
Cluster Analysis

[Based on the notes by D. Hebert, I. S. Dhillon, Kuei-Hsien, V. Kashyap]

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

Requirements of Clustering in Data Mining

- ❖ Scalability
- ❖ Ability to deal with different types of attributes
- ❖ Discovery of clusters with arbitrary shape
- ❖ Minimal requirements for domain knowledge to determine input parameters
- ❖ Able to deal with noise and outliers
- ❖ Insensitive to order of input records
- ❖ High dimensionality
- ❖ Incorporation of user-specified constraints
- ❖ Interpretability and usability

What Is Good Clustering?

- ❖ A good clustering method will produce high quality clusters with
 - high intra-class similarity
 - low inter-class similarity
- ❖ The quality of a clustering result depends on both the similarity measure used by the method and its implementation.
- ❖ The quality of a clustering method is also measured by its ability to discover some or all of the hidden patterns.

Measure the Quality of Clustering

- ❖ Dissimilarity/Similarity metric:
Similarity is expressed in terms of a distance function, which is typically metric: $d(i, j)$
- ❖ There is a separate “quality” function that measures the “goodness” of a cluster.
- ❖ The definitions of distance functions are usually very different for different types of data.
- ❖ Weights should be associated with different variables based on applications and data semantics.
- ❖ It is hard to define “similar enough” or “good enough”
 - the answer is typically highly subjective.

Data Structures

- ❖ Data matrix

- (two modes)

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \dots & x_{1f} & \dots & x_{1p} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{i1} & \dots & x_{if} & \dots & x_{ip} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{n1} & \dots & x_{nf} & \dots & x_{np} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ❖ Dissimilarity matrix

- (one mode)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & & \\ d(2,1) & 0 & & & & \\ d(3,1) & d(3,2) & 0 & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ d(n,1) & d(n,2) & \dots & \dots & 0 & \end{bmatrix}$$

Similarity Measures

Name	measure	dis/similarity
1- Minkowski Distance	$d_p(H, H') = (\sum_{m=1}^M h_m - h'_m ^p)^{1/p}$	dissimilarity
2- Euclidean Distance	$d_E(H, H') = \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M (h_m - h'_m)^2}$	dissimilarity
3- Cosine Distance	$d_C(H, H') = 1 - \frac{\sum_{m=1}^M h_m h'_m}{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M h_m^2} \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M h'_m^2}}$	dissimilarity
4- Histogram Intersection	$d_I(H, H') = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^M \min(h_m, h'_m)}{\sum_{m=1}^M h_m}$	similarity
5- Relative Deviation	$d_{rd}(H, H') = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M (h_m - h'_m)^2}}{\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M h_m^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{m=1}^M h'_m^2})}$	dissimilarity
6- Relative Bin Deviation	$d_{rbd}(H, H') = \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{\sqrt{ h_m - h'_m }}{\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{h_m} + \sqrt{h'_m})}$	dissimilarity
7- χ^2 -Distance	$d_{\chi^2}(H, H') = \sum_{m=1}^M \frac{(h_m - h'_m)^2}{h_m}$	dissimilarity
8- Kullback-Leibler Divergence	$d_{KL}(H, H') = \sum_{m=1}^M h_m \log \frac{h_m}{h'_m}$	dissimilarity
9- Jeffrey Divergence	$d_{JL}(H, H') = \sum_{m=1}^M [h_m \log \frac{2h_m}{h_m + h'_m} + h'_m \log \frac{2h'_m}{h_m + h'_m}]$	dissimilarity
10- Bhattacharyya Distance	$d_B(H, H') = \sum_{m=1}^M \sqrt{h_m h'_m}$	similarity

Dissimilarity between Binary Variables

❖ Example - do patients have the same disease

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 (use Jaccard coefficient so ignore)
- the remaining attributes are asymmetric binary
- let the values Y and P be set to 1, and the value N be set to 0

$$d(\text{jack}, \text{mary}) = \frac{0 + 1}{2 + 0 + 1} = 0.33 \quad \text{Most likely to have same disease}$$

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

$$d(\text{jim}, \text{mary}) = \frac{1 + 2}{1 + 1 + 2} = 0.75 \quad \text{Unlikely to have same disease}$$

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 (gold, silver, bronze)
- ❖ Can be treated like interval-scaled-use following steps
 - f is variable from set of variables, value of f for i th object is x_{if}
 - replace each x_{if} by its' rank $r_{if} \in \{1, \dots, M_f\}$
 - 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

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:
 - $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 0$ if $x_{if} = x_{jf}$, or $d_{ij}^{(f)} = 1$ o.w.
- f is interval-based: use the normalized distance
- f is ordinal or ratio-scaled
 - ◆ compute ranks r_{if} and
 - ◆ and treat z_{if} as interval-scaled

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

Major Clustering Approaches

- ❖ Partitioning algorithms: Construct various partitions and then evaluate them by some criterion
- ❖ Hierarchy algorithms: 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 Algorithms: Basic Concept

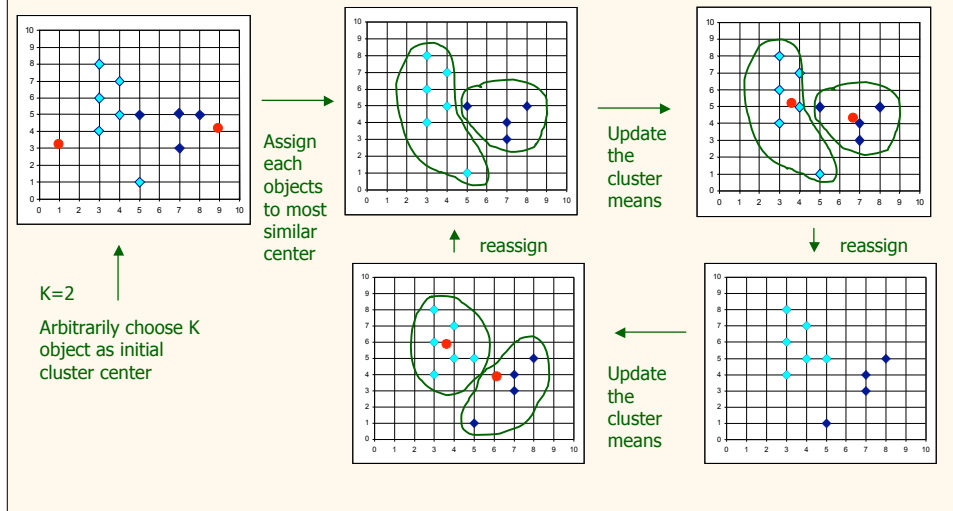
- ❖ Partitioning method: Construct a partition of a database D of n objects into a set of k clusters
- ❖ Given a k , find a partition of k clusters that optimizes the chosen partitioning criterion
 - Global optimal: exhaustively enumerate all partitions
 - Heuristic methods: k -means and k -medoids algorithms
 - 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.

The K-Means Clustering Method

❖ Example



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

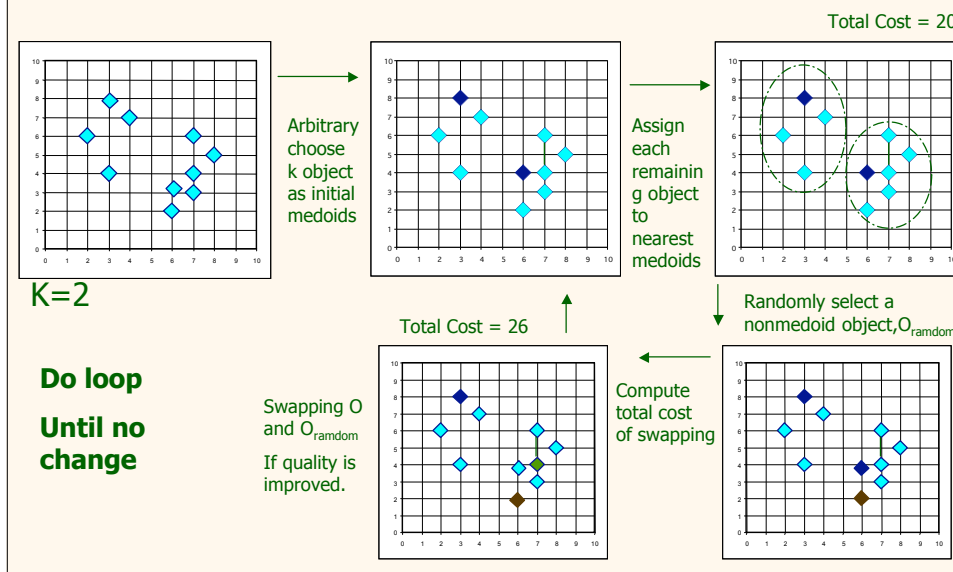
The K-Medoids Clustering Method

- ❖ 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

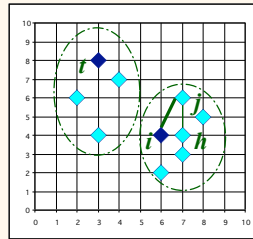
k-Medoids algorithm

- ❖ Use real object to represent the cluster
 - Select k representative objects arbitrarily
 - repeat
 - ◆ Assign each remaining object to the cluster of the nearest medoid
 - ◆ Randomly select a nonmedoid object
 - ◆ Compute the total cost, S , of swapping o_j with o_{random}
 - ◆ If $S < 0$ then swap o_j with o_{random}
 - until there is no change

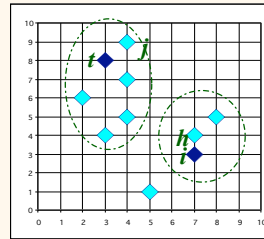
Typical k-medoids algorithm (PAM)



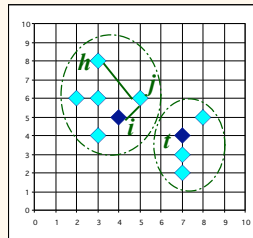
PAM Clustering: Total swapping cost $TC_{ih} = \sum_j C_{jih}$



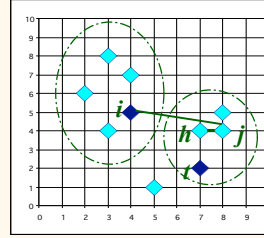
$C_{jih} = d(j, h) - d(j, i)$



$C_{jih} = 0$



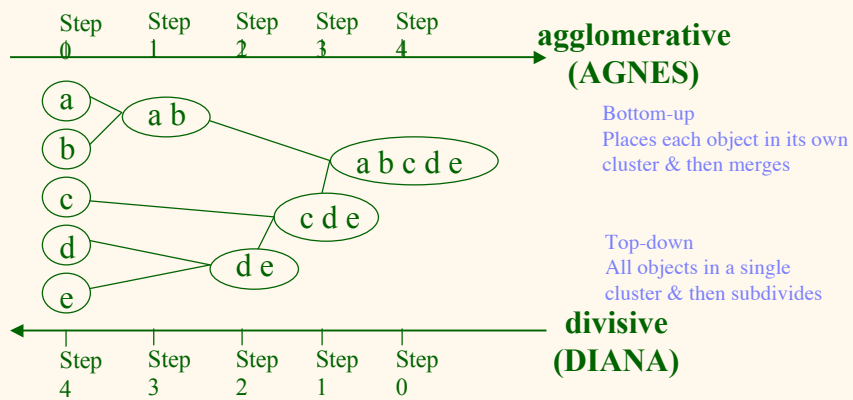
$C_{jih} = d(j, t) - d(j, i)$



$C_{jih} = d(j, h) - d(j, t)$

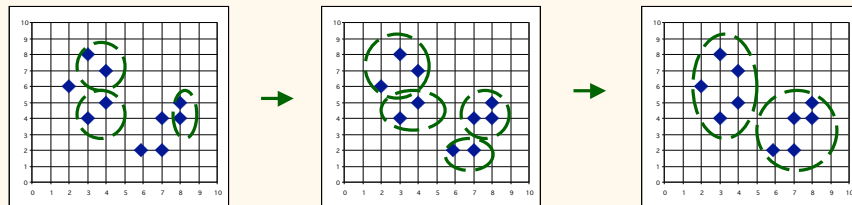
Hierarchical Clustering

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



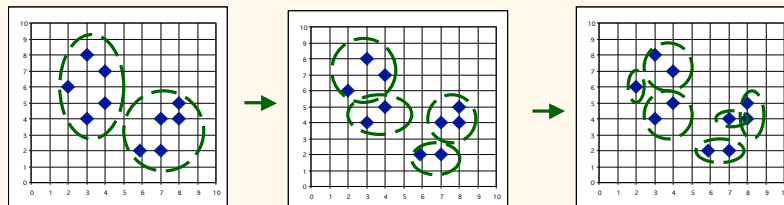
AGNES (Agglomerative Nesting)

- ❖ 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)

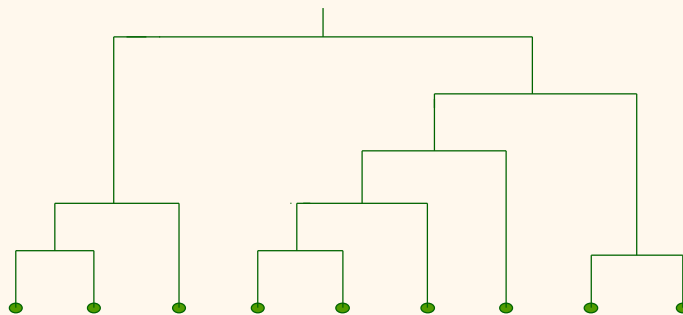
- ❖ Introduced in Kaufmann and Rousseeuw (1990)
- ❖ Implemented in statistical analysis packages, e.g., Splus
- ❖ Inverse order of AGNES
- ❖ Eventually each node forms a cluster on its own



Dendograms

Decompose data objects into a several levels of nested partitioning (tree of clusters), called a dendrogram.

A **clustering** of the data objects is obtained by **cutting** the dendrogram at the desired level, then each **connected component** forms a cluster.



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 (1996)

- ❖ 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.

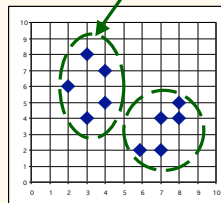
Clustering Feature Vector

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

N : Number of data points

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

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



CF = (5, (16,30),(54,190))

(3,4)

(2,6)

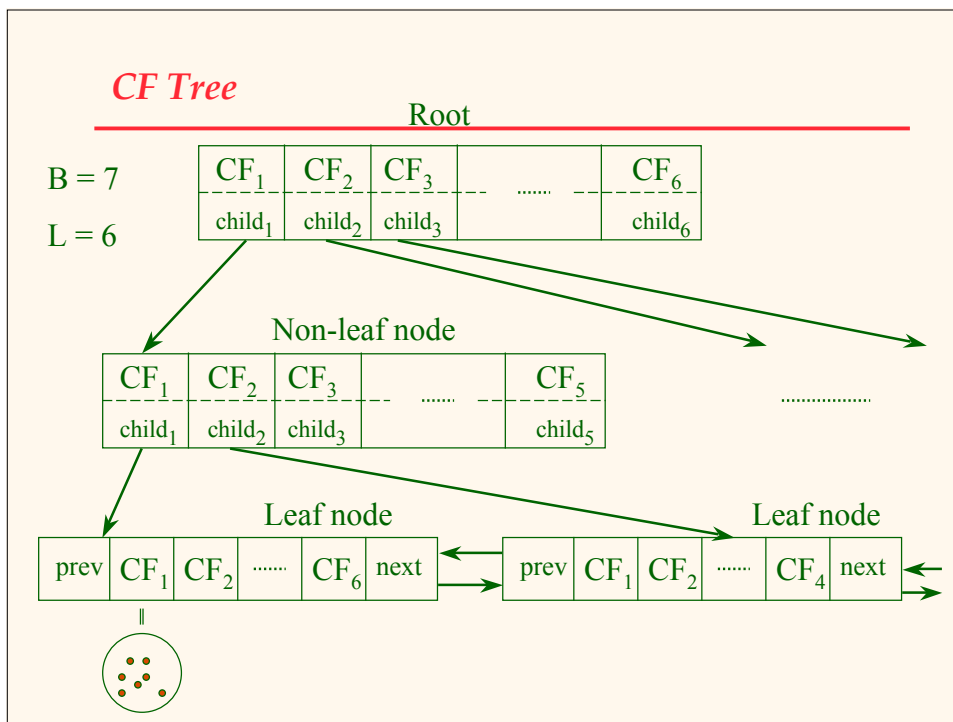
(4,5)

(4,7)

(3,8)

CF-Tree in BIRCH

- ❖ Clustering feature:
 - summary of the statistics for a given subcluster: the 0-th, 1st and 2nd moments of the subcluster from the statistical point of view.
 - registers crucial measurements for computing cluster and utilizes storage efficiently
- A CF tree is a height-balanced tree that stores the clustering features for a hierarchical clustering
 - A nonleaf node in a tree has descendants or “children”
 - The nonleaf nodes store sums of the CFs of their children
- ❖ A CF tree has two parameters
 - Branching factor: specify the maximum number of children.
 - threshold: max diameter of sub-clusters stored at the leaf nodes



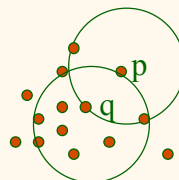
Density-Based Clustering Methods

- ❖ 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)

Density-Based Clustering: Background (1)

- ❖ Two parameters:
 - *Epsilon (Eps)*: Maximum radius of the neighbourhood
 - *MinPts*: Minimum number of points in an Epsilon-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:

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



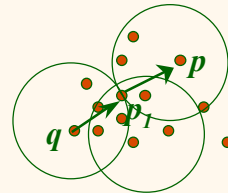
MinPts = 5

Eps = 1 cm

Density-Based Clustering: Background (2)

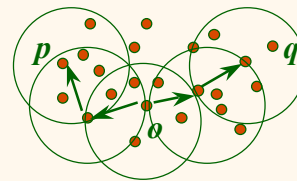
❖ Density-reachable:

- 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



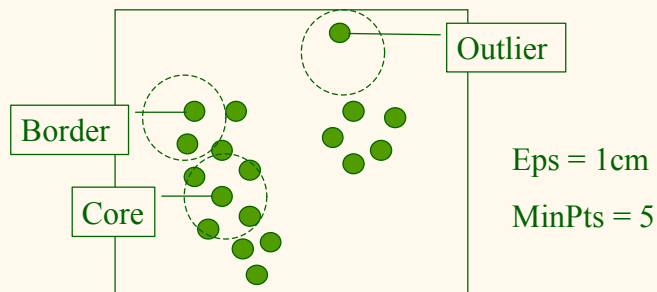
❖ Density-connected

- 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



DBSCAN: The Algorithm

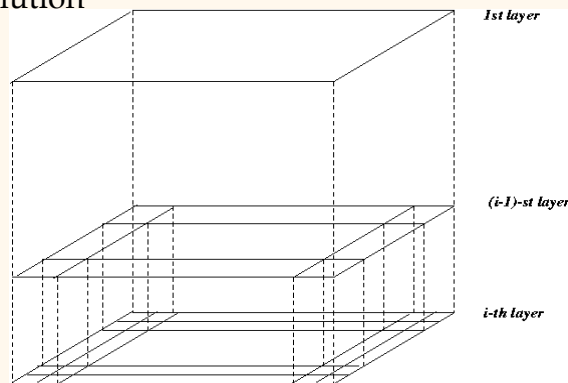
- Arbitrary select a point p
- Retrieve all points density-reachable from p wrt Eps and $MinPts$.
- If p is a core point, a cluster is formed.
- If p is a border point, no points are density-reachable from p and DBSCAN visits the next point of the database.
- Continue the process until all of the points have been processed.

Grid-Based Clustering Method

- ❖ Using multi-resolution grid data structure
- ❖ Several interesting methods
 - **STING** (a **S**Tatistical **I**Nformation 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



STING: A Statistical Information Grid Approach (2)

- 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

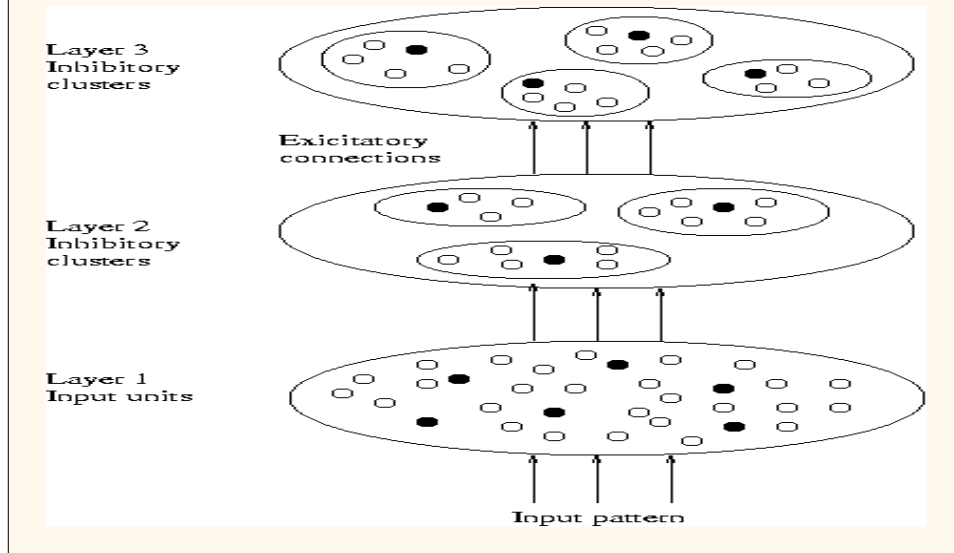
STING: A Statistical Information Grid Approach (3)

- 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

Model-Based Clustering Methods

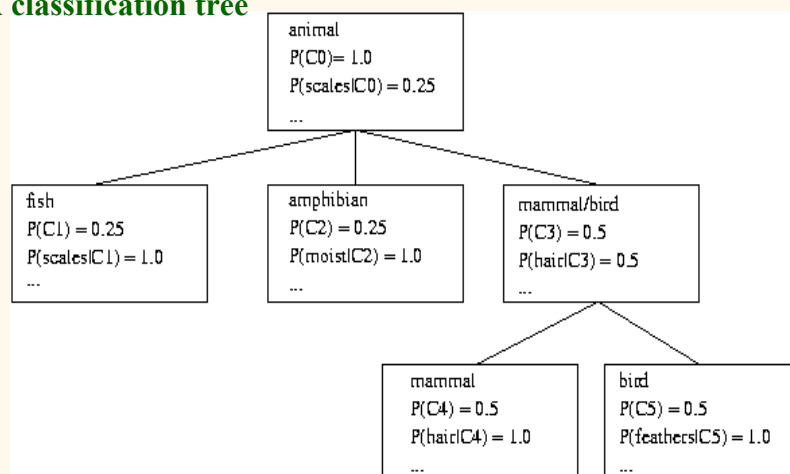
- ❖ Attempt to optimize the fit between the data and some mathematical model
- ❖ Statistical and AI approach
 - Conceptual clustering
 - ◆ A form of clustering in machine learning
 - ◆ Produces a classification scheme for a set of unlabeled objects
 - ◆ Finds characteristic description for each concept (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

Model-Based Clustering Methods



COBWEB Clustering Method

A classification tree



More on Statistical-Based Clustering

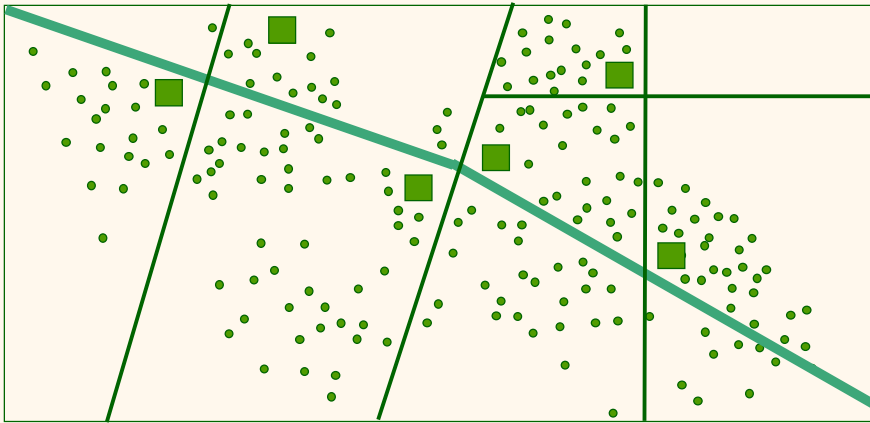
- ❖ Limitations of COBWEB
 - The assumption that the attributes are independent of each other is often too strong because correlation may exist
 - Not suitable for clustering large database data – skewed tree and expensive probability distributions
- ❖ CLASSIT
 - an extension of COBWEB for incremental clustering of continuous data
 - suffers similar problems as COBWEB
- ❖ AutoClass (Cheeseman and Stutz, 1996)
 - Uses Bayesian statistical analysis to estimate the number of clusters
 - Popular in industry

Self-organizing feature maps (SOMs)

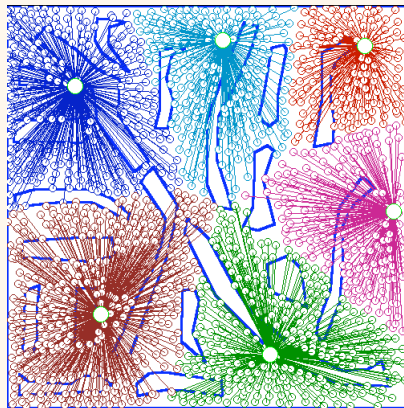
- ❖ Clustering is also performed by having several units competing for the current object
- ❖ The unit whose weight vector is closest to the current object wins
- ❖ The winner and its neighbors learn by having their weights adjusted
- ❖ SOMs are believed to resemble processing that can occur in the brain
- ❖ Useful for visualizing high-dimensional data in 2- or 3-D space

Constraint-Based Clustering Analysis

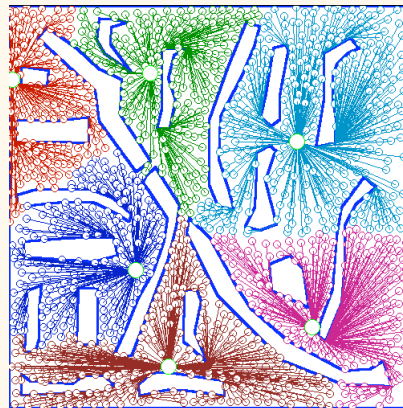
- ❖ Clustering analysis: less parameters but more user-desired constraints, e.g., an ATM allocation problem



Clustering With Obstacle Objects



Not Taking obstacles into account



Taking obstacles into account

Co-clustering

- ❖ Given a multi-dimensional data matrix, co-clustering refers to **simultaneous** clustering along multiple dimensions
- ❖ In a two-dimensional case it is simultaneous clustering of rows and columns
- ❖ Most traditional clustering algorithms cluster along a single dimension
- ❖ Co-clustering is more robust to sparsity

Co-clustering and Information Theory

- ❖ View (scaled) co-occurrence matrix as a joint probability distribution between row & column random variables



- ❖ We seek a hard clustering of both dimensions such that loss in "Mutual Information"

is minimized given a fixed no. of row & col. clusters (similar framework as in Tishby, Pereira & Bialek(1999), Berkhin & Becher(2002))

Information Theory Concepts

- ❖ Entropy of a random variable X with probability distribution $p(x)$:

$$H(p) = -\sum_x p(x) \log p(x)$$

- ❖ The Kullback-Leibler(KL) Divergence or “Relative Entropy” between two probability distributions p and q :

$$KL(p, q) = \sum p(x) \log(p(x)/q(x))$$

- ❖ Mutual Information between random variables X and Y :

$$I(X, Y) = \sum_x \sum_y p(x, y) \log \left(\frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)p(y)} \right)$$

Jensen-Shannon Divergence

- ❖ Jensen-Shannon(JS) divergence between two probability distributions:

$$\begin{aligned} JS_{\Pi}(p_1, p_2) &= \pi_1 KL(p_1, \pi_1 p_1 + \pi_2 p_2) + \pi_2 KL(p_2, \pi_1 p_1 + \pi_2 p_2) \\ &= H(\pi_1 p_1 + \pi_2 p_2) - \pi_1 H(p_1) - \pi_2 H(p_2) \end{aligned}$$

where $\pi_1, \pi_2 \geq 0, \pi_1 + \pi_2 = 1$

- ❖ Jensen-Shannon(JS) divergence between a finite number of probability distributions:

$$\begin{aligned} JS_{\Pi}(\{p_1, \dots, p_n\}) &= \sum_i \pi_i KL(p_i, \pi_1 p_1 + \dots + \pi_n p_n) \\ &= H\left(\sum_i \pi_i p_i\right) - \sum_i \pi_i H(p_i) \end{aligned}$$

Information-Theoretic Clustering:

Preserving mutual information

- ❖ (Lemma) The loss in mutual information equals:

$$I(X, Y) - I(X, \hat{Y}) = \sum_{j=1}^k \pi(\hat{y}_j) JS_{\pi^*}(\{p(x | y_i) : y_i \in \hat{y}_j\})$$

- ❖ Interpretation: Quality of each cluster is measured by the Jensen-Shannon Divergence between the individual distributions in the cluster.
- ❖ Can rewrite the above as:

$$I(X, Y) - I(X, \hat{Y}) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{y_i \in \hat{y}_j} \pi_i KL(p(x | y_i), p(x | \hat{y}_j))$$

- ❖ Goal: Find a clustering that minimizes the above loss

Information Theoretic Co-clustering

Preserving mutual information

- ❖ (Lemma) Loss in mutual information equals

$$I(X, Y) - I(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) = KL(p(x, y) \parallel q(x, y))$$

where
$$= H(\hat{X}, \hat{Y}) + H(X | \hat{X}) + H(Y | \hat{Y}) - H(X, Y)$$

- $q(x, y) = p(\hat{x}, \hat{y})p(x | \hat{x})p(y | \hat{y})$, where $x \in \hat{x}, y \in \hat{y}$
- Can be shown that $q(x, y)$ is a "maximum entropy" approximation to $p(x, y)$.
- $q(x, y)$ preserves marginals : $q(x) = p(x)$ & $q(y) = p(y)$

Co-Clustering Algorithm

Algorithm Co-Clustering(p, k, ℓ, C_x^1, C_y^1)
 Input: The joint probability distribution $p(X, Y)$, k the desired number of row clusters, and ℓ the desired number of column clusters.
 Output: The partition functions C_x^k and C_y^ℓ .

1. Initialization: Set $t = 0$. Start with some initial partition functions $C_x^{(0)}$ and $C_y^{(0)}$. Compute

$$q^{(0)}(x, y), q^{(0)}(x|\hat{x}), q^{(0)}(y|\hat{y})$$
 and the distributions $q^{(0)}(y|\hat{x}), 1 \leq \hat{x} \leq k$ using (18).
2. Compute row clusters: For each row e , find its new cluster index as

$$C_x^{(t+1)}(e) = \operatorname{argmin}_x D(p(Y|e) \| q^{(t)}(Y|\hat{x})),$$
 resolving ties arbitrarily. Let $C_y^{(t+1)} = C_y^{(t)}$.
3. Compute

$$q^{(t+1)}(x, y), q^{(t+1)}(x|\hat{x}), q^{(t+1)}(y|\hat{y})$$
 and the distributions $q^{(t+1)}(x|\hat{y}), 1 \leq \hat{y} \leq \ell$ using (19).
4. Compute column clusters: For each column y , find its new cluster index as

$$C_y^{(t+1)}(y) = \operatorname{argmin}_y D(p(X|y) \| q^{(t+1)}(X|\hat{y})),$$
 resolving ties arbitrarily. Let $C_x^{(t+1)} = C_x^{(t+1)}$.
5. Compute

$$q^{(t+2)}(x, y), q^{(t+2)}(x|\hat{x}), q^{(t+2)}(y|\hat{y})$$
 and distributions $q^{(t+2)}(y|\hat{x}), 1 \leq \hat{x} \leq k$ using (18).
6. Stop and return $C_x^k = C_x^{(t+2)}$ and $C_y^\ell = C_y^{(t+2)}$, if the change in objective function value, that is, $D(p(X, Y) \| q^{(t)}(X, Y)) - D(p(X, Y) \| q^{(t+2)}(X, Y))$, is "small" (say 10^{-5}); Else set $t = t + 2$ and go to step 2.

Figure 1: Information theoretic co-clustering algorithm that simultaneously clusters both the rows and columns

Properties of Co-clustering Algorithm

- ❖ **Theorem:** The co-clustering algorithm monotonically decreases loss in mutual information (objective function value)
- ❖ Marginals $p(x)$ and $p(y)$ are preserved at every step ($q(x)=p(x)$ and $q(y)=p(y)$)
- ❖ Can be generalized to higher dimensions

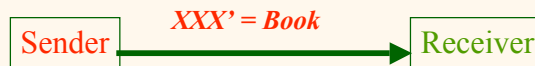
Semantic Distance

- ❖ Why Semantic Distance ?
 - Some applications of Semantic Distance
- ❖ The Semantic “Conveyance” problem
 - Translations across multiple ontologies
 - Role of Semantic Distance
 - One approach of measuring Semantic Distance
- ❖ The Hows of Semantic Distance
 - Types of Semantic Distance measures

Why do we need Semantic Distance

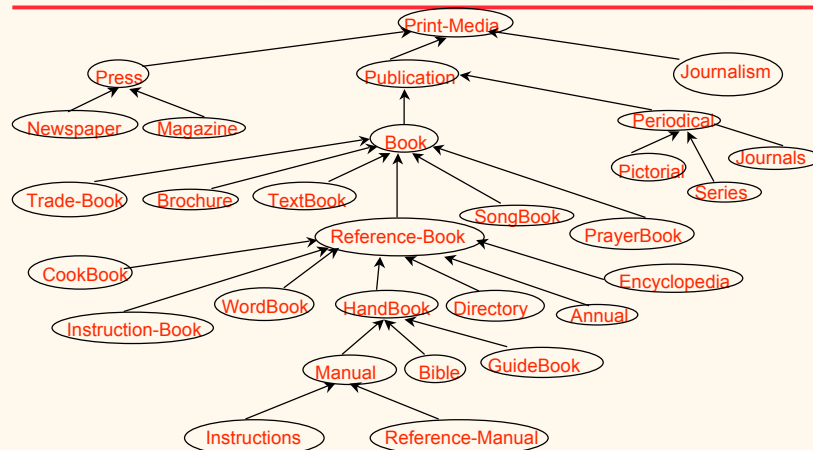
- ❖ Interoperability across terminologies is crucial in many domains
- ❖ Which terminology do we interoperate with?
- ❖ What criteria/measure do we use?
 - Application dependent v/s application specific
- ❖ Should the measure be machine understandable?
- ❖ Should the measure be human understandable?

Semantic "Conveyance"



- The Sender has his own ontology (**The Red Ontology**)
- The Receiver has his own (**The Blue Ontology**)
- For communication to take place,
 - The receiver should translate the message (content) from the Red Ontology to the Blue Ontology
- Questions:
 - Is it always possible?
 - How many candidate possibilities are there?
 - How do we choose from them, Semantic Distance?

Terminology 1: The Red Terminology



<http://www.cogsci.princeton.edu/~wn/w3wn.html>

Terminology 2: The Blue Terminology



<http://www-ksl.stanford.edu/knowledge-sharing/ontologies/html/bibliographic-data/>

Inter-terminological relationships: Typically represented in the UMLS

Metathesaurus

- semantics preserving

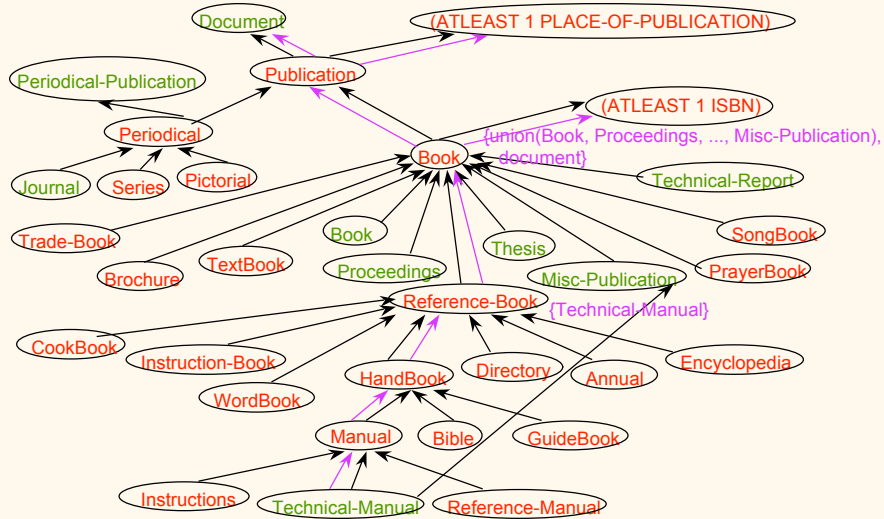
❖ Hyponyms/Hypernyms

- semantics altering
- typically results in loss of information

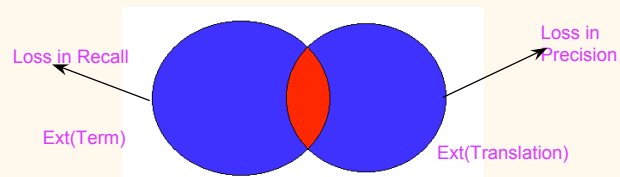
❖ List of Hyponyms

- technical-manual	hyponym	manual	
- book	hyponym		book
- proceedings	hyponym		book
- thesis	hyponym		book
- misc-publication	hyponym		book
- technical-reports	hyponym		book
- press publication	hyponym		periodical-
- periodical publication	hyponym		periodical-

Translations across multiple terminologies



Proposal for Semantic Distance: Extensional Measure



$$\text{Precision} = \frac{|\text{Ext(Term)} \cap \text{Ext(Translation)}|}{|\text{Ext(Translation)}|}$$

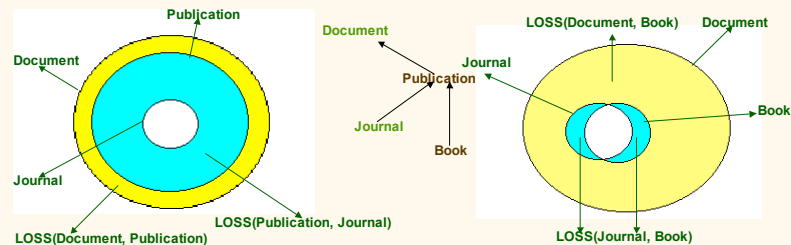
$$\text{Recall} = \frac{|\text{Ext(Term)} \cap \text{Ext(Translation)}|}{|\text{Ext(Term)}|}$$

$$\text{Percentage Loss} = \frac{|\text{Ext(Term)} \Delta \text{Ext(Translation)}|}{|\text{Ext(Term)}| + |\text{Ext(Translation)}|}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{1/2(1/\text{Precision}) + 1/2(1/\text{Recall})}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \frac{1}{(\alpha)(1/\text{Precision}) + (1-\alpha)(1/\text{Recall})} \quad 0 < \alpha < 1$$

Choosing an optimal translation



- ❖ Local Decision Making
 - $LOSS(Publication, Journal) > LOSS(Document, Publication)$
 - Document is chosen as the translation
 - But $LOSS(Book, Document) > LOSS(Book, Journal) !!$
- ❖ Global Decision Making
 - Both translations {Document, Journal} are passed on to the next level
 - Journal is chosen as the appropriate translation

Proposal for Semantic Distance: Intensional Measure

- ❖ Difference in Translation:
 - **Book** \Rightarrow **union(Book, Thesis, Proceedings, Technical-Manual, Misc-Publication)**
- ❖ Terminological Difference
 - **Book** \subseteq (AND **Publication** (ATLEAST 1 ISBN))
 - **Publication** \subseteq (AND **document** (ATLEAST 1 PLACE-OF-PUBLICATION))
 - **Book** \subseteq (AND **document** (ATLEAST 1 ISBN) (ATLEAST 1 PLACE-OF-PUBLICATION))
- ❖ Loss of Information:
 - (-) **union(Trade-Book, Brochure, SongBook, PrayerBook, TextBook)**
 - ◆ information related to trade books, brochures, song books, prayer books and text books is lost
 - (+) (AND (ATLEAST 1 ISBN) (ATLEAST 1 PLACE-OF-PUBLICATION))
 - ◆ spurious documents that don't have an ISBN number and a place of publication are gained

Measures for Semantic Distance: Pros and Cons

❖ Intensional Measure:

- May not make sense as it mixes two vocabularies,
 - ◆ e.g., does **Book** - **Book** make any sense ?
- The problem becomes worse if the two terminologies are in different languages
- Makes it hard for the system to differentiate between the various alternatives

❖ Extensional Measure:

- Based on Standard Information Retrieval Measures (F-measure)
- Can be tailored to reflect change in semantic distance for different applications
- However:
 - ◆ Probability distributions of various terms need to be estimated
 - ◆ An information loss interval doesn't make much sense to the user.

Types of Semantic Distance Metrics: Intensional

❖ Numerical

- Based on features (e.g., Tversky's measure)
- Based on traversal of specific conceptual relationships (is-a, part-of) and arbitrary domain specific relationships

❖ Non-numerical

- Based on semantic concept differences, e.g. a book without a publication date
- Important for human understandability

Types of Semantic Distance Metrics: Extensional

- ❖ Numerical: Based on estimation of underlying concept intensions
 - Computation of joint and conditional probability distributions
 - Computation of concept co-occurrences in documents
 - Computation of cosine measures in a vector space mode

A Classification of Numerical Measures

- ❖ Traversal of graph-based information models
 - Traversal of Hierarchical Relationships
 - Intensional
- ❖ Feature contrast based approaches (e.g., Tversky)
 - Intensional
- ❖ Probabilistic approaches (e.g., Precision, Recall, F-measure)
 - Based on estimation of extensions/distributions of concepts
- ❖ Some combination of the above?

Tversky's measure from Psycho-semantics

$$S(a, b) = \frac{|A \cap B|}{|A \cap B| + \alpha(a, b) |A - B| + (1 - \alpha(a, b)) |B - A|}$$

- ❖ $S(a, b)$ is the similarity between two arbitrary objects, a, b
- ❖ A and B are feature sets of a, b respectively
- ❖ α is a real number $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$