

# Beyond Supervised Learning

## Week 1: UNSUPERVISED LEARNING

### Clustering

Looks at data points and finds points similar to each other. No labels! Tries to find clusters of similarity among the data.

#### Applications:

- market segmentation
- similar news topics
- DNA analysis
- Astronomy: galaxy grouping

#### K-Means Algorithm

Intuition: Randomly choose starting cluster centroids, assign points to the nearest centroid, move the centroid to avg. of its cluster. Repeat assignment & update until stable.

algorithm k-means ( $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ):  
  initialize random  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
  repeat  
    for  $i \in [1, \dots, n]$   
       $c[i] = \arg \min_{j \in [1, k]} \|x_i - \mu_j\|^2$

    for  $i \in [1, k]$

$$\mu_i = \text{avg}\{x_j \mid c[j] = i\}$$

  or delete  $\mu_i$  if  $\forall j \text{ s.t. } c[j] = i$

Another option:  
randomly

re-gen. but this is common ...

What if clusters are not well separated?  
Can still create helpful clusters...

Optimization objective: the k-means alg.  
is still minimizing a cost function.

Distortion function

$$J(C_1, \dots, C_m, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_k) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_i - \mu_{c_i}\|^2$$

i.e. trying to minimize the avg. distance  
of a point to the centroid of the cluster  
to which it's assigned.

The algorithm repeatedly reduces  $J$  in  
two steps: repeat {

shrink → assign closest cluster & point  
by moving  $c_i$  → update each cluster center  
shrink by moving  $\mu_{c_i}$

So each iteration should strictly reduce  $J$   
and thus it will decrease  $J$  monotonically  
until convergence (or close enough).

Initialization. Choose  $k \leq m$  samples/  
Init  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k$  to a random  
subset of samples:

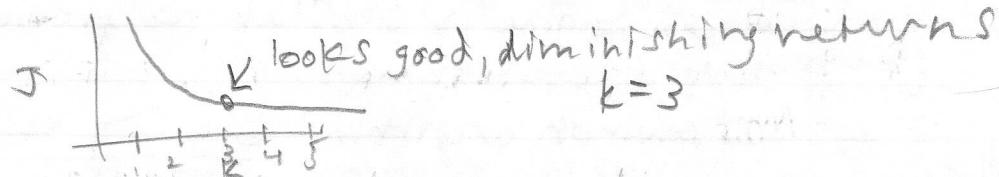
# Easy to get stuck in unfortunate local  
minima clusters... Can run it multiple  
times and pick the one w/ lowest  $J$ .

## How to choose the number of clusters?

- to some extent ambiguous
- automatically: algorithms vary, for example:

Elbow method: plot  $k$  vs.  $J$

(note:  
 $K = \text{algorithm}$   
doesn't work:  
choose  $K = m$ )



- but for many applications this is a matter of judgment... choose it to maximize performance on actual target metric (i.e. application domain)

## Anomaly Detection

Example: identify anomalous (possibly bad) aircraft engines given manufacturing line observations and test data. Idea: determine if an engine is similar to previous ones.

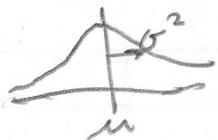
Most common algorithm: Density estimation.

- build a model that predicts the  $P(x)$  for new  $x$
- choose small  $\epsilon$ , if  $P(x) < \epsilon$ , flag.

Other examples: fraud detection, cluster/TC monitoring

## Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $P(x)$  is determined by  $\mu = \text{mean}$  and  $\text{variance} = \sigma^2$ . Dist. follows a bell curve:  $(\sigma = \text{std dev})$



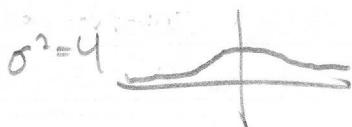
Drawing 100 numbers from a normal dist. should give a histogram roughly following the bell curve shape.

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Also recall

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x) dx = 1$$

For fixed  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$  determines width & height of the bell:



$$\sigma^2 = 0.5$$



So given dataset  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$  we need to do parameter estimation:

$$\begin{cases} \mu = \arg \left\{ x_i \right\} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i x_i \\ \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \end{cases} \quad (*)$$

(these are the MLE (maximum likelihood estimate) for  $\mu, \sigma^2$ )  
(sometimes  $\frac{1}{m-1}$  is preferred)

For  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  given training set  $\{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_m\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

$$P(\vec{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i; \mu_i, \sigma_i^2) \quad \text{(note: this assumes the components of } \vec{x} \text{ are statistically independent)}$$

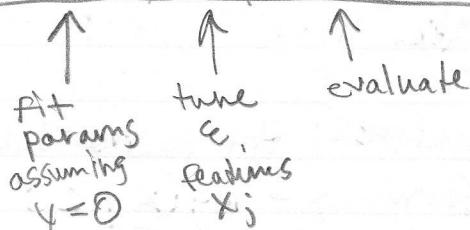
where  $\mu_i$  and  $\sigma_i^2$  are computed as in (\*) above from the training set  $\{x_{i1}, \dots, x_{in}\}$ .

To summarize:

1. Choose features  $x_i$  indicative of anomaly
2. Fit params  $\mu_i, \sigma_i^2$  for each feature
3. Compute  $P(\vec{x})$  assuming feature independence
4. Flag as anomaly if  $P(\vec{x}) < \epsilon$  small (choose this)

### Evaluation

Given some labeled data of anomalous and not examples,  $(x, y)$  where  $x = \text{example}$ ,  $y = \{0, \text{it's not okay}; 1, \text{it's anomalous}\}$ .  
Create train, CV, test sets.



(note: if really very few  $y=1$  examples, maybe skip test set and  $\sim 0.5$ )

(note: we assume  
y=0 for training set)  
(y=0 common  
for anom. set to  
be very small)

For CV / test set eval: compute accuracy score for a classification problem. If very skewed consider confusion matrix, precision/recall, F<sub>1</sub>.

If you have some anomalies (example), why do anomaly detection and not just classification models? (i.e. unsupervised vs. supervised)

→ Use anomaly detection with:

- very small # of positive (anom.) examples
- many diff. types of anomalies and we may see completely new ones — a model that encodes past forms of anomaly may not recognize new ones

### Anomaly detection

fraud detection  
manufacturing: identify prev. unseen defects  
data center monitoring

### Classification

spam detection  
marketing:  
identify known defects  
weather prediction  
disease classification

anomaly detection  
obviously dangerous  
for small filtering!

### Feature Selection

→ Non-gaussian features: try to transform them

- log transform  $x \rightarrow \log(x + c)$
- other transforms  $X \rightarrow \sqrt{X}$  etc.

## Error analysis

If not performing well, look at losses.

Common:  $P(\gamma)$  common for both  $y=0$  and  $y=1$ .

Idea: think about what makes the example anomalous for the losses, and encode that as a new feature.

Good to find features that take unusually large or small values in case of anomaly.

Can transform, make feature crosses.