Unsupervised learning

Gosia Migut

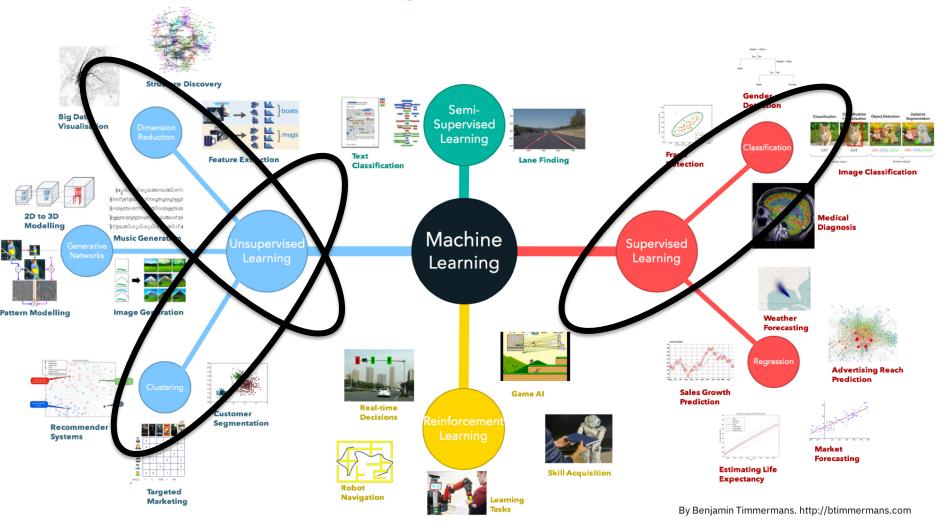


Admin stuff

Next lecture on Thursday!



Machine learning



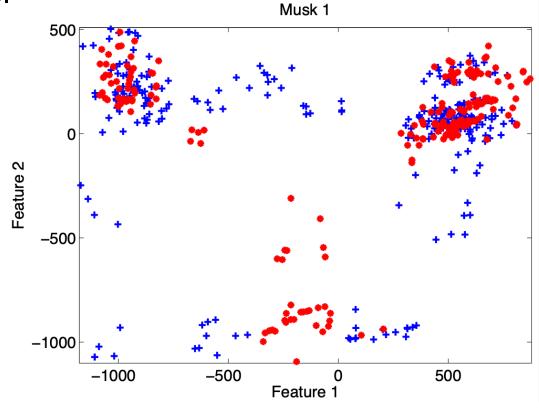


Recap supervised methods

Until now only supervised methods

Each training example described by a feature vector

and a label





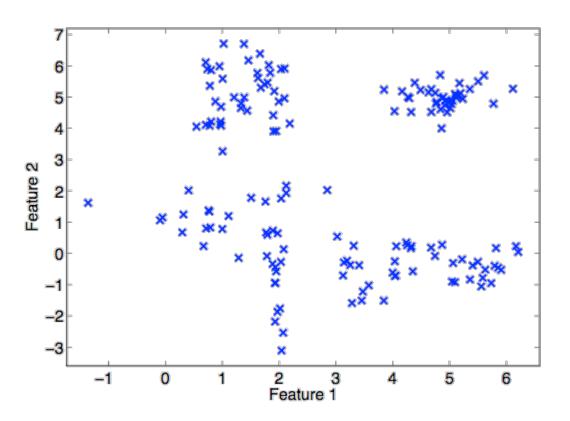
Supervised methods

Method	Generative	Discriminative	Linear	Non-linear	Parametric	Non-parametric
LDA	✓		✓		✓	
QDA	✓			✓	✓	
Nearest mean	✓		✓		✓	
Parzen	✓			✓		✓
K-nn	✓			✓		✓
Naive Bayes	✓		(√)	✓	✓	✓
Logistic reg.		✓	✓		✓	
SVM		✓	✓	(√)	✓	
Decision trees		✓		✓		✓
MLP		✓		✓	✓	



- ✓ discussed in this course
- (√) not discussed in this course

Unlabelled data: what now?



Unsupervised learning: no labels/targets present



Unsupervised learning

- Dimensionality reduction
 - does not use information about the labels

- Clustering
 - Discover structures in unlabelled data



Dimensionality reduction

 Many data sets are high-dimensional: each instance is described by many features.

- Why do we want to reduce data dimensionality?
- What does it mean to reduce dimensionality?
- How Principal Component Analysis reduces dimensionality?

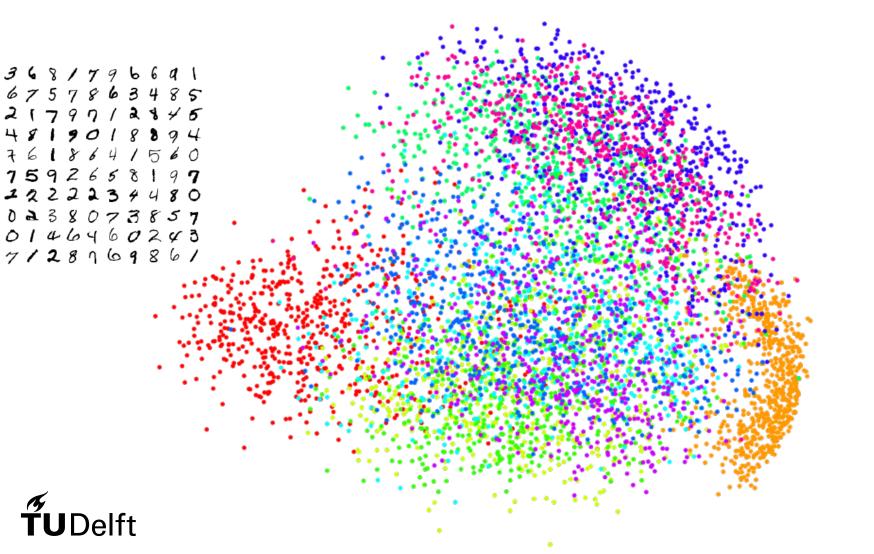


Dimensionality reduction

- Why do we want to reduce data dimensionality?
 - Make storage or processing of data easier
 - (Visual) discovery of hidden structure in the data
 - Remove redundant and noisy features
 - Intrinsic dimensionality might be smaller



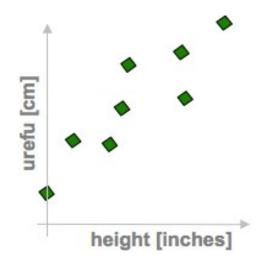
Dimensionality reduction Visual discovery of data structure





Dimensionality reduction Redundant features

- Get a population, predict some property
 - instances represented as {urefu, height} pairs
 - what is the dimensionality of this data?



"height" = "urefu" in Swahili



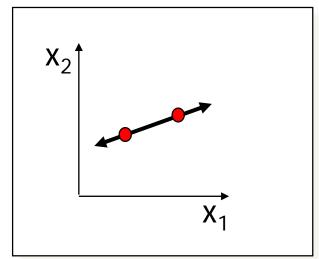
Dimensionality reduction Redundant features

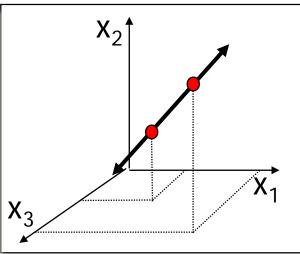
- Data points over time from different geographic areas over time:
 - X₁: # of traffic accidents
 - X₂: # of burst water pipes
 - X₃: # of snow-plow expenditures
 - X₄: # of forest fires
 - X₅: # of patients with heat stroke

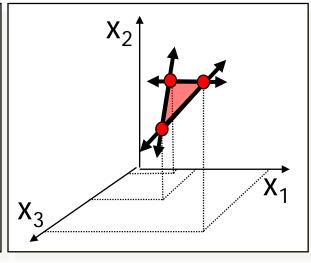
Temperature?



Dimensionality reduction Intrinsic dimensionality







2 objects, 2 dimensions

→ 1 dimension

2 objects, 3 dimensions

→ 1 dimension

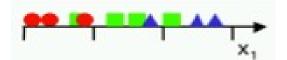
3 objects, 3 dimensions

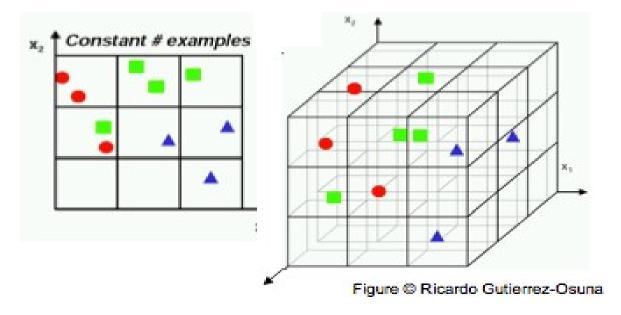
→ 2 dimension



Dimensionality reduction Curse of dimensionality

- As dimensionality grows: fewer observations per region
 - 1d: 3 regions, 2d: 3² regions, 1000d hopeless
 - statistics need repetition







Dimensionality reduction

 Many data sets are high-dimensional: each instance is described by many features.

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- What does it mean to reduce dimensionality?
- How Principal Component Analysis reduces dimensionality?



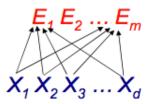
Reducing dimensionality

 Transform high-dimensional data to data of lower dimensionality, whilst preserving the structure in the original data as good as possible:

High-dimensional data Low-dimensional data Low-dimensional data

Reducing dimensionality: methods

- Use domain knowledge
- Feature selection
 - pick a subset of the original dimensions $X_1 X_2 X_3 ... X_{d-1} X_d$
- Feature extraction
 - construct a new set of dimensions $E_i = f(X_1...X_d)$

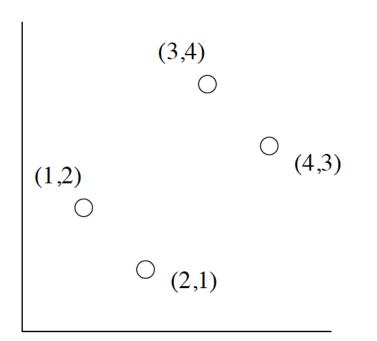


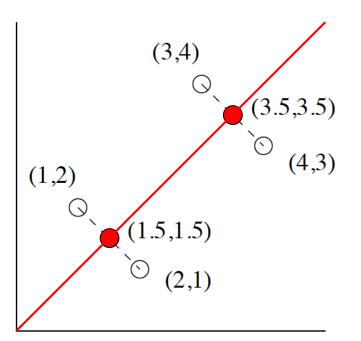
(linear) combinations of original



Reducing dimensionality Feature extraction

- Many important dimensionality reduction techniques are linear techniques
- These project the data onto a linear subspace of lower dimensionality (e.g. Principal Components Analysis)





Dimensionality reduction

 Many data sets are high-dimensional: each instance is described by many features.

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- What does it mean to reduce dimensionality?
- How Principal Component Analysis reduces dimensionality?



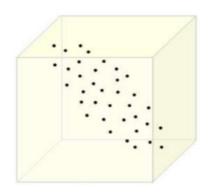


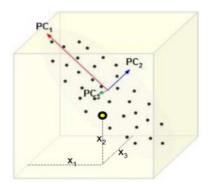
 Principal Components Analysis (PCA) maps the data onto a *linear subspace*, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized.

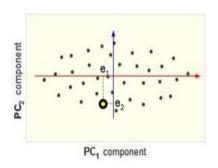


PCA overview

- Defines a set of principal components
 - 1st: direction of the greatest variability in the data
 - 2nd: perpendicular to 1st, greatest variability of what's left
 - ... and so on until d (original dimensionality)
- First *m* components become *m* new dimensions
 - change coordinates of every data point to these dimensions

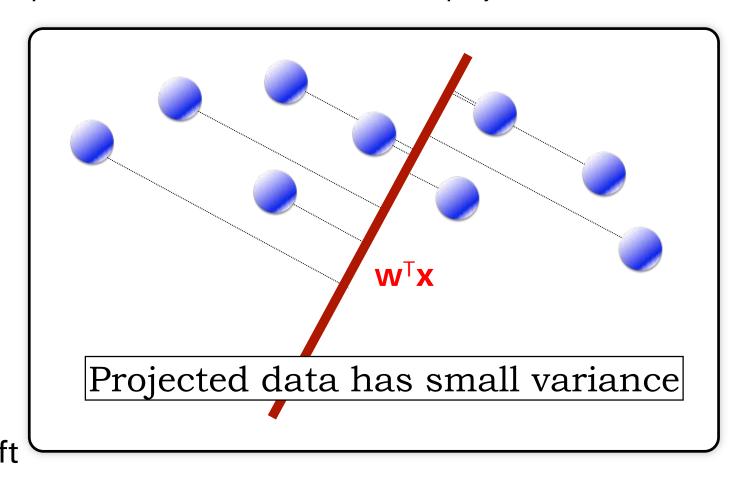




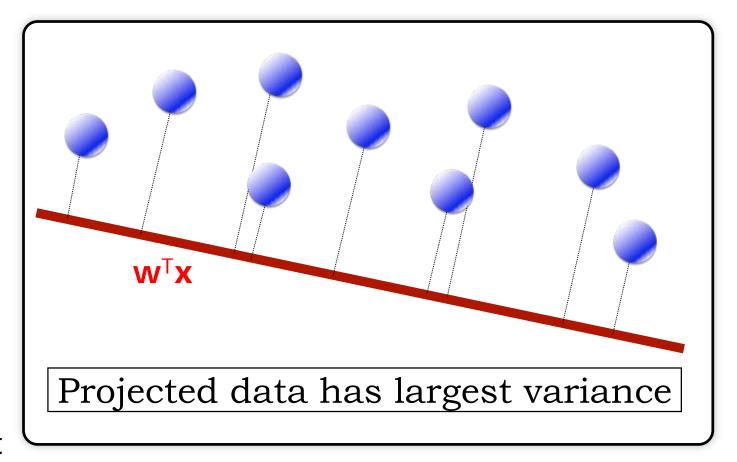




Principal Components Analysis maps the data onto a *linear* subspace, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized:

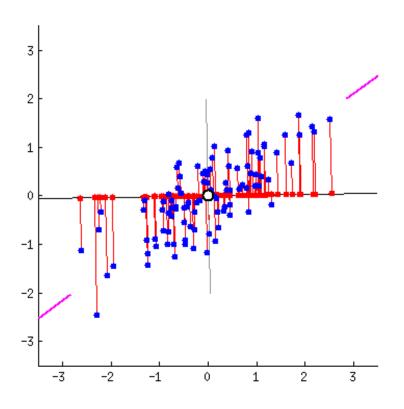


Principal Components Analysis maps the data onto a *linear* subspace, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized:





Principal Components Analysis maps the data onto a *linear* subspace, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized:





- Principal Components Analysis (PCA) maps the data onto a *linear subspace*, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized
- Recall the definition of variance:

$$var(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])^2] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(x_n - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n \right)^2$$



- Principal Components Analysis (PCA) maps the data onto a *linear subspace*, such that the variance of the projected data is maximized
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So PCA performs maximization:

$$\max_{\|w\|^2=1} var(w^T x)$$



$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mu})^T$$

The covariance of two variables is the expectation of their (zero-mean) product:

$$Cov(x, y) = \mathbb{E}\left[(x - \mathbb{E}[x])(y - \mathbb{E}[y])\right]$$

The covariance matrix is the matrix with all pairwise covariances:

$$\mathsf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & \mathbb{E}[(X_1 - \mu_1)(X_D - \mu_D)] \\ \mathbb{E}[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & \mathbb{E}[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & \mathbb{E}[(X_2 - \mu_2)(X_D - \mu_D)] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[(X_D - \mu_D)(X_1 - \mu_1)] & \mathbb{E}[(X_D - \mu_D)(X_2 - \mu_2)] & \cdots & \mathbb{E}[(X_D - \mu_D)(X_D - \mu_D)] \end{bmatrix}$$

• If data is zero-mean, the covariance matrix is simply: $M = \frac{1}{n}XX^T$



 Principal components are given by the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix

$$Me = \lambda e$$

 First principal component is given by the eigenvector with the corresponding highest eigenvalue



Eigenvalues & eigenvectors: Definition

- M square matrix, λ constant, e a non-zero column vector
- λ is an eigenvalue of M and e is the corresponding eigenvector of M if

$$Me = \lambda e$$

- Avoiding ambiguity regarding length: eigenvector to be unit vector
- λ and e form eigenpairs
- Watch: 3blue1brown: Eigenvectors and eigenvalues | Essence of linear algebra, chapter 14



Eigenvalues & eigenvectors: Example

- Let M be matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$
- One of eigenvectors of M is $2/\sqrt{5}$
- Corresponding eigenvalue is 7, since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigenvector is indeed unit vector



$$(1/\sqrt{5})^2 + (2/\sqrt{5})^2 = 1/5 + 4/5 = 1$$

How to find eigenpairs?

- Pivotal condensation
- Power iteration



How to find eigenpairs? Pivotal condensation

• Restate definition eigenpair $M\mathbf{e} = \lambda \mathbf{e}$ as

$$(M - \lambda I)\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{0}$$

- For this to hold the determinant of $(M \lambda I)$ must be 0
- Determinant of $(M \lambda I)$ is an n-th degree polynomial from which we can get the n values for λ that are eigenvalues of M



Eigenpairs: Pivotal condensation (example)

- Set M to $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$
- Then $M-\lambda I$ is $\left[\begin{array}{ccc} 3-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 6-\lambda \end{array} \right]$
- Determinant is $(3 \lambda)(6 \lambda) 4$
- Setting to zero, solving equation $\lambda^2 9\lambda + 14 = 0$
- Gives solutions $\lambda = 7$ and $\lambda = 2$ being principal eigenvalues
- Let **e** be vector of unknowns $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$
- Solve $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 7 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$



Eigenpairs: Pivotal condensation (example)

- Two equations: $\begin{bmatrix} 3x + 2y & = & 7x \\ 2x + 6y & = & 7y \end{bmatrix}$
- Both saying the same thing y = 2x
- Possible eigenvector: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$
- Make unit vector (divide by length): $\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$
- Second eigenvalue: repeat with $\lambda=2$
- Equation becomes: x = -2y
- Second eigenvector: $\begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$



How to find eigenpairs? Power iteration

- Start with any unit vector \mathbf{x}_0 (of appropriate length)
- Compute Mx_k until it converges:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} := \frac{M\mathbf{x}_k}{\|M\mathbf{x}_k\|}$$

||N|| frobenius norm; square root of sum of elements of N

- Limiting vector is the principal eigenvector (eigenvector with largest eigenvalue)
- When converged, compute eigenvalue $\,\lambda_1={f x}^T M{f x}$
- To find second eigenpair create new matrix

$$M^* = M - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T$$

• Use power iteration on M^* to compute its principal eigenvector, etc.



Find eigenpairs with power iteration Example

• Let
$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Start with x₀ being vector with 1s
- Multiply $M \mathbf{x}_0$: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$
- Frobenius norm equals $\sqrt{5^2 + 8^2} = \sqrt{89} = 9.434$
- Obtain \mathbf{x}_1 : $\mathbf{x}_1 = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0.530 \\ 0.848 \end{array} \right]$



Find eigenpairs with power iteration Example

• Next iteration:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.530 \\ 0.848 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.286 \\ 6.148 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Frobenius norm equals 6.971 so x_2 becomes

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0.471 \\ 0.882 \end{array} \right]$$

- Repeat, converges to $oldsymbol{x} = \left[egin{array}{c} \mathbf{0.447} \\ \mathbf{0.894} \end{array} \right]$
- Principal eigenvalue

$$\lambda = \mathbf{x}^T M \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.447 & 0.894 \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 0.447 \\ 0.894 \end{vmatrix} = 6.993$$

Find eigenpairs with power iteration Example

To find second eigenpair create new matrix

$$M^* = M - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T$$

 Use power iteration on M* to compute its principal eigenvector, etc.



Principal components analysis

 Principal components are given by the eigenvectors of the covariance matrix

$$Me = \lambda e$$

$$M = \frac{1}{n} X X^T$$

Perform PCA for:

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
(3,4) \\
(1,2) \\
(4,3)
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
(2,1)
\end{array}$$



$$(3,4)$$
 $(1,2)$
 $(4,3)$
 $(2,1)$

$$\mathsf{X} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$M = XX^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{M} = XX^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

UDeltt

• "Covariance" matrix
$$M = \left[egin{array}{cc} 30 & 28 \ 28 & 30 \end{array}
ight]$$
 (M not zero-mean data)

- Find eigenvalues det $(M \lambda I) = 0$ $(30 \lambda)(30 \lambda) 28 \times 28 = 0$
- Solution $\lambda = 58$ and $\lambda = 2$

• Solve
$$\begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 58 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

Two equations

Two equations telling same thing
$$\begin{bmatrix} 30x + 28y & = 58x \\ 28x + 30y & = 58y \end{bmatrix} \qquad x = y$$

Unit eigenvector corresponding to eigenvalue 58: $\begin{vmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{vmatrix}$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{array}\right]$$

Similarly for eigenvalue 2

$$\begin{bmatrix} 30 & 28 \\ 28 & 30 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 30x + 28y & = & 2x \\ 28x + 30y & = & 2y \end{bmatrix} \quad x = -y \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$



Matrix of eigenvectors for XX^T becomes

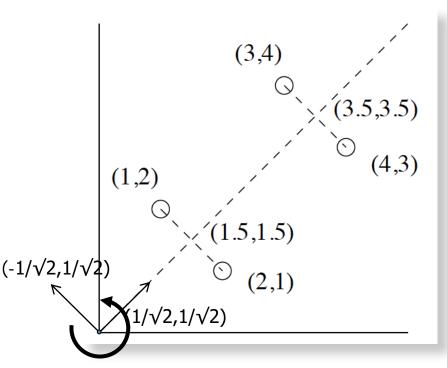
$$E = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{array} \right]$$

$$X^{T}E = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 3/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 7/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 7/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

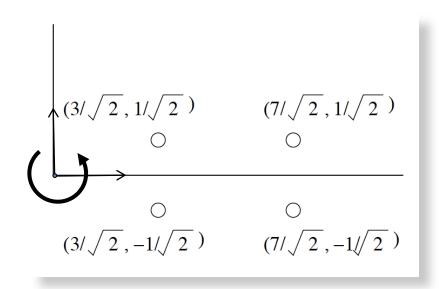
 Any matrix of orthonormal vectors represents a rotation of the axes of a Euclidean space. Matrix E can be viewed as a rotation (in this case 45 degrees counterclockwise)



• First point [1,2] transformed into $[3/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2}]$



Original points, eigenvectors, projections

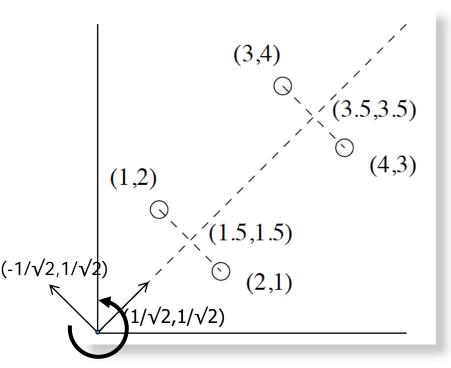


New coordinate system

PCA in a nutshell

- X matrix whose rows represent (zero-mean) points in Euclidean space
- Compute covariance XX^T and its eigenpairs
- E matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors, ordered as largest eigenvalues first
- X^TE: points of X transformed into new coordinate space
 - First axis (largest eigenvalue) most significant
 - Second axis (second eigenpair), next most siginificant
- Let E_k be first k columns of E
- Then $X^T E_k$ is *k-dimensional* representation of X





Original points, eigenvectors, projections

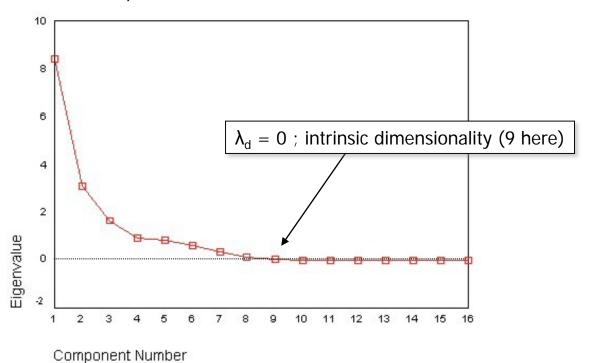


XE₁ New coordinate system 1 dimensional!



PCA scree plot

 Scree plot of eigenvalues shows amount of variance retained by the eigenvectors (principal components, PCs):



First KPCs explain $\frac{\sum_{i=0}^{H} di}{\sum_{i=0}^{H} di}$

$$\frac{\sum_{d=1}^K \lambda_d}{\sum_{d'=1}^D \lambda_{d'}} \times 100\% \quad \text{of variance}$$



Eigenfaces

Suppose we are applying PCA on the following set of face images:



- Image is matrix; but represented as a row vector!
- Eigenvectors also row vector, so eigenvector is also an image!



Eigenfaces

Example of first eigenvectors of set of face images (faces were aligned):





















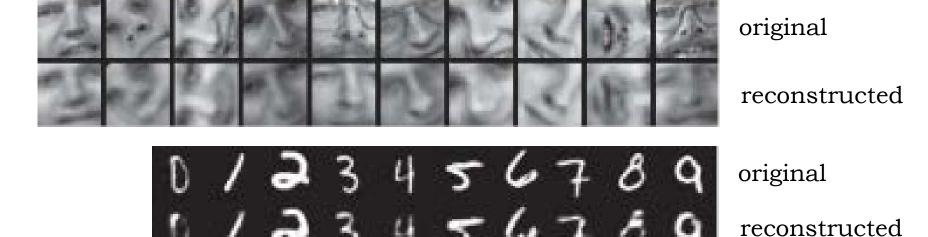


Principal components analysis

 Since we have projected onto a subspace, we can reconstruct the data in the original data space by performing the inverse of the projection:

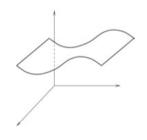
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}$$

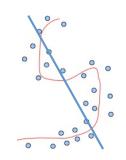
Example reconstructions of face images and digits (using 30D PCA subspace):





PCA: practical issues





- Covariance extremely sensitive to large values
 - Multiply some dimensions by 1000
 - Dominates covariance
 - Becomes a principal component
 - Normalize each dimension to zero mean and unit variance: $x' = \frac{x \mu}{\sigma}$
- PCA assumes underlying subspace is linear
 - 1d: straight line, 2d: plane
 - transform to handle non-linear spaces (manifolds)



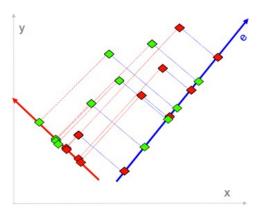
PCA and classification

PCA is unsupervised

- maximizes overall variance of the data along a small set of directions
- -does not know anything about class labels
- can pick direction that makes it hard to separate classes

Discriminative approach

look for a dimension that makes it easy to separate classes





Principal Components Analysis

Pros

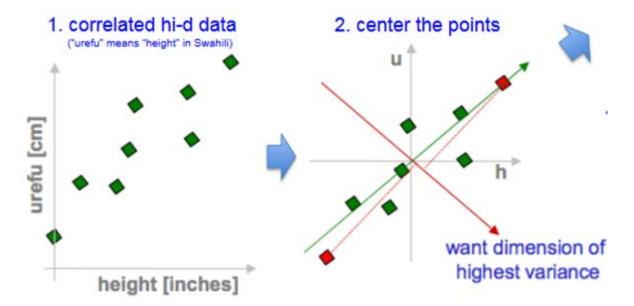
- reflects our intuitions about the data
- dramatic reduction in size of data
 - faster processing (as long as reduction is fast), smaller storage

Cons

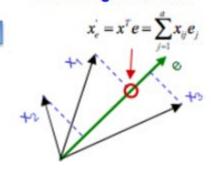
- too expensive for many applications (Twitter, web)
- understand assumptions behind the methods (linearity etc.)



PCA in a nutshell



6. project data points to those eigenvectors



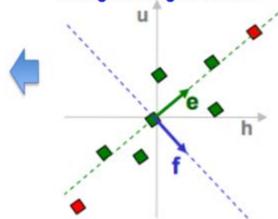
3. compute covariance matrix

4. eigenvectors + eigenvalues

eig(cov(data))



pick m<d eigenvectors w. highest eigenvalues





7. uncorrelated low-d data

Recap

- Dimensionality reduction builds a condensed data representation
- This removes redundant or noisy features, and identifies correlations
- Principal components analysis projects data onto the principal eigenvectors of the covariance matrix: maximizes variance of the projection



PCA demo

http://setosa.io/ev/principal-component-analysis/

