Data Mining -- Clustering

Instructor: Jen-Wei Huang

Office: 92528 in the EE building
jwhuang@mail.ncku

Clustering

- Cluster: a collection of data objects
  - Similar to one another within the same cluster
  - Dissimilar to the objects in other clusters
- Cluster analysis
  - Finding similarities between data according to the characteristics found in the data and grouping similar data objects into clusters
- Unsupervised learning: no predefined classes

Typical Applications

- As a stand-alone tool to get insight into data distribution or as a preprocessing step for other algorithms
- Pattern Recognition
- Image Processing
- Economic Science (especially market research)
- WWW
  - Web pages (resources) clustering
  - Cluster Weblog data to discover groups of similar access patterns

Examples

- Marketing: Help marketers discover distinct groups in their customer bases, and then use this knowledge to develop targeted marketing programs
- Land use: Identification of areas of similar land use in an earth observation database
- Insurance: Identifying groups of motor insurance policy holders with a high average claim cost
- City-planning: Identifying groups of houses according to their house type, value, and geographical location

Quality of Clustering

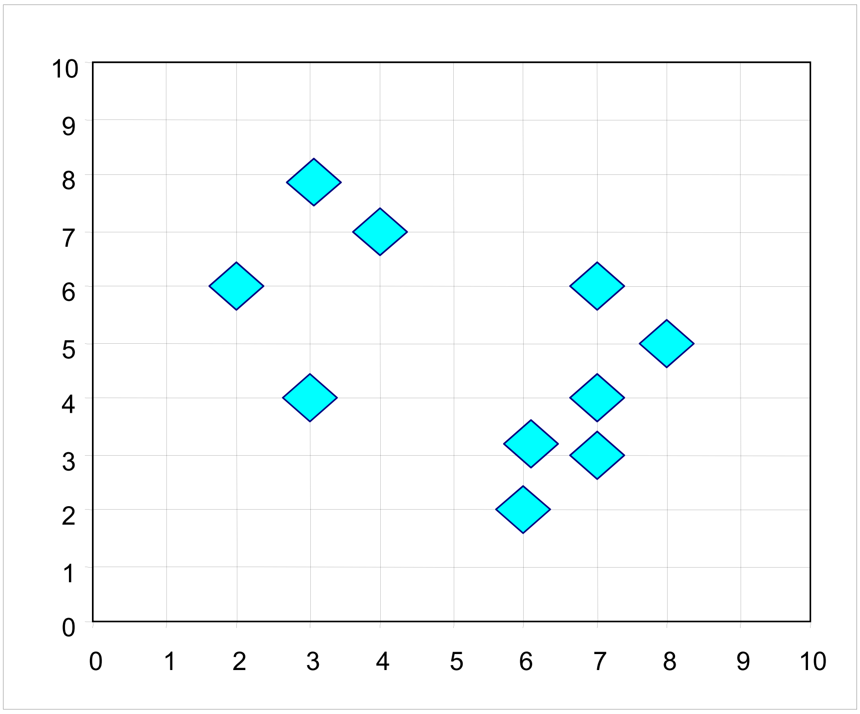
- Good clusters :
  - high intra-class similarity
  - low inter-class similarity
- The quality of a clustering result depends on both the similarity measure used by the method and its implementation
- The quality of a clustering method is also measured by its ability to discover some or all of the hidden patterns

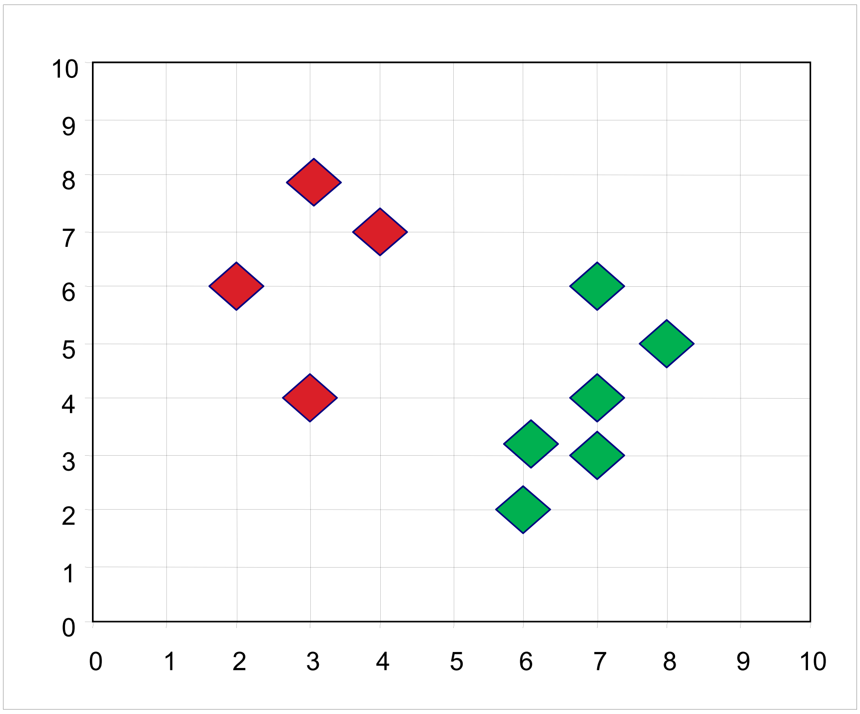
Measure the Quality

- Dissimilarity/Similarity metric: Similarity is expressed in terms of a distance function, typically metric: $d(i, j)$
- There is a separate "quality" function that measures the "goodness" of a cluster.
- The definitions of distance functions are usually very different for interval-scaled, boolean, categorical, ordinal ratio, and vector variables.
- Weights should be associated with different variables based on applications and data semantics.
- It is hard to define "similar enough" or "good enough"
  - the answer is typically highly subjective.

Requirements of Clustering

- Able to deal with noise and outliers
- Insensitive to order of input records
- High dimensionality
- Incorporation of user-specified constraints
- Interpretability and usability
- Scalability
- Ability to deal with different types of attributes
- Ability to handle dynamic data
- Discovery of clusters with arbitrary shape
- Determination input parameters





Type of Data

- Interval-scaled variables
- Binary variables
- Nominal, ordinal, and ratio variables
- Variables of mixed types

Interval-Valued Variables

- Standardize data
  - Calculate the mean absolute deviation:

$$s_f = \frac{1}{n}(|x_{1f} - m_f| + |x_{2f} - m_f| + \ldots + |x_{nf} - m_f|)$$

where $m_f = \frac{1}{n}(x_{1f} + x_{2f} + \ldots + x_{nf})$.

  - Calculate the standardized measurement (*z-score*) $z_{if} = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}$

- Using mean absolute deviation is more robust than using standard deviation

Distance

- Distances are normally used to measure the similarity or dissimilarity between two data objects
- Some popular ones include: *Minkowski distance*:

$$d(i,j) = \sqrt[q]{(|x_{i_1} - x_{j_1}|^q + |x_{i_2} - x_{j_2}|^q + \ldots + |x_{i_p} - x_{j_p}|^q)}$$

where $i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \ldots, x_{ip})$ and $j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, \ldots, x_{jp})$ are two p-dimensional data objects, and q is a positive integer

- If $q = 1$, d is Manhattan distance

$$d(i,j) = |x_{i_1} - x_{j_1}| + |x_{i_2} - x_{j_2}| + \ldots + |x_{i_p} - x_{j_p}|$$

Distance

- *If q = 2, d* is Euclidean distance:

$$d(i,j)=\sqrt{(|x_{i_1}-x_{j_1}|^2+|x_{i_2}-x_{j_2}|^2+...+|x_{i_p}-x_{j_p}|^2)}$$

  - Properties
    - $d(i,j) \geq 0$
    - $d(i,i) = 0$
    - $d(i,j) = d(j,i)$
    - $d(i,j) \leq d(i,k) + d(k,j)$
- Also, one can use weighted distance, parametric Pearson product moment correlation, or other dissimilarity measures

Binary Variables

- A contingency table for binary data

		Object *j*		
		1	0	*sum*
Object *i*	1	*a*	*b*	*a+b*
	0	*c*	*d*	*c+d*
	sum	*a+c*	*b+d*	*p*

- Distance measure for symmetric binary variables:

$$d(i,j) = \frac{b+c}{a+b+c+d}$$

- Distance measure for asymmetric binary variables:

$$d(i,j) = \frac{b+c}{a+b+c}$$

- Jaccard coefficient (*similarity* measure for *asymmetric* binary variables):

$$sim_{Jaccard}(i,j) = \frac{a}{a+b+c}$$

Dissimilarity

- Example

Name	Gender	Fever	Cough	Test-1	Test-2	Test-3	Test-4
Jack	M	Y	N	P	N	N	N
Mary	F	Y	N	P	N	P	N
Jim	M	Y	P	N	N	N	N

  - gender is a symmetric attribute
  - the remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
  - let the values Y and P be set to 1, and the value N be set to 0

$$d(jack, mary) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33$$

$$d(jack, jim) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67$$

$$d(jim, mary) = \frac{1+2}{1+1+2} = 0.75$$

Nominal Variables

- A generalization of the binary variable in that it can take more than 2 states, e.g., red, yellow, blue, green
- Method 1: Simple matching
  - *m*: # of matches, *p*: total # of variables

$$d(i, j) = \frac{p - m}{p}$$

- Method 2: use a large number of binary variables
  - creating a new binary variable for each of the *M* nominal states

Ordinal Variables

- An ordinal variable can be discrete or continuous
- Order is important, e.g., rank
- Can be treated like interval-scaled
  - replace x_{if} by their rank $r_{if} \in \{1, \ldots, M_f\}$
  - map the range of each variable onto [0, 1] by replacing *i*-th object in the *f*-th variable by

$$z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$$

  - compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables

Ratio-Scaled Variables

- Ratio-scaled variable: a positive measurement on a nonlinear scale, approximately at exponential scale, such as Ae^{Bt} or Ae^{-Bt}
- Methods:
  - treat them like interval-scaled variables—*not a good choice!* (why?—the scale can be distorted)
  - apply logarithmic transformation

$$y_{if} = \log(x_{if})$$

  - treat them as continuous ordinal data treat their rank as interval-scaled

Variables of Mixed Types

- A database may contain all the six types of variables
  - symmetric binary, asymmetric binary, nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio
- One may use a weighted formula to combine their effects

$$d(i,j) = \frac{\sum_{f=1}^{p} \delta_{ij}^{(f)} d_{ij}^{(f)}}{\sum_{f=1}^{p} \delta_{ij}^{(f)}}$$

  - f is binary or nominal: $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$ if $x_{if} = x_{jf}$, or $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$ otherwise
  - f is interval-based: use the normalized distance
  - f is ordinal or ratio-scaled
    - compute ranks r_{if} and
    - and treat z_{if} as interval-scaled $z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$

Vector Objects

- Vector objects: keywords in documents, gene features in micro-arrays, etc.
- Broad applications: information retrieval, biologic taxonomy, etc.
- Cosine measure

$$s(\vec{X}, \vec{Y}) = \frac{\vec{X}^t \cdot \vec{Y}}{|\vec{X}||\vec{Y}|}$$

- A variant: Tanimoto coefficient

$$s(\vec{X}, \vec{Y}) = \frac{\vec{X}^t \cdot \vec{Y}}{\vec{X}^t \cdot \vec{X} + \vec{Y}^t \cdot \vec{Y} - \vec{X}^t \cdot \vec{Y}}$$

Clustering Methods

- Partitioning approach:
  - Construct various partitions and then evaluate them by some criterion, e.g., minimizing the sum of square errors
  - Typical methods: k-means, k-medoids, CLARANS
- Hierarchical approach:
  - Create a hierarchical decomposition of the set of data (or objects) using some criterion
  - Typical methods: Diana, Agnes, BIRCH, ROCK, CAMELEON
- Density-based approach:
  - Based on connectivity and density functions
  - Typical methods: DBSACN, OPTICS, DenClue

Clustering Methods

- Grid-based approach:
  - based on a multiple-level granularity structure
  - Typical methods: STING, WaveCluster, CLIQUE
- Model-based:
  - A model is hypothesized for each of the clusters and tries to find the best fit of that model to each other
  - Typical methods: EM, SOM, COBWEB
- Frequent pattern-based:
  - Based on the analysis of frequent patterns
  - Typical methods: pCluster

Clustering Methods

- <u>User-guided or constraint-based</u>:
  - Clustering by considering user-specified or application-specific constraints
  - Typical methods: COD (obstacles), constrained clustering

Distance between Clusters

- Single link: smallest distance between an element in one cluster and an element in the other, i.e., $dis(K_i, K_j) = min(t_{ip}, t_{jq})$
- Complete link: largest distance between an element in one cluster and an element in the other, i.e., $dis(K_i, K_j) = max(t_{ip}, t_{jq})$
- Average: avg distance between an element in one cluster and an element in the other, i.e., $dis(K_i, K_j) = avg(t_{ip}, t_{jq})$
- Centroid: distance between the centroids of two clusters, i.e., $dis(K_i, K_j) = dis(C_i, C_j)$
- Medoid: distance between the medoids of two clusters, i.e., $dis(K_i, K_j) = dis(M_i, M_j)$
  - Medoid: one chosen, centrally located object in the cluster

Centroid, Radius and Diameter

- Centroid: the "middle" of a cluster

$$C_m = \frac{\Sigma_{i=1}^{N}(t_{ip})}{N}$$

- Radius: square root of average distance from any point of the cluster to its centroid

$$R_m = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma_{i=1}^{N}(t_{ip} - c_m)^2}{N}}$$

- Diameter: square root of average mean squared distance between all pairs of points in the cluster

$$D_m = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma_{i=1}^{N}\Sigma_{i=1}^{N}(t_{ip} - t_{iq})^2}{N(N-1)}}$$

Partitioning Algorithms: Basic Concept

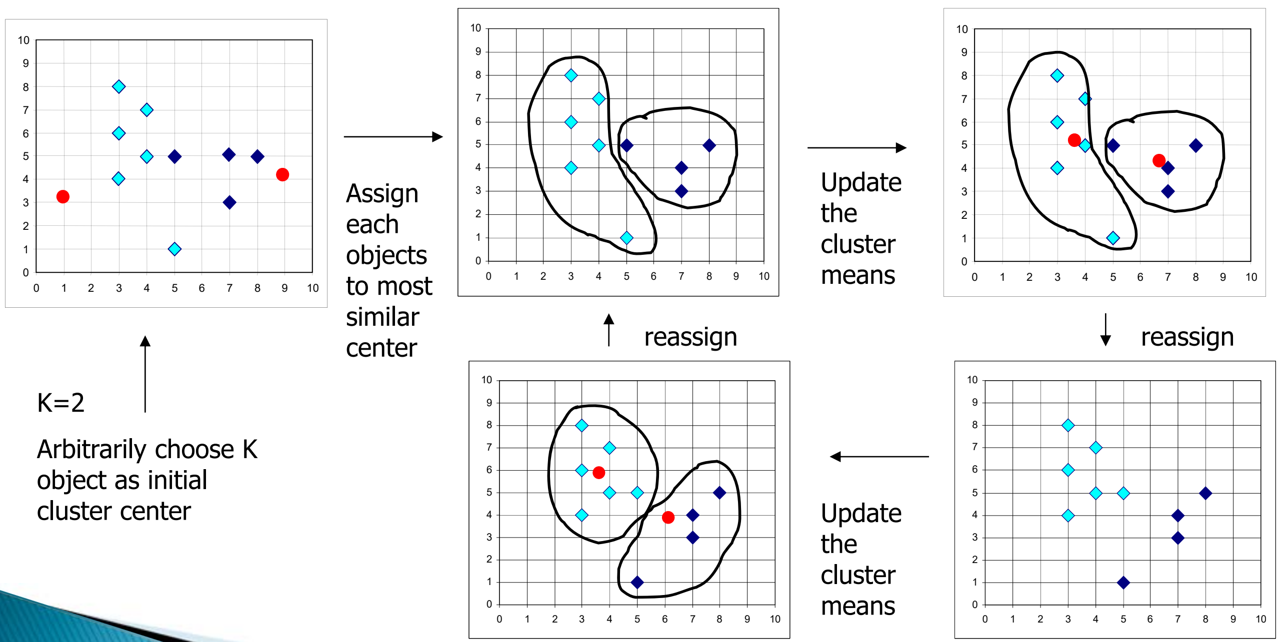
- Partitioning method: Construct a partition of a database ***D*** of ***n*** objects into a set of ***k*** clusters, s.t., min sum of squared distance $\Sigma_{m=1}^{k}\Sigma_{t_{mi}\in Km}(C_m - t_{mi})^2$
- Given a *k*, find a partition of *k clusters* that optimizes the chosen partitioning criterion
  - Global optimal: exhaustively enumerate all partitions
  - Heuristic methods: *k-means* and *k-medoids* algorithms
  - *k-means* (MacQueen'67): Each cluster is represented by the center of the cluster
  - *k-medoids* or PAM (Partition around medoids) (Kaufman & Rousseeuw'87): Each cluster is represented by one of the objects in the cluster

K-Means

- Given *k*, the *k-means* algorithm is implemented in four steps:
  1. Partition objects into *k* nonempty subsets
  2. Compute seed points as the centroids of the clusters of the current partition (the centroid is the center, i.e., *mean point*, of the cluster)
  3. Assign each object to the cluster with the nearest seed point
  4. Go back to Step 2, stop when no more new assignment

K-Means

- Example



Comments

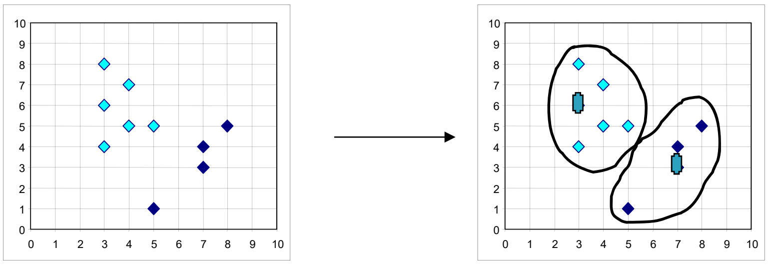
- Strength: *Relatively efficient*: *O*(*tkn*), where *n* is # objects, *k* is # clusters, and *t* is # iterations. Normally, *k*, *t* << *n*.
  - Comparing: PAM: $O(k(n-k)^2)$, CLARA: $O(ks^2 + k(n-k))$
- Comment: Often terminates at a *local optimum*. The *global optimum* may be found using techniques such as: *deterministic annealing* and *genetic algorithms*
- Weakness
  - Applicable only when *mean* is defined, then what about categorical data?
  - Need to specify *k,* the *number* of clusters, in advance
  - Unable to handle noisy data and *outliers*
  - Not suitable to discover clusters with *non-convex shapes*

Variations of *K-Means*

- A few variants of the *k-means* which differ in
  - Selection of the initial *k* means
  - Dissimilarity calculations
  - Strategies to calculate cluster means
- Handling categorical data: *k-modes* (Huang'98)
  - Replacing means of clusters with modes
  - Using new dissimilarity measures to deal with categorical objects
  - Using a frequency-based method to update modes of clusters
  - A mixture of categorical and numerical data: *k-prototype* method

Problem of K-Means

- The k-means algorithm is sensitive to outliers !
  - Since an object with an extremely large value may substantially distort the distribution of the data.
- K-Medoids: Instead of taking the **mean** value of the object in a cluster as a reference point, **medoids** can be used, which is the **most centrally located** object in a cluster.



K-Medoids

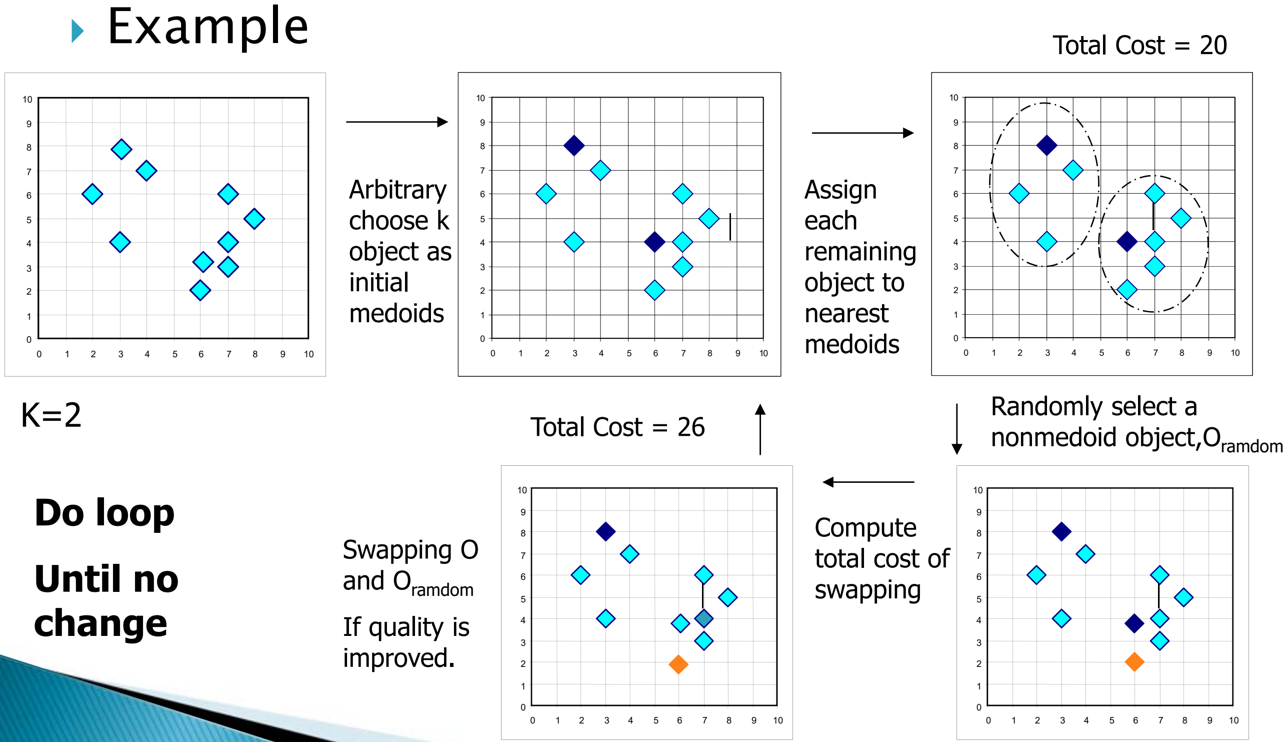
- Find *representative* objects, called medoids, in clusters
- *PAM* (Partitioning Around Medoids, 1987)
  - starts from an initial set of medoids and iteratively replaces one of the medoids by one of the non-medoids if it improves the total distance of the resulting clustering
  - *PAM* works effectively for small data sets, but does not scale well for large data sets
- *CLARA* (Kaufmann & Rousseeuw, 1990)
- *CLARANS* (Ng & Han, 1994): Randomized sampling
- Focusing + spatial data structure (Ester et al., 1995)

PAM (Partitioning Around Medoids)

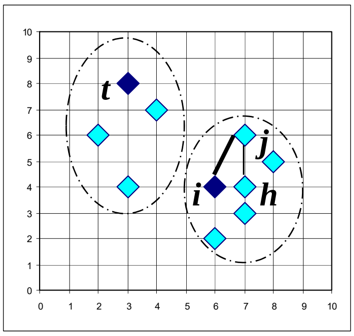
- PAM (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1987)
- Use real object to represent the cluster
  1. Select *k* representative objects arbitrarily
  2. For each pair of non-selected object *h* and selected object *i*, calculate the total swapping cost TC_{ih}
  3. For each pair of *i* and *h*,
     - If $TC_{ih} < 0$, *i* is replaced by *h*
     - Then assign each non-selected object to the most similar representative object
  4. repeat steps 2-3 until there is no change

PAM

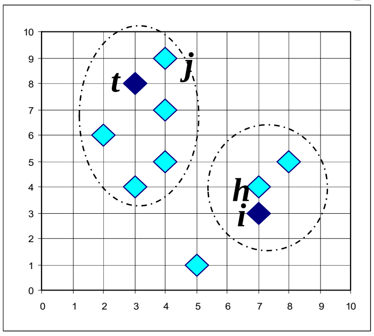
- Example



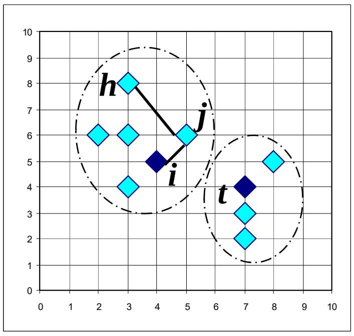
Total swapping cost $TC_{ih}=\Sigma_j C_{jih}$



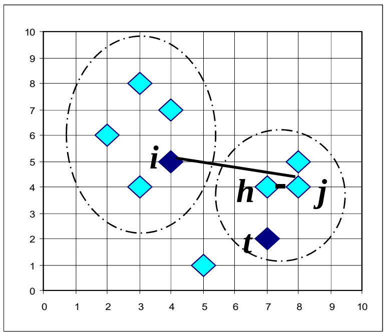
$C_{jih} = d(j, h) - d(j, i)$



$C_{jih} = 0$



$C_{jih} = d(j, t) - d(j, i)$



$C_{jih} = d(j, h) - d(j, t)$

Problem with PAM

- Pam is more robust than k-means in the presence of noise and outliers because a medoid is less influenced by outliers or other extreme values than a mean
- Pam works efficiently for small data sets but does not **scale well** for large data sets.
  - $O(k(n-k)^2)$ for each iteration

    where n is # of data,k is # of clusters

➔Sampling based method,

CLARA(Clustering LARge Applications)

CLARA (Clustering Large Applications)

- *CLARA* (Kaufmann and Rousseeuw in 1990)
- It draws *multiple samples* of the data set, applies *PAM* on each sample, and gives the best clustering as the output
- Strength: deals with larger data sets than *PAM*
- Weakness:
  - Efficiency depends on the sample size
  - A good clustering based on samples will not necessarily represent a good clustering of the whole data set if the sample is biased

CLARANS ("Randomized" CLARA)

- *CLARANS* (A Clustering Algorithm based on Randomized Search) (Ng and Han'94)
- CLARANS draws sample of neighbors dynamically
- The clustering process can be presented as searching a graph where every node is a potential solution, that is, a set of *k* medoids
- If the local optimum is found, *CLARANS* starts with new randomly selected node in search for a new local optimum
- It is more efficient and scalable than both *PAM* and *CLARA*
- Focusing techniques and spatial access structures may further improve its performance (Ester et al.'95)

References

- Slides from Prof. J.-W. Han, UIUC
- Slides from Prof. M.-S. Chen, NTU
- Slides from Prof. W.-Z. Peng, NCTU