

# Unsupervised Learning

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# Used Materials

Disclaimer: 本课件采用了 S. Russell and P. Norvig's Artificial Intelligence –A modern approach slides, 徐林莉老师课件和其他网络课程课件，也采用了 GitHub 中开源代码，以及部分网络博客内容

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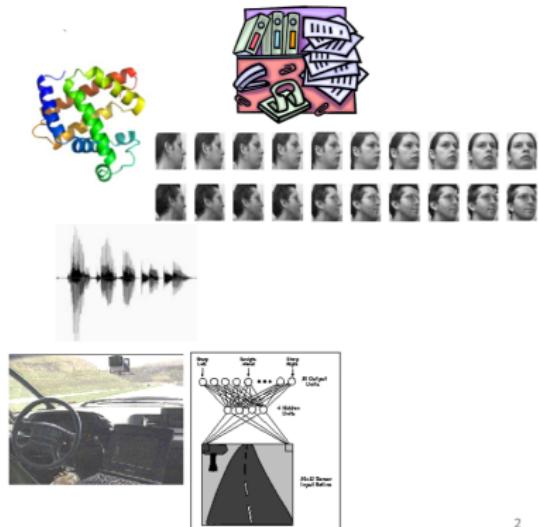
## Unsupervised Learning

Clustering

Principle Component Analysis

# Supervised learning has many successes

- ▶ Document classification
- ▶ Protein prediction
- ▶ Face recognition
- ▶ Speech recognition
- ▶ Vehicle steering etc.



# However...

- ▶ Labeled data can be rare or expensive in many real applications

- Speech
- Medical data
- Protein
- ...

Task: speech analysis

- Switchboard dataset
- telephone conversation transcription
- **400 hours** annotation time for each hour of speech

film ⇒ f ih\_n uh\_gl\_n m

be all ⇒ bcl b iy iy\_tr ao\_tr ao l\_dl

- ▶ Unlabeled data is much cheaper and abundant

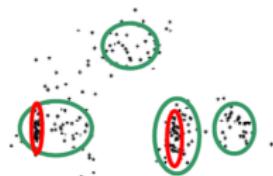
Question: Can we use unlabeled data to help?

# Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)



- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
  - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data

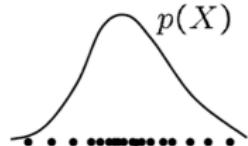


# Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)

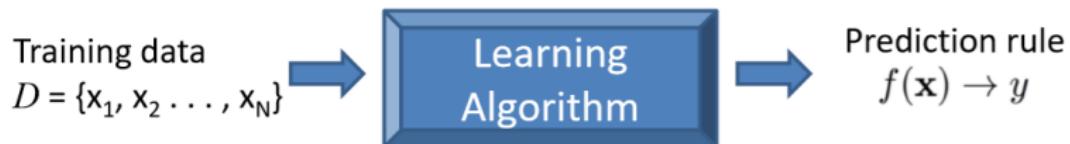


- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
  - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
  - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)

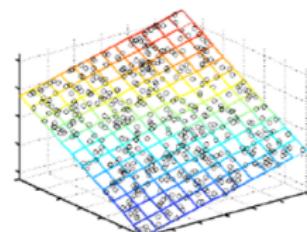


# Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)



- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
  - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
  - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)
  - ▶ Low-dimensional structure
    - ▶ Principal Component Analysis 主元分析 (PCA) (linear)

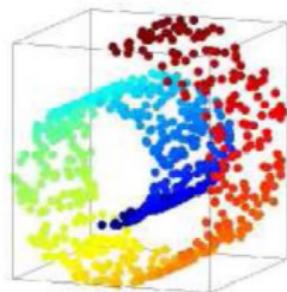


# Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)



- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
  - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
  - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)
  - ▶ Low-dimensional structure
    - ▶ Principal Component Analysis 主元分析 (PCA) (linear)
    - ▶ Manifold learning 流行学习 (non-linear)



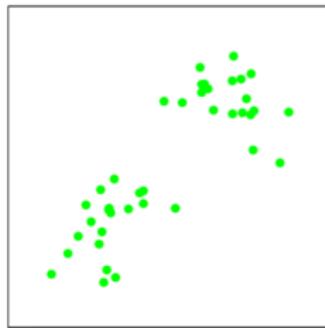
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Clustering

Principle Component Analysis

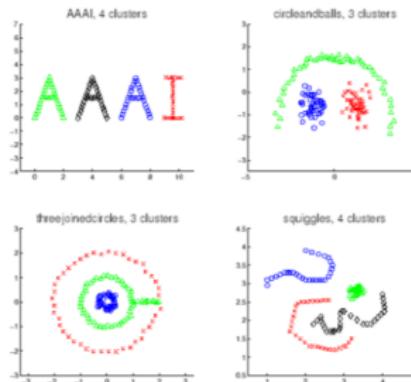
# Clustering



- ▶ Are there any “groups” in the data ?
- ▶ What is each group ?
- ▶ How many ?
- ▶ How to identify them?

# Clustering

- ▶ Group the data objects into subsets or “clusters”:
  - ▶ High similarity within clusters
  - ▶ Low similarity between clusters
- ▶ A common and important task that finds many applications in Science, Engineering, information Science, and other places
  - ▶ Group genes that perform the same function
  - ▶ Group individuals that has similar political view
  - ▶ Categorize documents of similar topics
  - ▶ Identify similar objects from pictures



# Clustering

- ▶ Input: training set of input point

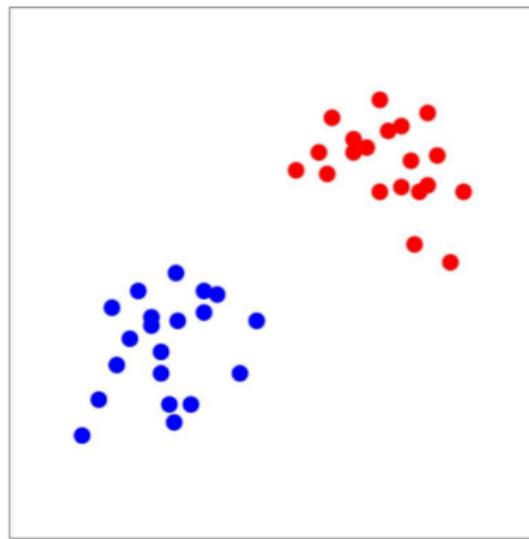
$$D_{train} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

- ▶ Output: assignment of each point to a cluster

(  $C(1), \dots, C(n)$  ) where  $C(i) \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

## K-means clustering

Create centers and assign points to centers to minimize sum of squared distance



## K-means objective

- ▶ Each cluster is represented by a centroid  $\mu$
- ▶ Encode each point by its cluster center, pay a cost for deviation
- ▶ Loss function based on reconstruction

$$Loss_{kmeans} \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

# K-means algorithm

- ▶ Goal:  $\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$



- ▶ Strategy: alternating minimization
  - ▶ Step 1: if know cluster centers  $\mu$ , can find best  $C$
  - ▶ Step 2: if know cluster assignments  $C$ , can find best cluster centers

## K-means algorithm

Optimize loss function  $\text{Loss}(\mu, C)$

$$\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

(1) Fix  $\mu$ , optimize  $C$

$$\min_{C(1), C(2), \dots, C(n)} \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

Assign each point to the nearest cluster center

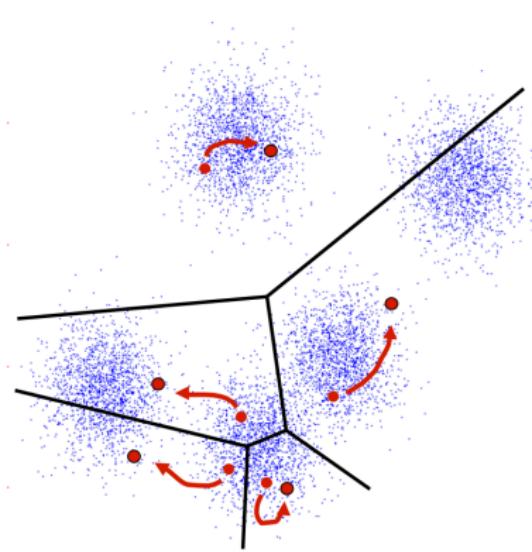
(2) Fix  $C$ , optimize  $\mu$

$$\min_{\mu(1), \mu(2), \dots, \mu(k)} \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

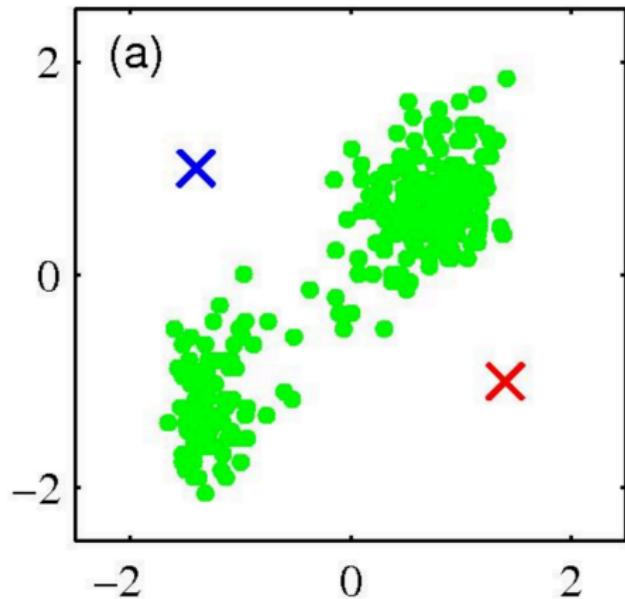
Solution: average of points in cluster  $i$ , exactly second step  
(re-center)

# K-Means

- An iterative clustering algorithm
  - **Initialize:** Pick  $K$  random points as cluster centers
  - **Alternate:**
    1. Assign data points to closest cluster center
    2. Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points
  - Stop when no points' assignments change



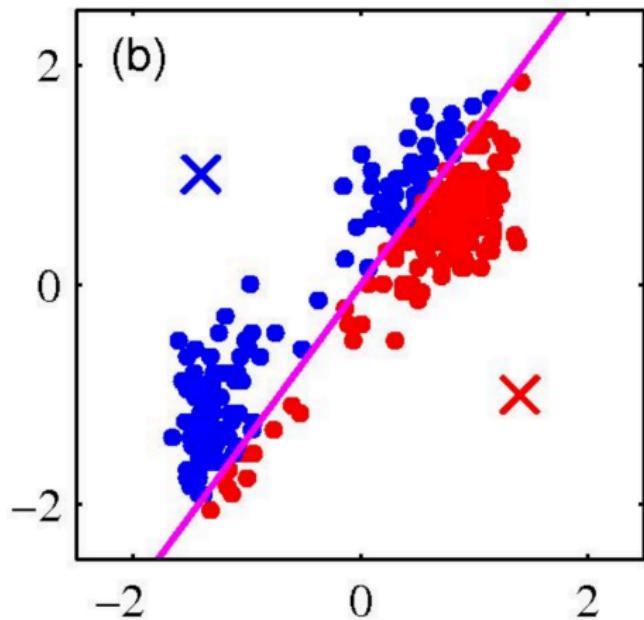
## K-means clustering: Example



- Pick  $K$  random points as cluster centers (means)

Shown here for  $K=2$

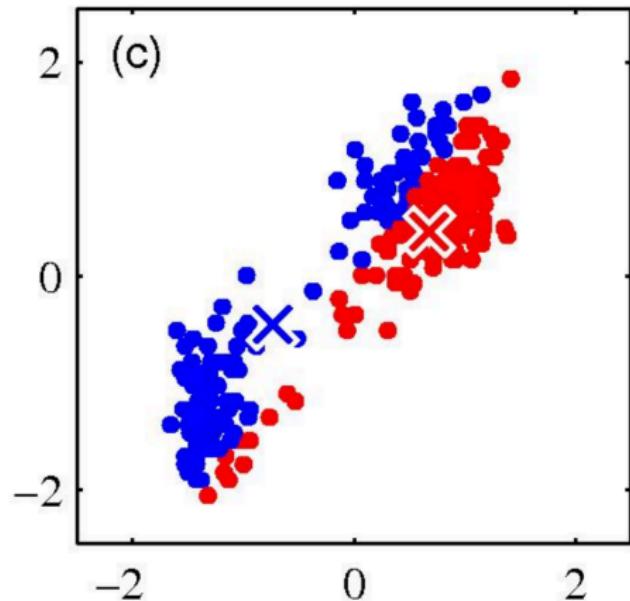
## K-means clustering: Example



### Iterative Step 1

- Assign data points to closest cluster center

## K-means clustering: Example

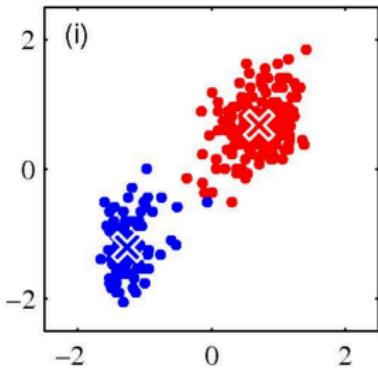
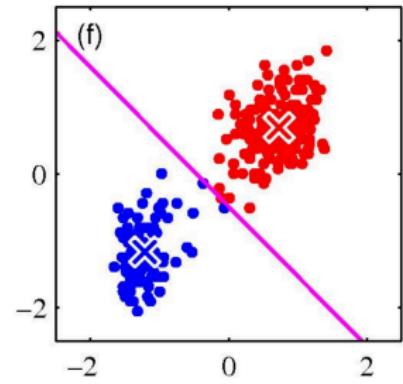
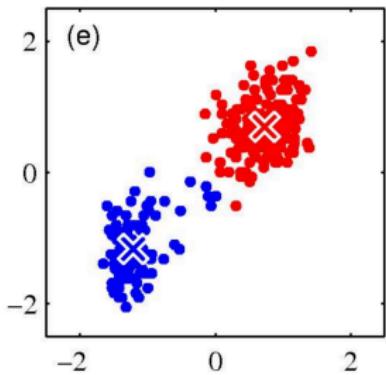
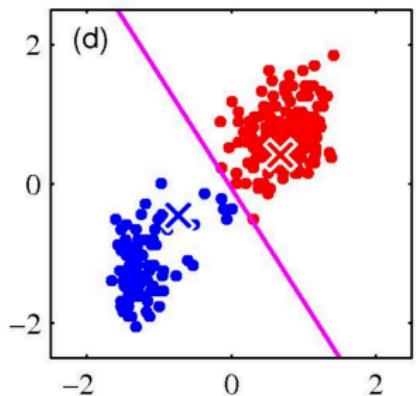


### Iterative Step 2

- Change the cluster center to the average of the assigned points

# K-means clustering: Example

Repeat until convergence



## Properties of K-means algorithm

- ▶ Guaranteed to converge in a finite number of iterations
  - ▶ To a local minimum
  - ▶ The objective is non-convex, so coordinate descent on is not guaranteed to converge to the global minimum
- ▶ Running time per iteration: simple and efficient
  - ▶ Assign data points to closest cluster center

$$O(KN)$$

- ▶ Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points

$$O(N)$$

- ▶ Different initialization will lead to different results
- ▶ K-means problem is **NP-hard** (之前公式的最优解)
- ▶ Not robust to noise and outliers

# K-means convergence

## Objective

$$\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2$$

1. Fix  $\mu$ , optimize  $C$ :

$$\min_C \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2 = \min_c \sum_i^n |x_i - \mu_{x_i}|^2$$

**Step 1 of kmeans**

2. Fix  $C$ , optimize  $\mu$ :

$$\min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2$$

- Take partial derivative of  $\mu_i$  and set to zero, we have

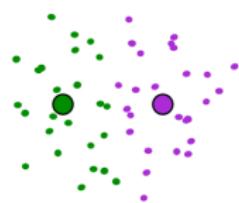
$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$$

**Step 2 of kmeans**

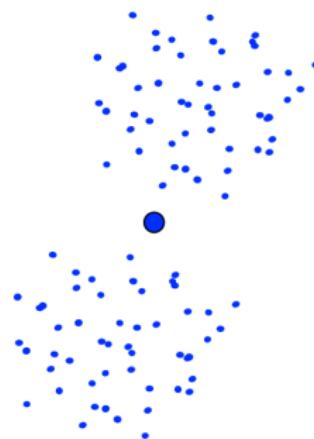
Kmeans takes an alternating optimization approach, each step is guaranteed to decrease the objective – thus guaranteed to converge

# K-means getting stuck

A local optimum:



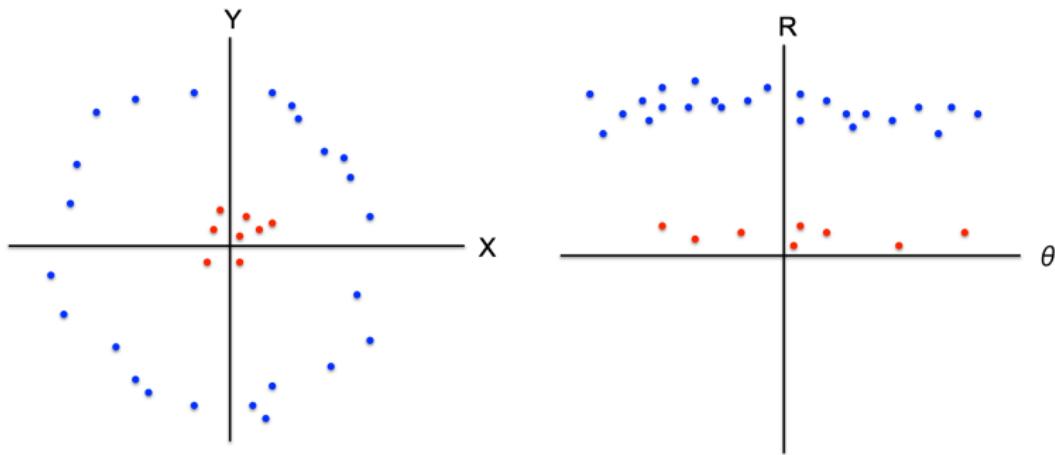
Would be better to have  
one cluster here



... and two clusters here

## K-means not able to properly cluster

Changing the features (distance function) can help



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Principle Component Analysis

# Principle component analysis

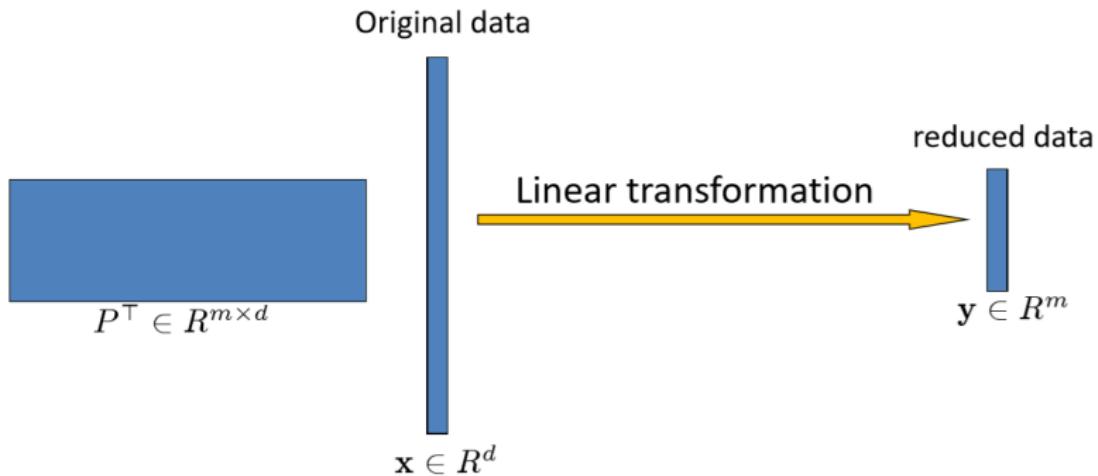
- ▶ What is dimensionality reduction?
- ▶ Why dimensionality reduction?
- ▶ Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- ▶ Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

# What is dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ Dimensionality reduction refers to the mapping of the original high-dimensional data onto a lower-dimensional space.
  - Criterion for dimensionality reduction can be different based on different problem settings.
    - ▶ Unsupervised setting: minimize the information loss  
最近重构性: 样本点到这个超平面的距离都足够近
    - ▶ Supervised setting: maximize the class discrimination  
最大可分性: 样本点在这个超平面上的投影能尽可能分开
    - ▶ 对样本进行中心化处理以后, 两者等价
- ▶ Given a set of data points of  $d$  dimension variables $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$
- ▶ Compute the linear transformation (projection)

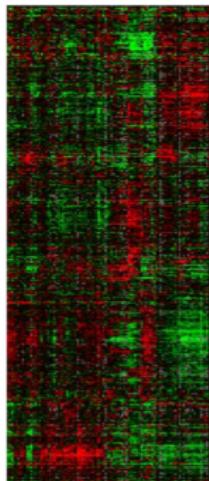
$$P \in R^{d \times m} : \mathbf{x} \in R^d \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = P^\top \mathbf{x} \in R^m \quad (m \ll d)$$

# What is dimensionality reduction?



$$P \in R^{d \times m} : \mathbf{x} \in R^d \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = P^\top \mathbf{x} \in R^m$$

# High-dimensional data



Gene expression



Face images



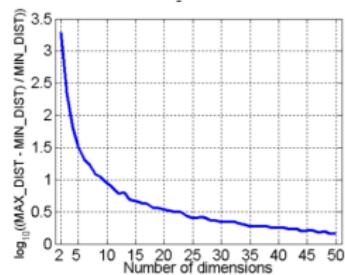
Handwritten digits

# Why dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ Most machine learning and data mining techniques may not be effective for high-dimensional data
  - ▶ Curse of Dimensionality
  - ▶ Query accuracy and efficiency degrade rapidly as the dimension increases.
- ▶ The intrinsic dimension may be small.
  - ▶ For example, the number of genes responsible for a certain type of disease may be small.

# Curse of Dimensionality (维数灾难)

- ▶ When dimensionality increases, data becomes increasingly sparse in the space that it occupies
- ▶ Definitions of density and distance between points, which is critical for clustering and outlier detection, become less meaningful
- ▶ If  $N_1 = 100$  represents a dense sample for a single input problem, then  $N_{10} = 100^{10}$  is the sample size required for the same sampling density with dimension 10.
- ▶ The proportion of a hypersphere (超球面) with radius  $r$  and dimension  $d$ , to that of a hypercube (超立方体) with sides of length  $2r$  and dimension  $d$  converges to 0 as  $d$  goes to infinity —nearly all of the high-dimensional space is “far away” from the center



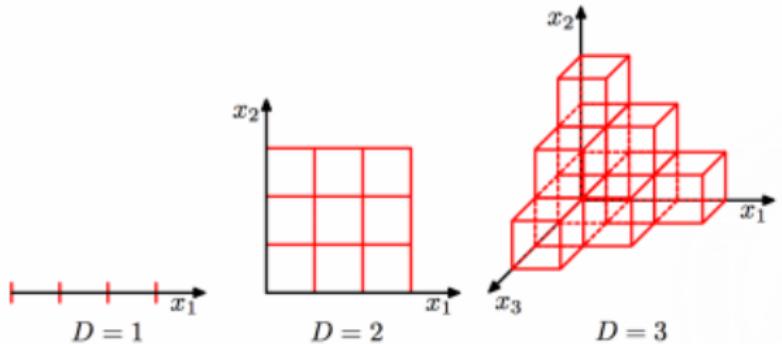
- ▶ Randomly generate 500 points
- ▶ Compute difference between max and min distance between any pair of points

# High dimensional spaces are empty

The volume of an hypercube with an edge length of  $r = 0.1$  is  $0.1^p \rightarrow$  when  $p$  grows, it quickly becomes so small that the probability to capture points from your database becomes very very small...

Points in high dimensional spaces are isolated

To overcome this limitation, you need a number of sample which grows exponentially with  $p$ ...



# Lost in space

Let's consider a hypersphere of radius  $r$  inscribed in a hypercube with sides of length  $2r$ . Then take the ratio of the volume (体积) of the hypersphere to the hypercube. We observe the following trends.

- ▶ in 2 dimensions:

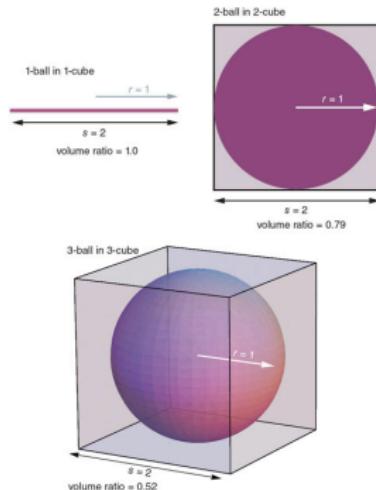
$$\frac{V(S_2(r))}{V(H_2(2r))} = \frac{\pi r^2}{4r^2} = 78.5\%$$

- ▶ in 3 dimensions:

$$\frac{V(S_3(r))}{V(H_3(2r))} = \frac{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}{8r^3} = 52.4\%$$

- ▶ when the dimensionality  $d$  increases asymptotically

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \frac{V(S_d(r))}{V(H_d(2r))} = \lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi^{d/2}}{2^d \Gamma(\frac{d}{2} + 1)} \rightarrow 0$$



## Why dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ **Visualization**: projection of high-dimensional data onto 2D or 3D.
- ▶ **Data compression**: efficient storage and retrieval
- ▶ **Noise removal**: positive effect on query accuracy.

## Application of feature reduction

- ▶ Face recognition
- ▶ Handwritten digit recognition
- ▶ Text mining
- ▶ Image retrieval
- ▶ Microarray data analysis
- ▶ Protein classification
- ▶ ...

# What is Principal Component Analysis?

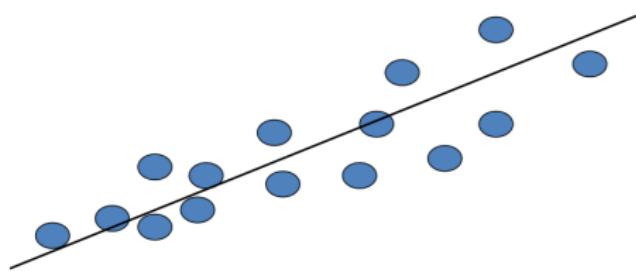
- ▶ Principal component analysis (PCA)
  - Reduce the dimensionality of a data set by finding a new set of variables, smaller than the original set of variables
  - Retains most of the sample's information.
  - Useful for the compression and classification of data.
- ▶ By information we mean the variation present in the sample, given by the correlations between the original variables.
  - ▶ The new variables, called principal components (PCs), are **uncorrelated**, and are ordered by the fraction of the total information each retains.

## Principal components (PCs)

Given  $n$  points in a  $d$  dimensional space, for large  $d$ , how does one project on to a low dimensional space while preserving broad trends in the data and allowing it to be visualized?

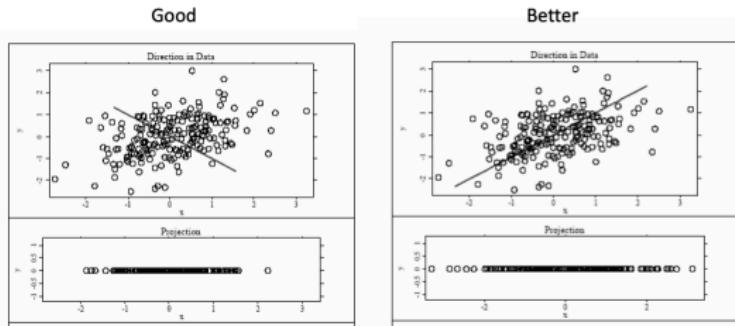
## Geometric picture of principal components

- Given  $n$  points in a  $d$  dimensional space, for large  $d$ , how does one project on to a 1 dimensional space



- Choose a line that fits the data so the points are spread out well along the line

# Let us see it on a figure



PCA 希望降维后信息损失最小，可以理解为投影后的数据尽可能的分开，这种分散程度可以用方差来表示 ( $\mu$  为均值)：

$$Var(a) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i - \mu)^2$$

对数据进行中心化后，即  $\mu = 0$ ：

$$Var(a) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$$

# Geometric picture of principal components

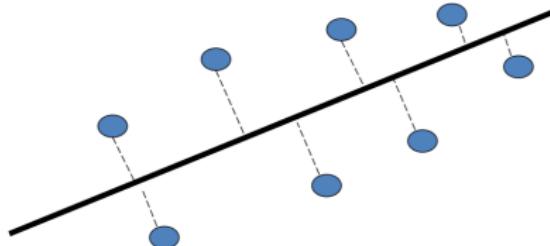
对数据进行中心化:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i,$$

$$\mathbf{x}'_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

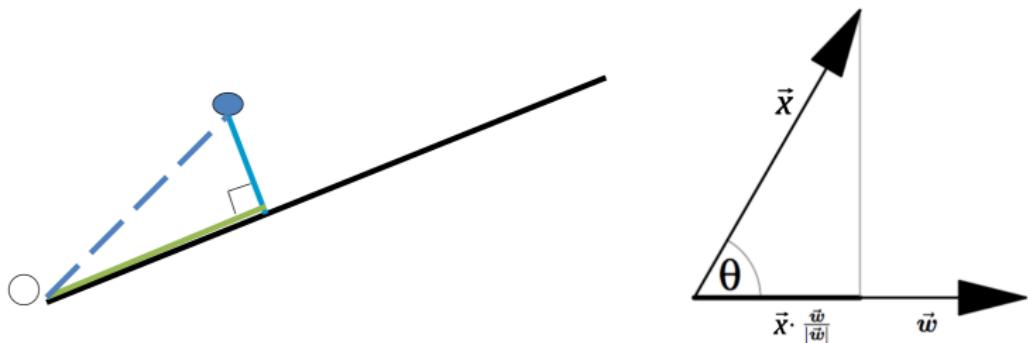
对于中心化以后的数据，即  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}' = 0$ ，以下说法等价: Find a line that

- ▶ maximize the variance of the projected data
- ▶ maximize the sum of squares of data samples' projections on that line
- ▶ minimize the sum of squares of distances to the line



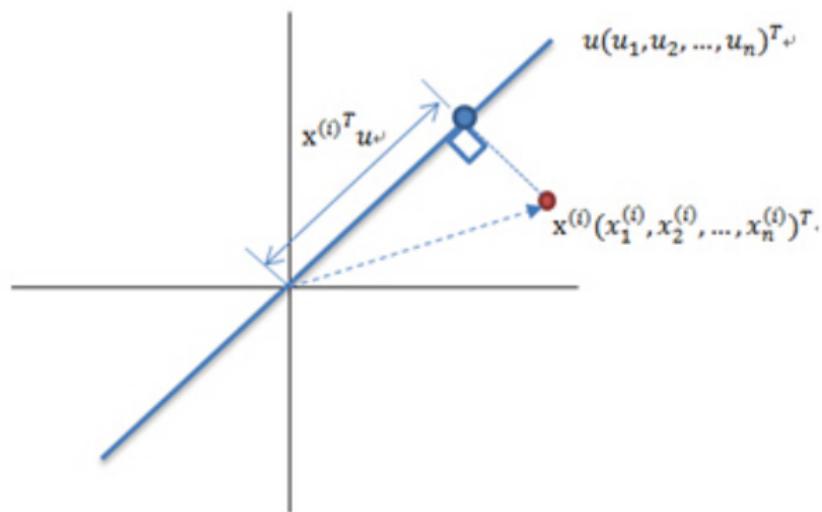
## Algebraic Interpretation — 1D

- ▶ Minimizing sum of squares of distances to the line is the same as maximizing the sum of squares of the projections on that line, thanks to Pythagoras (毕达哥拉斯).



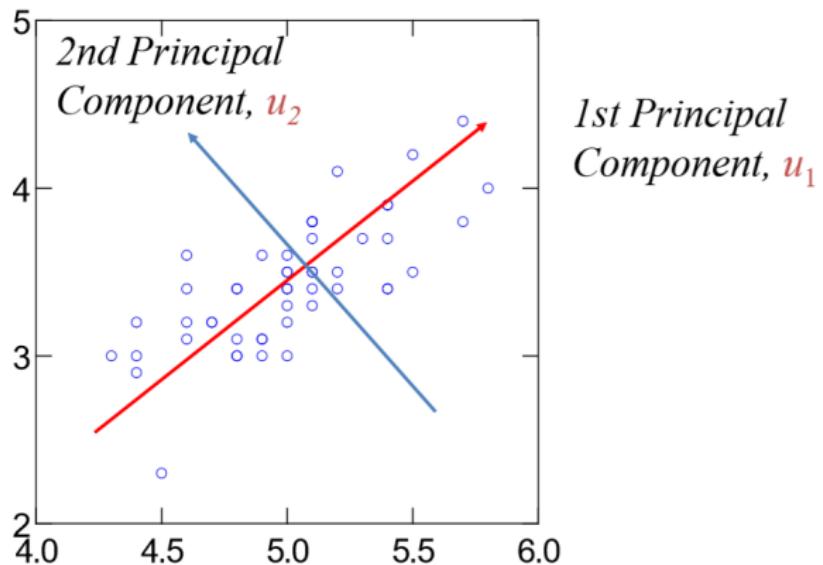
$$\text{投影长度为: } \vec{x}^\top \frac{\vec{w}}{\|\vec{w}\|}$$

## Algebraic Interpretation — 1D



投影长度为:  $x^\top u = u^\top x$  subject to  $u^\top u = 1$

# Geometric picture of principal components



## Geometric picture of principal components

- ▶ the 1<sup>st</sup> PC  $\mathbf{u}_1$  is a minimum distance fit to a line in  $X$  space
- ▶ the 2<sup>nd</sup> PC  $\mathbf{u}_2$  is a minimum distance fit to a line in the plane perpendicular (垂直于) to the 1<sup>st</sup> PC

PCs are a series of linear least squares fits to a sample, each orthogonal (垂直于) to all the previous.

## Algebraic derivation of PCs

- Given a sample of  $n$  observations on a vector of  $d$  variables

$$\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \in R^d$$

- First project the data onto a one-dimensional space with a  $d$ -dimensional vector  $\mathbf{u}_1$  (where  $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$ ):

$$\{\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

- Find  $\mathbf{u}_1$  to maximize the variance of the projected data:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}_1^\top \bar{\mathbf{x}})^2 = \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1$$

Where  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$  and  $S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^\top$

## Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ To solve  $\max_{\mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1$  subject to  $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$
- ▶ Let  $\lambda_1$  be a Lagrangian multiplier (拉格朗日乘子)

$$L = \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1 + \lambda_1 (1 - \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{u}_1} = S \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 = 0$$

$$S \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1$$

⇒  $\mathbf{u}_1$  is an eigenvector (特征向量)

$$\mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1$$

⇒  $\mathbf{u}_1$  corresponds to the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$

- ▶ 即,  $\max_{\mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1$  subject to  $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$  的结果就是矩阵  $S$  的最大特征值
  - ▶ 矩阵  $S$  特征值计算方法: 构造特征多项式  $|S - \lambda I| = 0$  ( $I$  为单位矩阵), 特征值为线性方程组的解

# Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ To find the second component  $\mathbf{u}_2$
- ▶ Solve the following

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2^\top S \mathbf{u}_2 \text{ subject to } \mathbf{u}_2^\top \mathbf{u}_2 = 1 \text{ & } \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_2 = 0$$

- $\mathbf{u}_2$  is the eigenvector with the second largest eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$

...

# Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ Main steps for computing PCs
  - ▶ Calculate the covariance matrix  $S$

$$S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^\top$$

or first center the data:  $\{ \mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_n \}$  and  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}' = 0$

let  $X = [\mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_n] \in R^{d \times n}$ ; then  $S = \frac{1}{n} X X^\top$

- ▶ Find the first  $m$  eigenvectors  $\{ \mathbf{u}_i \}_{i=1}^m$
- ▶ Form the projection matrix

$$P = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_m] \in R^{d \times m}$$

- ▶ A new test point can be projected as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{new} \in R^d \rightarrow P^\top \mathbf{x}_{new} \in R^m$$

# Algebraic derivation of PCs

$$\mathbf{y} = P^\top \mathbf{x} \in R^m$$

- ▶ Getting the old data back?
  - If  $P$  is a square matrix (方阵), we can recover  $\mathbf{x}$  by

$$\mathbf{x} = (P^\top)^{-1} \mathbf{y} = P\mathbf{y} = PP^\top \mathbf{x}$$

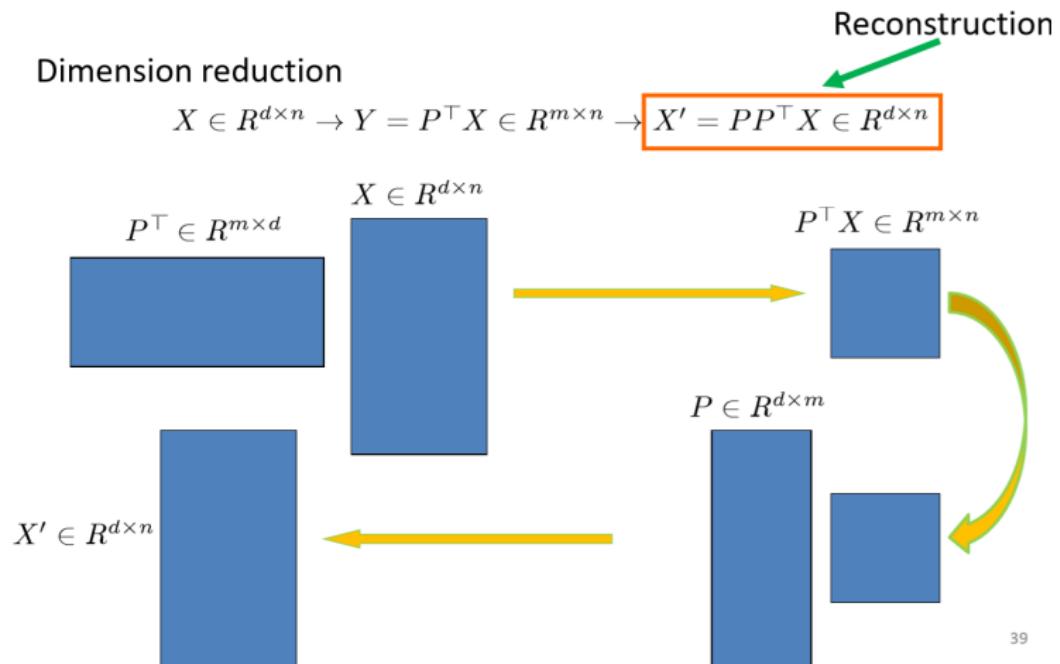
注:  $\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_i = 1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_j = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , then  $P^\top P = I_m$  (where  $m = n$ ) and  $(P^\top)^{-1} = P$

- ▶ Here  $P$  is not full ( $m \ll d$ ), but we can still recover  $\mathbf{x}$  by  $\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{y} = PP^\top \mathbf{x}$ , and lose some information

- ▶ Objective:
  - ▶ Lose least amount of information

# Optimality property of PCA

Dimension reduction



# Optimality property of PCA

Main theoretical result:

The matrix  $P$  consisting of the first  $m$  eigenvectors of the covariance matrix  $S$  solves the following min problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_{P \in R^{d \times m}} \|X - X'\|^2 &= \arg \min_{P \in R^{d \times m}} \|X - PP^T X\|^2 \\ \text{Reconstruction error} &= \arg \max_{P \in R^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(X^T P P^T X) \\ &= \arg \max_{P \in R^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(P^T X X^T P) \\ &= \arg \max_{P \in R^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(P^T S P) \\ \text{subject to} \quad P^T P = I_m \end{aligned}$$

Notice that, for a matrix  $A$   $m \times n$  and  $B$   $n \times m$ ,

$$\text{trace}(AB) = \text{trace}(BA) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{ji}$$

$\arg \min_P \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n (x_{ij} - x'_{ij})^2$  is equivalent to  $\arg \max_P \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} x'_{ij}$ ,  
as  $\sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n x'_{ij}^2 = \text{trace}((PP^T X)^T P P^T X) = \text{trace}(X^T P P^T X)$

PCA projection minimizes the reconstruction error among all linear projections of size  $m$ .

# PCA for image compression



**m=1**



**m=2**



**m=4**



**m=8**



**m=16**



**m=32**



**m=64**



**m=100**



**Original  
Image**

# Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

## Rewrite PCA in terms of dot products

- ▶ Assume the data has been centered, i.e.,  $\sum_i \mathbf{x}_i = 0$
- ▶ The covariance matrix  $S$  can be written as  $S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top$
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{u}$  is an eigenvector of  $S$  corresponding to nonzero eigenvalue

$$S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n\lambda} \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{x}_i$$

- ▶ Eigenvectors of  $S$  lie in the space spanned by all data points

## Kernel methods:

- ▶ denote the representation of  $\mathbf{x}$  as  $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$
- ▶ define the kernel function  $k : \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  
$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \varphi(\mathbf{x}_j)$$
- ▶ define the kernel matrix  $K$ :  $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

# Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

$$S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n\lambda} \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{x}_i$$

The covariance matrix can be written in matrix form

$$S = \frac{1}{n} XX^T, \text{ where } X = [\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n].$$

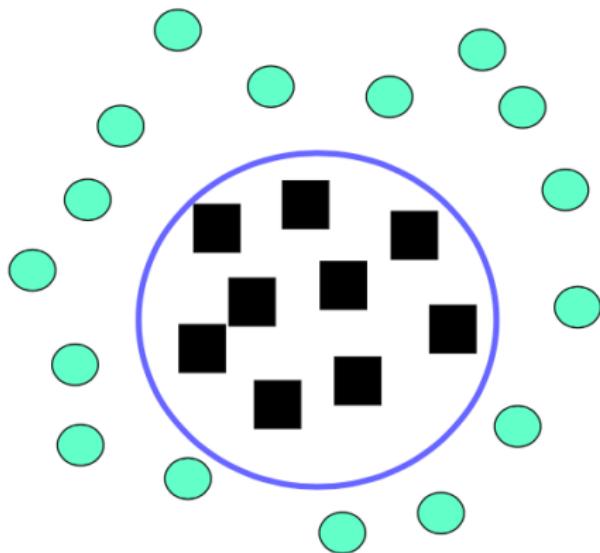
$$\mathbf{u} = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i = X\mathbf{a} \quad S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} XX^T X\mathbf{a} = \lambda X\mathbf{a}$$

$$\frac{1}{n}(X^T X)(X^T X)\mathbf{a} = \lambda(X^T X)\mathbf{a}$$

Any benefits?

$$\xrightarrow{\hspace{2cm}} \boxed{\frac{1}{n}(X^T X)\mathbf{a} = \lambda\mathbf{a}} \xrightarrow{\hspace{2cm}} \boxed{\frac{1}{n}K\mathbf{a} = \lambda\mathbf{a}}$$

## Nonlinear PCA

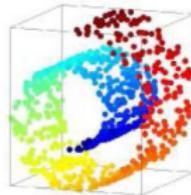


Linear projections  
will not detect the  
pattern.

# Comments on PCA

- ▶ Linear dimensionality reduction method
- ▶ Can be kernelized
- ▶ Many nonlinear dimensionality reduction methods (Isomap, graph Laplacian eigenmap, and locally linear embedding/LLE) can be described as kernel PCA with a special kernel

- ▶ Non-convex optimization problem
- ▶ But easy to solve…

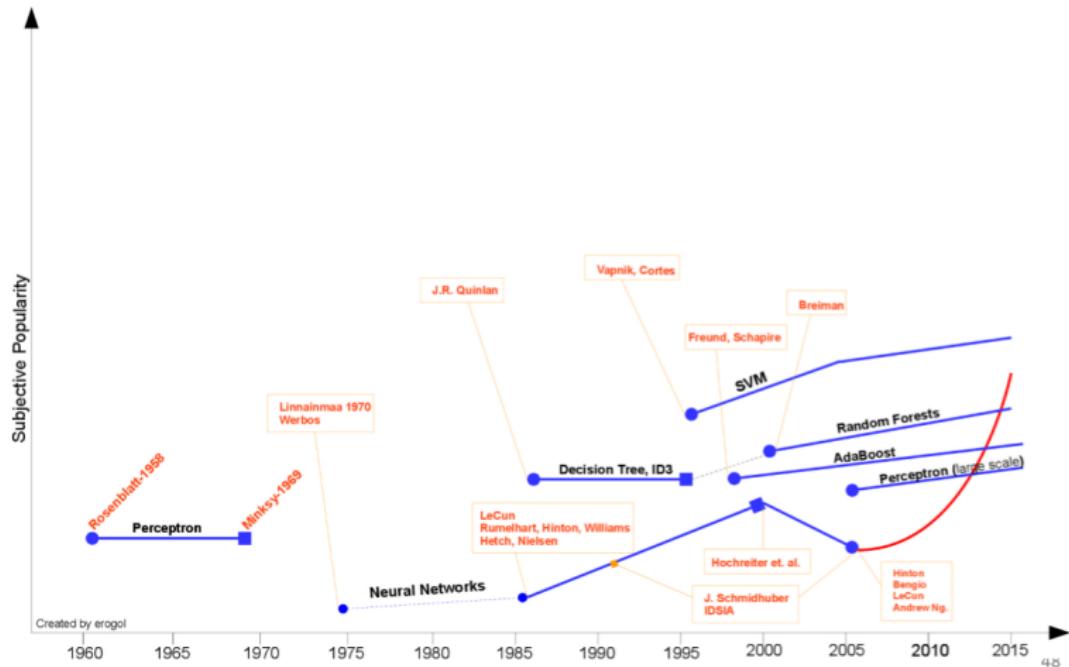


## Want to Learn More?

- ▶ Machine Learning: a Probabilistic Perspective, K. Murphy
- ▶ Pattern Classification, R. Duda, P. Hart, and D. Stork.  
Standard pattern recognition textbook. Limited to classification problems. Matlab code.  
<http://rii.ricoh.com/~stork/DHS.html>
- ▶ Pattern recognition and machine learning. C. Bishop
- ▶ The Elements of statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction. T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, J. Friedman,  
Standard statistics textbook. Includes all the standard machine learning methods for classification, regression, clustering. R code. <http://www-stat-class.stanford.edu/~tibs/ElemStatLearn/>
- ▶ Introduction to Data Mining, P.-N. Tan, M. Steinbach, V. Kumar. AddisonWesley, 2006
- ▶ Principles of Data Mining, D. Hand, H. Mannila, and P. Smyth. MIT Press, 2001
- ▶ 统计学习方法, 李航

# Machine Learning in AI

# Machine Learning History



# Summary

- ▶ **Supervised learning**
  - ▶ Learning Decision Trees
  - ▶ K Nearest Neighbor Classifier
  - ▶ Linear Predictions
  - ▶ Support Vector Machines
- ▶ **Unsupervised learning**
  - ▶ Clustering
  - ▶ Principle Component Analysis

# 作业

- ▶ K-means 算法是否一定会收敛？如果是，给出证明过程；如果不是，给出说明。