Clustering

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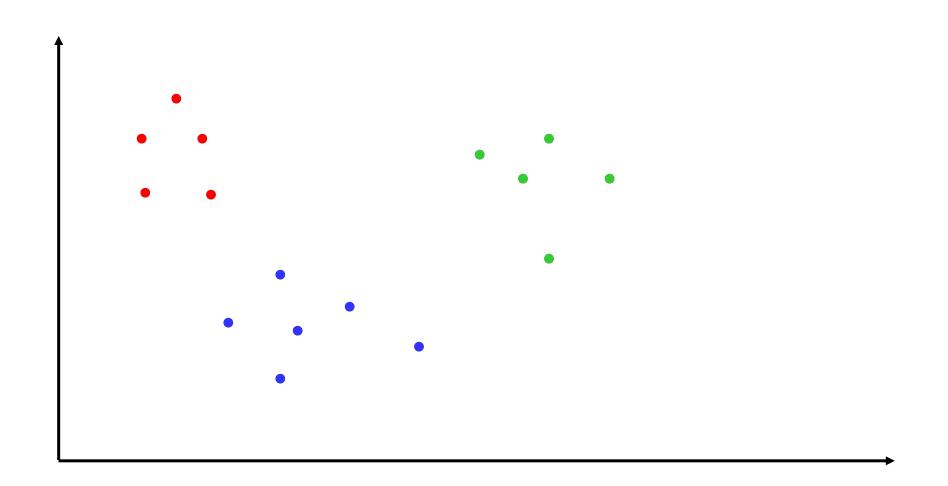
Supervised learning vs. unsupervised learning

- *Supervised* learning: discover patterns in the data that relate data attributes with target attributes
 - These patterns are then utilized to predict the values of target attributes in future data instances
- *Unsupervised* learning: The data have no target attribute
 - Find some intrinsic structures in data

Clustering

- Partition unlabeled examples into disjoint subsets of *clusters*, such that:
 - Examples within a cluster are very similar (*infra-cluster* similarity)
 - Examples in different clusters are very different (inter-cluster dissimilarity)
- Discover new categories in an *unsupervised* manner
- Due to historical reasons, clustering is often considered synonymous with unsupervised learning.
 - In fact, association rule mining is also unsupervised

Clustering Example

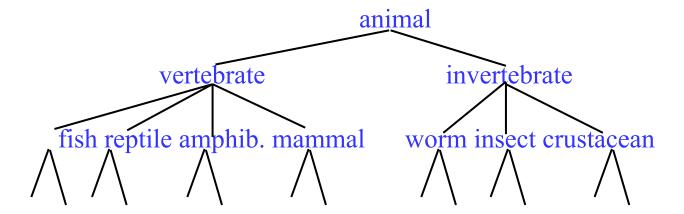


Application examples

- Example 1: In marketing, segment customers according to their similarities
 - To do targeted marketing
- Example 2: Given a collection of text documents, we want to organize them according to their content similarities
 - To produce a topic hierarchy

Hierarchical Clustering

• Build a tree-based hierarchical taxonomy (*dendrogram*) from a set of unlabeled examples



• Recursive application of a standard clustering algorithm can produce a hierarchical clustering.

Direct Clustering

- *Direct clustering* methods require a specification of the number of desired clusters, *k*
- A *clustering evaluation function* assigns a real-value quality measure to a clustering.
- The number of clusters can be determined automatically by explicitly generating clusterings for multiple values of *k* and choosing the best result according to a clustering evaluation function.

Aspects of clustering

- A clustering algorithm
 - Single Link Agglomerative Clustering
 - K-Means
 - **—** ...
- A distance (similarity, or dissimilarity) function
- Clustering quality
 - Inter-clusters distance ⇒ maximized
 - Intra-clusters distance ⇒ minimized
- The quality of a clustering result depends on the algorithm, the distance function, and the application

Hierarchical Clustering: Agglomerative vs. Divisive Clustering

• Agglomerative (bottom-up) methods start with each example in its own cluster and iteratively combine them to form larger and larger clusters

• *Divisive* (*partitional*, *top-down*): It starts with all data points in one cluster, the root. Splits the root into a set of child clusters. Each child cluster is recursively divided further

Hierarchical Agglomerative Clustering (HAC)

- Assumes different *similarity functions* for determining the similarity of two instances
- Starts with all instances in a separate cluster and then repeatedly joins the two clusters that are most similar until there is only one cluster
- The history of merging forms a binary tree or hierarchy

HAC Algorithm

Start with all instances in their own cluster.

Until there is only one cluster:

Among the current clusters, determine the two clusters, c_i and c_j , that are most similar.

Replace c_i and c_j with a single cluster $c_i \cup c_j$

HAC Algorithm: Partition based on Cluster Similarity

- How to compute similarity of two clusters each possibly containing multiple instances?
 - Single Link: Similarity of two most similar members
 - Complete Link: Similarity of two least similar members
 - Group Average: Average similarity between members

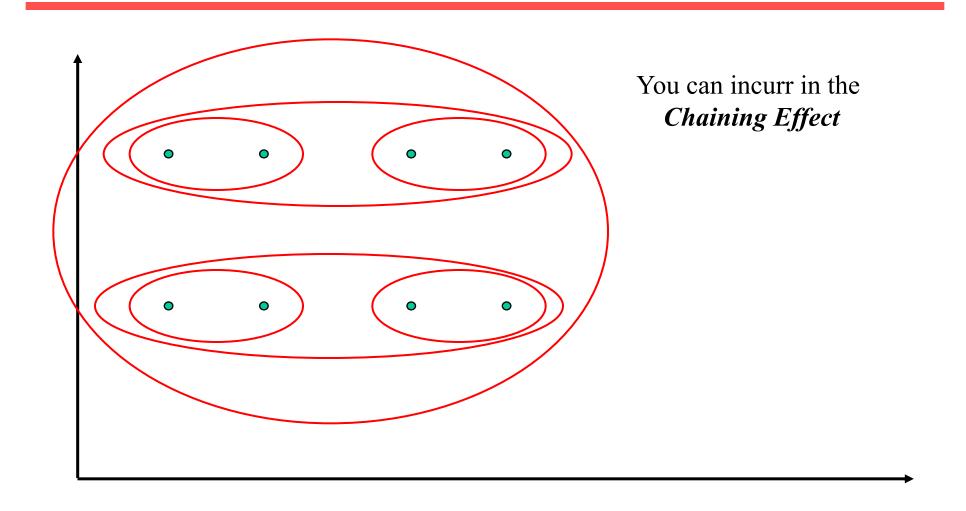
Single Link Agglomerative Clustering

• The distance between two clusters is the distance between two closest data points in the two clusters

• Use maximum similarity of pairs:

$$sim(c_i,c_j) = \max_{x \in c_i, y \in c_j} sim(x,y)$$

Single Link Example



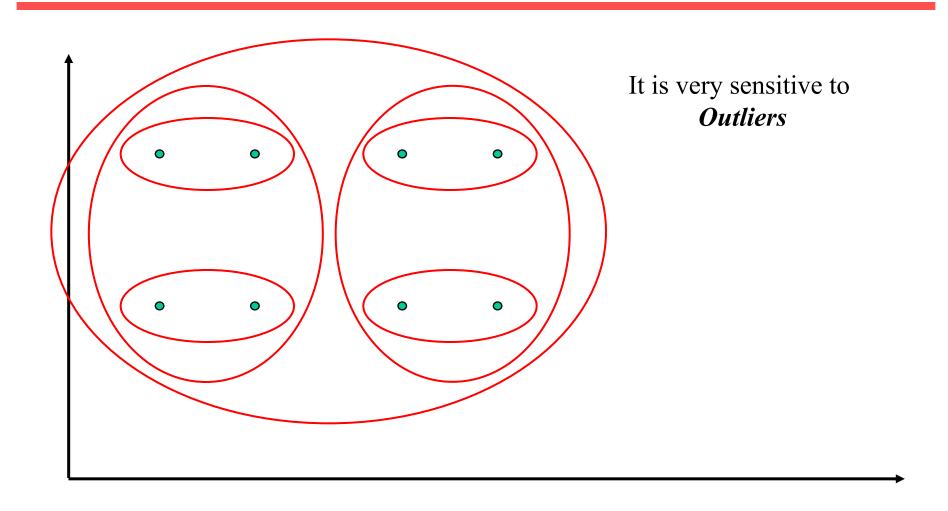
Complete Link Agglomerative Clustering

• The distance between two clusters is the distance of two furthest data points in the two clusters

• Use minimum similarity of pairs:

$$sim(c_i,c_j) = \min_{x \in c_i, y \in c_j} sim(x,y)$$

Complete Link Example



Group Average Agglomerative Clustering

• Use average similarity across all pairs within the merged cluster to measure the similarity of two clusters

$$sim(c_i, c_j) = \frac{1}{\left|c_i \cup c_j\right| \left(\left|c_i \cup c_j\right| - 1\right)} \sum_{\vec{x} \in (c_i \cup c_j)} \sum_{\vec{y} \in (c_i \cup c_j): \vec{y} \neq \vec{x}} sim(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$$

- Compromise between single and complete link
- Averaged across all ordered pairs in the merged cluster instead of unordered pairs *between* the two clusters

Computational Complexity

• In the first iteration, all HAC methods need to compute similarity of all pairs of n individual instances which is $O(n^2)$

• In each of the subsequent n-2 merging iterations, it must compute the distance between all existing clusters

• In order to maintain an overall $O(n^2)$ performance, computing similarity to each other cluster must be done in constant time.

Computing Group Average Similarity

- Assume cosine similarity and normalized vectors with unit length
- Always maintain sum of vectors in each cluster

$$\vec{s}(c_j) = \sum_{\vec{x} \in c_j} \vec{x}$$

• Compute similarity of clusters in constant time:

$$sim(c_{i}, c_{j}) = \frac{(\vec{s}(c_{i}) + \vec{s}(c_{j})) \cdot (\vec{s}(c_{i}) + \vec{s}(c_{j})) - (|c_{i}| + |c_{i}|)}{(|c_{i}| + |c_{i}|)(|c_{i}| + |c_{i}| - 1)}$$

Non-Hierarchical Clustering

- Typically must provide the number of desired clusters, k
- Randomly choose *k* instances as *seeds*, one per cluster
- Form initial clusters based on these seeds
- Iterate, repeatedly reallocating instances to different clusters to improve the overall clustering
- Stop when clustering converges or after a fixed number of iterations

K-Means

- Assumes instances are real-valued vectors
- Clusters based on *centroids*, *center of gravity*, or mean of points in a cluster, *c*:

$$\vec{i}(c) = \frac{1}{|c|} \sum_{\vec{x} \in c} \vec{x}$$

 Reassignment of instances to clusters is based on distance to the current cluster centroids

K-Means Algorithm

Let *d* be the distance measure between instances.

Select k random instances $\{s_1, s_2, \dots s_k\}$ as seeds.

Until clustering converges or other stopping criterion:

For each instance x_i :

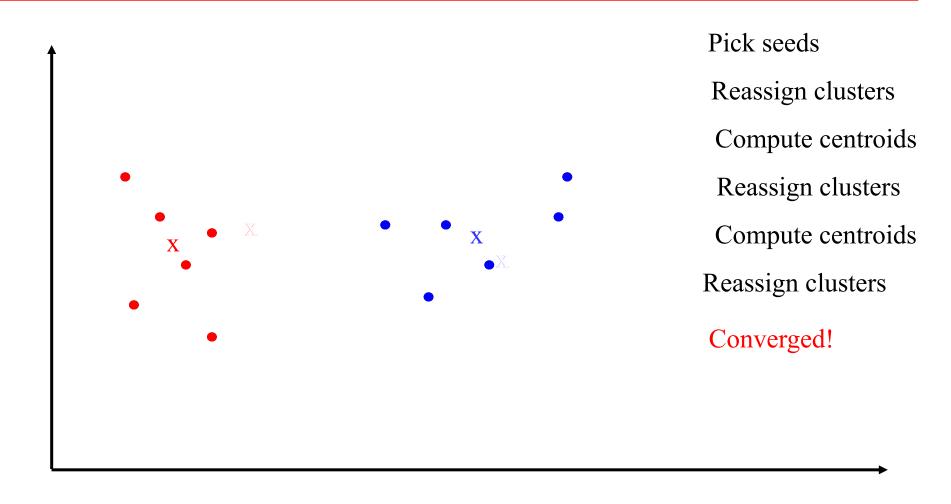
Assign x_i to the cluster c_i such that $d(x_i, s_i)$ is minimal.

(Update the seeds to the centroid of each cluster)

For each cluster c_i

$$s_i = \mu(c_i)$$

K Means Example (K=2)



K-Means stopping criteria

- No or minimum reassignment of data in clusters
- No or minimum change in centroids
- Minimum decrease in the sum of squared error (SSE)

$$SSE = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_j} dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)^2$$

 C_i is the *j*-th cluster, \mathbf{m}_j is the centroid of cluster C_j (the mean vector of all the data points in C_j), and $dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)$ is the distance between data point \mathbf{x} and centroid \mathbf{m}_i .

K-Mean - Time Complexity

- Assume computing distance between two instances is O(m) where m is the dimensionality of the vectors
- Reassigning clusters: O(kn) distance computations, or O(knm)
- Computing centroids: Each instance vector gets added once to some centroid: O(nm)
- Assume these two steps are each done once for *I* iterations: O(*Iknm*)
- Linear in all relevant factors, assuming a fixed number of iterations, more efficient than $O(n^2)$ HAC

Distance Metrics

• Euclidian distance (L₂ norm):

$$L_2(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_i - y_i)^2$$

• L_1 norm:

$$L_1(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} |x_i - y_i|$$

• Cosine Similarity (transform to a distance by subtracting from 1): $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{v}$

$$1 - \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}}{|\vec{x}| \cdot |\vec{y}|}$$

Distance Metrics

- Chebychev distance
 - define two data points as "different" if they are different on any one of the attributes

$$dist(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j}) = \max(|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|, |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|, ..., |x_{ir} - x_{jr}|)$$

Data standardization

- In the Euclidean space, standardization of attributes is recommended so that all attributes can have equal impact on the computation of distances
- Consider the following pair of data points

$$-\mathbf{x}_{i}$$
: (0.1, 20) and \mathbf{x}_{i} : (0.9, 720).

$$dist(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sqrt{(0.9 - 0.1)^2 + (720 - 20)^2} = 700.000457,$$

- The distance is almost completely dominated by (720-20) = 700
- Standardize attributes: to force the attributes to have a common value range

Interval-scaled attributes

- Their values are real numbers following a linear scale
 - The difference in Age between 10 and 20 is the same as that between 40 and 50
 - The key idea is that intervals keep the same importance through out the scale
- Two main approaches to standardize interval scaled attributes, **range** and **z-score**. *f* is an attribute

$$range(x_{if}) = \frac{x_{if} - \min(f)}{\max(f) - \min(f)},$$

Interval-scaled attributes (cont ...)

• Z-score: transforms the attribute values so that they have a mean of zero and a mean absolute deviation of 1. The mean absolute deviation of attribute f, denoted by s_f , is computed as follows

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

$$m_f = \frac{1}{n} (x_{1f} + x_{2f} + \dots + x_{nf}),$$

$$z(x_{if}) = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}.$$

Clustering evaluation

- How can we evaluate produced clusters?
- We can use some *internal criteria* for the quality of a clustering
 - Typical objective functions can formalize the goal of attaining high intracluster similarity and low inter-cluster similarity
 - But good scores on an internal criterion do not necessarily translate into good effectiveness in an application
- It is better to adopt some external criteria
 - we can use a set of classes in an evaluation benchmark or gold standard
- Or we can use some indirect evaluation criteria
 - In some applications, clustering is not the primary task, but used to help perform another task.
 - We can use the performance on the primary task to compare clustering methods.

Cluster evaluation: External Criteria

- We use some labeled data (for classification)
- Assumption: Each class is a cluster
- After clustering, build a confusion matrix
- From the matrix, compute various measurements: Entropy,
 Purity, Precision, Recall and F-score
 - Let the classes in the data D be $C = (c_1, c_2, ..., c_k)$. The clustering method produces k clusters, which divides D into k disjoint subsets, $D_1, D_2, ..., D_k$.
 - We can estimate $Pr_i(c_j)$, i.e. the proportion of class c_j data points in cluster i or D_i

$$Pr_i(c_i) = |c_i \cap D_i| / |D_i|$$

Evaluation measures: purity

Purity: This again measures the extent that a cluster contains only one class of data. The purity of each cluster is computed with

$$purity(D_i) = \max_{j}(\Pr_i(c_j))$$
(31)

The total purity of the whole clustering (considering all clusters) is

$$purity_{total}(D) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{|D_i|}{|D|} \times purity(D_i)$$
(32)

If all clusters contain one instance only, the purity will be maximim, i.e. equal to 1

Evaluation measures: Entropy

Entropy: For each cluster, we can measure its entropy as follows:

$$entropy(D_i) = -\sum_{j=1}^{k} \Pr_i(c_j) \log_2 \Pr_i(c_j), \tag{29}$$

where $Pr_i(c_j)$ is the proportion of class c_j data points in cluster i or D_i . The total entropy of the whole clustering (which considers all clusters) is

$$entropy_{total}(D) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{|D_i|}{|D|} \times entropy(D_i)$$
 (30)

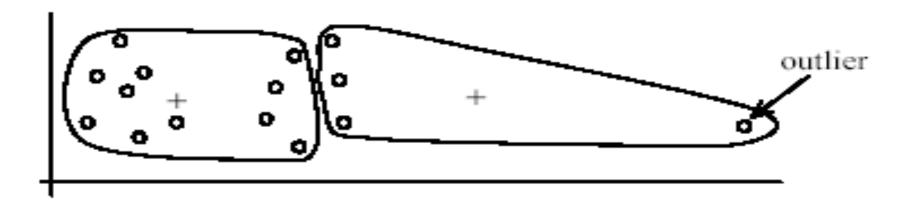
Soft Clustering

- Clustering typically assumes that each instance is (hard) assigned to exactly one cluster
 - Does not allow uncertainty in class membership or for an instance to belong to more than one cluster
- *Soft clustering* gives probabilities to instances of belonging to each clusters
 - ES: Fuzzy C-mean
- Each instance has a probability distribution across a set of discovered categories (probabilities of all categories must sum to 1)

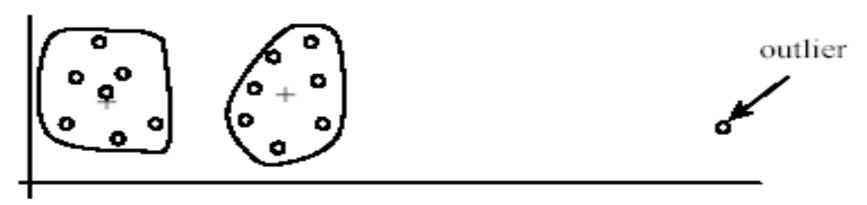
Weaknesses of k-means

- The algorithm is only applicable if the mean is defined
 - For categorical data, k-mode the centroid is represented by most frequent values
- The algorithm is sensitive to outliers
 - Outliers are data points that are very far away from other data points
 - Outliers could be errors in the data recording or some special data points with very different values
- The user needs to specify k
- Results can very based on random seed selection
- Some seeds can result in poor convergence rate, or convergence to sub-optimal clusterings
- Select good seeds using a heuristic or the results of another method

Weaknesses of k-means: Problems with outliers



(A): Undesirable clusters



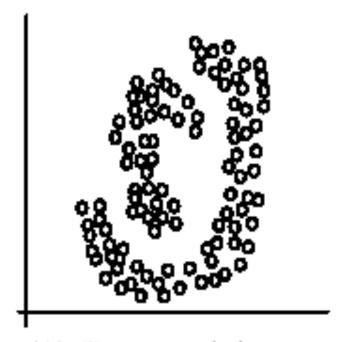
(B): Ideal clusters

Dealing with outliers

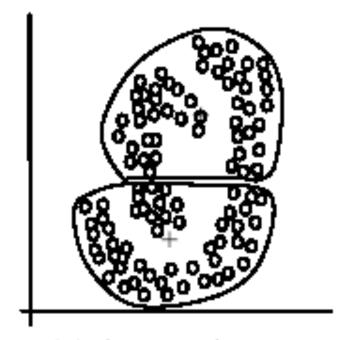
- How to deal with outliers?
- One method is to remove some data points that are far from centroids
 - However, they can be important data
 - To be safe, monitor these points over multiple iterations before removing them
- Perform random sampling
 - Choose randomly points to partition
 - Choice of outliers is unlikely

Weaknesses of k-means (cont ...)

• The *k*-means algorithm is not suitable for discovering clusters that are not hyper-ellipsoids (or hyper-spheres)



(A): Two natural clusters



(B): k-means clusters

- *Quality Threshold (QT) K-Means* Algorithm is an evolution of basic *K-Means* that dynamically change the number of cluster *k*
- Use two threshold to consider both *inter-cluster* and *infra-cluster* similarity

Let σ and τ be two different thresholds.

Let *d* be the distance measure between instances.

Select k random instances $\{s_1, s_2, \dots s_k\}$ as seeds.

Until clustering converges or other stopping criterion:

For each instance x_i :

Assign x_i to the cluster c_j such that $d(x_i, s_j)$ is minimal but less then σ .

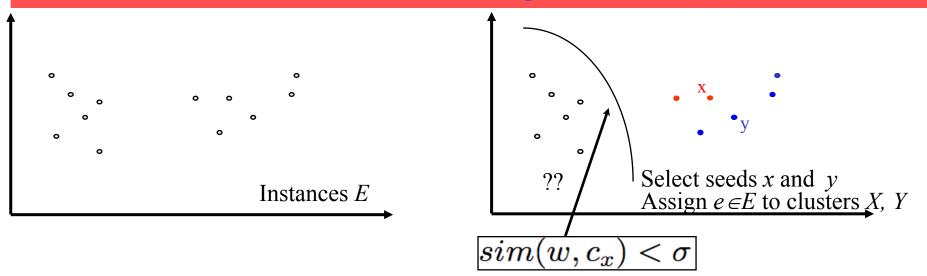
Else create new seed with instance x_i (the number k of clusters increase)

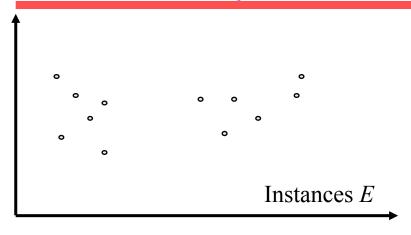
(Update the seeds to the centroid of each cluster)

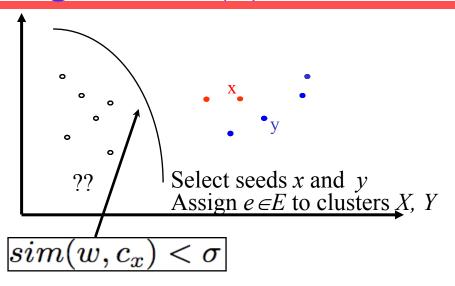
For each cluster pairs c_i , c_j to $i \neq j$:

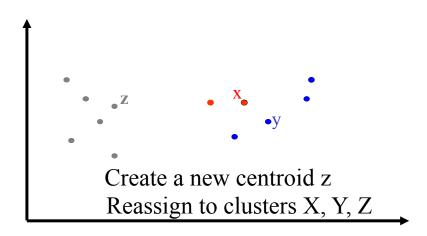
If $d(s_i, s_j)$ less than τ merge c_i and c_j (the number k of clusters decrease)

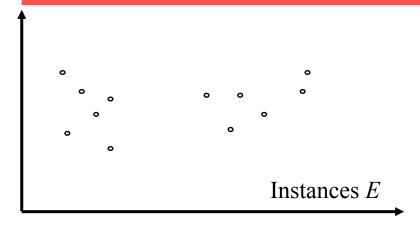
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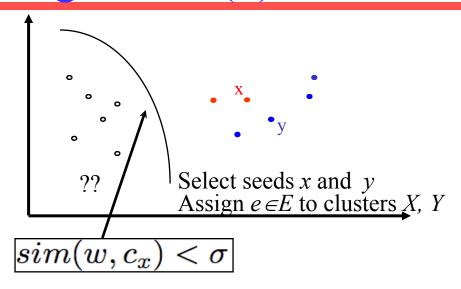


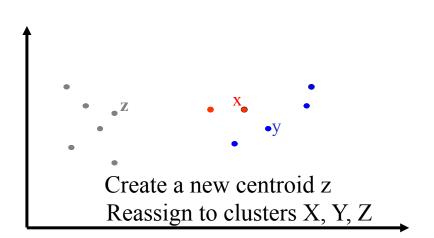


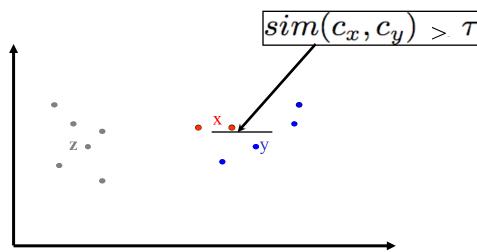










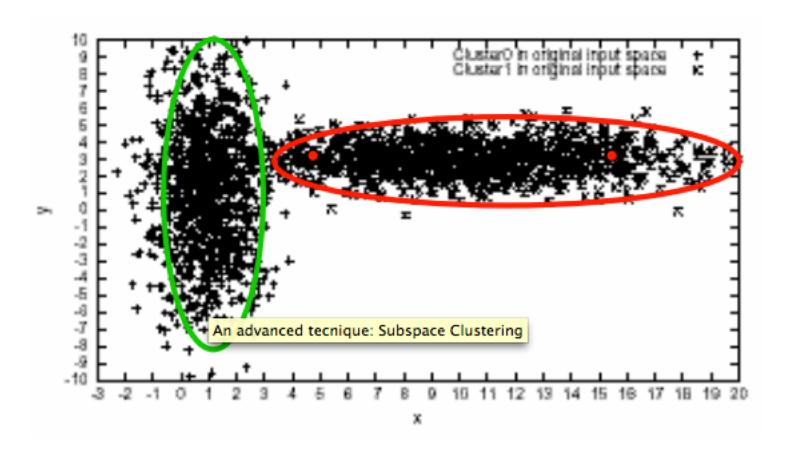


```
Merge cluster X and Y
Reassign to clusters Y, Z
```

Convergence

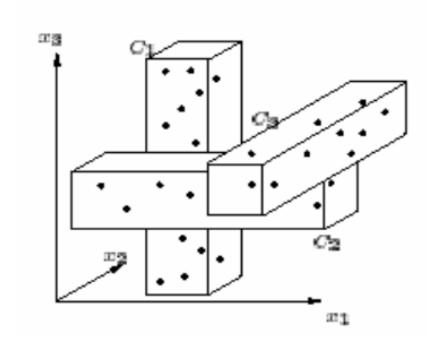
Advanced Techniques Subspace Clustering (1)

• In high dimensional spaces, few dimensions can exist on which the points are far apart from each other



An advanced tecnique Subspace Clustering (2)

 Subspace Clustering: seek to find clusters in a dataset by selecting the most relevant dimensions for each cluster separately



Each dimension is relevant to at least one cluster

A Subspace Clustering algorithm Locally Adaptive Clustering

- We cannot prune off dimensions without incurring a loss of crucial information
- The data presents local structure:
 - To capture the local correlations of data a proper feature selection procedure should operate locally
 - A local operation would allow to embed different distance measures in different regions
- **IDEA:** apply a *Co-clustering* approach
 - simultaneous clustering of both data and dimensions

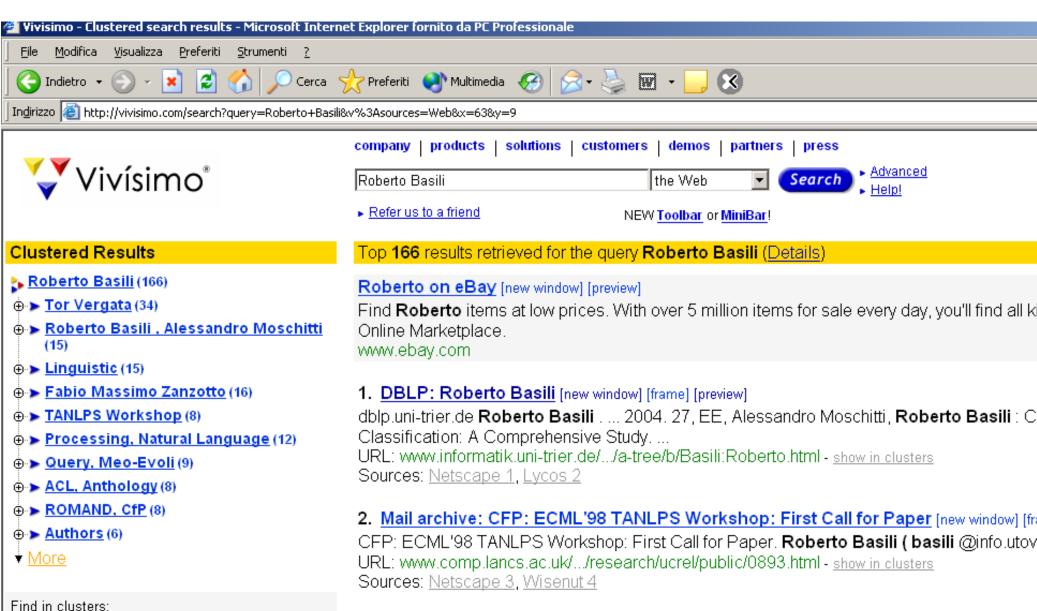
A Subspace Clustering algorithm Locally Adaptive Clustering

- LAC is a variant of K-Means where cluster are weighted
 - Each centroid is weighted so that only few dimensions are considered when associating data point to clusters
 - At each step the centroid weighting schema is update
 - In each cluster the weights determine the informative dimensions

Some applications: Text Clustering

- HAC and K-Means have been applied to text in a straightforward way
- Typically use *normalized*, TF/IDF-weighted vectors and cosine similarity
- Optimize computations for sparse vectors
- Applications:
 - During retrieval, add other documents in the same cluster as the initial retrieved documents to improve recall
 - Clustering of results of retrieval to present more organized results to the user (à la Northernlight folders)
 - Automated production of hierarchical taxonomies of documents for browsing purposes (à la Yahoo & DMOZ)

Some applications: Clustering and search (1)



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Some applications: Clustering and search (2)





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Current Challenges in Clustering

Many traditional clustering techniques do not perform satisfactorily in data mining scenarios due to a variety of reasons

Data Distribution

Large number of samples

• The number of samples to be processed is very high. Clustering in general is NP-hard, and practical and successful data mining algorithms usually scale linear or log-linear. Quadratic and cubic scaling may also be allowable but a linear behavior is highly desirable.

High dimensionality

• The number of features is very high and may even exceed the number of samples. So one has to face the curse of dimensionality

Sparsity

• Most features are zero for most samples, i.e. the object-feature matrix is sparse. This property strongly affects the measurements of similarity and the computational complexity.

Significant outliers

• Outliers may have significant importance. Finding these outliers is highly non-trivial, and removing them is not necessarily desirable.

Current Challenges in Clustering (cont.)

Application context

Legacy clusterings

• Previous cluster analysis results are often available. This knowledge should be reused instead of starting each analysis from scratch.

Distributed data

• Large systems often have heterogeneous distributed data sources. Local cluster analysis results have to be integrated into global models.