
Cluster Analysis

Group: 7

Course: CSE 537

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- [3] Cattell, R. B. (1943). "The description of personality: Basic traits resolved into clusters". Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 38: 476–506. doi:10.1037/h0054116
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Overview

1. Early History
2. Importance of Clustering
3. Similarity Measure (partially covered by Group 2)
4. K-medoids Clustering
5. Hierarchical Clustering
6. Density-based Clustering (will be covered by Group 14)
7. EM Clustering (covered by Group 2)
8. Pre-clustering

Brief Early History

- Originated in **anthropology** by **Driver and Kroeber** in **1932**^[1]
- Introduced to **psychology** by **Zubin** in **1938** and **Robert Tryon** in **1939**^[2]
- Famously used by **Cattell** beginning in **1943**^[3] for trait theory classification in personality **psychology**
- Widely used in **social science**, **medicine**, **biology**, **geography**, **pattern recognition**, and etc.

[1] Driver, H. E. and A. L. Kroeber (1932) Quantitative expression of cultural relationships. University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology 31: 211-56.

[2] Tryon, Robert C. (1939). Cluster Analysis: Correlation Profile and Orthometric (factor) Analysis for the Isolation of Unities in Mind and Personality. Edwards Brothers.

[3] Cattell, R. B. (1943). "The description of personality: Basic traits resolved into clusters". Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology 38: 476–506. doi:10.1037/h0054116

The Importance of Clustering

Clustering = **Unsupervised learning** (no predefined classes)

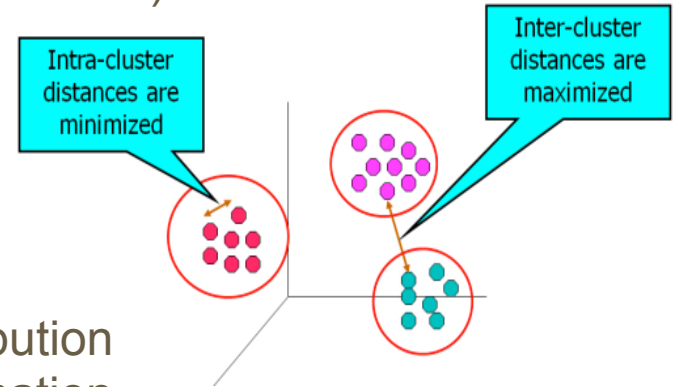
To group **a collection of data objects** so that

- **Similar** to one another **within the same cluster**
- **Dissimilar** to the objects in **other clusters**

Clustering results are used:

- As a **stand-alone tool** to get insight into data distribution
- Visualization of clusters may unveil important information
- As a **preprocessing step** for other algorithms

Efficient indexing or compression often relies on clustering



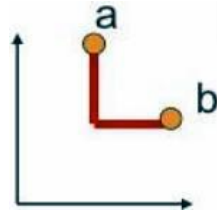
Similarity Measure

Group 2: “Data Visualization” has partially covered this part.

For two objects \mathbf{X} ($x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_i$) and \mathbf{Y} ($y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_i$), we have:

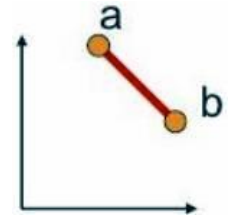
Manhattan Distance =

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|$$



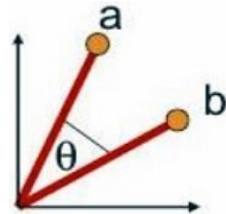
Euclidean Distance =

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$



Cosine Similarity =

$$\frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \|y\|} = \frac{\sum_i x_i y_i}{\sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_i y_i^2}}$$



Pearson Correlation =

$$\frac{\langle x - \bar{x}, y - \bar{y} \rangle}{\|x - \bar{x}\| \|y - \bar{y}\|} = \frac{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

Features of Similarity Measure

Euclidean Distance measures **distance** between **two points**.

- Most commonly used
- Not suitable for high dimensional data
- Best choice if data are dense and continuous

Cosine Similarity measures **angle** between **two vectors**.

- Value range from -1 to 1
- Invariant to scaling, but sensitive to shifting
- Best choice if data is sparse and asymmetric

Pearson Correlation measures **linear relationship** between **two variables**.

- Value range from -1 to 1
- Invariant to both scaling and shifting
- Best choice if data tends to be linearly correlated

Partition Clustering (K-means vs K-medoids)

K-means algorithm has been covered in the presentation of Group 2: “Data Visualization”

Drawback of K-means: very **sensitive to outliers** because such objects dramatically distort the mean value of the cluster

Solution: K-medoids

Using **actual objects** to represent the clusters, based on the principle of minimizing the sum of general pairwise dissimilarities in each cluster

Kaufman, L. and Rousseeuw, P.J. (1987), Clustering by means of Medoids, in Statistical Data Analysis Based on the L₁-Norm and Related Methods, edited by Y. Dodge, North-Holland, 405–416.

K-medoids Clustering (PAM)

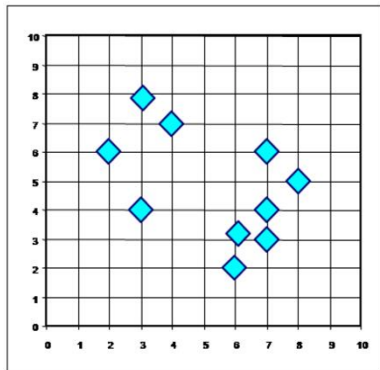
PAM = Partitioning Around Medoids

A popular realization of k-medoids clustering

Algorithm:

1. Randomly select **K representative objects** as initial medoids
2. **Associate** each data point to the closest medoid
3. Randomly select a **non-representative object** O_{random}
4. Compute the **total cost S** of swapping the medoid m with O_{random}
5. If **$S < 0$** , then **swap m with O_{random}** to form the new set of medoids
6. **Repeat steps 2 - 5** until there is no change

PAM Algorithm

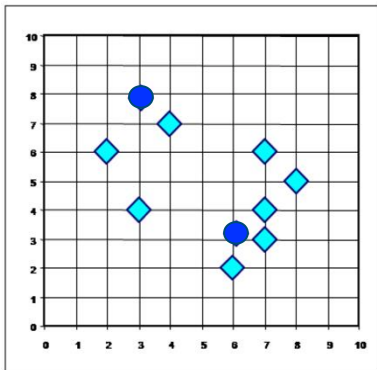


K = 2

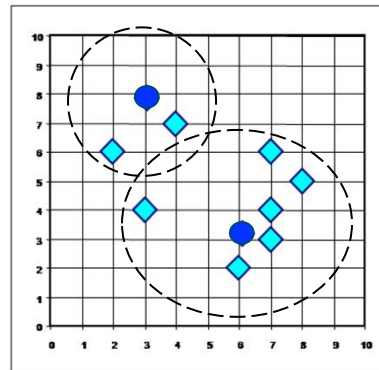
Randomly select K objects as initial medoids



Do loop until no change



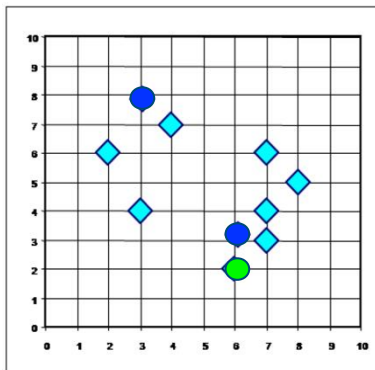
Assign each remaining object to the nearest medoid



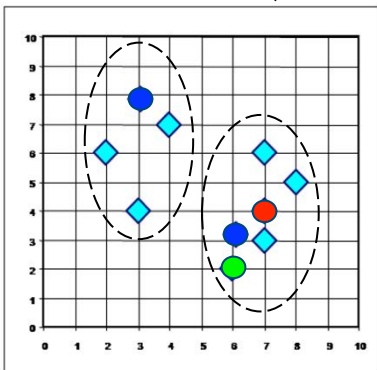
Total Cost = 20

Total Cost = 25

Randomly select a non-medoid object O_{Random}



Computer total cost of swapping



Swapping O and O_{Random} If quality is improved.

Total Cost = 19

Advantages & Disadvantages of K-medoids

Advantages:

- It is more **robust to noise and outliers** as compared to K-means

Disadvantages:

- It requires the **specification of K**.
- The computation is very **costly** when data sets are large
The complexity of each iteration is $O(K(n-K)^2)$, where K is the number of clusters and n is the number of data .

Improvement:

Randomly sample large dataset, then apply PAM algorithm to **multiple samples**.

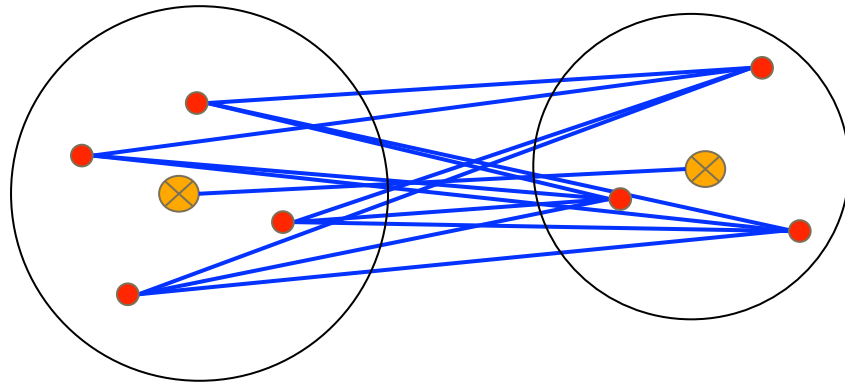
Hierarchical Clustering

Hierarchical Clustering: Creating a **hierarchical decomposition** of the set of objects using **similarity matrix** as clustering criteria

Two Main Algorithms: 1. **Agglomerative method** 2. Divisive method

Similarity Matrix: Linkage methods

- MIN
- MAX
- Group Average
- Distance of Centroid



Agglomerative Algorithm

Main Steps:

1. Let each data point be a cluster
2. Initialize and compute the **similarity matrix**

Repeat

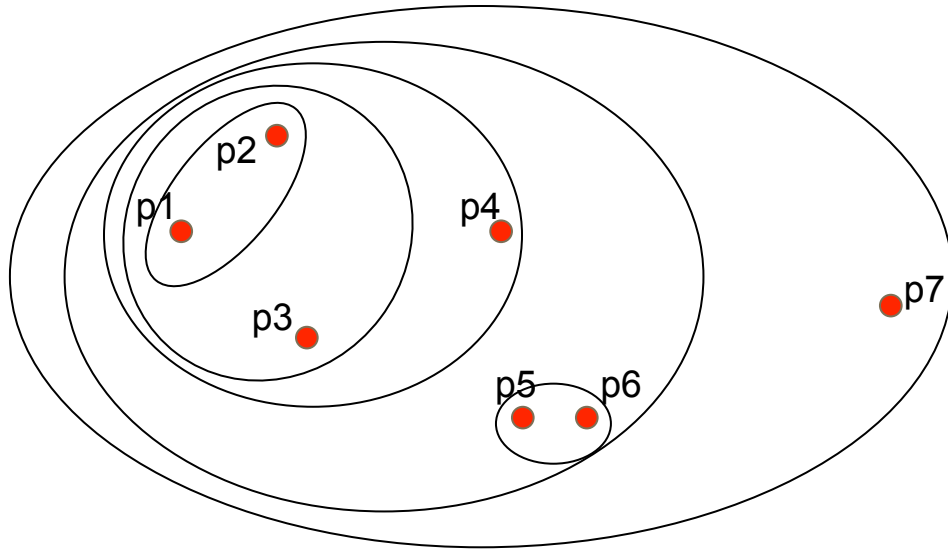
3. **Merge** the two closest clusters
4. **Update** the similarity matrix

Until only a single cluster remains

5. Draw the **dendrogram** of the **sequences of merges**
6. **Cut** the dendrogram with a certain level to form a certain clustering

Agglomerative Algorithm Example

Use **MIN** Linkage Method



	p1	p2	p3	p4	p5	...
p1						
p2						
p3						
p4						
p5						
...						

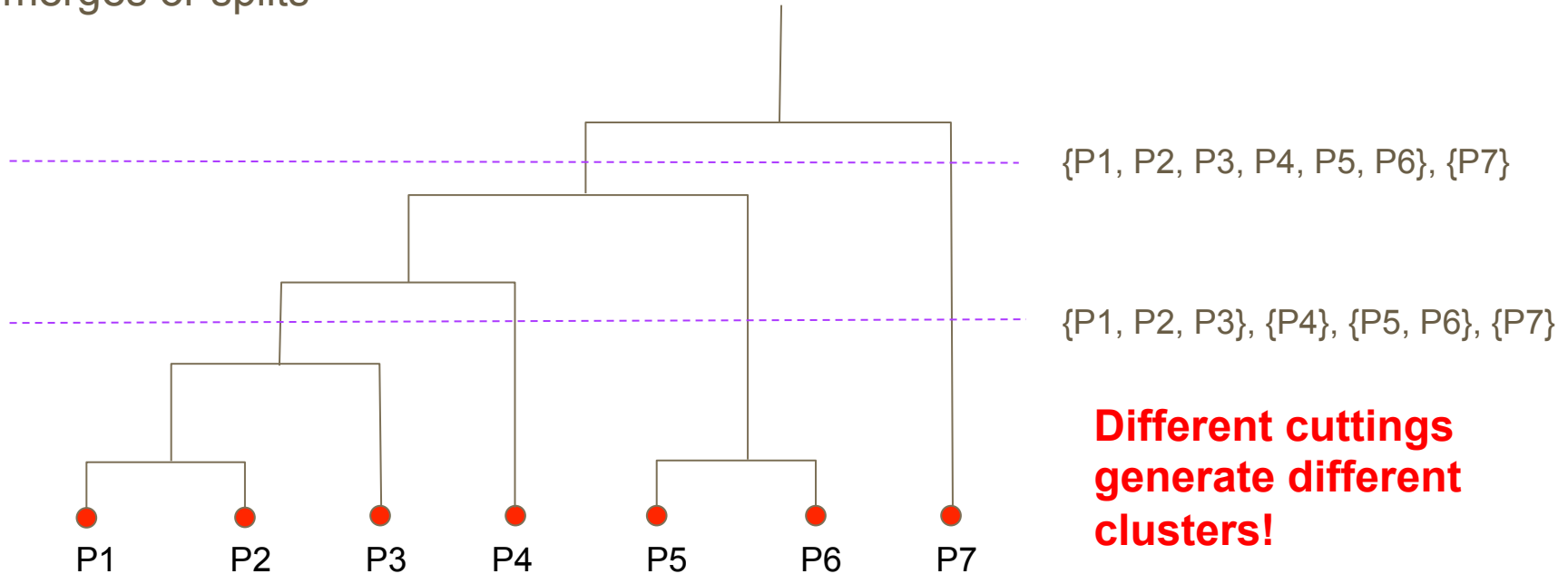
Proximity Matrix



Update

Agglomerative Algorithm Example (cont.)

Visualized as a dendrogram: A tree like diagram that records the sequences of merges or splits



Similarity Matrix Comparisons

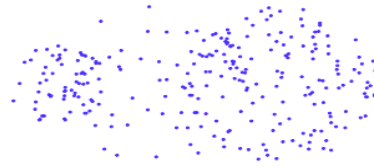


Original Points

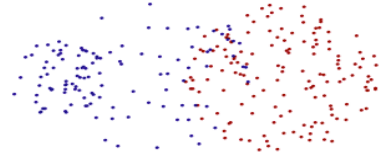


Two Clusters

Pro of MIN: No bias towards larger cluster

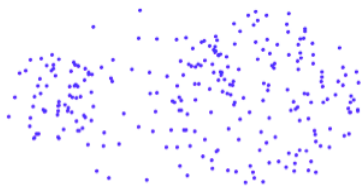


Original Points

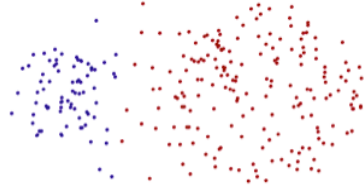


Two Clusters

Con of MIN: Sensitive to noises and outliers

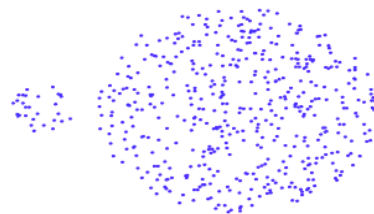


Original Points

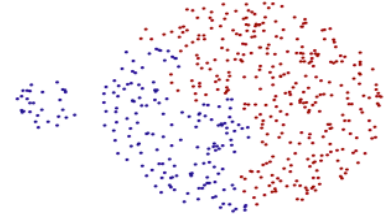


Two Clusters

Pro of MAX: Non-sensitive to noises and outliers



Original Points



Two Clusters

Con of MAX: Tends to break & bias to larger clusters

Advantages & Disadvantages of Hierarchical Clustering

Advantages:

- There is **no need to specify** number of clusters.
- **Any number of clusters** can be obtained using different cutting level.

Disadvantages:

- The computation is very **costly**. The complexity is $O(N^2 \log(N))$ for Agglomerative, where N stands for the number of data.
- Once two clusters merged, the process **cannot be undone**.
- It has the problem of **either noise sensitivity** or **large cluster bias**

Density-based Clustering (DBSCAN)

Group 14 will cover this part in their presentation soon.

Distribution-based Clustering (EM Clustering)

Group 2: “Data Visualization” has covered this method.

Pre-clustering for Big Data (Canopy Clustering)

Problem: Traditional clustering algorithms are **expensive** when the dataset is large.

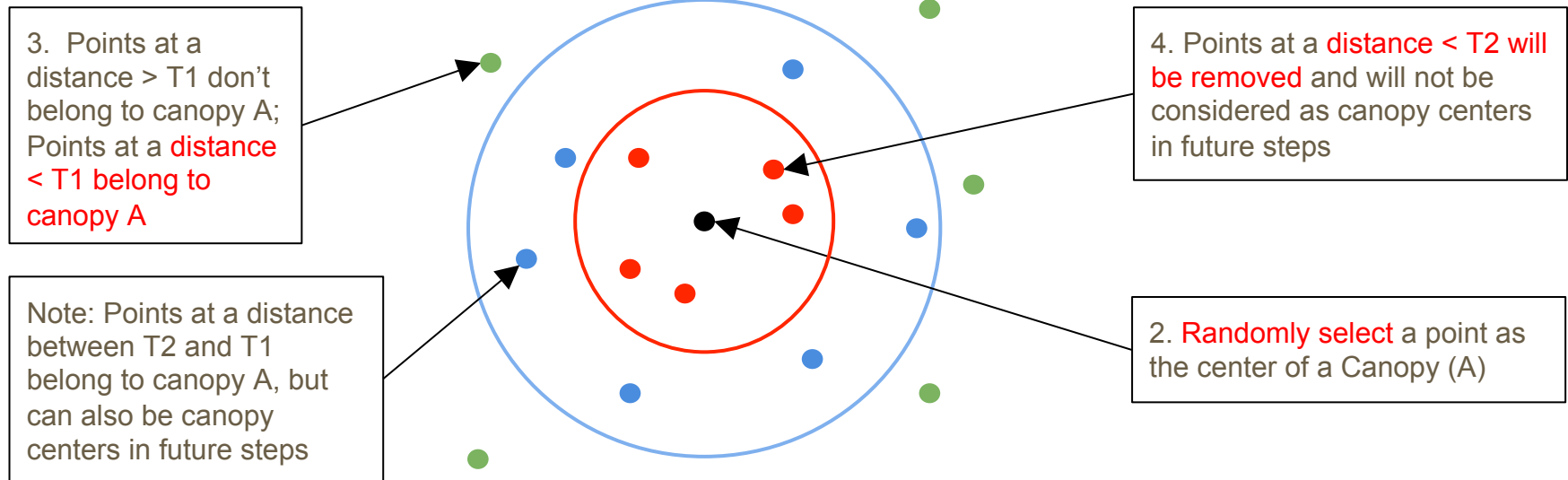
Solution: **Pre-clustering** (Canopy)

First stage - using a **cheap**, approximate distance measure to efficiently divide large data into **overlapping subsets**, called **canopies**.

Second stage - only using expensive distance measurements among points that occur **in a common canopy**

Canopy Clustering Algorithm (stage 1)

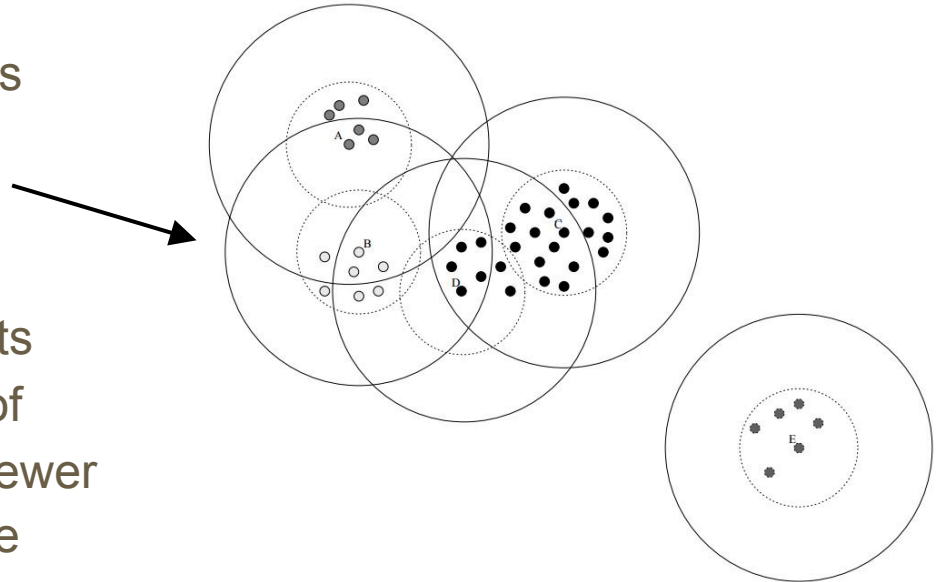
1. Begin with dataset points and with two thresholds $T1$ (loose distance) and $T2$ (tight distance), where $T1 > T2$



McCallum, A.; Nigam, K.; and Ungar L.H. (2000) "Efficient Clustering of High Dimensional Data Sets with Application to Reference Matching", Proceedings of the sixth ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining, 169-178 doi:10.1145/347090.347123

Canopy Clustering Algorithm (stage 2)

- Repeat step 2 to 4 on the previous slides until no more point can be selected as canopy center
- Expensive distance measurements will only be made between pairs of points **in the same canopies**, far fewer than all possible pairs in the whole dataset



An example of four data clusters and the canopies that cover them

Advantages & Disadvantages of Canopy Clustering

Advantages:

- It is **fast**. Computational complexity:

$$O\left(c\left(\frac{fn}{c}\right)^2\right) = O\left(\frac{f^2}{c}n^2\right)$$

n: number of data points
c: number of canopies
f: average number of canopies covering a data point
fn/c: data points per canopy

- It is **widely applicable** to many traditional clustering algorithm
- It will not lose any **clustering accuracy** (may slightly increase accuracy).
- Formerly impossible large clustering problems become practical.

Disadvantages:

- It requires the specification of **distance thresholds**.
- The weakness of traditional algorithms applied in stage 2 will still exists.

McCallum, A.; Nigam, K.; and Ungar L.H. (2000) "Efficient Clustering of High Dimensional Data Sets with Application to Reference Matching", Proceedings of the sixth ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining, 169-178 doi:10.1145/347090.347123

Cluster Evaluation

To evaluate whether a clustering is **good or bad**.

Three aspects:

- **Assessing Clustering Tendency:** for a data set, test whether a nonrandom structure exists in data
- **Determine Number of Clusters:** compare the number of resulting clusters with the “optimal” number of clusters

- **Measuring Clustering Quality:** Extrinsic methods and Intrinsic methods

Rand, W. M. (1971). "Objective criteria for the evaluation of clustering methods". [*Journal of the American Statistical Association*](#) (American Statistical Association) 66 (336): 846–850

Extrinsic Method - Purity Method

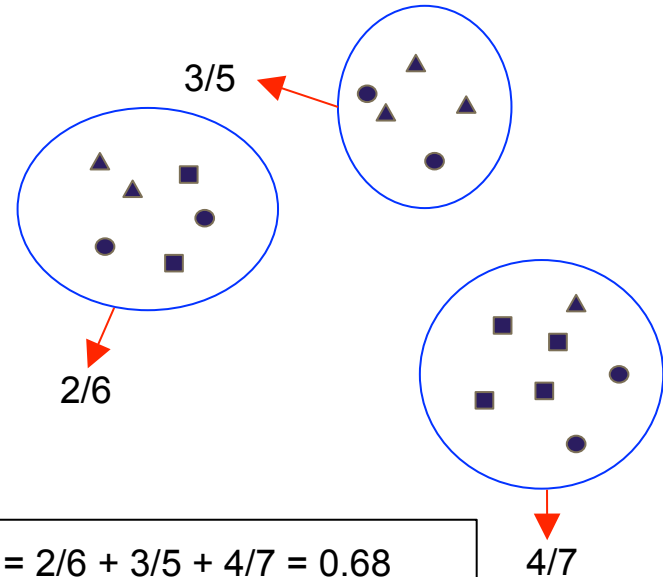
This method is used when ideal clustering of objects is known.

$$Purity = \sum_{r=1}^k \frac{1}{n} \max_i (n_r^i)$$

points of class i in cluster r

Properties of purity value:

- between 0 and 1
- The more close to 0, the worse
- The more close to 1, the better

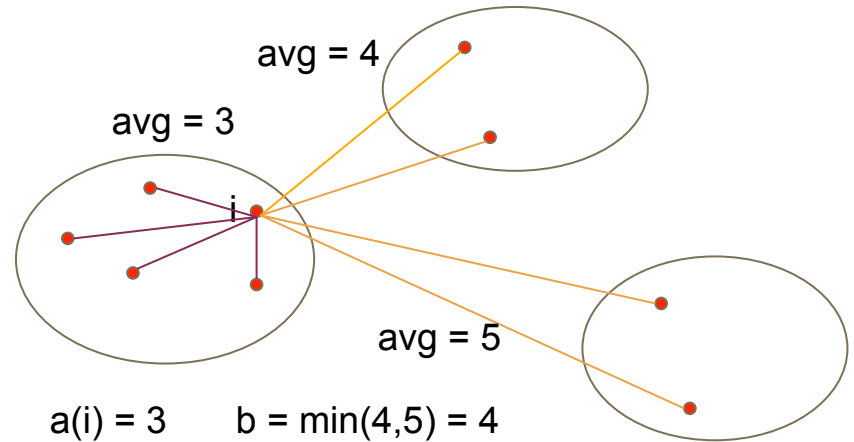


Intrinsic Method - Silhouette Coefficient

$$s(i) = \frac{b(i) - a(i)}{\max(a(i), b(i))}$$

$b(i) = \min(\text{AVGD_BETWEEN}(i,k))$

$a(i) = \text{AVGD_WITHIN}(i)$



b: how **separate** i is from other clusters. **The larger the better**

a: how **compact** the cluster of i is. **The smaller the better**

s: between **-1 and 1**. **The larger the better**

Summary

1. Cluster analysis was early used in anthropology and psychology in 1930s.
2. Clustering is to minimize intra-cluster similarities and maximize inter-cluster similarities.
3. Manhattan distance, euclidean distance, cosine similarity and pearson correlation are common similarity measures. The property of a dataset determines which one to use.
4. K-medoids clustering (PAM) uses actual objects to represent clusters. It is more robust to outliers than K-means, but the computation is costly.
5. Hierarchical clustering uses similarity matrix to cluster datasets hierarchically. It doesn't require specified number of clusters, but is time costly and not undoable.
6. Canopy clustering is used to pre-cluster large data efficiently. Firstly, it uses a cheap distance measure to get canopies. Secondly, it uses a traditional distance measure for the points only in the same canopy.
7. Cluster evaluation uses extrinsic methods (Purity) and intrinsic methods (Silhouette Coefficient) to assess the goodness of a clustering.

Thank You!