# Introduction to Big Data Analysis Clustering Analysis

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#### **Outlines**

Introduction

K-Means Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

**DBSCAN** 

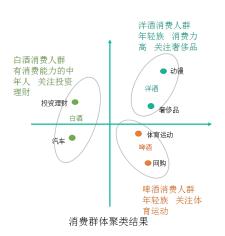
Other Clustering Methods

Model Assessment

Case Study

# Clustering

- Also called data segmentation, group a collection of objects into subsets or "clusters"
- Results: objects in each cluster are more similar to one another than objects in different clusters.
- Example : applications in consumption analysis
- Can be used in data preprocessing

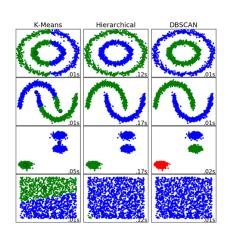


# Concepts in Clustering

- Different from classification: it is unsupervised learning; no outputs or labels
- Central goal : Optimize the similarity (or dissimilarity) between the individual objects being clustered :
  - Obtain great similarity of samples within cluster
  - Obtain small similarity of samples between clusters
- Cost functions: not related to the outputs, but related to the similarity
- Two kinds of input data :
  - n × n similarity (dissimilarity) matrix D: only depends on the distances between pairs of samples; may lose some information on data
  - Original data with features  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$

# Clustering Methods

- Clustering process :
  - data preprocessing, especially standadization
  - Similarity matrix
  - Clustering Methods
  - Determine the best number of clusters
- Clustering methods :
  - Flat clustering (partitional clustering) :
    - K-means
    - K-Medoids
    - Spectral clustering
    - DBSCAN
  - Hierarchical clustering



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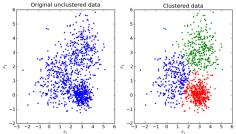
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#### Introduction

- K-means clustering originates from signal processing, it is quite popular in image processing (segmentation)
- Group n samples to k clusters, making each sample belong to the nearest cluster
- In an image, each pixel is a sample



- Data set  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Representatives : Mass center of kth-cluster  $C_k$  is  $c_k$ ,  $k=1,\ldots,K$
- Sample x<sub>i</sub> belongs to cluster k if d(x<sub>i</sub>, c<sub>k</sub>) < d(x<sub>i</sub>, c<sub>m</sub>) for m ≠ k, where d(x<sub>i</sub>, x<sub>i</sub>) is dissimilarity function
- Make the mass centers well-located so that the average distance between each sample to its cluster center is as small as possible



# Optimization Problem

- Let  $C: \{1, ..., n\} \rightarrow \{1, ..., k\}$  be the assignment from the data indices to the cluster indices. C(i) = k means  $x_i \in C_k$
- Total point scatter :  $T = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} d(x_i, x_j) =$

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \left( \sum_{C(j)=k} d_{ij} + \sum_{C(j)\neq k} d_{ij} \right) = W(C) + B(C)$$

• Loss function : within-cluster point scatter

$$W(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)=k} d_{ij}$$
; between-cluster point scatter

$$B(C) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)\neq k} d_{ij}$$

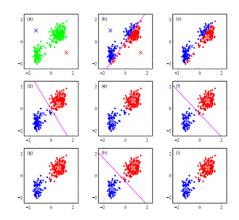
• Minimize W(C) is equivalent to maximize B(C)

- Proximity matrices :  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix D with nonnegative entries and zero diagonal elements provides information about dissimilarity between a pair of samples, this is not distance in general
- Dissimilarities based on attributes :  $d(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k(x_{ik}, x_{jk})$ ;  $d_k$  can be squared distance  $d_k(x_{ik}, x_{jk}) = (x_{ik} x_{jk})^2$ , absolute distance  $d_k(x_{ik}, x_{jk}) = |x_{ik} x_{jk}|$
- Weighted average :  $d(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{k=1}^p w_k d_k(x_{ik}, x_{jk})$  where  $\sum_{k=1}^p w_k = 1$ ; setting  $w_k \sim 1/\bar{d}_k$  with  $\bar{d}_k = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n d_k(x_{ik}, x_{jk}) = 2 \widehat{\mathrm{Var}}(X_k)$  will assign equal influence to all features
- Dissimilarities based on correlation :  $d(x_i, x_i) \propto 1 \rho(x_i, x_i)$

- Minimizing W(C) is in general infeasible since this is a greedy algorithm that only works for small data sets
- Taking squared dissimilarity,  $W(C) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} n_k \sum_{C(i)=k} \|x_i \bar{x}_k\|^2$ , where  $n_k = \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(C(i) = k)$  is the number of samples in cluster k,  $\bar{x}_k = \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{C(i)=k} x_j = \arg\min_{m_k} \sum_{C(i)=k} \|x_j m_k p\|^2$
- $\min_{C} W(C) \iff \min_{C, m_k} \sum_{k=1}^{K} n_k \sum_{C(i)=k} ||x_i m_k||^2$
- Alternating minimization :
  - 1. Given C, solve for  $m_k \implies m_k^* = \bar{x}_k$
  - 2. Given  $m_k$ , solve for  $C \Longrightarrow C(i) = \arg\min_{1 \leqslant k \leqslant K} \|x_i m_k\|^2$

#### K-Means Iterations

- The alternating iterations can stop when the mass centers  $\{\bar{x}_k\}_{k=1}^K$  do not change
- Initial guess :
  - Random guess, try the best one with smallest W(C)
  - Base on other clustering methods (e.g., hierarchical clustering), choose the cluster centers as initial guess



- Minimizing Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) :  $BIC(\mathcal{M}|\mathbf{X}) = -2\log\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\hat{\Theta},\mathcal{M}) + p\log(n)$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  indicates the model,  $\hat{\Theta}$  is the MLE of the model parameters in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,  $\Pr(\mathbf{X}|\mathcal{M})$  is the likelihood function, and p is the number of parameters in model  $\mathcal{M}$
- Based on Minimum Description Length (MDL): starting from large K, decreases K until the description length  $-\log \Pr(\mathbf{X}|\hat{\Theta},\mathcal{M}) \log \Pr(\Theta|\mathcal{M})$  achieves its minimum
- Based on Gaussian distribution assumption : starting from K=1, increases K until the points in every cluster follow Gaussian distribution

#### Pros and Cons

- Where it is good
  - Intuitive, easy to implement
  - Low computational complexity, O(tnpK), where t is the number of iterations
- Disadvantage
  - Need to specify K first (K is tuning parameter)
  - Strong dependence on the initial guess of cluster center
  - Easy to stuck at local minimum
  - Naturally assume ball-shaped data, hard to deal with data which are not ball-shaped
  - Sensitive to outliers

# Variant : Bisecting K-means

- Invented to deal with initial guess of center selection
- Idea: sequentially divide the poorest cluster into two sub-clusters
  - 1. Initially gather all data into one cluster
  - 2. Repeat:
    - 2.1 Select the cluster k that maximizes the within-cluster point scatter  $\sum_{C(i)=k} \sum_{C(j)=k} ||x_i-x_j||^2$
    - 2.2 Use 2-means to divide cluster k into two sub-clusters, with random initial guess of two centers
    - 2.3 Repeat step 2.2 *p* times, choose the best pair of clusters that minimizes the within-cluster point scatter
  - 3. Stop when there are K clusters (Or you can stop any time you like to have a satisfactory clustering result)

#### Variant: K-medoids

- Invented to overcome the influence of outliers
- Can deal with data of general type, assuming general dissimilarity  $d(x_i, x_j)$
- Idea: centers for each cluster are restricted to be one of the observations assigned to that cluster
- Alternating minimization :
  - 1. Given C, solve for  $m_k = x_{i_k^*}$  that minimizes the within-cluster point scatter :  $i_k^* = \arg\min_{\{i:C(i)=k\}} \sum_{C(i)=k} d(x_i, x_j)$
  - 2. Given  $m_k$ , solve for  $C \Longrightarrow C(i) = \arg\min_{1 \le k \le K} d(x_i, m_k)$
- More robust than K-means
- More computational effort when solving for the center in step  $1: O(n_k^2)$  comparing to  $O(n_k)$  in K-means

#### Other Variants

- K-medians : use Manhattan distance ( $L^1$ -distance) instead in K-means; then the centers are not means, but medians
- K-means++: designed to select good initial centers that are far away from each other
- Rough-set-based K-means: each sample could be assigned to more than one cluster

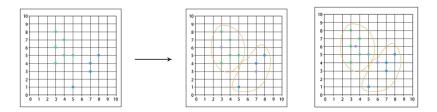


FIGURE: K-medoids

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- Clustering in different hierarchies, generating tree structure
- Two approaches :
  - Agglomerate clustering : bottom-up
  - Divisive clustering : top-down
- Limitation : once merged or divided, the operation cannot be modified

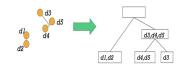


FIGURE: Agglomerate clustering



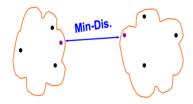
FIGURE: Divisive clustering

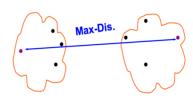
# Agglomerate Clustering

- Given n samples and proximity matrix, do the following steps:
  - 1. Let every observation represent a singleton cluster
  - 2. Merge the two closest clusters into one single cluster
  - Calculate the new proximity matrix (dissimilarity between two clusters)
  - Repeat step 2 and 3, until all samples are merged into one cluster
- Three methods for computing intergroup dissimilarity :
  - Single linkage (SL)
  - Complete linkage (CL)
  - Average linkage (AL)

# Intergroup Dissimilarity

- Single linkage : Greatest similarity or least dissimilarity  $d_{SL}(C_i, C_j) = \min_{x \in C_i, y \in C_j} d(x, y)$
- Complete linkage : Least similarity or greatest dissimilarity  $d_{SL}(C_i, C_j) = \max_{x \in C_i, y \in C_j} d(x, y)$
- Average linkage : Average similarity or dissimilarity  $d_{AL}(C_i, C_j) = \frac{1}{|C_i||C_i|} \sum d(x, y)$





# Generalized Agglomerative Scheme

- Input : training set  $D = \{(x_1), \dots, (x_n)\}$ , dissimilarity function  $d(C_i, C_j)$
- Output : A dendrogram containing  $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$ , where  $\mathcal{R}_t$  is the clustering result at time t
- 1. Initialize the clustering result  $\mathcal{R}_0 = \{\{x_1\}, \{x_2\}, \dots, \{x_n\}\}, t = 0$
- 2. Do iterations:
  - 2.1 t = t + 1
  - 2.2 Choose  $(C_i, C_j)$  from  $\mathcal{R}_{t-1}$  so that  $d(C_i, C_j) = \min_{\substack{(r,s) \\ (r,s)}} d(C_r, C_s)$
  - 2.3  $C_q = C_i \bigcup C_i$
  - 2.4  $\mathcal{R}_t = (\mathcal{R}_{t-1} \setminus \{C_i, C_i\} \bigcup \{C_q\})$
- 3. Stop at t = n 1 when  $|\mathcal{R}_{n-1}| = 1$ , return  $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$

#### Generalized Divisive Scheme

- Input : training set  $D = \{(x_1), \ldots, (x_n)\}$ , dissimilarity function  $d(C_i, C_j)$
- Output : A dendrogram containing  $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$ , where  $\mathcal{R}_t = \{C_{t,i}\}_{i=1}^{t+1}$  is the clustering result at time t
- 1. Initialize  $\mathcal{R}_0 = \{X\}$ , t = 0
- 2. Do iterations:
  - $2.1 \ t = t + 1$
  - 2.2 For i = 1 to t, do :
    - 2.2.1 Choose  $(C_{t-1,i}^1, C_{t-1,i}^2)$  from  $C_{t-1,i}$  so that  $d(C_{t-1,i}^1, C_{t-1,i}^2) = \max_{G \mid I \mid H = C_{t-1,i}} d(G, H)$
  - 2.3 Choose  $i_{t-1}$  so that  $i_{t-1} = \arg \max_{i} d(C_{t-1,i}^1, C_{t-1,i}^2)$
  - 2.4  $\mathcal{R}_t = (\mathcal{R}_{t-1} \setminus \{C_{t-1,i_{t-1}}\}) \bigcup \{C_{t-1,i}^1, C_{t-1,i}^2\})$
- 3. Stop at t=n-1 when  $|\mathcal{R}_{n-1}|=n$ , return  $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$



#### **Pros and Cons**

- Where it is good
  - Hierarchical clustering computes tree structure of the whole clustering process in one stroke
  - SL and CL are sensitive to outliers, while AL gives a compromise
    - As  $n \to \infty$ ,  $d_{AL}(C_i, C_j) \to \int \int d(x, y) p_i(x) p_j(y) dx dy$ , the expected dissimilarity w.r.t. the two densities  $p_i(x)$  and  $p_j(x)$
    - In contrast,  $d_{SL}(C_i, C_j) \to 0$  and  $d_{CL}(C_i, C_j) \to \infty$  independent of  $p_i(x)$  and  $p_j(x)$
- Disadvantage
  - · Computationally intensive
  - Once a sample is incorrectly grouped into a branch, it will stay in the clusters corresponding to that branch no matter how you threshold the tree

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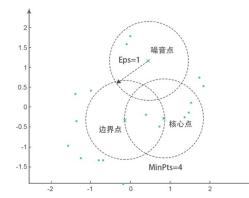
# **Density-based Clustering**

- Limitations of hierarchical clustering and K-means clustering: tend to discover convex clusters
- Density-based Clustering: looks for high-density regions separated by low-density regions, could discover clusters of any shape
- Density-Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise (DBSCAN)

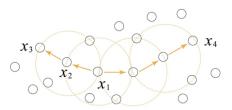


# Concepts

- Three types of points :
  - Core point : # of samples in its  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $\geqslant$  MinPts
  - Boundary point : it lies in the  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood of some core point, # of samples in its  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood < MinPts
  - Noise point : neither core point nor boundary point, it lies in the sparse region



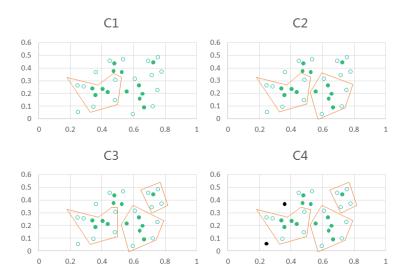
- $\epsilon$ -neighborhood : for each sample  $x_i \in D$ ,  $N_{\epsilon}(x_i) = \{x_j \in D | d(x_i, x_j) \leqslant \epsilon\}$
- Directly density-reachable : if the sample  $x_j \in N_{\epsilon}(x_i)$ , and  $x_i$  is core point, then  $x_i$  is directly density-reachable from  $x_i$
- Density-reachable : for  $x_i$  and  $x_j$ , if there exist  $p_1, \ldots, p_m$ , s.t.  $p_1 = x_i, p_m = x_j$ , and  $p_{k+1}$  is directly density-reachable from  $p_k$ , then  $x_j$  is density-reachable from  $x_j$
- Density-connected : if there exists p, s.t. both  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  are density-reachable from p, then  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  are density-connected



# DBSCAN Algorithm

- Input : training set  $D = \{(x_1), \dots, (x_n)\}$ , dissimilarity function  $d(C_i, C_j)$ , parameters  $MinPts, \epsilon$
- Output : a set of clusters  $\{C_t\}$
- 1. Mark all samples in D as non-processed
- 2. For each sample  $p \in D$ , do :
  - 2.1 If *p* has been grouped into some cluster or marked as noise point, go to check next sample
  - 2.2 Else, if  $|N_{\epsilon}(p)| < MinPts$ , then mark p as boundary point or noise point
  - 2.3 Else, mark p as core point, construct cluster  $C = N_{\epsilon}(p)$ . For each  $q \in N_{\epsilon}(p)$ , do :
    - 2.3.1 If  $|N_{\epsilon}(q)|\geqslant MinPts$ , then put all un-clustered points in  $N_{\epsilon}(q)$  into C
- 3. Stop when all samples in D have been clustered

# Examples ( $\epsilon = 0.11$ , MinPts = 5)



#### DBSCAN vs. K-means

#### **DBSCAN**

- The clustering result is not a complete partition of original dataset (noise points are excluded)
- Could deal with clusters with any shape and size
- Could deal with noise points and outliers
- The definition of density must be meaningful
- Not efficient when dealing with high-dimensional data
- No implicit assumptions on the sample distribution

#### K-Means

- The clustering result is a complete partition of original dataset
- The clusters are nearly ball-shaped
- Sensitive to outliers
- The definition of cluster centers must be meaningful
- Efficient to deal with high-dimensional data
- The samples implicitly follow the Gaussian distribution assumption



#### **Pros and Cons**

- Computational complexity  $O(n \times T)$ , where t is the time for searching  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood); in the worst case,  $O(n^2)$
- In low-dimensional space, could be improved as  $O(n \log n)$  by KD-tree
- Where it is good
  - Fast for clustering
  - Better to deal with noise points
  - Effective for clusters of any shape
- Disadvantage
  - Need large memory
  - Bad performance when the density is not well-distributed and the between-cluster distances are large

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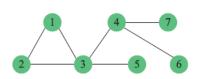
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# Graphs

- A set of data points  $\{\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n\}$ , similarity  $s_{ij}$  or distance  $d_{ij}$
- Graph G = (V, E), where  $V = \{v_i\}_{i=1}^n$  with each  $v_i$  representing a sample  $\mathbf{x}_i$
- $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are connected  $(w_{ij} > 0)$  if  $s_{ij} > \epsilon$  where  $\epsilon \geqslant 0$  is a threshold; then the edge is weighted by  $w_{ij} = s_{ij}$
- Undirected graph  $w_{ij} = w_{ji}$ , adjacency matrix  $W = \{w_{ij}\}$
- Degree of  $v_i$ :  $d_i = \sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij}$ ;  $D = \operatorname{diag}(d_1, \ldots, d_n)$



# Similarity Graphs

- $\epsilon$ -neighborhood graph :  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are connected if  $d(x_i, x_j) < \epsilon$ ; unweighted graph ;  $\epsilon \sim (\log n/n)^p$ ; difficult to choose  $\epsilon$  for data on different scales
- k-nearest neighbor graph: connect  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  if  $v_j$  is among the k-nearest neighbors of  $v_i$ , directed graph; connect  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  if  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  are among the k-nearest neighbors of each other, mutual k-nearest neighbor graph, undirected;  $k \sim \log n$
- Fully connected graph: connect all points with positive similarity with each other; model local neighborhood relationships; Gaussian similarity function  $s(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-\|x_i x_j\|^2/(2\sigma^2))$ , where  $\sigma$  controls the width of neighborhoods; adjacency matrix is not sparse;  $\sigma \sim \epsilon$

# Graph Laplacian

- Unnormalized graph Laplacian : L = D W
  - ullet Has  $oldsymbol{1}$  as an eigenvector corresponding to the eigenvalue  $oldsymbol{0}$
  - Symmetric and positive definite :  $\mathbf{f}^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{f} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} w_{ij} (f_i f_j)^2$
  - Non-negative, real-valued eigenvalues  $0 = \bar{\lambda}_1 \leqslant \lambda_2 \leqslant \cdots \leqslant \lambda_n$
  - The eigenspace of eigenvalue 0 is spanned by the indicator vectors  $\mathbf{1}_{A_1}, \dots, \mathbf{1}_{A_k}$ , where  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  are k connected components in the graph
- Normalized graph Laplacians :
  - Symmetric Laplacian :  $L_{sym} = D^{-1/2}LD^{-1/2}$
  - Random walk Laplacian :  $L_{rw} = D^{-1}L$
  - Both have similar properties as L

• Graph cut : segment G into K clusters  $A_1, \ldots, A_K$ , where  $A_i \subset V$ , this is equivalent to minimize the graph cut function

$$cut(A_1,\ldots,A_K)=\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^K W(A_k,\bar{A}_k)$$

where  $W(A, B) = \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} w_{ij}$ . Trivial solution consists of a singleton and its complement

- RatioCut :  $RatioCut(A_1, ..., A_K) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{W(A_k, \bar{A}_k)}{|A_k|}$ , where |A| is the number of vertices in A
- Normalized cut :  $Ncut(A_1, ..., A_K) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^K \frac{W(A_k, \bar{A}_k)}{vol(A_k)}$ , where  $vol(A) = \sum_{i \in A} d_i$ ; it is NP-hard

## Relaxation of RatioCut to Eigenvalue Problems with K=2

- $\min_{A \subset V} RatioCut(A, \bar{A})$
- Binary vector  $f = (f_1, \dots, f_n)^T$  as indicator function :  $f_i = \begin{cases} \sqrt{|\bar{A}|/|A|}, & \text{if } v_i \in A \\ -\sqrt{||A|/\bar{A}|}, & \text{if } v_i \in \bar{A} \end{cases}$
- $f^T L f = |V| \cdot RatioCut(A, \bar{A}), \sum_{i=1}^n f_i = 0$ , and  $||f||_2^2 = n$
- Relax f to be real-valued :  $\min_{f \in \mathbb{R}^n} f^T L f$ , subject to  $f \perp \mathbf{1}$  and  $\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{n}$
- By Rayleigh-Ritz theorem, the solution f is the eigenvector corresponding to the second smallest eigenvalue of L
- Cluster  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$  to two groups C and  $\bar{C}: v_i \in A$  if  $f_i \in C$ , and else  $v_i \in \bar{A}$



### Relaxation of RatioCut and Ncut with general K

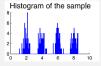
#### RatioCut

- Binary vector  $h_j = (h_{1j}, \dots, h_{nj})^T$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, K$ , as indicator function :  $h_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1/\sqrt{|A_j|}, & \text{if } v_i \in A_j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $h_j^T L h_j = Cut(A_j, \bar{A}_j)/|A_j|, H = (h_1, \dots, h_K) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times K},$  $RatioCut(A_1, \dots, A_K) = Tr(H^T L H), H^T H = I$
- Relax  $H: \min_{H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times K}} \operatorname{Tr}(H^T L H)$ , subject to  $H^T H = I$
- Solution : the first K eigenvectors of L as columns
- Cluster the rows of H to K groups

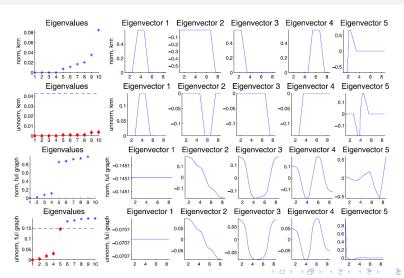
#### Ncut

- Replacing  $|A_j|$  by  $vol(A_j)$ , the same argument for the relaxation of Ncut :  $\min_{H \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times K}} \mathrm{Tr}(H^T L H)$ , subject to  $H^T D H = I$
- Solution : the first K eigenvectors of  $L_{rw}$  as columns

- Input : Similarity matrix  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , number k of clusters
- Output : Clusters  $A_1, \ldots, A_K$  of indices of vertices
- Algorithm :
  - 1. Construct a similarity graph G = (V, E) with weighted adjacency matrix W
  - 2. Compute the unnormalized graph Laplacian L or normalized graph Laplacian  $L_{sym}$  or  $L_{rw}$
  - 3. Compute the first K eigenvectors  $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times K}$
  - 4. In the case of  $L_{sym}$ , normalize the rows of U to norm 1; for the other two cases, skip this step
  - 5. Let  $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^K$  be the i-th row of  $\mathbf{U}$ , use K-means to cluster the point set  $\{\mathbf{y}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  into clusters  $C_1, \ldots, C_K$
  - 6.  $A_k = \{i | v_i \in C_k\}$

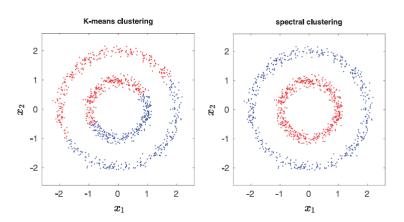


### Mixture of 4 Gaussians on $\mathbb R$ :



### Interpretations

• Usually better than K-means



### **Outlines**

Introduction

K-Means Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering

**DBSCAN** 

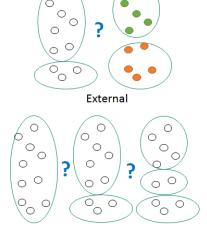
Other Clustering Methods

Model Assessment

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### Two Types of Indices

- External indices: validate against ground truth (labels), or compare two clusters (how similar)
  - Purity
  - Jaccard coefficient and Rand index
  - Mutual information
- Internal indices: validate without external info, based on the within-cluster similarity and between-cluster distance
  - Davies-Bouldin index (DBI)
  - Silhouette coefficient (SI)



- Let n<sub>ij</sub> be the number of samples that belong to label j but were assigned to cluster i
- Then  $n_i = \sum_{j=1}^{C}$  is the total number of samples in cluster i
- $p_{ij} = n_{ij}/n_i$  is the probability distribution in cluster i
- Purity of cluster  $i: p_i \triangleq \max_j p_{ij}$
- Total purity  $\triangleq \sum_{i} \frac{n_i}{n} p_i$
- Example : purity =  $\frac{6}{17}\frac{4}{6} + \frac{6}{17}\frac{5}{6} + \frac{5}{17}\frac{3}{5} = 0.71$
- $\bullet$  Naive case : treating each sample as a cluster leads to purity 100%

### Confusion Matrix

- SS (True Positive or TP):
   # of pairs of samples
   belonging to the same
   cluster in both models
- DD (True Negative or TN):
   # of pairs of samples
   belonging to different
   clusters in both models
- SD (False Positive or FP):
   # of pairs of samples
   belonging to the same
   cluster in clustering model,
   but different clusters in
   reference model

DS (False Negative or FN):
 # of pairs of samples
 belonging to different
 clusters in clustering model,
 but the same cluster in
 reference model

#### Clustering model

Reference mode		Same Cluster	Different Cluster
	Same class	SS	DS
	Different class	SD	DD
Œ			

- Rand index (RI) :  $RI=\frac{SS+DD}{SS+SD+DS+DD}\in[0,1]$ , similar to the accuracy in classification problems
- Jaccard coefficient (JC) :  $JC = \frac{SS}{SS + SD + DS} \in [0,1]$ , compare the similarity and diversity of the samples
- Example : # of pairs in the same cluster in clustering model  $=SS+SD=C_6^2+C_6^2+C_5^2=40$ , and  $SS=\underbrace{C_4^2+C_5^2+C_5^2+C_3^2+C_2^2}_{cluster1}=20$ , so SD=20; # of pairs in the same cluster in clustering model  $=DS+DD=6\times 6+6\times 5+6\times 5=96$ , and  $DS=\underbrace{4\times 1}_{B}+\underbrace{1\times 5+1\times 2+5\times 2}_{A}+\underbrace{1\times 3}_{C}=24$ , so DD=72.

$$RI = \frac{20 + 72}{20 + 20 + 24 + 72} = 0.68, \quad JC = \frac{20}{20 + 20 + 24} = 0.31$$

# Mutual Information (Wikipedia)

- Mutual information (MI) measures the uncertainty decrement of one random variable given another random variable
- Probability that a sample belongs to both cluster  $u_i$  and  $v_i$ :

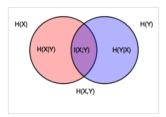
$$p_{UV}(i,j) = \frac{|u_i \cap v_j|}{n}$$

- Its marginal probabilities are :  $p_U(i) = \frac{u_i}{n}$  and  $p_V(j) = \frac{v_j}{n}$
- Mutual information : I(U, V) =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_{UV}(i,j) \log \frac{p_{UV}(i,j)}{p_{U}(i)p_{V}(j)}$
- MI attains its maximum  $\min\{H(U), H(V)\}\$  only when we have many small clusters
- Normalized MI:  $NMI(U, V) = \frac{I(U, V)}{(H(I)) + H(V))^{1/2}}$

- Entropy :  $H(X) = -\sum_{x} p(x) \log p(x)$
- Conditional entropy:

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{y} p(y)H(X|Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y} p(y) \left(-\sum_{x} p(x|y) \log p(x|y)\right)$$

MI : I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)



- Davies-Bouldin index (DBI) measures both the within-cluster divergence and between-clusters distance
- $DBI = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \max_{j \neq i} \left( \frac{div(c_i) + div(c_j)}{d(\mu_i, \mu_j)} \right)$  where  $div(c_i)$  represents the average distance of samples within cluster  $c_i$ ,  $\mu_i$  is the center of cluster  $c_i$
- Silhouette Coefficient (SC) :  $SC = \frac{b_i a_i}{\max(a_i, b_i)}$ , where  $a_i$  is average distance between the i-th sample and every other sample in the same cluster,  $b_i$  is the minimal distance from the i-th sample to the other clusters; range is [-1, 1]
- The smaller the DBI, or the larger the SC, the better the clustering results

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### Case Study

- Use clustering to group the cars with similar performance based on parameters of the cars
- Dataset comes from "Auto" in the R package ISLR.

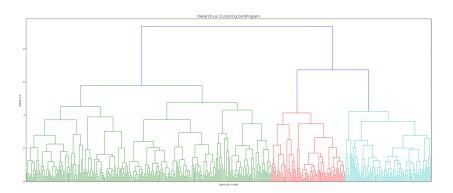
列名	类型	说明	示例
mpg	Float	一加仑汽油能支持的英里数	18
cylinders	Int	气缸数	8
displacement	Float	引擎排量	307
horsepower	Float	引擎马力	130
weight	Float	重量/lbs	3504
accerleration	Float	从0加速到60mph所需时间/s	12
year	Int	年份/模100	70
origin	Int	生产地,1:美国2:欧洲 3:日本	1

### Hierarchical Clustering

- Scaling of the feature values : Auto\_Scaled
- from scipy.cluster.hierarchy import dendrogram, linkage
- Construct linkage matrix: Z = linkage(Auto\_Scaled, method = 'complete', metric = 'euclidean'), possible choice for metric could be 'euclidean', 'cityblock', 'minkowski', 'cosine', 'correlation', 'hamming', 'jaccard', etc.
- Data structure of linkage matrix : in the t-th iteration, clusters  $C_i$  with index "Z[i, 0]" and  $C_j$  with index "Z[i, 1]" are combined to form cluster  $C_q$  with index "n + i"; "Z[i, 2]" is the distance between  $C_i$  and  $C_j$ ; "Z[i, 3]" is the number of samples in  $C_q$

# Dendrogram

 $dendrogram(Z, no\_labels = True)$ 



- from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
- clf = KMeans(n\_clusters=3, n\_init=1, verbose=1)
- clf.fit(Auto\_Scaled)
- Cluster 1: (economy or compact vehicles) high mpg, low horsepower, low weight; cluster 2: (luxury vehicles) low mpg, high horsepower, high weight; cluster 0: intermediate performance

	mpg	cylinders	displacement	horsepower	weight	acceleration	year	origin
cluster								
0	19.630588	6.211765	231.423529	102.282353	3274.000000	16.475294	76.011765	1.035294
1	28.947418	4.061033	110.960094	79.779343	2338.370892	16.476995	77.075117	2.046948
2	14.429787	8.000000	350.042553	162.393617	4157.978723	12.576596	73.468085	1.000000

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