Computational Linear Algegbra For Large Scale Problems

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Spectral Clustering Homework

The aim of this homework is to implement and apply **Spectral Clustering** to two different sets of datapoints in \mathbb{R}^2 . The two sets are shown in Figure 1

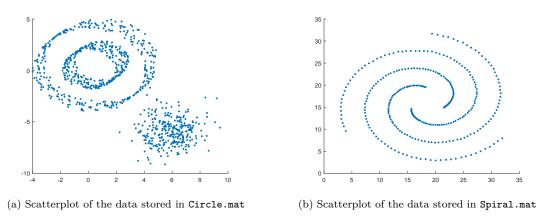


Figure 1: Scatterplot of the two Datasets

As it is clearly visible through visual inspection, both datasets contain 3 different shapes that can be classified as different clusters. In the Circle dataset there are two concentrical circles and a cloud of points in the bottom right while in the Spiral dataset there are 3 spirals. Traditional clustering algorithms, that mainly rely on euclidean distance, may fail in recognizing the presence of shapes in our data hence our need to rely on a different technique called **Spectral clustering**.

1 K-Nearest Neighborhood Graph

First, we need to define a similarity function that measures "how much our points are similar to each other". Let X_i and X_j be two points in our data, then we will use a similarity measure defined as:

$$s_{i,j} = \exp\left(-\frac{\|X_i - X_j\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
 (1.1)

Then, a K-Nearest Neighborhood similarity graph is a Graph G = (V, E) where each vertex $v_1, \ldots v_n$ represents a point and two vertices v_i and v_j are connected by an undirected edge $e_{i,j}$ if the similarity between v_i and v_j is among the K-th highest similarities between v_i and other vertices in V. For such graph we can define the relative adjacency matrix as $W_{i,j} = s_{i,j}$ where each entry $W_{i,j}$ is nonzero only if there exists an edge between v_i and v_j . W has zero-values on the diagonal by definition.

The following MATLAB code was use to generate the K-NN similarity graph of our data:

```
function [G, W] = knn_graph(X, K, sigma)
     \mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{\sc MA}}}\mbox{\sc n} adjacency matrix of a K-nn graph has, for each column and row, only K
     \mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{$\mbox{$\mathcal{M}}$}}} nonzero elements that correspond to the nearest neighbors of each point.
     N = length(X);
     X = X(:,1:2);
 6
     W = sparse(N, N);
9
     for i = 1:N %for each point
          \mbox{\ensuremath{\mbox{\tiny $M$}}}\xspace Compute the similarity for every other point
10
          sim = exp(-((X(i, 1)- X(:, 1)).^2 + (X(i, 2)- X(:, 2)).^2)/(2*sigma^2));
11
          sim(i) = 0; %set similarity with itself to 0
[sim, idx] = maxk(sim, K); %Compute the K most similar points and its indices
12
13
          W(i, idx) = sim; %set values of the adjacency matrix
14
          W(idx, i) = sim;
16
     end
     G = graph(W);
17
```

Running knn_graph on both dataset using $\sigma = 1$ and testing with K = 10, 20, 40 gave the following results:

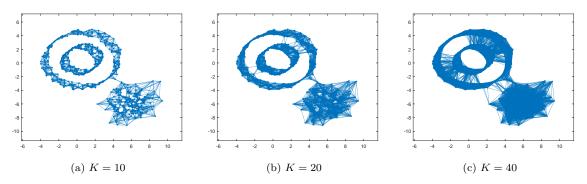


Figure 2: K-NN graphs plots for Circle data with different values of K

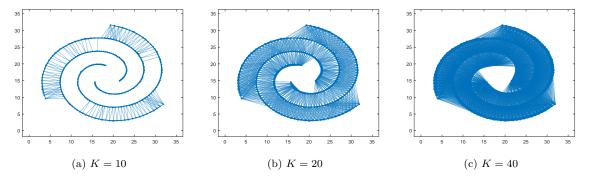


Figure 3: K-NN graphs plots for Spiral data with different values of K

Our objective is to find a K-NN graph that "separates well" the shapes, meaning that in the best case each shape is a connected component of the graph. As we can see, for both Circle and Spiral data, the value K=10 seems to separate the shapes well. We will quantify the concept of good cluster separation in the next section.

2 Degree and Laplacian Matrices

The Degree matrix D is a diagonal matrix that has the degree of each node on the diagonal where the degree of a node v_i is the sum of the weights of all the edges that are connected to such node. Since in our case edge weights correspond to similarities, the degree of each node is the sum of the similarities with all of its neighbors. This can be simply achieved with the following:

$$D = \operatorname{diag}(W1) \tag{2.1}$$

Since the Laplacian matrix is defined as L = D - W, we use the following code to compute both D and L:

```
function [L, D] = graph_laplacian(W)
D = sparse(diag(sum(W)));
L = D-W;
end
```

After computing both matrices for each dataset and for each value of K we are testing for the K-NN graph we can inspect each Laplacian matrix using the spy command in MATLAB:

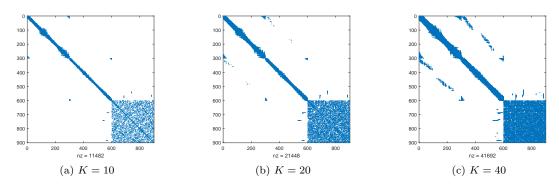


Figure 4: spy plots of the Laplacian matrix for Circle data with different values of K

In Figure 4 we can see that, for each Laplacian matrix inspected, there are 3 sections. Each section defines a "shape cluster" in the Circle dataset: the first one is clearly visible in the bottom right corner of each matrix and it is relative to the point cloud. The other two sections are along the diagonal in the top left of the matrix, they are somewhat visible for K=10 and K=20 and they are relative to the two "circles" visible in the scatterplot in Figure 1. The Laplacian matrix inspected for K=40 clearly shows a sort of **data pollution** from one shape cluster to another, this might suggest that the value K=40 may be too high for deploying the clustering.

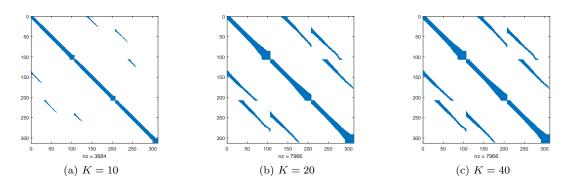


Figure 5: spy plots of the Laplacian matrix for Spiral data with different values of K

The same concept can be applied for Figure 5. Along the diagonal, three sections are visible and they represent the three different spirals seen in Figure 1. As for Circle data, the KNN graph

computed on the Spiral data with K=40 shows pollution between each spiral and this is visibile since there are a lot of non-zero elements away from the diagonal.

The recurrent theme for both dataset is that the more K is higher, the more each shape will "pollute" another. This means that the corresponding Laplacian matrix will show a **lot of non-zero elements away from the diagonal** and this is a phenomenon that can (and will) impact computational costs.

3 Connected components computation

In order to compute the number of connected components in each graph we use the following result:

Theorem 3.1. Let $G = (\mathcal{V}, W)$ be a finite graph and let L be its laplacian matrix. Then L has $\lambda = 0$ as an eigenvalue and its algebraic multiplicity correspond to the number of connected components in G.

Using the Matlab function eigs we can compute the smallest C=6 eigenvalues of both graphs laplacian matrices L and for each value of K obtaining the following results:

K = 10	K = 20	K = 40
8.5482e-17	2.4854e-16	8.1617e-16
3.7050e-16	0.0111	0.0482
0.0048	0.0652	0.7028
0.0286	0.1620	0.7797
0.0425	0.1724	0.9065
0.0429	0.3220	1.376

Table 1: Smallest 6 eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix for the circle dataset

K = 10	K = 20	K = 40
1.0496e-16	1.7853e-16	4.0554e-16
1.9667e-04	0.0018	0.0023
2.7219e-04	0.0020	0.0025
0.0041	0.0048	0.0049
0.0044	0.0054	0.0062
0.0046	0.0056	0.0067

Table 2: Smallest 6 eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix for the spiral dataset

From a visual inspection of both dataset we would expect to find 3 connected components and consequently an eigenvalue $\lambda = 0$ of both laplacian matrices with algebraic multiplicity M = 3.

Considering the case K=10 for both datasets we can see that the first 3 eigenvalues are "almost" equal to 0, and we can see a jump in order of magnitude from the fourth eigenvalue. On the other hand the cases K=20 and K=40 show that only the first eigenvalue could be considered equal to 0 (which is always true) but the second and third eigenvalues are somewhat smaller than the others.

This behaviour is perfectly in line with the "data pollution" concept seen graphically in 2. We can in fact interpret an "almost null" eigenvalue as an eigenvalue corresponding to an "almost connected component". The less the component is "isolated", the greater its eigenvalue will be. In the case K=10 we clearly have 3 connected components that are isolated fairly well, hence the value of the first 3 eigenvalues are almost 0 for both graphs. In the cases K=20 and K=40, the 3 connected

components that we expected are not well isolated and present a lot of edges from one to another, hence the first 3 eigenvalues are not small enough to be considered null.

In any case we consider M=3 the number of connected components and construct the matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 3}$ using the M=3 eigenvectors u_1, u_2, u_3 corresponding to the first 3 eigenvalues as columns.

The following Matlab code was used for the computation in this section:

```
%% --- TASK 3-4-5 ---
    n_eigs=6;
    U circle={};
   U_spiral={};
    eigs_circle={};
    eigs_spiral={};
    for i=1:length(K) %for each value of K tested
8
        [U_circle{i}, eigs_circle{i}] = eigs(L_circle{i}, n_eigs, 'smallestabs'); %compute the n_eigs
         smallest eigenvalues for circle
        [U_spiral{i}, eigs_spiral{i}] = eigs(L_spiral{i}, n_eigs, 'smallestabs'); %same for spiral
11
    end
12
    for i = 1:length(K)
13
        %simple code to generate a matrix where in each column the eigenvalues
        %are listed for each value of K tested
16
        eigs_circle_tot(:,i) = diag(eigs_circle{i});
17
        eigs_spiral_tot(:,i) = diag(eigs_spiral{i});
    end
18
19
   M=3; %using the first 3 eigenvectors
    for i = 1:length(K)
20
        %trim the matrix U to the first M columns
21
        U_circle{i} = U_circle{i}(:, 1:M);
        U_spiral{i} = U_spiral{i}(:, 1:M);
23
24
    end
```

4 Performing Spectral Clustering

After computing the matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 3}$ for both the circle and the spiral datasets and for each $K \in \{10, 20, 40\}$ we can now finally deploy a clustering algorithm.

Let $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^M$ be the vector corresponding to the *i*-th row of the matrix U. Then we can use the K-Means algorithm to cluster the points y_i , $i \in \{1, ..., N\}$ into M clusters and assign the original datapoints to the same cluster as their corresponding rows in U.

The following code was used in order to perform clustering:

```
1  %% --- TASK 6-7-8---
2  M=3;
3  idx_circle={}; %cluster labels for circle dataset
4  idx_spiral={}; %same for spiral
5
6
7  for i = 1:length(K)
8   idx_circle{i} = kmeans(U_circle{i}, M);
9   idx_spiral{i} = kmeans(U_spiral{i}, M);
100  end
```

Hence for both dataset we obtain 3 different clusterings, one for each value of K tested. Plotting the results we obtain:

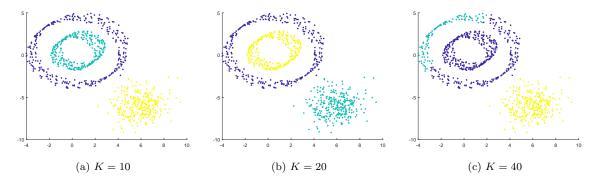


Figure 6: Spectral clustering for circle data with different values of K

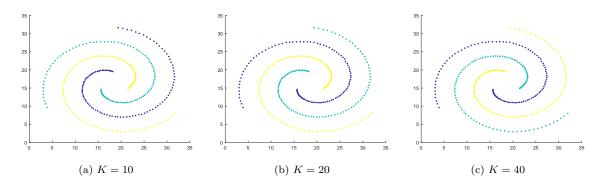


Figure 7: Spectral clustering for spiral data with different values of K

As it is clearly visible in Figure 6, performing spectral clustering on the circle data yields good results both in the case with K=10 and K=20. The same couldn't be said about the case K=40 where the effect of pollution from one shape to another leads to poor results in terms of the proficiency of the algorithm to distinguish shapes.

Although not every value of K yields good results for the circle data, the same isn't true for the Spiral data, where the presence of edges between spirals in the adjacency graph seems to have no effects on the fitness of the clustering, even with K = 40.

5 Comparison with other clustering algorithms

In this section we will test other clustering algorithm on the data, visualizing how they perform in comparison with the spectral clustering performed above.

5.1 Plain *Kmeans* Algorithm

Performing the plain K-means algorithm on our data yields poor results since the algorithm is based on euclidean distance. This is the reason it fails to recognize shapes other than balls.

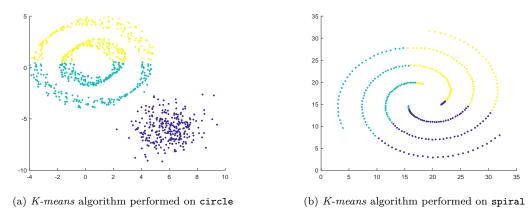


Figure 8: K-means algorithm performed onto the datasets

As it is clearly visible in figure 8, the *K-means* algorithm performed on spatial data is only able to recognize the cloud of points in the circle data since is euclidean-ball shaped. It clearly fails to recognize any other shape and this results in a very poor clustering with regard to shaped data.

5.2 DBSCAN algorithm

The DBSCAN algorithm is an "explorative" approach to clustering. Without going into details, at its core the DBSCAN algorithm populate each cluster by searching the neighborhood of each point in the cluster hence performs much better at recognizing shapes than the plain *K-means* algorithm.

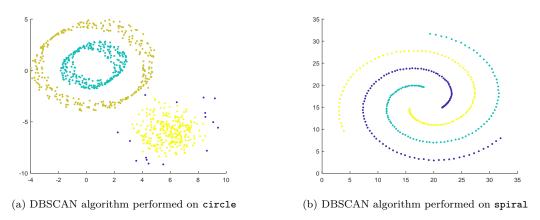


Figure 9: DBSCAN algorithm performed onto the datasets

The results of the clustering are shown in Figure 9. Those are obtained using the dbscan function in MATLAB performing some minor tuning of the parameters. In particular the clustering for the circle data was obtained using the default metric of the algorithm which is the euclidean distance while for the spiral data the Mahalanobis distance was used.

As it is visible in Figure 9 the DBSCAN algorithm is perfectly capable of recognizing shapes and correctly classifies all points of the two datasets with the only exception of some points in the circle dataset.

6 Testing the algorithm on other datasets

We tried to use the spectral clustering algorithm on other datasets, focusing on 3-dimensional clustering problems. Three datasets have been chosen to benchmark the algorithm: the tetra, chainlink and atom datasets. They were downloaded from this link.

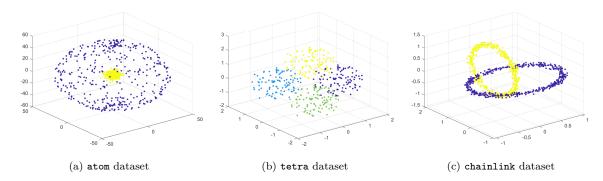


Figure 10: 3D-scatterplots of the three datasets used for benchmarking

Different values of K were used for these datasets. In particular, we experimented with values $K \in \{5, 10, 20\}$. Plots of the adjacency graphs are shown for K = 5:

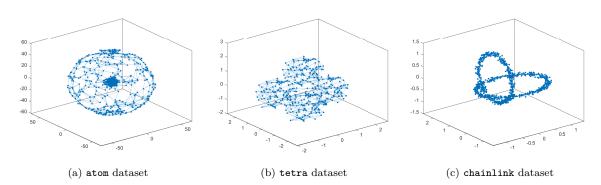


Figure 11: Adjacency graph plot for the three datasets, computed with K=5

For every dataset and every value of K we hence have an adjacency graph from which we can recover the relative Laplacian matrix L. From a quick estimation of the conditioning number k we notice that each Laplacian matrix computed is **ill conditioned**, conditioning numbers span in fact from $k \sim 10^{17}$ for the tetra dataset to $k \sim 10^{61}$ atom dataset. The Laplacian matrix of the atom dataset is extremely ill conditioned and this will result in very inaccurate computation of its eigenvectors.

As in 3 we have chosen the number of cluster from evaluation of the eigenvalues of each Laplacian matrix L and used M=2 for the atom dataset, M=4 for tetra and M=2 for chainlink. Performing the K-means algorithm on the truncated eigenvector matrix as in 4 produced the following results:

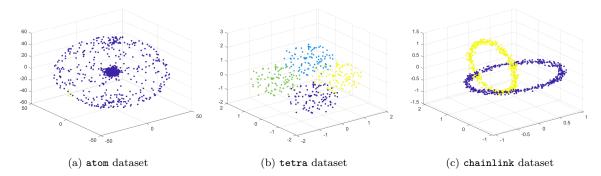


Figure 12: Spectral clustering performed on three datasets, best results of K are shown

As it is clearly visible from figure 12 we can see that the Spectral Clustering Algorithm performs well on both atom and chainlink datasets while it is not able to correctly cluster points from the atom dataset. This is due to the fact that the computation of the eigenvalues for the Laplacian matrix L is very inaccurate due to its bad conditioning number.

7 Implementing a method for the eigenvectors and eigenvalues computation

In order to implement the Spectral clustering algorithm we heavily relied on the computation of eigenvectors and eigenvalues. In particular, we have computed eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the Laplacian matrix L relative to the neighborhood graph in order to perform the clustering in the space of the eigenvectors where points are well separated (in an euclidean sense).

In this section we focus on implementing an iterative algorithm to compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix starting with the smallest eigenvalue λ_1 and relative eigenvector u_1 and then continuing with the computation of λ_2 , λ_3 ... λ_K until a desired number K of eigenvalues has been computed.

The algorithm is based on the **Power Method** and the **Deflation** principle. Let's start with a brief explanation of what the power method does.

The Power Method

The power method is an iterative algorithm that, given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, gives as output the greatest eigenvalue in modulus λ_1 and its relative eigenvalue u_1 .

Let $v_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an initial vector and let $\sigma(A) = \{\lambda_2, \lambda_2, ... \lambda_n\}$ be the spectrum of A with eigenvalues sorted in a descending order of magnitude. Let $u_1, u_2, ... u_n$ be the relative eigenvectors of each eigenvalue. If the matrix A is diagonalizable, then its eigenvectors form a basis for \mathbb{R}^n , hence:

$$v_0 = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n$$

Furthermore:

$$v_1 := Av_0 = \alpha_1 A u_1 + \alpha_2 A u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n A u_n = \tag{7.1}$$

$$\alpha_1 \lambda_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \lambda_n u_n \tag{7.2}$$

$$\lambda_1 \left(\alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} u_n \right) \tag{7.3}$$

Then if we define $v_k := A^k v_0$, using 7.1 iteratively we find that:

$$v_k = \lambda_1^k \left(\alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^k u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^k u_n \right)$$
 (7.4)

Since $\lim_{k\to\infty} \left(\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1}\right)^k = 0$ for all $i\in\{2,3,...n\}$, we find out that:

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_1^k} v_k = \alpha_1 u_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{v_{k+1}}{v_k} = \lambda_1$$
 (7.5)

where the limit operator used in conjunction with vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is to be intended *component-wise*.

Given v_0 and v_k defined before, let us now define the Rayleigh quotient as follows:

$$\mathcal{R}_A^{(k)} := \frac{v_k^T A v_k}{v_k^T v_k} = \frac{v_k^T v_{k+1}}{v_k^T v_k} \tag{7.6}$$

Using 7.4, after some computation, it can be proved that:

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{v_k^T v_{k+1}}{v_k^T v_k} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \left(\frac{\lambda_1^{2k+1}}{\lambda_1^{2k}} \right) \left(\frac{\alpha_1^2 u_1^T u_1 + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^{k+1} + \dots + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}\right)^{k+1}}{\alpha_1^2 u_1^T u_1 + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k + \dots + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1}\right)^k} \right) = \lambda_1$$
 (7.7)

Given the results shown above, we are now ready to define the Power Method Algorithm based on the Rayleigh Quotient convergence criterium. The following algorithm returns both the greatest eigenvalue in modulus of the matrix A and its corresponding eigenvector.

Algorithm 1 Power Method with Rayleigh Quotient

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{Given } v_{\text{old}} \neq 0, \, \lambda_1^{\text{old}} = 1 \\ & v_{\text{old}} \leftarrow \frac{v_{\text{old}}}{\|v_{\text{old}}\|} \\ & K \leftarrow 0 \\ & \textbf{while } K \leq \texttt{MaxIter and } \frac{|\lambda_1^{\text{new}} - \lambda_1^{\text{old}}|}{\lambda_1^{\text{new}}} > \texttt{tol do} \\ & \lambda_1^{\text{old}} \leftarrow \lambda_1^{\text{new}} \\ & v_{\text{new}} \leftarrow Av_{\text{old}} \\ & \lambda_1^{\text{new}} \leftarrow v_{\text{old}}^T v_{\text{new}} \\ & K \leftarrow K + 1 \\ & \textbf{end while} \\ & \textbf{return } \lambda_1^{\text{new}}, \, v_{\text{new}} \end{aligned}
```

Through some algebraic estimation of 7.7, it is possible to prove that the speed of convergence is controlled by the factor $\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^k$ hence the speed of convergence depends on how much the greatest eigenvector λ_1 is far from λ_2 in the spectrum space. Moreover, for symmetric matrices, since eigenvectors form an orthonormal basis, the speed of convergence of the algorithm doubles.