

# Part 7: Elements of Data Clustering

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#### Introduction

- **Supervised learning** assumes that the training samples used to design a classifier are labeled according to their class membership
- We describe here a number of unsupervised procedures that use unlabeled data
- Two terms are commonly used to indicate the topics we are going to deal with:
  - Unsupervised learning
  - Data clustering

# Five Basic Reasons for Unsupervised Learning

- 1. Collecting and labeling a large set of patterns can be extremely costly
  - e.g., speech recognition, malware detection
- 2. It might be more convenient to proceed in the reverse direction:
  - using large amounts of unlabeled data to identify "clusters" and then
  - using supervision to label the groupings found
- 3. The data distribution can change over time
  - An unsupervised model can track these changes and achieve improved performance
- 4. We can find relevant features that will then be useful for categorization
- 5. We can gain useful insights into the underlying data structure

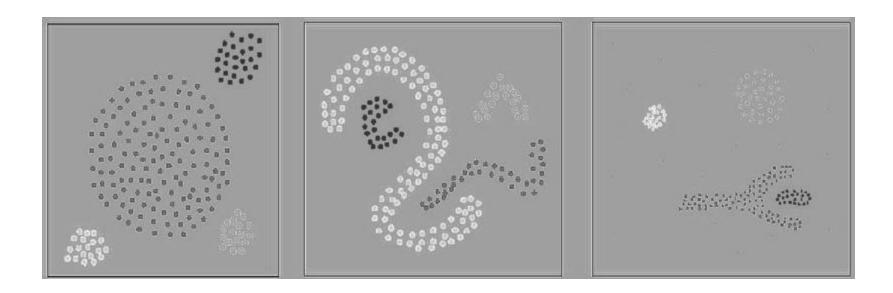
#### **Basic Concepts**

- The goal of unsupervised learning (clustering) is to find groupings in the data (clusters)
  that reflect the ground truth and the "natural properties" of the data
- Even if intuitive, the concept of cluster is hard to define rigorously, both in general and even in very specific cases
  - We can informally say that samples belonging to the same cluster must present a higher degree of similarity than that shown among samples belonging to different clusters

Starting from a set of unlabeled samples,
 a hard-clustering algorithm generates
 a partitioning D=(D<sub>1</sub>, D<sub>2</sub>, ..., D<sub>c</sub>), where:

# **Simple Clustering Examples**

• It is straightforward to see that even if intuitive, the concept of cluster is hard to define!

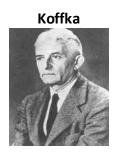


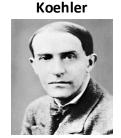
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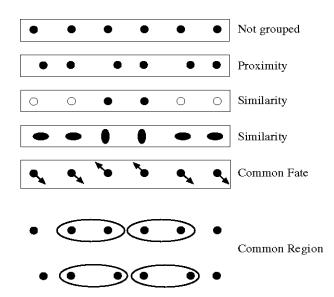
#### Basic Ideas of Grouping in Humans: The Gestalt School

- Gestalt qualities (Gestaltqualitat). Elements in a collection of elements can have properties that result from relationships
  - A series of factors (Gestalt factors) affect whether elements should be grouped together

Wertheimer







# Clustering

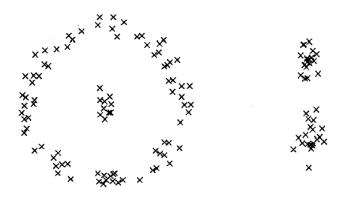
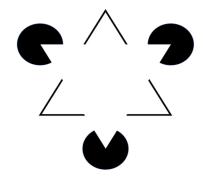
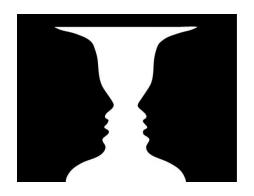


Figure 1: How many groups?

# Clustering, Optical Illusions, and Cognitive Biases



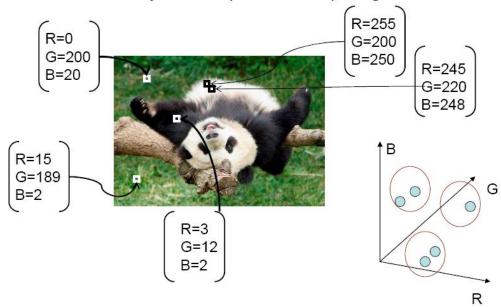




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## **Image Segmentation as Clustering**

Cluster similar pixels (features) together



# Clustering Algorithms: Categorization

Clustering algorithms can be grouped into different categories

- Connectivity-based (hierarchical) clustering
  - Linkage clustering is a simple example
- Centroid-based clustering
  - The K-means algorithm is a simple example
- Model-based clustering
  - Gaussian mixture
- Others: graph-based (spectral), density-based ...

#### **Linkage Clustering**

- Initialization: Each sample is in a cluster of its own (singleton)
- The clusters are then sequentially combined into larger clusters until all elements end up being in the same cluster
- At each step, the two clusters separated by the shortest distance are combined
  - The **linkage function** defines the distance between two clusters

Single-linkage: 
$$D(C_1, C_2) = \min_{x_1 \in C_1, x_2 \in C_2} d(x_1, x_2)$$

• Complete/Maximum-linkage: 
$$D(C_1, C_2) = \max_{x_1 \in C_1, x_2 \in C_2} d(x_1, x_2)$$

• Average-linkage: 
$$D(C_1, C_2) = \frac{1}{|C_1||C_2|} \sum_{x_1 \in C_1} \sum_{x_1 \in C_2} d(x_1, x_2)$$

• **Centroid-linkage:** 
$$D(C_1, C_2) = ||\mu_1 - \mu_2||^2$$
, being  $\mu_k$  the centroid of  $C_k$ 

• The sample-wise distance  $d(x_1, x_2)$  can be: L2, L1, Mahalanobis, etc.

#### Single-linkage Clustering: Example

- Given the sample-wise distances among 5 samples, find the single-linkage clusters
- **Step 1:** group the closest samples

	а	b	С	d	е
а	0	17	21	31	23
b	17	0	30	34	21
С	21	30	0	28	39
d	31	34	28	0	43
е	23	21	39	43	0

## Single-linkage Clustering: Example

• Steps 2 and 3: Recompute distances w.r.t. the new cluster, and then aggregate again

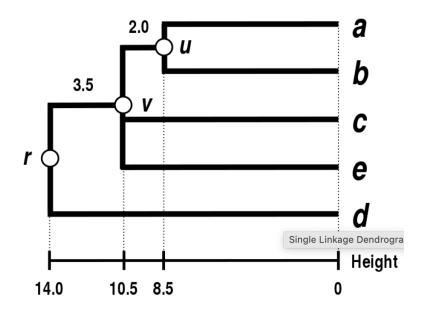
	(a,b)	С	d	е
(a,b)	0	21	31	21
С	21	0	28	39
d	31	28	0	43
е	21	39	43	0

	((a,b),c,e)	d
((a,b),c,e)	0	28
d	28	0

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## Single-linkage Clustering: Dendrogram



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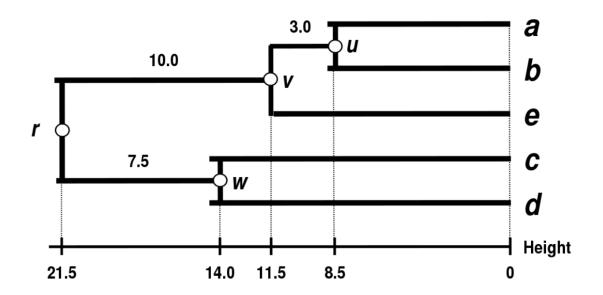
#### Complete-linkage Clustering: Example

- The first step is the same as for single-linkage, aggregating (a,b)
- The difference is how we compute the distance w.r.t. the corresponding cluster!

	(a,b)	С	d	е
(a,b)	0	30	34	23
С	30	0	28	39
d	34	28	0	43
е	23	39	43	0

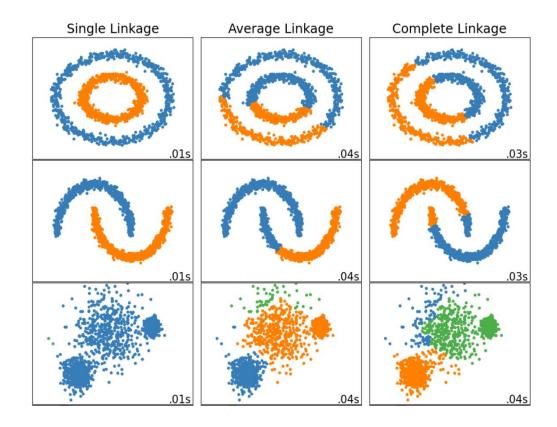
	((a,b),e)	(c,d)
((a,b),e)	0	43
(c,d)	43	0

## Complete-linkage Clustering: Dendrogram



#### How Do the Clusters Look Like?

- At the end of the process, the dendrogram can be cut to retrieve the desired number of clusters
- Single-linkage tends to follow "paths" that connect samples
- Complete- and averagelinkage tend to find more spherical clusters



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#### K-means Clustering

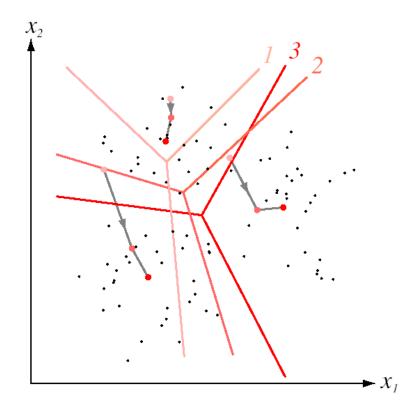
Goal: minimize the objective / distortion function J

- Set the number K of clusters to be found and a distance measure d(a,b) between samples (e.g., L2)
- 2. Initialize the algorithm by defining K cluster centers
  - K points from D can be randomly selected as centers
- 3. Assign each point in D to the cluster whose centroid is the closest one (**expectation-step**, **E-step**)
- 4. Recompute cluster centers (maximization step, M-step)
- 5. Repeat steps 3 and 4 until cluster centers do not change anymore

$$J = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{nk} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2$$

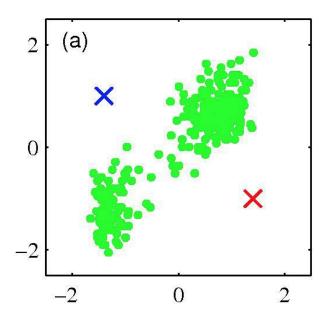
 $r_{nk} = 1$  if sample n belongs to cluster k, 0 otherwise

- Trajectories of the means of the Kmeans clustering procedure applied to two-dimensional data
- In this case, convergence is obtained in three iterations



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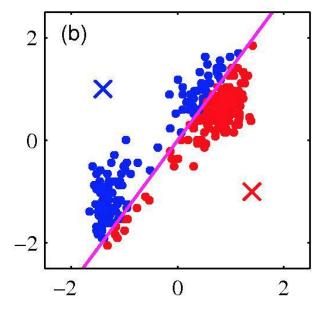


#### **Initialization:**

Pick K random points as cluster centers

Shown here for K=2

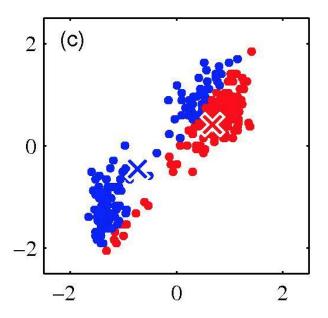
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#### **Iterative Step 1:**

Assign data points to closest cluster center

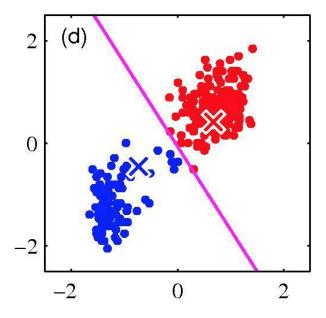
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#### **Iterative Step 2:**

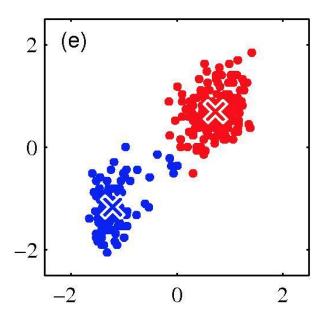
Change the cluster center to the average of the assigned points

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Repeat until convergence

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Final output

## K-means Clustering for Quantization and Compression

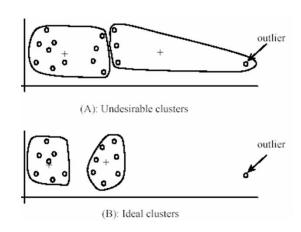
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Figure 9.3 Two examples of the application of the K-means clustering algorithm to image segmentation showing the initial images together with their K-means segmentations obtained using various values of K. This also illustrates of the use of vector quantization for data compression, in which smaller values of K give higher compression at the expense of poorer image quality.

#### **Properties of K-means**

- Guaranteed to converge in a finite number of steps
- Running time per iteration:
  - Assign data points to the closest cluster center: O(Kn) time
  - Change the cluster center to the average of its points:
     O(n) time
- Pros: Very simple, efficient
- Cons:
  - Need to know the number of desired clusters K
  - Sensitive to initialization and outliers
    - Converges to a local minimum of the error function
  - Only finds spherical clusters



#### Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)

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- K-means is a special case of GMM clustering
- **GMMs** assume that each cluster is Gaussian, and find their parameters (priors, means and covariances) to maximize the likelihood of generating the given data

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

- Each point belongs to each cluster with a certain probability (fuzzy clustering)
- Expectation-maximization (EM)
   is used to maximize the log-likelihood

$$egin{aligned} \gamma(z_k) &\equiv p(z_k=1|\mathbf{x}) &= & rac{p(z_k=1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_k=1)}{K} \ &\sum_{j=1}^K p(z_j=1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_j=1) \ &= & rac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|oldsymbol{\mu}_k, oldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{K}. \ &\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|oldsymbol{\mu}_j, oldsymbol{\Sigma}_j) \end{aligned}$$

#### **EM for Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)**

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Given a Gaussian mixture model, the goal is to maximize the likelihood function with respect to the parameters (comprising the means and covariances of the components and the mixing coefficients).

- 1. Initialize the means  $\mu_k$ , covariances  $\Sigma_k$  and mixing coefficients  $\pi_k$ , and evaluate the initial value of the log likelihood.
- 2. **E step**. Evaluate the responsibilities using the current parameter values

$$\gamma(z_{nk}) = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)}.$$
 (9.23)

#### **EM for Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)**

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3. M step. Re-estimate the parameters using the current responsibilities

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{nk}) \mathbf{x}_n \tag{9.24}$$

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk}) \left(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}}\right) \left(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}}\right)^{\text{T}}$$
 (9.25)

$$\pi_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{N_k}{N} \tag{9.26}$$

where

$$N_k = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk}). {(9.27)}$$

#### **EM for Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs)**

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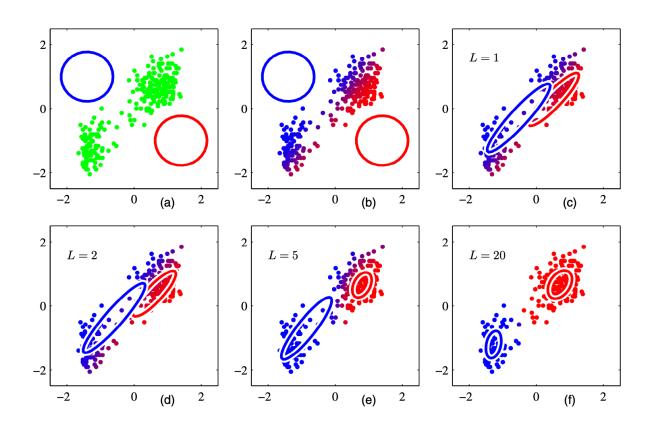
4. Evaluate the log likelihood

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$
(9.28)

and check for convergence of either the parameters or the log likelihood. If the convergence criterion is not satisfied return to step 2.

# GMM Clustering via EM: Example

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# Key Issues with Clustering

- Several issues related to clustering should be considered
  - We mention them here for the sake of completeness
- Do the clusters found reflect existing groupings in the problem domain (natural clusters), or have they just been "forced" by the clustering algorithm?
- How many clusters should we search for?
- How can cluster validity be measured?
- How can a good similarity measure be defined?

# Cluster Validation Functions: An Example

Let us define the cluster centroids and the sum-of-squared-errors respectively as

$$\mathbf{m}_i = \frac{1}{n_i} \prod_{\mathbf{x} \sqcap D_i} \mathbf{x}$$

$$J_e = \left[ \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i \right\|^2 = \left[ \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i \right\|^2 \right] = \left[ \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i \right\|^2 \right]$$

$$i=1 \text{ } \mathbf{x} \square D_i$$

- J<sub>e</sub> is an intuitive and straightforward way to evaluate clustering validity
  - It measures the total deviation/distortion of the clustering w.r.t. the cluster centroids

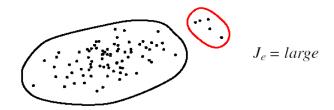
# Cluster Validation Functions: An Example

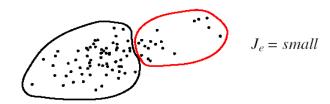
- The value of  $J_{\rm e}$  depends on both the number of clusters and how samples are spread around clusters.
- The optimal clustering minimizes  $J_e$ .
  - "Clusters" obtained according to this criterion are called **minimum-variance clusters**
- Unfortunately,  $J_e$  is not always a good cluster validity measure
- It works well only if:
  - Clusters are both compact and well separated from each other
  - Clusters have almost the same size (in terms of the number of samples included)

# Cluster Validation Functions: An Example

- When two natural groupings are strongly different regarding the number of samples a clustering algorithm based on minimizing  $J_e$  can achieve misleading results.
- In the example below, the value of  $J_e$  is higher for the clustering above (which is the correct one) than for the clustering below.

$$J_e = \prod_{i=1}^{c} \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i \right\|^2 = \prod_{i=1}^{c} J_i; \quad J_i = \prod_{\mathbf{x} \square D_i} \left\| \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i \right\|^2$$





#### Cluster Validation Functions: Other Functions

- Many other functions do exist that can be used to evaluate clustering quality
- Most of them privilege clustering algorithms that produce compact and well-separated clusters
- The concept of **compact and well-separated** cluster can be measured concretely by using the **within-cluster scatter matrix**  $S_W$  and the **between-cluster scatter matrix**  $S_B$

$$\mathbf{S}_{W} = \bigsqcup_{i=1}^{c} \mathbf{S}_{i} \qquad \mathbf{S}_{i} = \bigsqcup_{\mathbf{x} \square D_{i}} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{i}) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_{i})^{t}$$
 The lower the better

$$\mathbf{S}_{B} = \prod_{i}^{c} n_{i} (\mathbf{m}_{i} - \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{m}_{i} - \mathbf{m})^{t}$$
 the higher the better

#### References

- Sections 10.1, 10.4, 10.6, 10.7, 10.8, 10.10, Pattern Classification, R. O. Duda, P. E. Hart, and D. G. Stork, John Wiley & Sons, 2000
- C. Bishop, PRML, Chapter 9.