

Introduction to spectral clustering

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What this course is

- Basic introduction into the core ideas of spectral clustering
- Sufficient to get a basic understanding of how the method works
- Application mainly to computer vision
- In the end you should be:
 - Able to implement and tune S.C.
 - Make design choices for particular problems



What this course is not

- Not a course in graph theory
 - Many connections and proofs from spectral graph theory are not here. [Look at F. Chung, Spectral graph theory]
- Not covering advanced features and applications of SC
- Connection to other methods is not covered in detail. [Look at website and papers by Chris Ding]
- Only looking at undirected simple graphs



Course contents

- 3 lectures
 - Lecture 1: Basic concepts, graph cuts, a S.C. algorithm,
 - Lecture 2: The mechanics of S.C., different S.C. algorithms
 - Lecture 3: Applications of S.C., extensions and enhancements, practical issues
- 1 coursework
 - Simple spectral clustering problem (data provided)
 - Our your own problem



Course contents – Part 1

- 1. Overview of clustering
- 2. Properties of a cluster
- 3. Basic graph theory
- 4. Graph cuts and clustering
- 5. Introduction to spectral clustering
- 6. A simple spectral clustering example



What is spectral clustering

- Clustering algorithm:
 - Treats clustering as a graph partitioning problem without making specific assumptions on the form of the clusters.
 - Cluster points using eigenvectors of matrices derived from the data.
 - Data mapped to a low-dimensional space that are separated and can be easily clustered.



Pros and cons of spectral clustering

- Advantages:
 - Does not make strong assumptions on the statistics of the clusters
 - Easy to implement.
 - Good clustering results.
 - Reasonably fast for sparse data sets of several thousand elements.
- Disadvantages:
 - May be sensitive to choice of parameters
 - Computationaly expensive for large datasets



Spectral clustering in one slide Graph theoretic point of view

- Given data points $x_1, ..., x_N$, pairwise affinities $A_{ij} = A(x_i, x_j)$
- Build similarity graph
 Guild similarity graph

- Clustering = find a cut through the graph
 - Define a cut-type objective function
 - Solve it



Spectral clustering in one slide Low-dimensional embedding point of view

- Given data points $x_1, \dots x_N$, pairwise affinities $A_{ij} = A(x_i, x_j)$
- Find a low-dimensional embedding
- Project data points to new space



• Cluster using favourite clustering algorithm





Spectral clustering in one slide

- Both points of view are related
- The low-dimensional space is determined by the data
- Spectral clustering makes use of the *spectrum* of the graph for dimensionality reduction
 - Embed data points in the subpace of the k-eigen-vectors
- Projection and clustering equates to graph partition by different min-cut criteria



Overview of clustering

- What is clustering?
 - Given some data and a notion of similarity
 - The task of partitioning the input data into maximally *homogeneous* groups (i.e. *clusters*)





Overview of clustering

What is a cluster?

- Homogeneous group
- No universally accepted definition of *homogeneity*
- In general a cluster should satisfy two criteria:
 - Internal: All data inside a cluster should be highly similar (intra-cluster)
 - External: Data between clusters should be highly disimilar (inter-cluster)



Overview of clustering

- Applications
 - Image processing and computer vision
 - Computational biology
 - Data mining and information retrieval
 - Statistical data analysis
 - Machine learning and pattern recognition





A clustering of clustering



Mode seeking

- Mean / Median shift
- Medoid shift
- ...

Distribution based

- E-M algorithm
- KDE clustering
 - ...

Centroid based

- K-Means
- ...

Graph theoretic

• Graph cuts

. . .

Spectral clustering





Some definitions

- **Clustering function** *f* for some domain *X*, is a function that takes a distance *d* over *X* and outputs a clustering *C* of *X*
- **Clustering quality measure** is a function *m* that given a clustering *C* over (*X*, *d*) returns a non-negative real number



What is a good clustering

- Kleinberg's axioms for clustering functions f:
 - Scale invariance: The output of a clustering function should be invariant to uniform scaling of the input

 $f(d(x,y)) = f(\lambda d(x,y))$

Consistency: If intra-cluster distances are decreased and inter-cluster distances are increased then the clustering output should not change
 If f(d) = C and d' is a C - enhancing transformation of d, then f(d') = C
 d' is a C - enhacing transformation of d if

 $d'(x, y) \le d(x, y)$, for $x, y \in C$ and $d'(x, y) \ge d(x, y)$, for $x, y \notin C$

Richness: By modifying the distance function, any partition of the underlying data can be obtained
 ∀ partition C of X, there exists d over X s. t. f(d) = C



What kinds of algorithms satisfy the axioms?

- Single linkage till you get k clusters.
 - satisfies scale invariance and consistency, but not richness

- Single linkage till distances exceed $\tau \max_{ij} d(x, y)$, where τ is some constant.
 - satisfies scale invariance and richness but not consistency

- Single linkage until distances exceed some threshold r.
 - satisfies *richness* and *consistency* but not *scale invariance*



What is a good clustering

Kleinberg's impossibility theorem

"There exists no clustering function that simultaneously satisfies scale invariance, consistency and richness"

Instead of defining clustering functions, we focus on the *quality* of a given clustering



Properties of a good cluster

- Clustering quality measure $m(C, d) \in R$
 - Scale invariance

 $m(C,d) = m(C,\lambda d), \forall d \text{ and } \lambda > 0$

Consistency

If d' is $a \ C$ – enhancing transformation of dthen $m(C, d) \le m(C, d')$

Richness

 $\forall C \exists d s.t.C = \operatorname{arg} \max_{C} m(C, d)$

– Isomorphic invariance

If $C \approx {}_{d}C'$ then m(C, d) = m(C', d')



Quality measures

- Relative margin (Ackerman and Ben David, 2008)
- C-index (Dalrymple and Alford, 1970)
- Gamma (Baker and Hubert, 1975)
- D-index (Dalrymple and Alford, 1970)
- Dunn's index (Dunn, 1973)
- Distortion (Lloyd, 1957)
- Silhouette (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1990)
- Davies-Bouldin (Davies and Bouldin, 1979)
- Calinski-Harabasz (Calinski and Harabasz 1974)
- Hartigan (Hartigan, 1975)
- Krzanowski-Lai (Krzanowski and Lai, 1985)
- ...
- Quality measures will be revisited in the 3rd lecture



Graphs

- Graphs are an important component of spectral clustering
- Many datasets have natural graph structure
 - Web pages and links
 - Protein structures
 - Citation graphs
 - ..
- Other datasets can be transformed simply into similarity (or affinity) graphs
 - Affinity can encode **local-structure** in the data
 - Global structure induced by a distance function is often misleading
 - Efficient in encoding of sparse data
 - Suited for representing data based on pairwise relationships (e.g. affinities, distances)
 - A positive symmetric matrix can be represented as a graph





Affinity and distance

An affinity score between two objects x_i, x_j is "high" if the objects are "very similar"

- E.g. the Gaussian kernel $s(i,j) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

• A **distance score** between two objects *x*, *y* is "small" if the objects are "close" to each other

- E.g. the Euclidean distance $d(i,j) = ||x_i - x_j||$

- Distances and affinities have an inverse relationship high affinity ↔ low distance
- A distance can be turned into an affinity by using an appropriate kernel
- Many choices of kernels. One of the most important choices in spectral clustering



 Definition: A graph G is a triple consisting of a vertex set V(G), an edge set E(G) and a relation that associates with each edge two vertices.







Simple undirected graph

In spectral clustering we always work with undirected graphs





Adjacency matrix W of undirected graph

- NxN symmetric binary matrix
- rows and columns represent the vertices and entries represent the edges of the graph.
- Simple graph = zero diagonal

W(i, j) = 0 if *i*, *j* are not connected W(i, j) = 1 if *i*, *j* are connected



0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0





Affinity matrix A of undirected graph

- Weighted adjacency matrix
- Each edge is weighted by pairwise vertex affinity

A(i,j) = 0 if *i*, *j* are not connected A(i,j) = s(i,j) if *i*, *j* are connected

• By adjusting the kernel parameter we can set the affinity of dissimilar vertices to zero and essentially disconnect them



Degree matrix D of undirected graph

- NxN diagonal matrix that contains information about the degree of each vertex
- Degree d(vi) of a vertex v_i of a graph is the number of edges incident to the vertex. Loops are counted twice

$$D(i,j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$D(i,j) = d(v_i) \text{ if } i = j \Rightarrow D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_N)$$



4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2



Laplacian matrix of simple undirected graph

- L = D A (Degree Affinity) (Unnormalised)
- *L* is symmetric and positive semi-definite
- The smallest eigen-value is 0, the corresponding eigenvector is the constant one 1
- N non-negative real-valued eigen-values $0 = \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \dots \le \lambda_N$

• Laplacian has a complete set of orthonormal eigen-vectors



Graph construction

- There are different ways to construct a graph representing the relationships between data points :
 - Fully connected graph: All vertices having non-null similarities are connected each other
 - r-neighbourhood graph: Each vertex is connected to vertices falling inside a ball of radius r where r is a real value that has to be tuned in order to catch the local structure of data.
 - k-nearest neighbour graph: Each vertex is connected to its knearest neighbours where k is an integer number which controls the local relationships of data.
- Different graph constructs reprensent different localstructure of the data



Graph construction – Examples k-nearest neighbour graphs

- Given data points and their pairwise affinities A(i, j)
- Connect each point to its k-nearest neighbours
- Weigh the edges by the affinity score
- Generally graph is directed and non-symmetric (neighbourhood relationship is not symmetric)
- Example 2-nearest neighbours





Graph construction – Examples Undirected k-nearest neighbour graphs

- Make a directed graph to an undirected using "AND" or "OR" operations
- The **symmetric** kNN graph connects A with B if $A \rightarrow B$ or $B \rightarrow A$
- The **mutual** kNN graph connects A with B if $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow A$





Graph construction – Examples

Undirected k-nearest neighbour graphs



The mutual kNN graph is a subset of the symmetric kNN



Graph construction – Examples r-neighbourhood graph

- Given data points and their pairwise affinities A(i,j)
- Connect each point to all other points that have affinity above a threshold \boldsymbol{r}
- Weigh the edges by the affinity score or use unweighted graph





Graph spectrum

 Spectrum is the multiset of the eigen-values of the Laplacian matrix or the graph associated with it

Spec(G) =
$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_t \\ m_1 \dots m_t \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_t$ is the set of **distinct** eigen-values and $m_1 \dots mt$ their multiplicities.

- Laplacian matrix depends on the vertex labelling, its spectrum is invariant (i.e. does not depend on the representation)
- Multiplicity of 0 eigen-value is the number of connected components k of the graph (i.e. clusters)
- The eigen-space is spanned by the indicator vectors $\mathbf{1}_{V_1}, \dots, \mathbf{1}_{V_N}$ of those components



- *G* a graph with vertex set $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_N\}$
- Subset $Z \subset V$
- $A(Z_i, Z_j) = \sum_{i \in Z_i, j \in Z_j} A(i, j)$ for $Z_i, Z_j \subset V$
- $|\mathbf{Z}|$: number of vertices in Z
- $vol(Z) = \sum_{i \in Z} D_i$: volume of Z
 - i.e. sum of the weights of all edges attached to vertices in Z
- All vertices that can be reached from each other by a path form a *connected component* (i.e. no connections between Z and \overline{Z} . \overline{Z} is the complement of Z)
- The non-empty sets $Z_1, ..., Z_k$ form a *partition* of the graph if $Z_i \cap Z_j = \emptyset$ and $Z_1 \cup \cdots \cup Z_k = V$



Node volume vs Set (cluster) volume

Node volume

$$D_i = \sum_{j=1}^N A(i,j)$$

i.e. weighted sum of all of the edges connected to the node



• Set (cluster) volume $vol(Z) = \sum_{i \in Z} D_i$

i.e. sum of the weights of all edges attached to vertices in *Z*







- Given a similarity graph with affinity matrix A the simplest way to construct a partition is to solve the min-cut problem:
 - Choose the partition Z_1, \ldots, Z_k that minimises

$$\operatorname{cut}(Z_1, \dots, Z_k) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k A(Z_i, \overline{Z_i}) \text{ where } A(Z_1, Z_2) = \sum_{i \in Z_1, j \in Z_2} A(i, j)$$





Clustering as a graph-theoretic problem – An example

- We require 2 clusters
- It is obvious we need to cut at least 2 edges





Clustering as a graph-theoretic problem – An example

- We require 2 clusters
- It is obvious we need to cut 2 edges
- $\operatorname{cut}(A,B) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} \operatorname{Affinity}(A,B) = 0.3$





- Min-cut can be solved efficiently especially for k = 2
- Does not always lead to reasonable results if the connected components are not balanced



- Workaround: Ensure that the partitions Z_1, \ldots, Z_k are sufficiently "large"
- This should lead to more balanced partitions



 Ratio-cut [Hagen and Kahng, 1992]: The size of a subset Z is measured by its number of vertices |Z|

$$RatioCut(Z_1, ..., Z_k) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{A(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{|Z_i|} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\operatorname{cut}(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{|Z_i|}$$

• Normalised cut [Shi and Malik, 2000]: The size of a subset Z is measured by the weights of its edges vol(Z)

$$NCut(Z_1, \dots, Z_k) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{A(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{\operatorname{vol}(Z_i)} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\operatorname{cut}(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{\operatorname{vol}(Z_i)}$$

• Min-max cut [Ding et al. 2001]:

$$Min - Max - Cut(Z_1, \dots, Z_k) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{A(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{A(Z_i, Z_i)} = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{cut(Z_i, \overline{Z}_i)}{A(Z_i, Z_i)}$$

Min similarity between

Max similarity within



- Due to the normalisations introduced the solution becomes NP-hard
- Relaxing Ncut and Min–Max–Cut lead to normalised spectral clustering. Relaxing RatioCut leads to unormalised spectral clustering [von Luxburg 2007]
- Relaxed RatioCut solution: eigenvectors

$$X = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k)$$
 s.t. $(D - W)v_k = \lambda_k v_k$ where $L = D - A$

- Relaxed Ncut solution: eigenvectors $Y = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_k)$ s.t. $(I - L_{sym})u_k = \lambda_k u_k$ where $L_{sym} = D^{-0.5}AD^{-0.5}$
- Relaxed Min-Max-cut solution: eigenvectors $Y = (u_1, u_2, ..., u_k) \ s.t.$ $L_{sym}u_k = \lambda_k u_k$ where $L_{sym} = D^{-0.5}AD^{-0.5}$
- Quality of solution of relaxation is not guaranteed compared to exact solution



Spectral clustering Method #1

[Perona and Freeman 1999]

- Partition using only one eigenvector at a time
- Use procedure recursively
 - Uses 2nd (smallest) eigenvector to define optimal cut
 - Recursively generates two clusters with each cut

Spectral clustering Method #2

[Shi and Malik 2000, Scott and Longuet-Higgins, Ng et al. 2002]

- Use k smallest eigenvectors
- Directly compute k-way partitioning
- Usually performs better

 We will be using this approach from now on

A spectral clustering algorithm

Input: Data matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times F}$ (*N* =data points, F = dimensions), *k* number of clusters

- Construct **pairwise** affinity matrix $A(i, j) = exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i x_j\|}{2\sigma^2}\right)$
- Construct degree matrix $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_N)$
- Compute Laplacian L = D A (unormalised)
- Compute the first k eigen-vectors u_1, \dots, u_k of L
- Let $U \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times k}$ contain the vectors $u_1, ..., u_k$ as columns
- Let $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^k$ be the vector corresponding to the *i*-th row of U
- Cluster the points (y_i) i = 1, ..., N into k clusters $h_1, ..., h_k$ with K-means

Output: Clusters Z_1 , ..., Z_k with $Z_i = \{i | y_i \in h_i\}$





K-means

 Basic clustering algorithm. Given a set of observations x₁, ... x_N partition into k clusters s.t. the within cluster sum of squares (distortion) is minimised

$$\arg\min\sum_{i=1}^{k}\sum_{x_{j}\in C_{i}}||x_{j}-\mu_{i}||^{2}$$

- NP-hard. Iterative algorithm available
 - 1. Initialise k clusters
 - 2. Calculate cluster means μ_i
 - 3. Calculate distances of each point x_i to each cluster mean μ_i
 - 4. Assign point to nearest cluster
 - 5. Goto 2 until convergence
- Number of clusters need to be known. Gives convex clusters



Why not just use K-means?

- One could use K-means directly on the affinity matrix (or some other clustering approach such as mean shift)
- S.C. separates data while projecting in the low-dimensional space
- Allows clustering of non-convex data



Before spectral clustering



After spectral clustering





Why not just use K-means?







Simple example revisited

Now we will use spectral clustering instead



Computer Vision Laboratory

Step 1: Pairwise affinity matrix



	Х ₁	X ₂	Х ₃	X ₄	Х ₅	Х ₆
X ₁	0	0.8	0.6	0	0.1	0
X ₂	0.8	0	0.8	0	0	0
X ₃	0.6	0.8	0	0.2	0	0
X ₄	0	0	0.2	0	0.8	0.7
X ₅	0.1	0	0	0.8	0	0.8
X ₆	0	0	0	0.7	0.8	0



Computer Vision Laboratory



Step 2: Laplacian matrix



L = D - A

	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅	Х ₆
X ₁	1.5	-0.8	-0.6	0	-0.1	0
X ₂	-0.8	1.6	-0.8	0	0	0
X ₃	-0.6	-0.8	1.6	-0.2	0	0
X ₄	0	0	-0.2	1.7	-0.8	-0.7
X ₅	-0.1	0	0	-0.8	1.7	-0.8
X ₆	0	0	0	-0.7	-0.8	1.5





Step 3: Eigen-decomposition

-0.4082

0.4084

• Eigen-values $\lambda =$



• Eigen-vectors v =

 $N \times k$



...





•

Step 4: Embedding

•	U=	-0.4082	0.4084
		-0.4082	0.4418
		-0.4082	0.3713
		-0.4082	-0.3713
		-0.4082	-0.4050
		-0.4082	-0.4452

• Each row of *Y* is a point in eigenspace







Step 5: Clustering

- K-means clustering with 2 clusters
- Easy, convex clustering problem





Simplex spectral embedding

- Compute *k* eigen-vectors of the Laplacian.
- Embed objects in the *k*-dim eigen-space
- In the embedded space, objects aggregate to k distinct centroids:
 - Centroids locate on *k* corners of a simplex
 - Simplex consists k basis vectors + coordinate origin
 - Simplex is rotated by an orthogonal transformation matrix $T = (t_1, ..., t_k)$
 - Columns of *T* are eigenvectors of a $k \times k$ embedding matrix Γ with $\Gamma t_k = \lambda_k t_k$
 - Eigenvalues of Γ = eigenvalues of L = D A

K-means Clustering in Eigen-space

- Simplex spectral embedding theorem provides theoretical basis for K-means clustering in the embedded eigenspace
 - Cluster centroids are well separated (corners of the simplex)
 - K-means clustering is invariant under (i) coordinate
 - rotation $x \rightarrow Tx$, and (ii) shift $x \rightarrow x + a$
 - Thus orthogonal transform T in simplex embedding is irrelevant



Choices choices...

- Affinity matrix construction (distance and kernel)
- Choice of kernel parameter σ (scaling factor)

 Practically, search over σ and pick value that gives the tightest clusters
- Choice of k, the number of clusters
- Choice of clustering method



Summary

We have seen so far

- Basic definitions of cluster, clustering and cluster quality
- Graph basics, affinity, graph construction, graph spectrum
- Graph cuts
- Spectral clustering and graph cuts
- A spectral clustering algorithm and a simple example
- K-means and spectral clustering
- For the next lecture

- Intuitive explanation of different S.C. algorithms