

Talk 12: Unsupervised Learning

Part 2

Some Key Points in the last talk

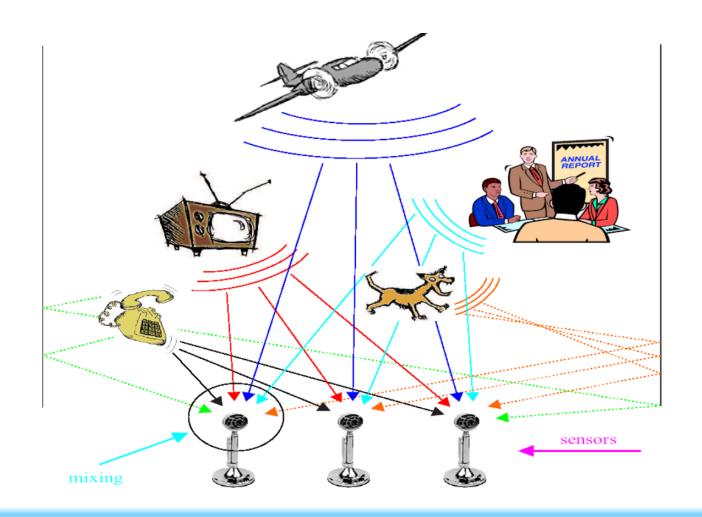
ПІЗЛИ

- Unsupervised Learning
 - Clustering
 - Dimension reduction
 - Structure and/or relation mining
- PCA or Factor Analysis
 - Non-uniqueness?

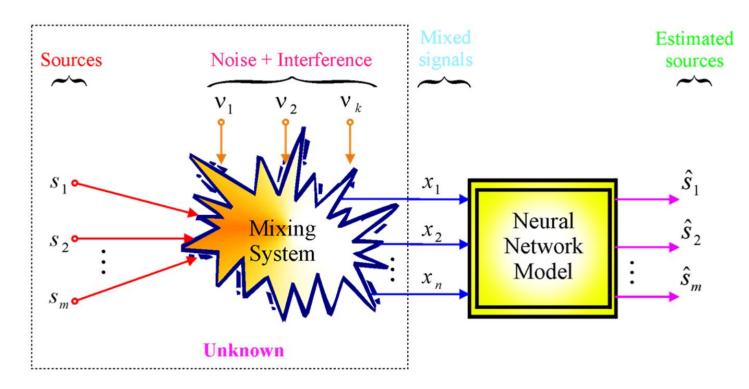
Unsupervised Learning

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Association Rules & Cluster Analysis
- 4. Self-Organizing Maps
- 5. Principal Components, Curves and Surfaces
- 6. Non-negative Matrix Factorization
- 7. Independent Component Analysis
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- 9. Nonlinear Dimension Reduction
- 10. The Google PageRank Algorithm

Speech Separation (Cocktail Party Problem)

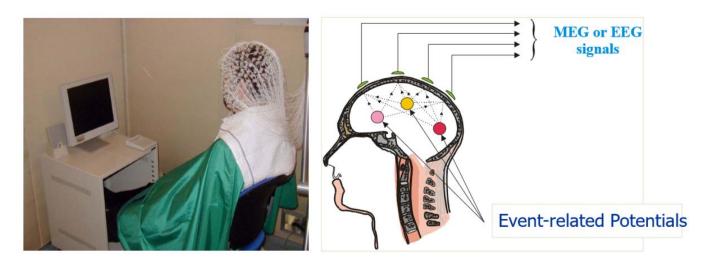


- Blind Source Separation
 - Problem definition: How to recover the original source signals?



Assumption: Mutual Independency of Sources

ICA for MEG/EEG Analysis



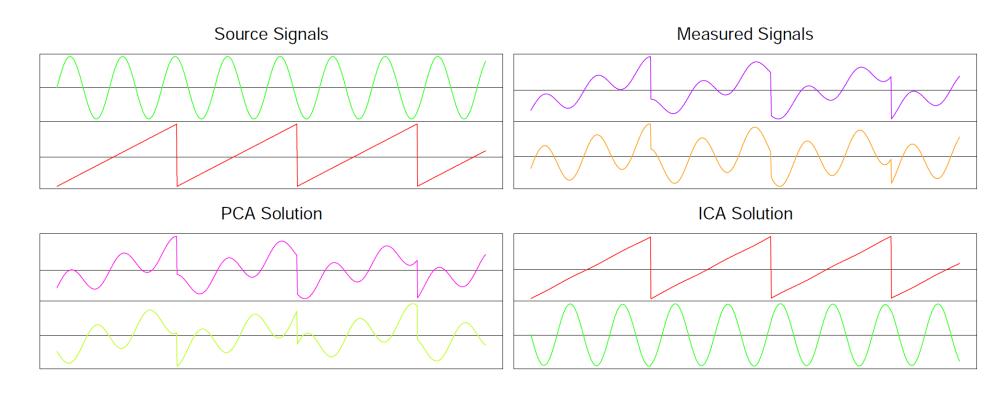
• EEG systems record the electrical potentials on the scalp, which are the mixture of a huge number of the action potentials of neurons inside the brain.

Our objective:

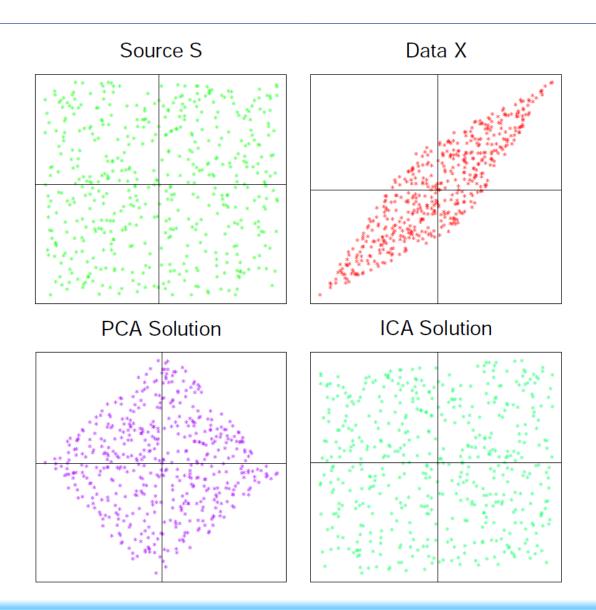
- to extract the evoked potential from measurements
- to find the location of the action potentials
- to find how the action potentials travel (their dynamics).



Goal: Find source signals S from mixed ones X



ICA Solution (Non-Uniqueness)



Practical Applications

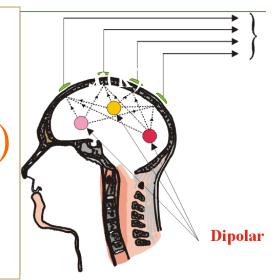
- Speech Signal Processing
- Wireless Communication
- Biomedical Signal Processing
- Computational Neuroscience
- Image Coding (Sparse Representation)
- Text data modelling
- Disentangled Representation for DL

Mathematical Formulation



Mixing Model

$$x_i(k) = a_{i1}s_1(k) + a_{i2}s_2(k) + \dots + a_{in}s_n(k) + \varepsilon(k)$$
$$\mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}(k) + \mathbf{\varepsilon}(k)$$



- $s(k) = (s_1(k), ..., s_n(k))^T$: the vector of n-source signals;
- $x(k) = (x_1(k), ..., x_m(k))^T$: the vector of m-sensor signals;
- ε (k): the vector of sensor noises.
- A is the mixing matrix.

Demixing Model



Problem: to estimate the source signals (or event-related potentials) by using the sensor signals

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{k}) = \mathbf{W} \ \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{k})$$

- $y(k) = (y_1(k), ..., y_m(k))^T$: the vector of recovered signals
- W is the demixing matrix.

$$s(k)$$
 A $x(k)$ W $y(k)$

Basic Theory



Assumption:

√ The source signal are mutually independent

• Model:

- ✓ Linear instantaneous mixture
- ✓ Linear convolutive mixture

Principles

- ✓ Maximum Entropy
- Minimum Mutual Information
- ✓ Joint Diagonalization of Cross-correlations
- ✓ Linear Predictability
- ✓ Sparseness Maximization

- One of Approaches to recover independent component one by one:
 - Maximize the NonGaussianity
- Let mixing model: $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{\epsilon}; \quad \mathbf{s} = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)^T$
- We attempt to extract a single component from x

$$y(k) = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x}(k) = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{s}(k)$$

Let
$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$y(k) = \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{s}(k) = \mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{s}(k)$$

What we can derive from this observation?
CLT provides us a criterion for the ICA.

CLT – Central Limit theory



Assume X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are iid samples from a probability with mean μ and variance σ^2 , define

$$\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i; \quad \mathbf{U}_n = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

Then the random variable U_n converges to the normal distribution as the sample size n tends to infinite.

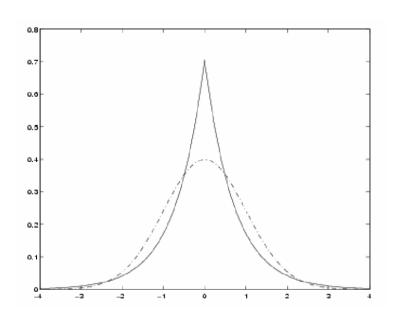
$$U_n = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \to N(0, 1)$$

Kurtosis is a measure of non-gaussianity

kurtosis(y) =
$$E[y^4] - 3(E[y^2])^2$$

$$\hat{b} = \text{var max}_b \left| \text{kurtosis}(b^T \mathbf{x}) \right|$$

FastICA algorithm is derived



kurtosis
$$(y) = E[y^4] - 3(E[y^2])^2$$
 $\begin{cases} > 0, \text{ for SuperGaussian} \\ = 0, \text{ for Gaussian} \end{cases}$ $< 0, \text{ for SubGaussian}$

Cost Function



Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between

$$p(y_1, \dots, y_K)$$
 and $\prod_{k=1}^K q_k(y_k)$

$$KL(W) = \int p(\mathbf{y}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y})}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} q_k(y_k)} d\mathbf{y}$$

$$= -H(\mathbf{Y}; W) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} H(Y_k; W)$$
1. Joint Entropy of \mathbf{y}
2. Sum of marginal entropy of \mathbf{y}_k



• Minimized when y_k are mutually independent

Cost Function



Assume that y = Wx, the differential entropy can be expressed by

$$H(\mathbf{y}) = H(\mathbf{x}) + \log |\det(\mathbf{W})|$$

Assume that $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$, \mathbf{W} is an invertable matrix, the probability density function of \mathbf{y} is given by $p_y(\mathbf{y}) = \left| \det(\mathbf{W}) \right|^{-1} p_x(\mathbf{x})$

$$H(\mathbf{y}) = -\int p(y)\log(p(y))dy$$

$$= -\int |\det(\mathbf{W})|^{-1} p_x(\mathbf{x})\log(|\det(\mathbf{W})|^{-1} p_x(\mathbf{x}))|\det(\mathbf{W})| d\mathbf{x}$$

$$= -\int p_x(\mathbf{x})\log(p_x(\mathbf{x}))d\mathbf{x} + \log(|\det(\mathbf{W})|)$$

Cost Function



Assume that y = Wx, the differential entropy can be expressed by

$$H(\mathbf{y}) = H(\mathbf{x}) + \log |\det(\mathbf{W})|$$

$$KL(W) = \int p(\mathbf{y}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y})}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} p(y_k)} d\mathbf{y}$$

$$= -H(\mathbf{Y}; W) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} H(Y_k; W)$$

$$= -H(x) - \log \left| \det(W) \right| - \sum_{k=1}^{K} E\left[\log(p_k(y_k)) \right]$$

Gradient Descent



To update W along the negative gradient of KL(W)

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{W} \propto -\frac{\partial KL(\boldsymbol{W})}{\partial \boldsymbol{W}} = ((\boldsymbol{W}^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1} - \int p(\boldsymbol{x})\phi(\boldsymbol{y})\boldsymbol{x}^{\mathrm{T}}d\boldsymbol{x})$$
$$= ((\boldsymbol{W}^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1} - E_{\boldsymbol{x}}[\phi(\boldsymbol{y})\boldsymbol{x}^{\mathrm{T}}])$$
$$= (\boldsymbol{I} - E_{\boldsymbol{y}}[\phi(\boldsymbol{y})\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathrm{T}}])(\boldsymbol{W}^{\mathrm{T}})^{-1}$$

Nonlinear Function 2 ⇒ To be diagonalized

where

$$\phi(\mathbf{y}) = \left[\frac{\partial \log p(y_1)}{\partial y_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \log p(y_K)}{\partial y_K}\right]^{\mathrm{T}}$$

This can be approximated by Sigmoid Function in speech signal.

Gradient Descent



To update W along the negative gradient of KL(W)

$$\Delta \mathbf{W} = \alpha \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{E}_{y} \left[\varphi(\mathbf{y}) \mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{T}} \right] \right) \left(\mathbf{W}^{\mathrm{T}} \right)^{-1}$$

Modified Learning Algorithm

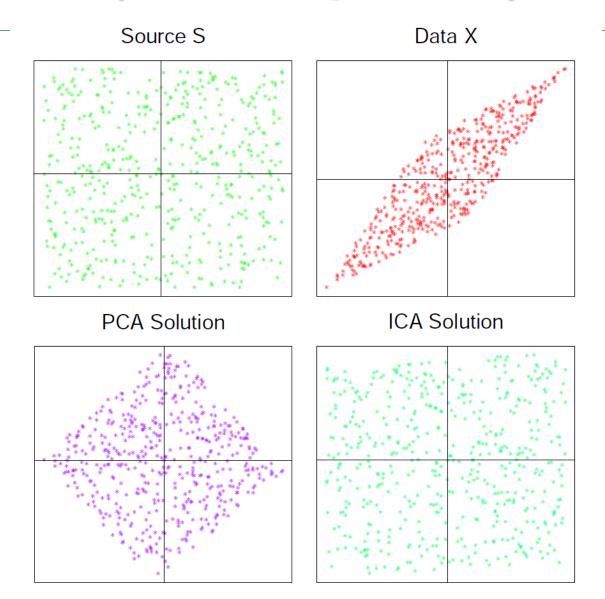
$$\phi(\mathbf{y}) \equiv \left[\frac{\partial \log p(y_1)}{\partial y_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial \log p(y_K)}{\partial y_K} \right]^{1}$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{W} = \alpha \left(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{E}_{y} \left[\varphi(\mathbf{y}) \mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{T}} \right] \right) \mathbf{W}$$

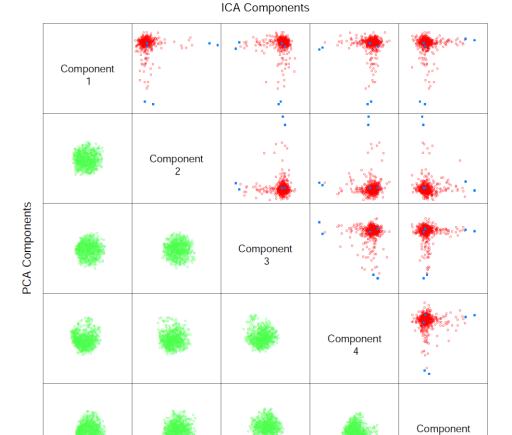
The natural gradient of Nonsingular Matrix Manifold

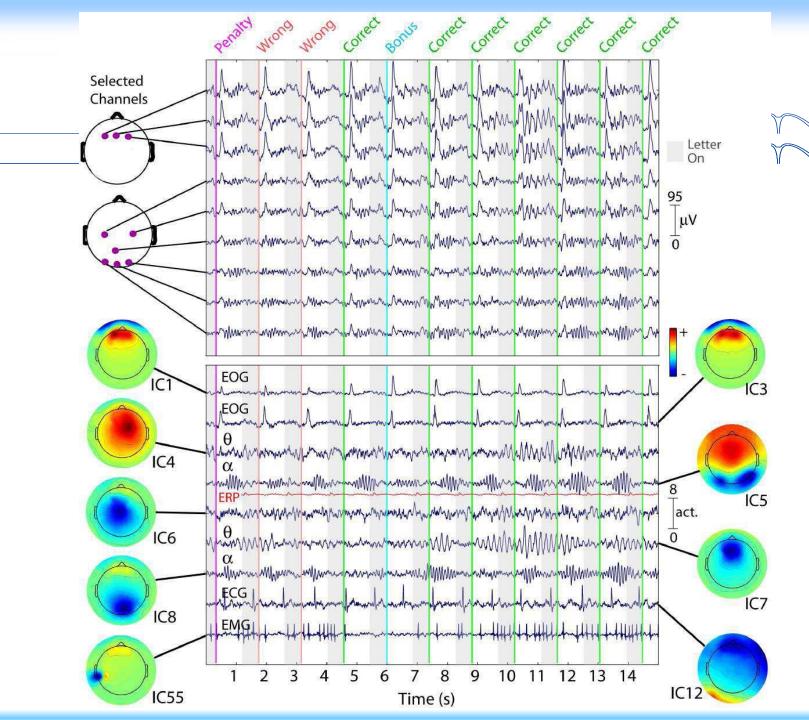
$$\nabla l(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W}$$

ICA Solution (Non-Uniqueness)



ICA can be used for handwritten digits





• Example:

EEG feature

extraction

6. Exploratory Projection Pursuit

- Find 'interesting' direction on which multi-dimensional data can be projected.
- 'Interesting' means displays some structure of the data distribution.
- Gaussian distributions are the least interesting (from structure point of view), thus find non-gaussian distributions (as ICA).

6. A different approach for ICA



- The data are assigned to a class G=1 and compared to a 'reference signal' of class G=0.
- Kind of generalized logistic regression

$$\log \frac{\Pr(G=1)}{1 - \Pr(G=1)} = f_1(a_1^T X) + f_2(a_2^T X)$$

Project Pursuit Regression techniques can therefore be applied.

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7. Multi-dimensional Scaling (MDS)



- Objectives: Data dimension reduction: different from SOMs, PCurves,
 MDS is to preserve the pairwise distance
- Data:

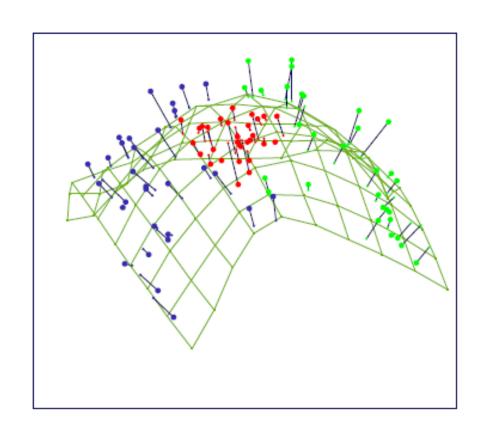
$$D = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}, \mathbf{x}_i \in R^p \implies S = \{\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2, \dots, \mathbf{s}_N\}, \mathbf{s}_i \in R^q (q < p)$$

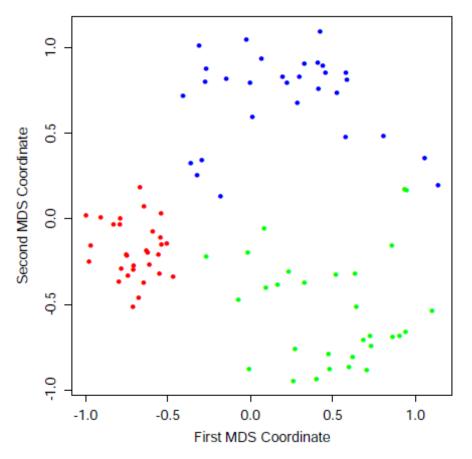
- Distance or Dissimilarity $d_{ij} = \|\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j\|$
- Goal: find low dimension data S such that

$$S_D(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_N) = \sqrt{\sum_{i \neq j} (d_{ij} - ||z_i - z_j||)^2}$$

7. Multi-dimensional Scaling (MDS)



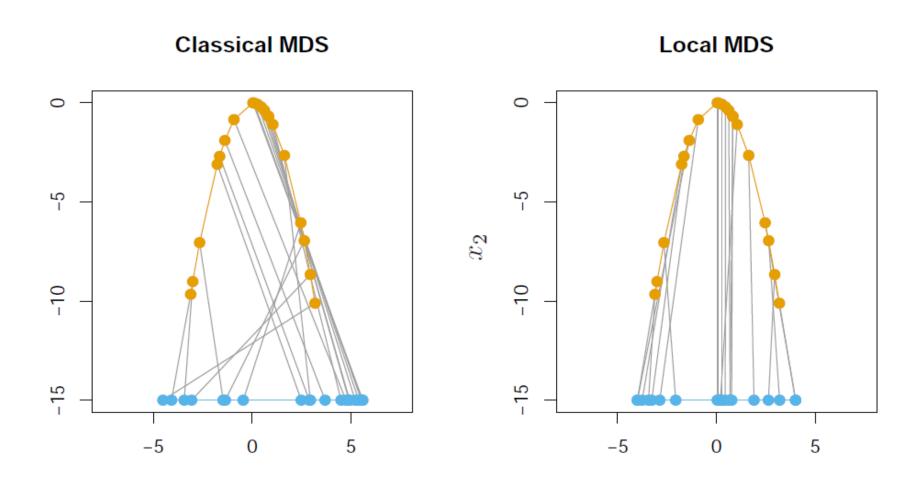




14.9 Nonlinear Dimension Reduction



Problem?



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14.9 Nonlinear Dimension Reduction



- Local MDS is to preserve the ordering of the points along the curve.
- Three new approaches to nonlinear dimension reduction and manifold mapping.
 - Isometric feature mapping (ISOMAP) (Tenenbaum et al., 2000)
 - Local linear embedding (Roweis and Saul, 2000)
 - Local MDS (Chen and Buja, 2008)

Isometric feature mapping (ISOMAP)



- Isometric feature mapping (ISOMAP) constructs a graph to approximate the geodesic distance between points along the manifold.
- For each data point we find its neighbors—points within some small Euclidean distance of that point.
- We construct a graph with an edge between any two neighboring points.
- The geodesic distance between any two points is then approximated by the shortest path between points on the graph.

Local linear embedding



- Local linear embedding takes a very different approach, trying to preserve the local affine structure of the high-dimensional data.
- Each data point is approximated by a linear combination of neighboring points. Then a lower dimensional representation is constructed that best preserves these local approximations.

Local linear embedding



- For each data point x_i in p dimensions, we find its K-nearest neighbors N(i) in Euclidean distance.
- We approximate each point by an affine mixture of the points in its neighborhood:

$$\min_{W_{ik}} \left\| x_i - \sum_{k \in N(i)} w_{ik} x_k \right\|^2$$

• $w_{ik}=0$, $k \notin N(i)$; $\sum_{k=1}^{N} w_{ik}=1$. To ensure a unique solution, we must have K < p.

Local linear embedding



• Given w_{ik} , we find points y_i in a space of dimension d < p to minimize

$$\min_{y_i} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\| y_i - \sum_{k=1}^{N} w_{ik} y_k \right\|^2$$

• In compact form:

$$\min_{Y} tr \Big[(Y - WY)^{T} (Y - WY) \Big] = tr \Big[Y^{T} (I - W)^{T} (I - W)Y \Big]$$

where $W \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$. The solution is the trailing eigenvectors of $\mathbf{M} = (I - W)^T (I - W)$

• Since 1 is a trivial eigenvector with eigenvalue 0, we discard it and keep the next d. This has the side effect that $I^TY = 0$

Local MDS



• Define N to be the symmetric set of nearby pairs of points; specifically a pair (i, i') is in N if point i is among the K-nearest neighbors of i', or viceversa.

$$S(\{z_i\}_{i=1}^N) = \sum_{i,i' \in N} \|d_{ii'} - \|z_i - z_{i'}\| \|^2 + \sum_{i,i' \notin N} w \|D - \|z_i - z_{i'}\| \|^2$$

$$w \sim 1/D$$

Local MDS

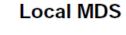


Take

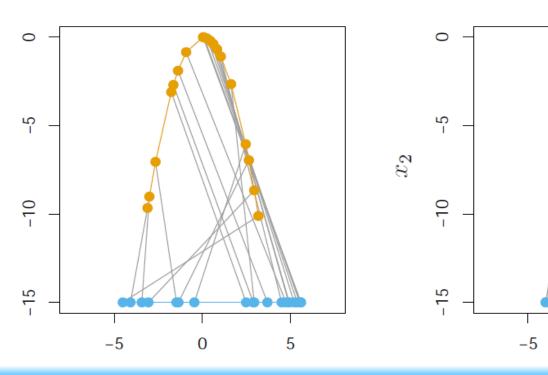
$$\tau=2wD$$
, for example: $\tau=0.01$

$$S(\left\{z_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{N}) = \sum_{i,i' \in N} \left\|d_{ii'} - \left\|z_{i} - z_{i'}\right\| \right\|^{2} - \tau \sum_{i,i' \notin N} \left\|z_{i} - z_{i'}\right\|$$

Classical MDS



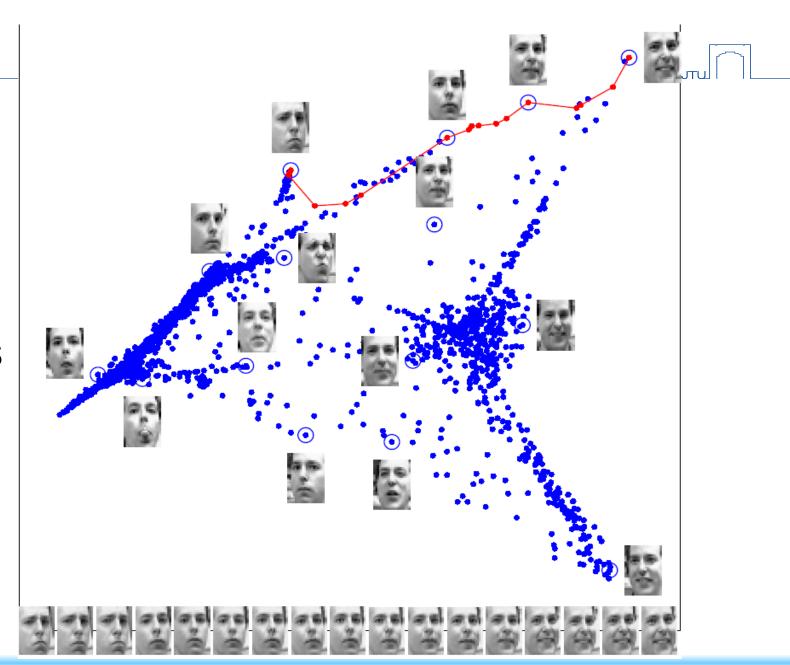
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LLE example20X28 image

Similar results by LMDS



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The Google PageRank Algorithm



- We suppose that we have N web pages and wish to rank them in terms of importance.
- The PageRank algorithm considers a webpage to be important if many other webpages point to it.
- The linking webpages that point to a given page are not treated equally: the algorithm also takes into account both the importance (PageRank) of the linking pages and the number of outgoing links that they have.

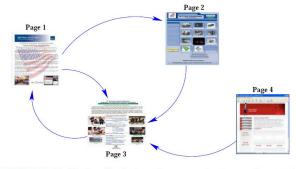


FIGURE 14.46. PageRank algorithm: example of a small network

PageRank Formulation



- Let $L_{ii} = 1$ if page j points to page i, and zero otherwise.
- Let $c_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j} L_{ij}$ equals the number of pages pointed to by page j (number of outlinks).

$$L_{12} = 1 \text{ or } L_{21} = 1 ?$$
 $c_1 = L_{11} + L_{21} + L_{31} + L_{41} = 2$
 $c_3 = ?$

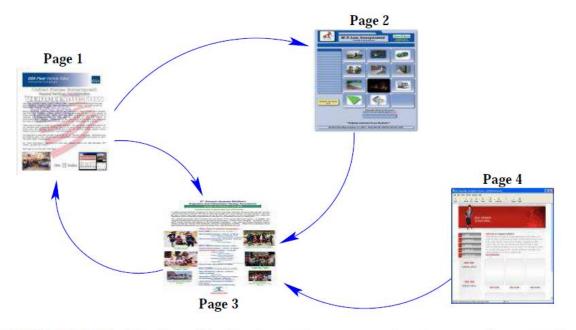


FIGURE 14.46. PageRank algorithm: example of a small network

PageRank Formulation



- Assumption: The importance of page i is the sum of the importances of other pages that point to that page.
- The Google PageRanks p_i are defined by the recursive relationship $p_i = (1-d) + d\sum_{j=1}^N \frac{L_{ij}}{c_i} p_j,$

$$p_i = (1-d) + d \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{L_{ij}}{c_i} p_j,$$

d is a positive constant (say d=0.85). In matrix form

$$\mathbf{p} = (1 - d)\mathbf{e} + d\mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}_c^{-1}\mathbf{p}$$

 \mathbf{e} is a vector of N ones; $\mathbf{D}_c = \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{c})$

Page Rank Algorithm



$$\mathbf{p} = (1 - d)\mathbf{e} + d\mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}_c^{-1}\mathbf{p}$$

• Introducing the normalization $e^T \mathbf{p} = N$ (i.e., the average PageRank is 1), rewrite the above equation

$$\mathbf{p} = \left[(1 - d) \mathbf{e} \mathbf{e}^T / N + d \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D}_c^{-1} \right] \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{p}$$

• Exploiting a connection with Markov chains (see below), it can be shown that the matrix **A** has a real eigenvalue equal to one, and one is its largest eigenvalue.

PageRank Algorithm



The page rank solution

$$\mathbf{p} = \left[(1 - d)\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^{T} / N + d\mathbf{L}\mathbf{D}_{c}^{-1} \right]\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}$$
$$\mathbf{e}^{T}\mathbf{p} = N$$

• Find by the power method: initialize p_0

$$\mathbf{p}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_{k-1}; \quad \mathbf{p}_k \leftarrow N \frac{\mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{e}^T \mathbf{p}_k}$$

PageRank Algorithm



- Viewing PageRank as a Markov chain makes clear why the matrix A has a maximal real eigenvalue of 1.
- Since A has positive entries with each column summing to one, Markov chain theory tells us that it has a unique eigenvector with eigenvalue one, corresponding to the stationary distribution of the chain (Bremaud, 1999).

Simple Example



$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

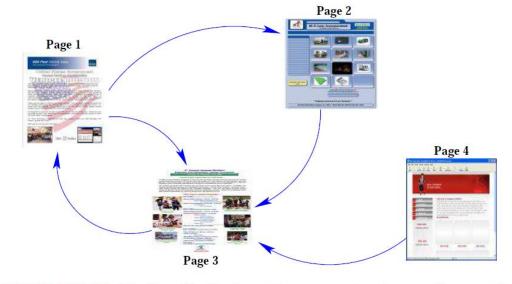


FIGURE 14.46. PageRank algorithm: example of a small network

The number of outlinks c = (2,1,1,1).

$$p = (1.49, 0.78, 1.58, 0.15)$$

Summary



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