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 \Rightarrow maximized
 - Intra-clusters distance \Rightarrow 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

$$\dot{sim}(c_i, c_j) = \frac{1}{\left|c_i \stackrel{`}{\vDash} c_j\right| \left(\left|c_i \stackrel{`}{\vDash} c_j\right| - 1\right)} \mathop{a}\limits_{\vec{x} \stackrel{`}{\wr} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\vDash} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{`}{\iota} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\vDash} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{`}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{`}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{'}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{`}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{`}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} \stackrel{'}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{'}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} (c_i \stackrel{'}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\tau} (c_i \stackrel{'}{\leftarrow} c_j) \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} (c_i \stackrel{'}{\vec{y}} (c_j \stackrel{'}{\leftarrow} c_j)$$

- 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

$$\vec{S}(C_j) = \mathop{\text{a}}_{\vec{X}} \vec{C}_j \vec{X}$$

• 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*:

$$\vec{i}(c) = \frac{1}{|c|} \mathop{a}\limits_{\vec{x} c} \vec{x}$$

• 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_j such that $d(x_i, s_j)$ is minimal. (Update the seeds to the centroid of each cluster) For each cluster c_j

 $s_j = \mu(c_j)$

K Means Example (K=2)



Pick seeds
Reassign clusters
Compute centroids
Reassign clusters
Compute centroids
Reassign clusters

Converged!

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}_j .

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):

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

- L₁ norm: $L_1(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \bigotimes_{i=1}^m |x_i - y_i|$
- Cosine Similarity (transform to a distance by subtracting from 1): $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$

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

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}_j : (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

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

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

$$z(x_{if}) = \frac{x_{if} - m_{f}}{s}.$$

 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

$$Pr_i(c_j) = /c_j \cap D_i / / / D_i /$$

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:

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













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

Locally adaptive metrics for clustering high dimensional data Domeniconi et al, 2007 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

Locally adaptive metrics for clustering high dimensional data Domeniconi et al, 2007

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 application	ons: 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.