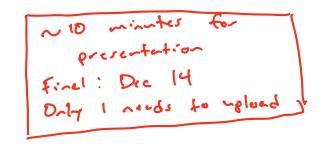


This Unit

- Unsupervised Learning
 - Clustering
 - K-Means
 - Hierarchical (Agglomerative)
 - DBSCAN



Unsupervised Learning

With unsupervised learning:

```
no more labels
```

- Can we find subgroups among the observations?
 - Are there interesting patterns?

- Hard to assess the performance
 - How to do that without ground truth labels?
 - More challenging, and subjective
 - Needs manual assessment

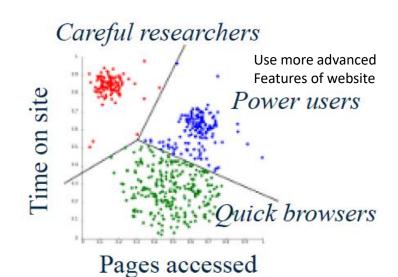




Unsupervised Learning

Examples:

- Market Segmentation: Identify subgroups of people who are more receptive to particular advertisement and are likely to purchase a particular product
 - Features could be: household income, occupation, ...
- E-commerce: Clustering could also be performed based on browsing activity
 - Tailor website for each group

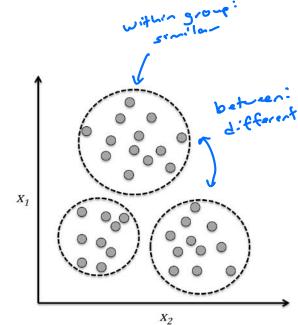


Clustering is based on how similar observations are to one another

- Find distinct groups in the data
 - Observation within a group are quite similar
 - Observations in different groups are different from each other
- Similar or different are based on the domain/application and data being studied







Well-known Algorithms

Algorithms:

- K means
- Agglomerative Clustering
- DBSCAN: Density Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise

K-Means

- Partition the observations into <u>pre-specified</u> number of clusters (equal to K)
- Data is partitioned into K clusters, each observation is assigned to one of these clusters

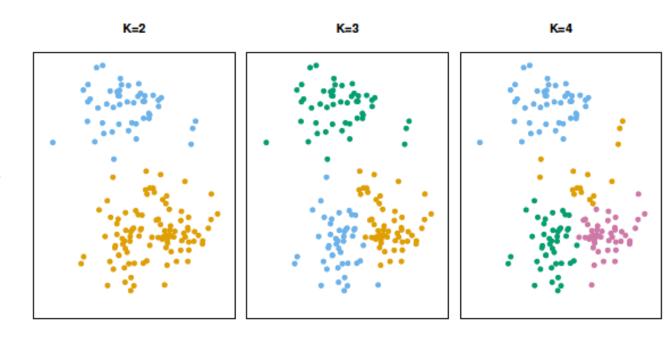
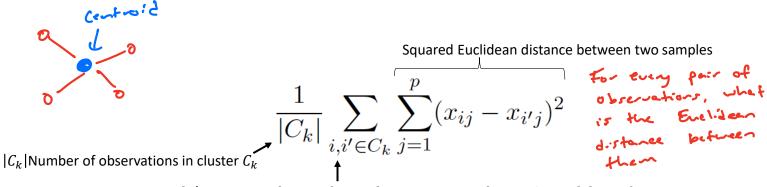


Figure: k=2,3,4 clusters each cluster has different color

Within cluster variation should be small

- Idea: find clusters where the within-cluster variations is as small as possible
 - Within-cluster variation (WCV) is the amount by which the observations within a cluster differ from each other
- Suppose, K clusters represented by set: C_1 , C_2 ,..., C_K
 - Each set contains the indices of observations within the cluster
- Within-cluster variation of C_k can be expressed as



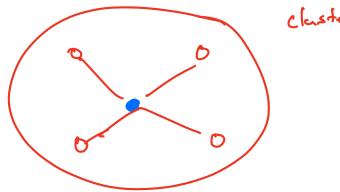
i and i' are two indicies of two observations in cluster C_k , each has p features

Similarity can be measured using distance from cluster centroids

 Within-cluster variation can also be measured by how far observations are form their cluster centroids

Squared Euclidean distance between sample and cluster centroid
$$\sum_{i \in C_k} \|x_i - \mu_k\|^2$$

• μ_k : is centroid of a cluster k; it's a vector of length equal to number of features (p)



Define objective function

- Define responsibilities: r_{ik} cluster k is responsible of generating sample i
 - r_{ik} =1 if sample i belongs to cluster k, r_{ik} = 0 otherwise
 - $r_{ik} \in \{0,1\}$
 - $\sum_k r_{ik} = 1$
- Example: if there are 5 data points, & 3 clusters

• Example: If there are 3 data points, & 3 cluster
$$[r_{ik}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Cluster } 1: (1, 3) \\ \text{Cluster } 2: (2, 5) \\ \text{Cluster } 3: (4) \\ \text{Cluster } 3: (4) \\ \text{Cluster } 3: (4) \\ \text{Cost function } J = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{ik} \|x_i - \mu_k\|^2 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} r_{ik} x_i \\ \text{Centroid } 1 \end{array}$$

K-Means problem formulation – Hard to solve

• Optimization problem: finding clustering (μ_k for all k) that minimize the within-cluster variation

ze the within-cluster variation
$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{ik} \|x_i - \mu_k\|^2$$

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} |x_i|^2 \int_{0}^{\infty} |x_i|^2$$

- Solution is difficult no-closed form solution
- A simplified algorithm can find sub-optimum solution

Find Solutions via Expectation Maximization Algorithm

• The previous problem suggests an iterative scheme to find the solution

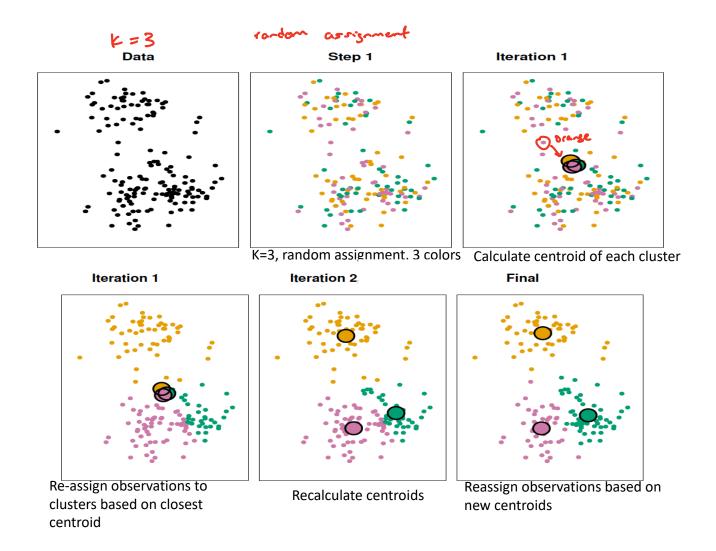
- Expectation maximization is an iterative approach that can provide solutions to such problem – via following steps
 - 1. Make initial guesses for the paratmers (e.g. Centroids)
 - 2. Alternate between the following two steps
 - E-step (Expectation): Find the hidden structure via the current parameters
 - M-step (maximization): Update/re-estimate the parameters by observing hidden structure in E-step

```
E-step: Find clusters using centroids
M-step: Change controids (take mean of cluster)
```

K-Means Clustering Algorithm

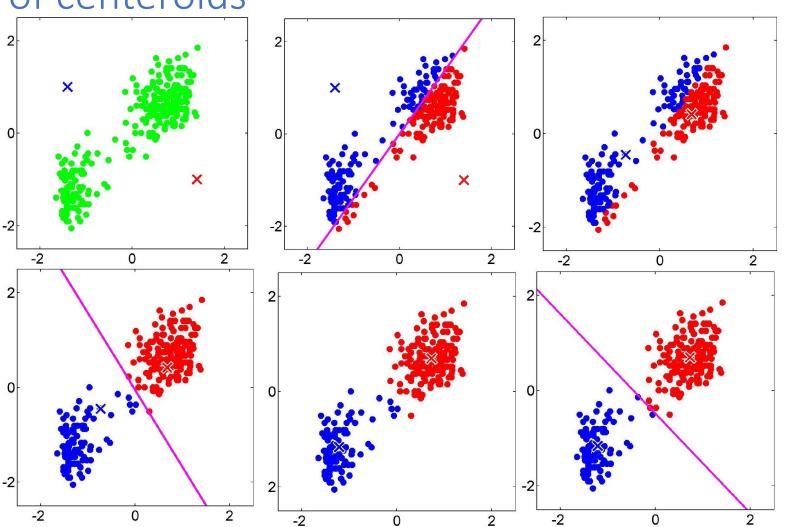
Set value of K!

- Step 1: Random Initialization of clusters Get the initial centroids
 - randomly select centroids from training data
 - Other implementation: Randomly assign each observation to a cluster (1,2,... K), then find the centroids based on this random assignment
- Step 2
 - a) (E-step): Assign each point to a cluster based on the nearest centroid
 - b) (M-step): Re-evaluate centroids
 - Compute the cluster center (centroid) == mean of the observations assigned to that cluster.
 - Assign each observation to the cluster with closest centroid
 - Iterate over a and b until cluster assignment stops changing



We can improve initialization step!

Another example with different initialization of centeroids



K-Means, Initialization

- The algorithm may converge to a local minimum
- The result depends on the initial random assignment
 - Run algorithm multiple times with different initial configuration, then select solution with smallest within-cluster variations

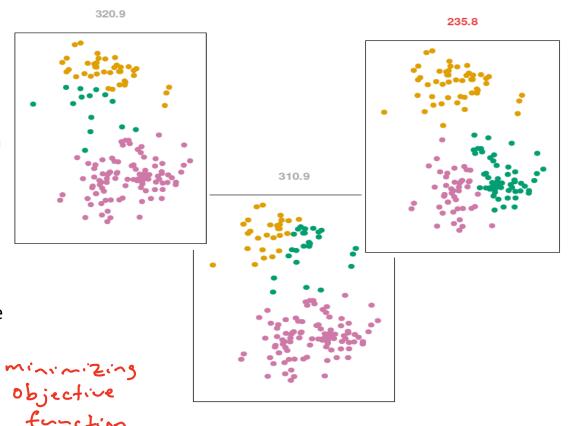
Example: Different Initial Setting Results in Different Clustering

K=3, each cluster is represented by different color

Each figure represents an output of K-Means clustering with different random assignment of observations at the beginning

Different local optima are obtained

Best solution results in objective (lowest withincluster variation) of 235.8



Variants of K-Means

• K-means ++: Chooses the initial centroids as far as possible from each other

Soft K-means:

- Typical K-means is a hard clustering, where each sample is assigned to one cluster
- Soft clustering uses probabilities of membership of each sample to one of the clusters

Helps when there are outliers

• Example: Hard cluserting, with K=3 clusters, a sample (i) in 2^{nd} cluster can be represented by a

weight vector (responsibility)
$$r_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
,

In soft clustering, responsibility contains probabilities that depend on how close/far the sample is from the centroids,

e.g.
$$r_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1 \\ 0.85 \\ 0.05 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\mu_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n r_{ik}}$

K-means in Python

<u>http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.cluster.KMeans.html</u>

from sklearn.cluster import Kmeans
kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=NumberOfClusters, random_state=0).fit(X)

- To use Kmeans++: set init='k-means++'
- Use .predict to predict cluster of an observation
- Attributes:
 - cluster_centers_
 - labels_: has cluster assignment of each point
 - inertia_: is the sum of squared distances of samples to their closest cluster center

If labels are know we can easily evalute!

Evaluation: **if labels are known**, we can use metrics such as adjusted_rand_score

 adjusted_rand_score output 0 for random clustering and 1 for perfect clustering

```
from sklearn.metrics.cluster import adjusted_rand_score
```

```
kmeans_assignment = KMeans(n_clusters=2, random_state=0).fit_predict(X_train_pca)

print("Clustering score:", adjusted_rand_score(kmeans_assignment,Y_train))

Clustering doesn't care about actual (abol -
any the grouping)
```

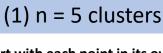
Agglomerative (Hierarchical) Clustering

- Disadvantage of K-means: need to specify number of clusters
 - We may not know how many clusters in advance
- Hierarchical Clustering: Produce a <u>dendrogram</u>, which is a tree-based representation of data that shows the clustering obtained for each possible number of clusters
- Agglomerative clustering is common type of hierarchical clustering
 - bottom-up: tree is built starting from leaves

Example: Hierarchical Clustering with n=5 observations



Calculate all n(n-1)/2 pair-wise dissimilarities, and merge the least dissimilar (most similar)

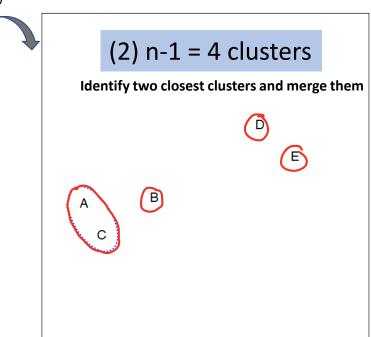


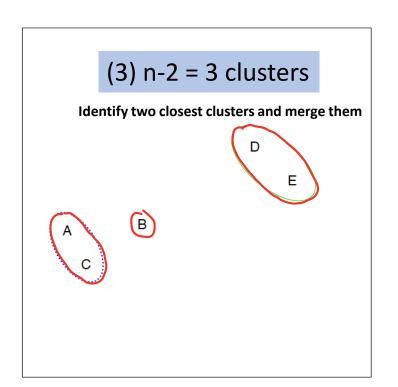
Start with each point in its own cluster

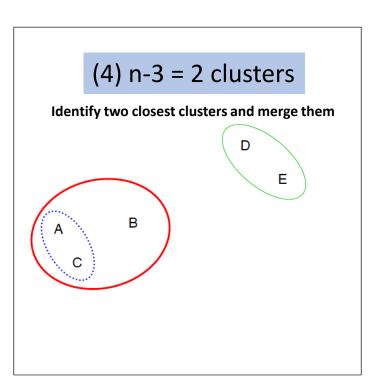
D

Ε

A B

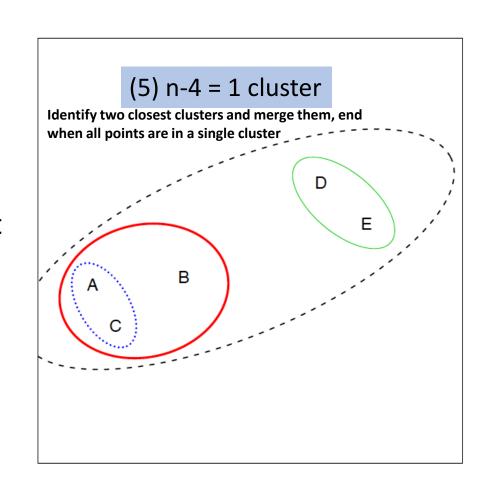






 Hierarchical clustering provides information about clustering obtained with different number of clusters

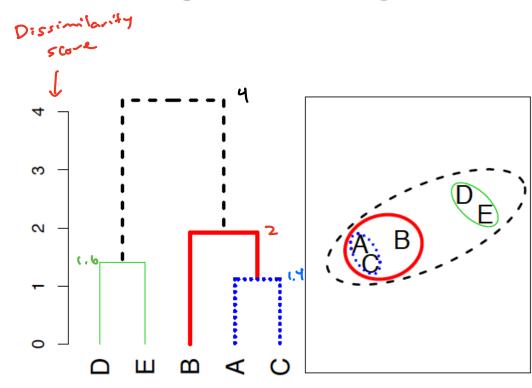
 Number of cluster ranges from: n to 1



Hierarchical Clustering: Dendrogram

- Dendrogram: read from bottom to up
- Dissimilarity can be Euclidian distance, correlation,..

- Height of a branch represents how far, i.e., dissimilar, the merged clusters are
 - Observations that fuse at bottom of the tree are more similar to those merged at the top



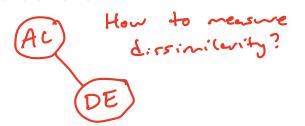
Dendrogram

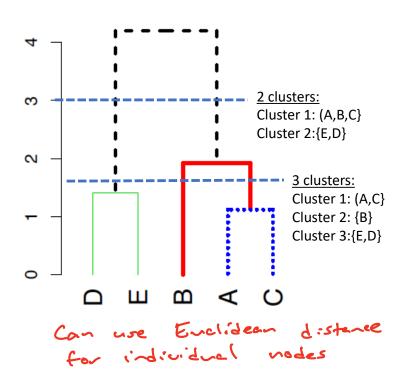
can set threshold for dissimilarity scores

Using the Dendrogram

 Cut dendrogram at a certain height to get clusters

In previous example:
 Cut at height 3 → get 2
 clusters
 Cut at height 1.6 → get 3
 clusters



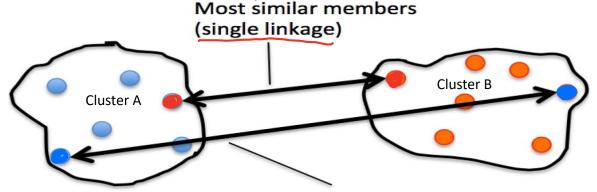


How to Measure Dissimilarity Between Clusters?

- We need to compute the dissimilarity
 - To know which clusters to be merged and at what height
 - Merge clusters that are least dissimilar (most similar)
- Linkage: defines the dissimilarity between two groups/clusters
- Types of linkage are:
 - Complete
 - Single
 - Average
 - Centroid
 - Ward
 - Ward merges clusters that lead to the minimum increase of the total within-cluster variation.

Types of Linkage

<u>Single linkage</u> (minimal inter-cluster dissimilarity): compute all pairwise dissimilarity between samples in cluster A and B, and record **smallest** of them (This will be the dissimilarity between cluster A and Cluster B)



Most dissimilar members (complete linkage)

<u>Complete linkage</u> (maximal inter-cluster dissimilarity): compute all pairwise dissimilarity between samples in cluster A and B, and **largest** of them will be the dissimilarity between the two groups

Types of Linkage ... Cont.

- Average linkage: compute all pairwise dissimilarity between samples in cluster A and B, and record average of these dissimilarities
- <u>Centroid linkage:</u> compute the dissimilarity between centroid for cluster A and cluster B. Centroid for cluster A

Dendrogram of Hierarchical Clustering depends on the type of linkage used

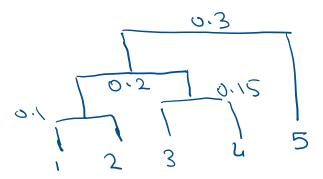
Example: Single linkage

DISSIMILARITY between observations	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3	Observation 4	Observation 5
Observation 1	0				
Observation 2	0.1	0			
Observation 3	0.5	0.25	0		
Observation 4	0.8	0.2	0.15	0	
Observation 5	0.3	0.75	0.7	0.4	0

smaller of D13, D23												
	1,2	3	4	5			1,2	3,4	5		1,2,3 ,4	5
										1,	0	
1, 2	0					1, 2	0			2,3,4		
3	0.25	0				3,4	0.2	0		5	0.3	0
4	0.2	0.15	0				0.3	0.4	0			
5	0.3	0.7	0.4	0								

Example: Single linkage

DISSIMILARITY between observations	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3	Observation 4	Observation 5
Observation 1	0				
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Observation 3	0.5	0.25	0		
Observation 4	0.8	0.2	0.15	0	
Observation 5	0.3	0.75	0.7	0.4	0



Example: Single linkage and Complete linkage

DISSIMILARITY between observations	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3	Observation 4	Observation 5
Observation 1	0				
Observation 2	0.1	0			
Observation 3	0.5	0.25	0		
Observation 4	0.8	0.2	0.15	0	
Observation 5	0.3	0.75	0.7	0.4	0

Single linkage:

Step 1: G12=Group (1,2), dissimilarity 0.1

Step 2: G34= Group (3,4), dissimilarity 0.15

Step 3: G1234=Group (G12, G34), dissimilarity 0.2

Step 5: Group (G1234, 5) dissimilarity 0.3

Complete linkage:

Step 1: G12=Group (1,2), dissimilarity 0.1

Step 2: G34=Group (3,4), dissimilarity 0.15

Step 3: Group (G34, 5), dissimilarity 0.7

Step 4: Group all, max height of dendrogram 0.8

Scaling

- When features have different units (cm & km), scaling helps
- When features are of same units
 - Scaling ensures that features are given equal importance
 - However, this depends on the application
 - Choose most interpretable solution

DBSCAN



Density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise (DBSCAN)

- Reference: Introduction to Machine Learning with Python, Chapter 3
- DBSCAN can capture clusters of complex shapes and without identifying number of clusters a priori

 Idea: clusters form dense regions of data followed by regions that are relatively empty

DBSCAN algorithm

Core observation
Boundary observation
Noise

- Two parameters that DBSCAN depends on: min_samples, eps
 - Min_samples is minimum number of samples around a core cluster point that are within a distance eps
- Identify points that are in "crowded"/"dense" regions in the feature space
 - These observations are called core points
 - Starts with an arbitrary point, check if it is a core point
 - If there are "min_samples" number of observations within a distance "eps" form that point, then this is identified as a core point
 - points within a distance eps are in the same cluster
 - A cluster grows until there is no more core samples within distance "eps", then new points are visited to create other clusters.

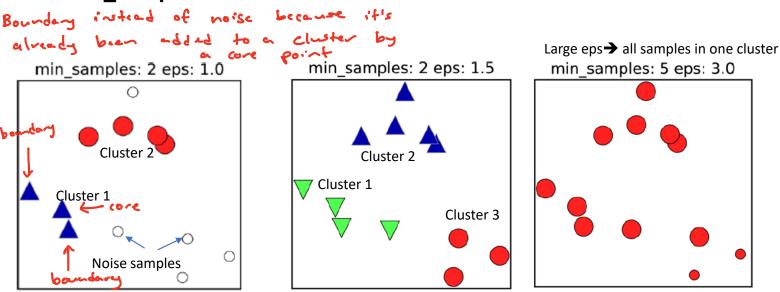






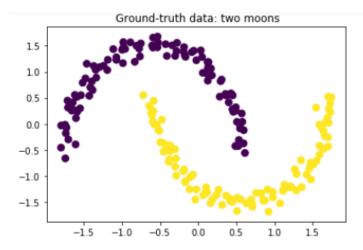


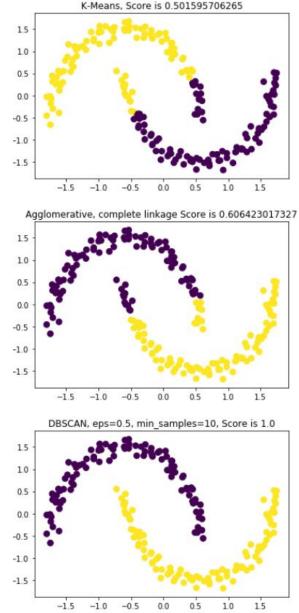
- Noise: observation points that do not belong to any cluster
 - Have less than min_samples within eps
- Points are either: core, boundary, noise
- Result of clustering depends on the parameters min_samples and eps
 - When eps increase → less number of clusters
 - min_samples determines the smallest cluster size



Introduction to Machine Learning with Python, Chapter 3

Example





Practical Issues: Parameter Setting

- What are the best parameters to use in a clustering algorithm?
 - How many clusters to choose if K-means is used?
 - What type of dissimilarity & linkage to use in hierarchical clustering?
 - What is eps and min_samples for DBSCAN?
- Scale features or not?
- How to evaluate?

Evaluation of Clustering

- When labels are known (typically not the case), results of clustering can be compared:
 - Example: <u>adjusted rand score</u>, <u>Normalized Mutual Information</u>: value of maximum 1 means perfect clustering
- There is no single agreed-upon performance metric for unsupervised learning
- Some metrics measure compactness of clustering
 - Ex: within cluster variations or silhouette score
 - Silhouette score: Difference between mean intra-cluster variation (a) and the mean nearest cluster distance (b) → b-a/max(b,a)

• The only way to know whether clustering worked well is to have a domain expert analyze it manually