## Skript zur Vorlesung Knowledge Discovery in Databases II im Sommersemester 2008

# Kapitel 3: Clustering in hochdimensionalen Räumen

Skript basiert auf Tutorial von Hans-Peter Kriegel, Peer Kröger und Arthur Zimek, ICDM 2007, PAKDD 2008 © 2008 Arthur Zimek

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## Outline

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Axis-parallel Subspace Clustering
- 3. Pattern-based Clustering
- 4. Arbitrarily-oriented Subspace Clustering
- 5. Summary

## **Outline:** Introduction

- Sample Applications
- General Problems and Challenges
- A First Taxonomy of Approaches

## Sample Applications

- Gene Expression Analysis
  - Data:
    - Expression level of genes under
      - different samples such as
        - different individuals (patients)
        - different time slots after treatment
        - different tissues
        - different experimental environments
    - Data matrix:



DNA

mRNA

protein

- Task 1: Cluster the rows (i.e. genes) to find groups of genes with similar expression profiles indicating homogeneous functions
  - *Challenge*: genes usually have different functions under varying

(combinations of) conditions

Gene1					
Gene2					
Gene3					
Gene4					
Gene5					
Gene6					
Gene7					
Gene8					
Gene9					

Cluster 1: {G1, G2, G6, G8} Cluster 2: {G4, G5, G6} Cluster 3: {G5, G6, G7, G9}

- Task 2: Cluster the columns (e.g. patients) to find groups with similar expression profiles indicating homogeneous phenotypes
  - Challenge:

different phenotypes depend on different (combinations of) subsets of genes



Cluster 1: {P1, P4, P8, P10} Cluster 2: {P4, P5, P6} Cluster 3: {P2, P4, P8, P10}

72

## Sample Applications



- Task: Cluster test persons to find groups of individuals with similar correlation among the concentrations of metabolites indicating homogeneous metabolic behavior (e.g. disorder)
  - Challenge:

different metabolic disorders appear through different correlations of (subsets of) metabolites



# Sample Applications

- Customer Recommendation / Target Marketing
  - Data
    - Customer ratings for given products
    - Data matrix:



- Task: Cluster customers to find groups of persons that share similar preferences or disfavor (e.g. to do personalized target marketing)
  - Challenge:

customers may be grouped differently according to different preferences/disfavors, i.e. different subsets of products

## Sample Applications

- And many more ...
- In general, we face a steadily increasing number of applications that require the analysis of moderate-to-high dimensional data
- Moderate-to-high dimensional means from appr. 10 to hundreds or even thousands of dimensions

## General Problems & Challenges

- The curse of dimensionality
  - In [BGRS99,HAK00] it is reported that the ratio of (Dmax<sub>d</sub> Dmin<sub>d</sub>) to Dmin<sub>d</sub> converges to zero with increasing dimensionality d
    - $Dmin_d$  = distance to the nearest neighbor in *d* dimensions
    - $Dmax_d$  = distance to the farthest neighbor in *d* dimensions

Formally:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 : \lim_{d \to \infty} \mathbb{P}[dist_d(\frac{\mathrm{Dmax}_d - \mathrm{Dmin}_d}{\mathrm{Dmin}_d}, 0) \le \varepsilon] = 1$$

- This holds true for a wide range of data distributions and distance functions

- What does that mean for clustering high dimensional data?
  - The relative difference of distances between different points decreases with increasing dimensionality
  - The distances between points cannot be used in order to differentiate between points
  - The more the dimensionality is increasing, the more the data distribution degenerates to random noise
  - All points are almost equidistant from each other there are no clusters to discover in high dimensional spaces!!!

## General Problems & Challenges

- Additional problem likely to occur in high dimensional spaces:
  - Usually the distance functions used give equal weight to all dimensions
  - However, not all dimensions are of equal importance
  - Adding irrelevant dimensions ruins any clustering based on a distance function that equally weights all dimensions



- $\frac{1}{10^{-0}} \frac{1}{10^{-0}} \frac{1}{10^{-0}}$
- again: different attributes are relevant for different clusters

## General Problems & Challenges

- Beyond the curse of dimensionality From the above sketched applications we can derive the following observations for high dimensional data
  - Subspace clusters:

Clusters usually do not exist in the full dimensional space but are often hidden in subspaces of the data (e.g. in only a subset of experimental conditions a gene may play a certain role)

• Local feature relevance/correlation:

For each cluster, a different subset of features or a different correlation of features may be relevant (e.g. different genes are responsible for different phenotypes)

• Overlapping clusters:

Clusters may overlap, i.e. an object may be clustered differently in varying subspaces (e.g. a gene may play different functional roles depending on the environment)

- Why not feature selection?
  - (Unsupervised) feature selection is global (e.g. PCA)
  - We face a local feature relevance/correlation: some features (or combinations of them) may be relevant for one cluster, but may be irrelevant for a second one







## General Problems & Challenges

- Problem summary
  - Curse of dimensionality:
    - In high dimensional, sparse data spaces, clustering does not make sense
  - Local feature relevance and correlation:
    - Different features may be relevant for different clusters
    - Different combinations/correlations of features may be relevant for different clusters
  - Overlapping clusters:
    - Objects may be assigned to different clusters in different subspaces

- Solution: integrate variance / covariance analysis into the clustering process
  - Variance analysis:
    - Find clusters in axis-parallel subspaces
    - Cluster members exhibit low variance along the relevant dimensions
  - Covariance/correlation analysis:
    - Find clusters in arbitrarily oriented subspaces
    - Cluster members exhibit a low covariance w.r.t. a given combination of the relevant dimensions (i.e. a low variance along the dimensions of the arbitrarily oriented subspace corresponding to the given combination of relevant attributes)

## A First Taxonomy of Approaches

- So far, we can distinguish between
  - Clusters in axis-parallel subspaces Approaches are usually called
    - "subspace clustering algorithms"
    - "projected clustering algorithms"
    - "bi-clustering or co-clustering algorithms"
  - Clusters in arbitrarily oriented subspaces Approaches are usually called
    - "bi-clustering or co-clustering algorithms"
    - "pattern-based clustering algorithms"
    - "correlation clustering algorithms"

## A First Taxonomy of Approaches

- Note: other important aspects for classifying existing approaches are e.g.
  - The underlying cluster model that usually involves
    - Input parameters
    - Assumptions on number, size, and shape of clusters
    - Noise (outlier) robustness
  - Determinism
  - Independence w.r.t. the order of objects/attributes
  - Assumptions on overlap/non-overlap of clusters/subspaces
  - Efficiency

... so we should keep these issues in mind ...

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## Outline: Axis-parallel Subspace Clustering

- Challenges and Approaches
- Bottom-up Algorithms
- Top-down Algorithms
- Summary

## Challenges

- What are we searching for?
  - Overlapping clusters: points may be grouped differently in different subspaces
    - => "subspace clustering"
  - Disjoint partitioning: assign points uniquely to clusters (or noise)
    => "projected clustering"

*Note: the terms subspace clustering and projected clustering are not used in a unified or consistent way in the literature* 

- The naïve solution:
  - Given a cluster criterion, explore each possible subspace of a *d*-dimensional dataset whether it contains a cluster
  - Runtime complexity: depends on the search space, i.e. the number of all possible subspaces of a *d*-dimensional data set

- What is the number of all possible subspaces of a *d*-dimensional data set?
  - How many *k*-dimensional subspaces (*k*≤*d*) do we have?
    The number of all *k*-tupels of a set of *d* elements is

$$\begin{pmatrix} d \\ k \end{pmatrix}$$

• Overall:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{d} \binom{d}{k} = 2^{d} - 1$$

• So the naïve solution is computationally infeasible:

We face a runtime complexity of  $O(2^d)$ 

## Challenges

• Search space for d = 4



92

## Approaches

- Basically, there are two different ways to efficiently navigate through the search space of possible subspaces
  - Bottom-up:
    - If the cluster criterion implements the downward closure, one can use any bottom-up frequent itemset mining algorithm (e.g. APRIORI [AS94])
    - *Key*: downward-closure property
  - Top-down:
    - The search starts in the full *d*-dimensional space and iteratively learns for each point or each cluster the correct subspace
    - Key: procedure to learn the correct subspace

- Rational:
  - Start with 1-dimensional subspaces and merge them to compute higher dimensional ones
  - Most approaches transfer the problem of subspace search into frequent item set mining
    - The cluster criterion must implement the downward closure property
      - If the criterion holds for any *k*-dimensional subspace *S*, then it also holds for any (*k*-1)-dimensional projection of *S*
      - Use the reverse implication for pruning:
        If the criterion does not hold for a (*k*-1)-dimensional projection of *S*, then the criterion also does not hold for *S*
    - Apply any frequent itemset mining algorithm (e.g. APRIORI)
  - Some approaches use other search heuristics like best-first-search, greedy-search, etc.
    - Better average and worst-case performance
    - No guaranty on the completeness of results

## Bottom-up Algorithms

### • Downward-closure property



## Bottom-up Algorithms

• Downward-closure property



#### • The key limitation: *global density thresholds*

- Usually, the cluster criterion relies on density
- In order to ensure the downward closure property, the density threshold must be fixed
- Consequence: the points in a 20-dimensional subspace cluster must be as dense as in a 2-dimensional cluster
- This is a rather optimistic assumption since the data space grows exponentially with increasing dimensionality
- Consequences:
  - A strict threshold will most likely produce only lower dimensional clusters
  - A loose threshold will most likely produce higher dimensional clusters but also a huge amount of (potentially meaningless) low dimensional clusters

- Properties (APRIORI-style algorithms):
  - Generation of all clusters in all subspaces => overlapping clusters
  - Subspace clustering algorithms usually rely on bottom-up subspace search
  - Worst-case: complete enumeration of all subspaces, i.e.  $O(2^d)$  time
  - Complete results

#### • CLIQUE [AGGR98]

- Cluster model
  - Each dimension is partitioned into  $\xi$  equi-sized intervals called units
  - A *k*-dimensional unit is the intersection of *k* 1-dimensional units (from different dimensions)
  - A unit *u* is considered dense if the fraction of all data points in *u* exceeds the threshold  $\tau$
  - A cluster is a maximal set of connected dense units



## Bottom-up Algorithms

- Downward-closure property holds for dense units
- Algorithm
  - All dense cells are computed using APRIORI-style search
  - A heuristic based on the coverage of a subspace is used to further prune units that are dense but are in less interesting subspaces
    (coverage of subspace S = fraction of data points covered by the dense units of S)
  - All connected dense units in a common subspace are merged to generate the subspace clusters

100

- Discussion
  - Input:  $\xi$  and  $\tau$  specifying the density threshold
  - Output: all clusters in all subspaces, clusters may overlap
  - Uses a fixed density threshold for all subspaces (in order to ensure the downward closure property)
  - Simple but efficient cluster model



- ENCLUS [CFZ99]
  - Cluster model uses a fixed grid similar to CLIQUE
  - Algorithm first searches for subspaces rather than for dense units
  - Subspaces are evaluated following three criteria
    - Coverage (see CLIQUE)
    - Entropy
      - Indicates how densely the points are packed in the corresponding subspace (the higher the density, the lower the entropy)
      - Implements the downward closure property
    - Correlation
      - Indicates how the attributes of the corresponding subspace are correlated to each other
      - Implements an upward closure property

• Subspace search algorithm is bottom-up similar to CLIQUE but determines subspaces having



- Input: thresholds  $\omega$  and  $\epsilon$
- Output: all subspaces that meet the above criteria (far less than CLIQUE), clusters may overlap
- Uses fixed thresholds for entropy and correlation for all subspaces
- Simple but efficient cluster model

## Bottom-up Algorithms



• motivation for density-based approaches

## Bottom-up Algorithms

#### • SUBCLU [KKK04]

- Cluster model:
  - Density-based cluster model of DBSCAN [EKSX96]
  - Clusters are maximal sets of density-connected points
  - Density connectivity is defined based on core points
  - Core points have at least MinPts points in their ε-neighborhood



- Detects clusters of arbitrary size and shape (in the corresponding subspaces)
- Downward-closure property holds for sets of density-connected points

- Algorithm
  - All subspaces that contain any density-connected set are computed using the bottom-up approach
  - Density-connected clusters are computed using a specialized DBSCAN run in the resulting subspace to generate the subspace clusters
- Discussion
  - Input:  $\varepsilon$  and *MinPts* specifying the density threshold
  - Output: all clusters in all subspaces, clusters may overlap
  - Uses a fixed density threshold for all subspaces
  - Advanced but costly cluster model

## Bottom-up Algorithms

#### • FIRES[KKRW05]

- Proposes a bottom-up approach that uses different heuristic for subspace search
- 3-Step algorithm
  - Starts with 1-dimensional clusters called *base clusters* (generated by applying any traditional clustering algorithm to each 1-dimensional subspace)
  - Merges these clusters to generate subspace cluster approximations by applying a clustering of the base clusters using a variant of DBSCAN (similarity between two clusters C1 and C2 is defined by  $|C1 \cap C2|$ )
  - Refines the resulting subspace cluster approximations
    - Apply any traditional clustering algorithm on the points within the approximations
    - Prune lower dimensional projections



- Discussion
  - Input:
    - Three parameters for the merging procedure of base clusters
    - Parameters for the clustering algorithm to create base clusters and for refinement
  - Output: clusters in maximal dimensional subspaces, clusters may overlap
  - Allows overlapping clusters (subspace clustering) but avoids complete enumeration; runtime of the merge step is O(*d*)
  - Output heavily depends on the accuracy of the merge step which is a rather simple heuristic and relies on three sensitive parameters
  - Cluster model can be chosen by the user

- DiSH [ABK+07a]
  - Idea:
    - Not considered so far: lower dimensional clusters embedded in higher dimensional ones



- Now: find hierarchies of subspace clusters
- Integrate a proper distance function into hierarchical clustering

110

- Distance measure that captures subspace hierarchies assigns
  - 1 if both points share a common 1D subspace cluster
  - 2 if both points share a common 2D subspace cluster
  - ...
- Sharing a common k-dimensional subspace cluster means
  - Both points are associated to the same k-dimensional subspace cluster
  - Both points are associated to different (k-1)-dimensional subspace clusters that intersect or are parallel (but not skew)
- This distance is based on the subspace dimensionality of each point *p* representing the (highest dimensional) subspace in which *p* fits best
  - Analyze the local ε-neighborhood of p along each attribute a
    => if it contains more than μ points: a is interesting for p
  - Combine all interesting attributes such that the ε-neighborhood of *p* in the subspace spanned by this combination still contains at least μ points (e.g. use APRIORI algorithm or best-first search)

- Discussion
  - Input:  $\epsilon$  and  $\mu$  specify the density threshold for computing the relevant subspaces of a point
  - Output: a hierarchy of subspace clusters displayed as a graph, clusters may overlap (but only w.r.t. the hierarchical structure!)
  - Relies on a global density threshold
  - Complex but costly cluster model

- Rational:
  - Cluster-based approach:
    - Learn the subspace of a cluster in the *entire* d-dimensional feature space
    - Start with full-dimensional clusters
    - Iteratively refine the cluster memberships of points and the subspaces of the cluster
  - Instance-based approach:
    - Learn for each point its subspace preference in the *entire d*-dimensional feature space
    - The subspace preference specifies the subspace in which each point "clusters best"
    - Merge points having similar subspace preferences to generate the clusters

- The key problem: How should we learn the subspace preference of a cluster or a point?
  - Most approaches rely on the so-called "locality assumption"
    - The subspace is usually learned from the local neighborhood of cluster representatives/cluster members in the entire feature space:
      - Cluster-based approach: the *local neighborhood* of each cluster representative is evaluated in the *d*-dimensional space to learn the "correct" subspace of the cluster
      - Instance-based approach: the *local neighborhood* of each point is evaluated in the *d*-dimensional space to learn the "correct" subspace preference of each point
    - *The locality assumption*: the subspace preference can be learned from the *local neighborhood* in the *d*-dimensional space
  - Other approaches learn the subspace preference of a cluster or a point from randomly sampled points

- Discussion:
  - Locality assumption
    - Recall the effects of the curse of dimensionality on concepts like "local neighborhood"
    - The neighborhood will most likely contain a lot of noise points
  - Random sampling
    - The larger the number of total points compared to the number of cluster points is, the lower the probability that cluster members are sampled
  - Consequence for both approaches
    - The learning procedure is often misled by these noise points

- Properties:
  - Simultaneous search for the "best" partitioning of the data points and the "best" subspace for each partition => disjoint partitioning
  - Projected clustering algorithms usually rely on top-down subspace search
  - Worst-case:
    - Usually complete enumeration of all subspaces is avoided
    - Worst-case costs are typically in  $O(d^2)$

- PROCLUS [APW+99]
  - *K*-medoid cluster model
    - Cluster is represented by its medoid
    - To each cluster a subspace (of relevant attributes) is assigned
    - Each point is assigned to the nearest medoid (where the distance to each medoid is based on the corresponding subspaces of the medoids)
    - Points that have a large distance to its nearest medoid are classified as noise



#### • 3-Phase Algorithm

 $m_{C3}$ 

 $m_{C2}$ 

•*m*<sub>C1</sub>

locality of C1

- Initialization of cluster medoids
  - A superset *M* of *b*·*k* medoids is computed from a sample of *a*·*k* data points such that these medoids are well separated
  - *k* randomly chosen medoids from *M* are the initial cluster representatives
  - Input parameters *a* and *b* are introduced for performance reasons
- Iterative phase works similar to any *k*-medoid clustering
- locality of C2 Approximate subspaces for each cluster C
  - » The locality of C includes all points that have a distance to the medoid of C less than the distance between the medoid of C and the medoid of the neighboring cluster
  - » Compute standard deviation of distances from the medoid of *C* to the points in the locality of *C* along each dimension
  - » Add the dimensions with the smallest standard deviation to the relevant dimensions of cluster C such that
    - in summary kl dimensions are assigned to all clusters
    - each cluster has at least 2 dimensions assigned

## Top-down Algorithms

- Reassign points to clusters
  - » Compute for each point the distance to each medoid taking only the relevant dimensions into account
  - » Assign points to a medoid minimizing these distances
- Termination (criterion not really clearly specified in [APW+99])
  - » Terminate if the clustering quality does not increase after a given number of current medoids have been exchanged with medoids from M (it is not clear, if there is another hidden parameter in that criterion)

#### - Refinement

- Reassign subspaces to medoids as above (but use only the points assigned to each cluster rather than the locality of each cluster)
- Reassign points to medoids; points that are not in the locality of their corresponding medoids are classified as noise

- Discussion
  - Input:
    - Number of clusters *k*
    - Average dimensionality of clusters l
    - Factor *a* to determine the size of the sample in the initialization step
    - Factor *b* to determine the size of the candidate set for the medoids
  - Output: partitioning of points into *k* disjoint clusters and noise, each cluster has a set of relevant attributes specifying its subspace
  - Relies on cluster-based locality assumption: subspace of each cluster is learned from local neighborhood of its medoid
  - Biased to find *l*-dimensional subspace clusters
  - Simple but efficient cluster model

## **Top-down** Algorithms

- PreDeCon [BKKK04]
  - Cluster model:
    - Density-based cluster model of DBSCAN [EKSX96] adapted to projected clustering
      - For each point *p* a subspace preference indicating the subspace in which *p* clusters best is computed
      - $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of a point p is constrained by the subspace preference of p
      - Core points have at least *MinPts* other points in their ε-neighborhood
      - Density connectivity is defined based on core points
      - Clusters are maximal sets of density connected points
    - Subspace preference of a point p is *d*-dimensional vector  $w=(w_1,...,w_d)$ , entry  $w_i$  represents dimension *i* with

$$w_i = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad \text{VAR}_i > \delta \\ \kappa & if \quad \text{VAR}_i \le \delta \end{cases}$$



VAR<sub>*i*</sub> is the variance of the  $\varepsilon$ -neighborhood of *p* in the entire *d*-dimensional space,  $\delta$  and  $\kappa >> 1$  are input parameters

- Algorithm
  - PreDeCon applies DBSCAN with a weighted Euclidean distance function  $dist_p(p,q) = \sqrt{\sum_{i} w_i \cdot (p_i - q_i)^2}$  w.r.t. p  $dist(p,q) = max \{ dist_p(p,q), dist_q(q,p) \}$
  - Instead of shifting spheres (full-dimensional Euclidean ε-neighborhoods), clusters are expanded by shifting axis-parallel ellipsoids (weighted Euclidean ε-neighborhoods)
  - Note: In the subspace of the cluster (defined by the preference of its members), we shift spheres (but this intuition may be misleading)



- Discussion
  - Input:
    - $\delta$  and  $\kappa$  to determine the subspace preference
    - $\lambda$  specifies the maximal dimensionality of a subspace cluster
    - ε and *MinPts* specify the density threshold
  - Output: a disjoint partition of data into clusters and noise
  - Relies on instance-based locality assumption: subspace preference of each point is learned from its local neighborhood
  - Advanced but costly cluster model

#### • The big picture

- Subspace clustering algorithms compute overlapping clusters
  - Many approaches compute all clusters in all subspaces
    - These methods usually implement a bottom-up search strategy á la itemset mining
    - These methods usually rely on global density thresholds to ensure the downward closure property
    - These methods usually do not rely on the locality assumption
    - These methods usually have a worst case complexity of O(2<sup>d</sup>)
  - Other focus on maximal dimensional subspace clusters
    - These methods usually implement a bottom-up search strategy based on simple but efficient heuristics
    - These methods usually do not rely on the locality assumption
    - These methods usually have a worst case complexity of at most  $O(d^2)$

## Summary

- The big picture
  - Projected clustering algorithms compute a disjoint partition of the data
    - They usually implement a top-down search strategy
    - They usually rely on the locality assumption
    - They usually do not rely on global density thresholds
    - They usually scale at most quadratic in the number of dimensions