CS 2750 Machine Learning Lecture 20

Clustering

Milos Hauskrecht milos@cs.pitt.edu 5329 Sennott Square

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Clustering

Groups together "similar" instances in the data sample

Basic clustering problem:

- distribute data into *k* different groups such that data points similar to each other are in the same group
- Similarity between data points is defined in terms of some distance metric (can be chosen)

Clustering is useful for:

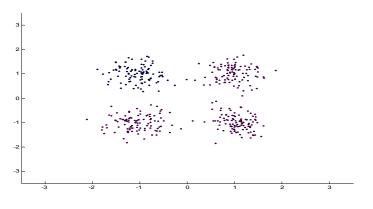
- Similarity/Dissimilarity analysis

 Analyze what data points in the sample are close to each other
- Dimensionality reduction

 High dimensional data replaced with a group (cluster) label

Clustering example

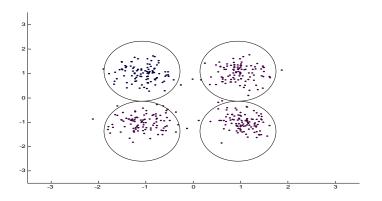
- We see data points and want to partition them into groups
- Which data points belong together?



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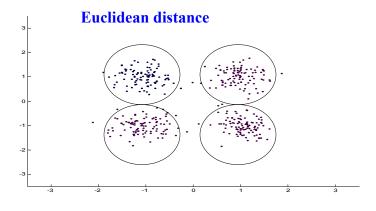
Clustering example

- We see data points and want to partition them into the groups
- Which data points belong together?



Clustering example

- We see data points and want to partition them into the groups
- Requires a distance measure to tell us what points are close to each other and are in the same group



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Clustering example

- A set of patient cases
- We want to partition them into groups based on similarities

Patient #	Age	Sex	Heart Rate	Blood pressure
Patient 1	55	M	85	125/80
Patient 2	62	M	87	130/85
Patient 3	67	F	80	126/86
Patient 4	65	F	90	130/90
Patient 5	70	M	84	135/85

Clustering example

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How to design the distance metric to quantify similarities?

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Clustering example. Distance measures.

In general, one can choose an arbitrary distance measure.

Properties of distance metrics:

Assume 2 data entries a, b

Positiveness: $d(a,b) \ge 0$

Symmetry: d(a,b) = d(b,a)

Identity: d(a, a) = 0

Distance measures.

Assume pure real-valued data-points:

 12
 34.5
 78.5
 89.2
 19.2

 23.5
 41.4
 66.3
 78.8
 8.9

 33.6
 36.7
 78.3
 90.3
 21.4

 17.2
 30.1
 71.6
 88.5
 12.5

What distance metric to use?

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Distance measures

Assume pure real-valued data-points:

What distance metric to use?

Euclidian: works for an arbitrary k-dimensional space

$$d(a,b) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i - b_i)^2}$$

Distance measures

Assume pure real-valued data-points:

12 34.5 78.5 89.2 19.2 23.5 41.4 66.3 78.8 8.9 33.6 36.7 78.3 90.3 21.4 17.2 30.1 71.6 88.5 12.5

What distance metric to use?

Squared Euclidian: works for an arbitrary k-dimensional space

$$d^{2}(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_{i} - b_{i})^{2}$$

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Distance measures.

Assume pure real-valued data-points:

12 34.5 78.5 89.2 19.2 23.5 41.4 66.3 78.8 8.9 33.6 36.7 78.3 90.3 21.4 17.2 30.1 71.6 88.5 12.5

Manhattan distance:

works for an arbitrary k-dimensional space

$$d(a,b) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} |a_i - b_i|$$

Etc. ..

Distance measures

Generalized distance metric:

$$d^{2}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})\Gamma^{-1}(\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b})^{T}$$

 Γ semi-definite positive matrix

 Γ^{-1} is a matrix that weights attributes proportionally to their importance. Different weights lead to a different distance metric.

If $\Gamma = I$ we get squared Euclidean

 Γ = Σ (covariance matrix) – we get the Mahalanobis distance that takes into account correlations among attributes

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Distance measures.

Assume pure binary values data:

0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1

. . .

What distance metric to use?

Distance measures.

Assume pure binary values data:

0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1

What distance metric to use?

Hamming distance: The number of bits that need to be changed to make the entries the same

The same metric can be used for pure categorical values:

• number of values that need to be changed to make them the same

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Distance measures.

Combination of real-valued and categorical attributes

Patient #	Age	Sex	Heart Rate	Blood pressure
Patient 1	55	M	85	125/80
Patient 2	62	M	87	130/85
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What distance metric to use?

Distance measures.

Combination of real-valued and categorical attributes

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What distance metric to use?

A weighted sum approach: e.g. a mix of Euclidian and Hamming distances for subsets of attributes

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Clustering

Clustering is useful for:

- Similarity/Dissimilarity analysis

 Analyze what data points in the sample are close to each other
- **Dimensionality reduction**High dimensional data replaced with a group (cluster) label

Problems:

- Pick the correct similarity measure (problem specific)
- Choose the correct number of groups
 - Many clustering algorithms require us to provide the number of groups ahead of time

Clustering algorithms

- K-means algorithm
 - suitable only when data points have continuous values; groups are defined in terms of cluster centers (also called means). Refinement of the method to categorical values:
 K-medoids
- Probabilistic methods (with EM)
 - Latent variable models: class (cluster) is represented by a latent (hidden) variable value
 - Every point goes to the class with the highest posterior
 - Examples: mixture of Gaussians, Naïve Bayes with a hidden class
- Hierarchical methods
 - Agglomerative
 - Divisive

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K-means

K-Means algorithm:

Initialize randomly k values of means (centers)

Repeat two steps until no change in the means:

- Partition the data according to the current set of means (using the similarity measure)
- Move the means to the center of the data in the current partition

Stop when no change in the means

Properties:

- Minimizes the sum of squared center-point distances for all clusters
- The algorithm always converges (to the local optima).

K-means algorithm

• Properties:

- converges to centers minimizing the sum of squared centerpoint distances (still local optima)
- The result is sensitive to the initial means' values

Advantages:

- Simplicity
- Generality can work for more than one distance measure

• Drawbacks:

- Can perform poorly with overlapping regions
- Lack of robustness to outliers
- Good for attributes (features) with continuous values
 - Allows us to compute cluster means
 - k-medoid algorithm used for discrete data

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Probabilistic (EM-based) algorithms

Latent variable models

Examples: Naïve Bayes with hidden class Mixture of Gaussians

Partitioning:

- the data point belongs to the class with the highest posterior

Advantages:

- Good performance on overlapping regions
- Robustness to outliers
- Data attributes can have different types of values

Drawbacks:

- EM is computationally expensive and can take time to converge
- Density model should be given in advance

Hierarchical clustering.

Uses an arbitrary similarity/dissimilarity measure. Typical similarity measures d(a,b):

Pure real-valued data-points:

- Euclidean, Manhattan, Minkowski distances

Pure binary values data:

- Hamming distance - Number of matching values

Pure categorical data:

Number of matching values

Combination of real-valued and categorical attributes

Weighted approaches

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Hierarchical clustering

Approach:

- Compute dissimilarity matrix for all pairs of points
 - uses standard or other distance measures
- Construct clusters greedily:
 - Agglomerative approach
 - Merge pair of clusters in a bottom-up fashion, starting from singleton clusters
 - Divisive approach:
 - Splits clusters in top-down fashion, starting from one complete cluster
- Stop the greedy construction when some criterion is satisfied
 - E.g. fixed number of clusters

Cluster merging

- Construction of clusters through greedy agglomerative approach
 - Merge pair of clusters in a bottom-up fashion, starting from singleton clusters
 - Merge clusters based on cluster (or linkage) distances.
 Defined in terms of point distances. Examples:

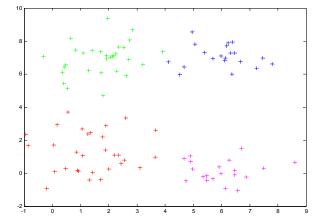
Min distance
$$d_{\min}(C_i, C_j) = \min_{p \in C_i, q \in C_j} |p - q|$$

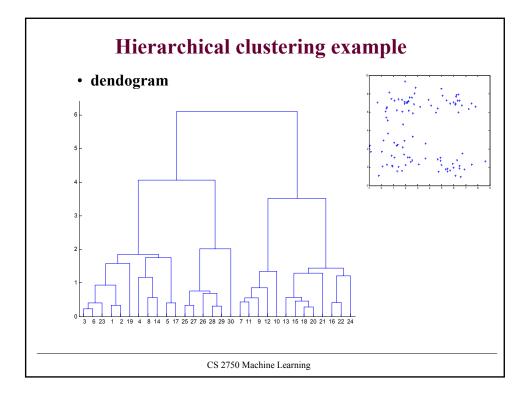
Max distance
$$d_{\max}(C_i, C_j) = \max_{p \in C_i, q \in C_j} |p - q|$$

Mean distance
$$d_{mean}(C_i, C_j) = \left| \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_i p_i - \frac{1}{|C_j|} \sum_j q_j \right|$$

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Hierarchical clustering example





Hierarchical clustering

Advantage:

Smaller computational cost; avoids scanning all possible clusterings

• Disadvantage:

Greedy choice fixes the order in which clusters are merged;
 cannot be repaired

• Partial solution:

• combine hierarchical clustering with iterative algorithms like k-means