

Skript zur Vorlesung  
Datenbanksysteme I  
im Wintersemester 2016/17

# Kapitel 11: Clustering

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<http://www.dbs.ifi.lmu.de/Lehre/DBS>

# Motivation

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Phone Company



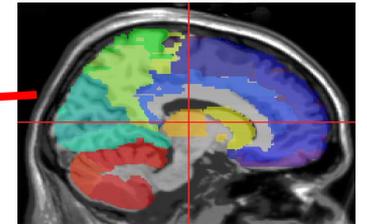
Credit Card



Retail



Astronomy



Medical Imaging



- Big data sets are collected in databases
- Manual analysis is no more feasible

# Big Data

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- The buzzword “Big Data” dates back to a report by McKinsey (May 2011) ([http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/business\\_technology/big\\_data\\_the\\_next\\_frontier\\_for\\_innovation](http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/business_technology/big_data_the_next_frontier_for_innovation))
- “The amount of data in our world has been exploding, and analyzing large data sets—so-called big data—will become a key basis of competition, underpinning new waves of productivity growth, innovation, and consumer surplus [...]”
- “Data have swept into every industry and business function and are now an important factor of production, alongside labor and capital”
  - Potential Revenue in US Healthcare: > \$300 Million
  - Potential Revenue in public sector of EU: > €100 Million
- “There will be a shortage of talent necessary for organizations to take advantage of big data. By 2018, the United States alone could face a shortage of 140,000 to 190,000 people with deep analytical skills as well as 1.5 million managers and analysts with the know-how to use the analysis of big data to make effective decisions.”

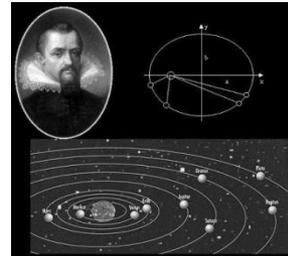
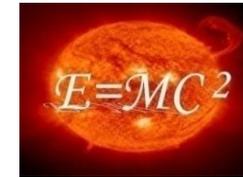
# Big Data

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- Data Mining is obviously an important technology to cope with Big Data
- Caution: “Big Data” does not only mean “big”
  - ⇒ Three V’s (the three V’s characterizing big data)
    - Volume      Many objects but also huge representations of single objects
    - Velocity     Data arriving in fast data streams
    - Variety      Not only one type of data, but different types, semi- or unstructured

# A Paradigm Shift in Science?

- Some 1,000 years ago, science was empirical (describing natural phenomena)
- Last few hundred years, science was theoretical (Models, generalizations)
- Last few decades, science became computational (data intensive)
  - Computational methods for simulation
  - Automatic data generation, high-throughput methods, ...
- Data Science



$$\frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div}(vT) = \frac{k_1}{\rho c_0} \Delta T$$

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div}(v \otimes v) \right) = -\operatorname{grad} p + \mu \Delta v + \rho (1 - \beta(T - T_0)) g$$

$$\operatorname{div} v = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{k_1}{\rho c_0} \Delta T$$

$$\left[ k \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \right]_i + \rho_0 q(T - T_0)(V_i \cdot \vec{n}) - \rho_0 \alpha_0(T - T_0) V_i \cdot \vec{n} - \rho_0 L V_i$$

$$\frac{T - T_0}{T_0} = -\frac{\alpha \rho_0 T_0 V_i \cdot \vec{n}}{L \rho_0} + \left[ 1 - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right] \frac{q \cdot \vec{n}}{L}$$

$$\vec{v}(\vec{x}) = \left( 1 - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right) \vec{V}_i, \quad \vec{x} \in \Gamma_1$$

$$T|_i = T_0$$

$$k \frac{\partial T}{\partial n}(\vec{x}) = -h(T(\vec{x}) - T^*), \quad \vec{x} \in \Gamma_2$$

$$-p \vec{n} + \tau \vec{n} = -\gamma_0 \alpha_0 \vec{n} - p^* \vec{n}$$

$$\beta(\vec{x}) = 0, \quad \vec{x} \in \Gamma_3$$

$$T(\vec{x}) = T_0(\vec{x}), \quad \vec{x} \in \Gamma_4$$

$$k \frac{\partial T}{\partial n}(\vec{x}) = q_0 \cdot \vec{n}, \quad \vec{x} \in \Gamma_5$$



# Definition KDD

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[Fayyad, Piatetsky-Shapiro & Smyth 1996]

„*Knowledge Discovery in Databases (KDD)* is the nontrivial process of identifying patterns in data which are

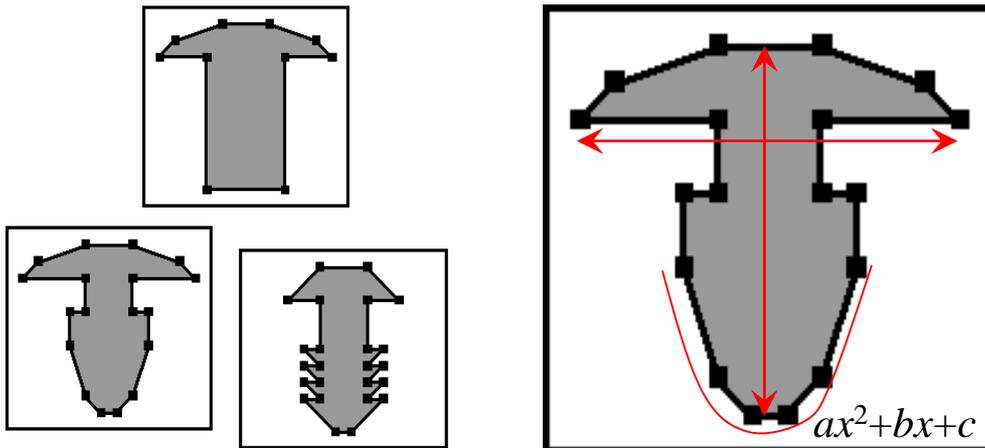
- valid
- novel
- potentially useful
- and ultimately understandable“

# Feature Vectors Associated to Objects

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- Objects of an application are often complex
- It is the task of the KDD expert to define or select suitable features which are relevant for the distinction between various objects

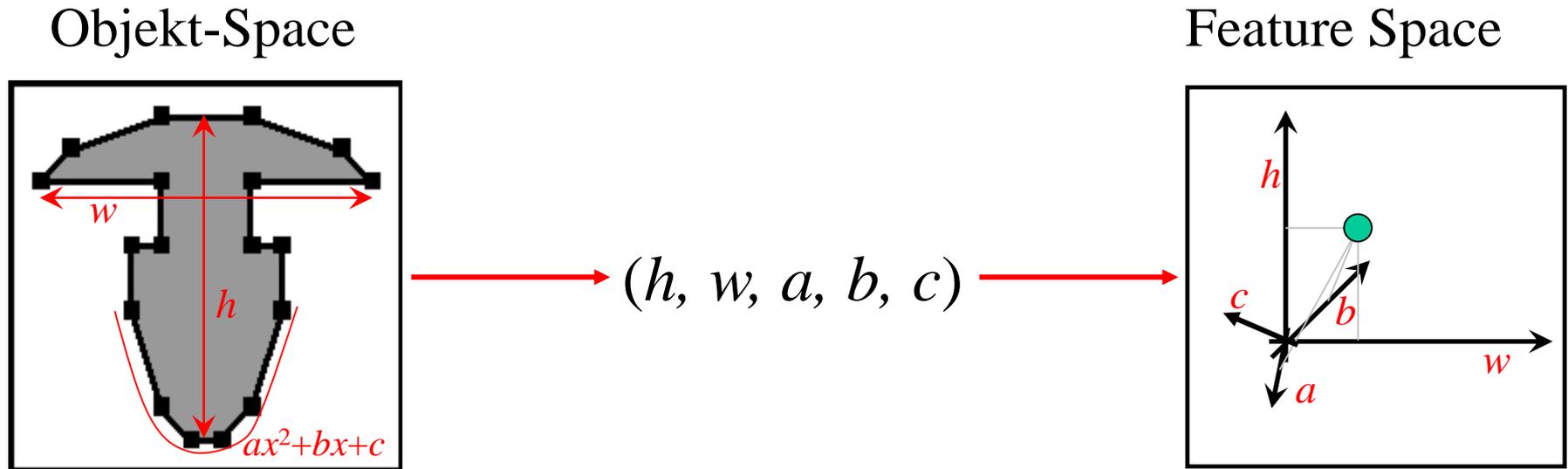
Example: CAD-drawings:



Possible features:

- height  $h$
- width  $w$
- Curvature parameters  $(a, b, c)$

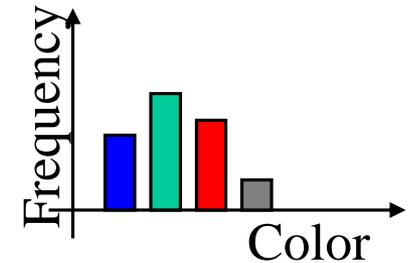
# Feature Vectors Associated to Objects



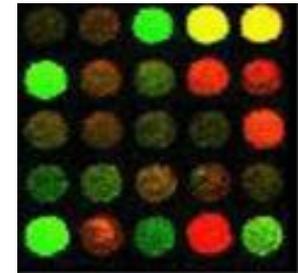
- In a statistical context, we call the features often *variables*.
- The selected features form a *feature vector*
- The feature space is often high-dimensional (in our example 5-D)

# Further Examples of Features

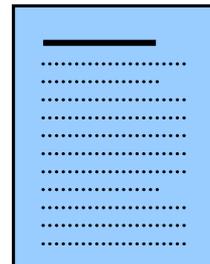
Image Databases:  
Color Histograms



Genetic Databases:  
Level of Gene Expression



Text-/Document-DBs:  
Frequency of terms



Data	25
Mining	15
Feature	12
Object	7
...	

The feature-based approach facilitates a uniform methodology for a great variety of applications

# Levels of Measurement

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## Nominal (Categorical)

### Properties:

We can only determine if two values are equal or not. No „better“ and „worse“, no directions.

Features with 2 possible values are called *dichotome*

### Examples:

Gender (dichotome)  
Eye/Hair Color  
Healthy/sick (dichotome)

## Ordinal

### Properties:

We have a ordering relation (like „better“, „worse“) among the values but not a uniform distance.

### Examples:

Quality grade (A/B/C)  
Age class (child, teen, adult, senior)  
Questionnaire answer: (completely agree,...)

## Numeric

### Properties:

Differences and proportions can be determined. Values can be discrete or continuous.

### Examples:

Weight (continuous)  
Number of sales (discrete)  
Age (contin. or discrete)

# Similarity Queries

- Specify query-object  $q \in \text{DB}$  and...

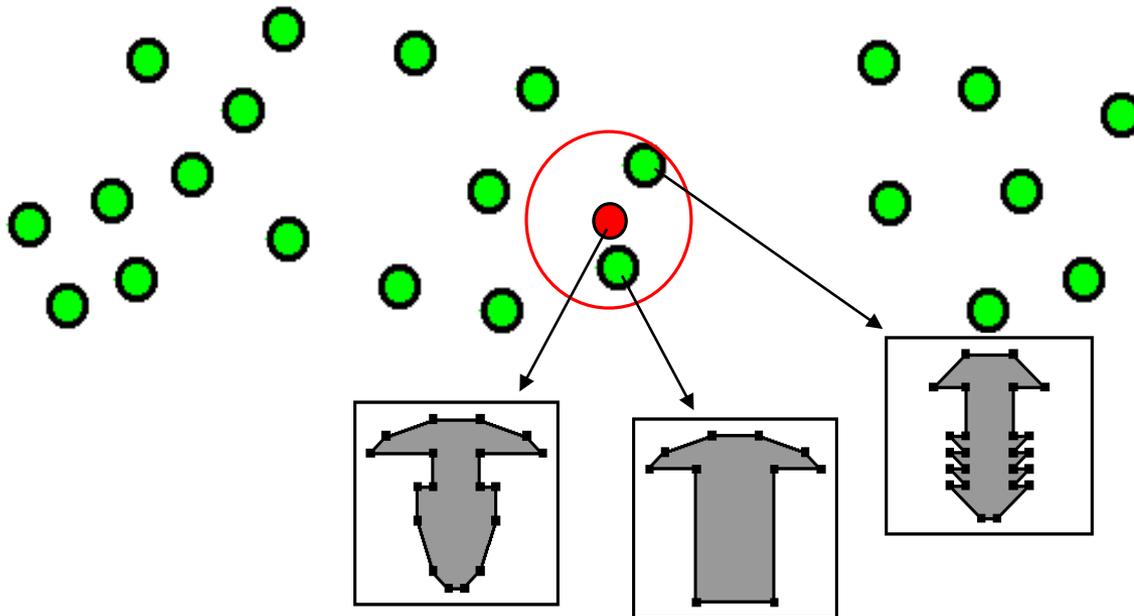
- ... search threshold-based ( $\varepsilon$ ) for similar  $o$ . – Range-Query

$$\text{RQ}(q, \varepsilon) = \{ o \in \text{DB} \mid \delta(q, o) \leq \varepsilon \}$$

- ... search for the  $k$  most similar objects – Nearest Neighbor

$\text{NN}(q, k) \subseteq \text{DB}$  having at least  $k$  objects, such that

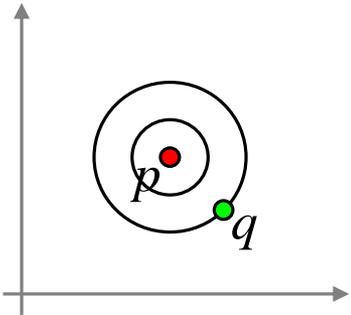
$$\forall o \in \text{NN}(q, k), p \in \text{DB} - \text{NN}(q, k) : \delta(q, o) < \delta(q, p)$$



# Similarity of Objects

Eukclidean distance ( $L_2$ ):

$$\delta_2 = ((p_1 - q_1)^2 + (p_2 - q_2)^2 + \dots)^{1/2}$$

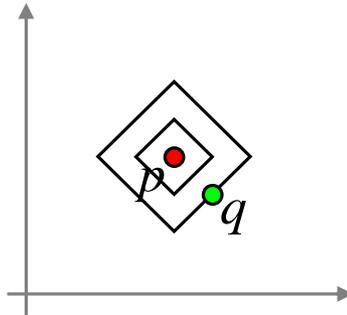


Most natural measure of Dissimilarity

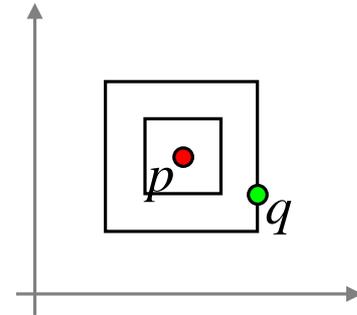
Manhattan-Distance ( $L_1$ ): Maximum-Distance ( $L_\infty$ ):

$$\delta_1 = |p_1 - q_1| + |p_2 - q_2| + \dots$$

$$\delta_\infty = \max\{|p_1 - q_1|, |p_2 - q_2|, \dots\}$$



The individual dissimilarities of the features are summed up



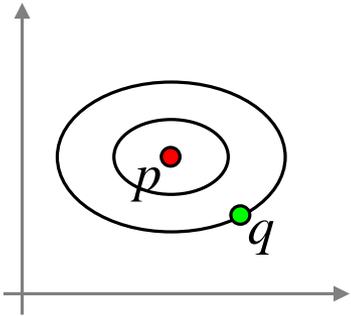
Only the dissimilarity of the least similar feature is taken into account

Generalization  $L_p$ -Distance:  $\delta_p = (|p_1 - q_1|^p + |p_2 - q_2|^p + \dots)^{1/p}$

# Adaptable Similarity Measures

Weighted Euklidian distance:

$$\delta = (w_1(p_1 - q_1)^2 + w_2(p_2 - q_2)^2 + \dots)^{1/2}$$



Often the features have (heavily) varying value ranges:

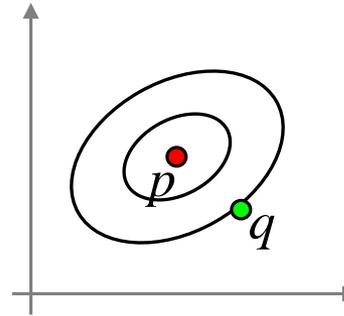
Example: Feature  $F_1 \in [0.01 \dots 0.05]$

Feature  $F_2 \in [3.1 \dots 22.2]$

We need a high weight for  $F_1$   
(otherwise  $\delta$  would ignore  $F_1$ )

Quadratic form distance:

$$\delta = ((p - q) M (p - q)^T)^{1/2}$$



Sometimes we need a common weighting of different features to capture dependencies,

e.g. in color histograms to take color similarities into account

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Some methods do not work with distance measures (where =0 means equality) but with positive similarity measures (=1 means equality)

# Data Mining Tasks

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Most important data mining tasks based on feature vectors:

Classification	}	Supervised Learning
Regression		
Clustering	}	Unsupervised Learning, Exploratory Analysis
Outlier Detection		

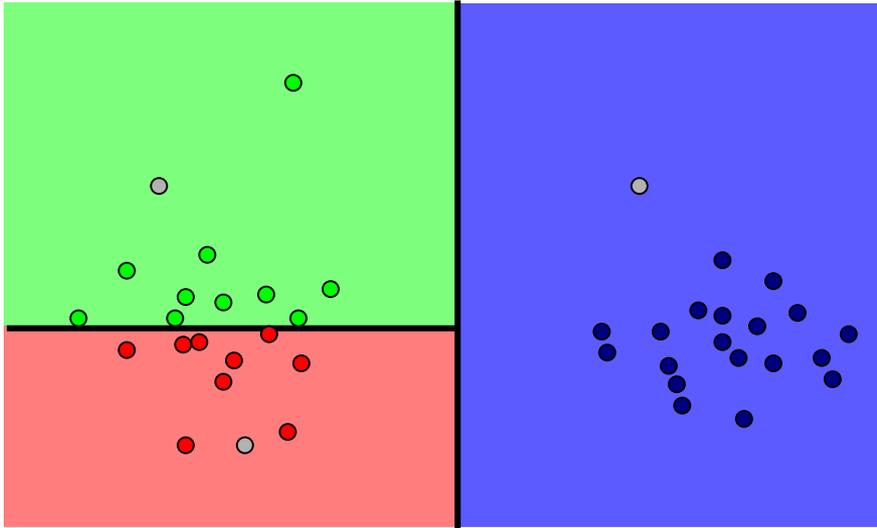
Supervised: Learn rules to predict a previously identified feature

Unsupervised: Learn some regularity/rules

But there is a plethora of methods and tasks not based on feature vectors but directly working on **text, sets, graphs** etc.

# Classification

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- Screws
  - Nails
  - Clips
- } training-data
- New objects

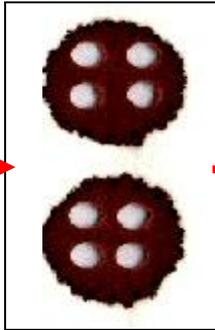
Task:

Learn from previously classified *training data* the *rules*, to predict the class of new objects just based on their properties (features)

The result feature (class variable) is nominal (*categorical*)

# Application: Newborn Screening

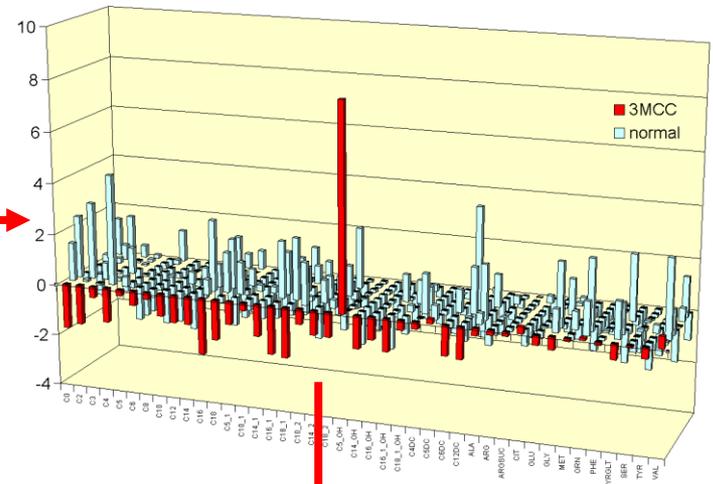
Blood sample  
of a newborn



Mass spektrometry



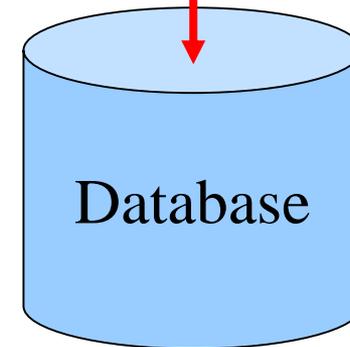
Metabolite spectrum



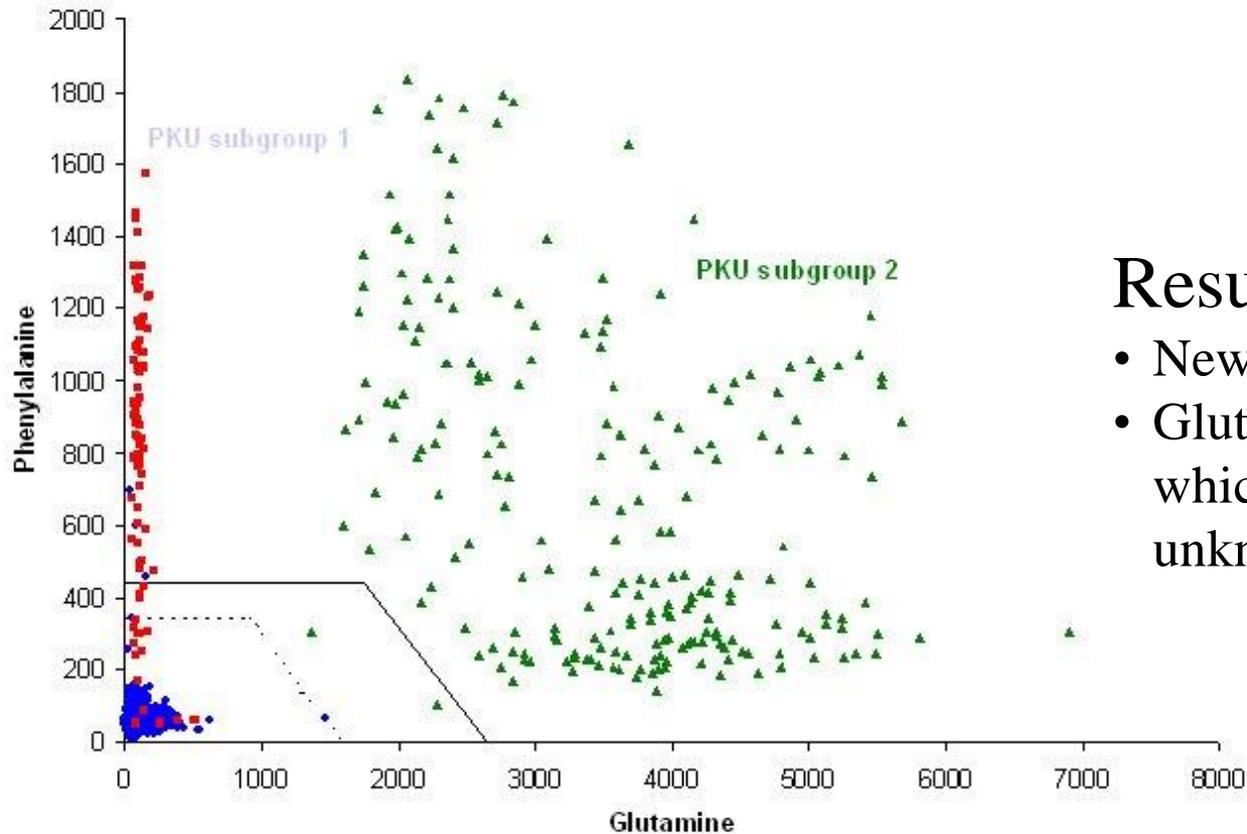
**14 analysed amino acids:**

alanine  
arginine  
argininosuccinate  
citrulline  
glutamate  
glycine  
methionine

phenylalanine  
pyroglutamate  
serine  
tyrosine  
valine  
leuzine+isoleuzine  
ornitine



# Application: Newborn Screening

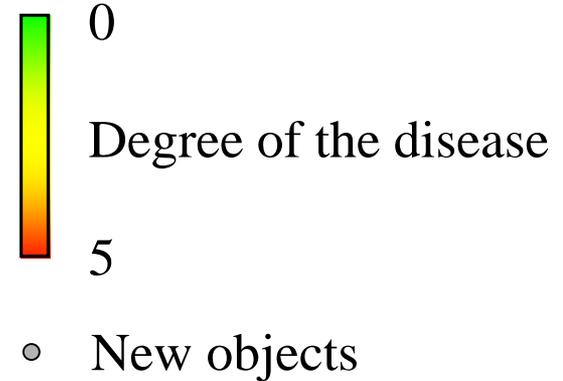
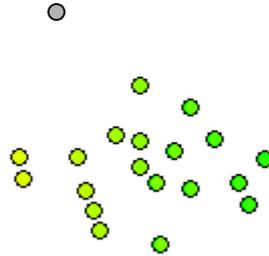
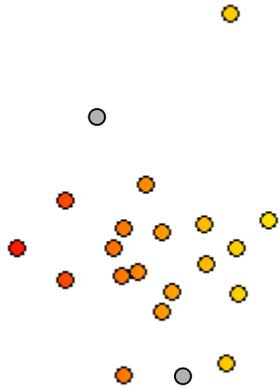


## Result:

- New diagnostic test
- Glutamine is a marker which was previously unknown

# Regression

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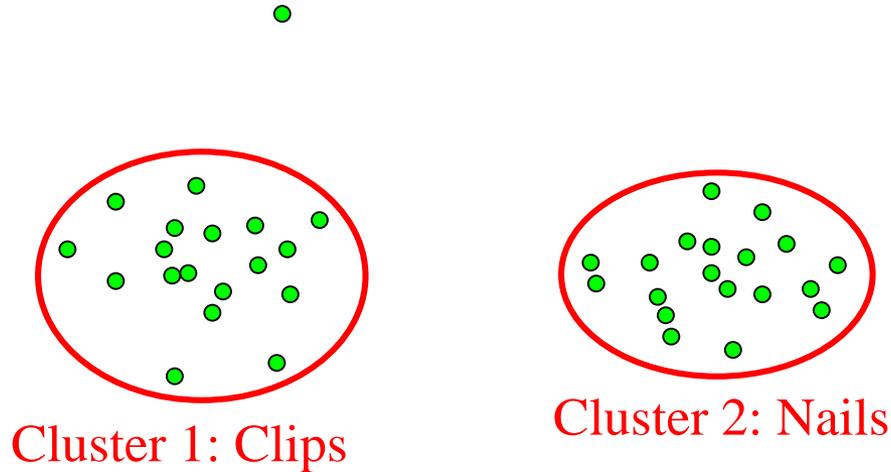


task:

Similar as classification, but the result feature to be predicted or estimated, is *numeric*

# Clustering

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Clustering means: Decompose a set of objects (a set of feature vektors) into subsets (called clusters), such that

- the similarity of objects of the same cluster is maximized
- the similarity of objects of different clusters is minimized

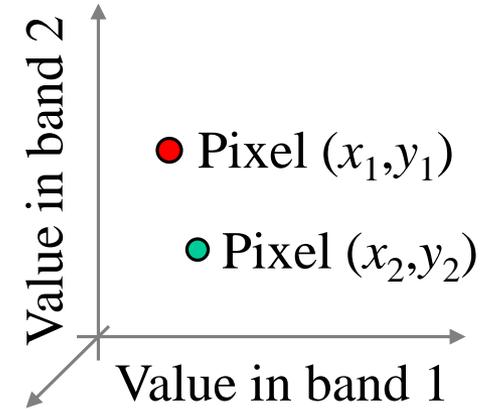
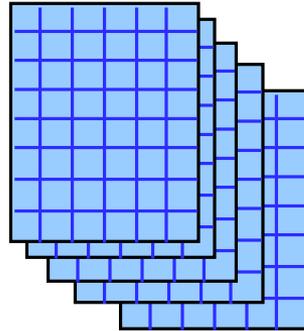
Motivation: Different clusters represent different classes of objects

In contrast to classification: Number and meaning of the classes is unknown.

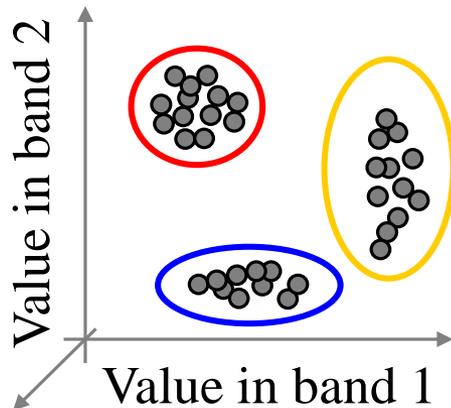
# Application: Generation of Thematic Maps



Image of earth surface  
in 5 different color spectra

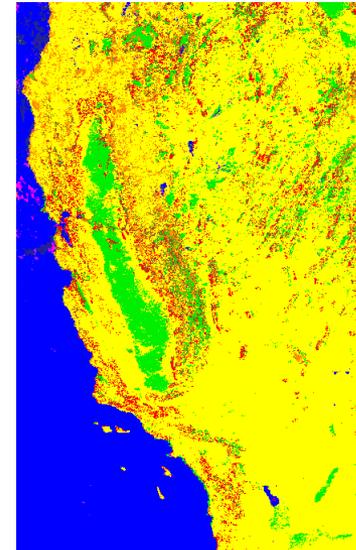


Cluster-Analysis

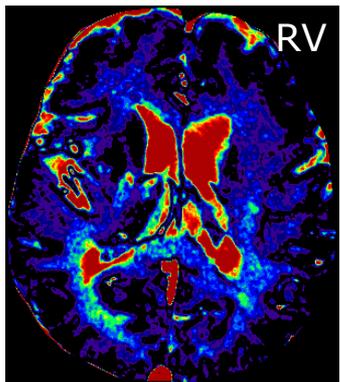
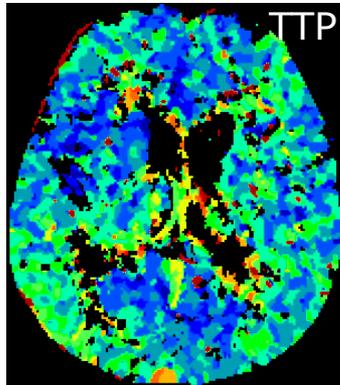
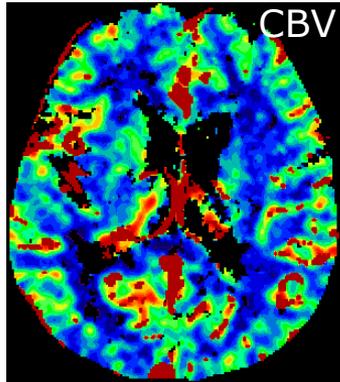


Retransform into  
*xy*-Coordinates

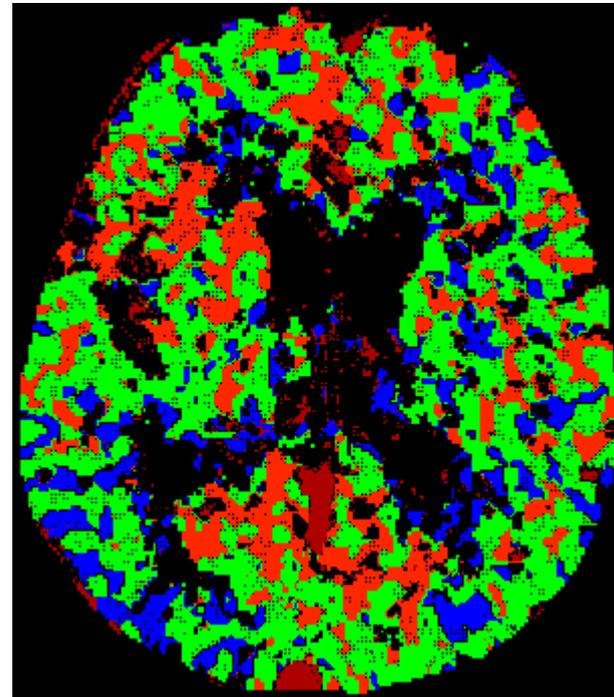
Color coding of  
Cluster-membership



# Application: Tissue Classification



- Black: Ventricle + Background
- Blue: Tissue 1
- Green: Tissue 2
- Red: Tissue 3
- Dark red: Big vessels

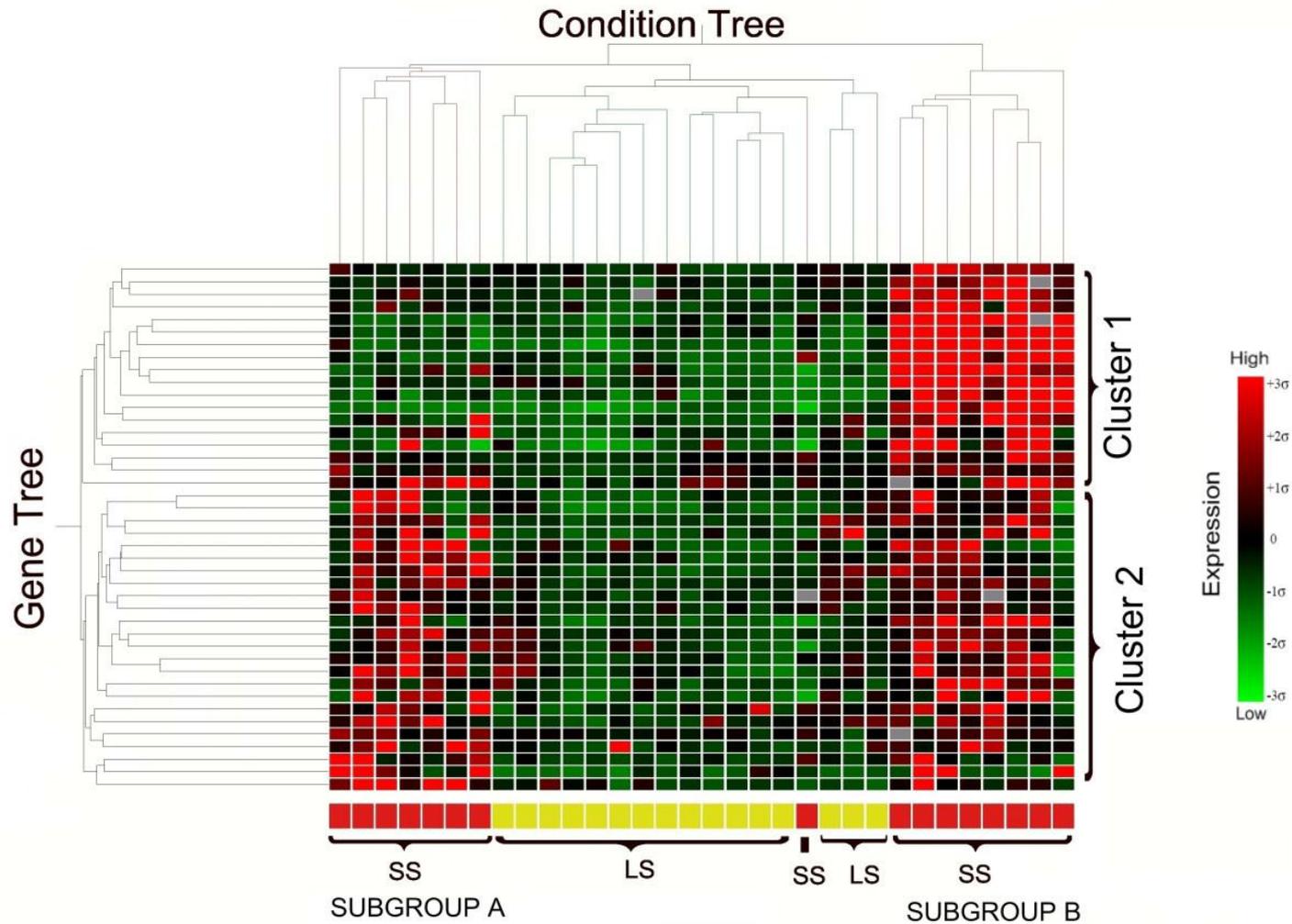


	Blue	Green	Red
<b>TTP</b> (s)	<b>20.5</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>16.5</b>
<b>CBV</b> (ml/100g)	<b>3.0</b>	<b>3.1</b>	<b>3.6</b>
<b>CBF</b> (ml/100g/min)	<b>18</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>RV</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>21</b>

**Result:** Automatic classification of cerebral tissue possible with dynamic CT.

[Baumgartner et al.: J. Digital Imaging 18(3), 2005]

# Application: Gene expression clustering



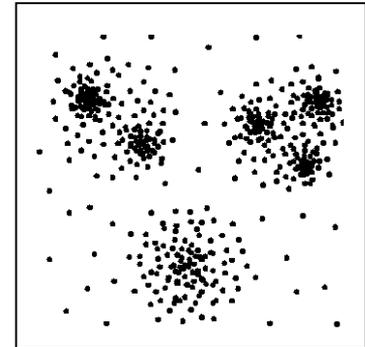
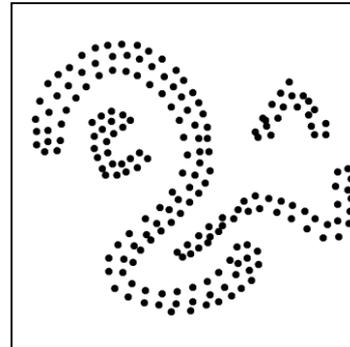
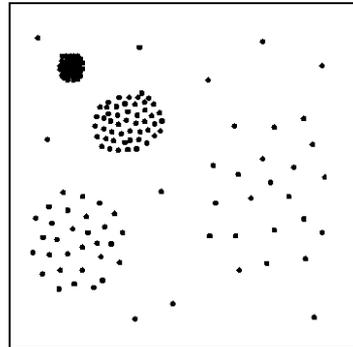
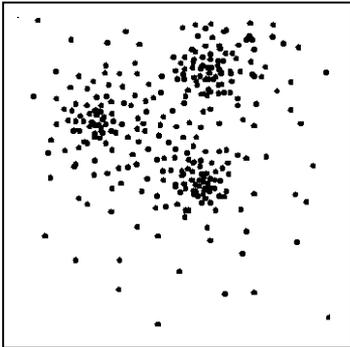
Genes and conditions are **hierarchically** clustered (dendrogram)  
Simultaneous row and column clustering is called **co-clustering**

# Goals of Clustering

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## Challenges:

- Clusters of varying size, form, and density
  - Hierarchical clusters
  - Noise and outliers
- => We need different clustering algorithms



# K-Means

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- Goal
  - Partitioning into  $k$  clusters such that a cost function (to measure the quality) is minimized
  - $k$  is a parameter of the method (specified by user).
- Locally optimizing method
  - Choose  $k$  initial cluster representatives
  - Optimize these representatives iteratively
  - Assign each object to its closest or most probable representative
  - Repeat optimization and assignment until no more change (convergence)
- Types of cluster representants
  - Center (mean, centroid) of each cluster → k-means clustering
  - Most central data object assigned to cluster (*medoid*) → k-medoid clustering
  - Probability distribution of the cluster → expectation maximization

[Duda, Hart: Pattern Classification and Scene Analysis, 1973]

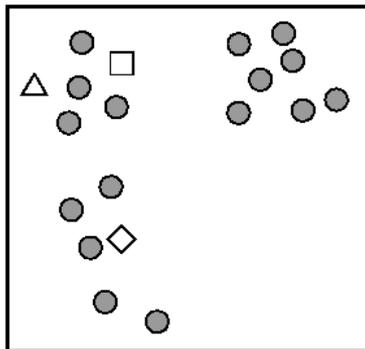
# K-Means

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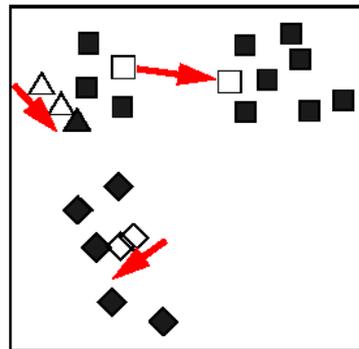
## *Idea of the algorithm*

- Algorithm starts e.g. with randomly chosen objects as initial cluster representatives (many other initialization methods have been proposed)
- The algorithm is composed from two alternating steps:
  - Assignment of each point to its closest representative point
  - Recomputation of the cluster representative (center of its objects)
- Repeat the alternating steps until no more change (convergence)

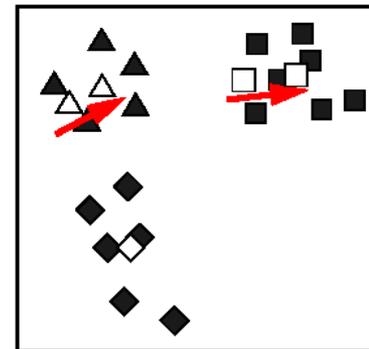
(a) Initialization



(b) First Iteration



(c) Convergence



# K-Means

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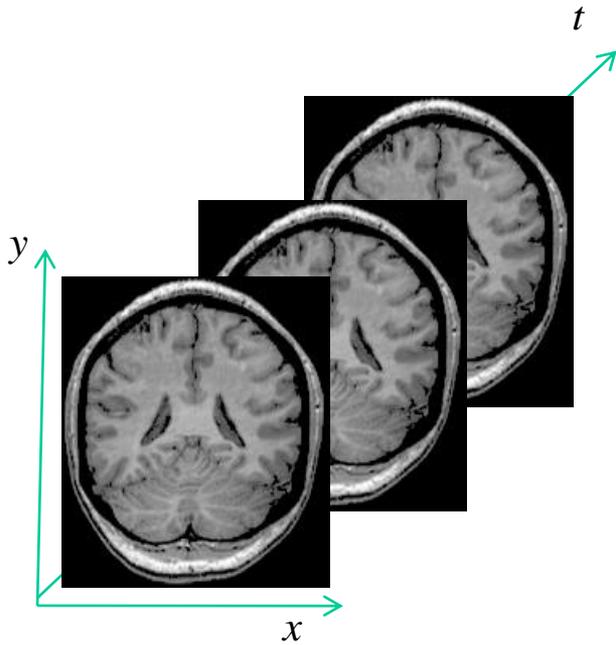
## *Properties of the algorithm*

- Fast convergence to a *local* minimum of the objective function  
(Variance of the clusters, averaged over all clusters and dimensions)

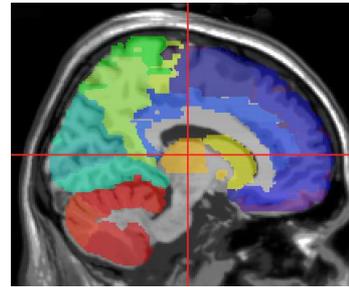
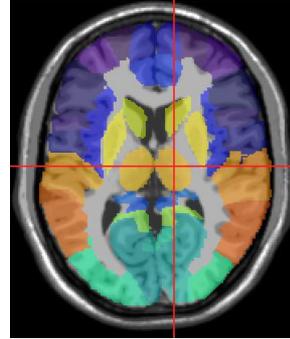
$$J = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=1}^n \left\| x_i^{(j)} - c_j \right\|^2$$

- It is easy to see that
  - Assignment of points to clusters minimizes the objective function.
  - Re-determination of cluster centers minimizes the objective function.
- Thus the objective function is monotonic and bounded.
- Typically a small number of iterations (3-50) needed.
- To find the *global* optimum is more difficult (NP-hard in general)
  - Typical heuristic: Multiple (e.g. 10) runs with different initialisations of the starting points

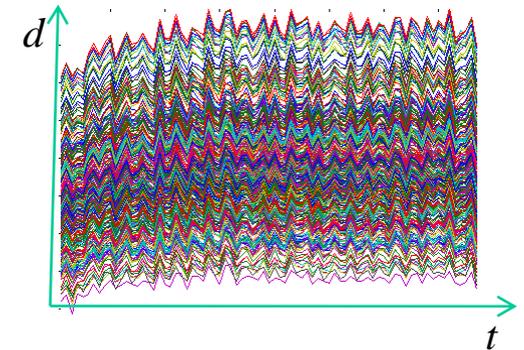
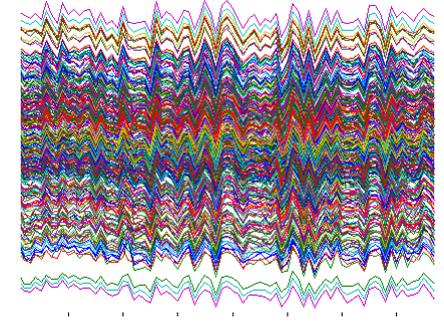
# Mining Interaction Patterns of Brain Regions



fMRI data:  
Time Series of 3d  
volume images of  
the brain.



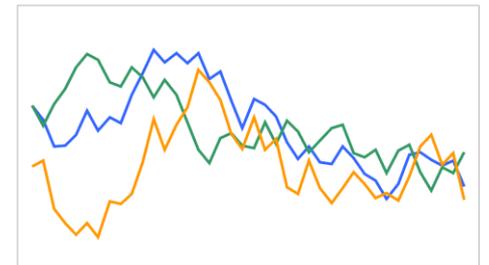
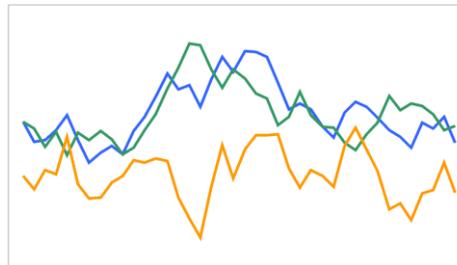
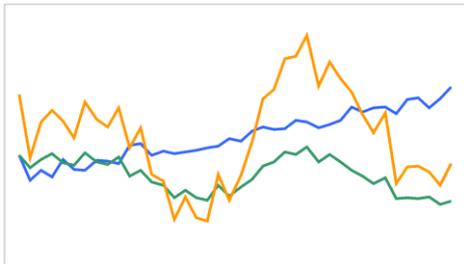
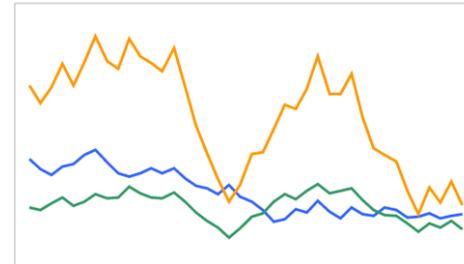
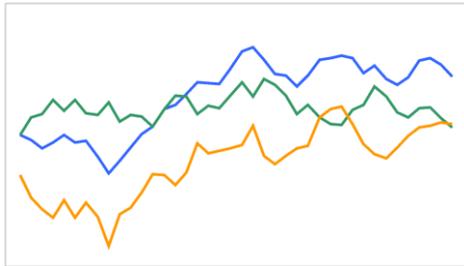
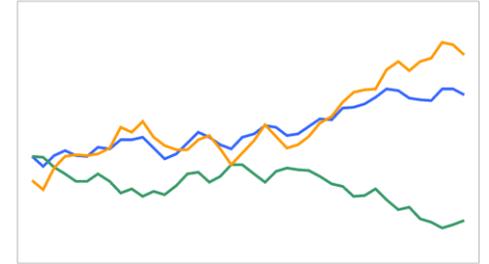
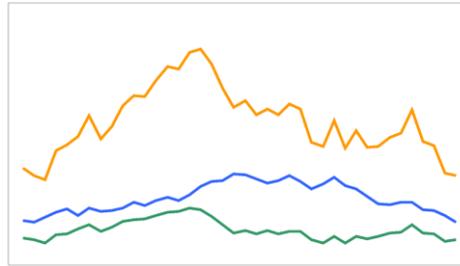
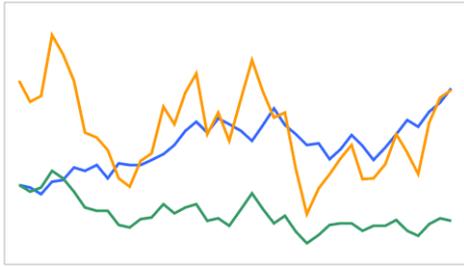
Parcellation into  
90 anatomical  
regions.



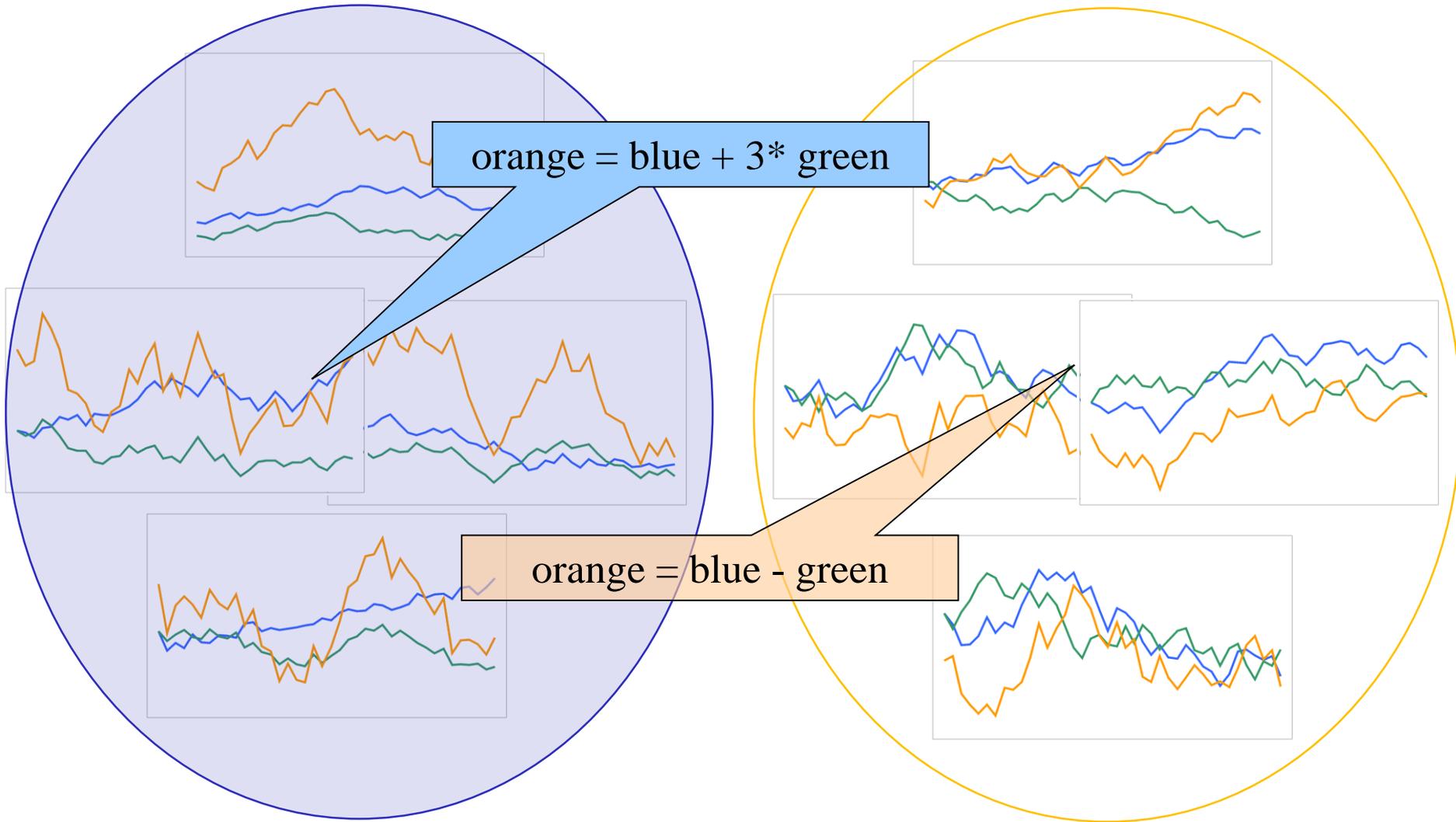
Each person is represented  
by a multivariate times series  
with  $d = 90$  dimensions.

# Clustering Multivariate Time Series

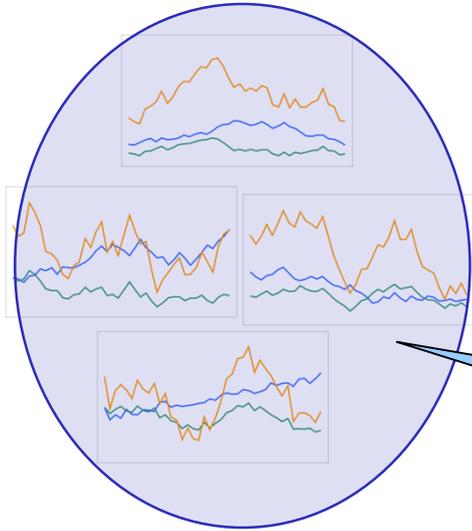
---



# ...by Interaction Patterns



# Interaction-based Cluster Notion



## Cluster:

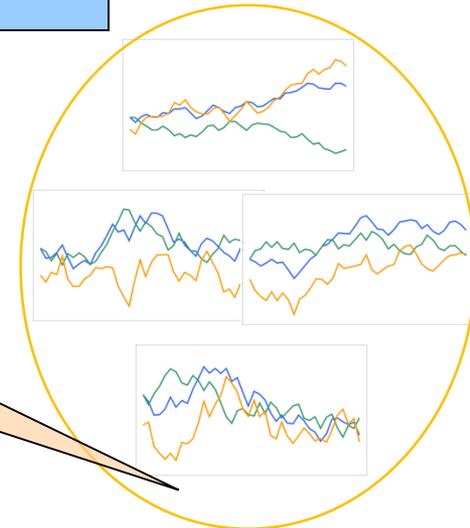
- set of *linear models* representing the dependency of each single Y dimension w.r.t. other dimensions X

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$$

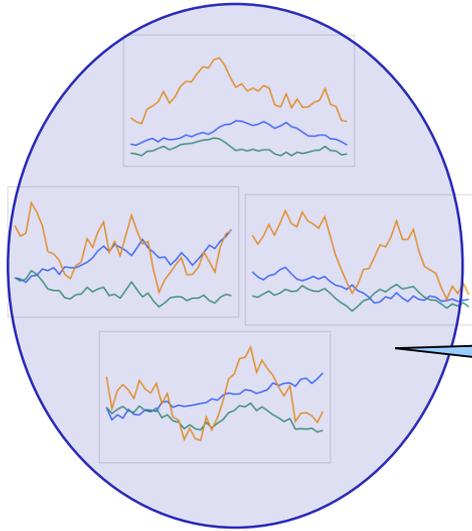
$$\begin{aligned} \text{orange} &= \text{blue} + 3 * \text{green} + \varepsilon \\ \text{blue} &= \dots \\ \text{green} &= \dots \end{aligned}$$

- *set of objects.*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{orange} &= \text{blue} - \text{green} + \varepsilon \\ \text{blue} &= \dots \\ \text{green} &= \dots \end{aligned}$$



# Model Finding

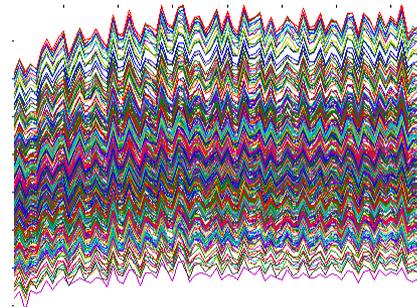
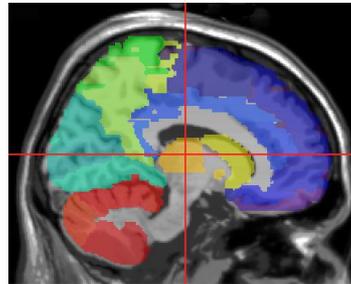


Set of *linear models* representing the dependency of each single Y dimension w.r.t. **other dimensions X**

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1 &= X_1 * \beta + \epsilon \\ Y_2 &= X_2 * \beta + \epsilon \\ &\dots \\ Y_D &= X_D * \beta + \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Can be straightforward solved by multidimensional linear regression

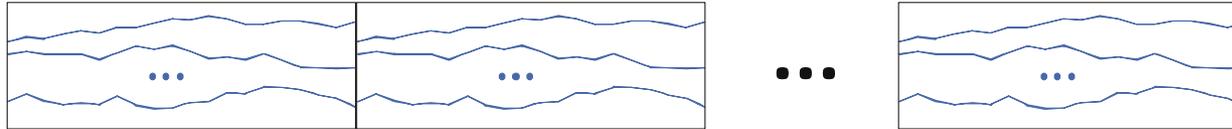
**But which dimensions X should be applied?**



Usually not all  $d$  dimensions...

# Greedy Stepwise Regression Controlled by BIC

---



First concatenate  
all objects of the  
cluster,

then greedily add and remove dimensions  
evaluating intermediate results with Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

$$Y = X\beta + \varepsilon \text{ and } \beta = (X^T X)^{-1} (X^T Y)$$

$$BIC(M) = -2L_n(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2) + \log(n)(\dim \beta + 1)$$

$$L_n(\hat{\beta}, \hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2) = -\frac{n}{2} - \frac{n}{2} \log \hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2 - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \|Y - X\beta\|^2$$

# Algorithm Interaction K-means (IKM)

---

- 1) **Initialization:** Random partitioning into  $K$  equally sized clusters
- 2) Iterate the following steps until convergence:

**Assignment:** Assign each object to that cluster to which it has the smallest sum of errors over all  $d$  dimensions

**Update:** Apply greedy-stepwise regression with BIC to all clusters.

## Major differences to standard K-means:

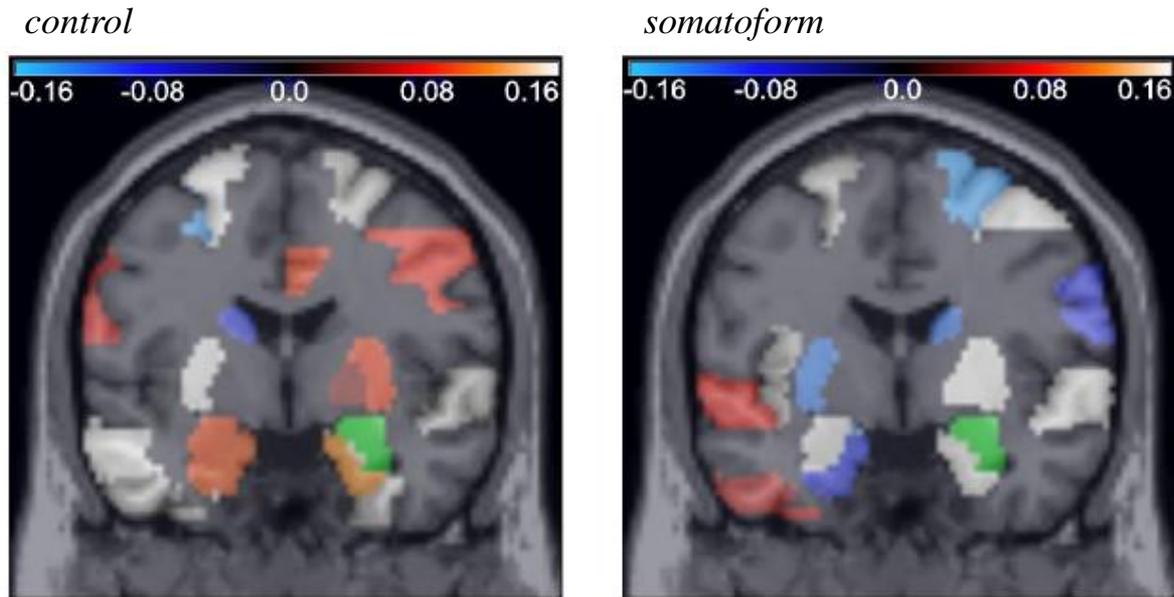
- similarity measure is the sum of errors of an object w.r.t. a set of models
- Cluster representative is not an object  
but *a set of models describing characteristic interaction patterns* shared by the objects within the cluster.

**Inherited from K-means:** Efficiency due to fast convergence;  
Further improvement by aggregative pre-computing;

# Results: Interaction patterns of brain regions

---

- resulting from clustering fMRI data with IKM.
- study on Somatoform Pain Disorder (pain without any clinical cause).
- Task fMRI: while in scanner the persons have been exposed to painful stimuli.



**Right Amygdala** (green) is interacting with different regions in patients and controls:

- controls: sensory areas (temporal, auditory)
- patients: frontal control areas.

# Only useful for this special fMRI application?

- also effective on synthetic and publicly available benchmark data from various domains.
- in comparison to standard K-means (Naive) and the state-of-the-art approach: Statistical Features Clustering (SF) (Wang et al., ICDM 2007)

Data Set	Method	RI	IC
DS1 Synthetic K=6, $n = 600$ , $d = 13$ , $m = 3333$	IKM	<b>0.99</b>	<b>0.09</b>
	SF	0.49	1.48
	Naive	0.72	2.38
DS2 fMRI K=2, $n = 26$ , $d = 90$ , $m = 216$ or $325$	IKM	<b>0.56</b>	<b>0.89</b>
	SF	0.48	1
	Naive	0.49	0.98
DS3 EEG K=2, $n = 20$ , $d = 64$ , $m = 256$	IKM	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>
	SF	0.61	0.69
	Naive	0.49	0.95
DS4 CAD K=10, $n = 100$ , $d = 25$ , $m = 70$	IKM	0.91	0.91
	SF	0.92	0.95
	Naive	<b>0.98</b>	<b>0.2</b>
DS5 Japanese vowels K=9, $n = 640$ , $d = 12$ , $m = 7-29$	IKM	<b>0.88</b>	<b>1.21</b>
	SF	0.79	2.36
	Naive	0.83	2.04

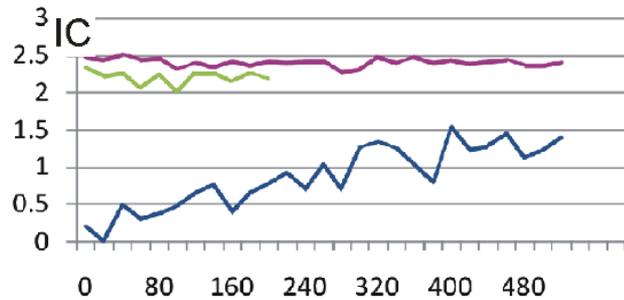
EEG data (UCI)

motion streams

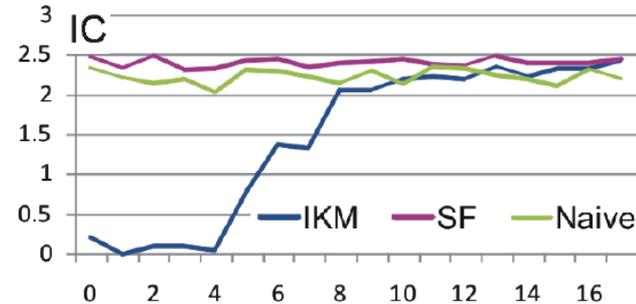
language  
processing  
(UCI)

# Further Benefits of IKM

- **Robust against noise objects and noise dimensions,**

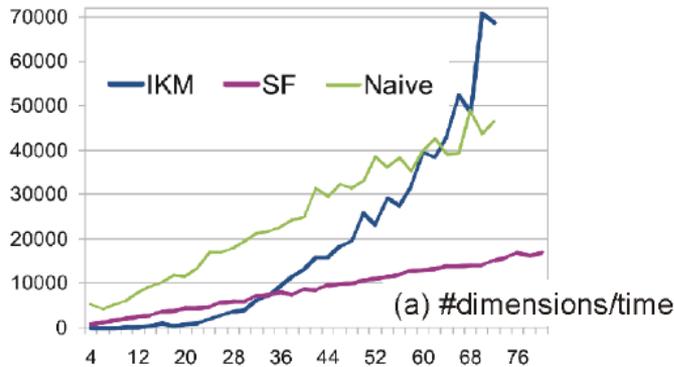


(a) Noise-Objects

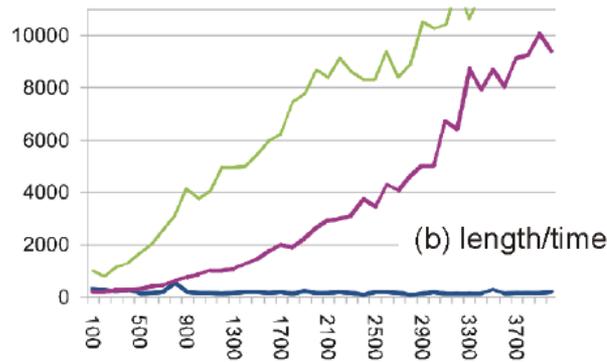


(b) Noise-Dimensions

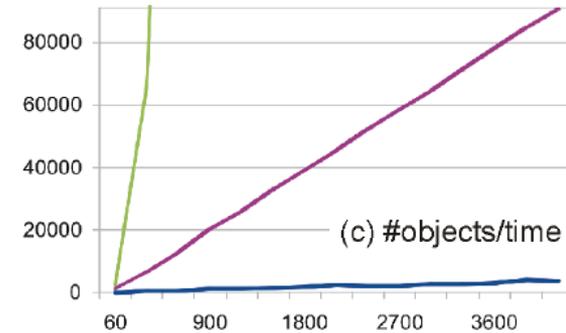
- **Scalable,**



(a) #dimensions/time



(b) length/time



(c) #objects/time

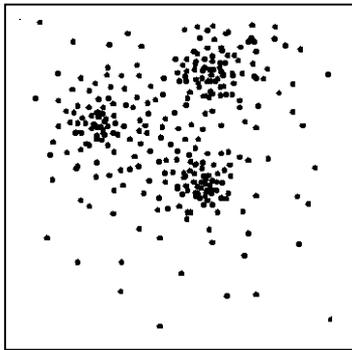
- and does not require all objects having time series of equal length.

# Goals of Clustering

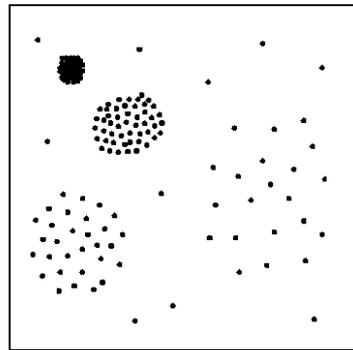
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## Challenges:

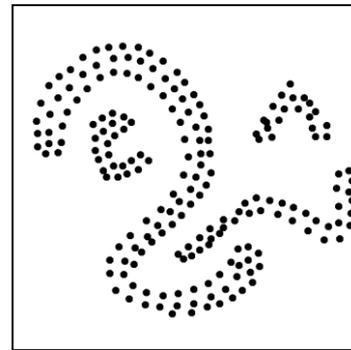
- Clusters of varying size, form, and density
  - Hierarchical clusters
  - Noise and outliers
- We need different clustering algorithms



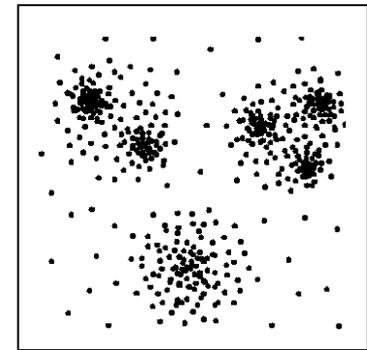
(1)



(2)



(3)



(4)

K-Means can handle compact, spherical clusters like in (1)

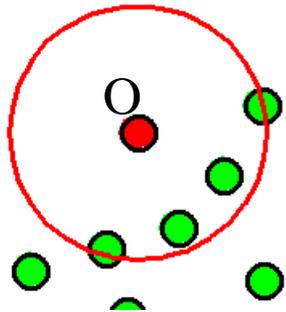
For clusters with arbitrary shape like (3) we need a different clustering notion:

- Density-Based Clustering

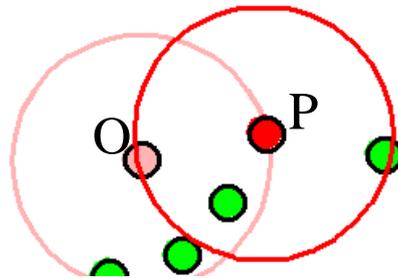
# Density-based Clustering with DBSCAN

---

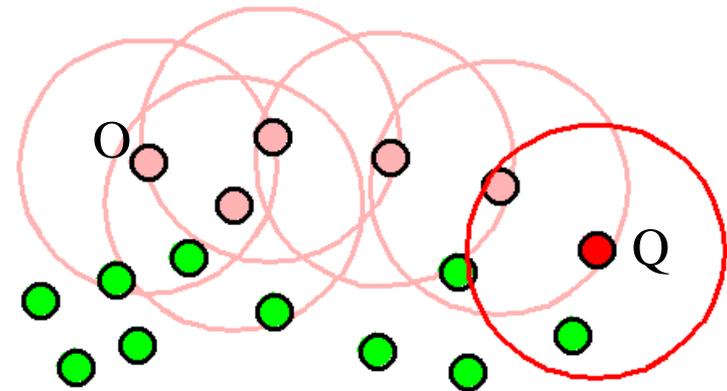
**Idea:** Clusters are areas of high object density which are separated by areas of lower object density.



O is a **core object** if  
There are least MinPts objects  
within it's  $\epsilon$ -range.



P is **directly density-reachable**  
from O if O is a core object  
and P is within the  $\epsilon$ -range of O.

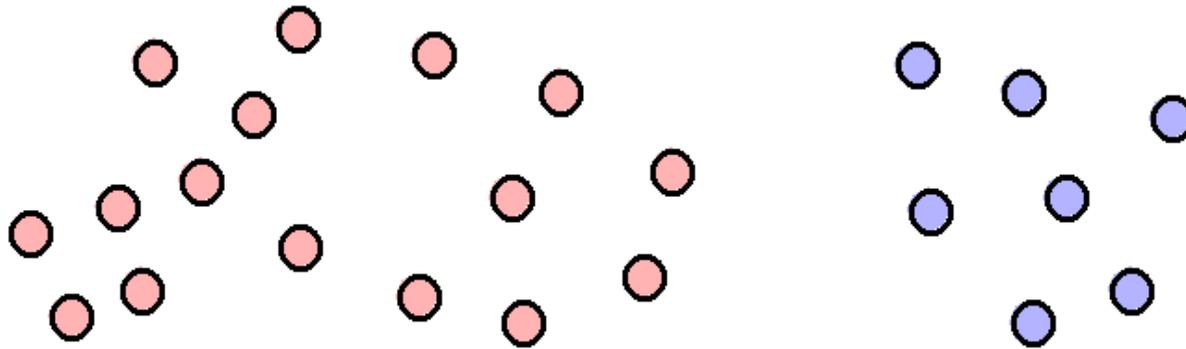


O and Q are **density-connected** if  
they are connected by a chain of  
density-reachable objects.

**A density-based cluster** is a maximal set of density-connected objects.

# DBSCAN - Example

---



Start cluster expansion with an arbitrary core object;  
add objects within  $\epsilon$ -range into seedList;

**While** the seed list is not empty:

    Remove top element; set its cluster Id;

    If it is a core object: add objects within  $\epsilon$ -range to seed list as well.

# Understanding the connectome of the brain

---

## Basic anatomy of the brain:

**Grey Matter:** neuronal cell bodies

**White Matter:** myelinated axons

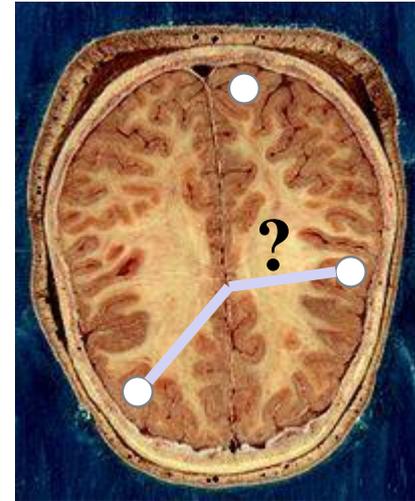
The brain is a highly efficient network!

But what are the nodes or functional units ?

**And what are the edges or major highways?**

**Why is this important to know?**

- surgery planning (epilepsy, tumor),
- understanding brain development during adolescence and normal aging,
- understanding the onset and progression of neurodegenerative diseases like Alzheimer.

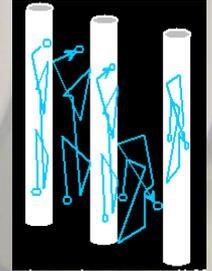
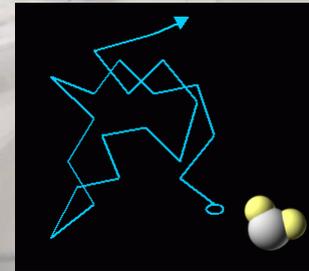


[Shao et al., ICDM Workshop 2010]

# Visualizing the White Matter by diffusion tensor imaging (DTI)

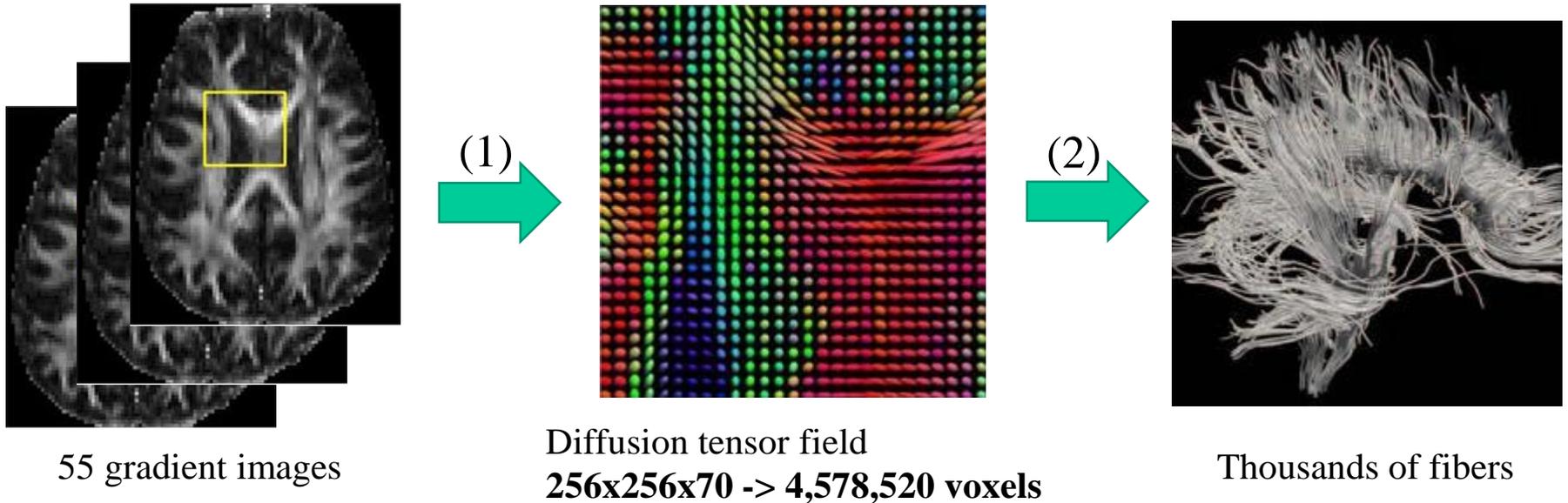
## Basic Principle

- movement of water molecules is restricted by white matter;
- in magnetic field moving molecules emit radiofrequency signals;
- DTI measures strength and direction of movement with 2 magnetic pulses coming from a specific direction called gradient: the first pulse labels the molecules, the second pulse reads out the displacement in a voxel in the gradient direction.
- Different gradient images need to be combined to capture the 3-d diffusion, 55 on our experimental data



# Preprocessing: Fiber Tracking

## (1) **Combination:** Motion correction, co-registration



## (2) **Fiber Tracking**

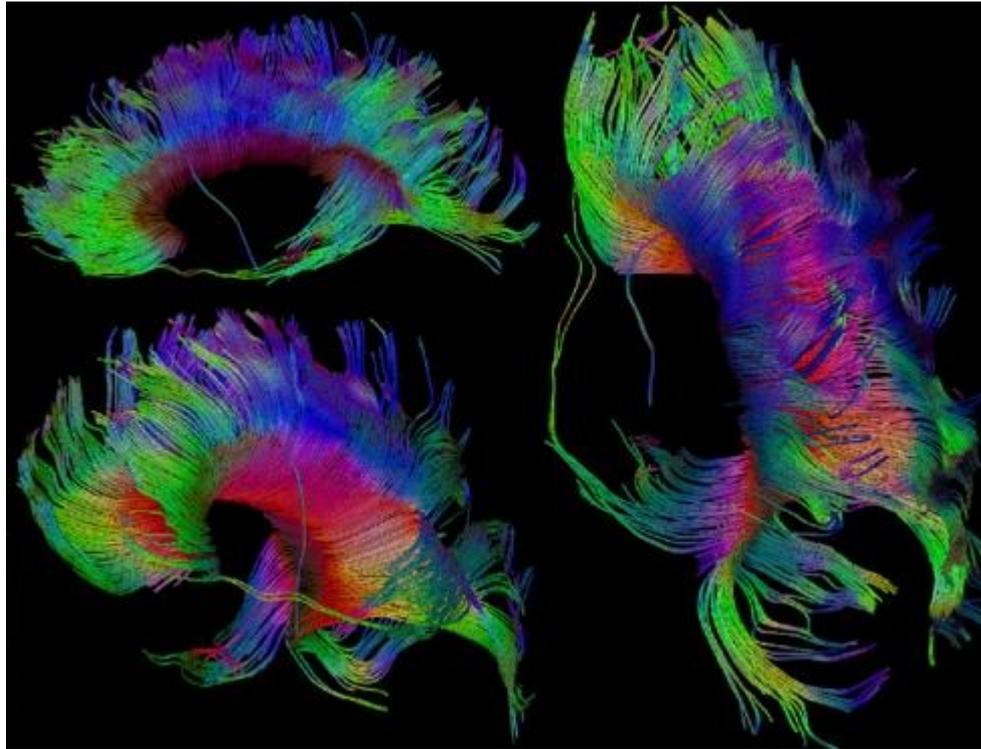
### **Runge Kutta Method (4th order):**

- requires pre-defined seed and end region
- a fiber is modeled as a 3-d discrete curve which is drawn step by step
- select the next voxel by solving an ordinary differential equation involving the leading Eigenvector of the ellipsoid, the start and the end point

# Still too much information!

---

**What are  
the major  
highways ?**



**More than  
1,000 fibers  
only for  
the Corpus  
Callosum**

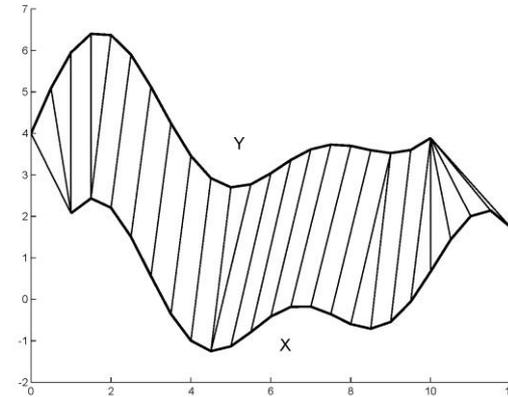
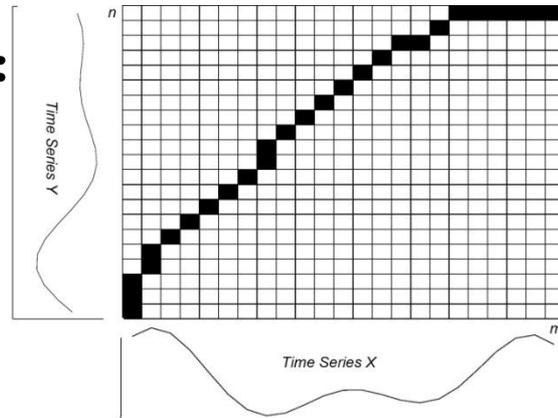
**Hundreds of  
thousands fibers  
in the brain**

- > Fiber Clustering – suitable to deal with noise!**
- > We need an effective and efficient similarity measure!**

# Evaluating similarity by 3-d fiber warping

## Strength of DTW:

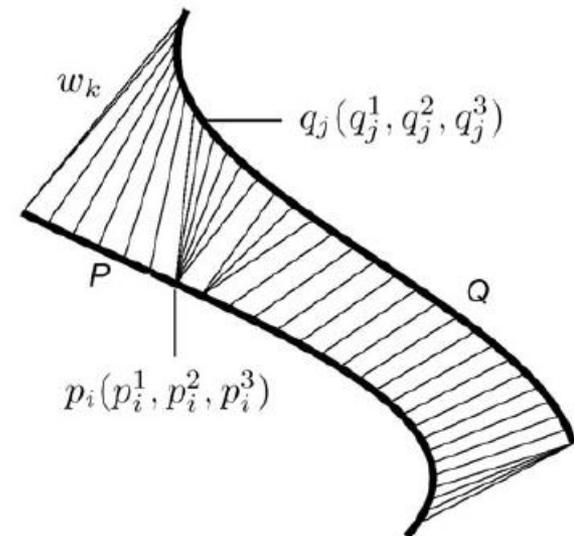
Optimal local alignment of timeseries to capture local similarity



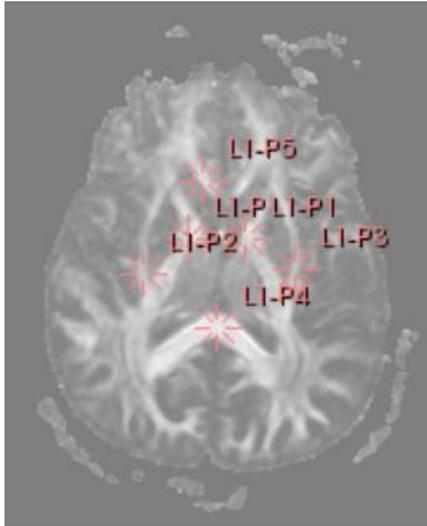
## Extending DTW to 3 dimensions:

$$d(p_i, q_j) = |p_i^1 - q_j^1| + |p_i^2 - q_j^2| + |p_i^3 - q_j^3|$$

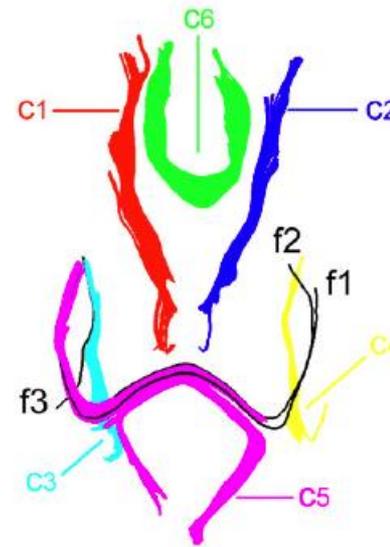
- Optimal Warping Path is determined using Quadratic programming as for DTW
- Avoiding that the fiber length overly dominates the similarity:  
Averaging all point-to-point distances along the optimal warping path.



# Experiments – Similarity Measure



6 seed regions  
For fiber tracking  
in the internal and  
external Capsules  
and the Corpus Callosum

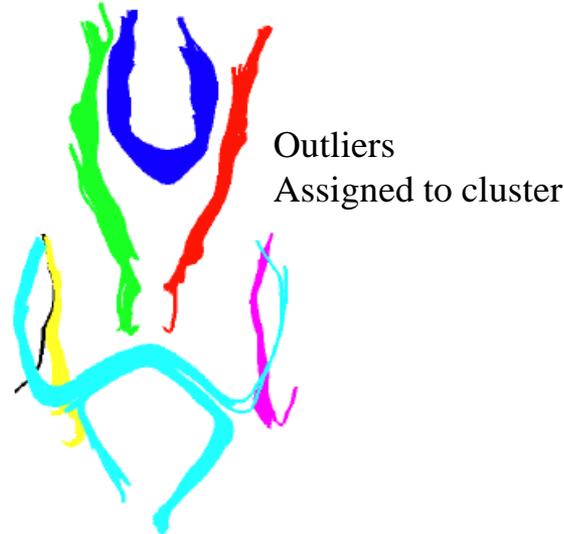


Fibers grouped by  
medical experts into the  
corresponding 6 bundles  
and 3 outlying  
fibers

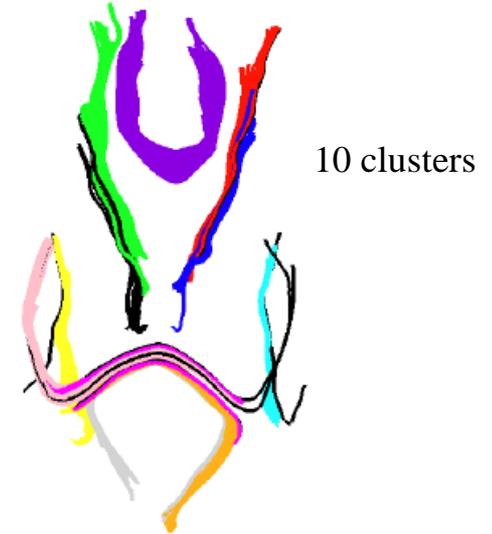
DTW



MPC



Hausdorff



(mean of closest pairwise distances)

(maximum of longest pair-wise distances)

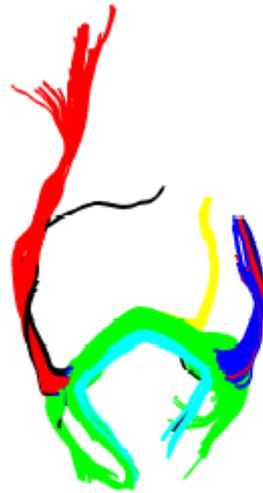
# Results

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Effective detection of clusters of different size and separation of noise  $\rightarrow$  DBSCAN is good!



(a) Sagittal



(b) Axial



(c) Coronal



(d) Axial (Noise)

**Data Set 2: 973 fibers**

# What have we learned?

---

- Data Mining (Knowledge Discovery in Databases, KDD) is a central technology to cope with Big Data.
- Feature vectors are the most common objects used in data mining
- We distinguish between two philosophies
  - Supervised (attribute to be predicted is known)
  - Unsupervised (exploratory data analysis)
- Clustering is an unsupervised technique to group objects
  - Maximize intra-cluster similarity
  - Minimize between-cluster similarity
- There exists a large number of approaches with different properties:
  - Partitioning clustering like K-Means (spherical clusters)
  - Density-based clustering like DBSCAN (arbitrary shapes)