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### General

Basics

Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality:  $|u \cdot v| \le ||u|| ||v||$ 

## **Probability Basics**

 $\Pr[a \le X \le b] = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$ 

Cumulative distribution function:  $F_X(x) = P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt$ 

Bayes:  $p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)} = p(\mathsf{model}|\mathsf{data}) = \frac{p(\mathsf{data}|\mathsf{model})p(\mathsf{model})}{p(\mathsf{data})}$ Posterior probability  $\propto \mathsf{Likelihood} \times \mathsf{Prior}$  probability

Markov inequality  $\mathbb{P}(g(X) \geq r) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[g(X)]}{r}$ Chebyshev inequality  $\mathbb{P}(|X - \mu| \geq \epsilon) \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}$ Jensen inequality  $\varphi(\mathrm{E}[X]) \leq \mathrm{E}\left[\varphi(X)\right]$  where  $\varphi$  is a convex function. E.g. log(x) if x > 0

Law of large numbers  $\mathbb{P}(|\frac{S_n}{n} - \mu| \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{n \cdot \epsilon^2} \to 0$  if  $n \to 0$ Bound on disjunction:  $\max \mathbb{P}(A_1), \dots, \mathbb{P}(A_n) \le \mathbb{P}(E)$  $\min 1, \mathbb{P}(A_1) + \cdots + \mathbb{P}(A_n)$ 

Glivenko-Catelli theorem:  $\mathbb{P}(\sup_x |F_n(x) - F(x)| \to 0) = 1$  if  $n \to 0$ .

### Maximization Basics

### Calculus of Variations

Goal: find the maximum of a functional.

$$J(x + \delta x) - J(x) = 0$$

Given: functional of form  $J[f] = \int_a^b L[x, f(x), f'(x)]dx$ 

change  $\delta J = \int_a^b \frac{\delta J}{\delta f(x)} \delta f(x) dx$ 

functional derivative:  $\frac{\delta J}{\delta f(x)} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} - \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\partial L}{\partial f'}$ 

given:  $p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}|\theta)$  with observed variables  $\mathbf{X}$  and latent variables  $\mathbf{Z}$ , parameters  $\theta$  goal: maximize likelihood function  $p(\mathbf{X}|\theta)$  wrt.  $\theta$ .

- 1. choose initial setting for  $oldsymbol{ heta}^{old}$
- 2. **E-step**: evaluate  $p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old})$
- 3. M-step:  $\theta^{new}$ ) =  $\operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathcal{Q}(\theta, \theta^{old})$  where  $\mathcal{Q}(\theta, \theta^{old})$  =  $\sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old}) ln(p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta}))$
- 4. check if converged. Otherwise set  $oldsymbol{ heta}^{old} \leftarrow oldsymbol{ heta}^{new}$

## **Information Theory**

### Mutual information:

measures the amount of information that can be obtained about one random variable by observing another

 $I(X;Y) = \mathbb{E}_{X,Y}[SI(x,y)] = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x) p(y)}$ I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y).I(X;Y) = I(Y;X) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X,Y).

I(X,Y;Z) = I(X;Z) + I(Y;Z|X)

chain rule for information: I(X;Y,Z) = I(X;Z) + I(X;Y|Z) $I(X;Y) = \mathbb{E}_{p(y)}[D_{\mathrm{KL}}(p(X|Y=y)||p(X))].$ 

Information Processing Inequality: Let  $X \to Y \to Z$  be a Markov Chain then  $I(x,z) \leq I(x,y)$ 

## Kullback-Leibler divergence

 $\bullet$  quantifies coding cost describing data with probability distribution qwhen true distribution is p.

• KL divergence is positive semidefinite.  $D_{\rm KL} \ge 0$ 

way of comparing two distributions: a "true" probability distribution p(X)and an arbitrary probability distribution q(X).

or: unnecessary surprise". not symmetric!

q(X) is the distribution underlying some data, when, in reality, p(X) is the correct distribution, the Kullback-Leibler divergence is the number of average additional bits per datum necessary for compression.

 $D_{\text{KL}}(p(X)||q(X)) = \sum_{x \in X} -p(x) \log q(x) - \sum_{x \in X} -p(x) \log p(x) =$  $\sum_{x \in X} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ 

continuous case:  $D_{\mathrm{KL}}(P||Q) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$ 

## **Dimensionality Reduction**

## Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

dimensionality reduction with orthogonal projection of D-dimensional data onto lower M-dimensional linear space (principal subspace). Variance is

### Procedure

1. calculate mean  $ar{x} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$  and covariance matrix **S** of data set 2. find the M eigenvectors corresponding to the M largest eigenvalues.

3. data projected on these eigenvectors have largest variance.

# Probabilistic Principal Component Analysis (PP-

### Idea

 $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ , with  $p(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$  and  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{z} + \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$ 

- 1. calculate mean  $\bar{x}=\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_n$  and covariance matrix **S** of data set
- 2. find the M eigenvectors corresponding to the M largest eigenvalues.
- 3. data projected on these eigenvectors have largest variance.

- ullet computationally efficient o no need to evaluate covariance matrix as intermediate step
- allows us to deal with missing data in data set

## Locally Linear Embedding

N real valued vector  $\vec{X}_i$  of dimension D.

Assumption: data lies close on locally linear patch of manifold.

Construct each data point form its K nearest (e.g. euclidean distance)

Reconstruction error:  $\mathcal{E}(W) = \sum_{i} |\vec{X}_{i} - \sum_{i} W_{ij} \vec{X}_{j}|$ 

where  $W_{ij}$  summarize the contribution of the jth data point to the ith reconstruction

### LLE Algorithm:

- 1. Compute the neighbors of each data point,  $\vec{X}_i$ .
- 2. Compute the weights  $W_{ij}$  that best reconstruct each data point  $\vec{X}_i$  from its neighbors, minimizing the cost  $\mathcal{E}(W)$  by constrained linear fits. We have  $w_{ij} = \frac{\sum_k C_{jk}^{(-i)}}{\sum_{lk} C_{lk}^{(-i)}}$ , where  $C_{jk}^{(i)} =$

3. Compute the vectors  $\vec{Y}_i$  best reconstructed by the weights  $W_{ij}$ , minimizing the quadratic form in  $\Phi(\vec{Y}) = \sum_i |\vec{X}_i - \sum_j W_{ij} \vec{Y}_j|^2$  by its bottom nonzero eigenvectors. The embedding vectors are given by the eigenvectors corresponding to the d+1 smallest eigenvalues of  $M=% \frac{1}{2}\left( \frac{1}{2}\right) =\frac{1}{2}\left( \frac{1}{2}\right) =\frac{1}{$  $(1-W)^T(1-W)$ 

## Maximum Entropy Inference

Maximizing entropy yields least biased inference method  $\rightarrow$  maximally noncommittal wrt. missing data.

## Maximum entropy distribution

Outcomes  $\omega_i \in \Omega$ , determine probabilities  $p_i = \mathbb{P}(\omega_i)$ . Given constraints/moments  $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}[r_j] = \sum_{i=1}^n r_j(\omega_i)p_i$ , where  $r_j: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}j = \mathbb{R}$ 1, 2, ..., n are different functions defined over  $\Omega$ .

### Gibbs distribution

minimal sesitivity to changes in constraint moments  $\mu_i$  $p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-\sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_j r_j(x))$  where m is the number of constraints.

$$Z = \int_x \exp(-\sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j r_j(x)) dx$$

## Derive least sensitive distributions

- 1. determine all  $r_i$  from constraints.
- 2. calculate Z and p(x) from Gibbs distribution
- 3. calculate all moments and set equal to constraints.

### For a general cost function

$$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{c}) = \frac{e^{-\beta \mathcal{R}(c)}}{\sum_{c' \in \mathcal{C}e^{-\beta \mathcal{R}(c')}}} = \frac{e^{-\beta \mathcal{R}(c)}}{Z} = \exp(-\beta (\mathcal{R}(c) - \mathcal{F}))$$
 where  $\mathcal{F} = -\frac{1}{\beta} |\log(Z)$  is known as "free energy".

## Free energy for any distribution: $\mathcal{F} = -\frac{1}{2}S(\mathbf{P}) + \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{P}}\mathcal{R}$

## Entropy

 $H_X$  of a discrete random variable X is a measure of the amount of uncertainty associated with the value of X when only its distribution is known  $H(X) = \mathbb{E}_X[I(x)] = -\sum_{x \in \mathbb{X}} p(x) \log p(x)$ Chain rule: H(X,Y) = H(X) + H(Y|X)H(X,Y|Z) = H(X|Z) + H(Y|X,Z)

## **Maximum Entropy Clustering**

Determine probabilistic centroids  $y_{\alpha}$  and probabilistic assignments  $P_{i\alpha}$  of i-th object to cluster  $\alpha$ . Data  $\mathcal X$  and labelings c are r.v.

- 1. Define posterior probability distribution  $P(c|\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y}), c \in \mathcal{C}$ , constraint  $\mathbb{E}_{P(c|\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y})}\mathcal{R}(c,\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y}) = \mu$  where  $\mu$  is a constant.
- 2. find centroid conditions and assignments  $P_{i\alpha}$  by maximizing entropy wrt.  $\mathcal{Y} \to \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{v}_c} H(P(c|\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y})) = \mathbf{0}$

Most agnostic  $P(c|\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})$  is Gibbs distribution.

$$P(c|\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y}) = \frac{\exp(-\mathcal{R}(c,\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y})/T)}{\sum_{c' \in \mathcal{C}} \exp(-\mathcal{R}(c',\mathcal{X},\mathcal{Y})/T)}$$
 Remark: If the cost function is linear in individual costs, posterior can be

factorized!

### Clustering distributional data

"Close" objects have similar feature distributions.  $\rightarrow$  cluster via similarity. Distributional data encoded in dyads (pair  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ ): n different objects  $\{x_i\} \in \mathcal{X}$ , m possible feature values  $\{y_i\} \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Data is set of l observations  $\mathcal{Z} = \{(x_{i(r)}, y_{j(r)})\}_{r=1}^l$ .

Likelihood of data  $\mathcal{Z}$   $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{Z}) = \prod_{i \leq n} \prod_{j \leq m} P((i,j)|c(i),Q)^{l\hat{P}(i)}$ where  $l\hat{P}(i) = \#$  object i exhibits value j and  $\hat{P}(i) = \text{empirical probability}$ finding object i with feature value j.

### Procedure

## Parametric distributional clustering

Density estimation is assumed to be Gaussian  $q_a(y)$ .

 $p(y|\nu) = \sum_{a < s} g_a(y) p(a|\nu)$  where  $p(a|\nu)$  mixture coefficients, s number of mixture components.

Remark: Often feature values are restricted to specific domains, mixture components  $\rightarrow$  rectified.

## Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

Idea: sampling from a probability distribution by constructing a Markov chain that has the desired distribution as its equilibrium distribution.

### Markov Chain

 $P_N(x_1,...,x_N) = p_1(x_1) \prod_{t=1}^{N-1} w(x_t \to x_{t+1})$ 

where  $\{p_1(x)\}_{x\in\mathcal{X}}$  is the initial state and  $\{w(x\to y)\}_{x,y\in\mathcal{X}}$  are the transition probabi∣ities transition probabilities must be non-negative and normalized:

 $\sum_{y \in in\mathcal{X}} w(x \to y) = 1$ , for any  $y \in \mathcal{X}$  Eigenvalues: First eigenvalue is always equal to 1. The smaller  $\lambda_2$  the faster the MCMC

irreducible: It is possible to get to any state from any state

Detailed balance:  $\pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j P_{ji}$  or  $p(x)(x \to y) = p(y)p(y \to x)$ , implies stationarity!

Stationarity:  $\pi \mathbf{P} = \pi$ 

Aperiodic: Chain should not get trapped in cycles

### Metropolis-Hastings

Initialization: Choose an arbitrary point  $x_0$  as first sample, choose arbitrary probability density g(x|y) that suggests a candidate for the next sample value x. For Metropolis algorithm, g must be symmetric  $\rightarrow g(x|y) = g(y|x)$ e.g. a Gaussian distribution centered at y,  $\rightarrow$  points closer to y more likely to be visited next ightarrow sequence of samples ightarrow random walk. function g ightarrowproposal density or jumping distribution.

## Algorithm:

- 1. Generate a new sample  $x^\prime$  from the old x according to a proposal PDF:  $x' \sim q(\mid x)$
- 2. Calculate acceptance probability A(x',x) according to quotient  $Q(x',x) = \frac{p(x')q(x|x')}{p(x)q(x'|x)}$ A(x',x) = min(1, Q(x',x))
- 3. Accept x' as new sample with with probability A(x',x), else keep x.

### Disadvantages:

- samples are correlated. For independent samples one would have to take only every n-th sample.
- initial samples may follow a very different distribution. Solution: throw away first 1000 samples.

• for high dimensions: finding the right jumping distribution can be difficult, as the different individual dimensions behave in very different ways, and the jumping width must be "just right"for all dimensions at once to avoid excessively slow mixing  $\rightarrow$  Gibbs Sampling.

### Gibbs Sampling

distribution than to marginalize by integrating over a joint distribution. Applicable if:

least, easier than joint distribution) to sample from

the early part of the sampling process

## Simulated Annealing

- ullet Markov process samples solution from solution space  $\Omega$
- cost function  $\mathcal{H}:\Omega\to\mathbb{R},\omega\in\Omega$  denotes admissible solution.
- solutions accepted/rejected according to Metropolis algorithm: decreased cost  $\rightarrow$  accepted, increased cost  $\rightarrow$  accepted with probability  $exp(-\Delta \mathcal{H}/T)$  where  $\Delta \mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}(\omega_{new}) - \mathcal{H}(\omega_{old})$ . T is the computa-
- ullet reduce gradually the temperature during search proces o force system

Markov process with converges to equilibrium:

where  $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H}) = -Tlog \sum_{\omega' \in \Omega} \exp(-\mathcal{H}(\omega')/T)$ 

- ullet Temperature formally pprox Lagrange parameter o constraint on expected costs.  $\langle H \rangle = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P^{Gb}(\omega) \mathcal{H}(\omega)$
- ullet Gibbs free energy related to expected cost via entropy  $\mathcal{S}(P^{Gb})=$

## Deterministic Annealing

### Information Bottleneck Method

input signal X should be efficiently encoded by e.g. cluster variable  $ilde{X}$  preserving relevant information about context variable Y as good as possible.

cluster set of n objects  $\mathbf{o}_i$  in k groups. Assignments encoded in  $M_{i,\nu}$ ,

## Graph based clustering

 $\mathcal{O}$  is the set of vertices  $\mathcal{V}$ , set of edges is inferred, set of (di)similarity measures  $\mathcal{D} = \{D_{ij}\}$  or  $\mathcal{S} = \{S_{ij}\}$  are the weights.

## Correlation Clustering

Script p. 30

## Pairwise Data Clustering

$$\mathcal{R}^{pc}(c,\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\nu \le k} \left( |\mathcal{G}_{\nu}| \sum_{(i,j)} \in \epsilon_{\nu\nu} \frac{D_{ij}}{|\epsilon_{\nu\nu}|} \right)$$

- ullet dissimilarity matrix  $\mathcal{D}_{ij}$  only zero for self-dissimilarity entries,  $|\mathcal{G}_{\nu}|, |\epsilon_{\nu\nu}|$  cardinality of cluster/edges.
- shifts of non-diagonal elements
- ⇒ embed given nonmetric proximity data problem in vector space without

changing underlying properties.  $\rightarrow$  see CSE.

given a multivariate distribution it is simpler to sample from a conditiona • conditional distribution of each variable is known and is easy (or at

# simulated annealing is often used to reduce the "random walk"behavior in

## Heat-Bath Algorithm

- into solution with low costs.  $\rightarrow$  random walk in solution space.

 $\mathbf{P^{Gb}}(\omega) = \exp(-(\mathcal{H}(\omega) - \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H}))/T)$ 

- $-\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P^{Gb}(\omega) \log(P^{Gb}(\omega)) = \frac{1}{T} \langle H \rangle \frac{1}{T} \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{H})$

## deterministic variant of Simulated annealing.

 $I(X; \tilde{X}) - \lambda I(\tilde{X}, Y)$ 

## Parametric Distributional Clustering

## $M_{i,\nu}=1$ if $\mathbf{o}_i$ assigned to cluster $\nu$ . Enforce $\sum_{\nu\leq k}M_{i,\nu}=1$ .

relations among objects not necessarily metric.

## Cluster defined as: $\mathcal{G}_{\alpha}\{\mathbf{o} \in \mathcal{O} : c(\mathbf{O}) = \alpha\}$

agreement within cluster, disagreement between clusters maximized.

$$\mathcal{R}^{pc}(c,\mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\nu \le k} \left( |\mathcal{G}_{\nu}| \sum_{(i,j)} \in \epsilon_{\nu\nu} \frac{\mathcal{D}_{ij}}{|\epsilon_{\nu\nu}|} \right)$$

• cost function invariant under symmetrization and constant/additive

• metric data can always be transformed to PC data but not always

## Constant Shift Embedding (CSE)

Embed pairwise clustering problem into vector space.

## $\mathbf{CSE}$ algorithm

- 1. given dissimilarity matrix D, calculate centralized version  $D^c=QDQ$  where  $Q=I_n-\frac{1}{n}e_ne_n^T$
- 2. calculate matrix  $S^c = -1/2D^c$
- 3. calculate eigenvalues of  $S^c$ . If  $S^c$  isn't positive semidefinite,  $\tilde{S}=S^c-\lambda_n\cdot I_n$  (subtract smallest eigenvalue from diagonal elements) 4.

### Remarks:

- embedding validity shows equivalence to k-means clustering, ideas of centroids and cluster representatives can be used
- pairwise data can be denoised when transformed into vectorial data.
  (e.g. in preprocessing)
- minimization processes pairwise cost function or k-means problem is  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard  $\rightarrow$  algorithms like deterministic annealing and mean field approximation needed. For  $\mathcal{R}^{km}$  it's exact, for  $\mathcal{R}^{pc}$  remains an approximation.

### Cut

Partitioning a graph G(V,E) with nodes V and edges E into disjoint sets  $A,B\to$  removing edges connecting parts. Degree of dissimilarity is computed as total weight of removed edges:

 $cut(A,B) = \sum_{u \in A, v \in B} w(u,v)$ 

Minimum cut: optimal bipartitioning of graph that minimizes cut value. Note: Minimum cut favors cutting small sets of isolated nodes in graph. — use normalized cut.

### Normalized Cut

 $Ncut(A,B) = \frac{cut(A,B)}{assoc(A,V)} + \frac{cut(A,B)}{assoc(B,V)}$  where  $assoc(A,V) = \sum_{u \in A, t \in V} w(u,t)$  Ncut(A,B) can be seen as the disassociation between two groups.

measure for total normalized association within groups for a given partition:  $Nassoc(A,B) = \frac{assoc(A,A)}{assoc(A,V)} + \frac{assoc(B,B)}{assoc(B,V)}$  where assoc(A,A) are the total weights of edges connecting nodes within A, B respectively. Measures how tightly on average nodes are connected within group.

Ncut(A, B) = 2 - Nassoc(A, B)

## Computing Optimal Partition

## Grouping algorithm

## Mean Field Approximation

### Mean Field Theory

Approximate Gibbs distribution by neglecting correlations between stochastic variables  $\rightarrow$  determine "most similar" factorized distribution. Only consider factorized distributions:  $q(\mathbf{Z}) = \prod_{i=1}^M q_i(\mathbf{Z}_i)$ 

ightarrow no correlations between assignments of different objects. Then minimize the Kullback-Leibler divergence to obtain best factorial approximation. Mean field  $h_{u\alpha}$  is the expected cost  $\mathcal{R}(c)$  that object u assigned to cluster

### Determine mean field

- 1. split cost function  $\mathcal R$  into terms that contain the object u and other terms. Term has a form like  $\mathcal R(c)=f(u)+\mathcal R(c|u)$
- 2. take the expected value  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Q}_{u\ tolpha}}$

## Approximation set coding

Find robust, informative pattern (hypothesis  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  hypothesis space) in data

## Approximation sets

data space  $\mathcal{X}$ , cost function  $\mathcal{R}(c)$ , hypothesis  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  solution  $c^\perp(X) = \operatorname{argmin}_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{R}(c)$  is random since X is random.  $\to$  if second set X' is used  $\to c^\perp(X) \neq c^\perp(X') \to$  do not commit to a single answer, use set where each hypothesis c has weight.

### Weights

weights  $w {\sf rank}$  different hypothesis according to how well they solve problem:

 $\forall c, c' \in \mathcal{C} \, \mathcal{R}(c, X) \leq \mathcal{R}(c, X') \Leftrightarrow w_{\beta}(c, X) \geq w_{\beta}(c, X')$  where approximation precision  $\beta$  controls resolution of solutions.  $\rightarrow$  set of hypothesis that approximately solve the problem:

 $C_{\beta}(X) = \{c \in \mathcal{C} : \mathcal{R}(c,X) - \mathcal{R}(c^{\perp}(X),X) \leq 1/\beta\}$  i.e. lead to solutions that are  $1/\beta$  close to minimum.

assume every  $c \in \mathcal{C}_{\beta}$  equally good  $\to$  posterior  $P_{\beta}(c|X) = \mathsf{unif}(C_{\beta}(X))$   $\beta \to 0$ : every hypothesis good solution  $\to$  not informative.  $\beta \to \infty$ : each set has only one element  $\to$  not robust.  $\Rightarrow \beta$  controls tradeoff between informativeness and robustness/how much posterior distributions agree for different values of  $\beta$ .

### Communication scenario

partition hypothesis space  $\mathcal C$  with distinguishable approximation sets and use them as symbols for communication

### Codebook generation

*Problem:* usually only one set of observations available.  $\to$  use set of transformation  $\mathbb{T}$ :

 $\forall t \in \mathbb{T}, \forall c \in \mathcal{C}, \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}_+ w_\beta(t \circ c, t \circ X) = w_\beta(c, X)$ 

chain rule for information