

# Unsupervised Learning: Clustering Analysis

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So far we have seen "Supervised Methods" where our goal is to analyze a *response* (or outcome) based on various *predictors*.

In many cases, especially for Exploratory Data Analysis, we want methods to extract patterns on variables without analyzing a specific *response*.

Methods for the latter case are called "Unsupervised Methods". Examples are *Principal Component Analysis* and *Clustering*.

Interpretation of these methods is much more *subjective* than in Supervised Learning.

For example: if we want to know if a given *predictor* is related to *response*, we can perform statistical inference using hypothesis testing.

If we want to know which predictors are useful for prediction: use cross-validation to do model selection.

Finally, if we want to see how well we can predict a specific response, we can use cross-validation to report on test error.

In unsupervised methods, there is no similar clean evaluation methodology.

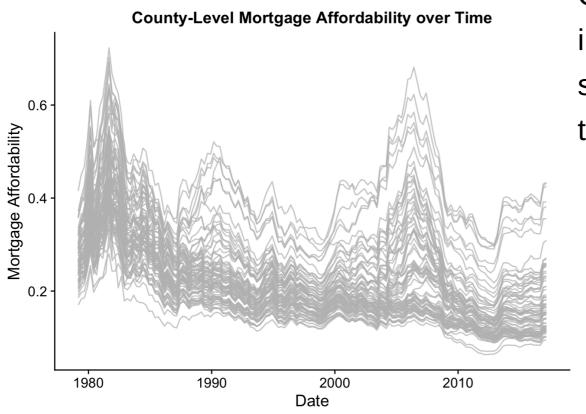
Nonetheless, they can be very useful methods to understand data at hand.

Time series dataset of mortgage affordability as calculated and distributed by Zillow: https://www.zillow.com/research/data/.

The dataset consists of monthly mortgage affordability values for 76 counties with data from 1979 to 2017.

"To calculate mortgage affordability, we first calculate the mortgage payment for the median-valued home in a metropolitan area by using the metro-level Zillow Home Value Index for a given quarter and the 30-year fixed mortgage interest rate during that time period, provided by the Freddie Mac Primary Mortgage Market Survey (based on a 20 percent down payment)."

"Then, we consider what portion of the monthly median household income (U.S. Census) goes toward this monthly mortgage payment. Median household income is available with a lag."



Can we partition counties into groups of counties with similar value trends across time?

In "Supervised Learning" we were concerned with estimates that minimize some error function relative to the outcome of interest *y*:

$$\mu(x) = rg \min_{eta} E_{Y|X} L(Y,eta)$$

In order to do this, explicitly or not, the methods we were using would be concerned with properties of the conditional probability distribution p(Y|X),

without concerning itself with probability distribution p(X) of the predictors themselves.

In unsupervised learning, we are interested in properties of p(X).

In our example, what can we say about the distribution of home value time series?

Since the dimensionality of p(X) can be large, unsupervised learning methods seek to find structured representations of p(X) that would be possible to estimate.

In *clustering* we assume that predictor space is partitioned and that p(X) is defined over those partitions.

In *dimensionality reduction* we assume that p(X) is really defined over a space (manifold) of smaller dimension. We will start studying clustering first.

# Cluster Analysis

The high-level goal of cluster analysis is to organize objects (observations) that are *similar* to each other into groups.

We want objects within a group to be more *similar* to each other than objects in different groups.

# Cluster Analysis

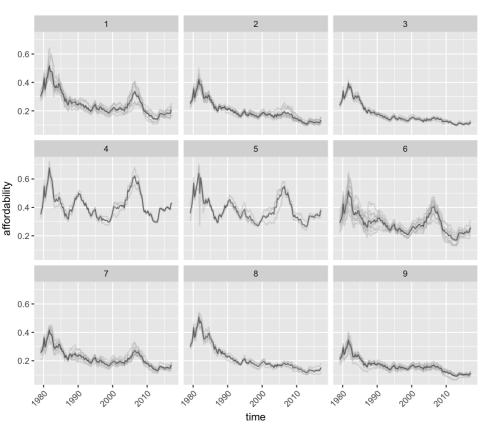
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We want objects within a group to be more *similar* to each other than objects in different groups.

Central to this high-level goal is how to measure the degree of *similarity* between objects.

A clustering method then uses the *similarity* measure provided to it to group objects into clusters.

# Cluster Analysis



Result of the k-means algorithm partitioning the data into 9 clusters.

The darker series within each cluster shows the average time series within the cluster.

For certain algorithms, instead of similarity we work with dissimilarity, often represented as distances.

When we have observations defined over attributes, or predictors, we define dissimilarity based on these attributes.

Given measurements  $x_{ij}$  for i = 1, ..., N observations over j = 1, ..., p predictors.

Suppose we define a dissimilarity  $d_j(x_{ij}, x_{i'j})$ , we can then define a dissimilarity between objects as

$$d(x_i,x_{i'})=\sum_{j=1}^p d_j(x_{ij},x_{i'j})$$

In the k-means algorithm, and many other algorithms, the most common usage is squared distance

$$d_j(x_{ij},x_{i'j}) = (x_{ij}-x_{i'j})^2$$

We can use different dissimilarities, for example

$$d_j(x_{ij},x_{i^\prime j})=|x_{ij}-x_{i^\prime j}|$$

which may affect our choice of clustering algorithm later on.

For categorical variables, we could set

$$d_j(x_{ij},x_{i'j}) = \left\{egin{aligned} 0 ext{ if } x_{ij} = x_{i'j} \ & \ 1 ext{ o.w.} \end{aligned}
ight.$$

If the values the categorical variable have an intrinsic similarity

Generalize using symmetric matrix *L* with elements

 $L_{rr^{\prime}}=L_{r^{\prime}r}$  ,

 $L_{rr}=0$  and

 $L_{rr'} \geq 0$  otherwise.

This may of course lead to a dissimilarity that is not a proper distance.

A commonly used algorithm to perform clustering is the K-means algorithm.

It is appropriate when using squared Euclidean distance as the measure of object dissimilarity.

$$egin{aligned} d(x_i, x_{i'}) &= \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - x_{i'j})^2 \ &= \|x_i - x_{i'}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

K-means partitions observations into K clusters, with K provided as a parameter.

Given some clustering, or partition, C, denote cluster assignment of observation  $x_i$  to cluster  $k \in \{1, ..., K\}$  is denoted as C(i) = k.

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K-means minimizes this clustering criterion:

$$W(C) = rac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i: \ C(i)=k} \sum_{i': \ C(i')=k} \|x_i - x_{i'}\|^2$$

This is equivalent to minimizing

$$W(C) = rac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^K N_k \sum_{i: \, C(i)=k} \|x_i - ar{x}_k\|^2$$

with:

- $ullet ar x_k = (ar x_{k1}, \dots, ar x_{kp})$
- $\bar{x}_{kj}$  is the average of predictor j over the observations assigned to cluster k,
- $N_k$  is the number of observations assigned to cluster k

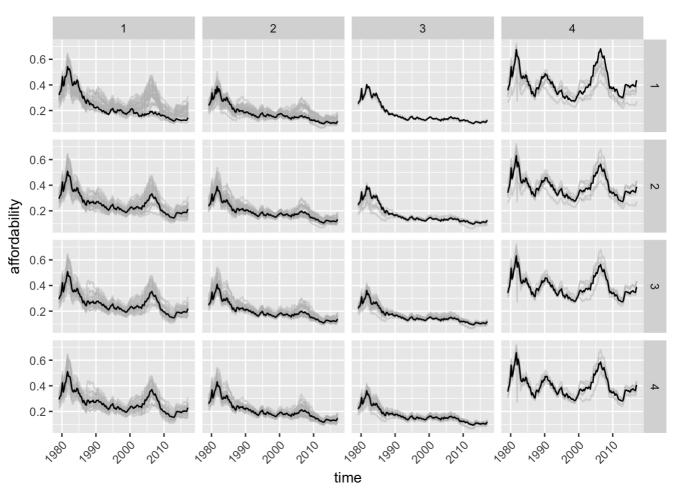
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Minimize the total distance given by each observation to the mean (centroid) of the cluster to which the observation is assigned.

An iterative algorithm is used to minimize this criterion

- 1. Initialize by choosing K observations as centroids  $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_k$
- 2. Assign each observation i to the cluster with the nearest centroid, i.e., set  $C(i) = \arg\min_{1 \le k \le K} ||x_i m_k||^2$
- 3. Update centroids  $m_k = \bar{x}_k$
- 4. Iterate steps 1 and 2 until convergence

Here we illustrate the k-means algorithm over four iterations on our example data with K = 4.



Criterion W(C) is reduced in each iteration so the algorithm is assured to converge.

Not a convex criterion, the clustering we obtain may not be globally optimal.

In practice, the algorithm is run with multiple initializations (step 0) and the best clustering achieved is used.

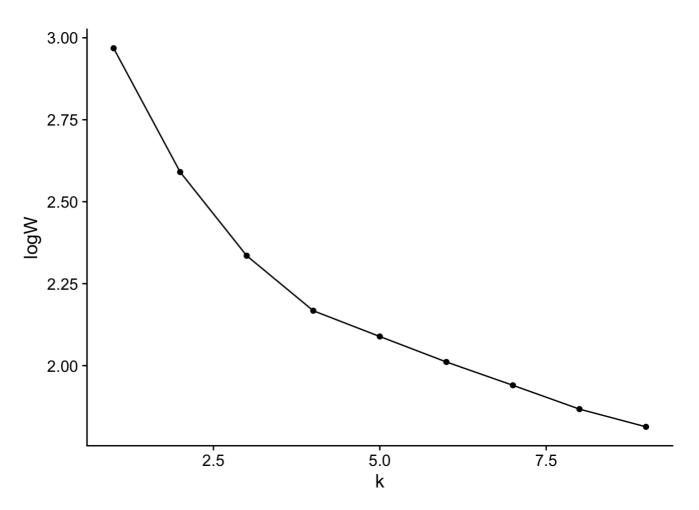
Also, selection of observations as centroids can be improved using the K-means++ algorithm:

- 1. Choose an observation as centroid  $m_1$  uniformly at random
- 2. To choose centroid  $m_k$ , compute for each observation i not chosen as a centroid the distance to the nearest centroid  $d_i = \min_{1 \le l \le k} ||x_i m_l||^2$
- 3. Set centroid  $m_k$  to an observation randomly chosen with probability  $\frac{e^d_i}{\sum_{l'}e^d_{l'}}$
- 4. Iterate steps 1 and 2 until K centroids are chosen

The number of parameters must be determined before running the K-means algorithm.

There is no clean direct method for choosing the number of clusters to use in the K-means algorithm (e.g. no cross-validation method)

Looking at criterion W(C) alone is not sufficient as the criterion will become smaller as the value of K is reduced.



We can use properties of this plot for ad-hoc selection.

Suppose there is a true underlying number  $K^*$  of clusters in the data,

- improvement in the  $W_K(C)$  statistic will be fast for values of  $K \leq K^*$
- slower for values of  $K > K^*$ .

Improvement in the  $W_K(C)$  statistic will be fast for values of  $K \leq K^*$ 

In this case, there will be a cluster which will contain observations belonging to two of the true underlying clusters, and therefore will have poor within cluster similarity.

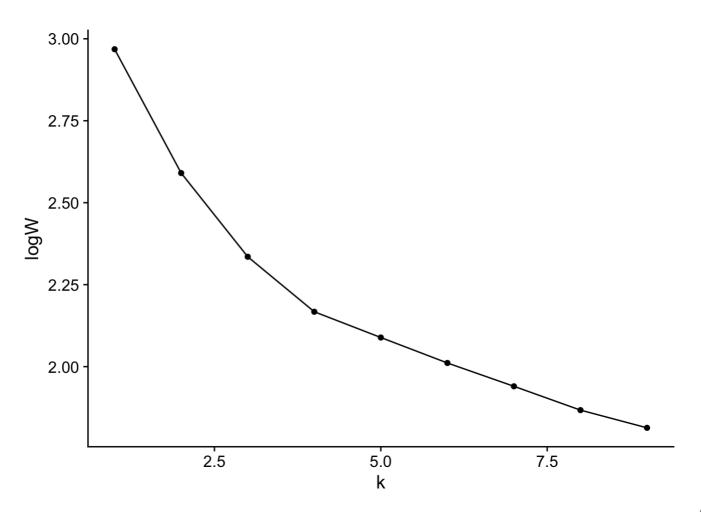
As K is increased, observations may then be separated into separate clusters, providing a sharp improvement in the  $W_K(C)$  statistic.

*Improvement in the*  $W_K(C)$  *statistic will be slower for values of*  $K > K^*$ 

In this case, observations belonging to a single true cluster are split into multiple cluster, all with generally high within-cluster similarity,

Splitting these clusters further will not improve the  $W_K(C)$  statistic very sharply.

The curve will therefore have an inflection point around  $K^*$ .



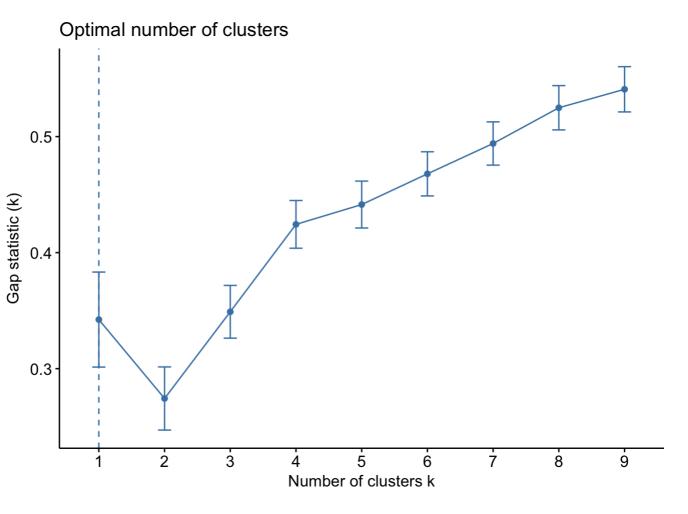
The *gap statistic* is used to identify the inflection point in the curve.

It compares the behavior of the  $W_K(C)$  statistic based on the data with the behavior of the  $W_K(C)$  statistic for data generated uniformly at random over the range of the data.

Chooses the K that maximizes the gap between these two  $W_K(C)$  curves.

For this dataset, the gap statistic suggests there is no clear cluster structure and therefore K = 1 is the best choice.

A choice of K = 4 is also appropriate.



#### Summary

Clustering methods are intuitive methods useful to understand structure within unlabeled observations.

K-means is a frequently used, easy to implement and interpret algorithm for clustering.