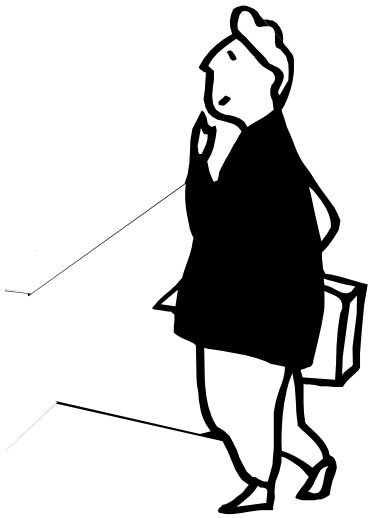
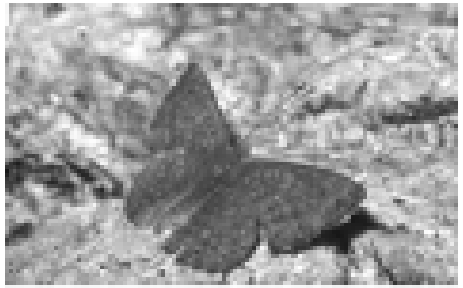
Clustering

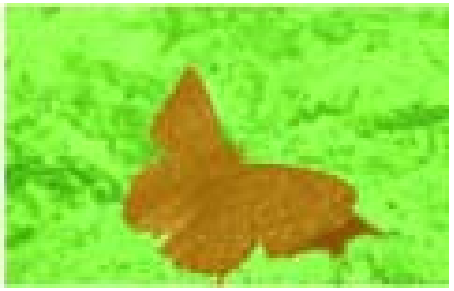
Class 14. 18 Oct 2011

Clustering



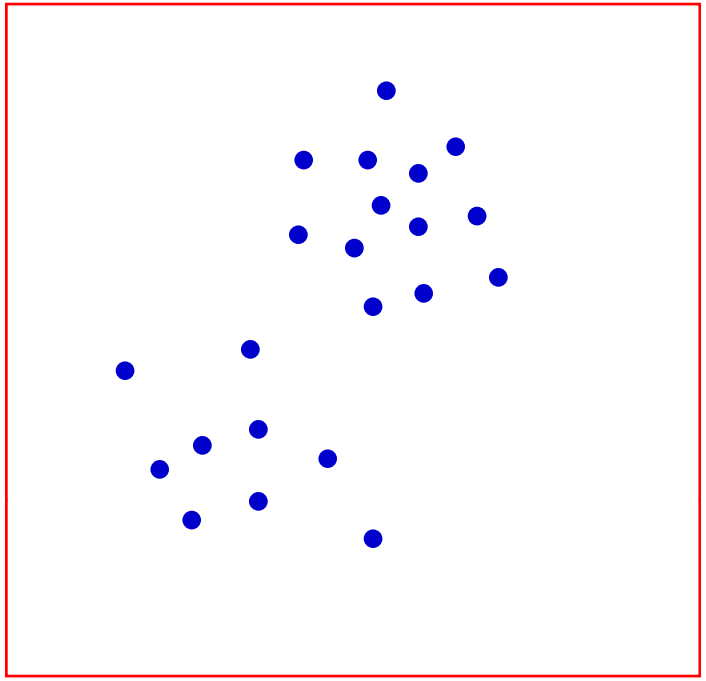
How





Clustering

- What is clustering
  - Clustering is the determination of naturally occurring grouping of data/instances (with low within-group variability and high between-group variability)



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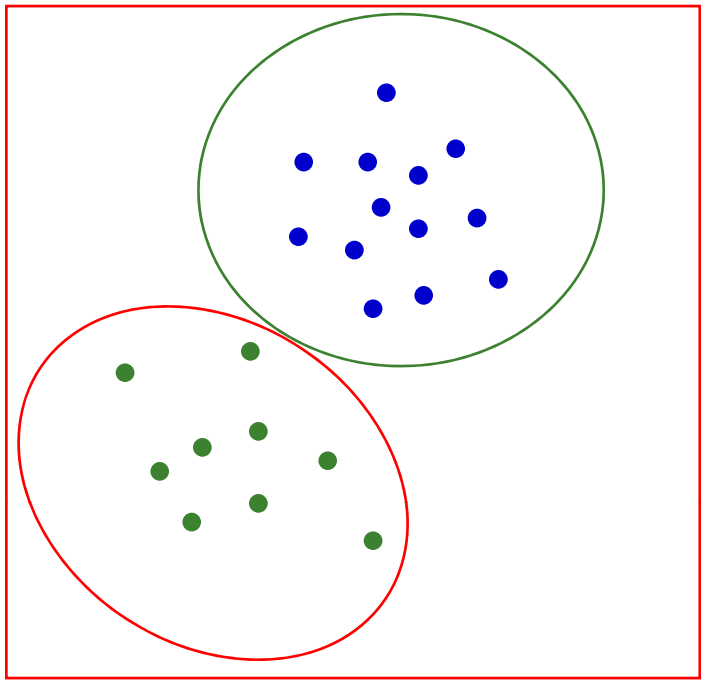

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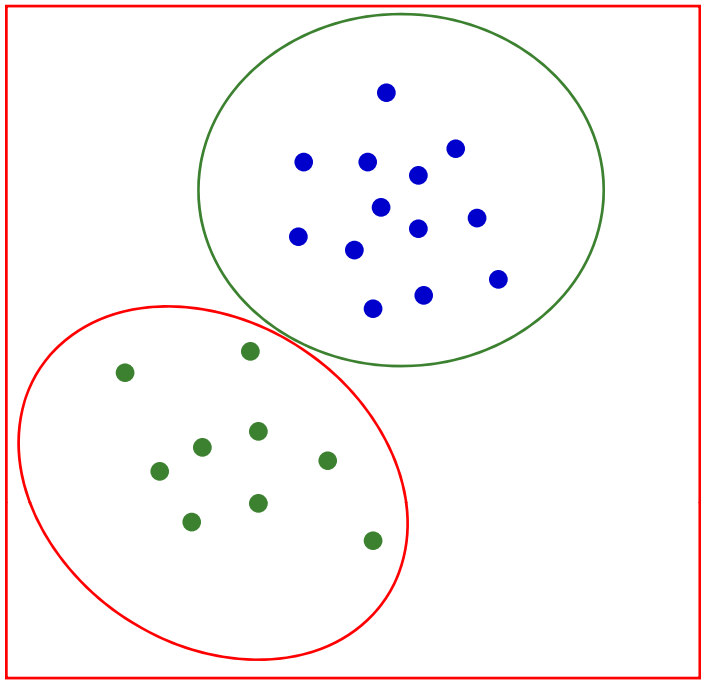
- How is it done
  - Find groupings of data such that the groups optimize a “within-group-variability” objective function of some kind



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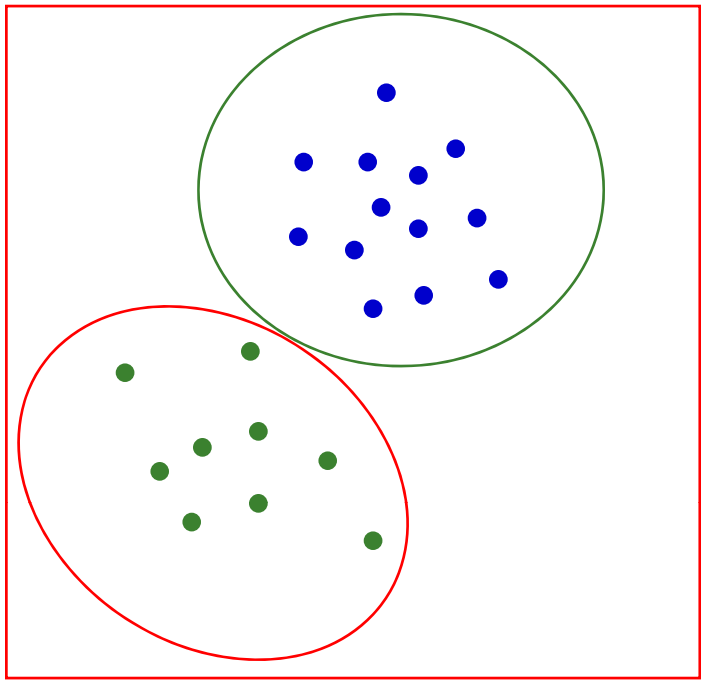
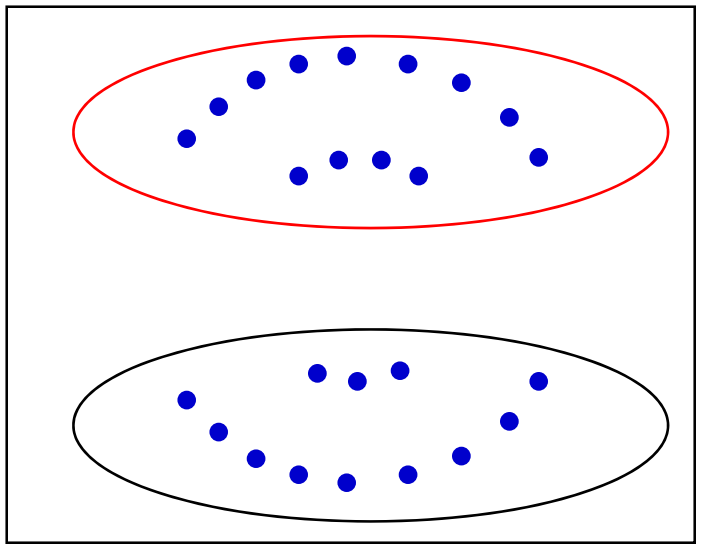
  - The objective function used affects the nature of the discovered clusters
    - E.g. Euclidean distance and distance from center result in different clusters in this example





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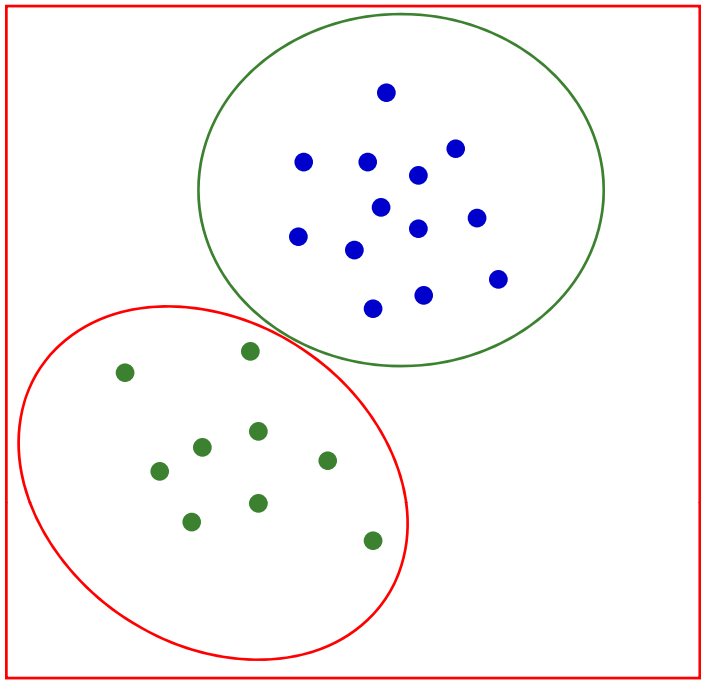
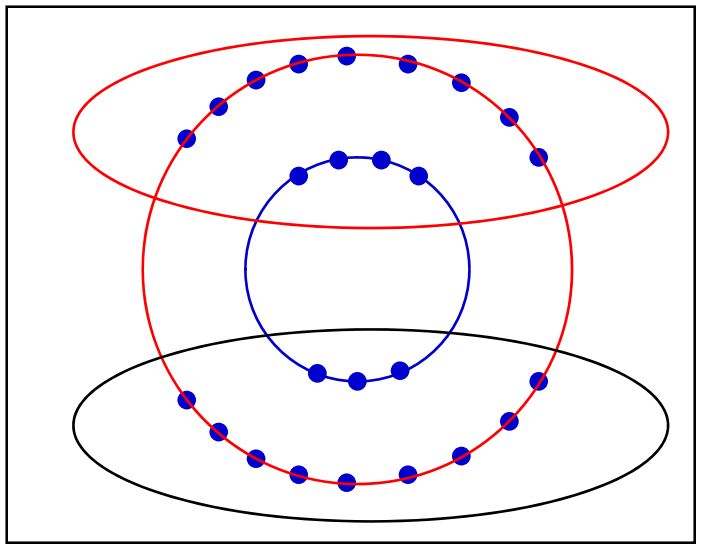




Why Clustering

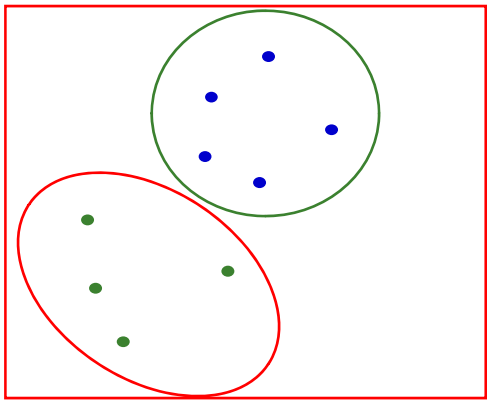
- Automatic grouping into “Classes”
  - Different clusters may show different behavior
- Quantization
  - All data within a cluster are represented by a single point
- Preprocessing step for other algorithms
  - Indexing, categorization, etc.

Clustering criteria

- Compactness criterion
  - Measure that shows how “good” clusters are
    - The objective function
- Distance of a point from a cluster
  - To determine the cluster a data vector belongs to

"Compactness" criteria for clustering

- Distance based measures
  - Total distance between each element in the cluster and every other element in the cluster



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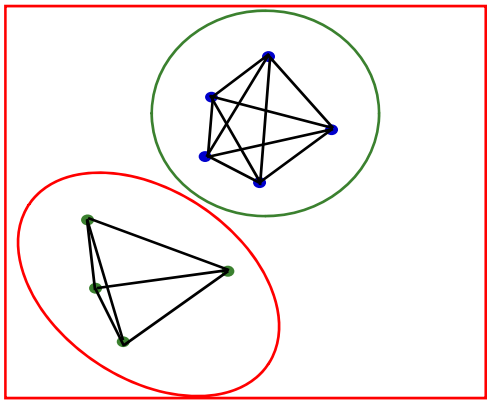

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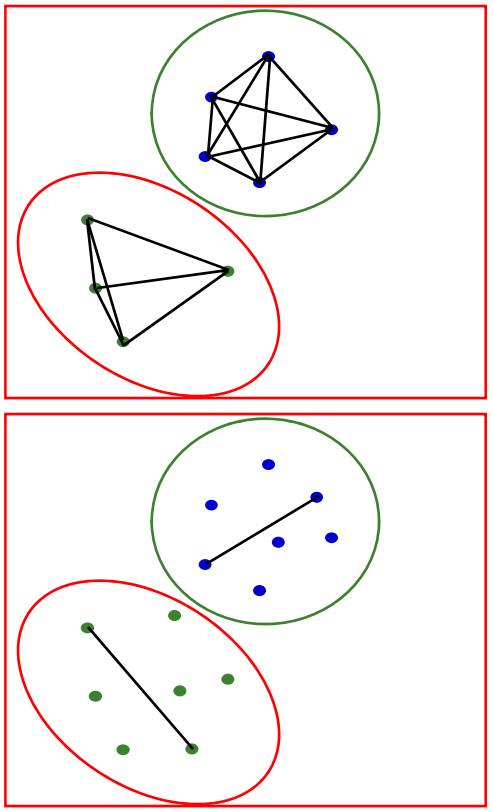

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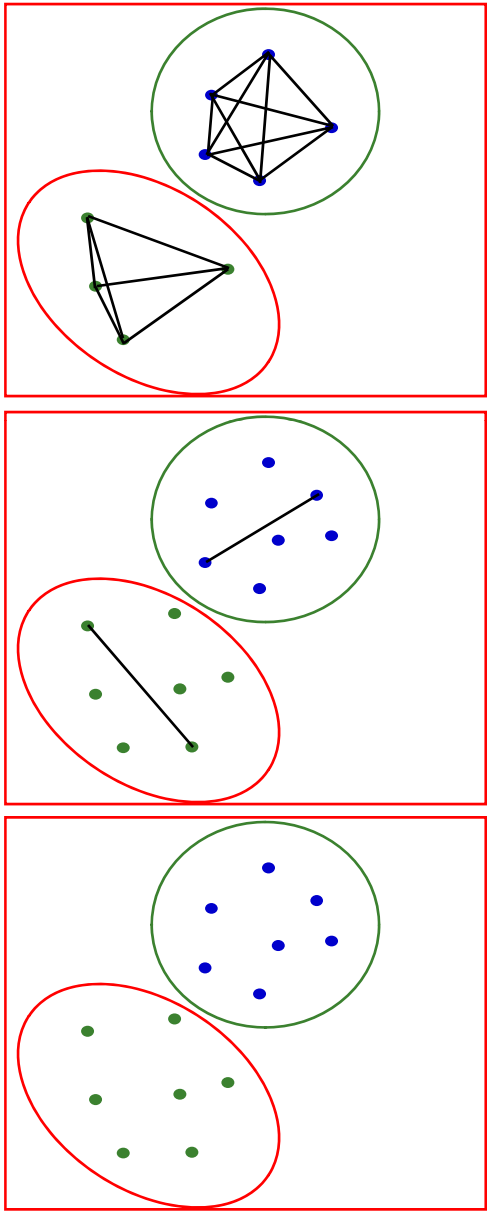

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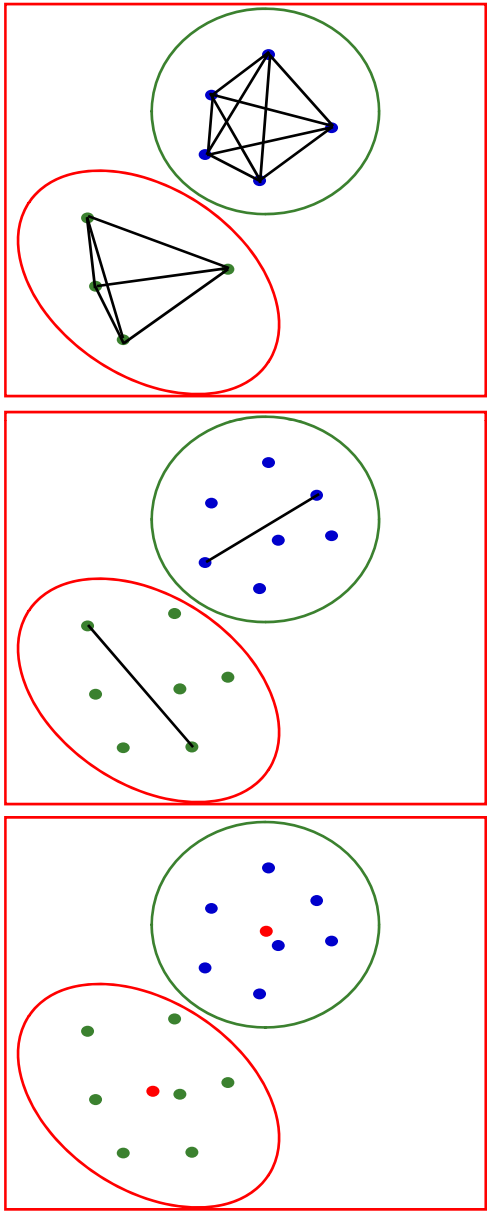

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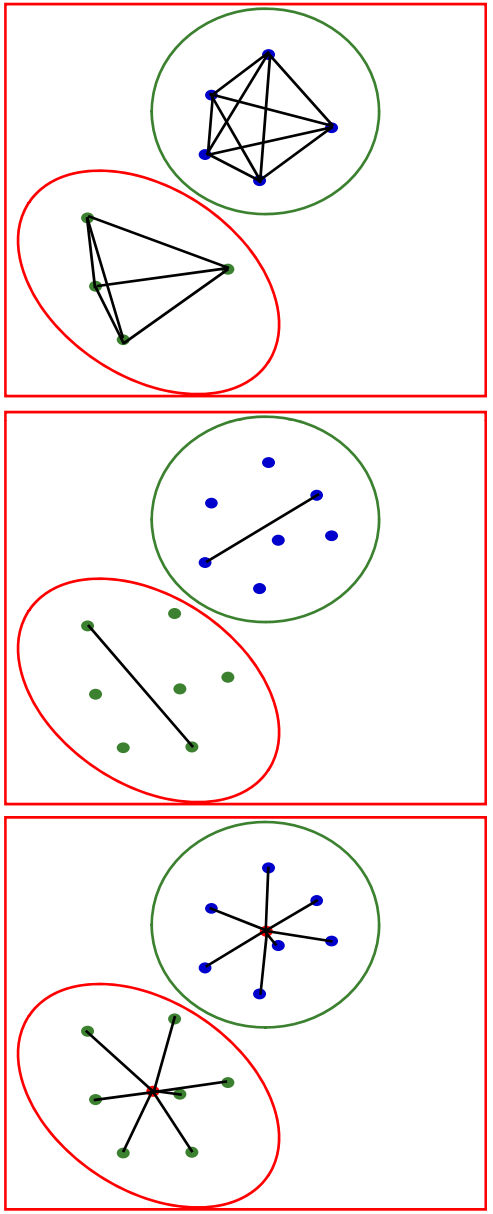

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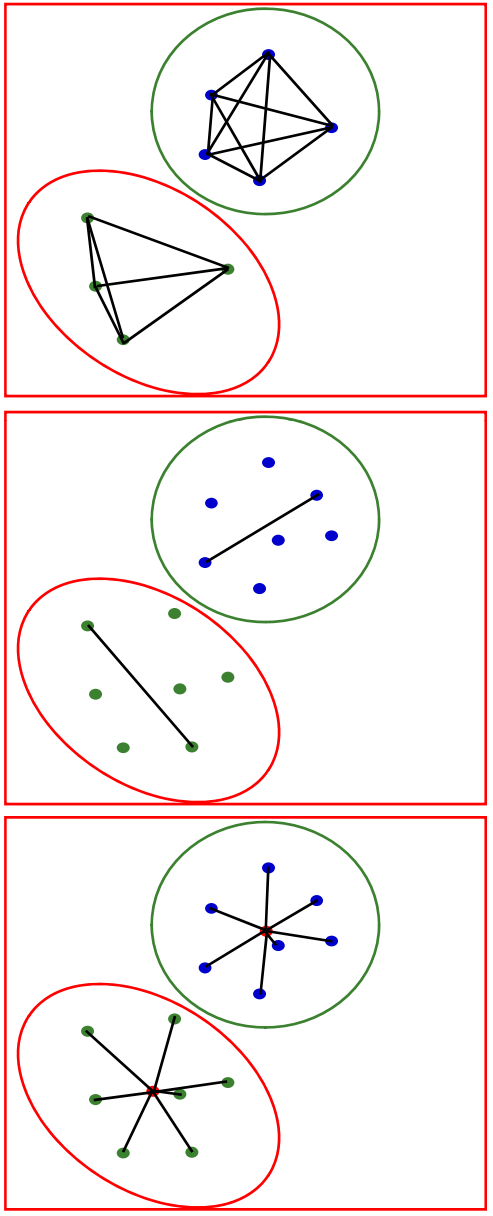
  - Distance measures are often weighted Minkowski metrics

$$dist = \sqrt[n]{w_1|a_1 - b_1|^n + w_2|a_2 - b_2|^n + ... + w_M|a_M - b_M|^n}$$



Clustering: Distance from cluster

- How far is a data point from a cluster?
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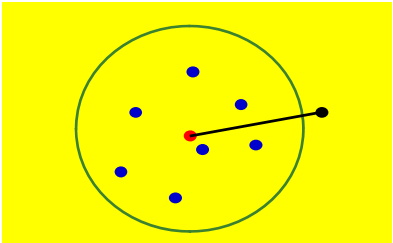

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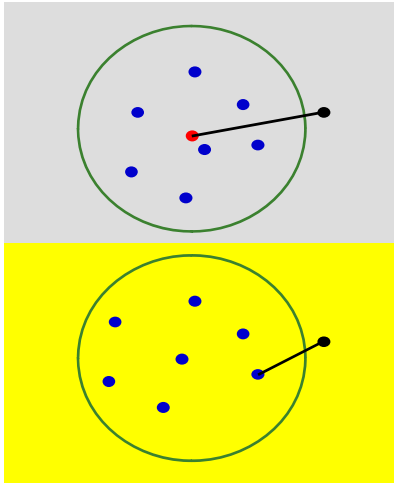

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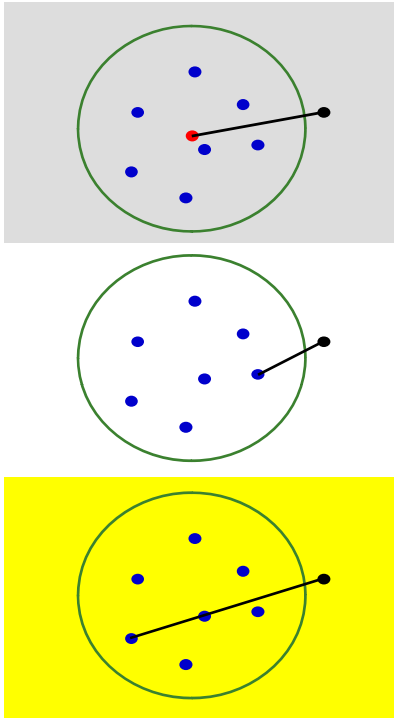

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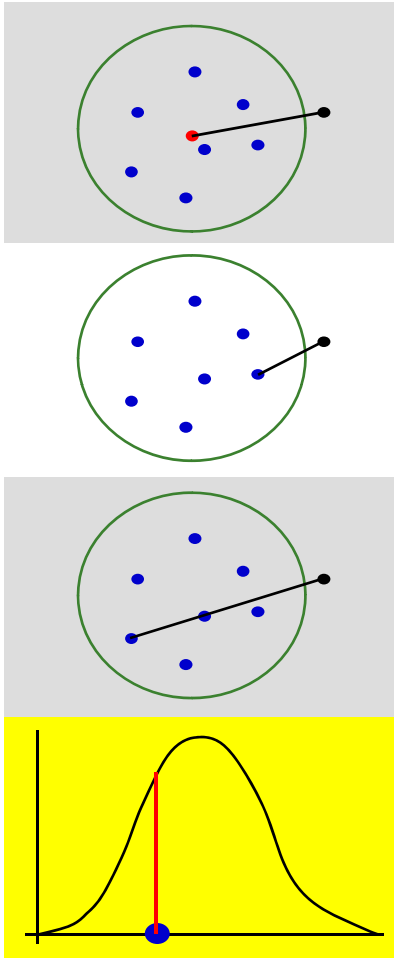
  - Probability of data measured on cluster distribution



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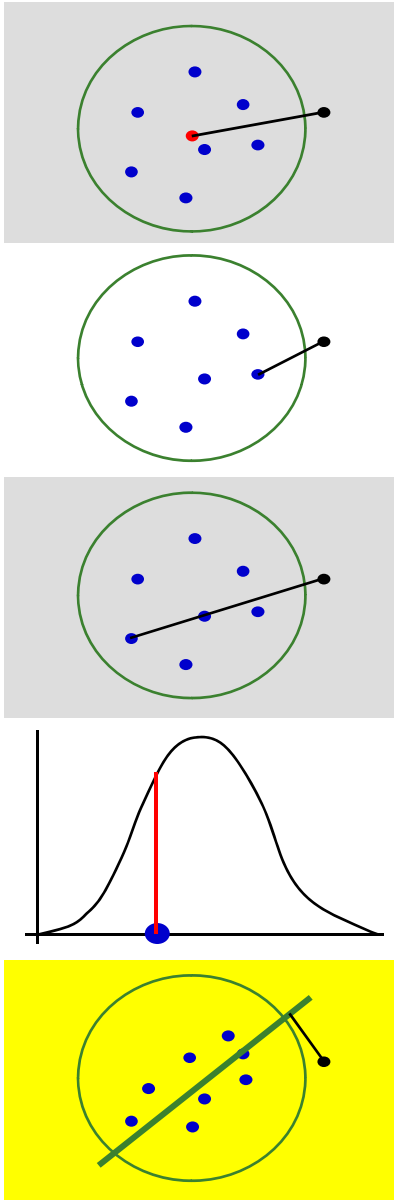
  - Probability of data measured on cluster distribution
  - Fit of data to cluster-based regression



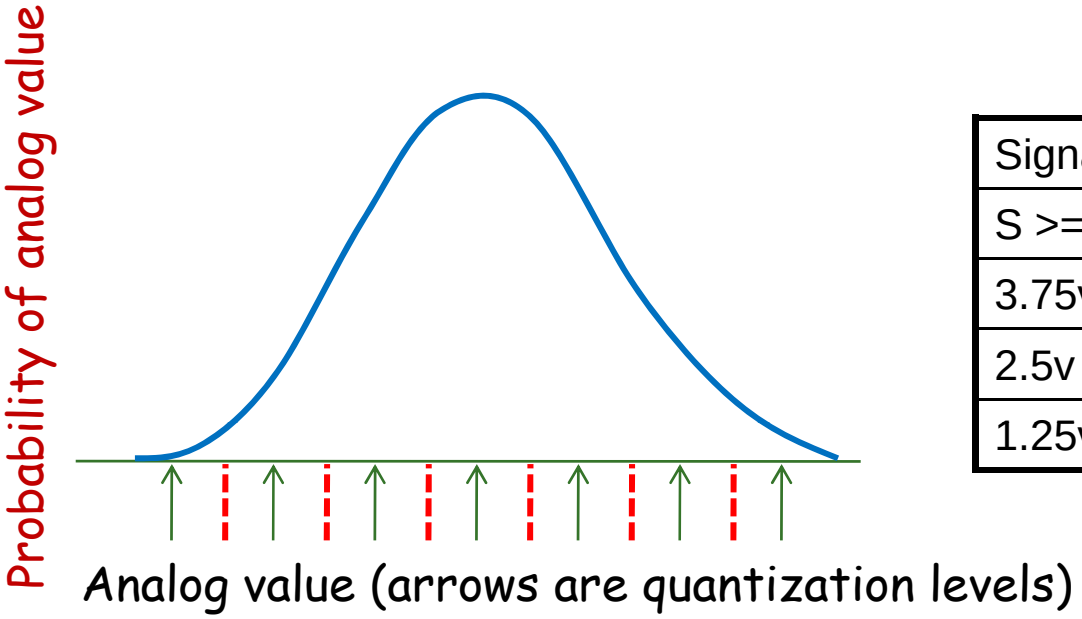
Optimal clustering: Exhaustive enumeration

- All possible combinations of data must be evaluated
  - If there are M data points, and we desire N clusters, the number of ways of separating M instances into N clusters is

$$\frac{1}{M!}\sum_{i=0}^{N}(-1)^{i}\binom{N}{i}(N-i)^{M}$$

  - Exhaustive enumeration based clustering requires that the objective function (the “Goodness measure”) be evaluated for every one of these, and the best one chosen
- This is the only correct way of optimal clustering
  - Unfortunately, it is also computationally unrealistic

Not-quite non sequitir: Quantization



Signal Value	Bits	Mapped to
S >= 3.75v	11	3 * const
3.75v > S >= 2.5v	10	2 * const
2.5v > S >= 1.25v	01	1 * const
1.25v > S >= 0v	0	0

- Linear quantization (uniform quantization):
  - Each digital value represents an equally wide range of analog values
  - Regardless of distribution of data
  - Digital-to-analog conversion represented by a “uniform” table

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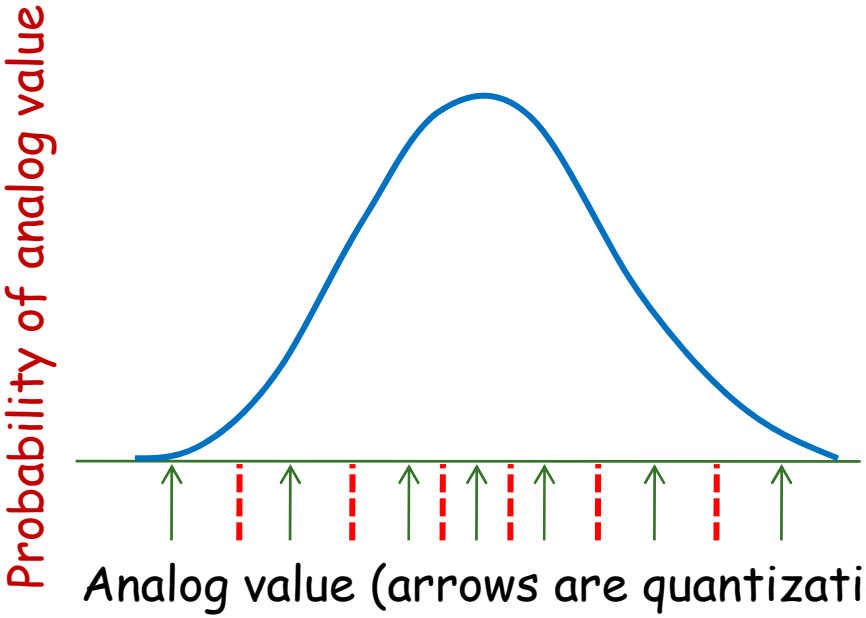
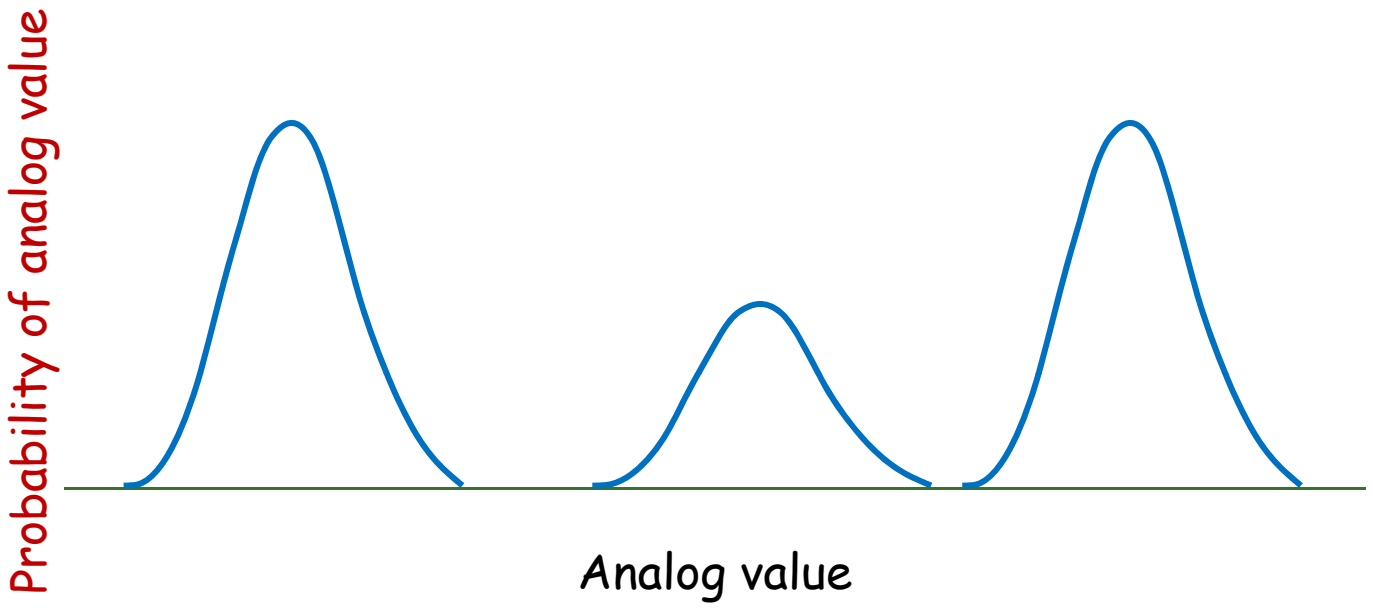


Signal Value	Bits	Mapped to
S >= 4v	11	4.5
4v > S >= 2.5v	10	3.25
2.5v > S >= 1v	01	1.25
1.0v > S >= 0v	0	0.5

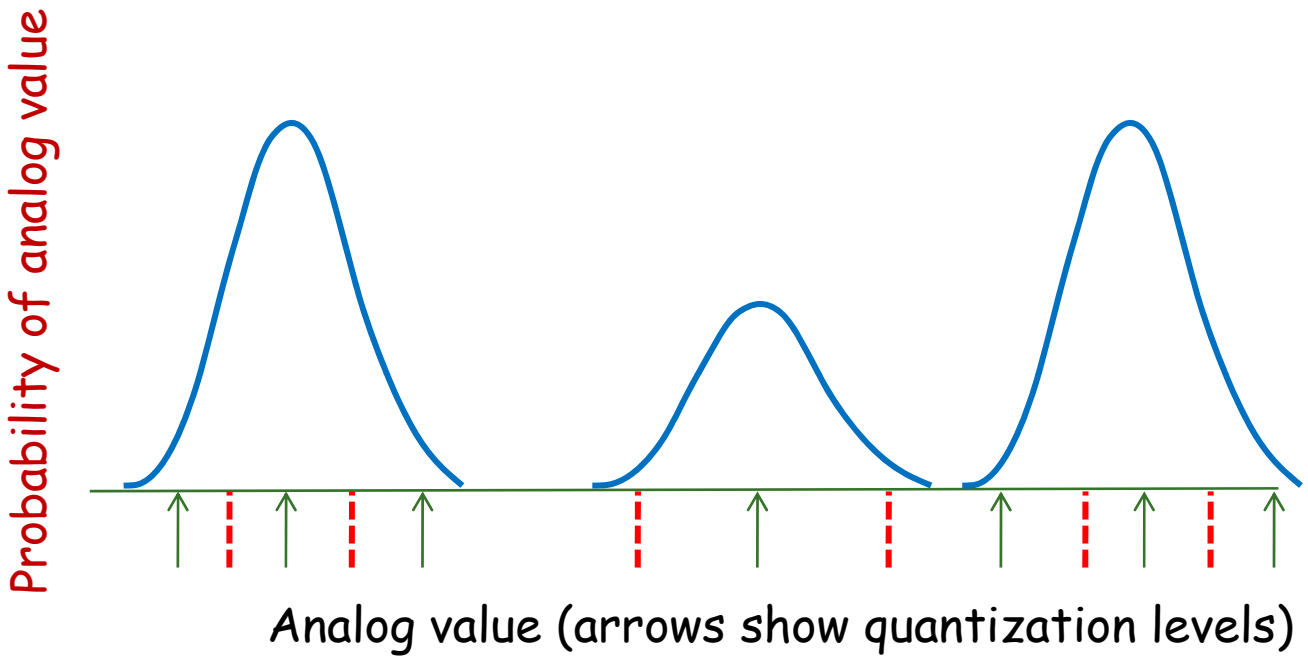
- Non-Linear quantization:
  - Each digital value represents a different range of analog values
    - Finer resolution in high-density areas
    - Mu-law / A-law assumes a gaussian-like distribution of data
  - Digital-to-analog conversion represented by a “non-uniform” table

Non-uniform quantization



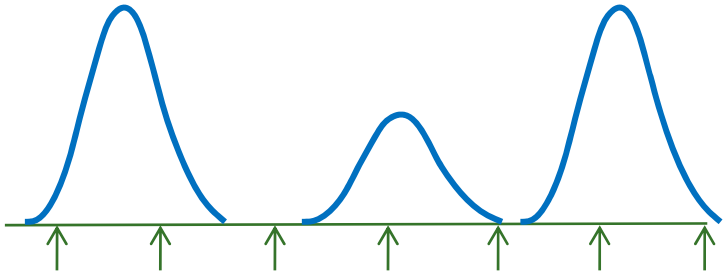
- If data distribution is not Gaussianish?
  - Mu-law / A-law are not optimal
  - How to compute the optimal ranges for quantization
    - Or the optimal table

The Lloyd Quantizer



- Lloyd quantizer: An iterative algorithm for computing optimal quantization tables for non-uniformly distributed data
- **Learned from "training" data**

Lloyd Quantizer



- Randomly initialize quantization points
  - Right column entries of quantization table

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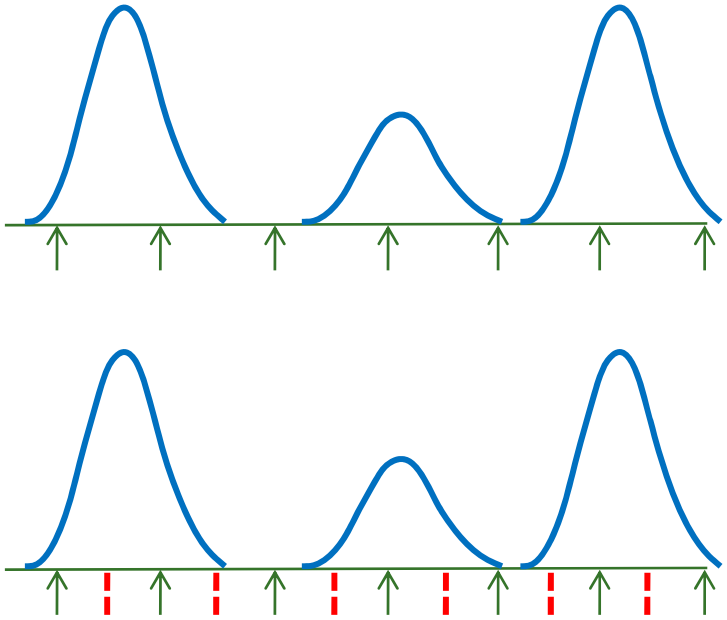
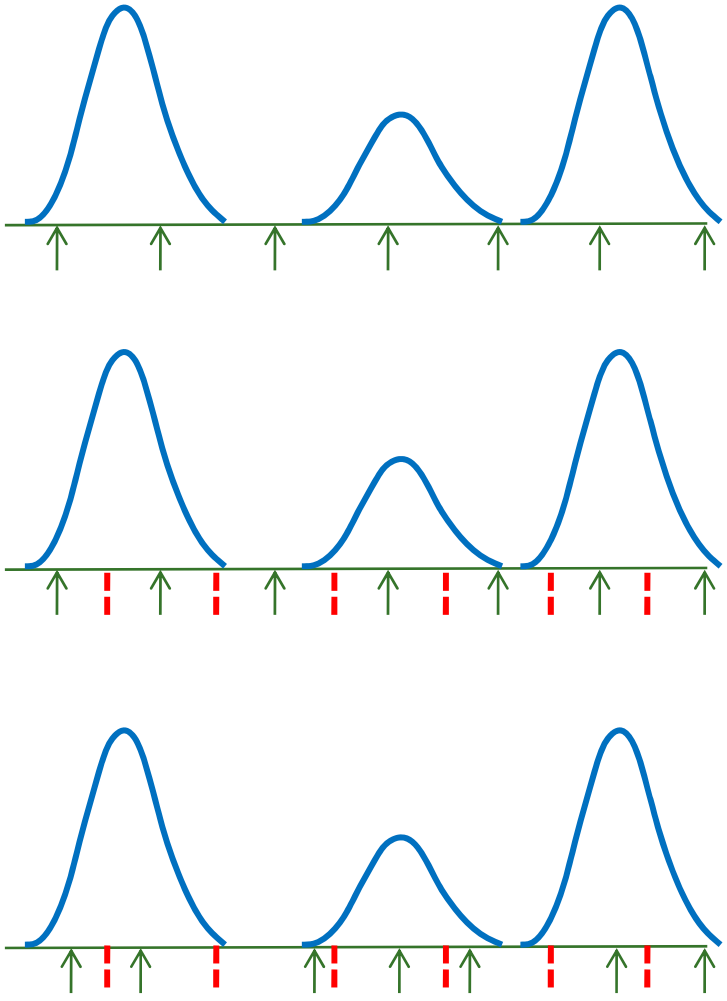


- Randomly initialize quantization points
  - Right column entries of quantization table
- Assign all training points to the nearest quantization point
  - Draw boundaries

Lloyd Quantizer



- Randomly initialize quantization points
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- Reestimate quantization points

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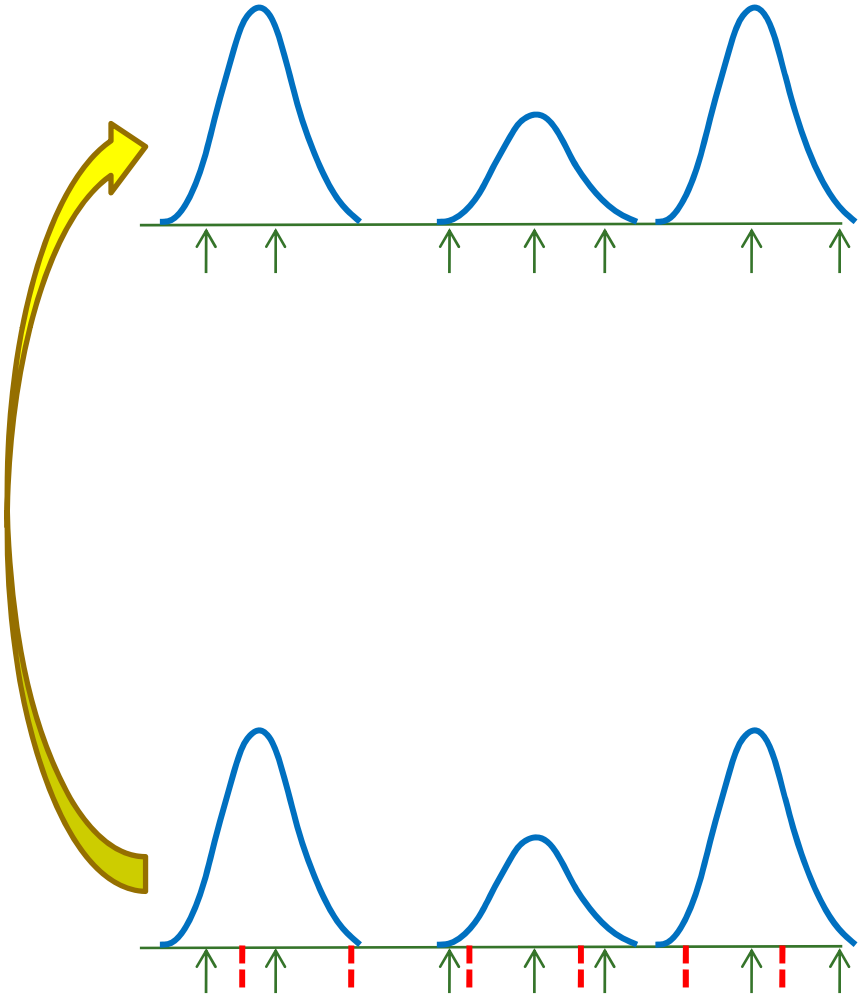


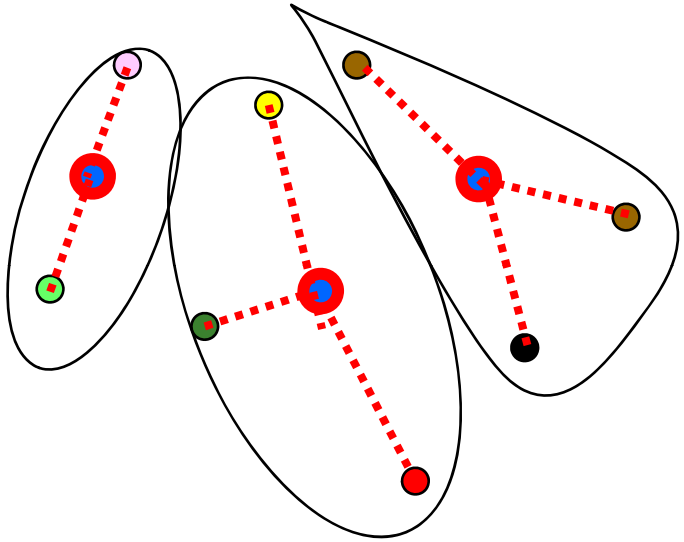
- Randomly initialize quantization points
  - Right column entries of quantization table
- Assign all training points to the nearest quantization point
  - Draw boundaries
- Reestimate quantization points
- Iterate until convergence

Generalized Lloyd Algorithm: K–means clustering

- K means is an iterative algorithm for clustering ***vector*** data
  - McQueen, J. 1967. “Some methods for classification and analysis of multivariate observations.” Proceedings of the Fifth Berkeley Symposium on Mathematical Statistics and Probability, 281-297
- General procedure:
  - Initially group data into the required number of clusters somehow (initialization)
  - Assign each data point to the closest cluster
  - Once all data points are assigned to clusters, redefine clusters
  - Iterate

K–means

- Problem: Given a set of data vectors, find natural clusters
- Clustering criterion is **scatter**: distance from the centroid
  - Every cluster has a centroid
  - The centroid represents the cluster
- **Definition**: The **centroid** is the weighted mean of the cluster
  - Weight = 1 for basic scheme



$$m_{cluster} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i \in cluster} w_i} \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i x_i$$

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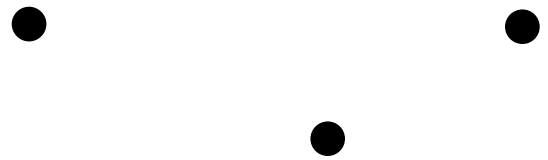

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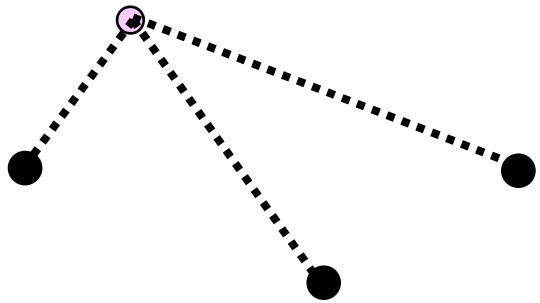

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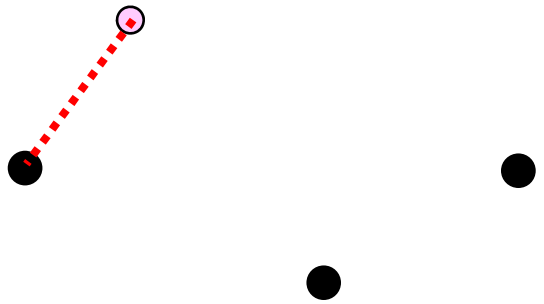

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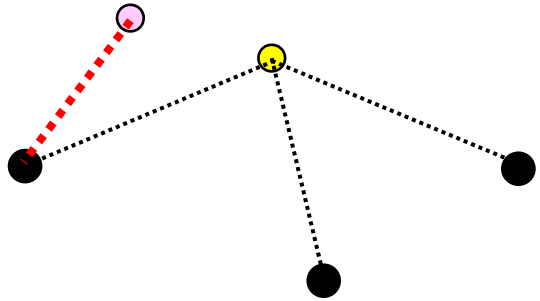

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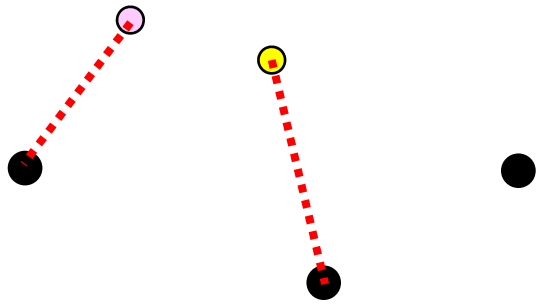

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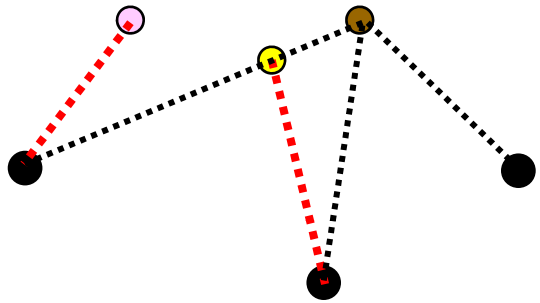

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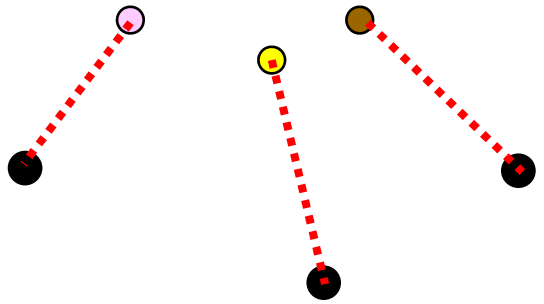

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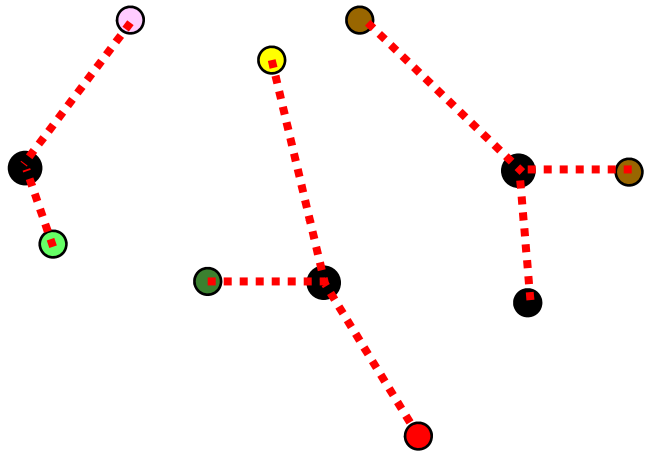

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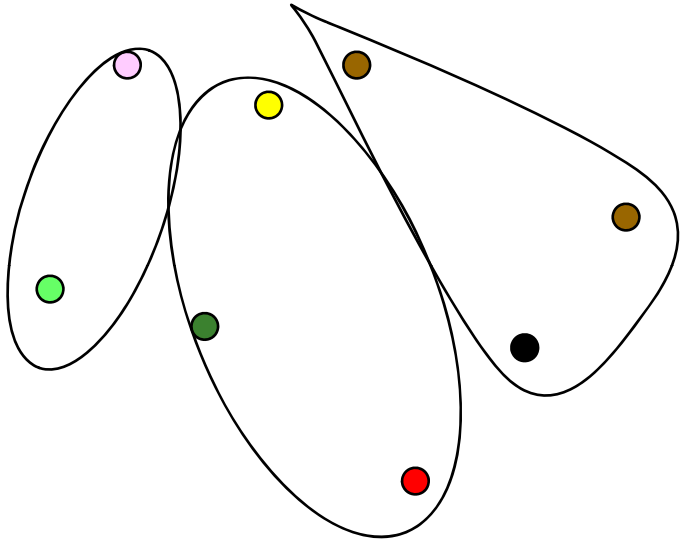
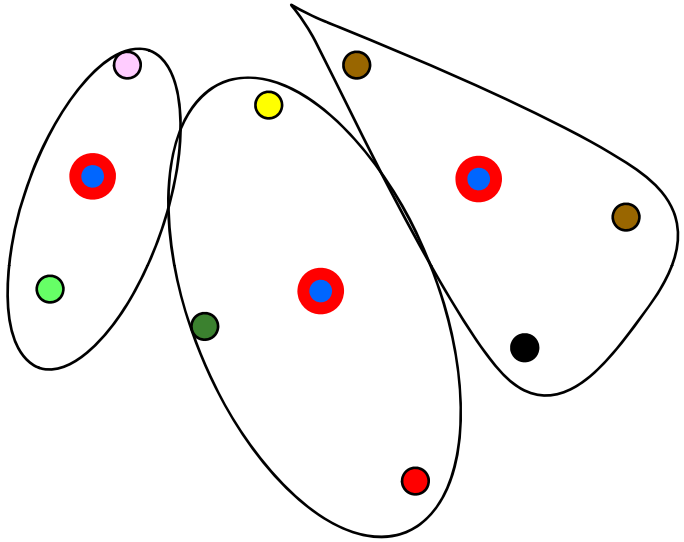


K–means

1. Initialize a set of centroids randomly
2. For each data point $\boldsymbol{x}$, find the distance from the centroid for each cluster
   - $d_{cluster} = \mathbf{distance}(x, m_{cluster})$
3. Put data point in the cluster of the closest centroid
   - Cluster for which $\boldsymbol{d}_{\text{cluster}}$ is minimum
4. When all data points are clustered, recompute centroids

$$m_{cluster} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i \in cluster} w_i} \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i x_i$$



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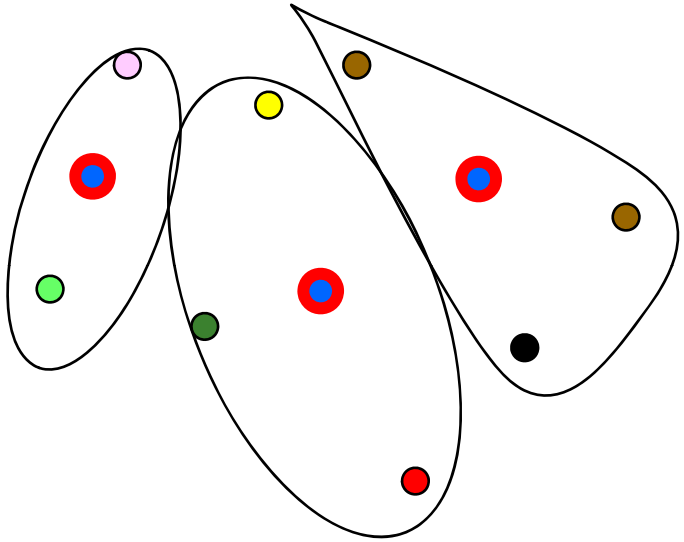
5. If not converged, go back to 2



K-Means comments

- The distance metric determines the clusters
  - In the original formulation, the distance is L2 distance
    - Euclidean norm, $w_i = 1$

$$\textbf{distance}_{cluster}(x, m_{cluster}) = \| x - m_{cluster} \|_2$$

$$m_{cluster} = \frac{1}{N_{cluster}} \sum_{i \in cluster} x_i$$

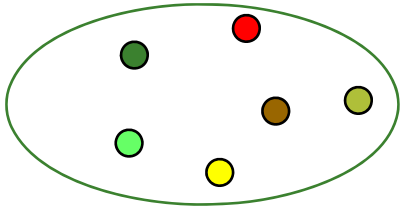
  - If we replace every x by $m_{\text{cluster}}(x)$, we get *Vector Quantization*
- K-means is an instance of *generalized* EM
- Not guaranteed to converge for all distance metrics

Initialization

- Random initialization
- Top-down clustering
  - Initially partition the data into two (or a small number of) clusters using K means
  - Partition each of the resulting clusters into two (or a small number of) clusters, also using K means
  - Terminate when the desired number of clusters is obtained

K-Means for Top–Down clustering

1. Start with one cluster



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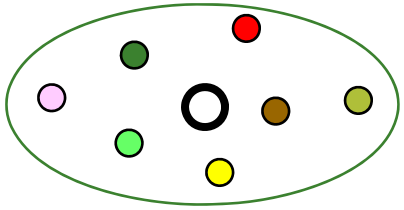

2. Split each cluster into two:
   - Perturb centroid of cluster slightly (by < 5%) to generate two centroids

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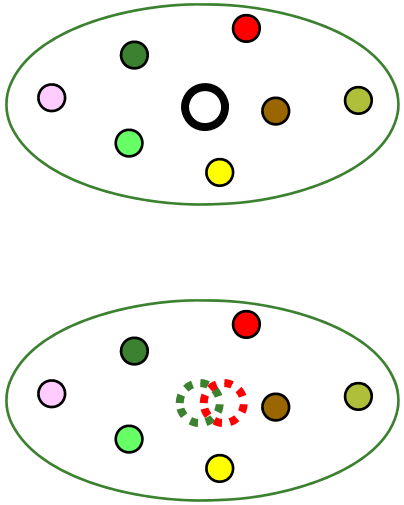

K-Means for Top–Down clustering

1. Start with one cluster

2. Split each cluster into two:
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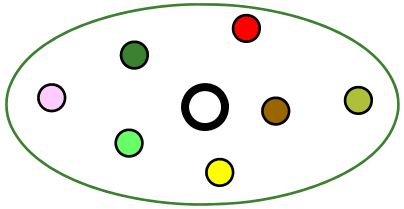
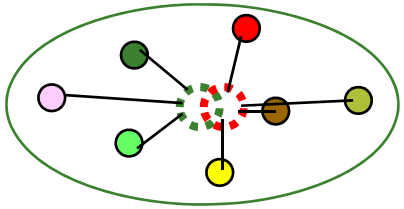
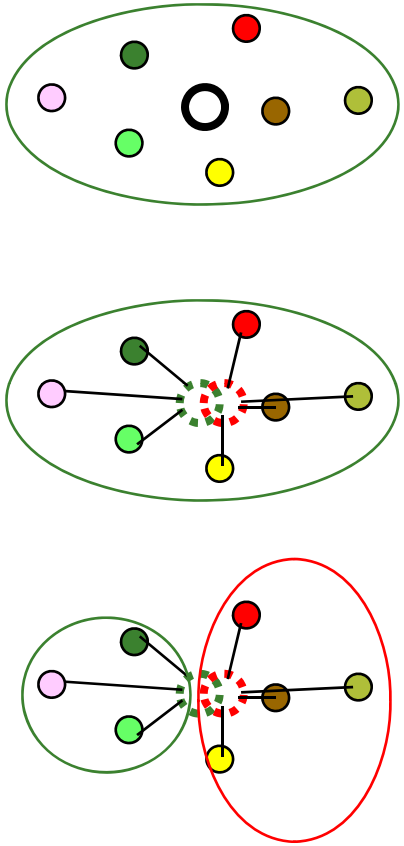
3. Initialize K means with new set of centroids





K-Means for Top–Down clustering

1. Start with one cluster
2. Split each cluster into two:
   - Perturb centroid of cluster slightly (by < 5%) to generate two centroids
3. Initialize K means with new set of centroids
4. Iterate Kmeans until convergence



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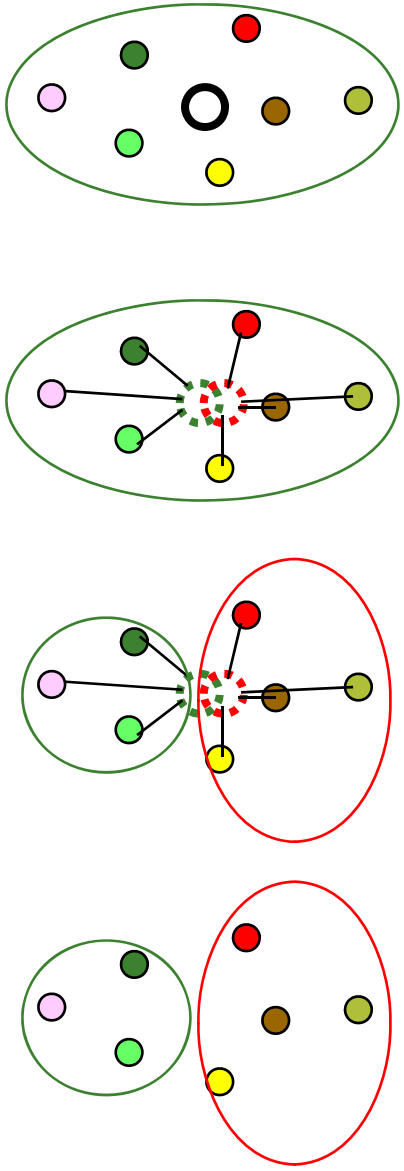

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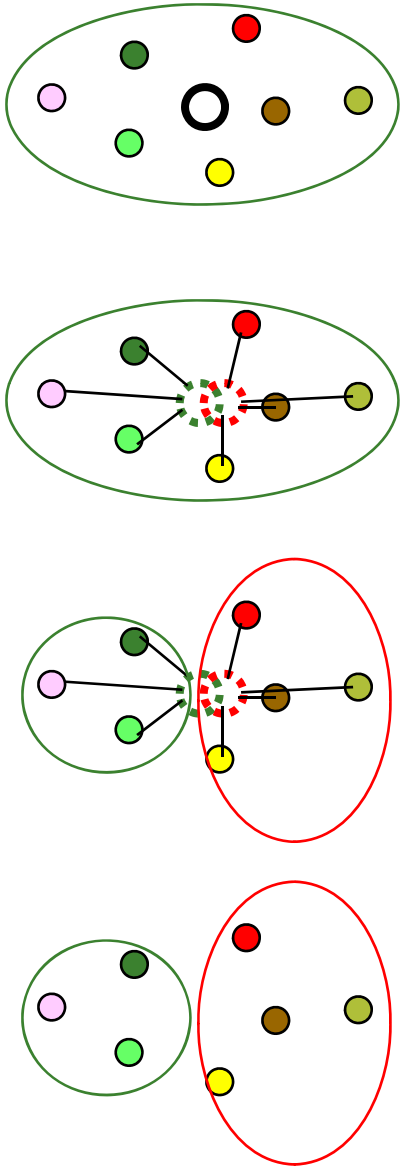
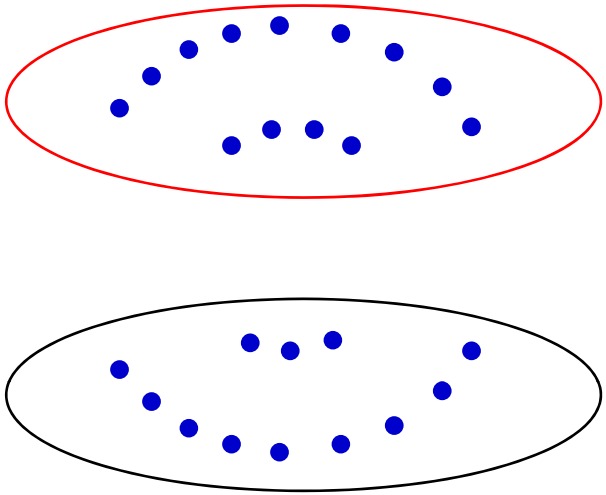
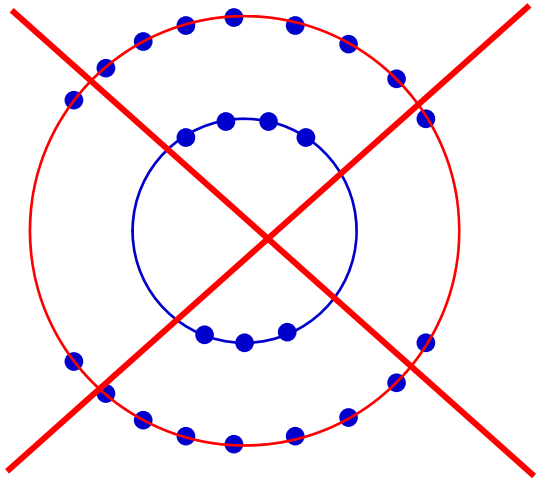
5. If the desired number of clusters is not obtained, return to 2



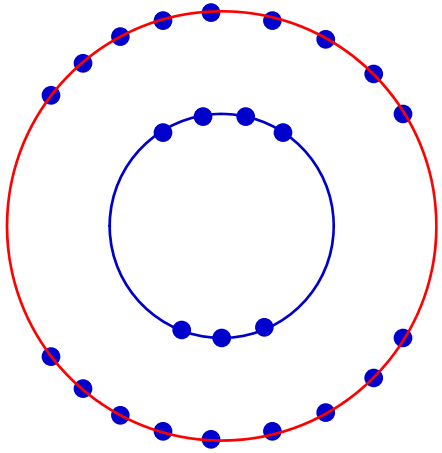
Non-Euclidean clusters



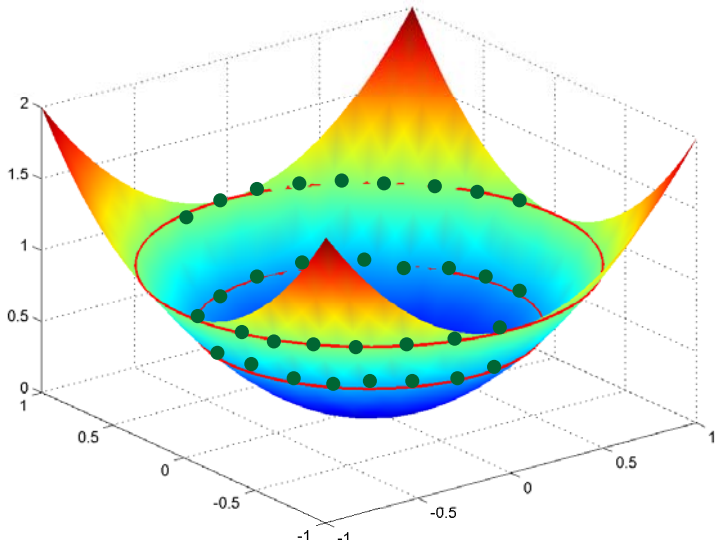


- Basic K-means results in good clusters in Euclidean spaces
  - Alternately stated, will only find clusters that are "good" in terms of Euclidean distances
- Will not find other types of clusters

Non-euclidean clusters

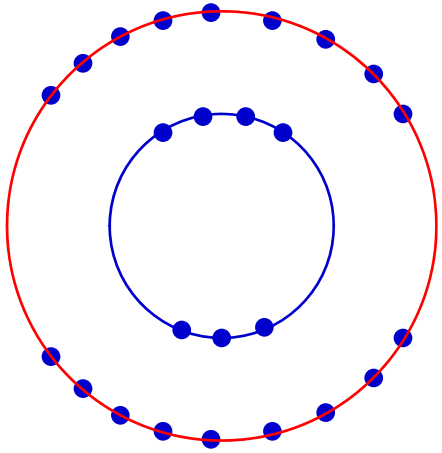


f([x,y]) -> [x,y,z]
x = x
y = y
$z = \alpha(x^2 + y^2)$



- For other forms of clusters we must modify the distance measure
  - E.g. distance from a circle
- May be viewed as a distance in a higher dimensional space
  - I.e *Kernel* distances
  - *Kernel* K-means
- Other related clustering mechansims:
  - Spectral clustering
    - Non-linear weighting of adjacency
  - Normalized cuts..

The Kernel Trick



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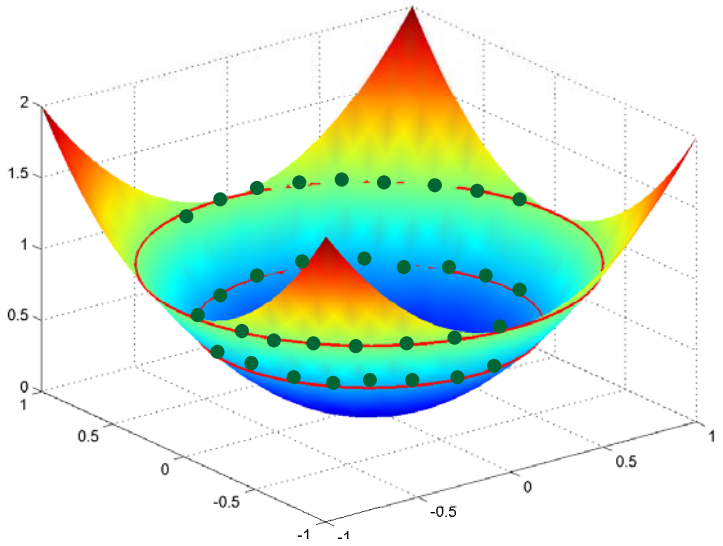


- Transform the data into a synthetic higher-dimensional space where the desired patterns become natural clusters
  - E.g. the quadratic transform above
- Problem: What is the function/space?
- Problem: Distances in higher dimensional-space are more expensive to compute
  - Yet only carry the same information in the lower-dimensional space

Distance in higher-dimensional space

- Transform data $\mathbf{x}$ through an *unknown* function $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ into a higher (potentially infinite) dimensional space
  - $\mathbf{z} = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$
- The distance between two points is computed in the higher-dimensional space
  - $d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \|\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_2\|^2 = \|\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)\|^2$
- $d(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$ can be computed without computing $\mathbf{z}$
  - Since it is a direct function of $\mathbf{x}_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_2$

Distance in higher-dimensional space

- Distance in lower-dimensional space: A combination of dot products
  - $||\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2||^2 = (\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_2)^T(\mathbf{z}_1 - \mathbf{z}_2) = \mathbf{z}_1.\mathbf{z}_1 + \mathbf{z}_2.\mathbf{z}_2 - 2\,\mathbf{z}_1.\mathbf{z}_2$
- Distance in higher-dimensional space
  - $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = ||\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)||^2$
    $= \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\,\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2).\,\Phi(\mathbf{x}_2) - 2\,\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\,\Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$
- $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$ can be computed without knowing $\Phi(\mathbf{x})$ if:
  - $\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\,\Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$ can be computed for any $\mathbf{x}_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_2$ without knowing $\Phi(.)$

The Kernel function

- A kernel function $K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2)$ is a function such that:
  - $K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$
- Once such a kernel function is found, the distance in higher-dimensional space can be found in terms of the kernels
  - $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = ||\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1) - \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)||^2$
    $= \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1) + \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2).\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2) - 2\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$
    $= K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_1) + K(\mathbf{x}_2,\mathbf{x}_2) - 2K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2)$
- But what is $K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2)$?

A property of the dot product

- For any vector $\mathbf{v}$, $\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{v} = ||\mathbf{v}||^2 >= 0$
  - This is just the length of $\mathbf{v}$ and is therefore non-negative
- For any vector $\mathbf{u} = \Sigma_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i$, $||\mathbf{u}||^2 >= 0$
  - $=> (\Sigma_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i)^T(\Sigma_i a_i \mathbf{v}_i) >= 0$
  - $=> \Sigma_i \Sigma_j a_i a_j \mathbf{v}_i . \mathbf{v}_j >= 0$
- This holds for ANY real $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots\}$

The Mercer Condition

- If $\mathbf{z} = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$ is a high-dimensional vector derived from $\mathbf{x}$ then for all real $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots\}$ and any set $\{\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \ldots\} = \{\Phi(\mathbf{x}_1), \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2), \ldots\}$
  - $\Sigma_i \Sigma_j a_i a_j \mathbf{z}_i . \mathbf{z}_j >= 0$
  - $\Sigma_i \Sigma_j a_i a_j \Phi(\mathbf{x}_i).\Phi(\mathbf{x}_j) >= 0$
- If $K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1). \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$
  - $\Sigma_i \Sigma_j a_i a_j K(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j) >= 0$
- Any function K() that satisfies the above condition is a valid kernel function

The Mercer Condition

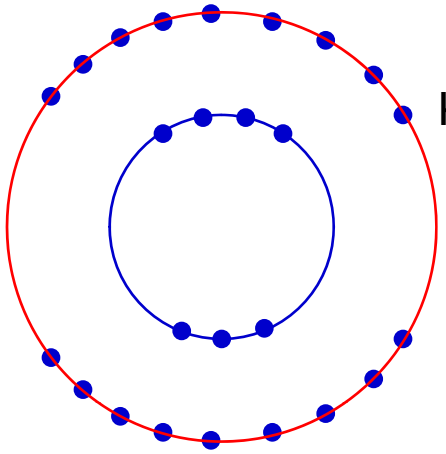
- $K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1).\ \Phi(\mathbf{x}_2)$
  - $\Sigma_i\ \Sigma_j\ a_i\ a_j\ K(\mathbf{x}_i,\mathbf{x}_j)\ \ >= 0$

- A corollary: If any kernel $K(.)$ satisfies the Mercer condition
  $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_1) + K(\mathbf{x}_2,\mathbf{x}_2) - 2K(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2)$
  satisfies the following requirements for a "distance"
  - $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) = 0$
  - $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) >= 0$
  - $\boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) + \boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{w},\mathbf{y}) >= \boldsymbol{d}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})$

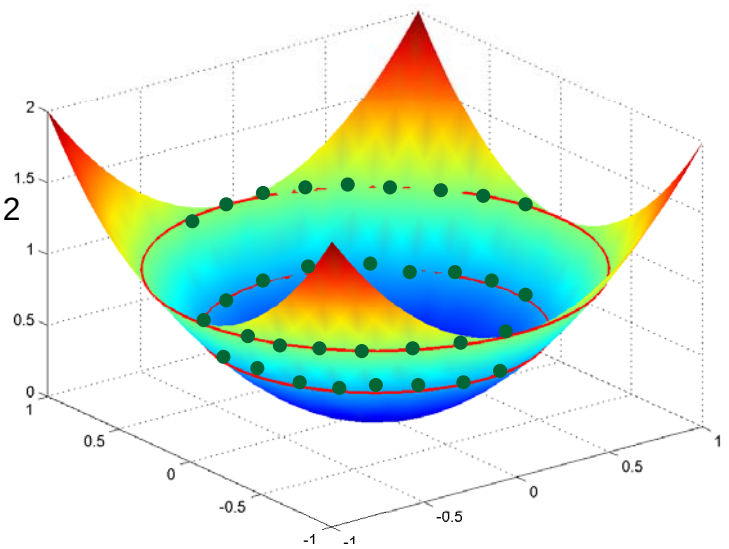
Typical Kernel Functions

- Linear: $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{y} + c$
- Polynomial $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = (a\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{y} + c)^n$
- Gaussian: $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \exp(-||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}||^2/\sigma^2)$
- Exponential: $K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \exp(-||\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}||/\lambda)$
- Several others
  - Choosing the right Kernel with the right parameters for your problem is an artform

Kernel K-means



$K(x,y)= (x^T y + c)^2$



- Perform the K-mean in the Kernel space
  - The space of $\mathbf{z} = \Phi(\mathbf{x})$
- The algorithm..

K–means

- Initialize the clusters with a random set of K points
  - Cluster has 1 point

$$m_{cluster} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i \in cluster} w_i} \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i \Phi(x_i)$$

- For each data point x, find the closest cluster

$$cluster(x) = \min_{cluster} d(x, cluster) = \min_{cluster} \| \Phi(x) - m_{cluster} \|^2$$

$$d(x, cluster) = \| \Phi(x) - m_{cluster} \|^2 = \left(\Phi(x) - C \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i \Phi(x_i) \right)^T \left(\Phi(x) - C \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i \Phi(x_i) \right)$$

$$= \left(\Phi(x)^T \Phi(x) - 2C \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i \Phi(x)^T \Phi(x_i) + C^2 \sum_{i \in cluster} \sum_{j \in cluster} w_i w_j \Phi(x_i)^T \Phi(x_j) \right)$$

$$= K(x, x) - 2C \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i K(x, x_i) + C^2 \sum_{i \in cluster} \sum_{j \in cluster} w_i w_j K(x_i, x_j)$$

Computed entirely using only the kernel function!

K–means

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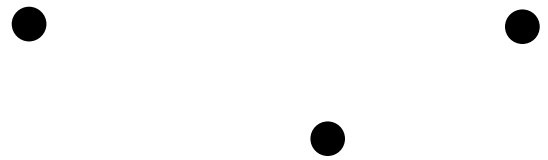

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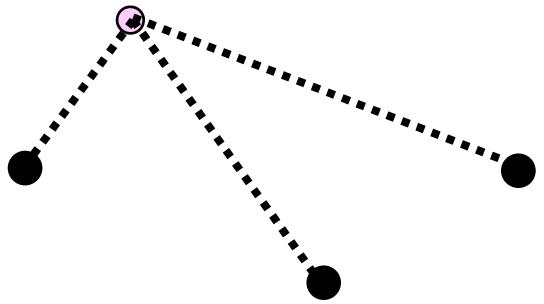

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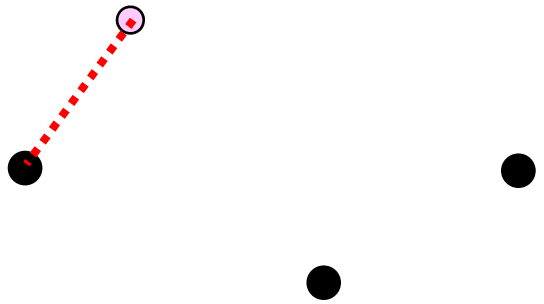

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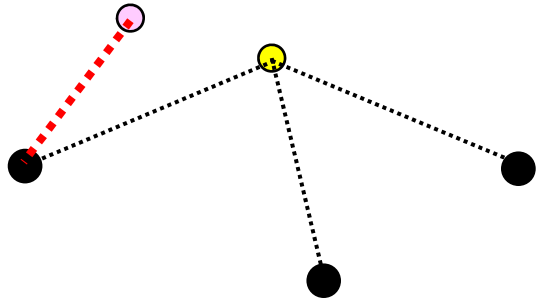

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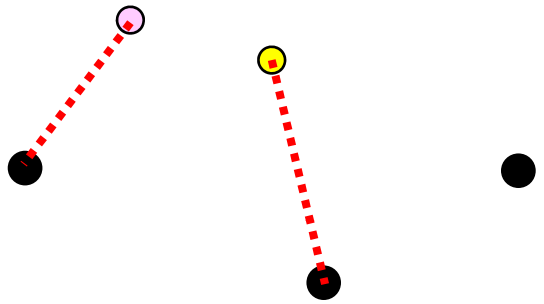

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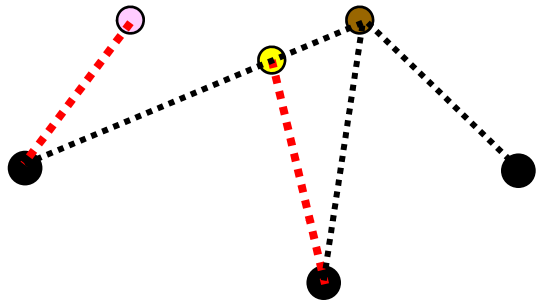

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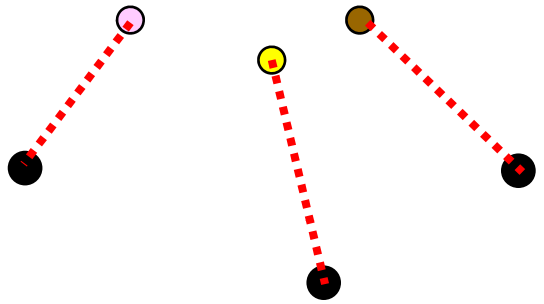

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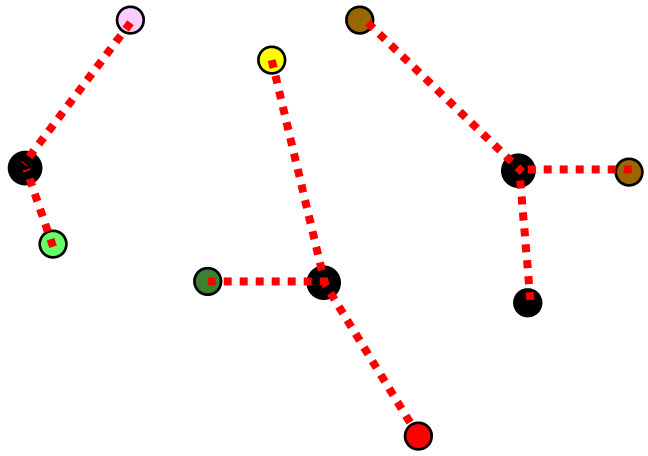

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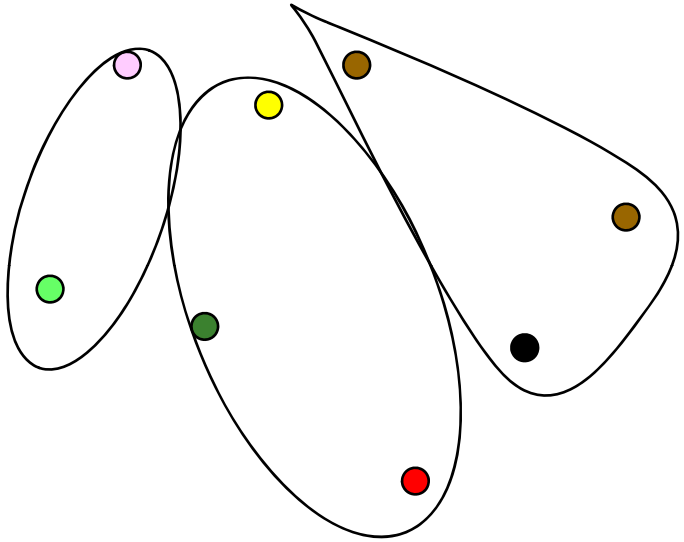

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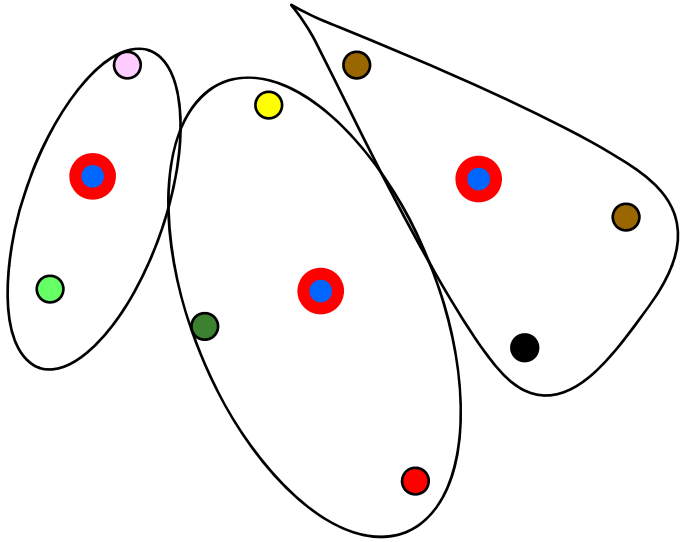

Kernel K–means

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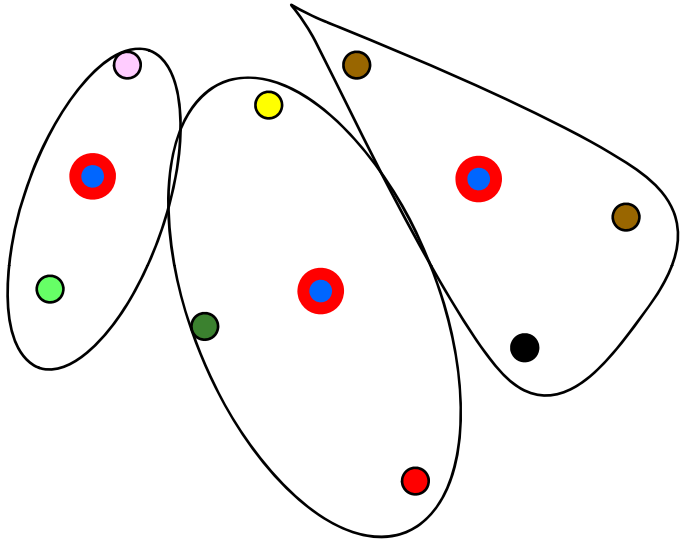
   - Cluster for which $\boldsymbol{d}_{\text{cluster}}$ is minimum
4. When all data points are clustered, recompute centroids

$$m_{cluster} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i \in cluster} w_i} \sum_{i \in cluster} w_i x_i$$

5. If not converged, go back to 2



How many clusters?

- Assumptions:
  - Dimensionality of kernel space > no. of clusters
  - Clusters represent separate *directions* in Kernel spaces

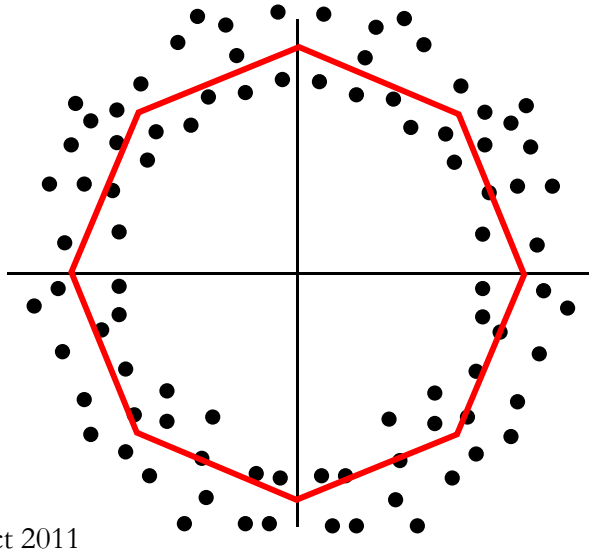
- Kernel correlation matrix $\mathbf{K}$
  - $\mathbf{K}_{ij} = \mathrm{K}(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$
- Find Eigen values Λ and Eigen vectors $\mathbf{e}$ of kernel matrix
  - No. of clusters = no. of dominant λ_i $(1^T \mathbf{e}_i)$ terms

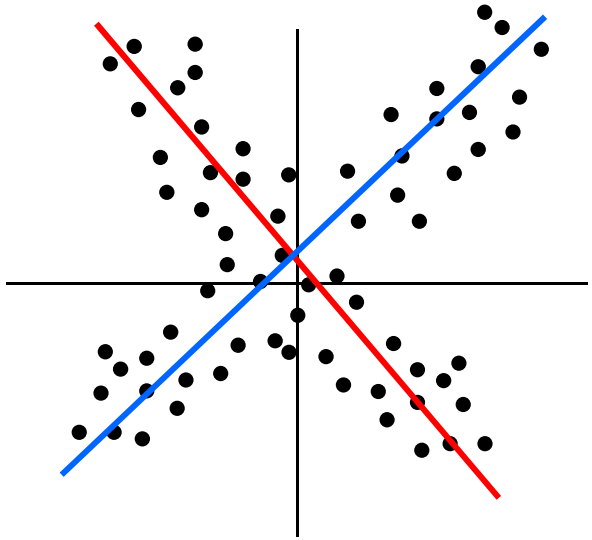
Spectral Methods

- "Spectral" methods attempt to find "principal" subspaces of the high-dimensional kernel space
- Clustering is performed in the principal subspaces
  - Normalized cuts
  - Spectral clustering
- Involves finding Eigenvectors and Eigen values of Kernel matrix
- Fortunately, provably analogous to Kernel K-means

Other clustering methods

- Regression based clustering
- Find a regression representing each cluster
- Associate each point to the cluster with the best regression
  - Related to kernel methods





Clustering..

- Many many other variants
- Many applications..

- Important: Appropriate choice of feature
  - Appropriate choice of feature may eliminate need for kernel trick..

  - Google is your friend.