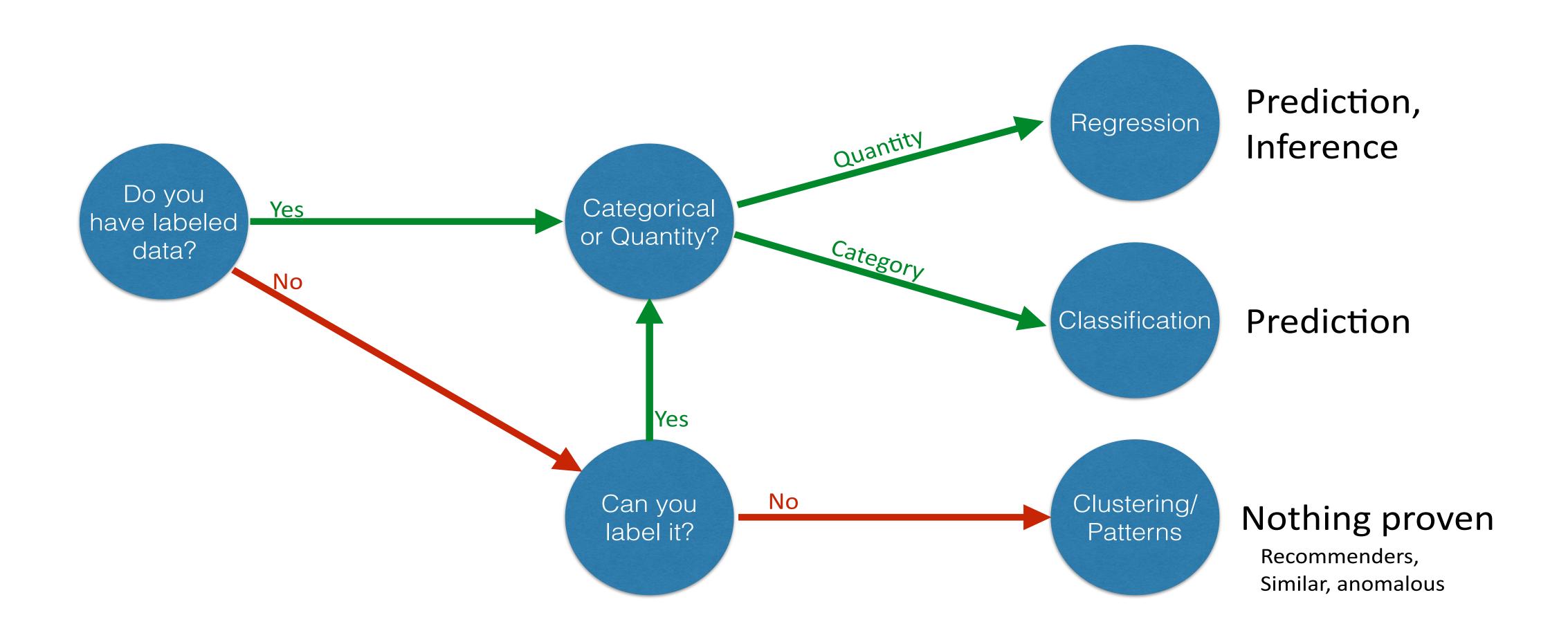
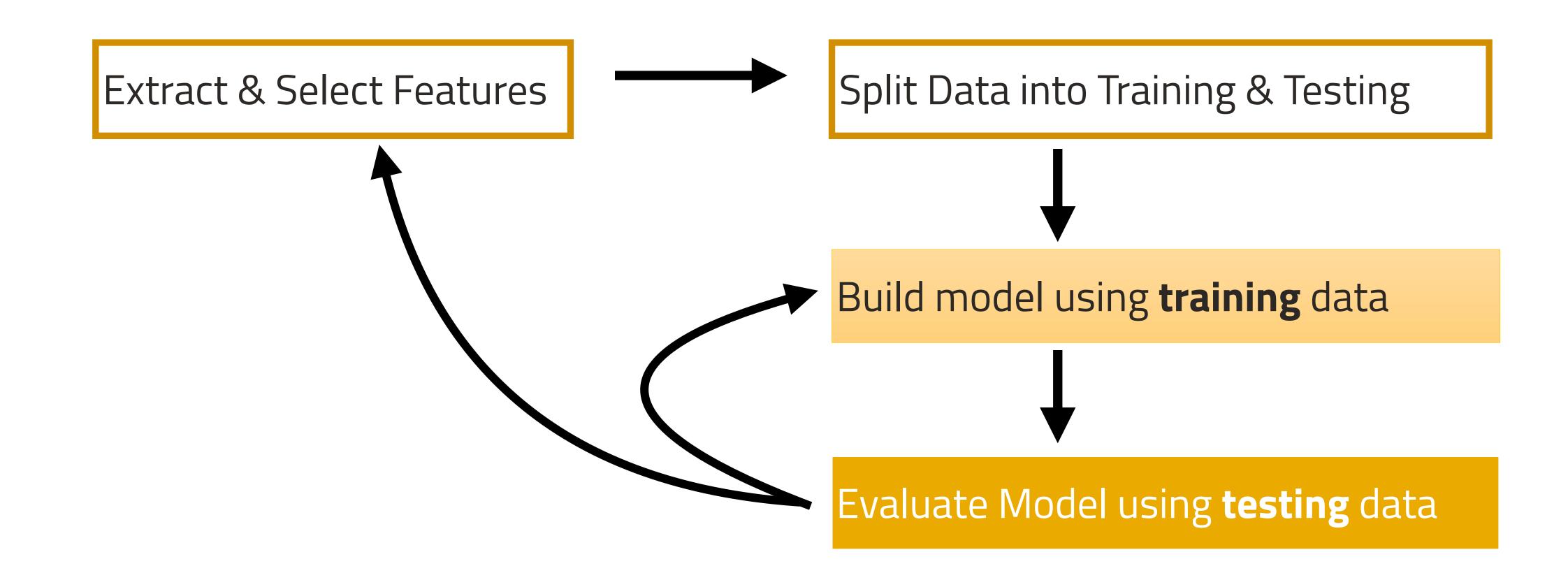
Module 6: Unsupervised Learning: Clustering

Agenda for Today

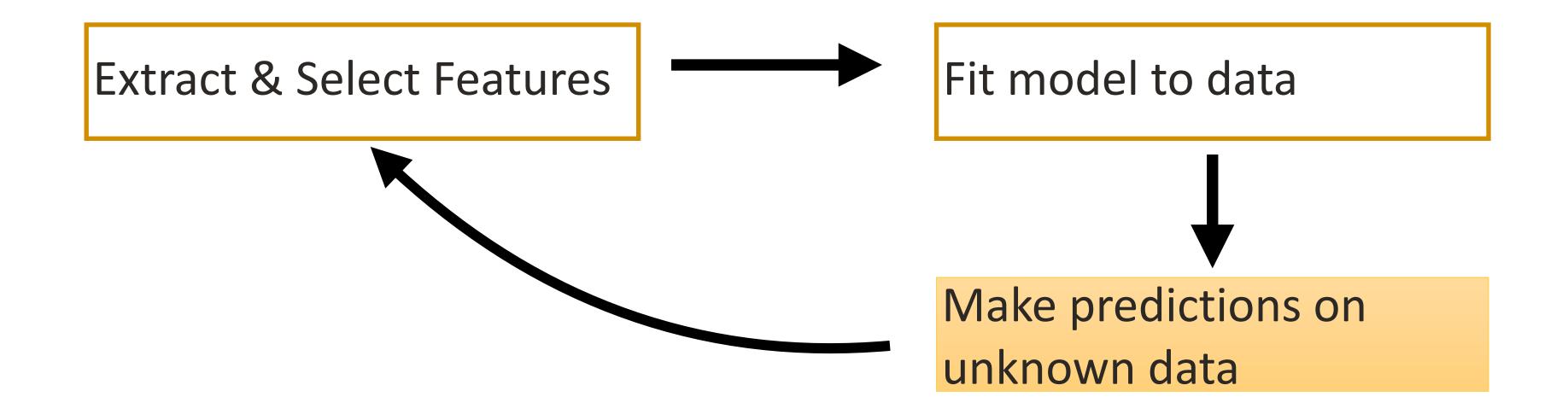
- Measuring Distances
- Math free overview of clustering techniques



Supervised ML Process



Unsupervised ML Process



Unsupervised Clustering Algorithm

- 1. Select Features
- 2. Calculate a distance measure
- 3. Apply a clustering algorithm
- 4. Validate?

	Malware events
Dept1	6
Dept2	1
Dept3	8

	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1

	Malware events	Phishing	Open Tickets
Dept1	6	6	3
Dept2	1	2	1
Dept3	8	1	9

Computing Distance

	Malware events
Dept1	6
Dept2	1
Dept3	8

Compare:

Dept1 to Dept2: | 6 - 1 | = 5
Dept2 to Dept3: | 1 - 8 | = 7
Dept1 to Dept3: | 6 - 8 | = 2

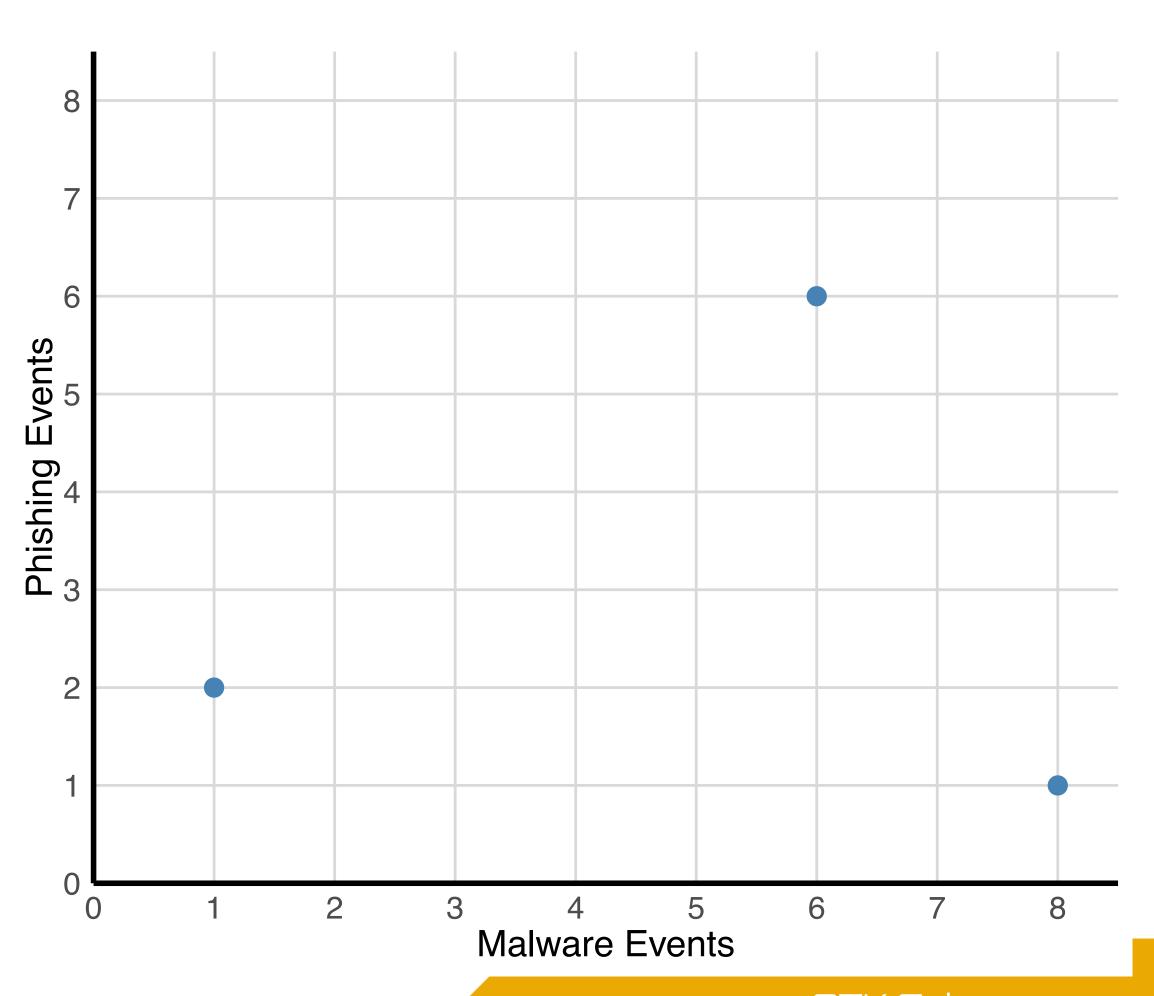
	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1

Multiple Distance methods

- Euclidean
- Manhattan
- Maximum
- Canberra
- Binary
- Minkowski

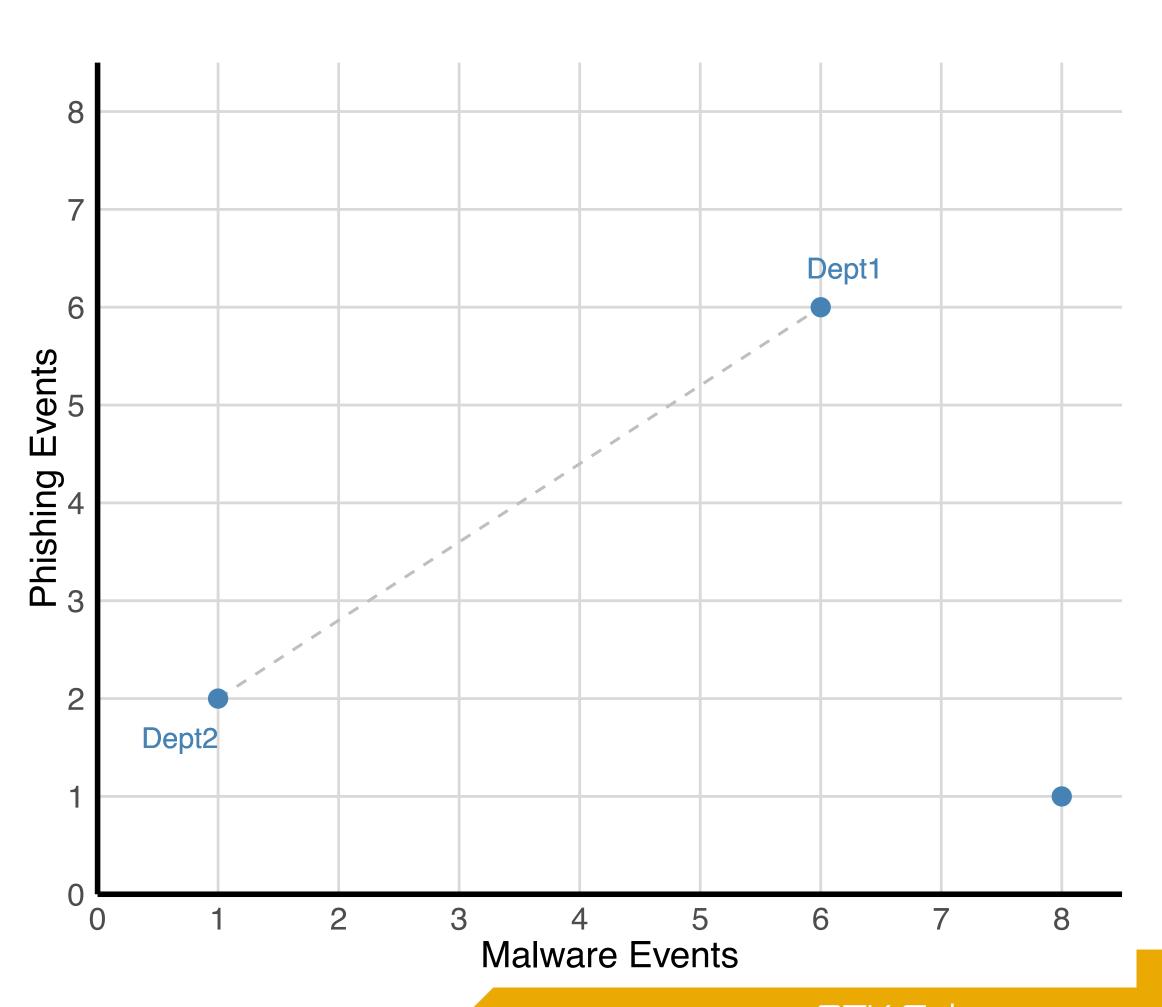
... (to name a few)

	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1



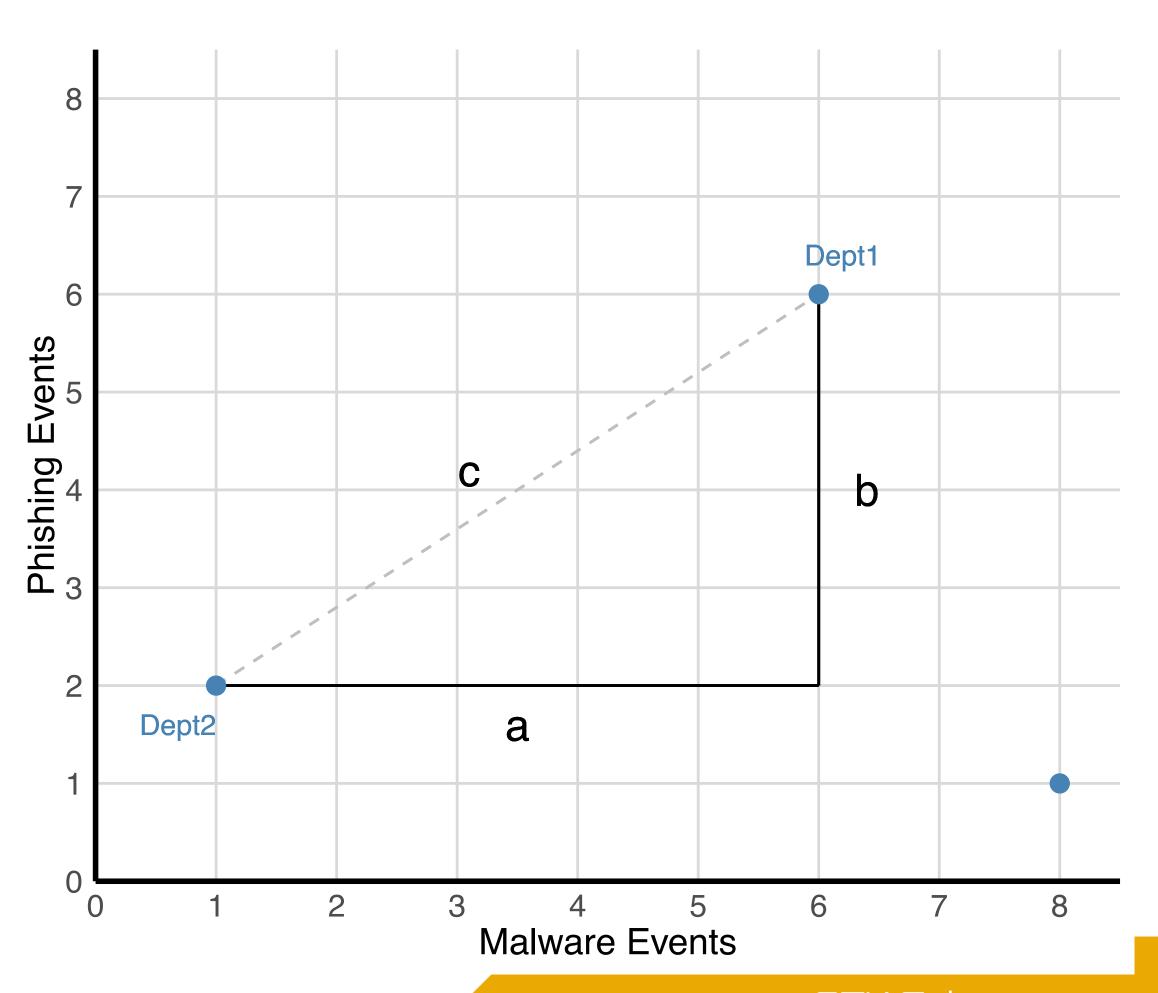
Euclidean very common and easy to understand

	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1



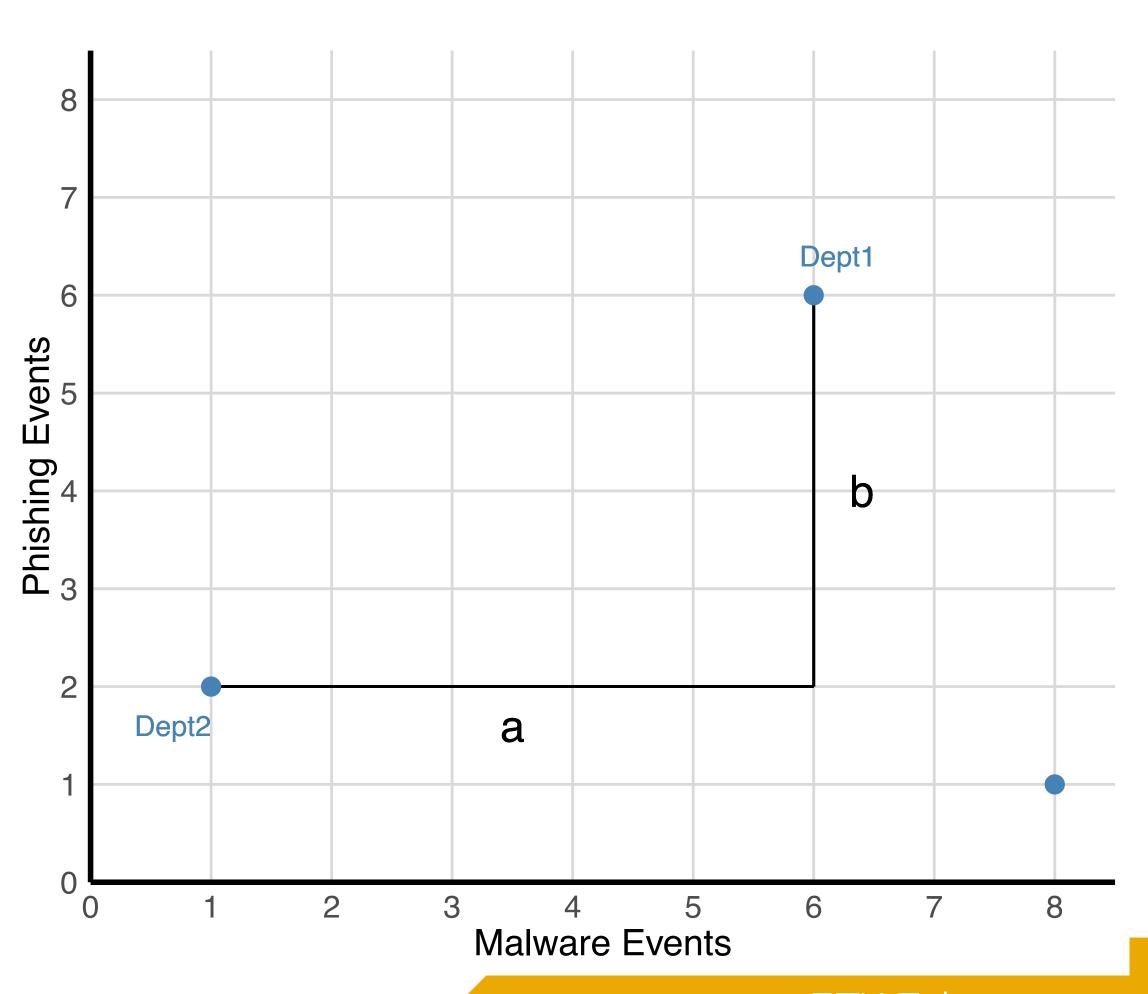
Euclidean very common and easy to understand: $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1



Manhattan also easy to comprehend: a + b

	Malware events	Phishing
Dept1	6	6
Dept2	1	2
Dept3	8	1



Computing Distance

	Malware events	Phishing	
Dept1	6	6	Compare: Dept1 to Dept2: sqrt((6-1)^2 + (6-2)^2) = 6.4
Dept2	1	2	Dept2 to Dept3: = 7.1 Dept1 to Dept3: = 5.4
Dept3	8	1	

Euclidean Distance calculations

```
def dist(x,y):
    return np.sqrt(np.sum((x-y)**2))

> mat = np.array([[ 6,6,3 ], [1,2,1], [8,1,9]])
> dist(mat[0], mat[1])
6.7082039324993694

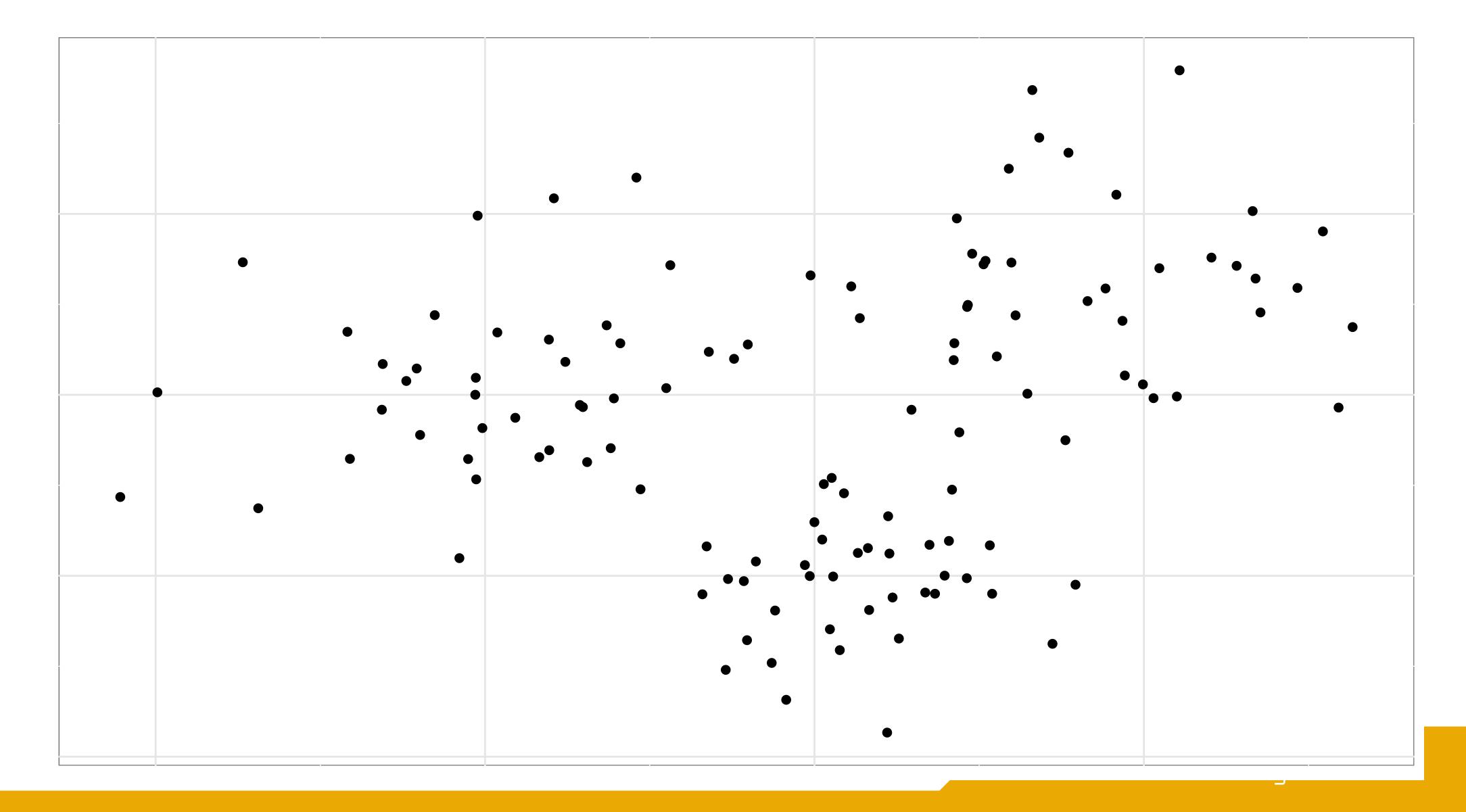
> dist(mat[1], mat[2])
10.677078252031311

> dist(mat[0], mat[2])
8.0622577482985491
```

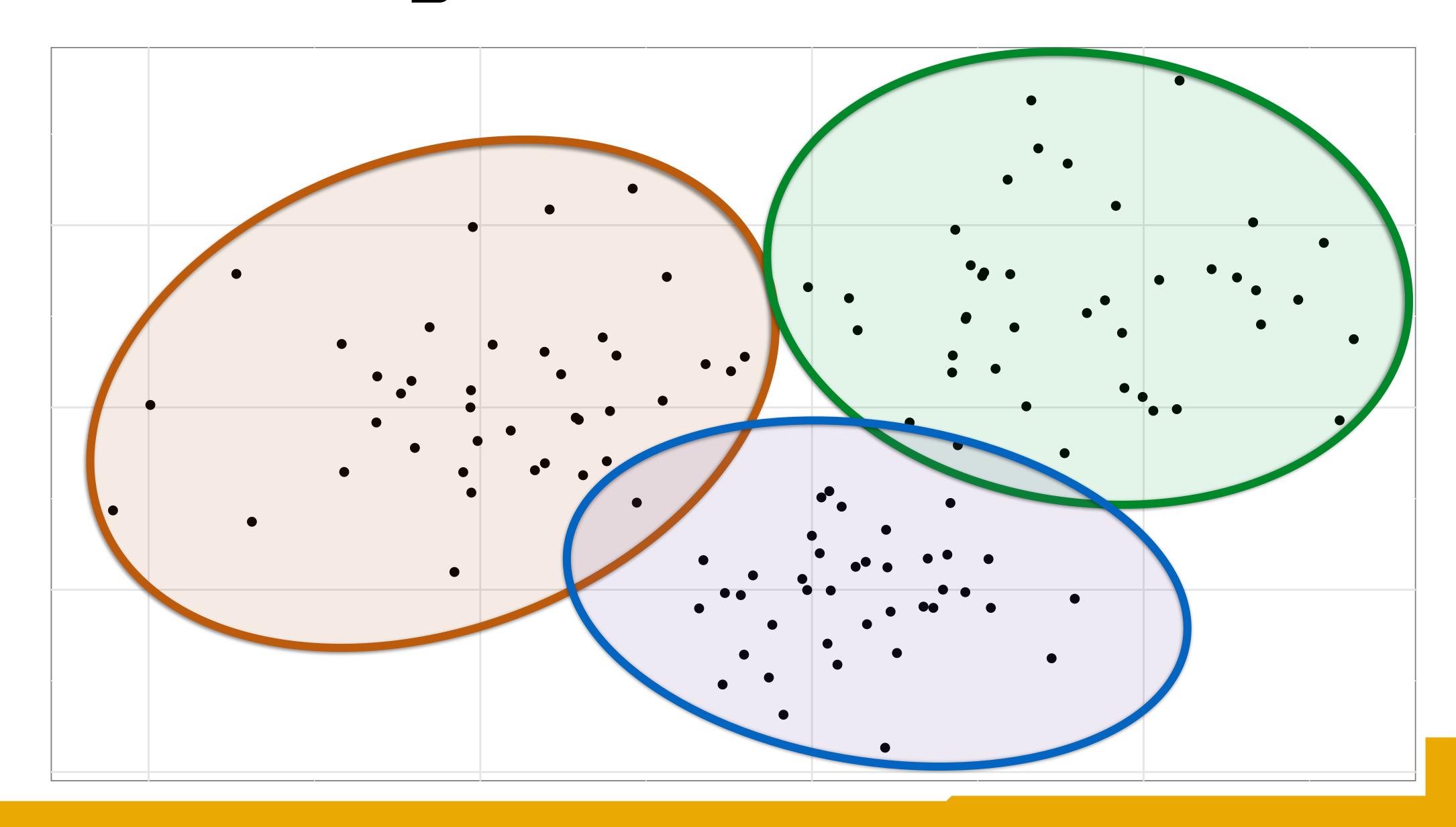
	Malware events	Phishing	Open Tickets	
Dept1	6	6	3	
Dept2	1	2	1	6.7
Dept3	8	1	9	10.7

Stop

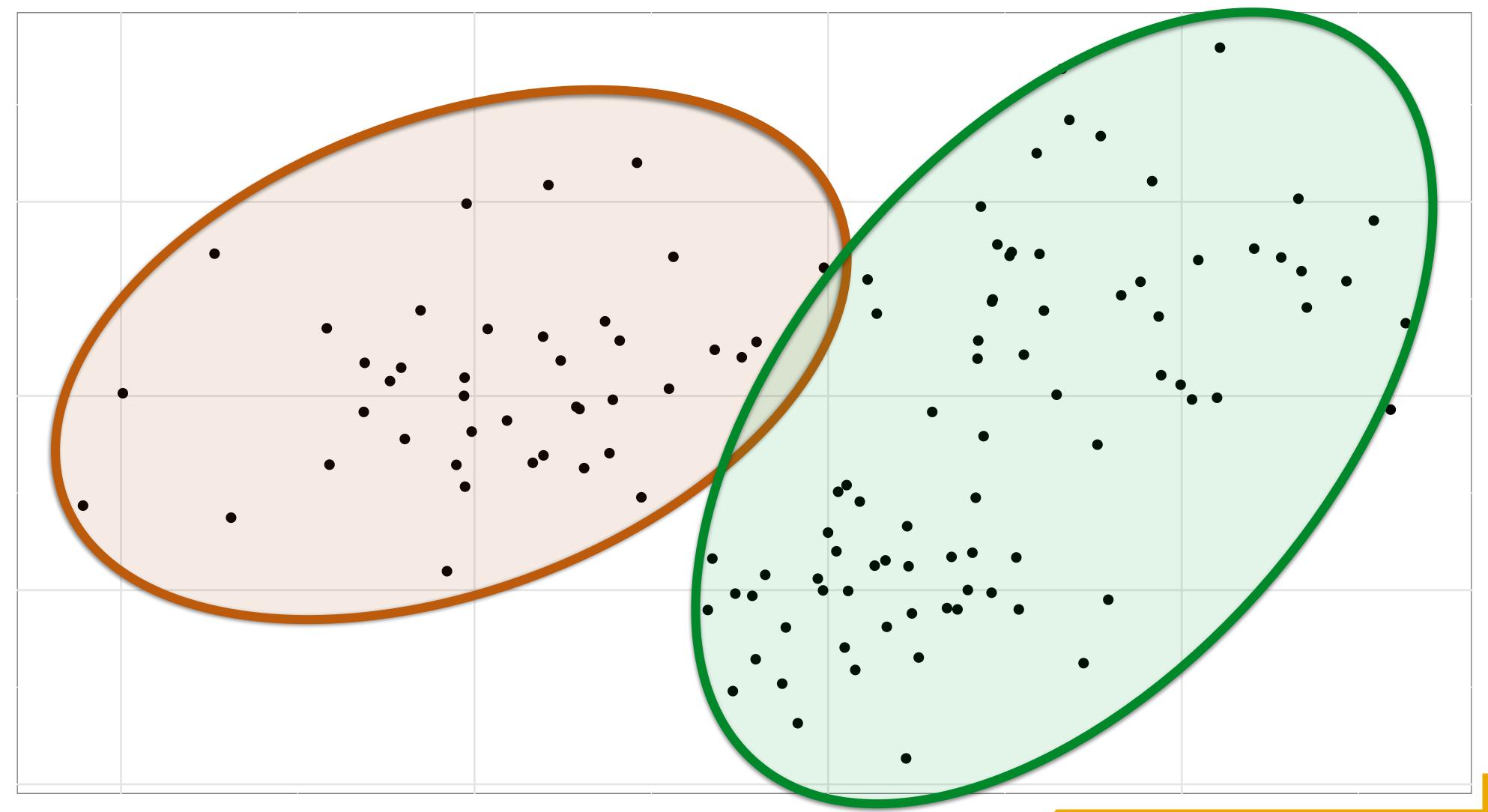
Clustering...



Clustering...



Clustering...

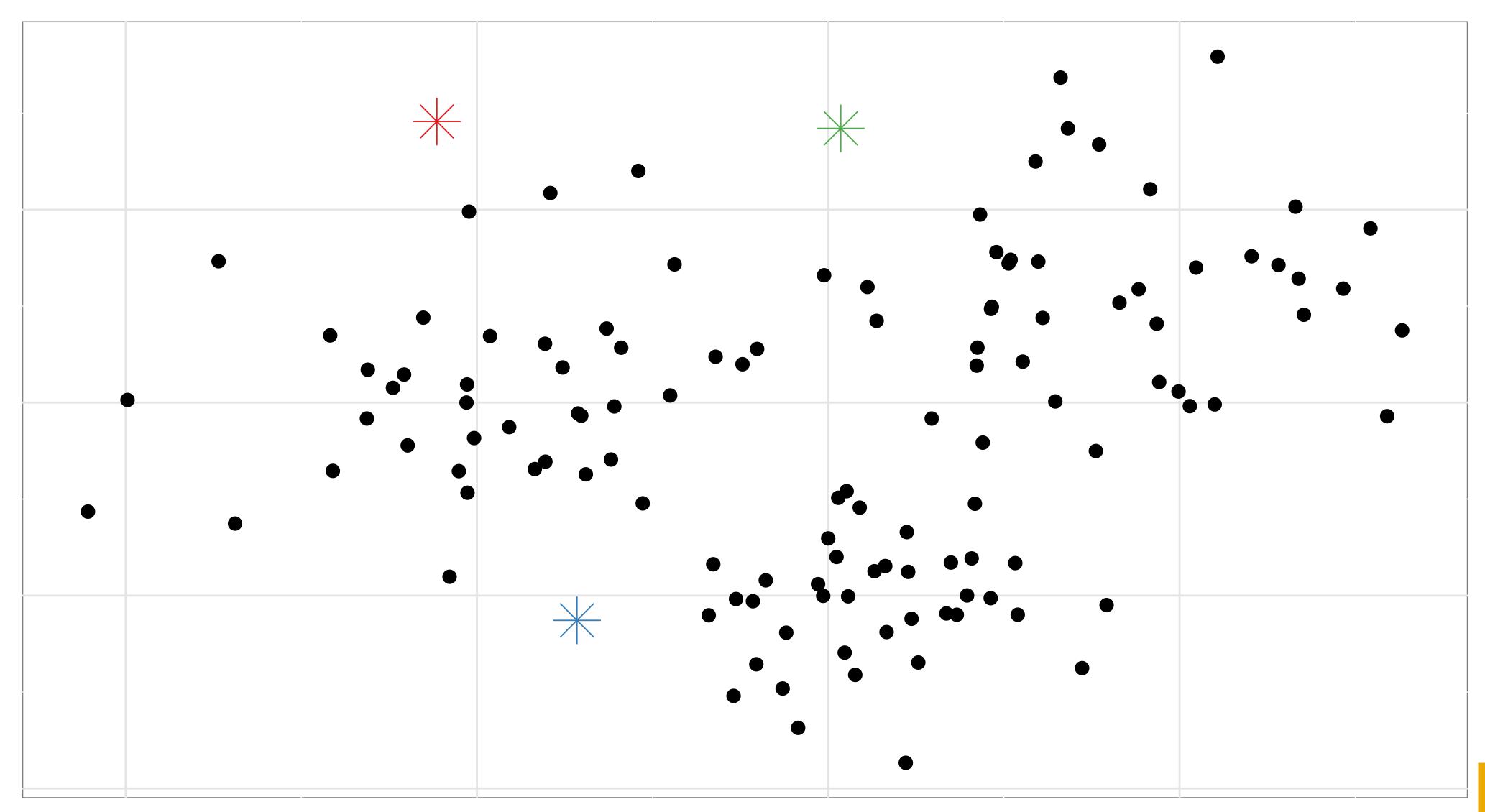


K-Means

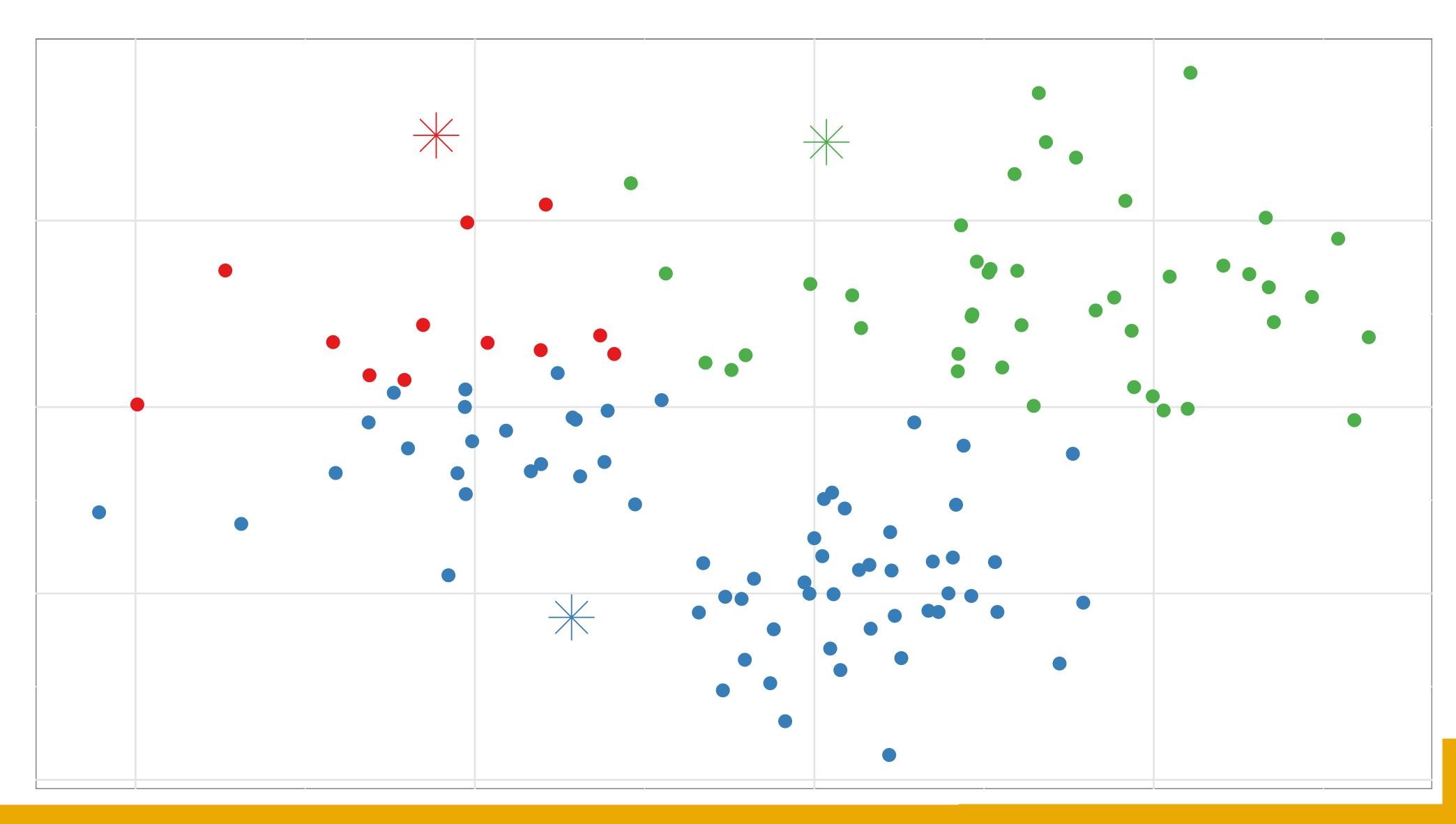
Before starting, pick the number of clusters, K

- 1. Pick K random centroids within data range
- 2. Assign each data point to the nearest centroid
- 3. Move centroid to center of assigned points
- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until centroid stops shifting

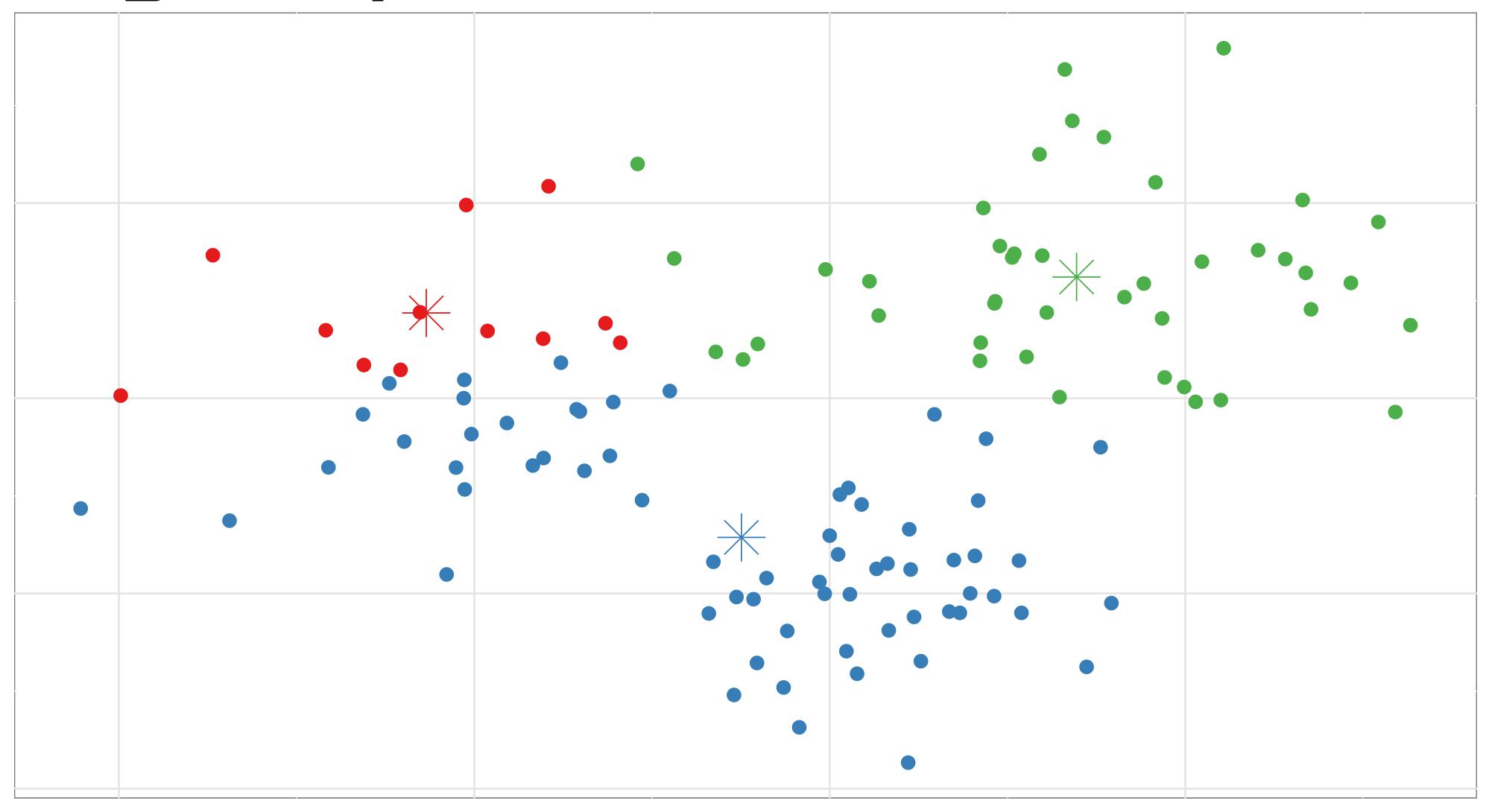
Step 1: Pick 3 random centroids within data range



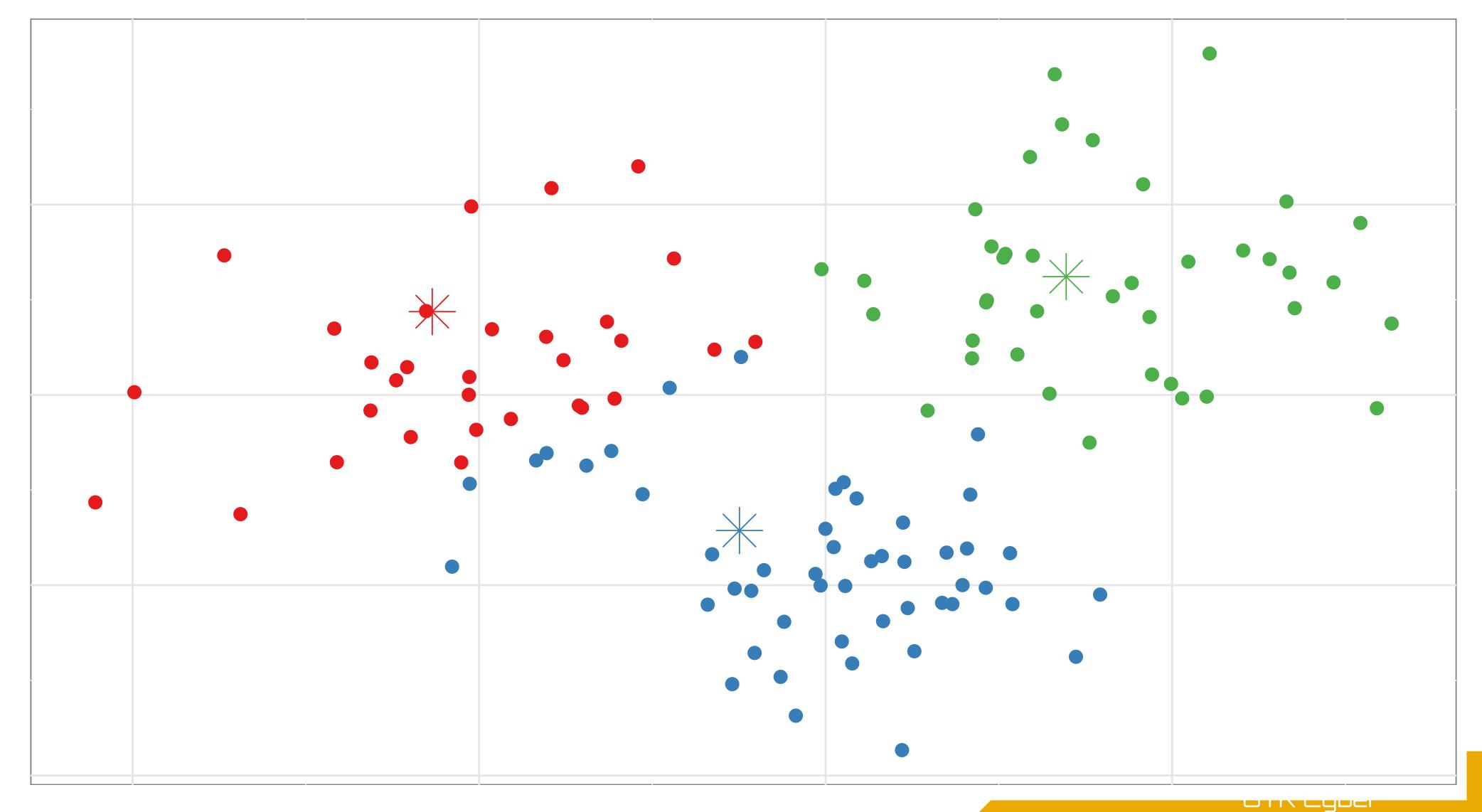
Step 2: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid (1)



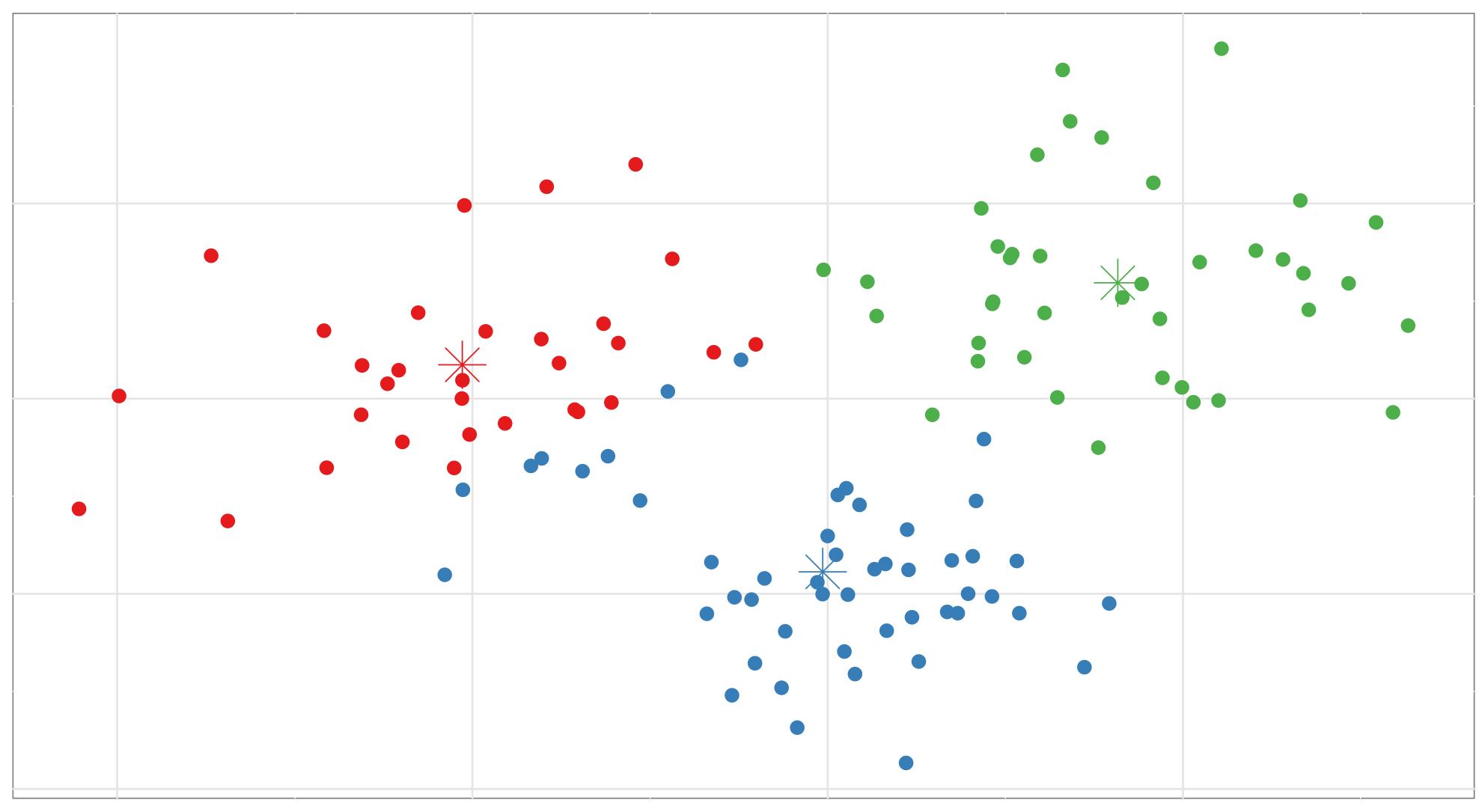
Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (1)



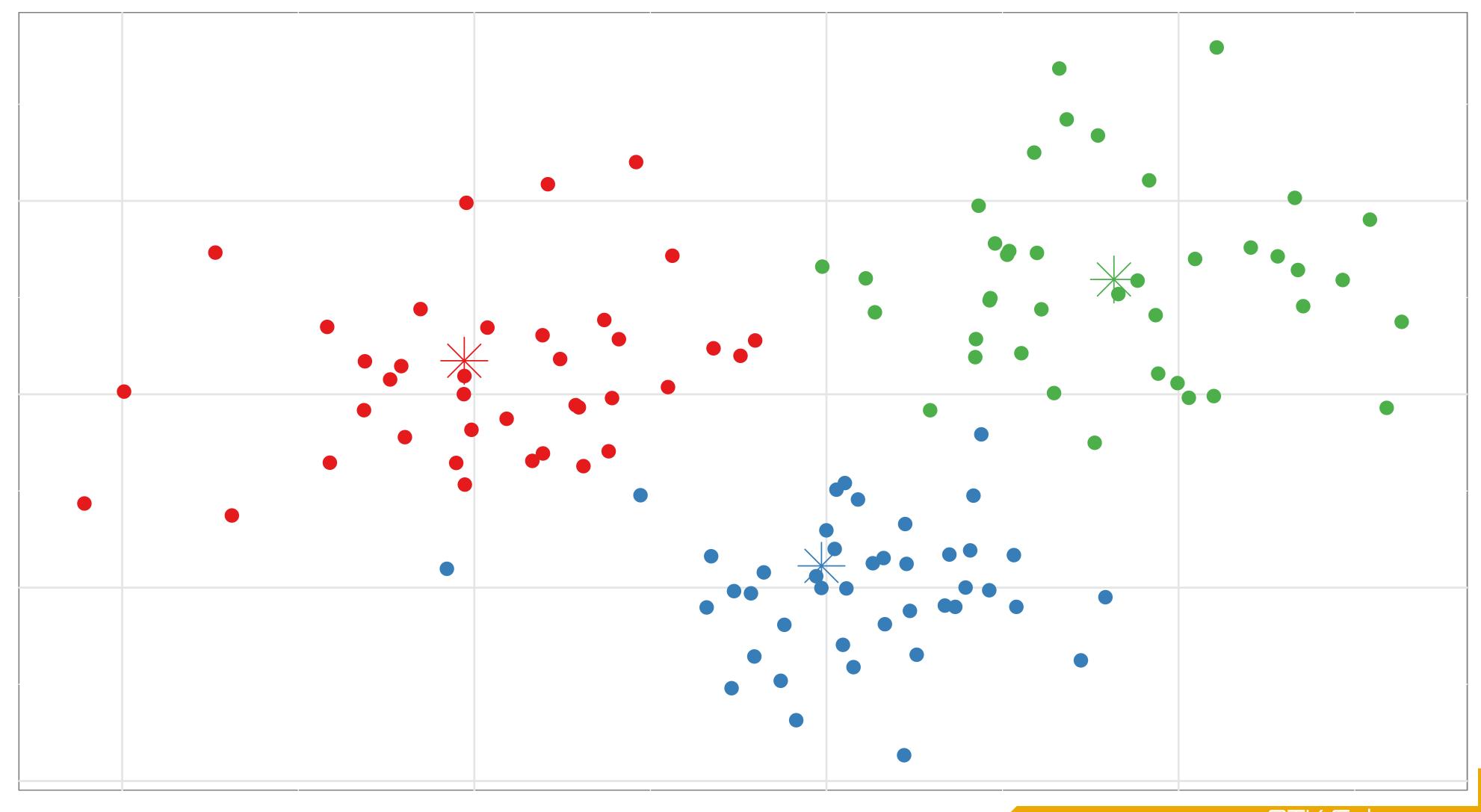
Step 2: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid (2)



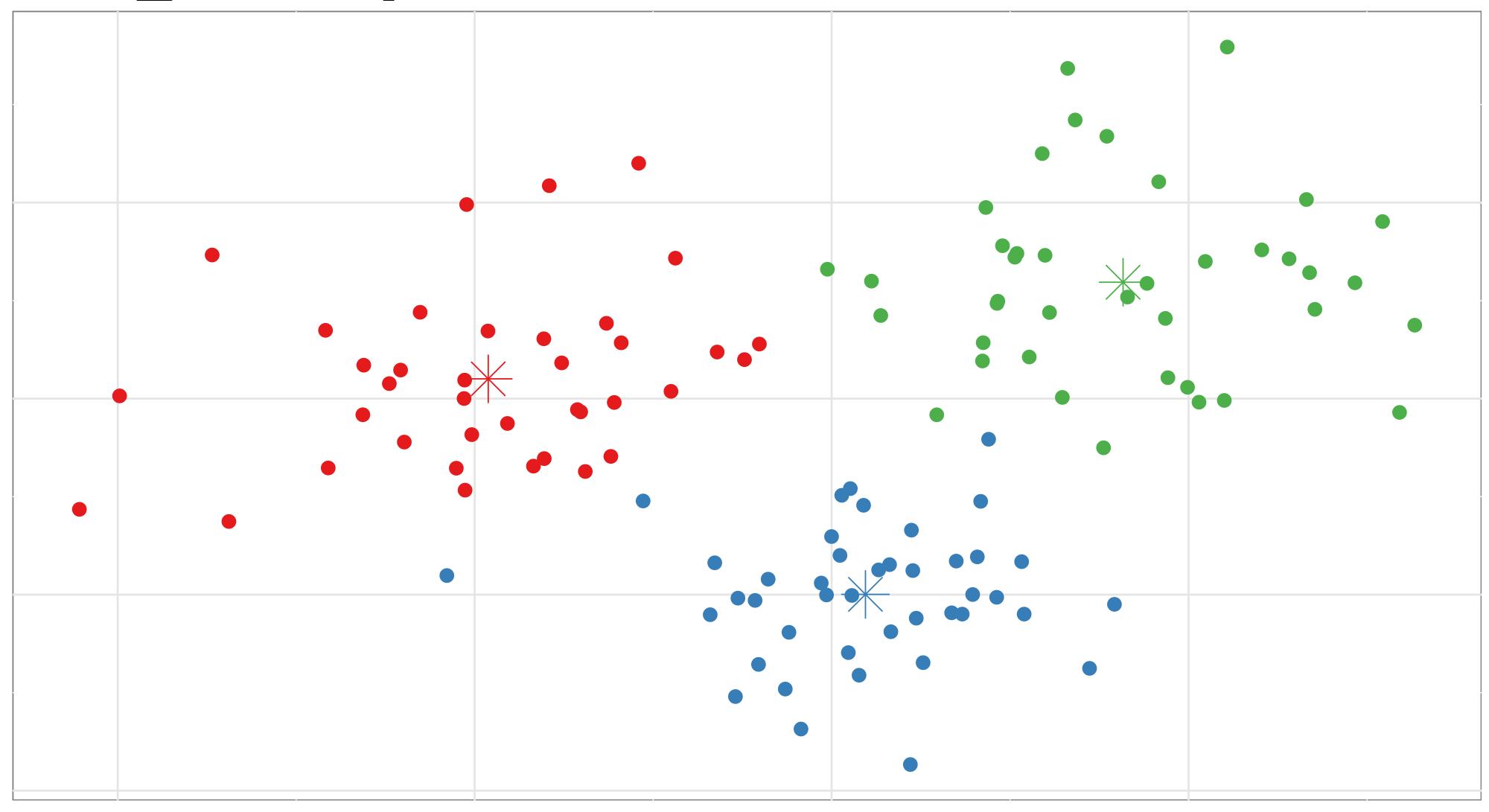
Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (2)



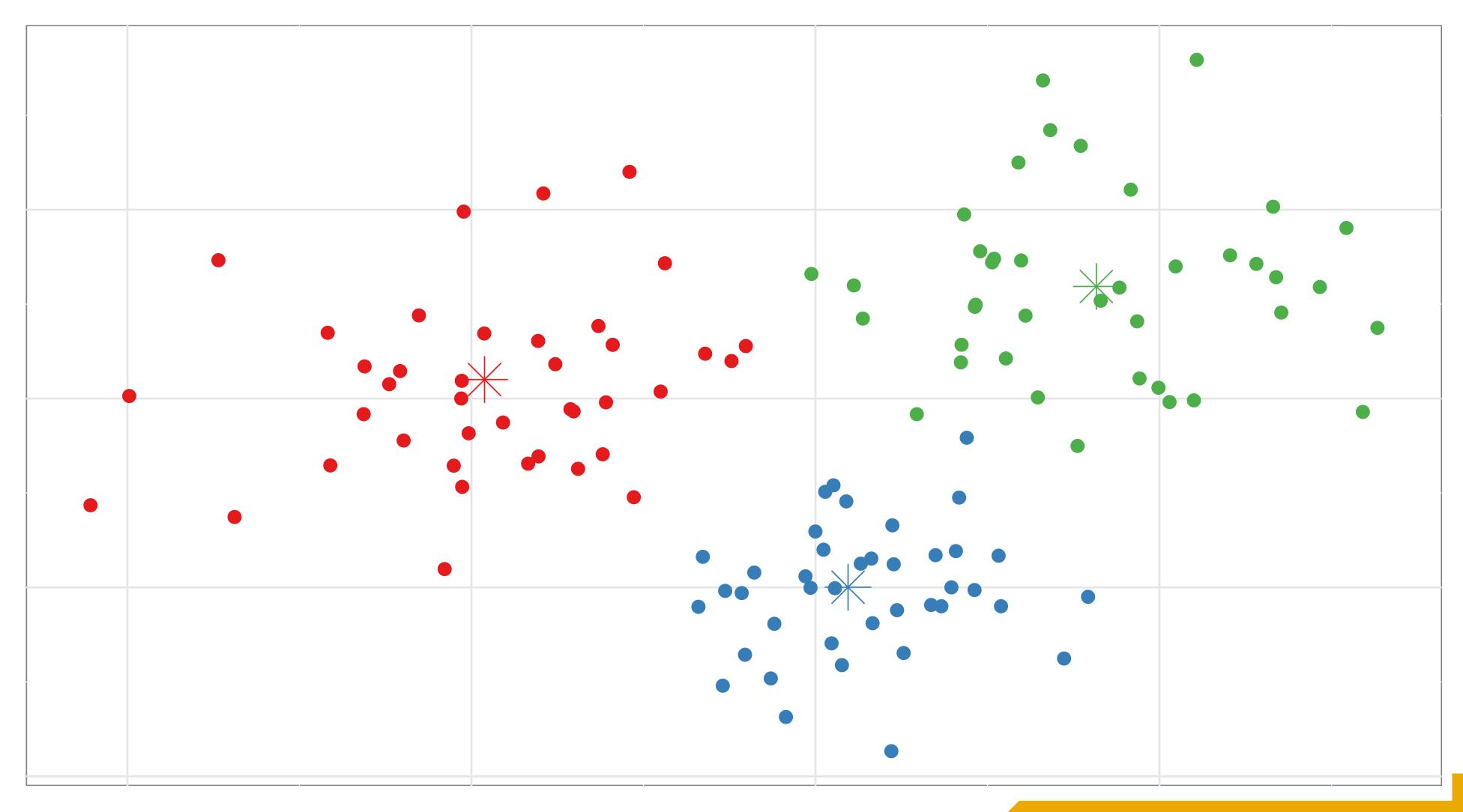
Step 2: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid (3)



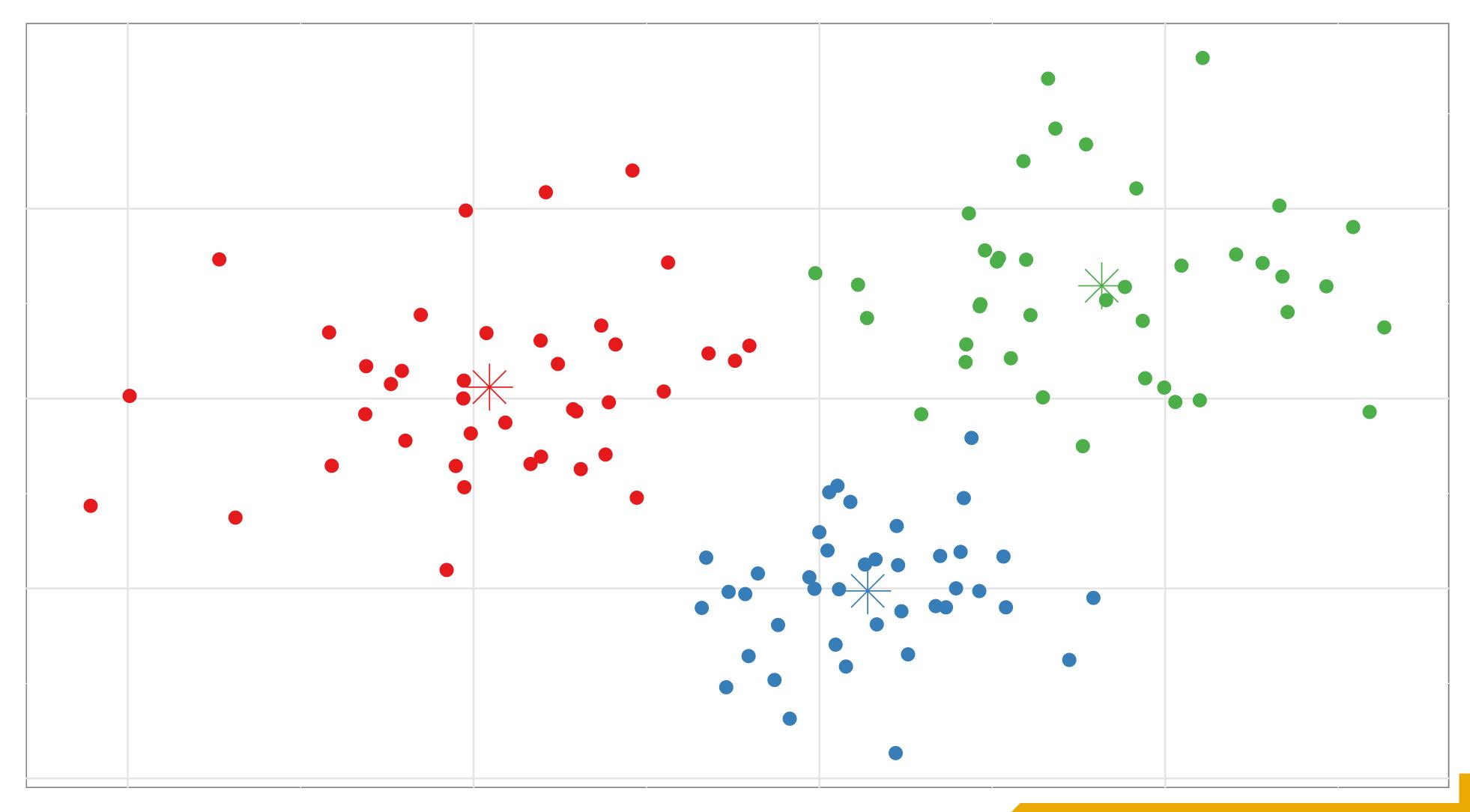
Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (3)



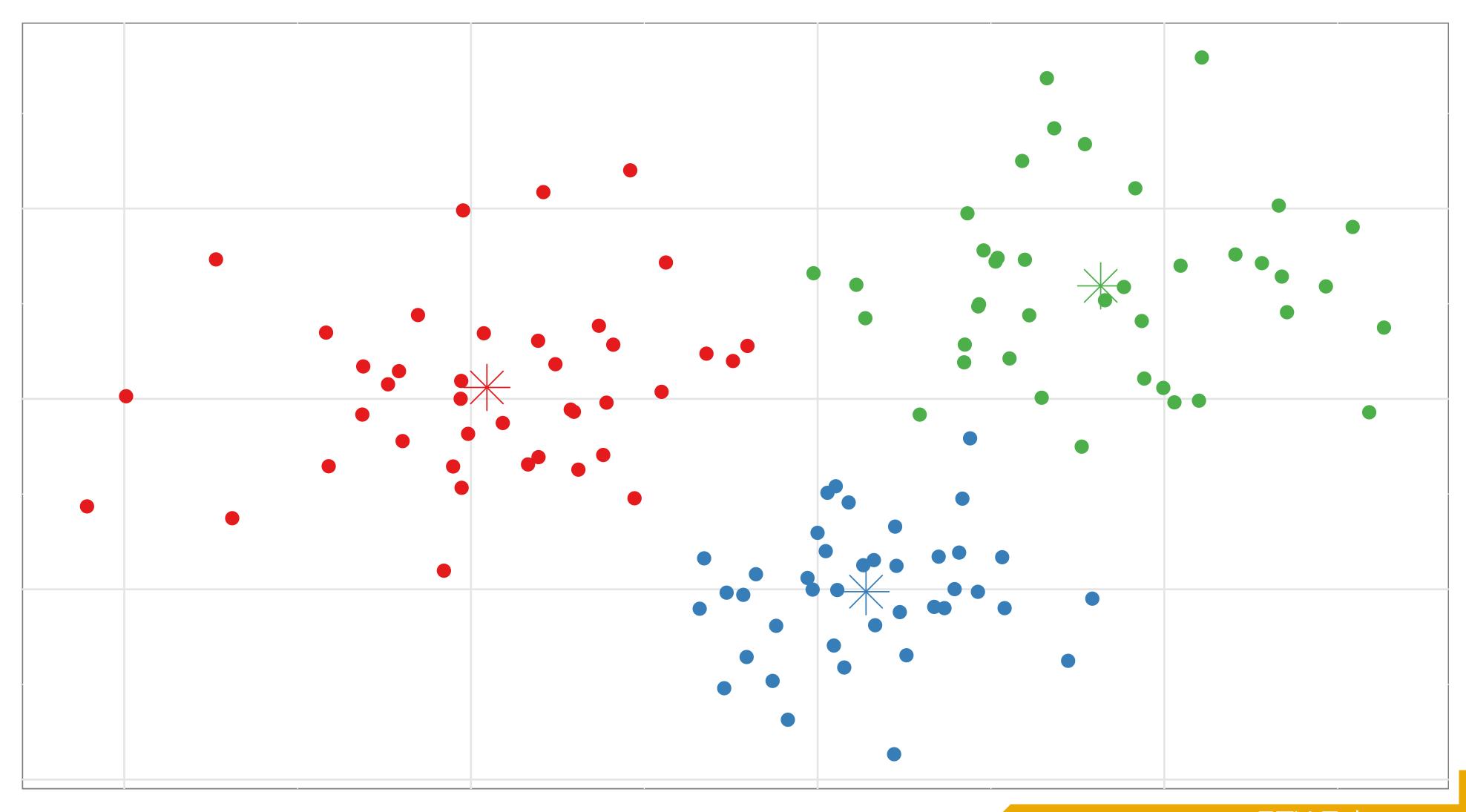
Step 2: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid (4)



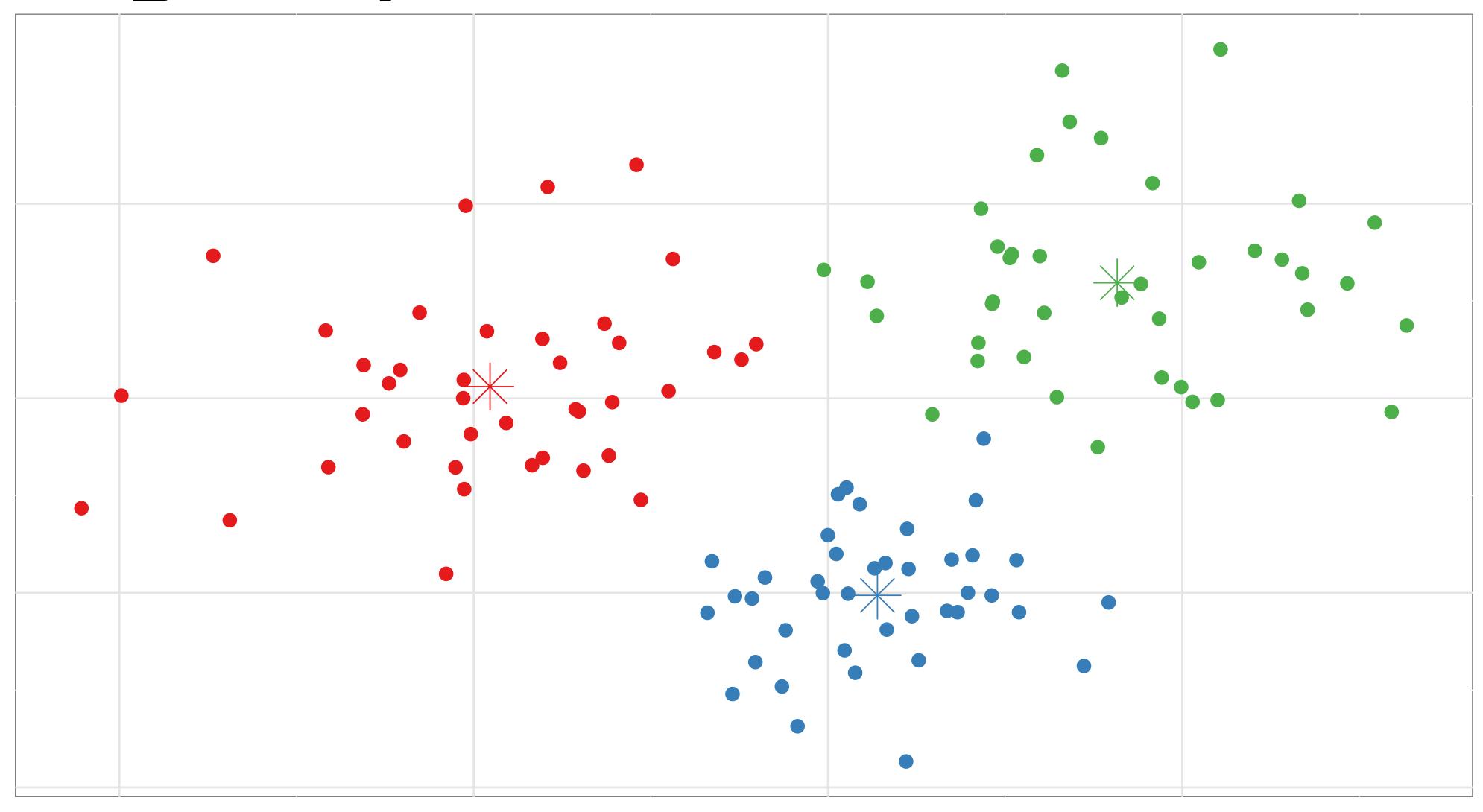
Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (4)



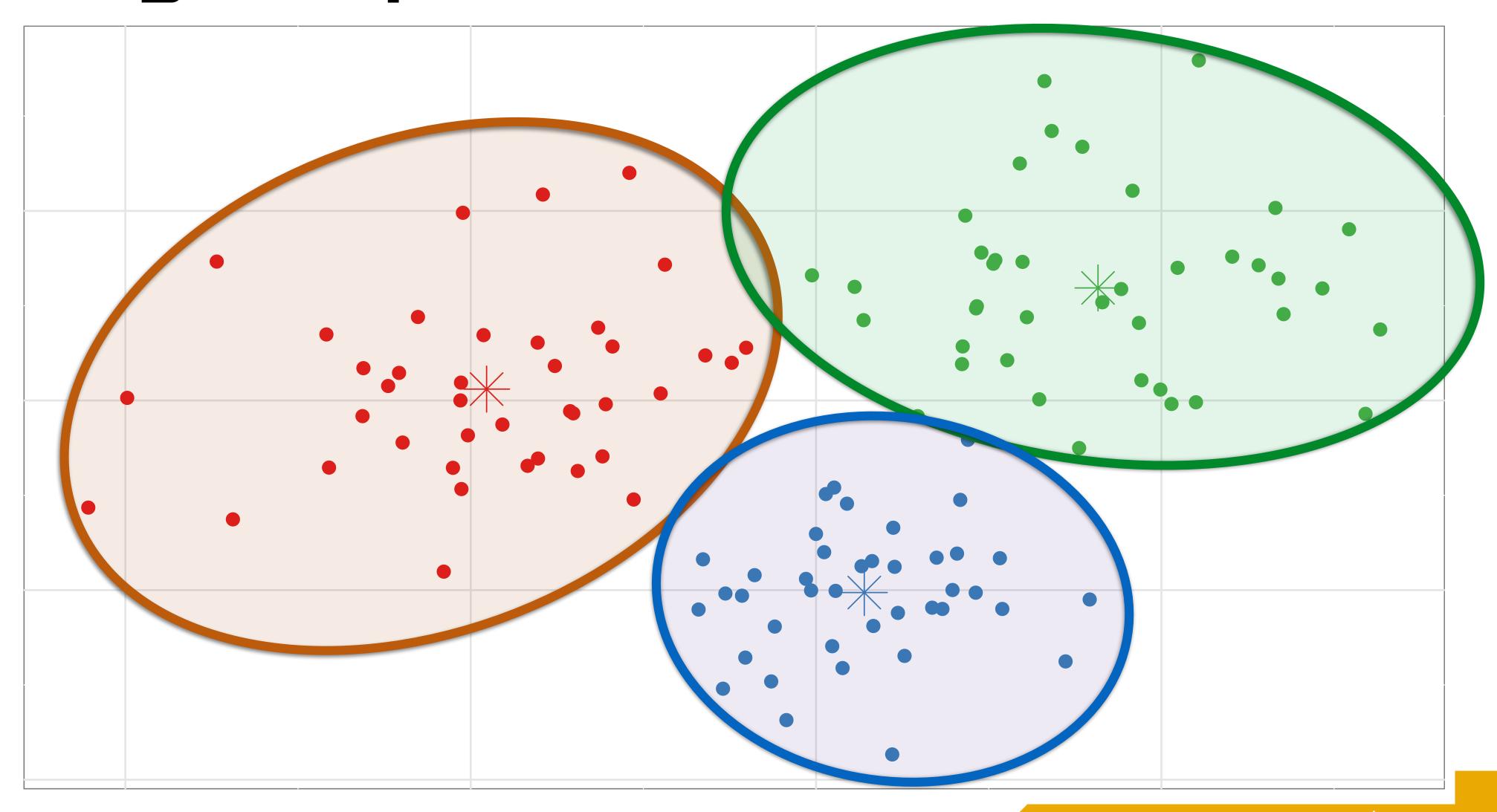
Step 2: Assign each data point to the nearest centroid (5)



Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (5)



Step 3: Move centroid to center of assigned points (5)



Stop

K-Means: Got a problem with it?

Before starting, pick the number of clusters, K

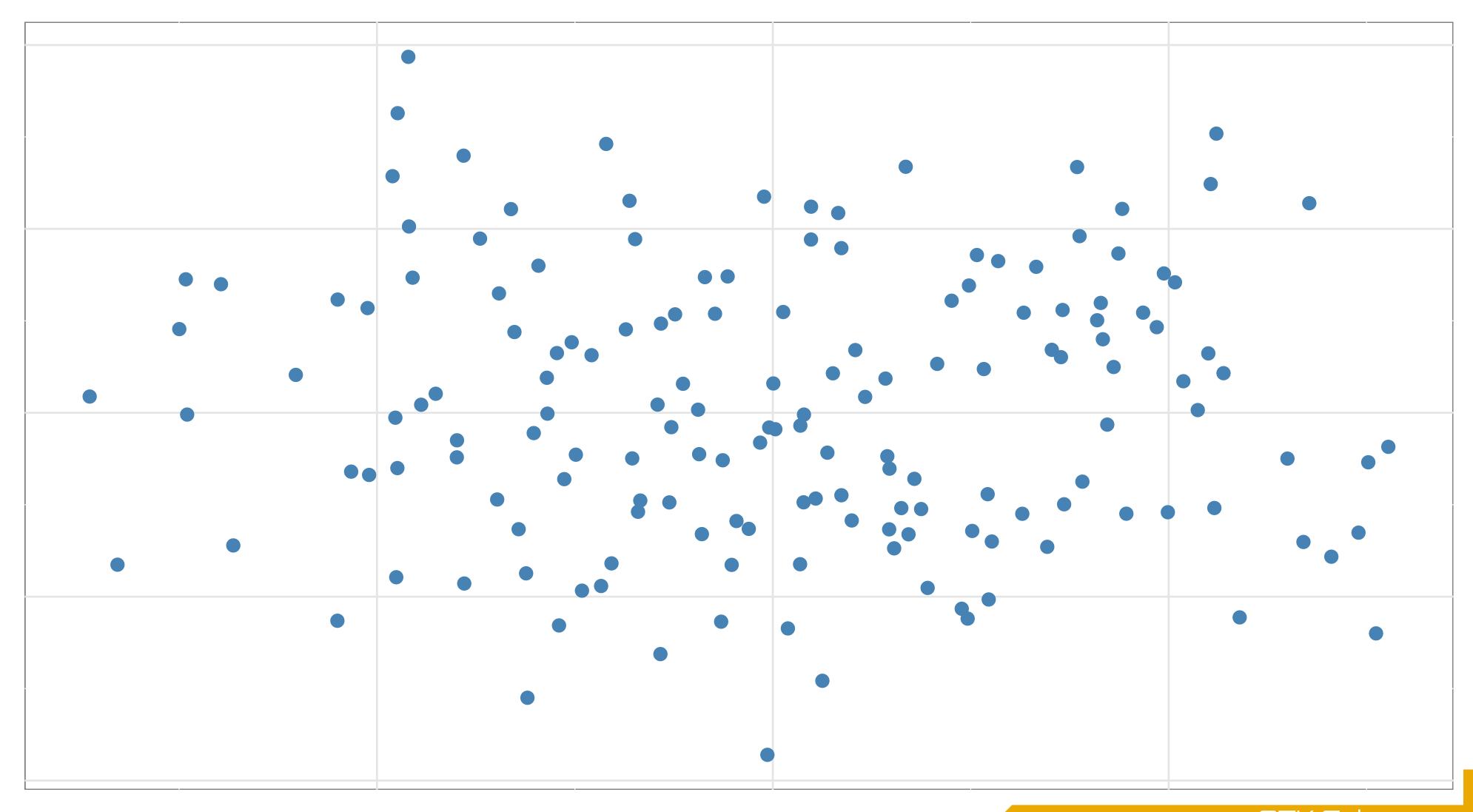
- 1. Pick K random centroids within data range
- 2. Assign each data point to the nearest centroid
- 3. Move centroid to center of assigned points
- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until centroid stops shifting

K-Means: Got a problem with it?

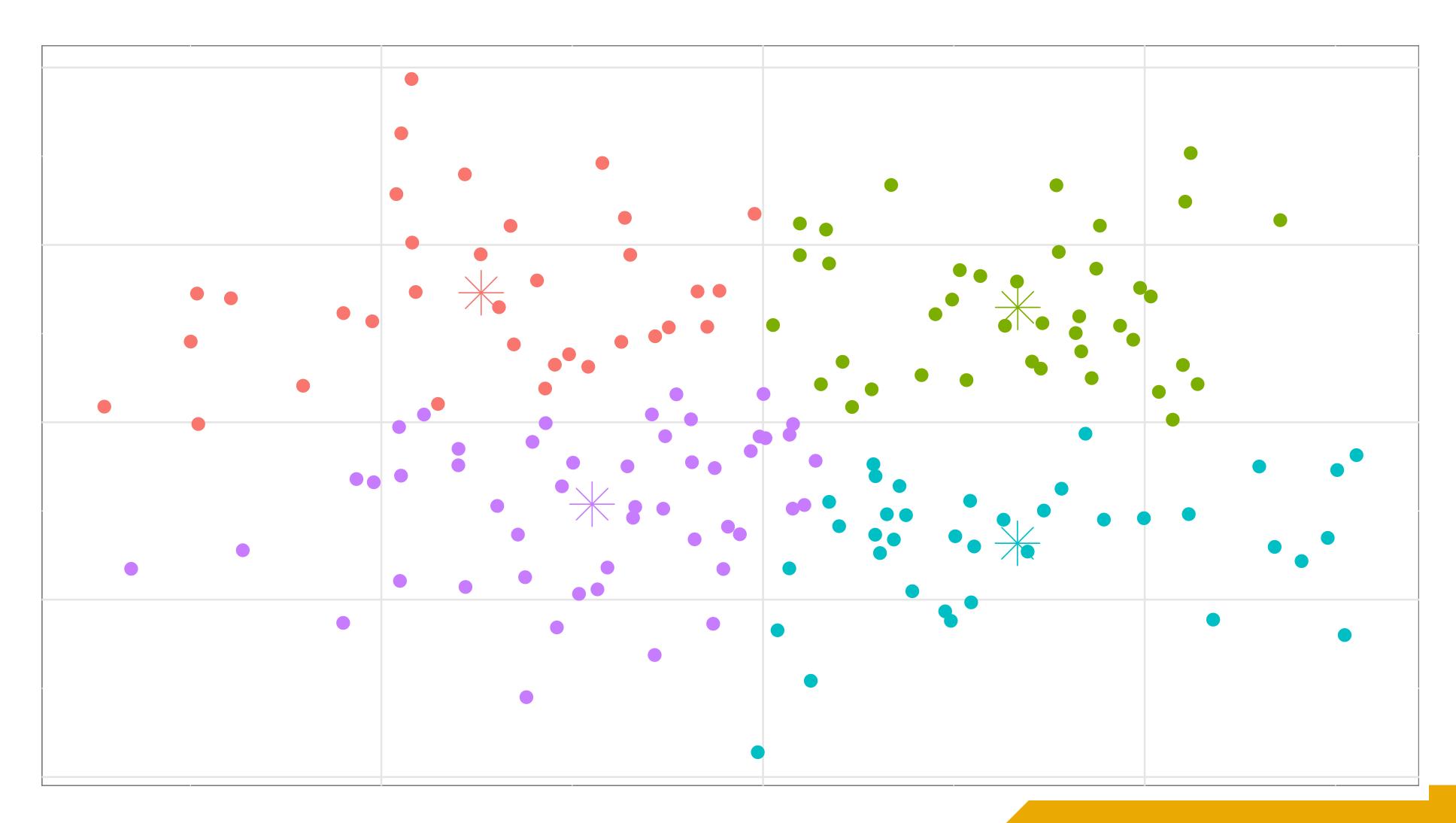
Before starting, pick the number of clusters, K subjective

- 1. Pick K random centroids within data range Not Repeatable
- 2. Assign each data point to the nearest centroid sensitive to scale
- 3. Move centroid to center of assigned points
- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until centroid stops shifting

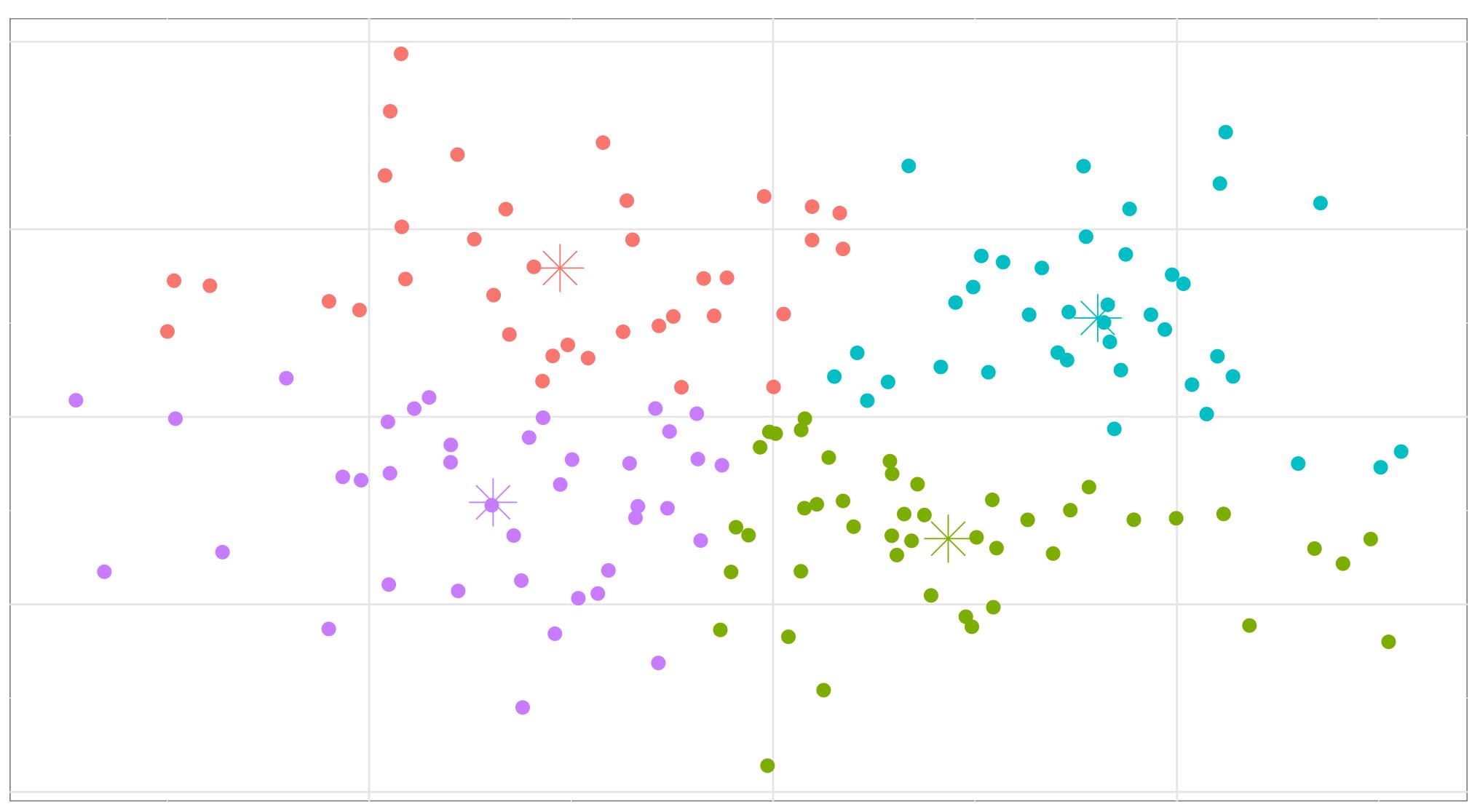
How many clusters?



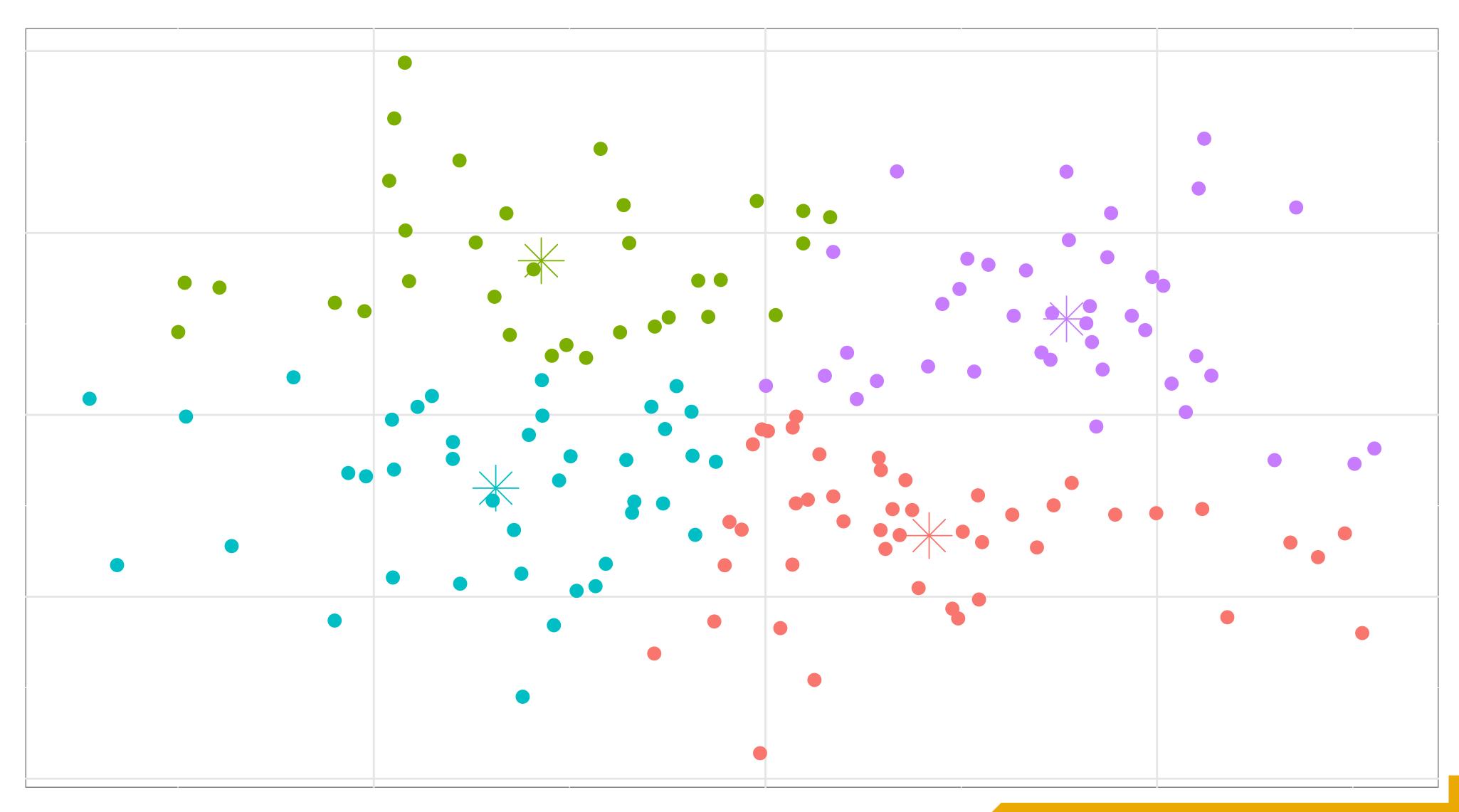
Random Start...

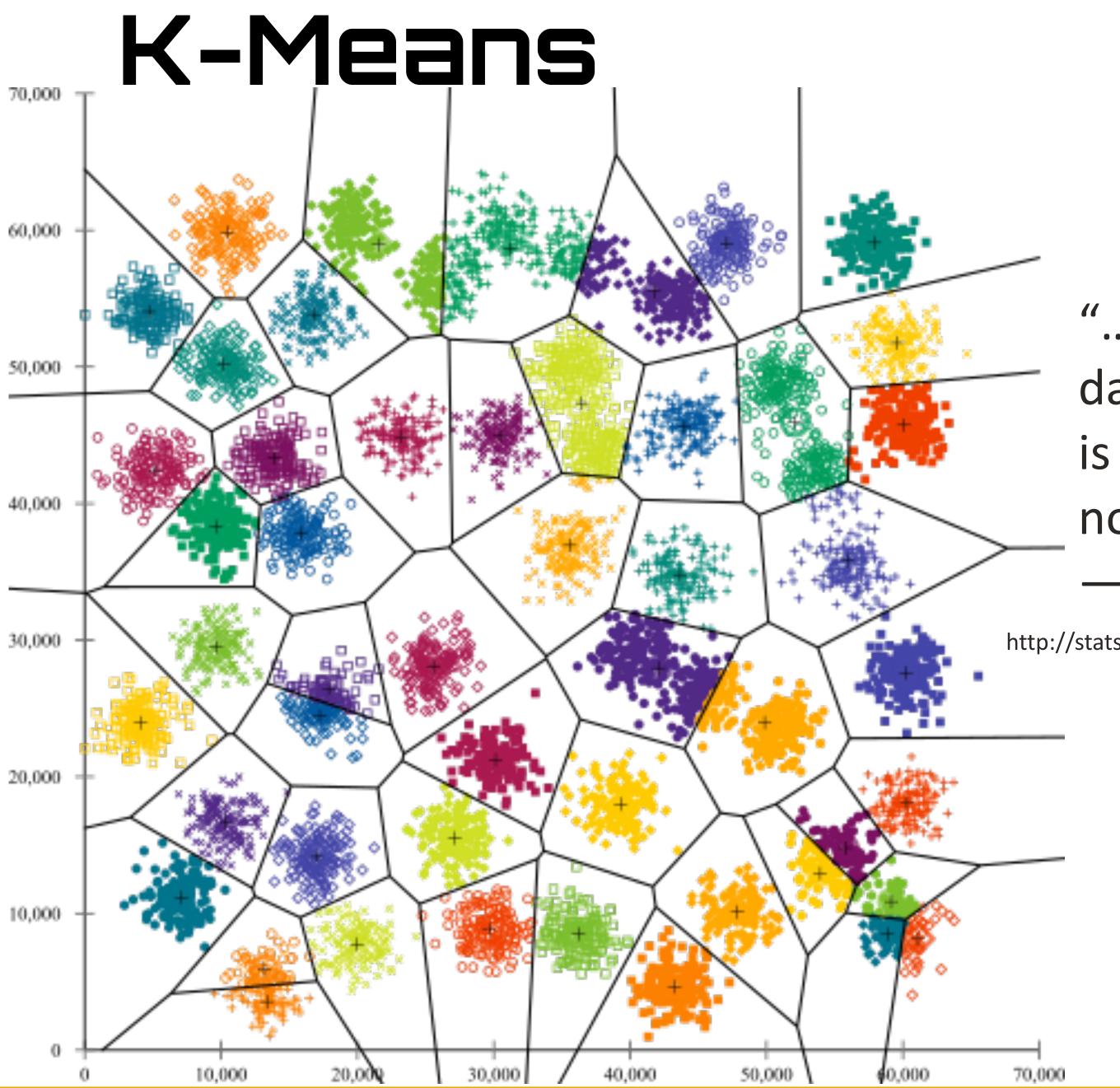


Random Start...



Random Start...



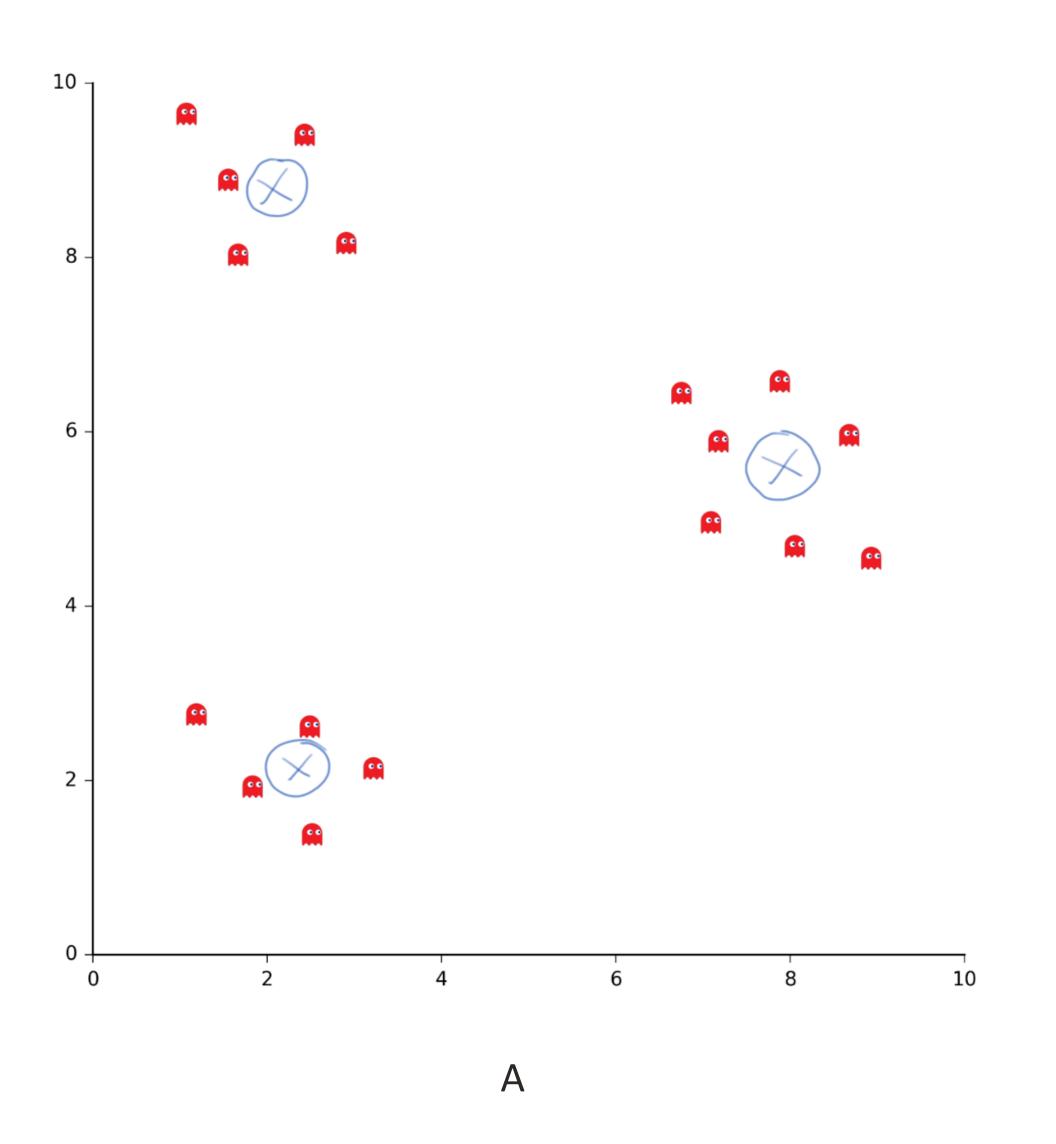


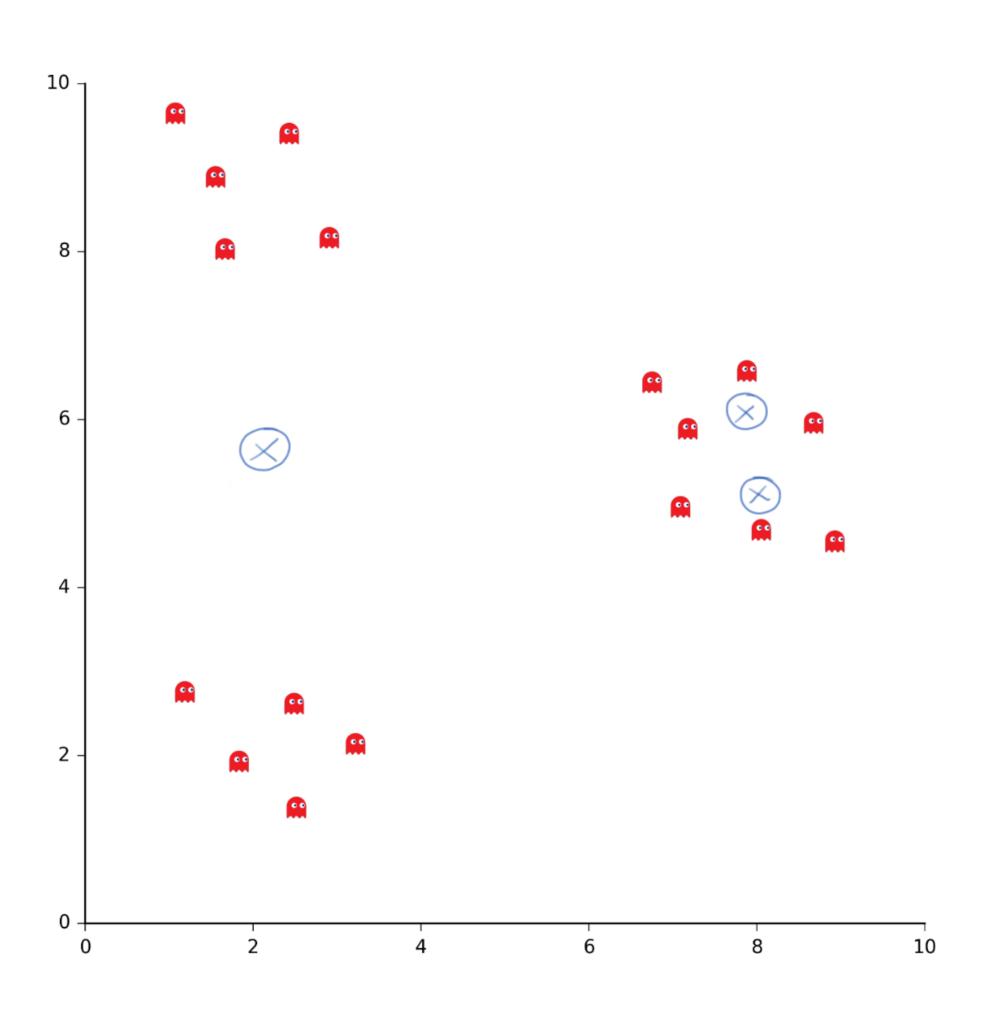
"...it's too easy to throw k-means on your data, and nevertheless get a result out (that is pretty much random, but you won't notice)."

— Anony-Mousse

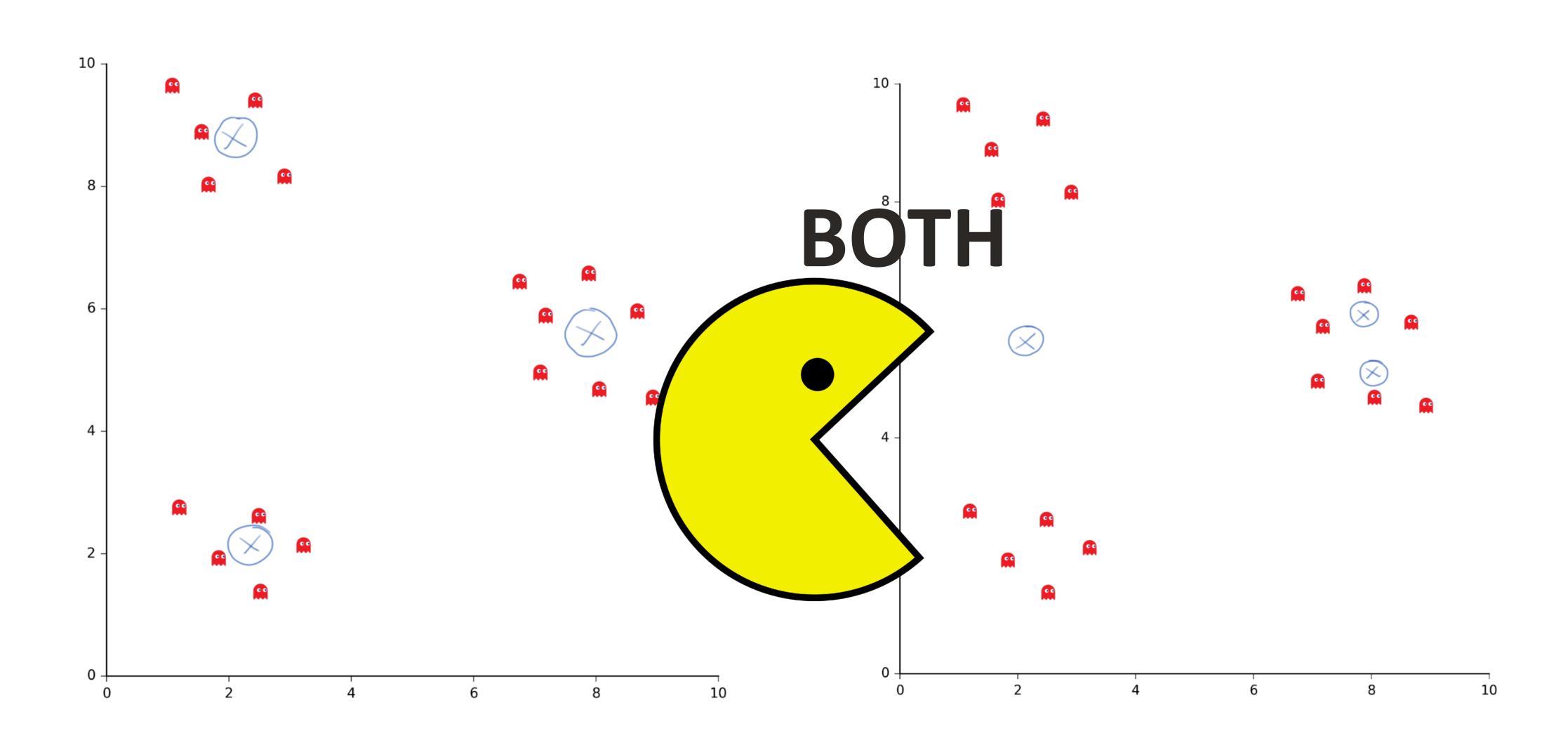
http://stats.stackexchange.com/questions/133656/how-to-understand-the-drawbacks-of-k-means

Which one is correct?

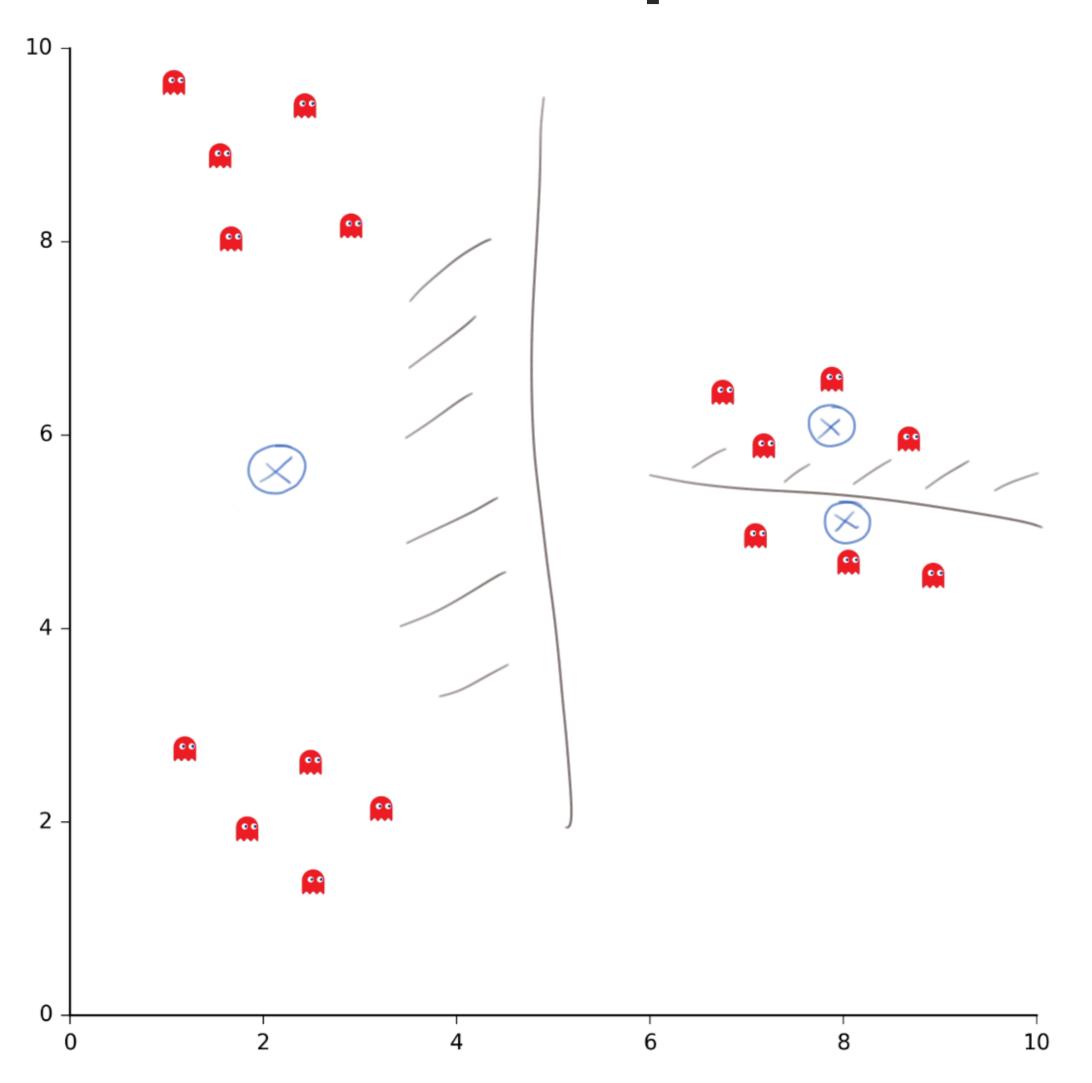




Which one is correct?



Pain of optimization...Being stuck at sub-optimal local minimum...



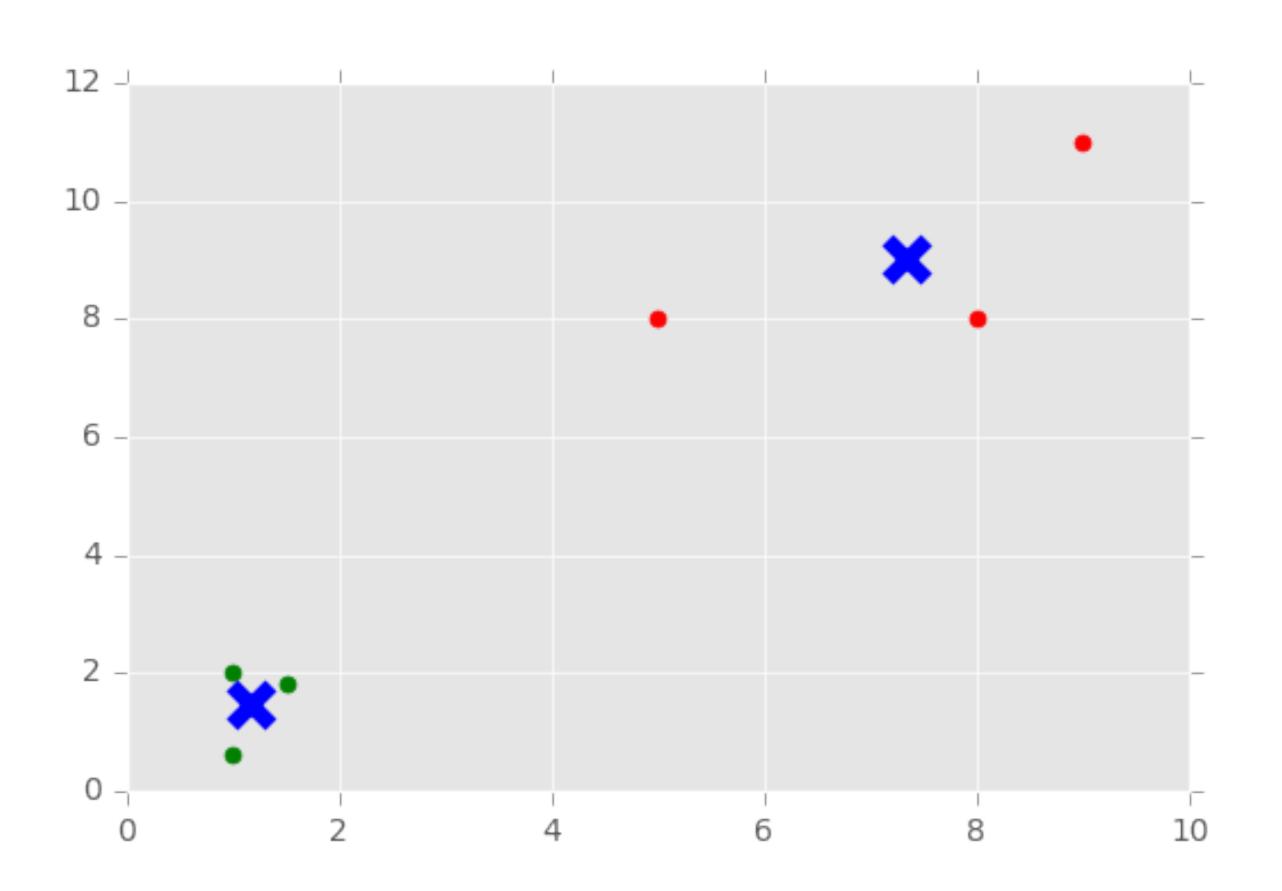
Initial guess matters!
Same outcome cannot be guaranteed

Stop

K-Means in practice (Python version)

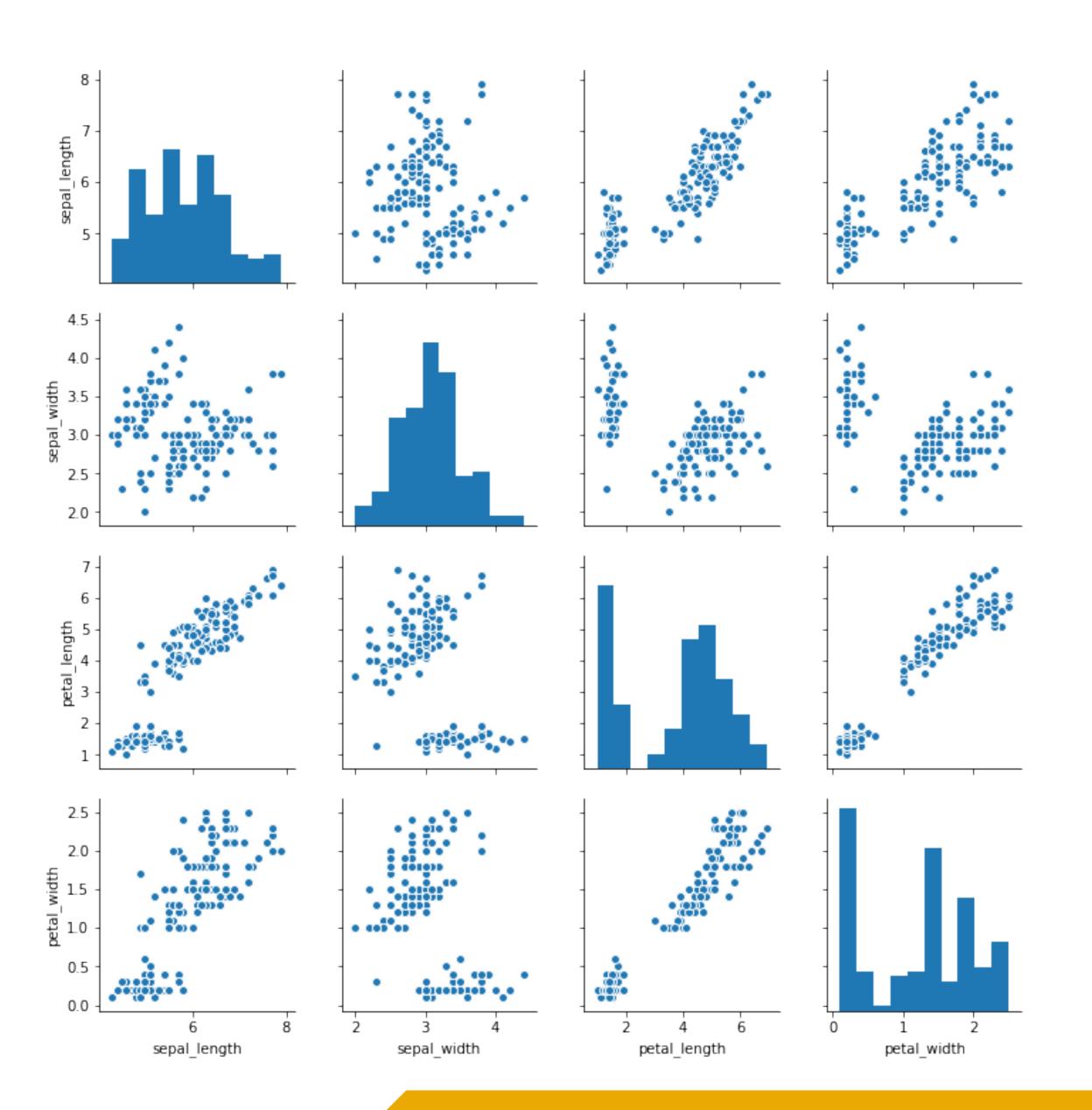
```
#Import from Scikit-learn
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=2)
kmeans.fit(data)

centroids = kmeans.cluster_centers_
labels = kmeans.labels_f
```



The Dataset

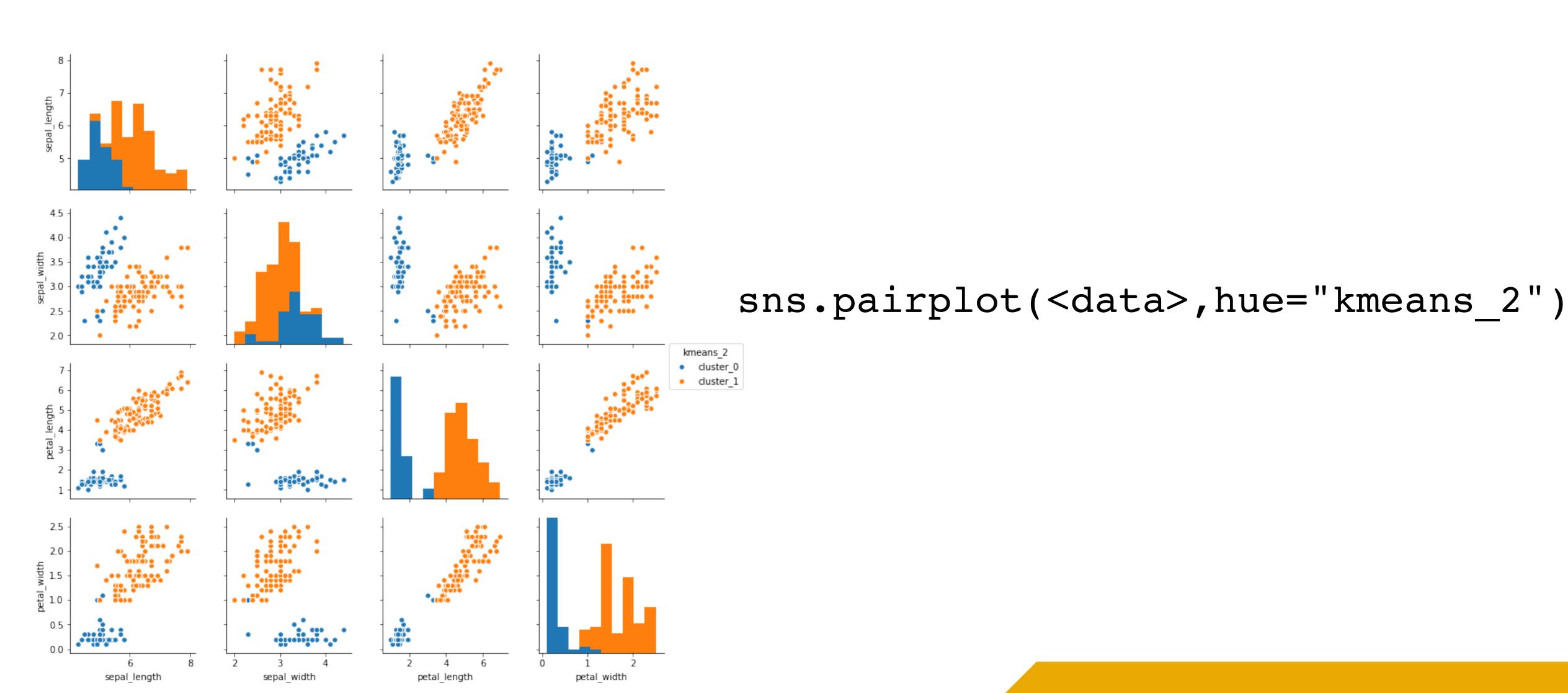
sns.pairplot(<data>)



K-Means Clustering

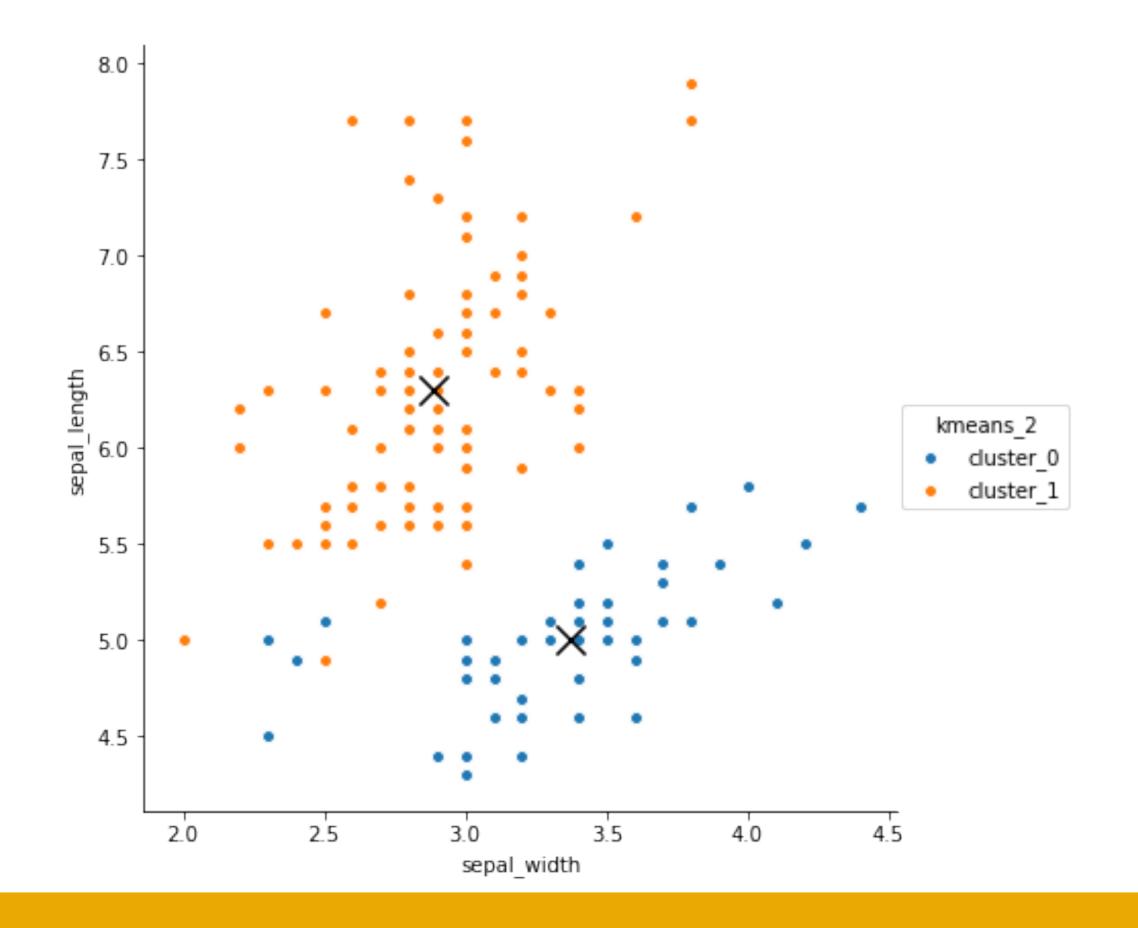
```
kmeans = KMeans( n_clusters=2 )
kmeans.fit( <data> )
```

K-Means Clustering



K-Means Clustering

```
sns.pairplot(<data>,x_vars="col_1",y_vars="col_2",hue="kmeans_2",size=6)
plt.scatter(<cluster_centers>,<col_2>, linewidths=3, marker='x', s=200,
c='black')
```



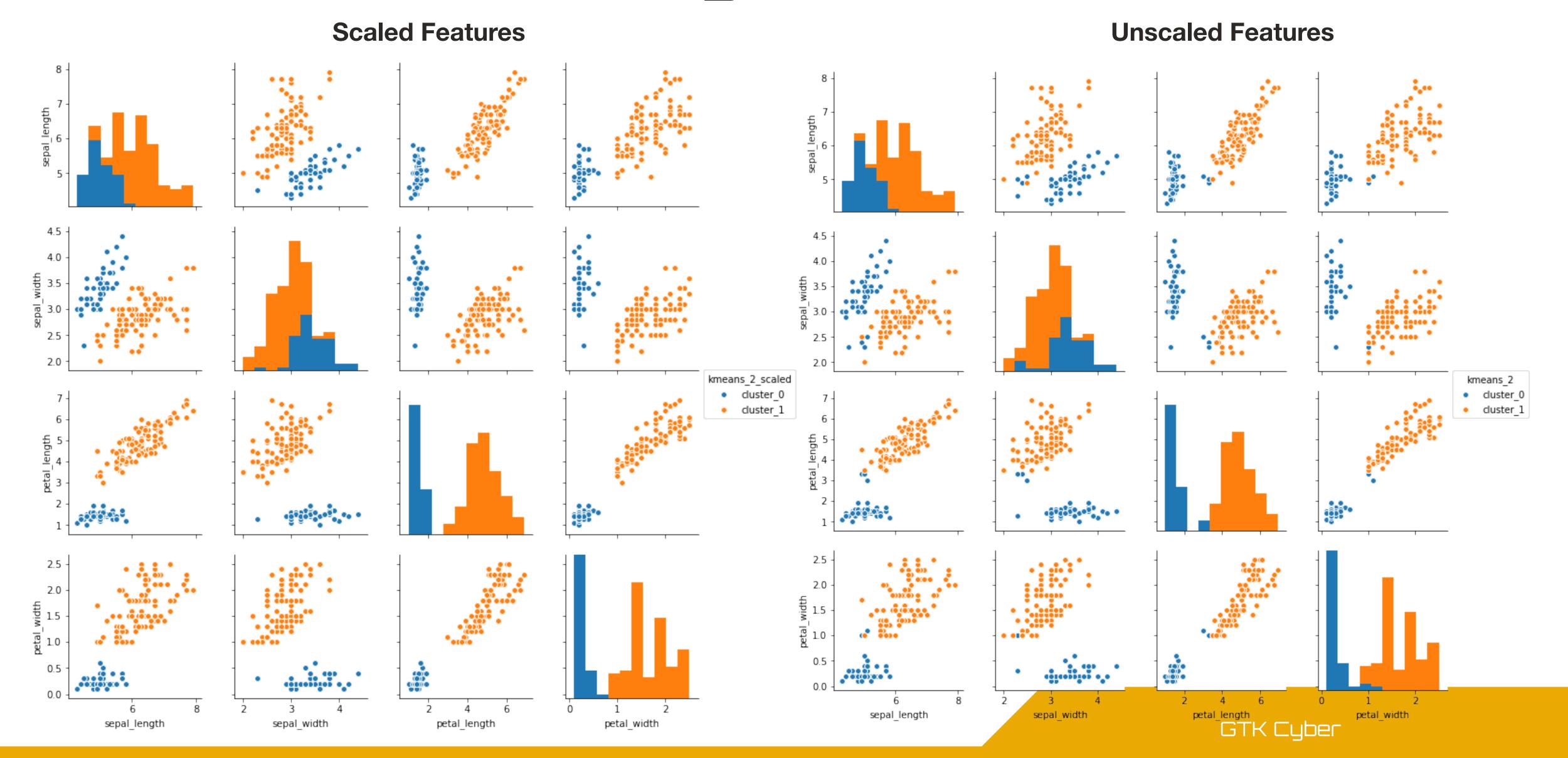
K-Means is affected by the scale of every feature.

For k-means clustering, features must be scaled to the same ranges of values to contribute "equally" to the euclidean distance calculation.

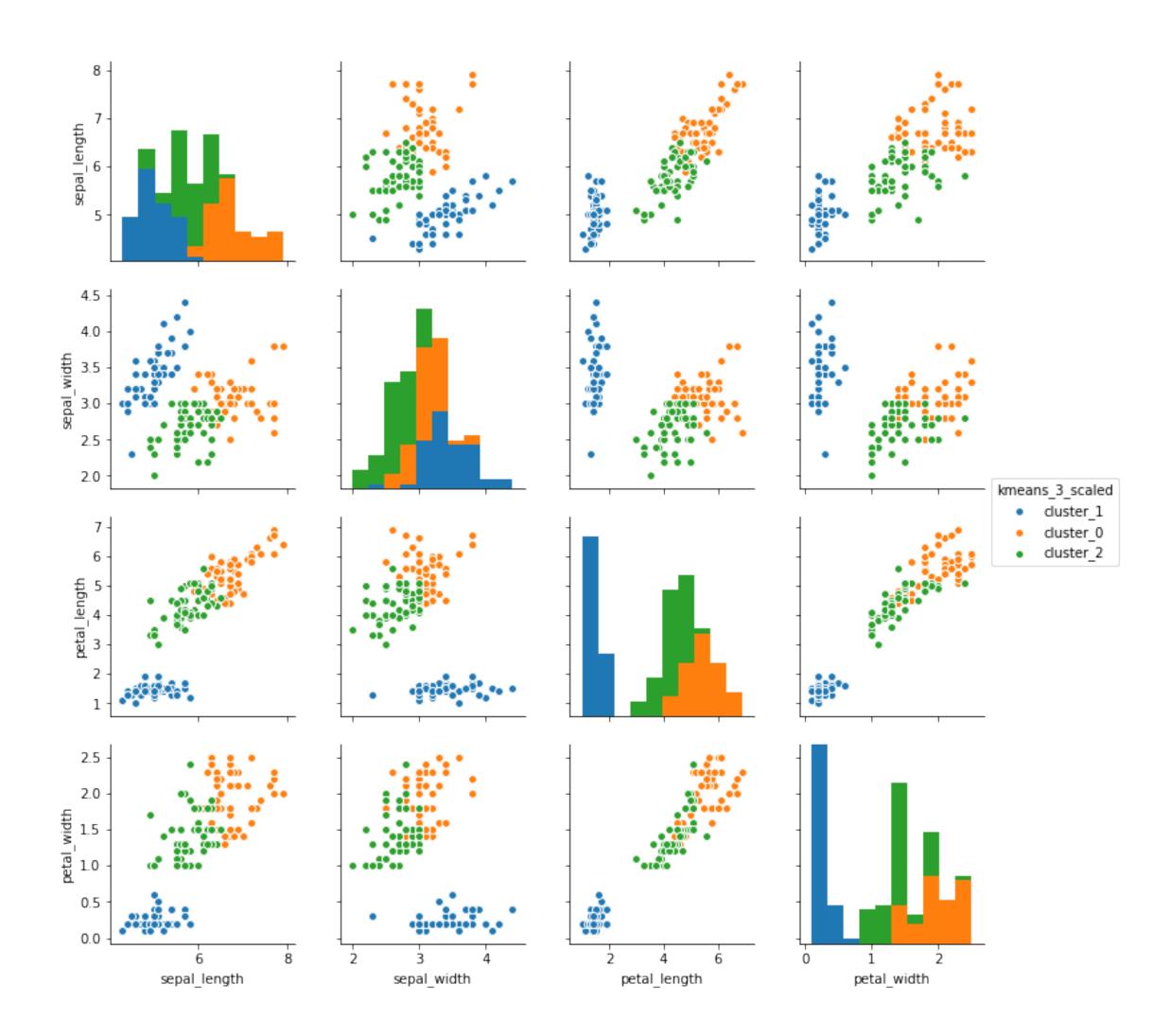
Each row is transformed per-column by:

- Subtracting from the element in each row the mean for each feature (column) and then taking this value and
- Dividing by that feature's (column's) standard deviation.

```
# K-means on scaled data
km = KMeans(n_clusters=2)
km.fit(<scaled_data>)
```



More Clusters

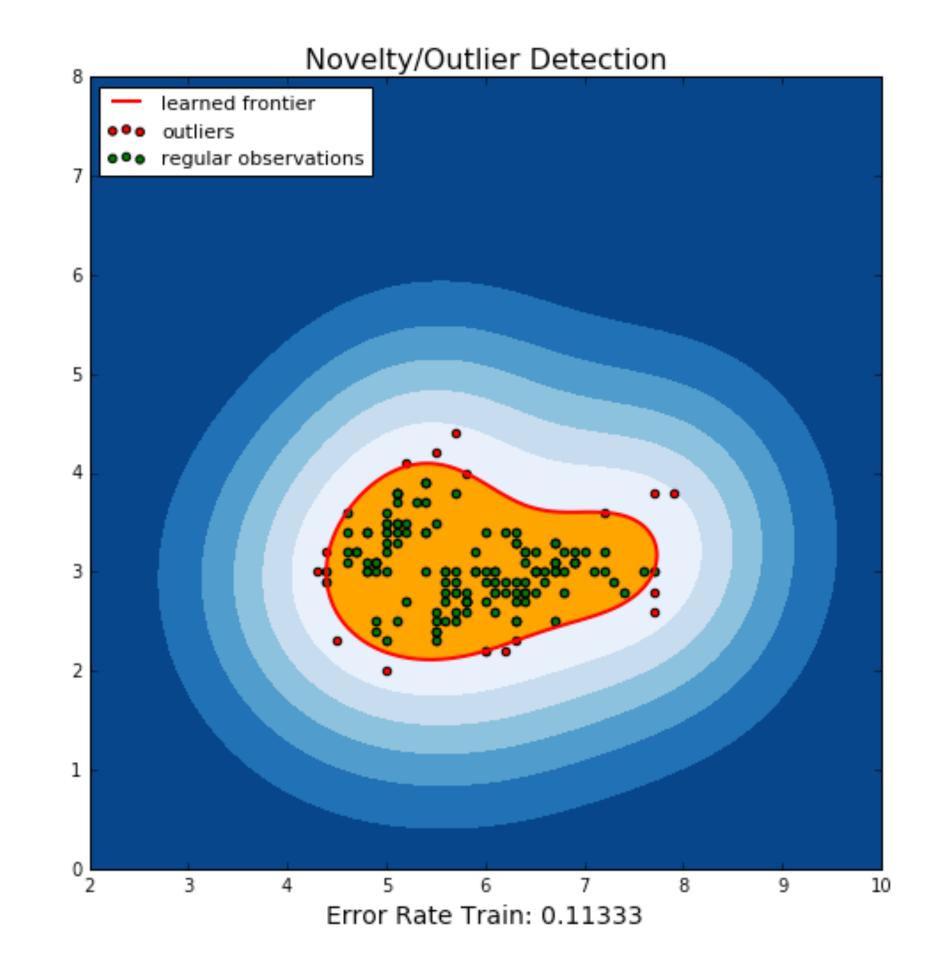


```
km3 = KMeans(n_clusters=3)
km3.fit(scaled data)
```

Outlier Detection

```
clf = svm.OneClassSVM( tol=0.001, nu=0.1)
clf.fit(X)
target_pred_outliers=clf.predict(X)
```

Delete n% of "outlier data", here ~10%



The Silhouette Coefficient is a common metric for evaluating clustering "performance" in situations when the "true" cluster assignments are not known.

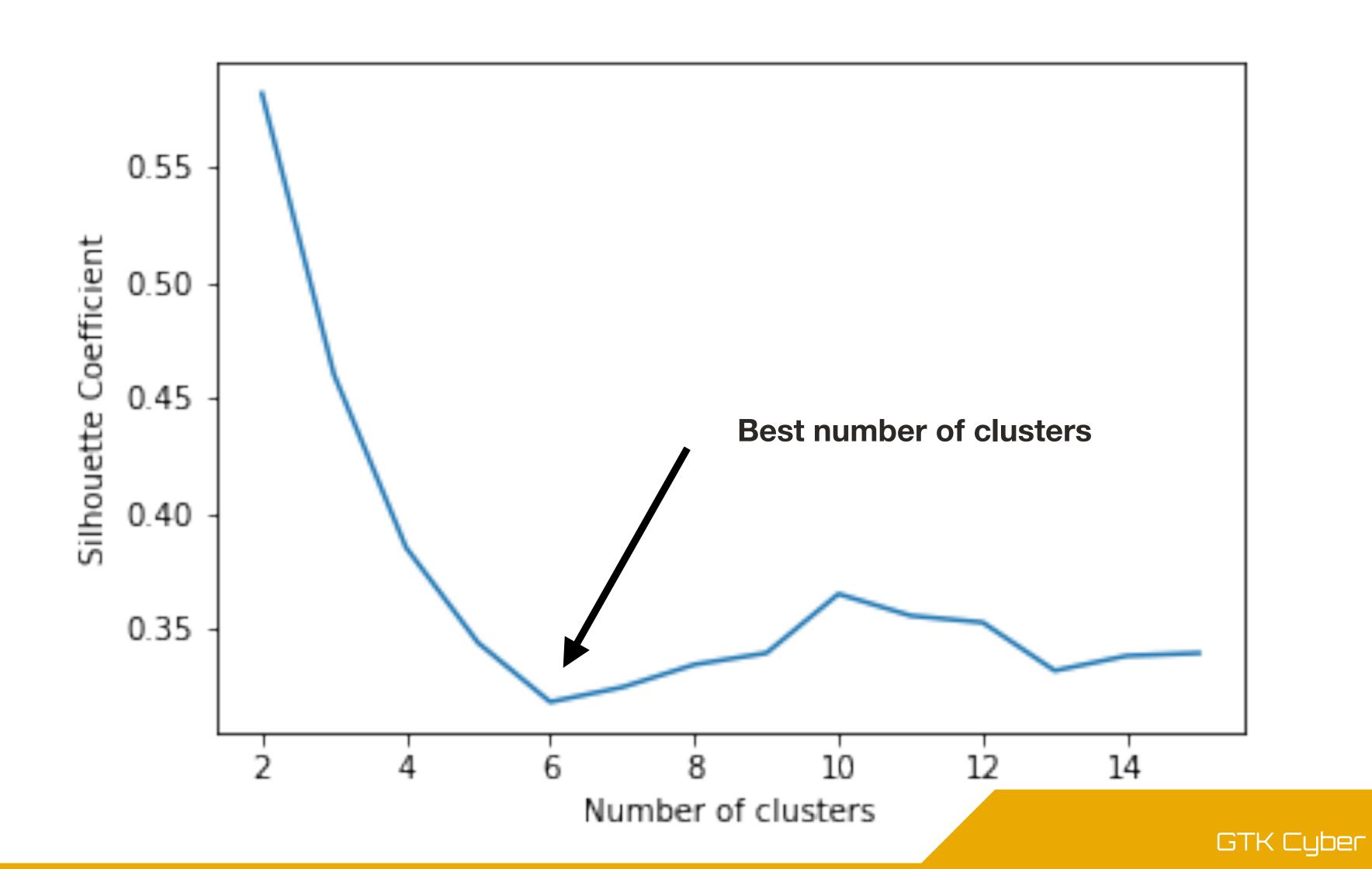
b = mean distance to next nearest cluster

a = mean distance to other points in cluster

```
silhouette coeff = (b - a) / max(a,b)
```

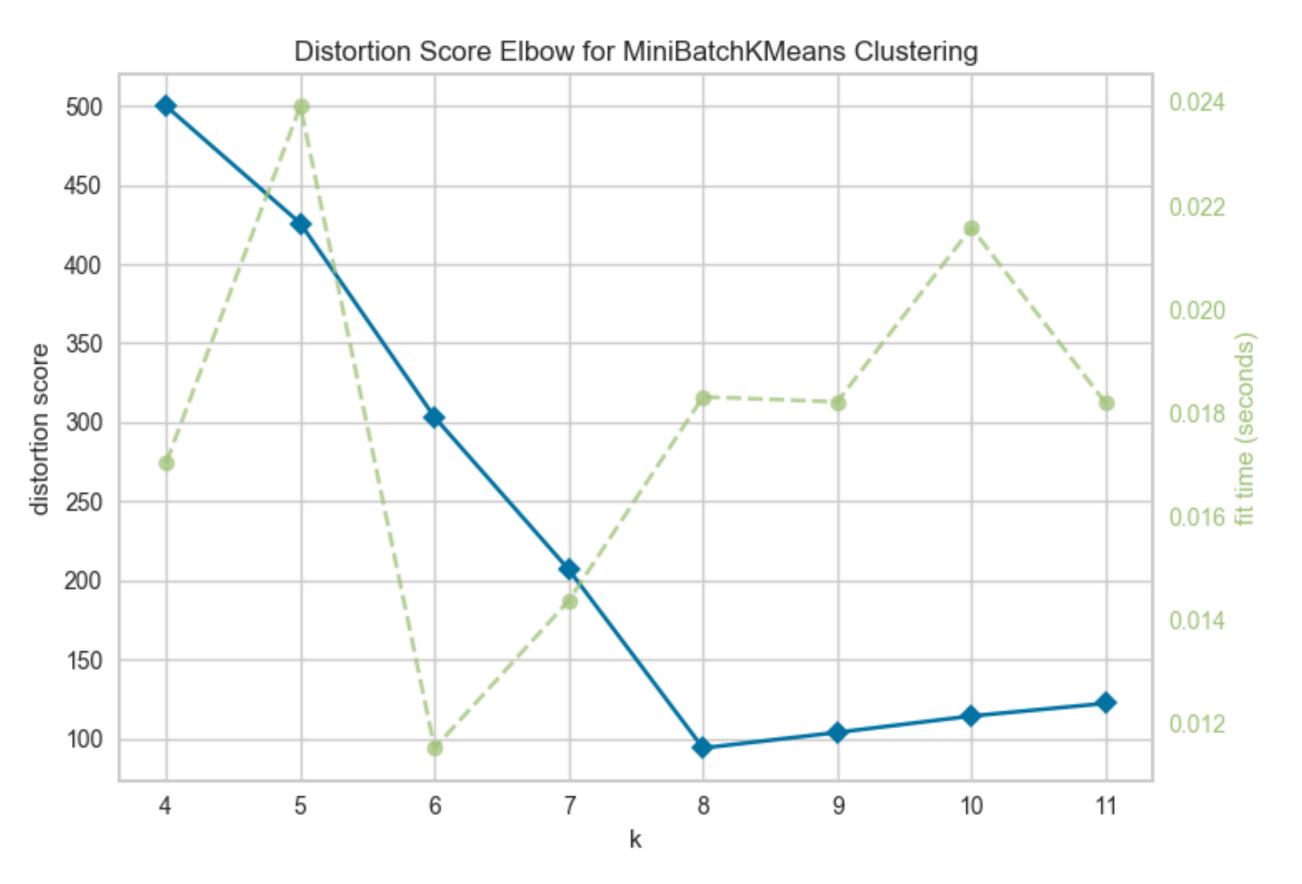
Stop

```
k_range = range(2,16)
scores = []
for k in k_range:
    km_ss = KMeans(n_clusters=k, random_state=1)
    km_ss.fit(iris_data_scaled)
    scores.append(silhouette_score(<data>, km_ss.labels_))
```



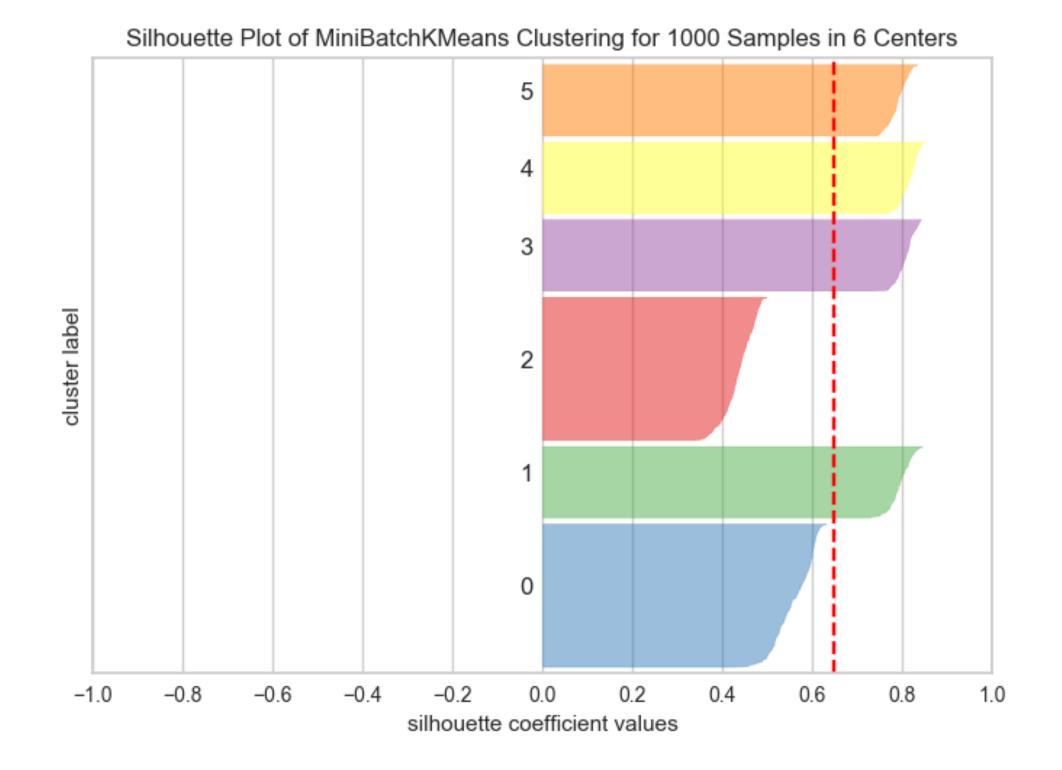
from yellowbrick.cluster import KElbowVisualizer
visualizer = KElbowVisualizer(KMeans(), k=(4,12))

visualizer.fit(X)
visualizer.poof()



from yellowbrick.cluster import SilhouetteVisualizer
model = MiniBatchKMeans(6)
visualizer = SilhouetteVisualizer(model)

visualizer.fit(X)
visualizer.poof()



Stop

Hierarchical Clustering Agglomerative Clustering

Each data point is it's own cluster, then clusters are merged together if they are 'close' to each other. (Bottom-up approach)

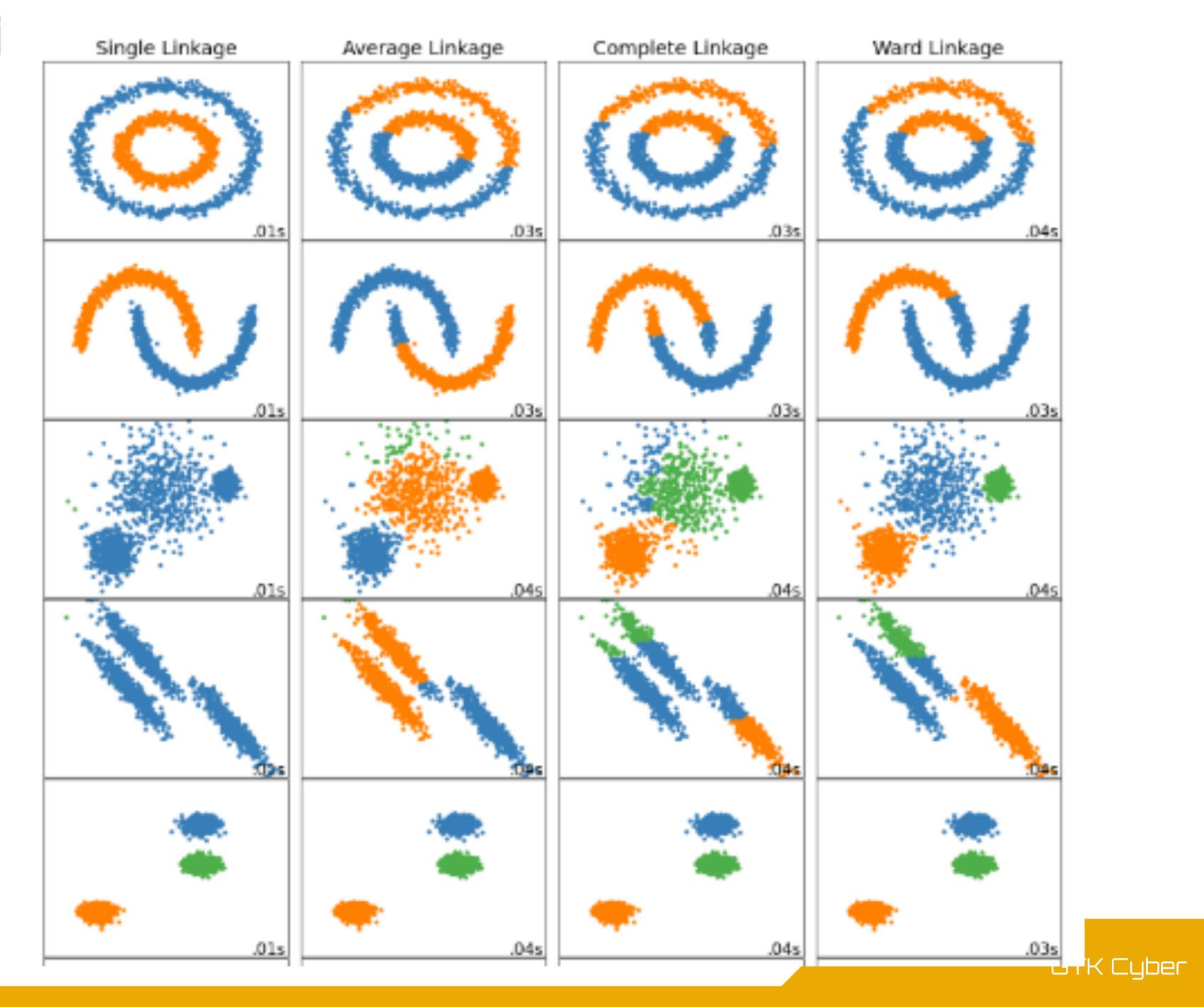
Agglomerative Clustering

Agglomerative Clustering specify parameters:

- distance_threshold: The linkage distance threshold at or above which clusters will not be merged.
- If not None, n_clusters must be None and compute_full_tree must be True.
- n_clusters: None unless distance threshold is not None
- linkage: Metric used in the strategy to merge clusters

```
["ward", "average", "single", "maximum or complete linkage"]
```

Agglomerati Ve Clustering



Agglomerative Clustering

```
from sklearn.cluster import AgglomerativeClustering
ac = AgglomerativeClustering(distance_threshold=.5)
clusters = ac.fit(data)
cluster_labels = clusters.labels_
```

Stop

DBSCAN stands for **D**ensity-**B**ased **S**patial **C**lustering of **A**pplications with **N**oise.

Whereas K-means does not care about the density of data, DBSCAN does, under the assumption that regions of high density in your data should be treated as clusters.

DBSCAN does not allow you to specify how many clusters you want. Instead, you specify 2 parameters:

- **c (epsilon)**: This is the maximum distance between two points to allow them to be neighbors
- min_samples: The number of neighbors a given point is allowed to have to be able to be part of a cluster

Any points that don't satisfy the criteria of being close enough to other points are labeled outliers and all fall into a single "cluster" (their cluster label by default is -1).

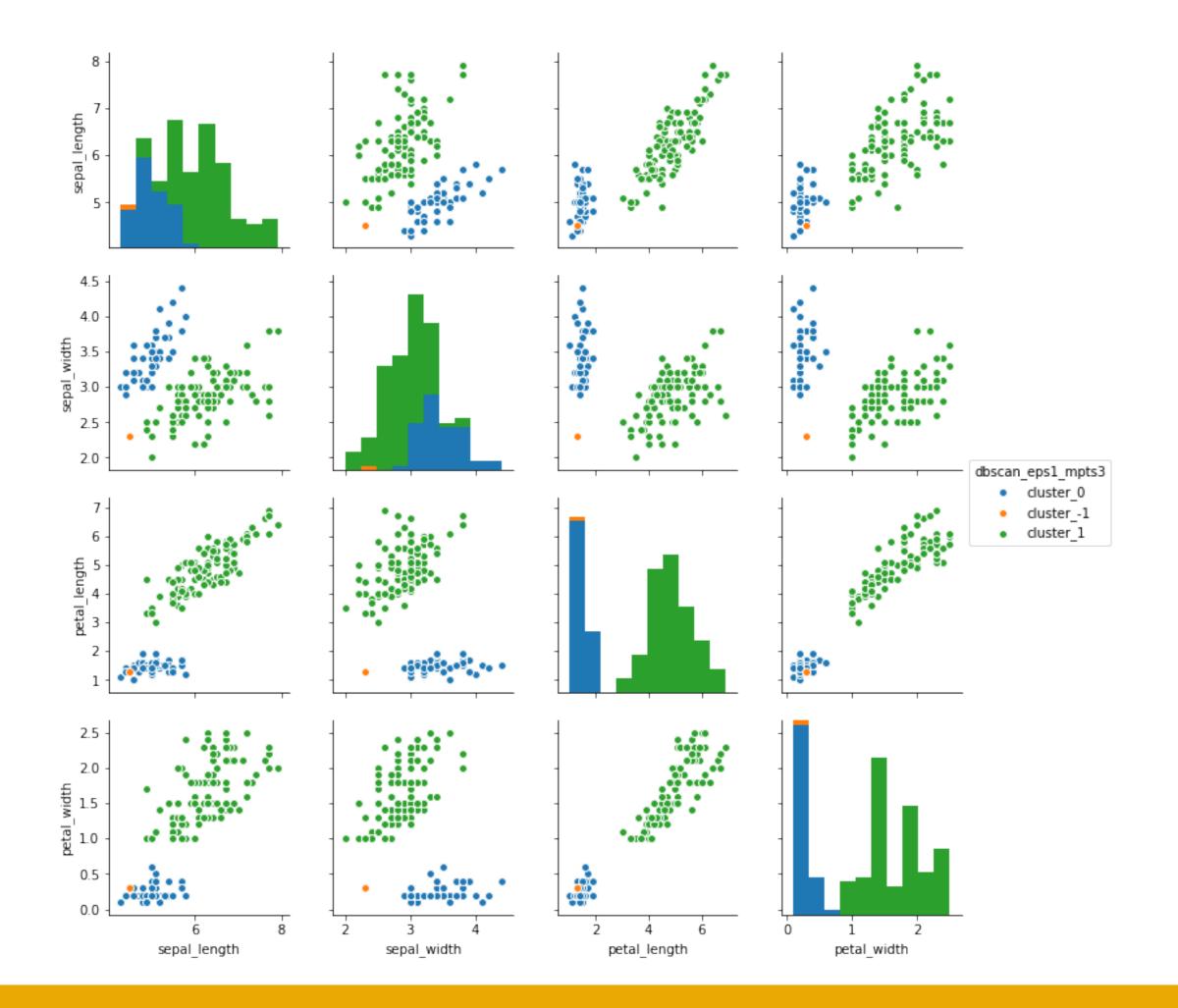
DBSCAN works as follows:

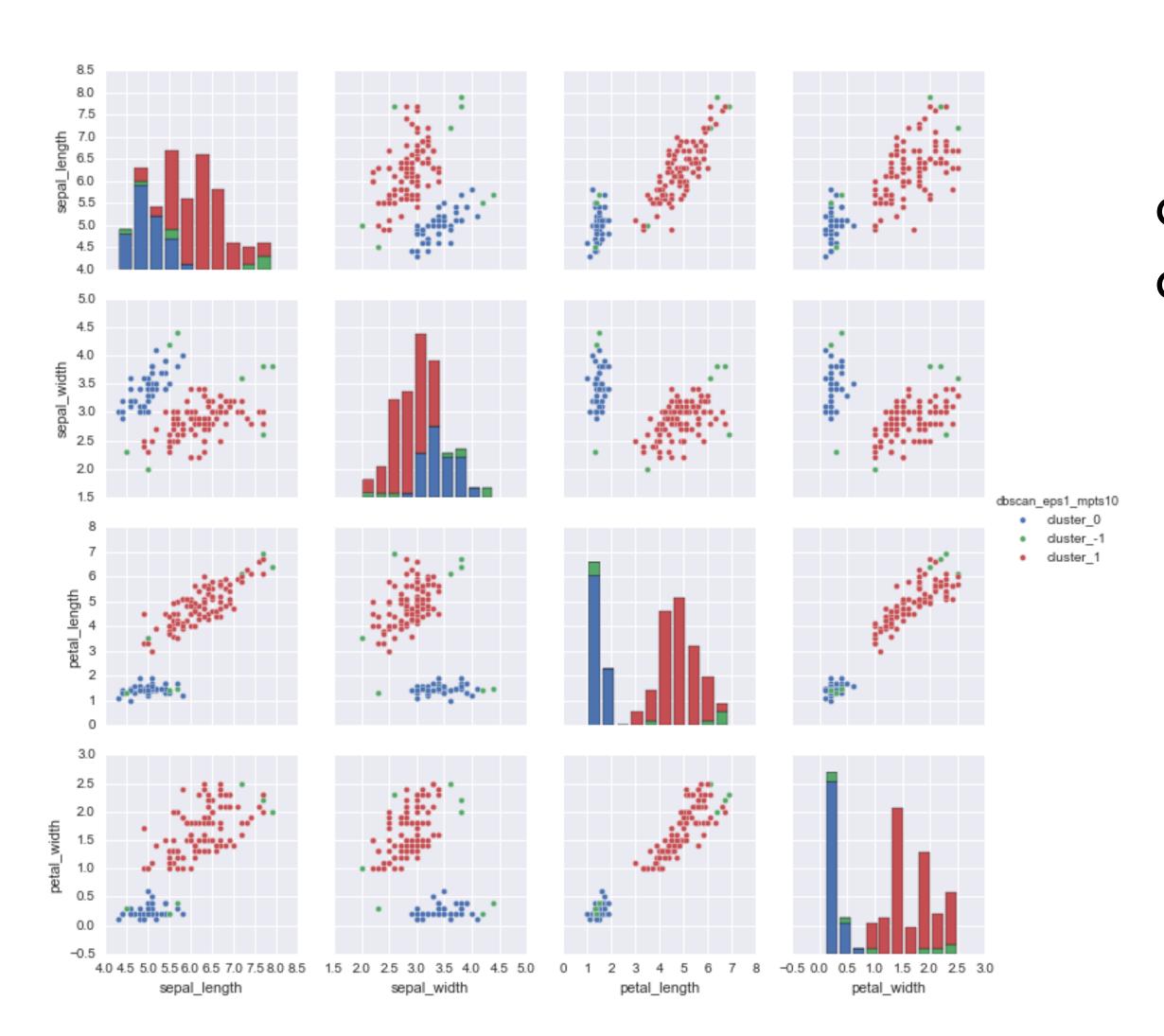
- 1. Choose an arbitrary starting point in your dataset that has not been seen.
- 2. Retrieve this point's ε -neighborhood (all points that are within a distance $\varepsilon\varepsilon$ from it), and if it contains at least *min_samples, a cluster is started.
- 3. Otherwise, the point is labeled as an outlier (-1). Note: This point might later be found in a sufficiently sized ε-environment of a different point and hence be made part of a cluster.
- 4. If a point is found to be a dense part of a cluster, its ε-neighborhood is also part of that cluster. All points that are found within the ε-neighborhood are added, as is their own ε-neighborhood when they are also dense.
- 5. Continue until the density-connected cluster is completely found.
- 6. Find a new unvisited point to process and repeat.

7

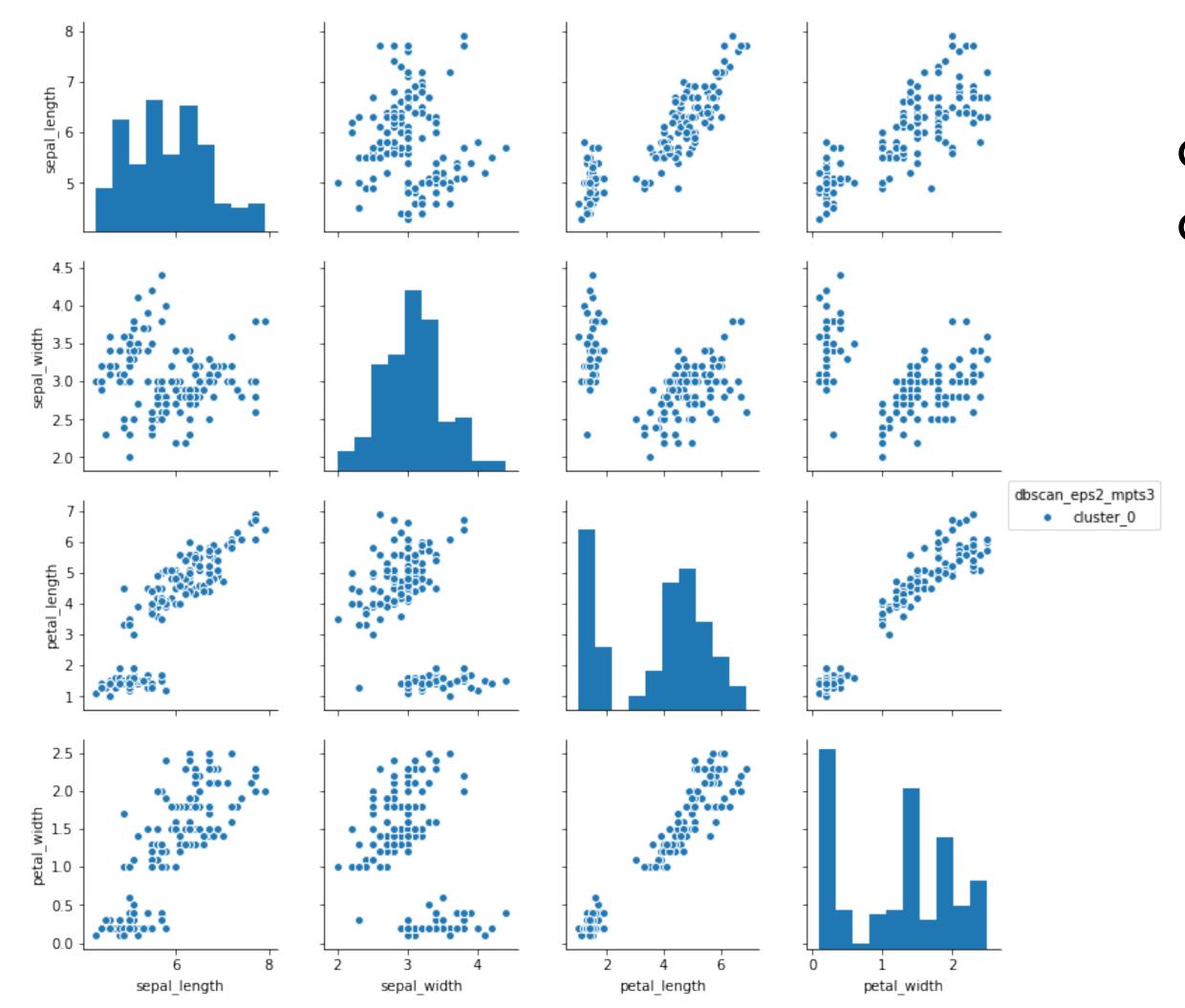
```
db = DBSCAN(eps=1, min_samples=3)
db.fit(<scaled data>)
```

```
data_no_names['dbscan_eps1_mpts3'] = [ "cluster_" + str(label) for label in db.labels_ ]
sns.pairplot(data_no_names,hue="dbscan_eps1_mpts3")
```

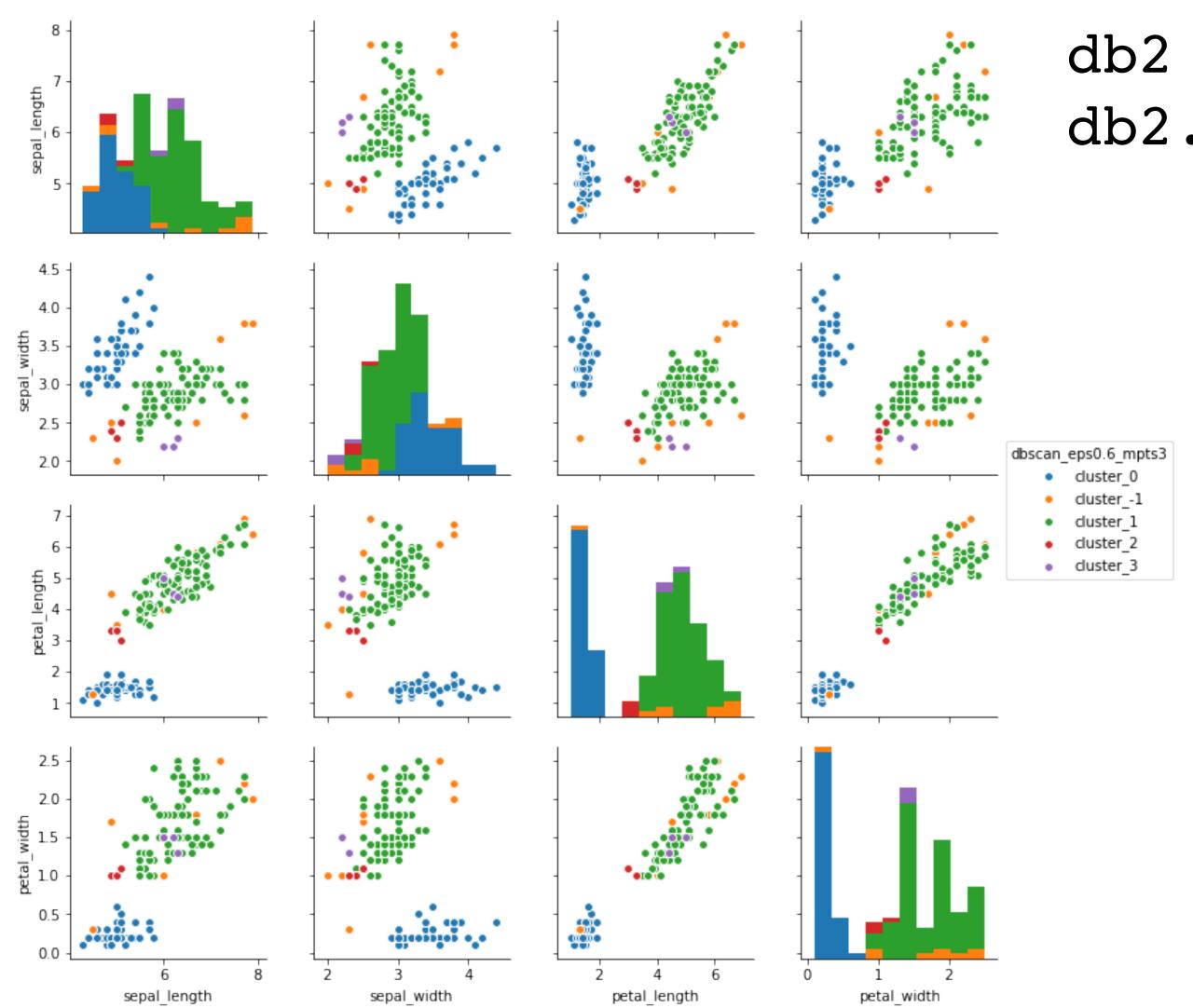




db2 = DBSCAN(eps=1, min_samples=10)
db2.fit(data_scaled)



db2 = DBSCAN(eps=2, min_samples=3)
db2.fit(iris_data_scaled)



db2 = DBSCAN(eps=0.6, min_samples=3)
db2.fit(iris_data_scaled)

Stop

Other uses of unsupervised learning: Dimensionality Reduction

Other uses of unsupervised learning: Dimensionality Reduction

- Dimensionality reduction reduces the number of features in a dataset without losing the information in a data set
- Common technique: Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Other uses of unsupervised learning: Dimensionality Reduction

- PCA attempts to combine the highly correlated features and represent this data with a smaller number of linearly uncorrelated features.
- The algorithm keeps performing this correlation reduction, finding the directions of maximum variance in the original high dimensional data and projecting them onto a smaller dimensional space.
- These newly derived components are known as principal components.

PCA Example

from sklearn.decomposition import PCA

```
n components = 784
whiten = False
pca = PCA(n components=n components, whiten=whiten)
features train PCA = pca.fit transform(features train PCA)
features train PCA = pd.DataFrame(data= features train PCA,
index=train index)
print("Variance Explained by all 784 principal components: ", \
      sum(pca.explained variance ratio ))
```

The variance of all features is 1.0 (everything)

PCA Example

```
Variance Captured by First 10 Principal Components: [0.48876238]
Variance Captured by First 20 Principal Components: [0.64398025]
Variance Captured by First 50 Principal Components: [0.8248609]
Variance Captured by First 100 Principal Components: [0.91465857]
Variance Captured by First 200 Principal Components: [0.9862489]
```

Bottom line: 98% of the information is contained in 300 features. You can therefore, reduce the size of your dataset by half, theoretically without significantly reducing performance.

https://github.com/aapatel09/handson-unsupervised-learning/blob/master/03_dimensionality_reduction.ipynb

Questions?

In Class Exercise

Please complete Worksheet 6.0: Clustering