

UNIT-IV

What is Cluster Analysis?

- Cluster: a collection of data objects
 - Similar to one another within the same cluster
 - Dissimilar to the objects in other clusters
- Cluster analysis
 - Grouping a set of data objects into clusters
- Clustering is unsupervised classification: no predefined classes
- Typical applications
 - As a stand-alone tool to get insight into data distribution
 - As a preprocessing step for other algorithms

General Applications of Clustering

- Pattern Recognition
- Spatial Data Analysis
 - create thematic maps in GIS by clustering feature spaces
 - detect spatial clusters and explain them in spatial data mining
- Image Processing
- Economic Science (especially market research)
- WWW
 - Document classification
 - Cluster Weblog data to discover groups of similar access patterns

Examples of Clustering Applications

- Marketing: Help marketers discover distinct groups in their customer bases, and then use this knowledge to develop targeted marketing programs
- Land use: Identification of areas of similar land use in an earth observation database

- It is hard to define “similar enough” or “good enough”
 - the answer is typically highly subjective.

Type of data in clustering analysis

- Interval-scaled variables:
- Binary variables:
- Nominal, ordinal, and ratio variables
- Variables of mixed types

Interval-valued variables

- Standardize data $s_f = \frac{1}{n} (|x_{1f} - m_f| + |x_{2f} - m_f| + \dots + |x_{nf} - m_f|)$

- Calculate the mean absolute deviation:

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

- Calculate the standardized measurement (*z-score*)

$$z_{if} = \frac{x_{if} - m_f}{s_f}$$

- Using mean absolute deviation is more robust than using standard deviation

Similarity and Dissimilarity Between Objects

- Distances are normally used to measure the similarity or dissimilarity between two data objects
- Some popular ones include: *Minkowski distance*:

$$d(i, j) = \sqrt[q]{(|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^q + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^q + \dots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^q)}$$

where $i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ip})$ and $j = (x_{j1}, x_{j2}, \dots, x_{jp})$ are two p -dimensional data objects, and q is a positive integer

- If $q = 1$, d is Manhattan distance

$$d(i, j) = |x_{i1} - x_{j1}| + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}| + \dots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|$$

- If $q = 2$, d is Euclidean distance:

$$d(i, j) = \sqrt{(|x_{i1} - x_{j1}|^2 + |x_{i2} - x_{j2}|^2 + \dots + |x_{ip} - x_{jp}|^2)}$$

■ Properties

- $d(i, j) \geq 0$
 - $d(i, i) = 0$
 - $d(i, j) = d(j, i)$
 - $d(i, j) \leq d(i, k) + d(k, j)$
- Also one can use weighted distance, parametric Pearson product moment correlation, or other dissimilarity measures.

Binary Variables

- A contingency table for binary data

| | | Object <i>j</i> | | |
|-----------------|------------|-----------------|------------|------------|
| | | 1 | 0 | <i>sum</i> |
| Object <i>i</i> | 1 | <i>a</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>a+b</i> |
| | 0 | <i>c</i> | <i>d</i> | <i>c+d</i> |
| | <i>sum</i> | <i>a+c</i> | <i>b+d</i> | <i>p</i> |

- Simple matching coefficient (invariant, if the binary variable is symmetric):

$$d(i, j) = \frac{b+c}{a+b+c+d}$$

- Jaccard coefficient (noninvariant if the binary variable is asymmetric):

$$d(i, j) = \frac{b+c}{a+b+c}$$

Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

- Example

| Name | Gender | Fever | Cough | Test-1 | Test-2 | Test-3 | Test-4 |
|------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Jack | M | Y | N | P | N | N | N |
| Mary | F | Y | N | P | N | P | N |
| Jim | M | Y | P | N | N | N | N |

- gender is a symmetric attribute
- the remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- let the values Y and P be set to 1, and the value N be set to 0

$$d(\text{jack}, \text{mary}) = \frac{0+1}{2+0+1} = 0.33$$

$$d(\text{jack}, \text{jim}) = \frac{1+1}{1+1+1} = 0.67$$

$$d(\text{jim}, \text{mary}) = \frac{1+2}{1+1+2} = 0.75$$

Nominal Variables

- A generalization of the binary variable in that it can take more than 2 states, e.g., red, yellow, blue, green
- Method 1: Simple matching
 - m : # of matches, p : total # of variables

$$d(i, j) = \frac{p-m}{p}$$

- Method 2: use a large number of binary variables
 - creating a new binary variable for each of the M nominal states

Ordinal Variables

- An ordinal variable can be discrete or continuous
- order is important, e.g., rank

$$r_{if} \in \{1, \dots, M_f\}$$

- Can be treated like interval-scaled
 - replacing x_{if} by their rank
 - map the range of each variable onto [0, 1] by replacing i -th object in the f -th variable by

$$z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$$

- compute the dissimilarity using methods for interval-scaled variables

Ratio-Scaled Variables

- Ratio-scaled variable: a positive measurement on a nonlinear scale, approximately at exponential scale, such as Ae^{Bt} or Ae^{-Bt}
- Methods:
 - treat them like interval-scaled variables — *not a good choice! (why?)*
 - apply logarithmic transformation

$$y_{if} = \log(x_{if})$$

- treat them as continuous ordinal data treat their rank as interval-scaled.

Variables of Mixed Types

- A database may contain all the six types of variables
 - symmetric binary, asymmetric binary, nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.
- One may use a weighted formula to combine their effects.

$$d(i, j) = \frac{\sum_{f=1}^p \delta_{ij}^{(f)} d_{ij}^{(f)}}{\sum_{f=1}^p \delta_{ij}^{(f)}}$$

- f is binary or nominal:

$$d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0 \text{ if } x_{if} = x_{jf}, \text{ or } d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1 \text{ o.w.}$$

- f is interval-based: use the normalized distance
- f is ordinal or ratio-scaled

- compute ranks r_{if} and

$$z_{if} = \frac{r_{if} - 1}{M_f - 1}$$

- and treat z_{if} as interval-scaled

A Categorization of Major Clustering Methods

- Partitioning methods: Construct various partitions and then evaluate them by some criterion
- Hierarchy methods: Create a hierarchical decomposition of the set of data (or objects) using some criterion
- Density-based: based on connectivity and density functions
- Grid-based: based on a multiple-level granularity structure
- Model-based: A model is hypothesized for each of the clusters and the idea is to find the best fit of that model to each other

Partitioning Methods

- Partitioning method: Construct a partition of a database D of n objects into a set of k clusters
- Given a k , find a partition of k clusters that optimizes the chosen partitioning criterion
 - Global optimal: exhaustively enumerate all partitions
 - Heuristic methods: k -means and k -medoids algorithms
 - k -means (MacQueen'67): Each cluster is represented by the center of the cluster
 - k -medoids or PAM (Partition around medoids) (Kaufman & Rousseeuw'87): Each cluster is represented by one of the objects in the cluster

The K -Means Clustering Method

- Given k , the k -means algorithm is implemented in 4 steps:
 - Partition objects into k nonempty subsets
 - Compute seed points as the centroids of the clusters of the current partition. The centroid is the center (mean point) of the cluster.
 - Assign each object to the cluster with the nearest seed point.
 - Go back to Step 2, stop when no more new assignment.

Comments on the *K-Means* Method

■ Strength

- *Relatively efficient: $O(tkn)$* , where n is # objects, k is # clusters, and t is # iterations. Normally, $k, t \ll n$.
- Often terminates at a *local optimum*. The *global optimum* may be found using techniques such as: *deterministic annealing* and *genetic algorithms*

■ Weakness

- Applicable only when *mean* is defined, then what about categorical data?
- Need to specify k , the *number* of clusters, in advance
- Unable to handle noisy data and *outliers*
- Not suitable to discover clusters with *non-convex shapes*

Variations of the *K-Means* Method

- A few variants of the *k-means* which differ in
 - Selection of the initial k means
 - Dissimilarity calculations
 - Strategies to calculate cluster means
- Handling categorical data: *k-modes* (Huang'98)
 - Replacing means of clusters with modes
 - Using new dissimilarity measures to deal with categorical objects
 - Using a frequency-based method to update modes of clusters
 - A mixture of categorical and numerical data: *k-prototype* method

The *K-Medoids* Clustering Method

- Find *representative* objects, called medoids, in clusters
- *PAM* (Partitioning Around Medoids, 1987)

- starts from an initial set of medoids and iteratively replaces one of the medoids by one of the non-medoids if it improves the total distance of the resulting clustering
- *PAM* works effectively for small data sets, but does not scale well for large data sets
- *CLARA* (Kaufmann & Rousseeuw, 1990)
- *CLARANS* (Ng & Han, 1994): Randomized sampling
- Focusing + spatial data structure (Ester et al., 1995)

PAM (Partitioning Around Medoids) (1987)

- PAM (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1987), built in Splus
- Use real object to represent the cluster
 - Select k representative objects arbitrarily
 - For each pair of non-selected object h and selected object i , calculate the total swapping cost TC_{ih}
 - For each pair of i and h ,
 - If $TC_{ih} < 0$, i is replaced by h
 - Then assign each non-selected object to the most similar representative object
 - repeat steps 2-3 until there is no change

CLARA (Clustering Large Applications) (1990)

- *CLARA* (Kaufmann and Rousseeuw in 1990)
 - Built in statistical analysis packages, such as S+
- It draws *multiple samples* of the data set, applies *PAM* on each sample, and gives the best clustering as the output
- Strength: deals with larger data sets than *PAM*
- Weakness:
 - Efficiency depends on the sample size

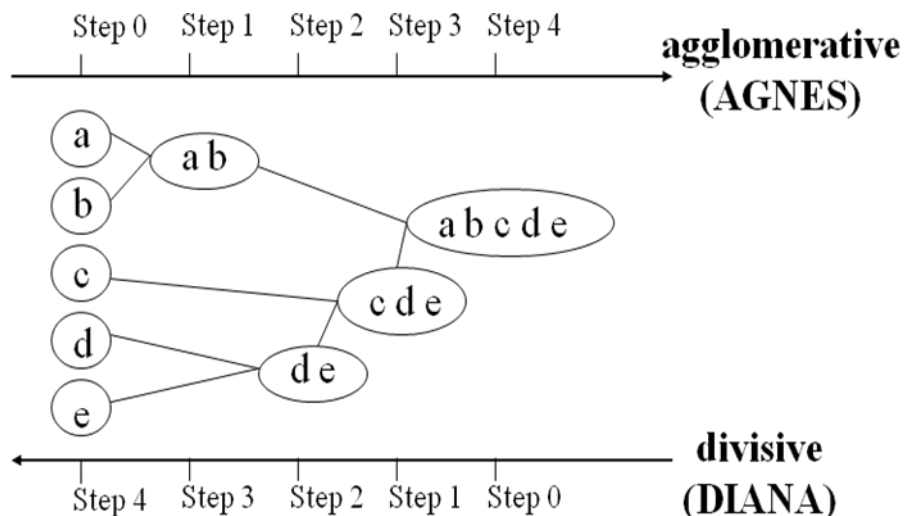
- A good clustering based on samples will not necessarily represent a good clustering of the whole data set if the sample is biased

CLARANS (“Randomized” CLARA)

- CLARANS (A Clustering Algorithm based on Randomized Search) (Ng and Han’94)
- CLARANS draws sample of neighbors dynamically
- The clustering process can be presented as searching a graph where every node is a potential solution, that is, a set of k medoids
- If the local optimum is found, CLARANS starts with new randomly selected node in search for a new local optimum
- It is more efficient and scalable than both PAM and CLARA
- Focusing techniques and spatial access structures may further improve its performance (Ester et al.’95)

Hierarchical Clustering

- Use distance matrix as clustering criteria. This method does not require the number of clusters k as an input, but needs a termination condition



AGNES (Agglomerative Nesting)

- Introduced in Kaufmann and Rousseeuw (1990)
- Implemented in statistical analysis packages, e.g., Splus

- Use the Single-Link method and the dissimilarity matrix.
- Merge nodes that have the least dissimilarity
- Go on in a non-descending fashion
- Eventually all nodes belong to the same cluster

DIANA (Divisive Analysis)

- Introduced in Kaufmann and Rousseeuw (1990)
- Implemented in statistical analysis packages, e.g., Splus
- Inverse order of AGNES
- Eventually each node forms a cluster on its own

More on Hierarchical Clustering Methods

- Major weakness of agglomerative clustering methods
 - do not scale well: time complexity of at least $O(n^2)$, where n is the number of total objects
 - can never undo what was done previously
- Integration of hierarchical with distance-based clustering
 - BIRCH (1996): uses CF-tree and incrementally adjusts the quality of sub-clusters
 - CURE (1998): selects well-scattered points from the cluster and then shrinks them towards the center of the cluster by a specified fraction
 - CHAMELEON (1999): hierarchical clustering using dynamic modeling

BIRCH:-

- Birch: Balanced Iterative Reducing and Clustering using Hierarchies, by Zhang, Ramakrishnan, Livny (SIGMOD'96)
- Incrementally construct a CF (Clustering Feature) tree, a hierarchical data structure for multiphase clustering
 - Phase 1: scan DB to build an initial in-memory CF tree (a multi-level compression of the data that tries to preserve the inherent clustering structure of the data)

- Phase 2: use an arbitrary clustering algorithm to cluster the leaf nodes of the CF-tree
- *Scales linearly*: finds a good clustering with a single scan and improves the quality with a few additional scans

Weakness: handles only numeric data, and sensitive to the order of the data record

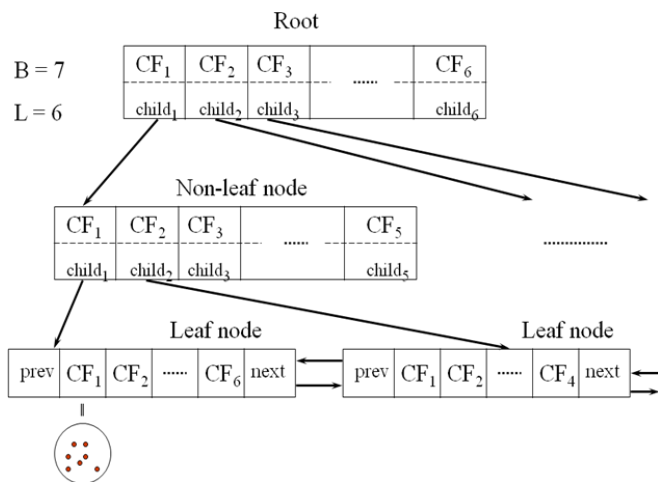
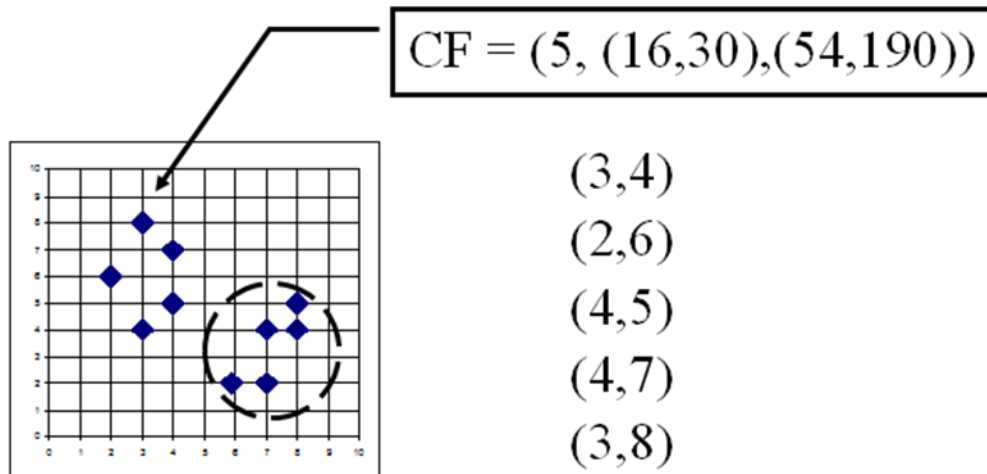
Clustering Feature Vector

Clustering Feature: $CF = (N, \vec{LS}, SS)$

N: Number of data points

LS: $\sum_{i=1}^N \vec{X}_i$

SS: $\sum_{i=1}^N \vec{X}_i^2$



Clustering Categorical Data: ROCK

- ROCK: Robust Clustering using linKs,
by S. Guha, R. Rastogi, K. Shim (ICDE'99).

Use links to measure similarity/proximity

- Computational complexity: $O(n^2 + nm_m m_a + n^2 \log n)$

- Basic ideas:

- Similarity function and neighbors: $Sim(T_1, T_2) = \frac{|T_1 \cap T_2|}{|T_1 \cup T_2|}$

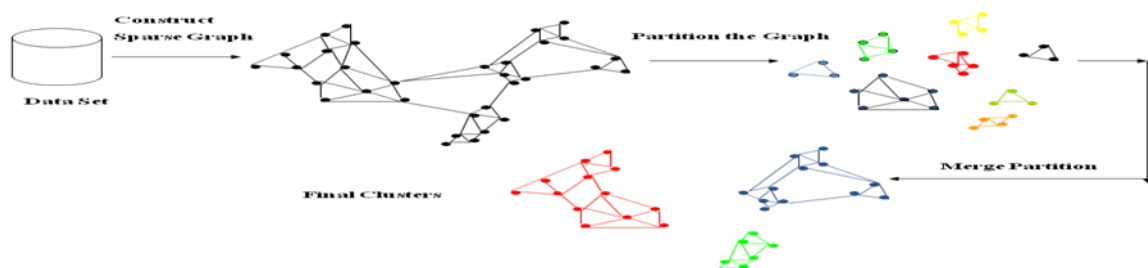
Let $T_1 = \{1,2,3\}$, $T_2 = \{3,4,5\}$

$$Sim(T_1, T_2) = \frac{|\{3\}|}{|\{1,2,3,4,5\}|} = \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$

CHAMELEON

- CHAMELEON: hierarchical clustering using dynamic modeling, by G. Karypis, E.H. Han and V. Kumar'99
- Measures the similarity based on a dynamic model
 - Two clusters are merged only if the *interconnectivity* and *closeness (proximity)* between two clusters are high *relative to* the internal interconnectivity of the clusters and closeness of items within the clusters
- A two phase algorithm
 1. Use a graph partitioning algorithm: cluster objects into a large number of relatively small sub-clusters
 2. Use an agglomerative hierarchical clustering algorithm: find the genuine clusters by repeatedly combining these sub-clusters

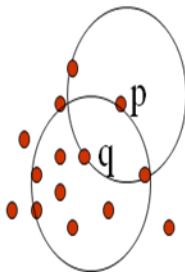
Overall Framework of CHAMELEON



Density-Based Clustering Methods

- Clustering based on density (local cluster criterion), such as density-connected points
- Major features:
 - Discover clusters of arbitrary shape
 - Handle noise
 - One scan
 - Need density parameters as termination condition
- Several interesting studies:
 - DBSCAN: Ester, et al. (KDD'96)
 - OPTICS: Ankerst, et al (SIGMOD'99).
 - DENCLUE: Hinneburg & D. Keim (KDD'98)
 - CLIQUE: Agrawal, et al. (SIGMOD'98)
- Two parameters:
 - *Eps*: Maximum radius of the neighbourhood
 - *MinPts*: Minimum number of points in an Eps-neighbourhood of that point
- $N_{Eps}(p)$: $\{q \text{ belongs to } D \mid \text{dist}(p,q) \leq Eps\}$
- Directly density-reachable: A point p is directly density-reachable from a point q wrt. *Eps*, *MinPts* if
 - 1) p belongs to $N_{Eps}(q)$
 - 2) core point condition:

$$|N_{Eps}(q)| \geq MinPts$$

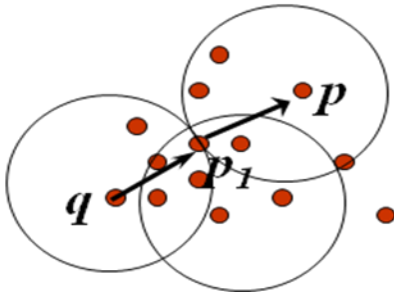


$$MinPts = 5$$

$$Eps = 1 \text{ cm}$$

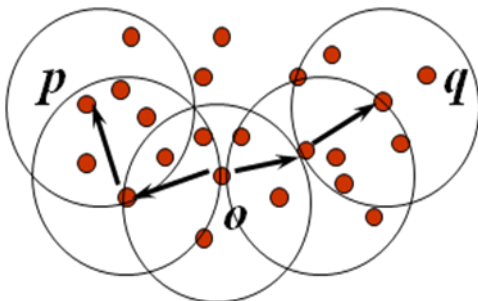
Density-reachable:

- A point p is density-reachable from a point q wrt. Eps , $MinPts$ if there is a chain of points $p_1, \dots, p_n, p_1 = q, p_n = p$ such that p_{i+1} is directly density-reachable from p_i



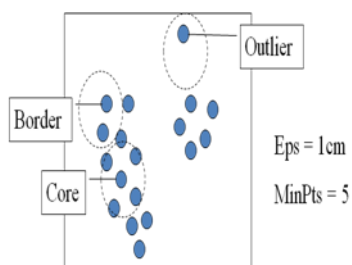
- Density-connected

- A point p is density-connected to a point q wrt. Eps , $MinPts$ if there is a point o such that both, p and q are density-reachable from o wrt. Eps and $MinPts$.



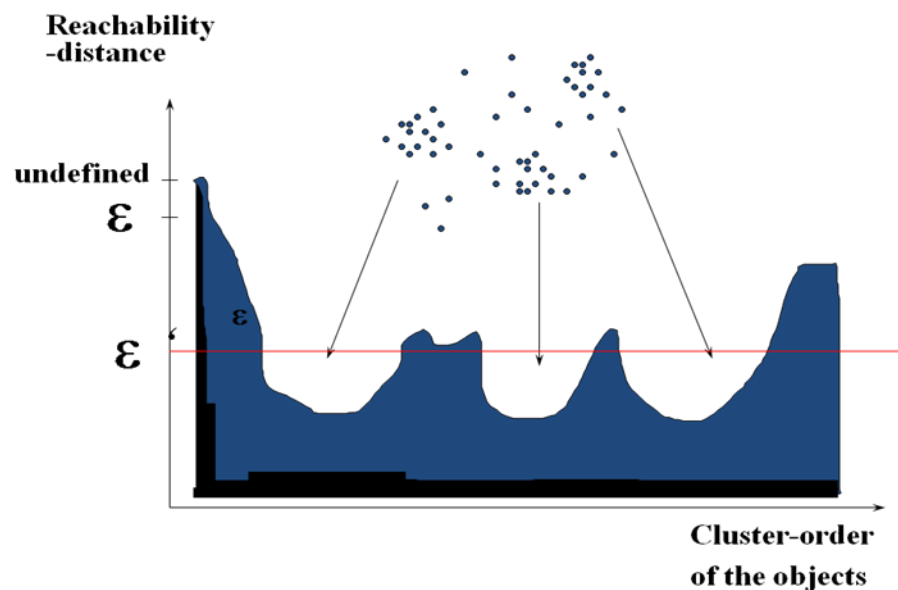
DBSCAN: Density Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise

- Relies on a *density-based* notion of cluster: A *cluster* is defined as a maximal set of density-connected points
- Discovers clusters of arbitrary shape in spatial databases with noise



OPTICS: A Cluster-Ordering Method

- OPTICS: Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure
 - Ankerst, Breunig, Kriegel, and Sander (SIGMOD'99)
 - Produces a special order of the database wrt its density-based clustering structure
 - This cluster-ordering contains info equiv to the density-based clusterings corresponding to a broad range of parameter settings
 - Good for both automatic and interactive cluster analysis, including finding intrinsic clustering structure
 - Can be represented graphically or using visualization techniques

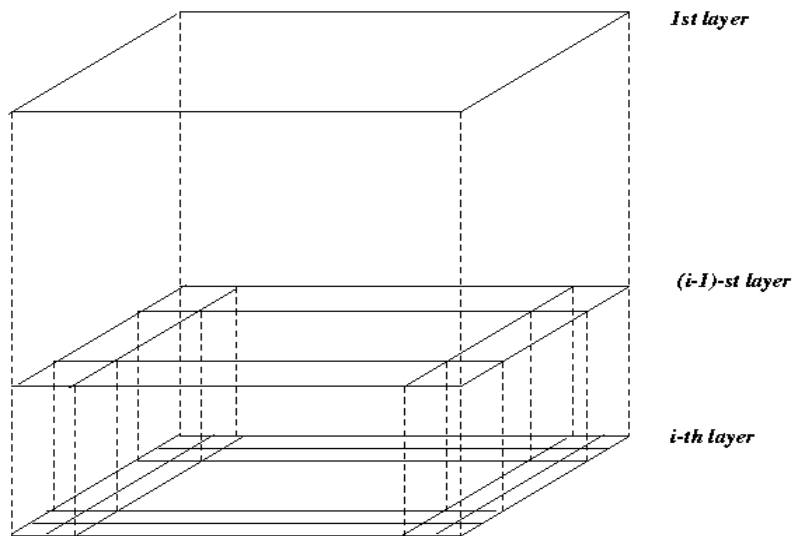


Grid-Based Clustering Method

- Using multi-resolution grid data structure
- Several interesting methods
 - STING (a Statistical Information Grid approach) by Wang, Yang and Muntz (1997)
 - WaveCluster by Sheikholeslami, Chatterjee, and Zhang (VLDB'98)
 - A multi-resolution clustering approach using wavelet method
 - CLIQUE: Agrawal, et al. (SIGMOD'98)

STING: A Statistical Information Grid Approach

- Wang, Yang and Muntz (VLDB'97)
- The spatial area is divided into rectangular cells
- There are several levels of cells corresponding to different levels of resolution

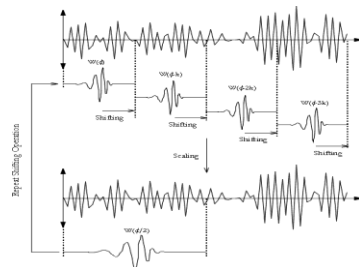


- Each cell at a high level is partitioned into a number of smaller cells in the next lower level
- Statistical info of each cell is calculated and stored beforehand and is used to answer queries
- Parameters of higher level cells can be easily calculated from parameters of lower level cell
 - *count, mean, s, min, max*
 - type of distribution—normal, *uniform*, etc.
- Use a top-down approach to answer spatial data queries
- Start from a pre-selected layer—typically with a small number of cells
- For each cell in the current level compute the confidence interval
- Remove the irrelevant cells from further consideration
- When finish examining the current layer, proceed to the next lower level
- Repeat this process until the bottom layer is reached

- Advantages:
 - Query-independent, easy to parallelize, incremental update
 - $O(K)$, where K is the number of grid cells at the lowest level
- Disadvantages:
 - All the cluster boundaries are either horizontal or vertical, and no diagonal boundary is detected

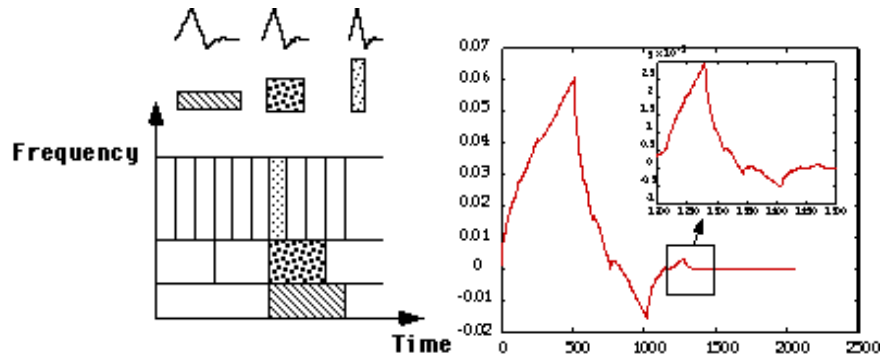
WaveCluster:

- Sheikholeslami, Chatterjee, and Zhang (VLDB'98)
- A multi-resolution clustering approach which applies wavelet transform to the feature space
 - A wavelet transform is a signal processing technique that decomposes a signal into different frequency sub-band.
- Both grid-based and density-based
- Input parameters:
 - # of grid cells for each dimension
 - the wavelet, and the # of applications of wavelet transform.



- How to apply wavelet transform to find clusters
 - Summarizes the data by imposing a multidimensional grid structure onto data space
 - These multidimensional spatial data objects are represented in a n-dimensional feature space
 - Apply wavelet transform on feature space to find the dense regions in the feature space

- Apply wavelet transform multiple times which result in clusters at different scales from fine to coarse



Quantization

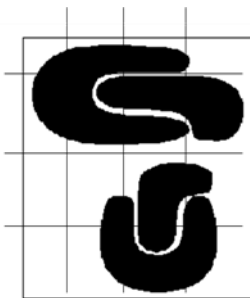
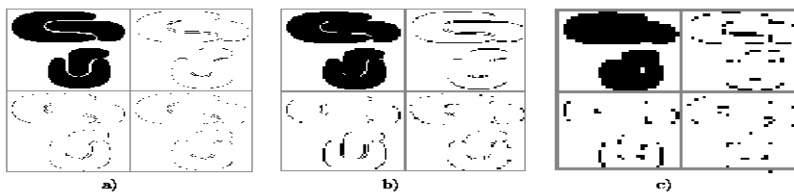


Figure 1: A sample 2-dimensional feature space.

Transformation



CLIQUE (Clustering In QUES)

- Agrawal, Gehrke, Gunopulos, Raghavan (SIGMOD'98).
- Automatically identifying subspaces of a high dimensional data space that allow better clustering than original space
- CLIQUE can be considered as both density-based and grid-based
 - It partitions each dimension into the same number of equal length interval
 - It partitions an m-dimensional data space into non-overlapping rectangular units

- A unit is dense if the fraction of total data points contained in the unit exceeds the input model parameter
- A cluster is a maximal set of connected dense units within a subspace

CLIQUE: The Major Steps

- Partition the data space and find the number of points that lie inside each cell of the partition.
- Identify the subspaces that contain clusters using the Apriori principle
- Identify clusters:
 - Determine dense units in all subspaces of interests
 - Determine connected dense units in all subspaces of interests.
- Generate minimal description for the clusters
 - Determine maximal regions that cover a cluster of connected dense units for each cluster
 - Determination of minimal cover for each cluster

Model-Based Clustering Methods

- Attempt to optimize the fit between the data and some mathematical model
- Statistical and AI approach
 - Conceptual clustering
 - A form of clustering in machine learning
 - Produces a classification scheme for a set of unlabeled objects
 - Finds characteristic description for each concept (class)
 - COBWEB (Fisher'87)
 - A popular a simple method of incremental conceptual learning
 - Creates a hierarchical clustering in the form of a classification tree
 - Each node refers to a concept and contains a probabilistic description of that concept