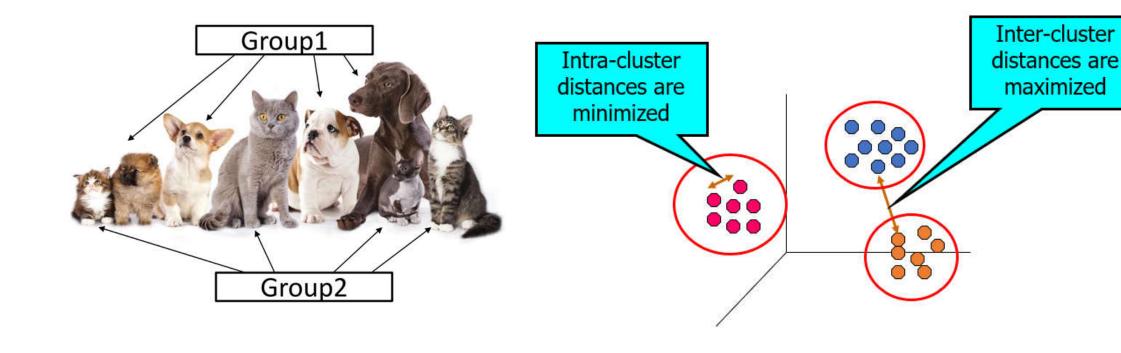
# Introduction to clustering

Simi S

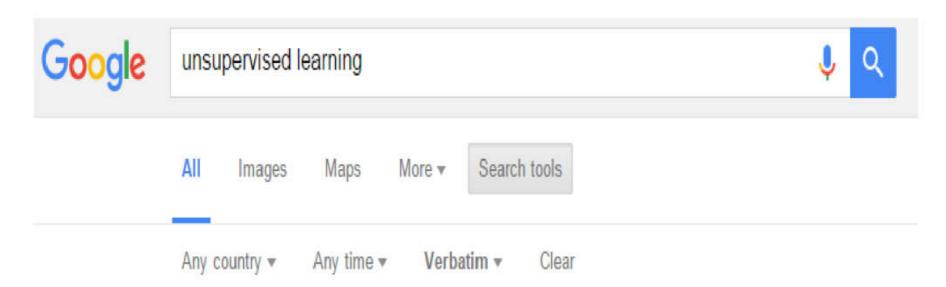
Department of Computer Science Engineering, School of Engineering, Amritapuri

# Unsupervised Learning- Clustering

Clustering refers to a very broad set of techniques for finding subgroups in a data set.



# Applications of Clustering: Search Result



[PDF] Unsupervised Learning - Cambridge Machine Learning Group mlg.eng.cam.ac.uk/zoubin/papers/ul.pdf ▼\_\_\_\_\_\_by Z Ghahramani - 2004 - Cited by 215 (Related articles)

### Applications of Clustering: Google News



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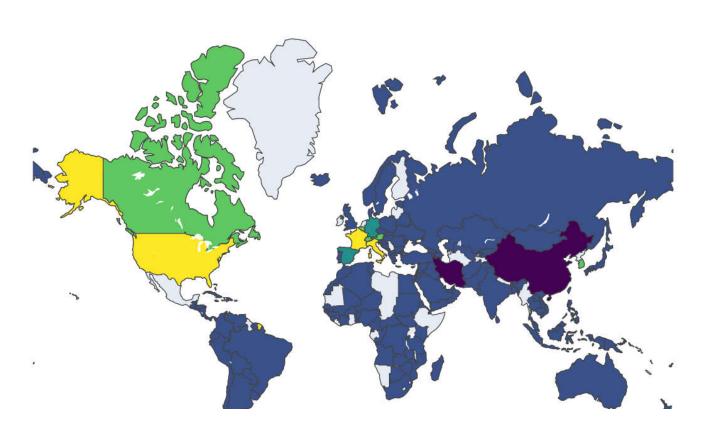
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# Applications of Clustering: Visualization

Clustering World Countries affected by Coronavirus



Clust

# Applications of Clustering: Image Segmentation

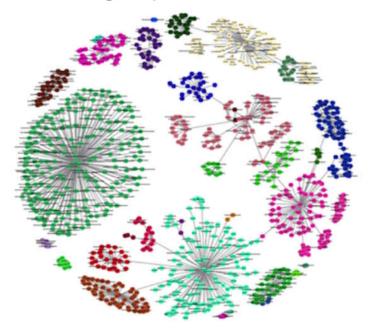


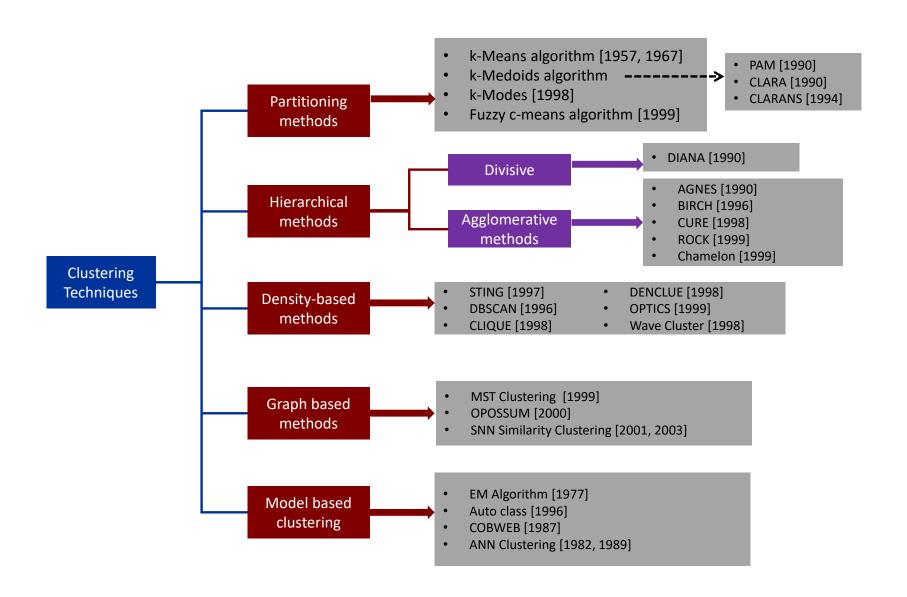




# Applications of Clustering: Social network analysis

how to extract communities Interaction between groups

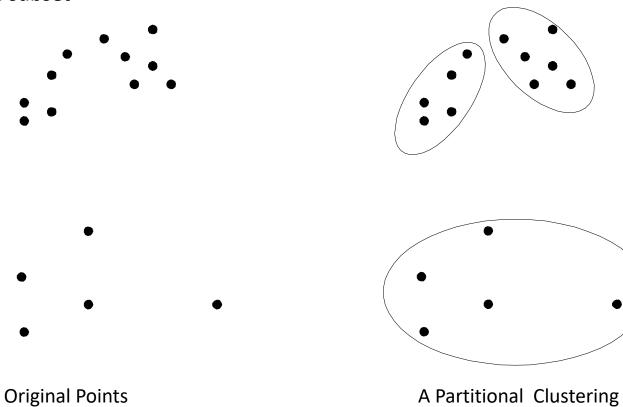




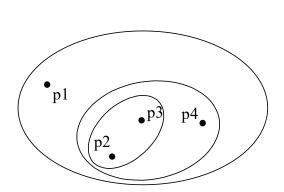
# Types of Clustering: partitional vs hierarchical

### **Partitional Clustering**

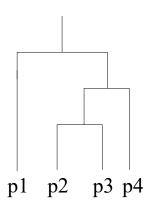
A division data objects into non-overlapping subsets (clusters) such that each data object is in exactly one subset



# Types of Clustering: partitional vs hierarchical







Traditional Dendrogram

Hierarchical Clustering: A set of nested clusters organized as a hierarchical tree

### Types of Clustering

### Exclusive versus non-exclusive

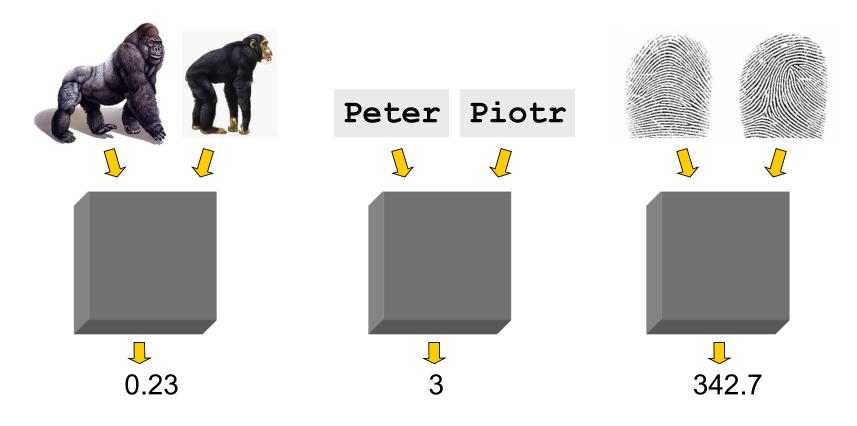
- In non-exclusive clusterings, points may belong to multiple clusters.
- Can represent multiple classes or 'border' points
- Fuzzy versus non-fuzzy
  - In fuzzy clustering, a point belongs to every cluster with some weight between 0 and 1
  - Weights must sum to 1

### Partial versus complete

In some cases, we only want to cluster some of the data

# Similarity Measures

**Definition**: Let  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  be two objects from the universe of possible objects. The distance (dissimilarity) between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  is a real number denoted by  $D(O_1, O_2)$ 



### Properties of distance measure

• 
$$D(A,B) = D(B,A)$$
 Symmetry

• 
$$D(A,A) = 0$$
 Constancy of Self-Similarity

• 
$$D(A,B) = 0$$
 iif  $A = B$  Positivity (Separation)

• 
$$D(A,B) \le D(A,C) + D(B,C)$$
 Triangular Inequality

D(A,B) = D(B,A)

Otherwise "Alex looks like Bob, but Bob looks nothing like Alex."

 $D(A,B) \leq D(A,C) + D(B,C)$ 

Otherwise "Alex is very like Bob, and Alex is very like Carl, but Bob is very unlike Carl."

Distance Measure	Equation	Time complexity	Advantages	Disadvantages	Applications
Euclidean Distance	$d_{\text{euc}} = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{y}_i)^2\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$	O(n)	Very common, easy to compute and works well with datasets with compact or isolated clusters [27,31].	Sensitive to outliers [27,31].	K-means algorithm, Fuzzy c-means algorithm [38].
Average Distance	$d_{\text{ave}} = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - y_i)^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$	O(n)	Better than Euclidean distance [35] at handling outliers.	Variables contribute independently to the measure of distance. Redundant values could dominate the similarity between data points [37].	K-means algorithm
Weighted Euclidean	$d_{we} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i (x_i - y_i)^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$	O(n)	The weight matrix allows to increase the effect of more important data points than less important one [37].	Same as Average Distance.	Fuzzy c-means algorithm [38]
Chord	$ extbf{ extit{ extit{ extit{d}}}} d_{ extit{chard}} = \left(2 - 2rac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i}{\ x\ _2 \ y\ _2} ight)^{rac{1}{2}}$	O(3n)	Can work with un- normalized data [27].	It is not invariant to linear transformation [33].	Ecological resemblance detection [35].
Mahalanobis	$d_{mah} = \sqrt{(x-y)S^{-1}(x-y)^T}$	<u>O(3n)</u>	Mahalanobis is a data- driven measure that can ease the distance distortion caused by a linear combination of attributes [35].	It can be expensive in terms of computation [33]	Hyperellipsoidal clustering algorithm [30].
Cosine Measure	Cosine(x, y) = $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i}}{\ x\ _{2} \ y\ _{2}}$	O(3n)	Independent of vector length and invariant to rotation [33].	It is not invariant to linear transformation [33].	Mostly used in document similarity applications [28,33].
Manhattan	$d_{man} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{y}_i)$	O(n)	Is common and like other Minkowski-driven distances it works well with datasets with compact or isolated	Sensitive to the outliers. [27,31]	K-means algorithm

# Clustering techniques

- Partitioning
  - k-Means algorithm
  - PAM (k-Medoids algorithm)
- Hierarchical
  - divisive algorithm

Agglomerative algorithm

- Density Based
  - DBSCAN

# K-means clustering

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# k-Means Clustering

- Clustering used to group similar observations and form different groups-
  - Property 1: All the data points in a cluster should be similar to each other.
  - Property 2: The data points from different clusters should be as different as possible
- k-Means clustering algorithm proposed by J. Hartigan and M. A. Wong [1979].
- Partitional Clustering
- centroid-based algorithm(distance-based algorithm)
- Objective : minimize the sum of distances between the points and their respective cluster centroid
- Given a set of *n* distinct objects, the k-Means clustering algorithm partitions the objects into *k* number of clusters such that intracluster similarity is high but the intercluster similarity is low.

# k-Means Algorithm

Input: D is a dataset containing n objects, k is the number of cluster

Output: A set of *k* clusters

### Steps:

- 1. Randomly choose k objects from D as the initial cluster centroids.
- 2. For each of the objects in D do
  - Compute distance between the current objects and *k* cluster centroids
  - Assign the current object to that cluster to which it is closest.
- 3. Compute the "cluster centers" of each cluster. These become the new cluster centroids.
- 4. Repeat step 2-3 until the convergence criterion is satisfied
- 5. Stop

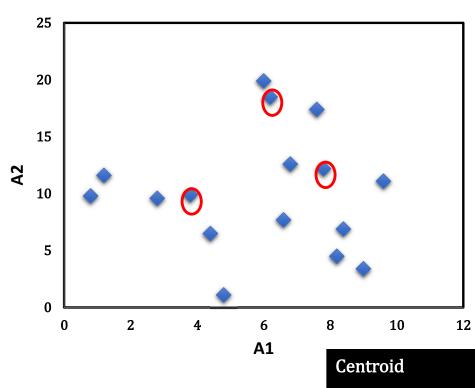
# k-Means Algorithm

- 1) Objects are defined in terms of set of attributes.  $A = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m\}$  where each  $A_i$  is continuous data type.
- 2) Distance computation: Any distance such as  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$  or cosine similarity.
- 3) Minimum distance is the measure of closeness between an object and centroid.
- 4) Mean Calculation: It is the mean value of each attribute values of all objects.
- 5) Convergence criteria: Any one of the following are termination condition of the algorithm.
  - Number of maximum iteration permissible.
  - No change of centroid values in any cluster.
  - Zero (or no significant) movement(s) of object from one cluster to another.
  - Cluster quality reaches to a certain level of acceptance.

objects with two attributes  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ .

Λ	Λ
A <sub>1</sub>	A <sub>2</sub>
6.8	12.6
0.8	9.8
1.2	11.6
2.8	9.6
3.8	9.9
4.4	6.5
4.8	1.1
6.0	19.9
6.2	18.5
7.6	17.4
7.8	12.2
6.6	7.7
8.2	4.5
8.4	6.9
9.0	3.4
9.6	11.1

### Plotting data of Table 16.1



Centroid	Objects		
	A1	A2	
c <sub>1</sub>	3.8	9.9	
c <sub>2</sub>	7.8	12.2	
c <sub>3</sub>	6.2	18.5	

• Suppose, k=3. Three objects are chosen at random shown as circled (see Fig 16.1). These three centroids are shown below.

**Initial Centroids chosen randomly** 

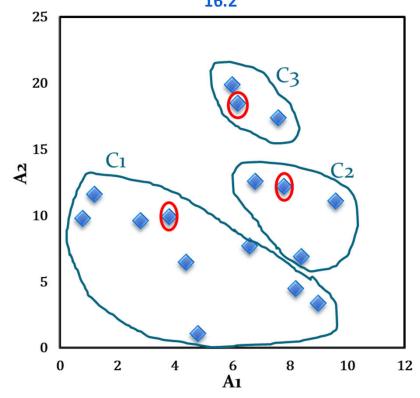
Centroid	Objects		
	A1	A2	
c <sub>1</sub>	3.8	9.9	
c <sub>2</sub>	7.8	12.2	
c <sub>3</sub>	6.2	18.5	

- Let us consider the Euclidean distance measure ( $L_2$  Norm) as the distance measurement in our illustration.
- Let  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$  and  $d_3$  denote the distance from an object to  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  respectively. The distance calculations are shown in Table 16.2.
- Assignment of each object to the respective centroid is shown in the right-most column and the clustering so obtained is shown in Fig 16.2.

**Table 16.2: Distance calculation** 

$A_1$	$A_2$	$\mathbf{d_1}$	$d_2$	$d_3$	cluster
6.8	12.6	4.0	1.1	5.9	2
0.8	9.8	3.0	7.4	10.2	1
1.2	11.6	3.1	6.6	8.5	1
2.8	9.6	1.0	5.6	9.5	1
3.8	9.9	0.0	4.6	8.9	1
4.4	6.5	3.5	6.6	12.1	1
4.8	1.1	8.9	11.5	17.5	1
6.0	19.9	10.2	7.9	1.4	3
6.2	18.5	8.9	6.5	0.0	3
7.6	17.4	8.4	5.2	1.8	3
7.8	12.2	4.6	0.0	6.5	2
6.6	7.7	3.6	4.7	10.8	1
8.2	4.5	7.0	7.7	14.1	1
8.4	6.9	5.5	5.3	11.8	2
9.0	3.4	8.3	8.9	15.4	1
9.6	11.1	5.9	2.1	8.1	2

Fig 16.2: Initial cluster with respect to Table 16.2

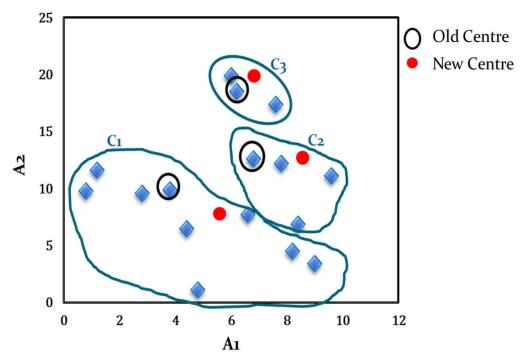


Centroid	Objects		
	A1	A2	
c <sub>1</sub>	3.8	9.9	

The calculation new centroids of the three cluster using the mean of attribute values of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  is shown in the Table below. The cluster with new centroids are shown in Fig 16.3.

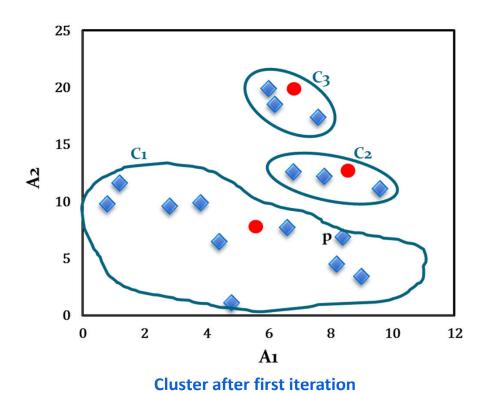
#### **Calculation of new centroids**

New	Obje	ects
Centroid	A1	A2
c <sub>1</sub>	4.6	7.1
c <sub>2</sub>	8.2	10.7
c <sub>3</sub>	6.6	18.6



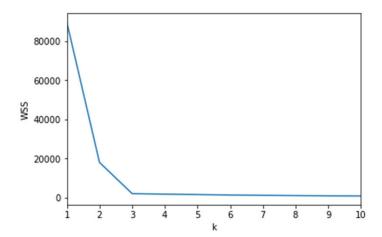
Initial cluster with new centroids

Note that point p moves from cluster  $C_2$  to cluster  $C_1$ .



#### 1. Value of k:

- The k-means algorithm produces only one set of clusters, for which, user must specify the desired number, k of clusters.
- The Elbow Method
- Within-Cluster-Sum of Squared Errors



### k versus cluster quality

k	SSE	
1	62.8	
2	12.3	
3	9.4	
4	9.3	
5	9.2	
6	9.1	
7	9.05	
8	9.0	

- With respect to this observation, we can choose the value of  $k \approx 3$ , as with this smallest value of k it gives reasonably good result.
- Note: If k = n, then error=0; However, the cluster is useless! overfitting.

### 2. Choosing initial centroids:

- k-Means algorithm terminate whatever be the initial choice of the cluster centroids.
- initial choice influences the cluster quality- local optima
- choose initial centroids in multiple runs, each with a different set of randomly chosen initial centroids, and then select the best cluster
- However, this strategy suffers from the combinational explosion problem

#### **Distance Measurement:**

To assign a point to the closest centroid, we need a proximity measure that should quantify the notion of "closest" for the objects under clustering.

Data in Euclidean space (L<sub>2</sub> norm):

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} (c_i - x)^2$$

Data in Euclidean space ( $L_1$  norm):

$$SAE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} |c_i - x|$$

For document objects, the objective function, called Total cohesion denoted as TC and defined as

$$TC = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} \cos(x, c_i)$$

where 
$$cos(x, c_i) = \frac{x \cdot c_i}{\|x\| \|c_i\|}$$

The criteria of objective function with different proximity measures

- 1. SSE (using  $L_2$  norm): To minimize the SSE.
- 2. SAE (using  $L_1$  norm) : To minimize the SAE.
- 3. TC(using cosine similarity): To maximize the TC.

### 4. Type of objects under clustering:

• The k-Means algorithm can be applied only when the mean of the cluster is defined (hence it named k-Means).

$$c_i = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$$

- mean calculation assumed that each object is defined with numerical attribute
- Need the existence of cluster mean exists, but not necessarily it does have as defined in the above equation.

### Case 1: SSE

We know,

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} (c_i - x)^2$$
 Or

To minimize SSE means,  $\frac{\partial (SSE)}{\partial c_i} = 0$ 

Or,

Thus,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial c_i} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in \mathcal{C}_i} (c_i - x)^2 \right) = 0$$

 $n_i \cdot c_i = \sum_{x \in C_i} x$ 

 $\sum_{x \in C_i} 2(c_i - x) = 0$ 

Or,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial c_i} (c_i - x)^2 = 0$$

Thus, the best centroid for minimizing SSE of a cluster is the mean of the objects in the cluster.

#### Case 2: SAE

We know,

$$SAE = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} |c_i - x|$$

To minimize SAE means,  $\frac{\partial (SAE)}{\partial c_i} = 0$ 

Thus,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial c_i} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in \mathcal{C}_i} |c_i - x| \right) = 0$$

Or,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{x \in C_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial c_i} |c_i - x| = 0$$

Or,

$$\sum_{x \in C_i} \left\{ (x - c_i) \Big|_{if \ x > C_i} + (c_i - x) \Big|_{if \ C_i > x} \right\} = 0$$

Solving the above equation, we get

 $c_i = median\{x | x \in \mathbf{C}_i\}$ 

the best centroid for minimizing SAE of a cluster is the median of the objects in the cluster.

### 5. Complexity analysis of k-Means algorithm

### Time complexity:

The time complexity of the k-Means algorithm can be expressed as

$$T(n) = O(n \times m \times k \times l)$$

where n = number of objects

m = number of attributes in the object definition

k = number of clusters

l = number of iterations.

Thus, time requirement is a linear order of number of objects and the algorithm runs in a modest time if  $k \ll n$  and  $l \ll n$  (the iteration can be moderately controlled to check the value of l).

### 5. Complexity analysis of k-Means algorithm

Space complexity: The storage complexity can be expressed as follows.

It requires  $n \times m$  space to store the objects and  $n \times k$  space to store the proximity measure from n objects to the centroids of k clusters.

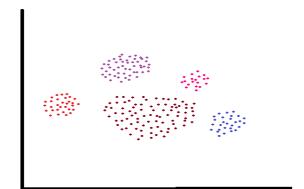
Thus the total storage complexity is

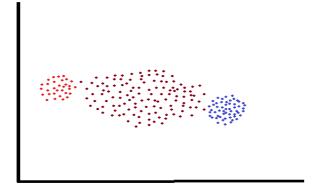
$$S(n) = O(n \times (m+k))$$

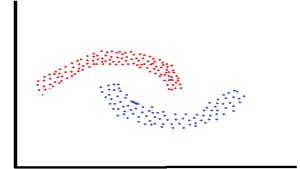
That is, space requirement is in the linear order of n if  $k \ll n$ .

### Limitations:

- k-means has trouble clustering data that contains outliers.
- k-Means algorithm cannot handle, clusters of different sizes and densities
- k-Means algorithm cannot handle non-globular clusters
- scalability issue (and not so practical for large databases).







# Different variants of k-means algorithm

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# Summary

- K-means clustering is an unsupervised learning algorithm
- The goal of this algorithm is to find clusters in the data given number of clusters
- Iteratively assign each data point to one of K groups using a similarity measure
- The results of the K-means clustering algorithm are:
  - The centroids of the K clusters, which can be used to label new data
  - Labels for the training data
  - Fast, robust and easier to understand.
- Relatively efficient

Slides reference: https://cse.iitkgp.ac.in/~dsamanta/courses/da/index.html

# K- medoid algorithm

### The k-Medoids algorithm

- k-Means algorithm is sensitive to outliers . k-Medoids algorithm aims to diminish the effect of outliers.
- select an object as a cluster center instead of taking the mean value of the objects in a cluster as in k-Means algorithm.
- cluster representative is called cluster medoid
- Initially, it selects a random set of k objects as the set of medoids.
- In each step, all objects from the set of objects, which are not currently medoids are examined one by one to see if they should be medoids.
- The sum-of-absolute error (SAE) function is used as the objective function.

$$SAE = \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{x \in C_i, x \notin M \text{ and } c_m \in M} |x - c_m|$$

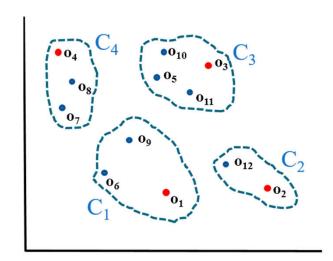
Where  $c_m$  denotes a medoid

*M* is the set of all medoids at any instant

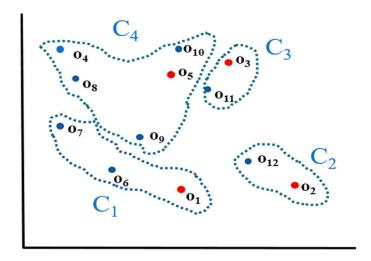
x is an object belongs to set of non-medoid object, that is, x belongs to some cluster and is not a medoid. i.e.  $x \in C_i$ ,  $x \notin M$ 

### PAM (Partitioning around Medoids)

- k-Medoids algorithm is also known as PAM (Partitioning around Medoids).
- Suppose, there are set of 12 objects  $O(o_1, o_2, ..., o_{12})$  cluster them into four clusters.
- assume that  $o_1$ ,  $o_2$ ,  $o_3$ , and  $o_4$  are the medoids in the clusters  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ ,  $C_3$  and  $C_4$ ,
- if  $o_5$  is considered as candidate medoid instead of  $o_4$ , then it gives the lowest SAE.



(a) Cluster with  $o_1$ ,  $o_2$ ,  $o_3$ , and  $o_4$  as medoids



(b) Cluster after swapping  $o_4$  and  $o_5$  ( $o_5$  becomes the new medoid).

### Numerical Example

	X	Y	Dissimilarity from C1	Dissimilarity from C2
0	8	7	6	2
1	3	7	3	7
2	4	9	4	8
3	9	6	6	2
4	8	5	-	-
5	5	8	4	6
6	7	3	5	3
7	8	4	5	Click to enlarge 1
8	7	5	3	1
9	4	5	_	-

randomly select one non-medoid point and recalculate the cost. (8, 4)

	X	Y	Dissimilarity from C1	Dissimilarity from C2
0	8	7	6	3
1	3	7	3	8
2	4	9	4	9
3	9	6	6	3
4	8	5	4	1
5	5	8	4	7
6	7	3	5	2
7	8	4	-,	-
8	7	5	3	2
9	4	5	-	-

The points 1, 2, 5 go to cluster c1 and 0, 3, 6, 7, 8 go to cluster c2

Cost = 
$$(3 + 4 + 4) + (3 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 2) = 20$$

New cost = (3 + 4 + 4) + (2 + 2 + 1 + 3 + 3) = 22Swap Cost = New Cost - Previous Cost = 22 - 20 and 2 > 0As the swap cost is not less than zero, we undo the swap

### PAM (Partitioning around Medoids)

#### **Algorithm PAM**

Input: Database of objects D.

k, the number of desired clusters.

Output: Set of k clusters

#### Steps:

- 1. Arbitrarily select k medoids from D.
- **2.** For each object  $o_i$  not a medoid do
- 3. For each medoid  $o_i$  do
- 4. Let  $M = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_{i-1}, o_i, o_{i+1}, o_k\}$  //Set of current medoids  $M' = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_{j-1}, o_j, o_{j+1}, o_k\}$  //set of medoids but swap with non-medoids  $o_j$
- 5. Calculate  $cost(o_i, o_j) = SAE|_M SAE_M$ ,
- 6. **End** of 2 for loop

### PAM (Partitioning around Medoids)

- 7. Find  $o_i$ ,  $o_j$  for which the  $cost(o_i, o_j)$  is the smallest.
- 8. Replace  $o_i$  with  $o_i$  and accordingly update the set M.
- 9. Repeat step 2 step 8 until  $cost(o_i, o_i) \le 0$ .
- 10. Return the cluster with M as the set of cluster centers.
- 11. Stop

#### Comments on PAM

#### 1. Comparing k-Means with k-Medoids:

- Both algorithms needs to fix k, the number of cluster prior to the algorithms.
- The k-Medoid method is more robust than k-Means in the presence of outliers,

#### 2. Time complexity of PAM:

- For each iteration, PAM consider k(n-k) pairs of object  $o_i$ ,  $o_j$  for which a cost  $cost(o_i, o_j)$  determines. Calculating the cost during each iteration requires that the cost be calculated for all other non-medoids  $o_i$ . There are n-k of these.
- total time complexity per iteration is  $n(n-k)^2$ . The total number of iterations may be quite large.

#### 3. Applicability of PAM:

• PAM does not scale well to large database because of its computation complexity.

### Other variants of k-Medoids algorithms

• There are some variants of PAM that are targeted mainly large datasets are CLARA (Clustering LARge Applications) and CLARANS (Clustering Large Applications based upon RANdomized Search), it is an improvement of CLARA.

#### References:

#### For PAM and CLARA:

• L. kaufman and P. J. Rousseew, "Finding Groups in Data: An introduction to cluster analysis", John and Wiley, 1990.

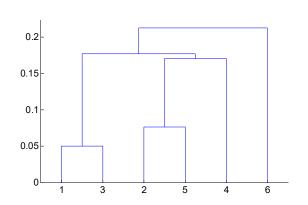
#### For CLARANS:

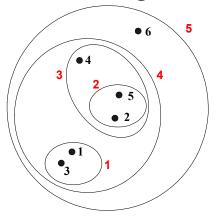
• R. Ng and J. Han, "Efficient and effective clustering method for spatial Data mining", Proceeding very large databases [VLDB-94], 1994.

# Hierarchical Clustering

## Hierarchical Clustering

- Produces a set of nested clusters organized as a hierarchical tree
- Do not have to assume any particular number of clusters
- Can be visualized as a dendrogram
  - A tree like diagram that records the sequences of merges or splits

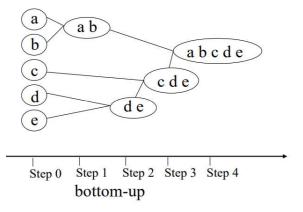




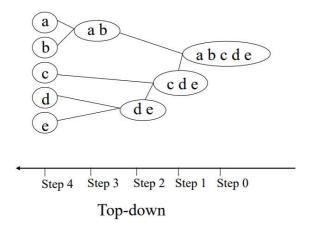
### Hierarchical Clustering

- Two main types of hierarchical clustering
  - Agglomerative:
    - Start with the points as individual clusters
    - At each step, merge the closest pair of clusters until only one cluster (or k clusters) left
  - Divisive:
    - Start with one, all-inclusive cluster
    - At each step, split a cluster until each cluster contains a point (or there are k clusters)
- Traditional hierarchical algorithms use a similarity or distance matrix
  - Merge or split one cluster at a time

#### · Agglomerative approach



#### Divisive Approaches

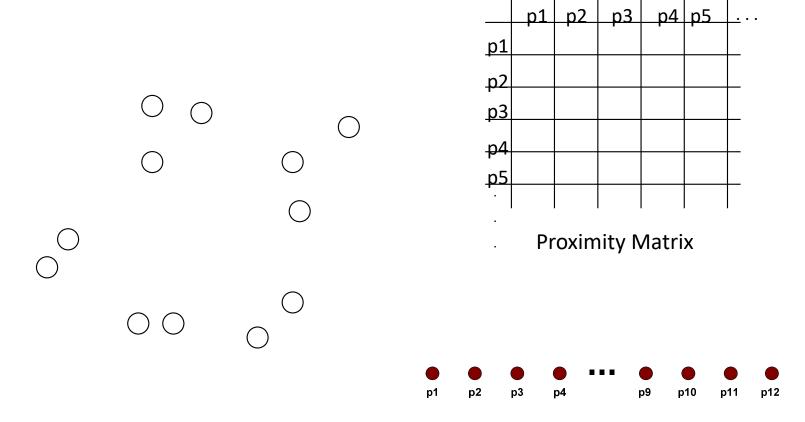


### Agglomerative Clustering Algorithm

- More popular hierarchical clustering technique
- Basic algorithm is straightforward
  - 1. Compute the proximity matrix
  - 2. Let each data point be a cluster
  - 3. Repeat
  - 4. Merge the two closest clusters
  - 5. Update the proximity matrix
  - **6. Until** only a single cluster remains
- Key operation is the computation of the proximity of two clusters
  - Different approaches to defining the distance between clusters distinguish the different algorithms

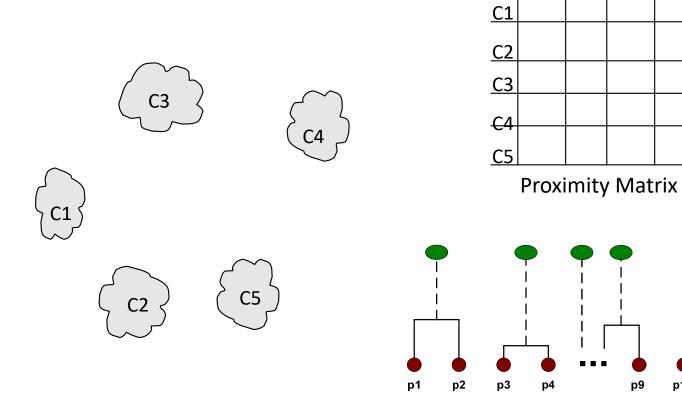
# Agglomerative Clustering – Initial setup

• Start with clusters of individual points and a proximity matrix



### Intermediate Situation

After some merging steps, we have some clusters



C2

C1

C3

р9

p10

p12

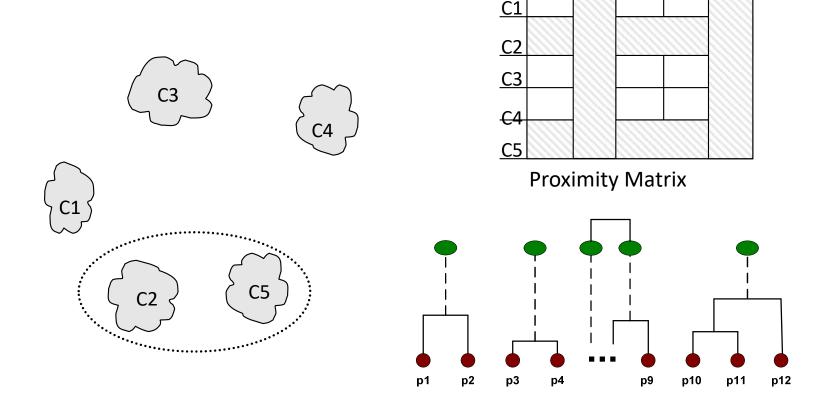
C4

C5

### Intermediate Situation

We want to merge the two closest clusters (C2 and C5) and update the proximity

matrix.



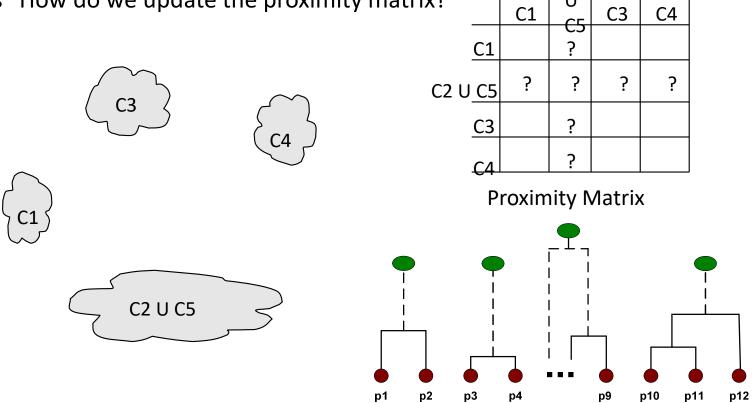
C1 C2

C4 C5

С3

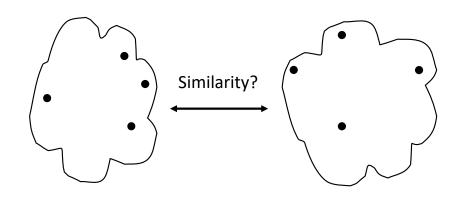
# After Merging

The question is "How do we update the proximity matrix?"



C2

# How to Define Inter-Cluster Similarity

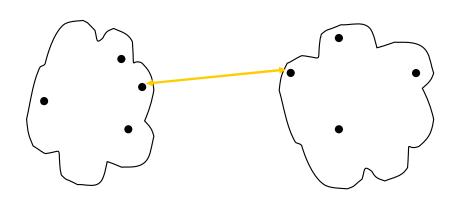


	p1	p2	рЗ	p4	p5	<u>.</u> .
<u>p1</u>						
<u>p2</u>						
<u>p2</u> <u>p3</u>						
<u>p4</u>						
<u>p4</u> <u>p5</u>						
•						

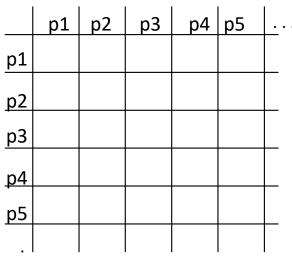
- MIN (Single Link )
- □ MAX
- Group Average
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods driven by an objective function
  - Ward's Method uses squared error

**Proximity Matrix** 

## How to Define Inter-Cluster Similarity

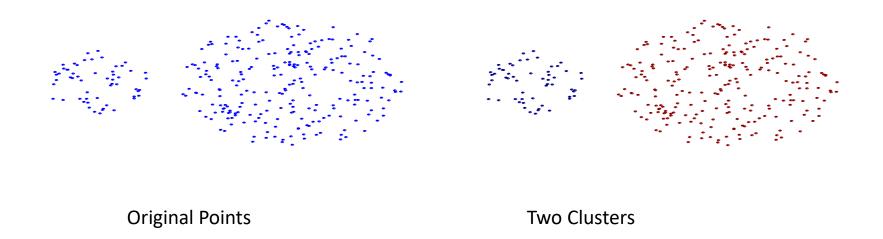


**Proximity Matrix** 



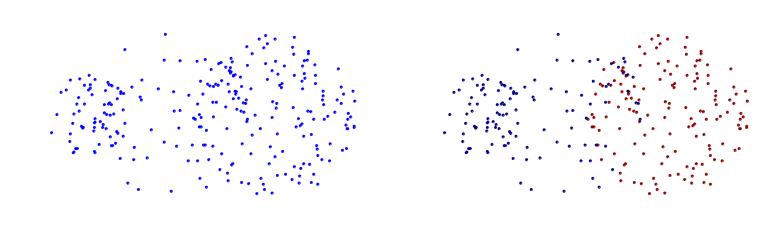
- □ MIN(Single Link): Similarity of two clusters is based on the two most similar (closest) points in the different clusters. Determined by one pair of points, i.e., by one link in the proximity graph.
- MAX
- Group Average
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods driven by an objective function
  - Ward's Method uses squared error

# Strength of MIN



• Can handle non-elliptical shapes

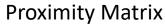
### **Limitations of MIN**

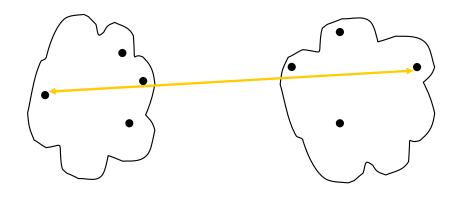


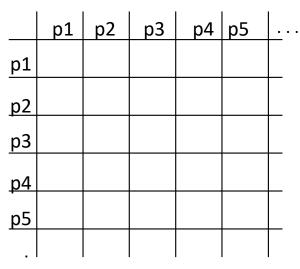
**Original Points** 

• Sensitive to noise and outliers

# How to Define Inter-Cluster Similarity

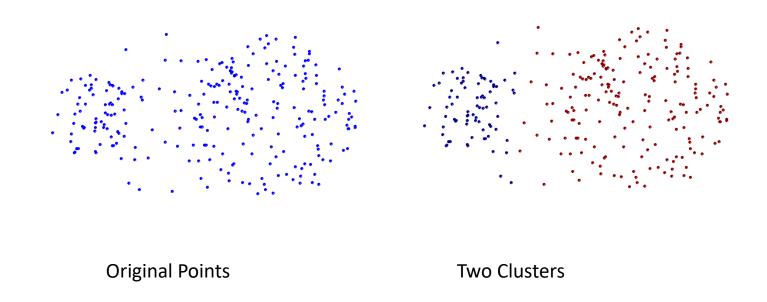






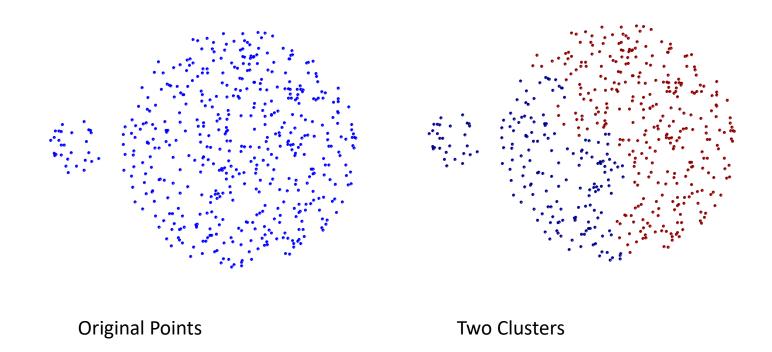
- MIN
- ☐ MAX(Complete Link): Similarity of two clusters is based on the two least similar (most distant) points in the different clusters. Determined by all pairs of points in the two clusters
- Group Average
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods driven by an objective function
  - Ward's Method uses squared error

# Strength of MAX



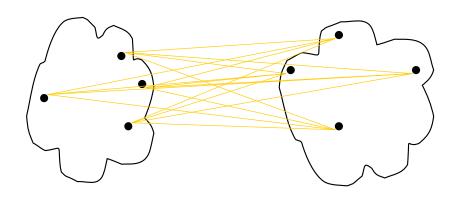
• Less susceptible to noise and outliers

#### Limitations of MAX

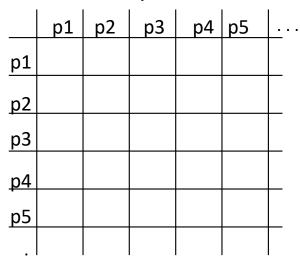


- •Tends to break large clusters
- •Biased towards globular clusters

## How to Define Inter-Cluster Similarity



**Proximity Matrix** 

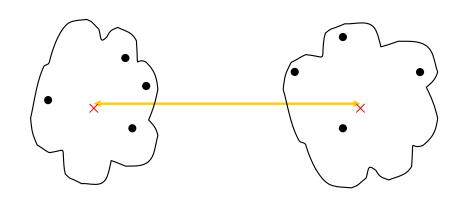


- MIN
- MAX
- Group Average Proximity of two clusters is the average of pairwise proximity between points in the two clusters
- Distance Between Centroids
- Other methods driven by an objective function
  - Ward's Method uses squared error

## Hierarchical Clustering: Group Average

- Compromise between Single and Complete Link
- Strengths
  - Less susceptible to noise and outliers
- Limitations
  - Biased towards globular clusters

# How to Define Inter-Cluster Similarity

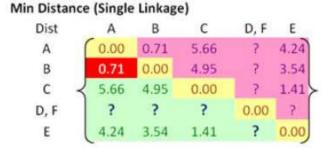


Proximity Matrix p1 p2 p3 p4 p5						
	p1	p2	р3	p4	p5	<u> </u>
р1						
p2						
<u>р2</u> р3						
<u>р4</u> р5						

- MIN
- MAX
- Group Average
- Distance Between Centroids

## Agglomerative Clustering – Numerical Example





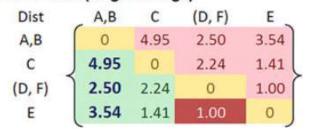
distance between cluster (D, F) and cluster A  $d_{(D,F)\rightarrow A} = \min(d_{DA}, d_{FA}) = \min(3.61, 3.20) = 3.20$ 

Distance between cluster (D, F) and cluster B is  $d_{(D,F)\to B} = \min(d_{DB}, d_{FB}) = \min(2.92, 2.50) = 2.50$ 

distance between cluster (D, F) and cluster C is  $d_{(D,F)\to C} = \min(d_{DC}, d_{FC}) = \min(2.24, 2.50) = 2.24$ 

distance between cluster E and cluster (D, F) is calculated as  $d_{E\to(D,F)} = \min(d_{ED}, d_{EF}) = \min(1.00, 1.12) = 1.00$ 

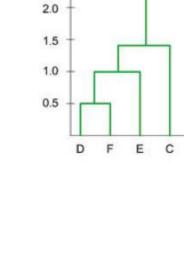
#### Min Distance (Single Linkage)

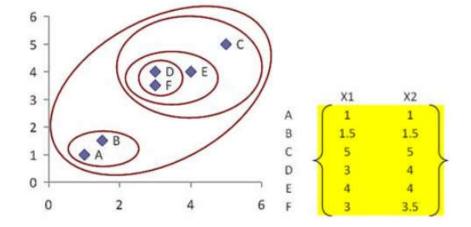


#### Min Distance (Single Linkage)

#### Min Distance (Single Linkage)

- 1. In the beginning we have 6 clusters: A, B, C, D, E and F
- 2. We merge cluster D and F into cluster (D, F) at distance 0.50
- 3. We merge cluster A and cluster B into (A, B) at distance 0.71
- 4. We merge cluster E and (D, F) into ((D, F), E) at distance 1.00
- 5. We merge cluster ((D, F), E) and C into (((D, F), E), C) at distance 1.41
- 6. We merge cluster (((D, F), E), C) and (A, B) into ((((D, F), E), C), (A, B)) at distance 2.50
- 7. The last cluster contain all the objects, thus conclude the computation





# Hierarchical Clustering: Problems and Limitations

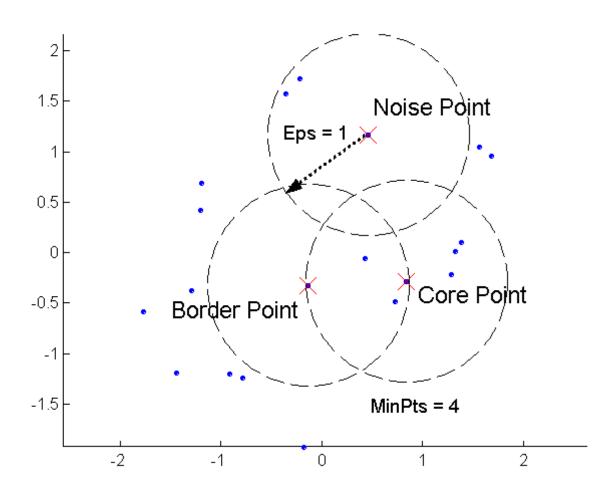
- Once a decision is made to combine two clusters, it cannot be undone
- No objective function is directly minimized
- Different schemes have problems with one or more of the following:
  - Sensitivity to noise and outliers
  - Difficulty handling different sized clusters and convex shapes
  - Breaking large clusters

# Density Based Clustering

#### **DBSCAN**

- DBSCAN is a density-based algorithm.
  - Density = number of points within a specified radius (Eps)
  - A point is a core point if it has more than a specified number of points (MinPts) within Eps
    - These are points that are at the interior of a cluster
  - A border point has fewer than MinPts within Eps, but is in the neighborhood of a core point
  - A noise point is any point that is not a core point or a border point.

#### DBSCAN: Core, Border, and Noise Points



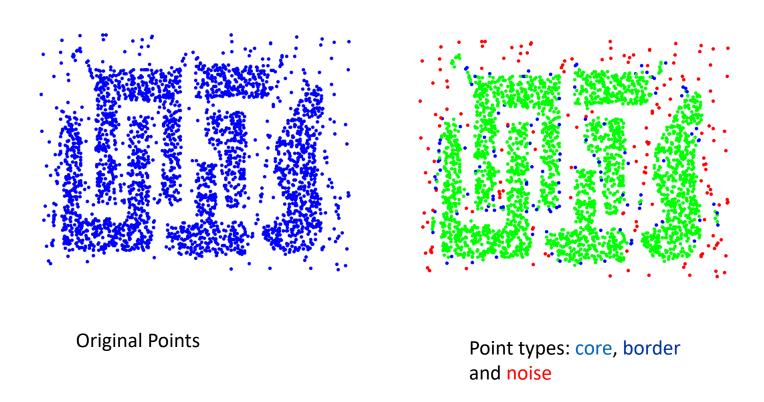
### DBSCAN Algorithm

- Eliminate noise points
- Perform clustering on the remaining points

#### Algorithm 8.4 DBSCAN algorithm.

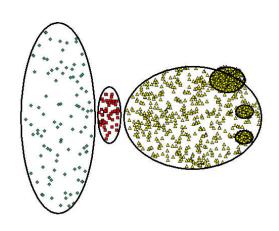
- 1: Label all points as core, border, or noise points.
- 2: Eliminate noise points.
- 3: Put an edge between all core points that are within Eps of each other.
- 4: Make each group of connected core points into a separate cluster.
- 5: Assign each border point to one of the clusters of its associated core points.

#### DBSCAN: Core, Border and Noise Points



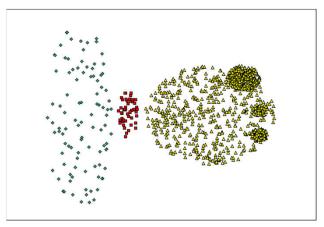
Eps = 10, MinPts = 4

#### When DBSCAN Does NOT Work Well

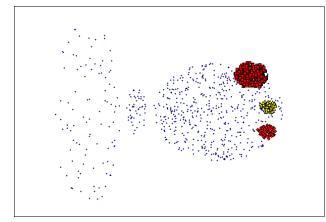


**Original Points** 

- Varying densities
- High-dimensional data



(MinPts=4, Eps=9.75).



(MinPts=4, Eps=9.92)

# Cluster Validity

### Cluster Validity

- For supervised classification we have a variety of measures to evaluate how good our model is
  - Accuracy, precision, recall
- For cluster analysis, the analogous question is how to evaluate the "goodness" of the resulting clusters?
- Then why do we want to evaluate them?
  - To avoid finding patterns in noise
  - To compare clustering algorithms
  - To compare two sets of clusters
  - To compare two clusters

#### Different Aspects of Cluster Validation

- 1. Determining the clustering tendency of a set of data, i.e., distinguishing whether non-random structure actually exists in the data.
- Comparing the results of a cluster analysis to externally known results, e.g., to externally given class labels.
- 3. Evaluating how well the results of a cluster analysis fit the data *without* reference to external information.
  - Use only the data
- 4. Comparing the results of two different sets of cluster analyses to determine which is better.
- 5. Determining the 'correct' number of clusters.

#### Measures of Cluster Validity

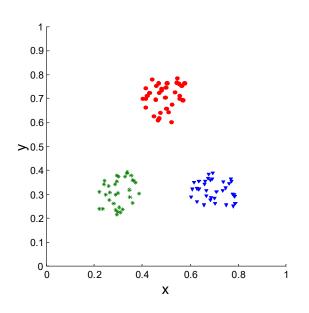
- Numerical measures that are applied to judge various aspects of cluster validity, are classified into the following three types.
  - External Index: Used to measure the extent to which cluster labels match externally supplied class labels.
    - Entropy
  - Internal Index: Used to measure the goodness of a clustering structure without respect to external information.
    - Sum of Squared Error (SSE)
  - Relative Index: Used to compare two different clusterings or clusters.
    - Often an external or internal index is used for this function, e.g., SSE or entropy

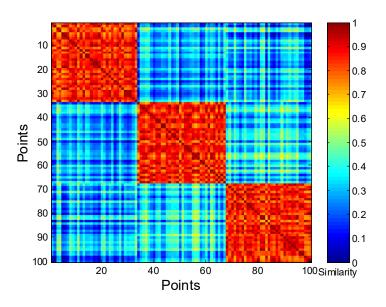
#### Measuring Cluster Validity Via Correlation

- Two matrices
  - Proximity Matrix
  - "Incidence" Matrix
    - One row and one column for each data point
    - An entry is 1 if the associated pair of points belong to the same cluster
    - An entry is 0 if the associated pair of points belongs to different clusters
- Compute the correlation between the two matrices
  - Since the matrices are symmetric, only the correlation between n(n-1) / 2 entries needs to be calculated.
- High correlation indicates that points that belong to the same cluster are close to each other.
- Not a good measure for some density or contiguity based clusters.

#### Using Similarity Matrix for Cluster Validation

 Order the similarity matrix with respect to cluster labels and inspect visually.





#### Internal Measures: Cohesion and Separation

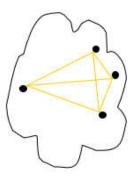
- Cluster Cohesion: Measures how closely related are objects in a cluster
  - Example: SSE
- Cluster Separation: Measure how distinct or well-separated a cluster is from other clusters
- **Example: Squared Error** 
  - Cohesion is measured by the within cluster sum of squares (SSE)

$$WSS = \sum \sum (x - m_i)^2$$

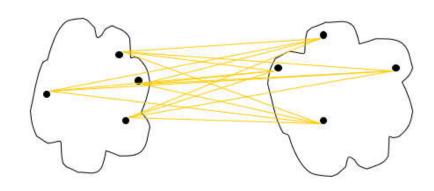
 $\textit{WSS} = \sum_{i} \sum_{x \in C} (x - m_i)^2$  • Separation is measured by the between cluster sum of squares  $BSS = \sum |C_i| (m - m_i)^2$ 

$$res BSS = \sum_{i} |C_{i}| (m - m_{i})^{2}$$

• Where |C<sub>i</sub>| is the size of cluster i



cohesion



separation

#### References

- Tan, Pang-Ning, Michael Steinbach, and Vipin Kumar. *Introduction to data mining*. Pearson Education India, 2016.
- <a href="https://cse.iitkgp.ac.in/~dsamanta/courses/da/index.html">https://cse.iitkgp.ac.in/~dsamanta/courses/da/index.html</a>