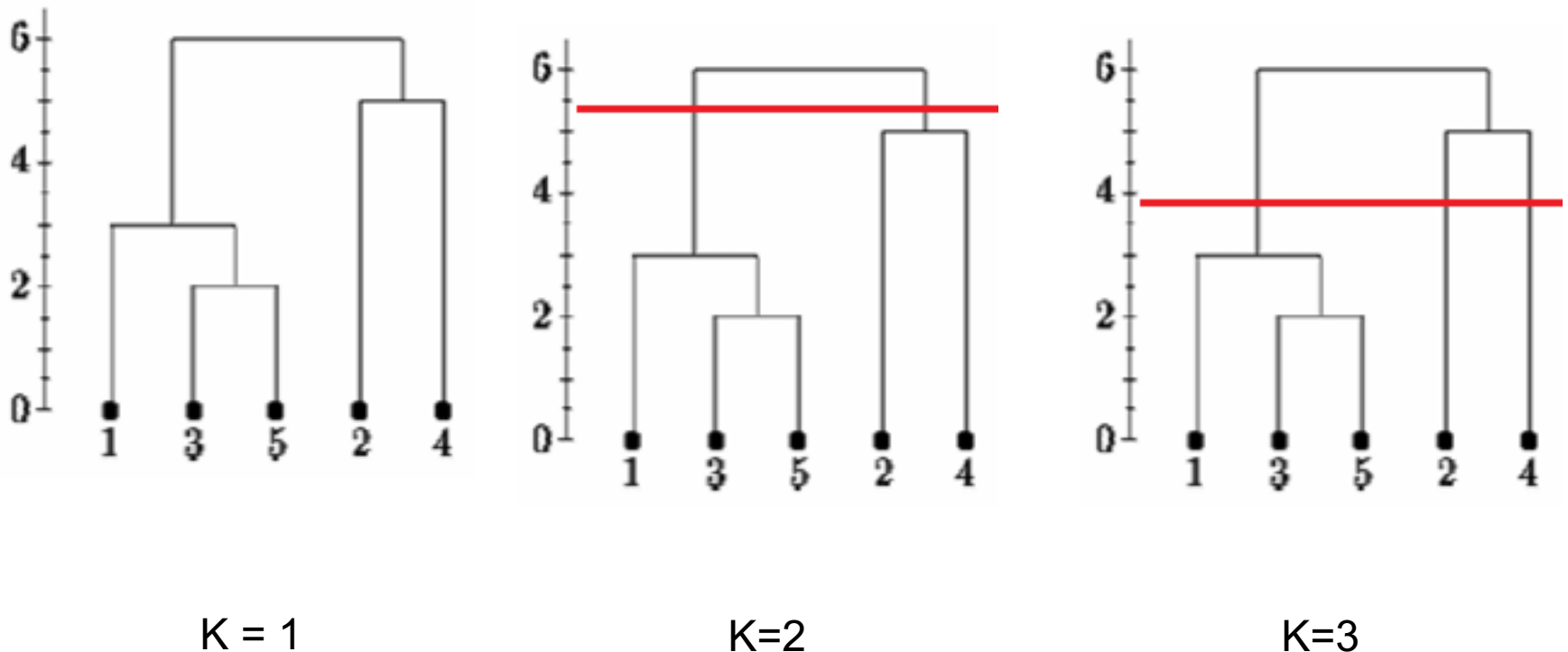
Hierarchical  
Cluster Representation



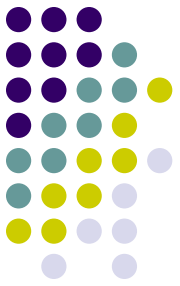


# Single-Link(age) Clustering

Determining clusters: One of the problems with hierarchical clustering is that there is no objective way to say how many clusters there are.



# Single-Link(age) Clustering



Demo <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XJ3194AmH40>



# Single-Link Clustering

- Pros:
  - Fast
  - can find clusters of any shape
  - Nice visualization
- Cons:
  - no notion of compactness
  - no notion of balance
  - Visualization easily gets overwhelmed by too many points

# Comparison

