IN3050_assignment_3

April 26, 2024

1 IN3050/IN4050 Mandatory Assignment 3: Unsupervised Learning

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1.0.1 Rules

Before you begin the exercise, review the rules at this website: https://www.uio.no/english/studies/examinations/compulsory-activities/mn-ifi-mandatory.html , in particular the paragraph on cooperation. This is an individual assignment. You are not allowed to deliver together or copy/share source-code/answers with others. Read also the "Routines for handling suspicion of cheating and attempted cheating at the University of Oslo" https://www.uio.no/english/about/regulations/studies/studies-examinations/routines-cheating.html By submitting this assignment, you confirm that you are familiar with the rules and the consequences of breaking them.

1.0.2 Delivery

Deadline: Friday, April 26, 2024, 23:59

Your submission should be delivered in Devilry. You may redeliver in Devilry before the deadline, but include all files in the last delivery, as only the last delivery will be read. You are recommended to upload preliminary versions hours (or days) before the final deadline.

1.0.3 What to deliver?

You are recommended to solve the exercise in a Jupyter notebook, but you might solve it in a Python program if you prefer.

If you choose Jupyter, you should deliver the notebook. You should answer all questions and explain what you are doing in Markdown. Still, the code should be properly commented. The notebook should contain results of your runs. In addition, you should make a pdf of your solution which shows the results of the runs.

If you prefer not to use notebooks, you should deliver the code, your run results, and a pdf-report where you answer all the questions and explain your work.

Your report/notebook should contain your name and username.

Deliver one single zipped folder (.zip, .tgz or .tar.gz) which contains your complete solution.

Important: if you weren't able to finish the assignment, use the PDF report/Markdown to elaborate on what you've tried and what problems you encountered. Students who have made an effort and attempted all parts of the assignment will get a second chance even if they fail initially. This exercise will be graded PASS/FAIL.

1.0.4 Goals of the exercise

This exercise has three parts. The first part is focused on Principal Component Analysis (PCA). You will go through some basic theory, and implent PCA from scratch to do compression and visualization of data.

The second part focuses on clustering using K-means. You will use `scikit-learn` to run K-means clustering, and use PCA to visualize the results.

The last part ties supervised and unsupervised learning together in an effort to evaluate the output of K-means using a logistic regression for multi-class classification approach.

The master students will also have to do one extra part about tuning PCA to balance compression with information lost.

1.0.5 Tools

You may freely use code from the weekly exercises and the published solutions. In the first part about PCA you may **NOT** use ML libraries like `scikit-learn`. In the K-means part and beyond we encurage the use of `scikit-learn` to iterate quickly on the problems.

2 Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

In this section, you will work with the PCA algorithm in order to understand its definition and explore its uses. Some sources for more information on PCA are: * The syllabus book by Marsland has an overview of the mathematics and coding involved on page 136-137. * For a more intuitive explanation of PCA, there are many good explanations online, like this one. * If you are puzzled by what the covariance matrix is, and how it relates to PCA, this video may be useful.

2.1 Implementation: how is PCA implemented?

Here we implement the basic steps of PCA and we assemble them.

2.1.1 Importing libraries

We start importing the *numpy* library for performing matrix computations, the *pyplot* library for plotting data, and the *syntheticdata* module to import synthetic data.

[1]:
```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

import syntheticdata
```

2.1.2 Centering the Data

Implement a function with the following signature to center the data. Remember that every *feature* should be centered.

[2]:
```
def center_data(A):
    # INPUT:
    # A    [NxM] numpy data matrix (N samples, M features)
    #
    mean_per_feature = np.mean(A, axis=0) #taking the mean of axis 0, the rows

    centered_data = A - mean_per_feature

    # OUTPUT:
    # X    [NxM] numpy centered data matrix (N samples, M features)

    return centered_data
```

Test your function checking the following assertion on *testcase*:

[3]:
```
testcase = np.array([[3., 11., 4.3], [4., 5., 4.3], [5., 17., 4.5], [4, 13., 4.
↪4]])
answer = np.array([[-1., -0.5, -0.075], [0., -6.5, -0.075], [1., 5.5, 0.125], [0.
↪, 1.5, 0.025]])
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(center_data(testcase), answer)
```

2.1.3 Computing Covariance Matrix

Implement a function with the following signature to compute the covariance matrix. In order to get this at the correct scale, divide by $N - 1$, not N. Do not use `np.cov()`.

[4]:
```
def compute_covariance_matrix(A):
    # INPUT:
    # A    [NxM] numpy data matrix (N samples, M features)
    #
    # OUTPUT:
    # C    [MxM] numpy covariance matrix (M features, M features)
    centered_A = center_data(A)
    C = np.dot(centered_A.T, centered_A) / (A.shape[0] - 1)  # Remember to first␣
↪center the data, using `center_data()` from earlier

    return C
```

Test your function checking the following assertion on *testcase*:

[5]:
```
test_array = np.array([[22., 11., 5.5], [10., 5., 2.5], [34., 17., 8.5], [28.,␣
↪14., 7]])
answer = np.cov(np.transpose(test_array))
to_test = compute_covariance_matrix(test_array)
```

```
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(to_test, answer)
```

2.1.4 Computing eigenvalues and eigenvectors

Use the linear algebra package of `numpy` and its function `np.linalg.eig()` to compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors. Notice that we take the real part of the eigenvectors and eigenvalues. The covriance matrix *should* be a symmetric matrix, but the actual implementation in `compute_covariance_matrix()` can lead to small round off errors that lead to tiny imaginary additions to the eigenvalues and eigenvectors. These are purely numerical artifacts that we can safely remove.

Note: If you decide to NOT use `np.linalg.eig()` you must make sure that the eigenvalues you compute are of unit lenght!

[6]:
```
def compute_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(A):
    # INPUT:
    # A     [DxD] numpy matrix
    #
    # OUTPUT:
    # eigval    [D] numpy vector of eigenvalues
    # eigvec    [DxD] numpy array of eigenvectors

    eigval, eigvec = np.linalg.eig(A)

    eigval = eigval.real
    eigvec = eigvec.real

    return eigval, eigvec
```

Test your function checking the following assertion on *testcase*:

[7]:
```
testcase = np.array([[2, 0, 0], [0, 5, 0], [0, 0, 3]])
answer1 = np.array([2., 5., 3.])
answer2 = np.array([[1., 0., 0.], [0., 1., 0.], [0., 0., 1.]])
x, y = compute_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(testcase)
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(x, answer1)
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(y, answer2)
```

2.1.5 Sorting eigenvalues and eigenvectors

Implement a function with the following signature to sort eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

Remember that eigenvalue `eigval[i]` corresponds to eigenvector `eigvec[:, i]`.

[8]:
```
def sort_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(eigval, eigvec):
    # INPUT:
    # eigval    [D] numpy vector of eigenvalues
    # eigvec    [DxD] numpy array of eigenvectors
```

```
    #
    # OUTPUT:
    # sorted_eigval    [D] numpy vector of eigenvalues
    # sorted_eigvec    [DxD] numpy array of eigenvectors

    #sort eigenvalues and eigenvectors based on the eigenvalues in descending␣
↪order
    idx = np.argsort(eigval)[::-1]  #reverse the sorting order to get descending␣
↪order
    sorted_eigval = eigval[idx]
    sorted_eigvec = eigvec[:, idx]


    return sorted_eigval, sorted_eigvec
```

Test your function checking the following assertion on *testcase*:

[9]:
```
testcase = np.array([[2, 0, 0], [0, 5, 0], [0, 0, 3]])
answer1 = np.array([5., 3., 2.])
answer2 = np.array([[0., 0., 1.], [1., 0., 0.], [0., 1., 0.]])
x, y = compute_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(testcase)
x, y = sort_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(x, y)
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(x, answer1)
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(y, answer2)
```

2.1.6 PCA Algorithm

Implement a function with the following signature to compute PCA using the functions implemented above.

[10]:
```
def pca(A, m): #m is dimensions
    # INPUT:
    # A    [NxM] numpy data matrix (N samples, M features)
    # m    integer number denoting the number of learned features (m <= M)
    #
    # OUTPUT:
    # pca_eigvec    [Mxm] numpy matrix containing the eigenvectors (M␣
↪dimensions, m eigenvectors)
    # P             [Nxm] numpy PCA data matrix (N samples, m features)


    centered_A = center_data(A)
    #covariance matrix
    cov_matrix = compute_covariance_matrix(centered_A)

    eigval, eigvec = compute_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(cov_matrix)

    eigval, eigvec = sort_eigenvalue_eigenvectors(eigval, eigvec)
```

```
    #select the top m eigenvectors
    pca_eigvec = eigvec[:, :m]


    P = np.dot(centered_A, pca_eigvec)#project the data

    return pca_eigvec, P #P[:,0] will be the most important principal component␣
↪, then P[:,1] and so on ans so on
```

Test your function checking the following assertion on *testcase*:

[11]:
```
import pickle
testcase = np.array([[22., 11., 5.5], [10., 5., 2.5], [34., 17., 8.5]])
x, y = pca(testcase, 2)

answer1_file = open('PCAanswer1.pkl', 'rb')
answer2_file = open('PCAanswer2.pkl', 'rb')
answer1 = pickle.load(answer1_file)
answer2 = pickle.load(answer2_file)

test_arr_x = np.sum(np.abs(np.abs(x) - np.abs(answer1)), axis=0)
np.testing.assert_array_almost_equal(test_arr_x, np.zeros(2))

test_arr_y = np.sum(np.abs(np.abs(y) - np.abs(answer2)))
np.testing.assert_almost_equal(test_arr_y, 0)
```

2.2 Understanding: how does PCA work?

We now use the PCA algorithm you implemented on a toy data set in order to understand its inner workings.

2.2.1 Loading the data

The module *syntheticdata* provides a small synthetic dataset of dimension [100x2] (100 samples, 2 features).

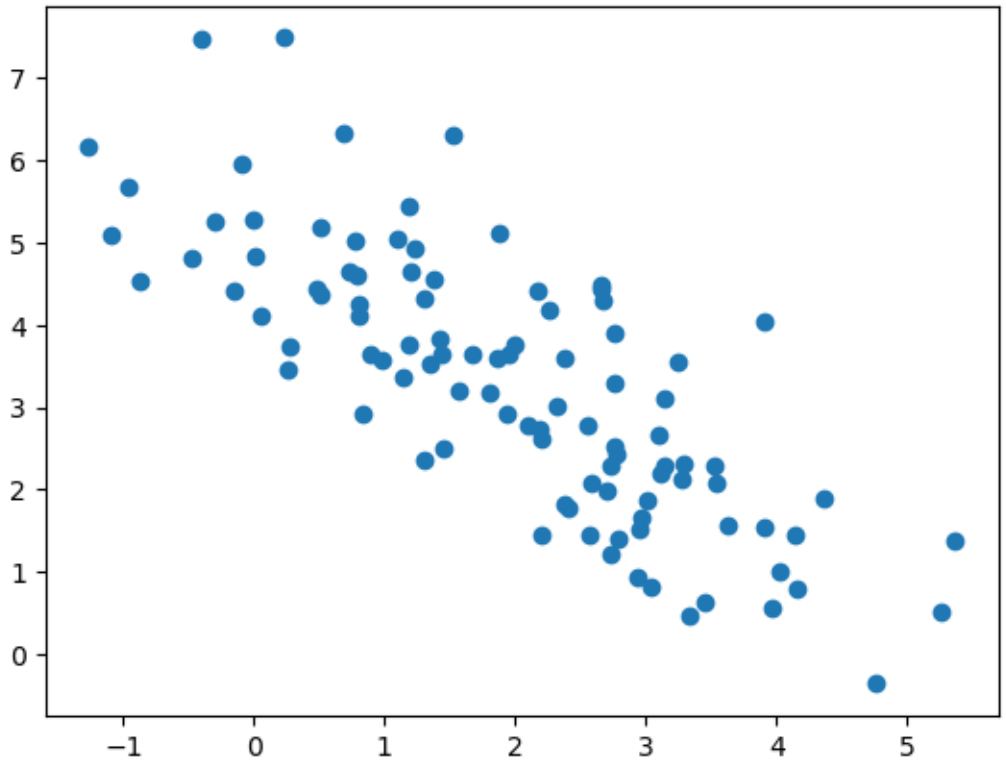
[12]:
```
X = syntheticdata.get_synthetic_data1()
```

2.2.2 Visualizing the data

Visualize the synthetic data using the function *scatter()* from the *matplotlib* library.

[13]:
```
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1])
```

[13]:
```
<matplotlib.collections.PathCollection at 0x12400e410>
```

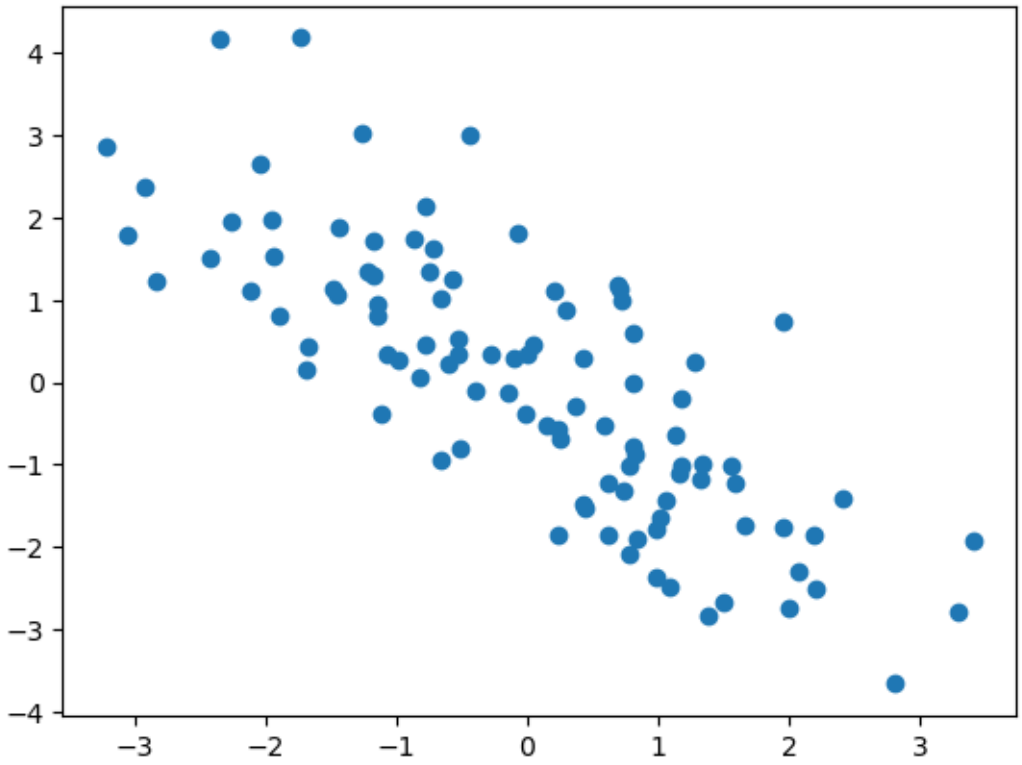


2.2.3 Visualize the centered data

Notice that the data visualized above is not centered on the origin (0,0). Use the function defined above to center the data, and the replot it.

[14]:
```
X = center_data(X)
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1])
```

[14]:
```
<matplotlib.collections.PathCollection at 0x124032090>
```

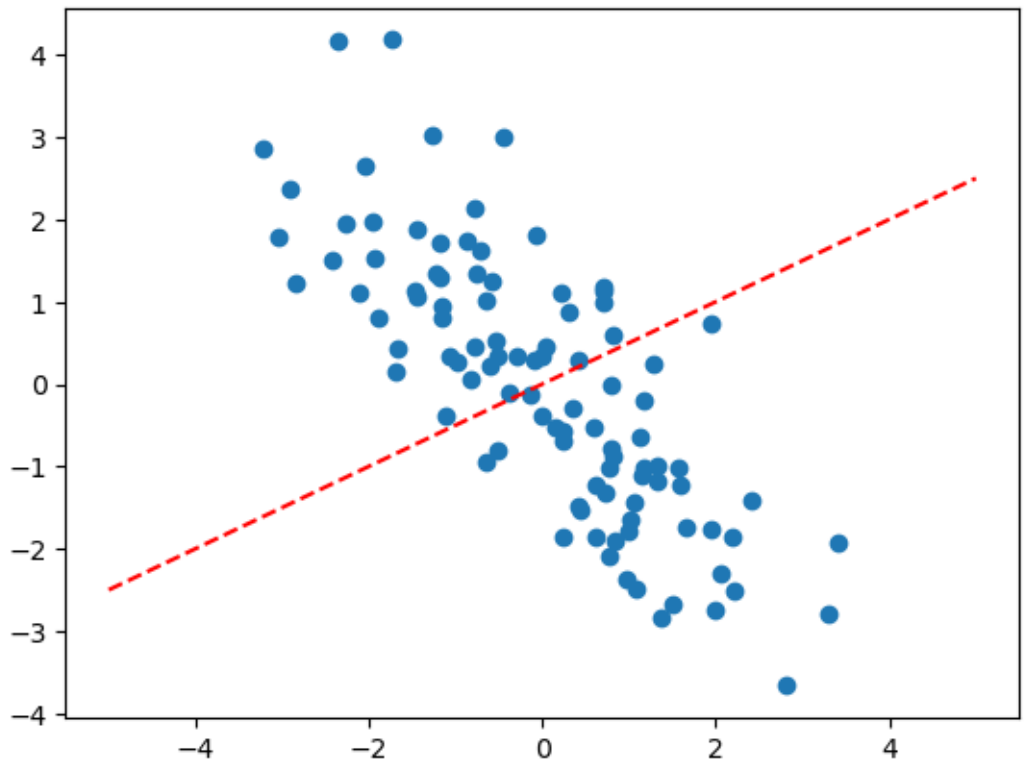


2.2.4 Visualize the first eigenvector

Visualize the vector defined by the first eigenvector. To do this you need: - Use the *PCA()* function to recover the eigenvectors - Plot the centered data as done above - The first eigenvector is a 2D vector (x0,y0). This defines a vector with origin in (0,0) and head in (x0,y0). Use the function *plot()* from matplotlib to plot a line over the first eigenvector.

[15]:
```
""" ORIGINAL SKELETON CODE FOR DEBUGGING
pca_eigvec, _ = None
first_eigvec = None

plt.scatter(None, None)

x = np.linspace(-5, 5, 1000)
y = first_eigvec[1] / first_eigvec[0] * x
plt.plot(x, y)"""

# Recover eigenvectors using PCA
pca_eigvec, _ = pca(testcase, 2)

# Retrieve the first eigenvector
first_eigvec = pca_eigvec[:, 0]
```

```
# Plot centered data
plt.scatter(X[:, 0], X[:, 1])

# Plot the first eigenvector
x = np.linspace(-5, 5, 1000)
y = first_eigvec[1] / first_eigvec[0]* x
plt.plot(x, y, color='red', linestyle='--')

plt.show()

#for fun: plot the eigenvecotr over the pca
"""
plt.scatter(_[:, 0], _[:, 1])

# Plot the first eigenvector
x = np.linspace(-5, 5, 1000)
y = first_eigvec[1] / first_eigvec[0] * x
plt.plot(x, y, color='red', linestyle='--')

plt.show()
"""
```

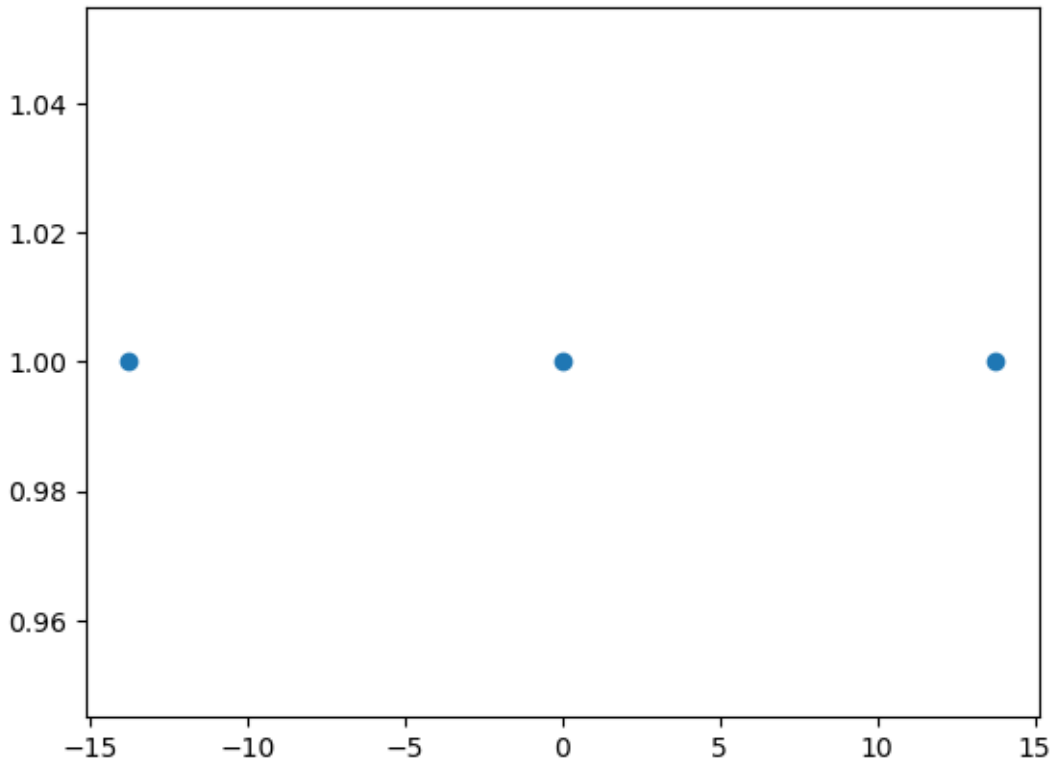


[15]:
```
" \nplt.scatter(_[:, 0], _[:, 1])\n\n# Plot the first eigenvector\nx =
np.linspace(-5, 5, 1000)\ny = first_eigvec[1] / first_eigvec[0] * x\nplt.plot(x,
y, color='red', linestyle='--')\n\nplt.show()\n"
```

2.2.5 Visualize the PCA projection

Finally, use the *PCA()* algorithm to project on a single dimension and visualize the result using again the *scatter()* function.

[16]:
```
#pca to view data in single dimension
_, P = pca(testcase, 1)

# Plot the projected data
plt.scatter(P, np.ones(P.shape[0]))  #since we are using asingle dimension we␣
↪use zeros for the y axis

plt.show()
```



Comment: I dont know if this is correct or not, the data seems to be reducd a bit too much. The data however seems to be clustered nicely into three parts.

2.3 Evaluation: when are the results of PCA sensible?

So far we have used PCA on synthetic data. Let us now imagine we are using PCA as a pre-processing step before a classification task. This is a common setup with high-dimensional data. We explore when the use of PCA is sensible.

2.3.1 Loading the first set of labels

The function *get_synthetic_data_with_labels1()* from the module *syntethicdata* provides a first labeled dataset.

[17]:
```
X, y = syntheticdata.get_synthetic_data_with_labels1()
```

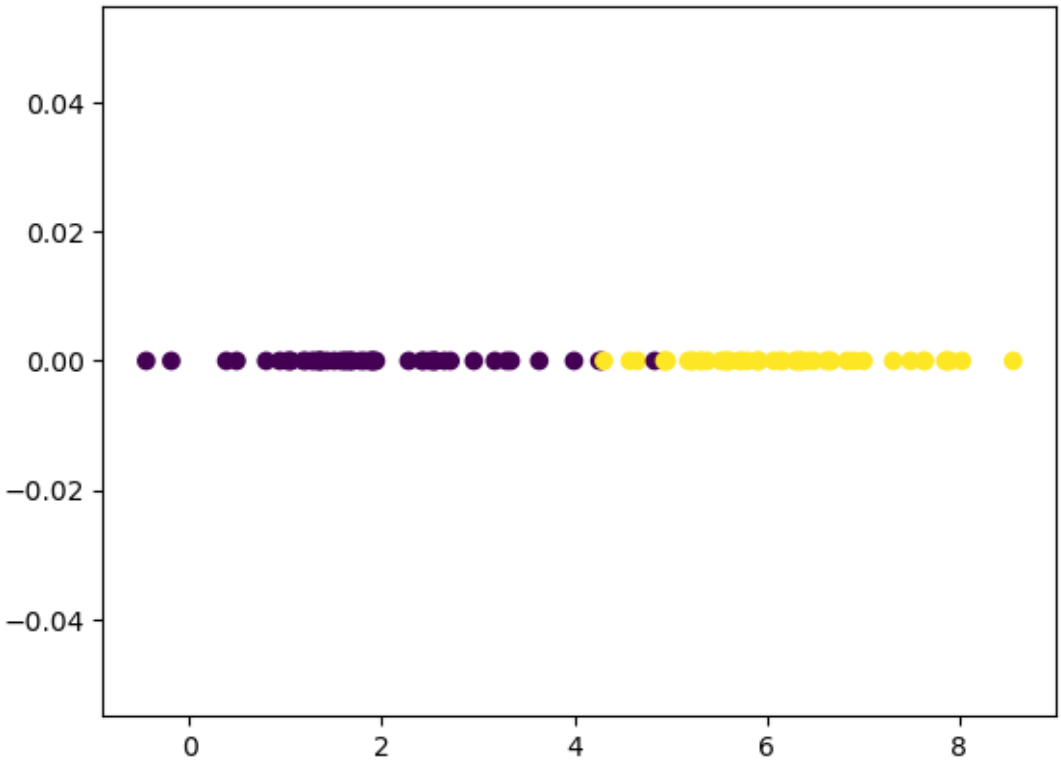
2.3.2 Running PCA

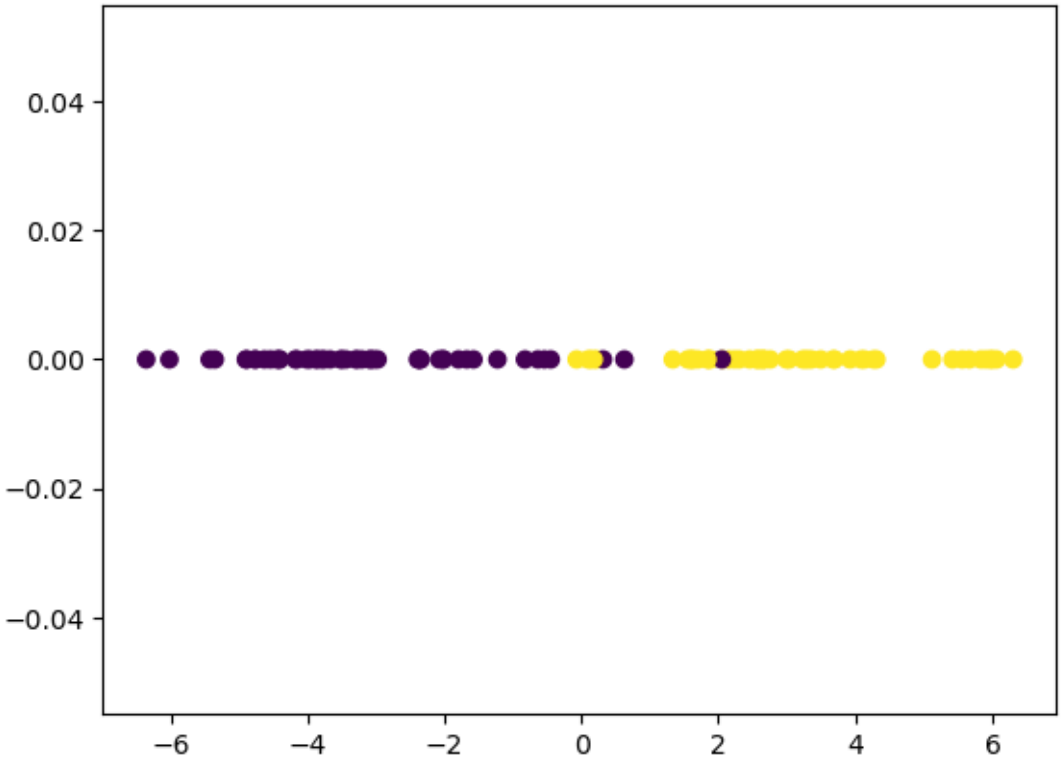
Process the data using the PCA algorithm and project it in one dimension. Plot the labeled data using *scatter()* before and after running PCA. Comment on the results.

[18]:
```
print("data before pca first, then the bottom figure is after pca.")
plt.scatter(X[:,0],np.zeros(X.shape[0]), c=y[:, 0]) #scatter all from 0th␣
 ↪collumn and all from 1th collumn, y is labels so we are coloring based on␣
 ↪labels hopefully
plt.figure()

_, P = pca(X,1)
plt.scatter(P, np.zeros(P.shape[0]), c=y[:, 0])
plt.figure()
```

```
data before pca first, then the bottom figure is after pca.
```

[18]:
```
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
```


0.04
0.02
0.00
−0.02
−0.04
0
2
4
6
8


0.04
0.02
0.00
−0.02
−0.04
−6
−4
−2
0
2
4
6

```
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
```

Comment: To me the data does not seem very different , in fact i think the before pca seems to be clustered better. The spread is noticably a little bigger after the pca, so it measures differences a bit better as the data is spread over 10 values on the x-axis. The plot i plotted does however sadly not show this clearly.

2.3.3 Loading the second set of labels

The function *get_synthetic_data_with_labels2()* from the module *syntethicdata* provides a second labeled dataset.

[19]:
```
X, y = syntheticdata.get_synthetic_data_with_labels2()
```

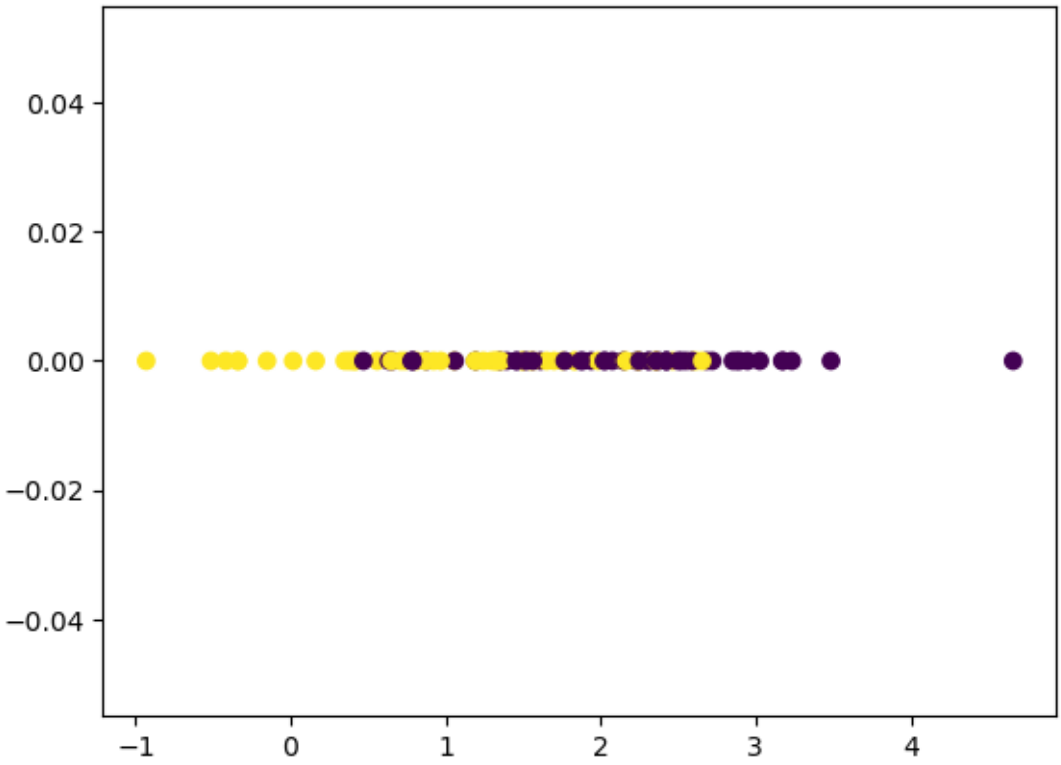
2.3.4 Running PCA

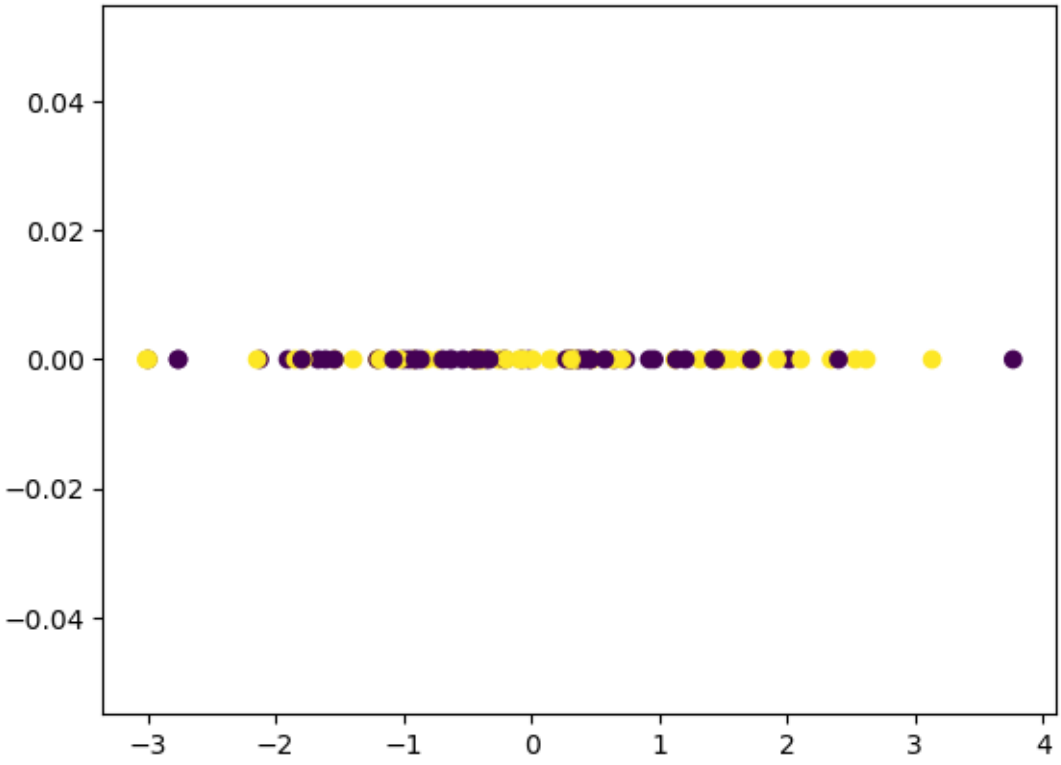
As before, process the data using the PCA algorithm and project it in one dimension. Plot the labeled data using *scatter()* before and after running PCA. Comment on the results.

[20]:
```
print("data before pca first, then the bottom figure is after pca.")
plt.scatter(X[:,0],np.zeros(X.shape[0]), c=y[:, 0]) #y is labels so we are␣
 ↪coloring based on labels hopefully

plt.figure()
_, P = pca(X,1)
plt.scatter(P, np.zeros(P.shape[0]), c=y[:, 0]) #
```

```
data before pca first, then the bottom figure is after pca.
```

[20]:
```
<matplotlib.collections.PathCollection at 0x1242bcd90>
```


0.04
0.02
0.00
−0.02
−0.04
−1
0
1
2
3
4


0.04
0.02
0.00
−0.02
−0.04
−3
−2
−1
0
1
2
3
4

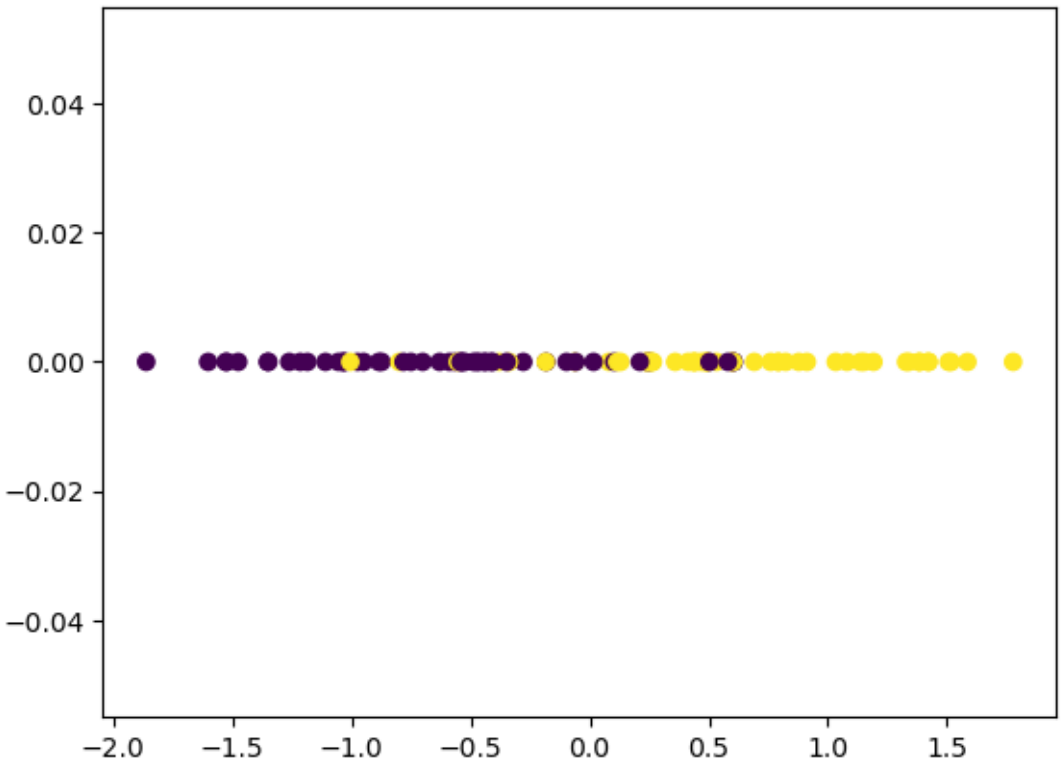
Comment: It seems the data is overlapping more after the pca, although more spread out. The labels are also less clearly seperated in clusters than before the pca.

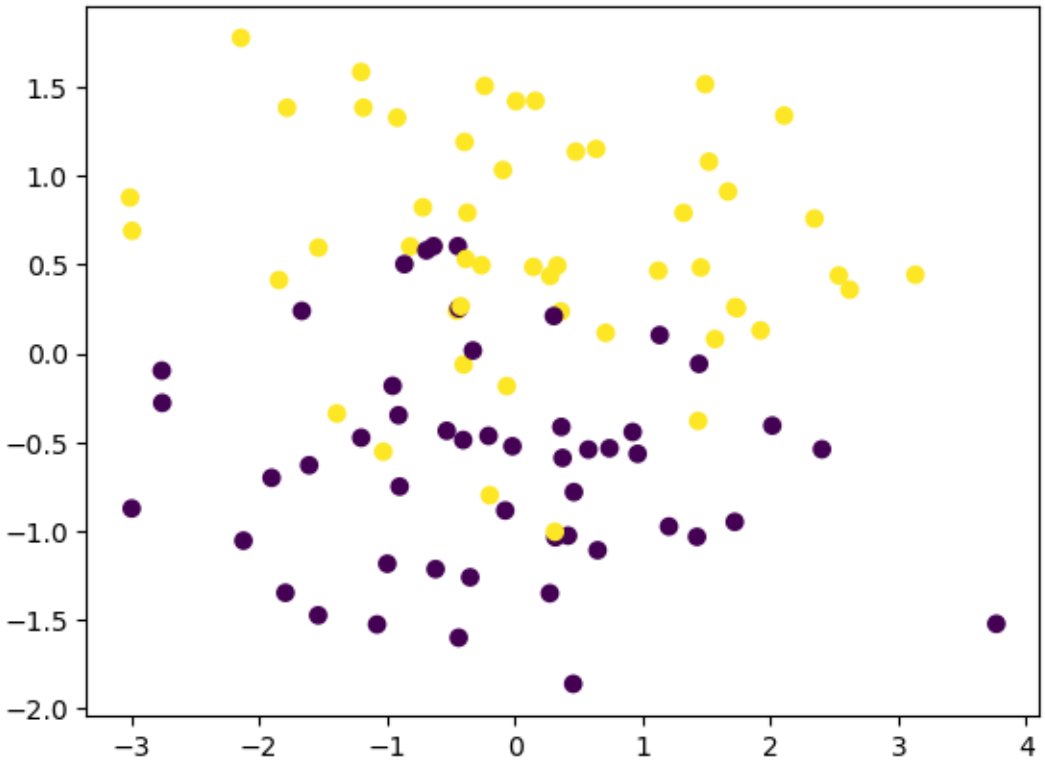
How would the result change if you were to consider only the second eigenvector? What about if you were to consider both eigenvectors?

[21]:
```
_ ,P = pca(X,2)
print("the first figure is with the second eigenvector, and the bottom figure␣
 ↪with both the firstand second.")
plt.scatter(P[:,1], np.zeros(P.shape[0]), c=y[:, 0]) # only second eigenvector
plt.figure()
plt.scatter(P[:,0], P[:,1], c=y[:, 0]) # second and first eigenvector
plt.figure()
```

```
the first figure is with the second eigenvector, and the bottom figure with both
the firstand second.
```

[21]:
```
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
```






```
<Figure size 640x480 with 0 Axes>
```

Answer: If you were to consider only the second eigenvector, you would be projecting your data onto the axis of the second principal component. This means you would lose some information shown by the first principal component.

If you were to consider both eigenvectors, you would keep more information compared to considering only the second eigenvector, however you would still lose some information from other dimensions if there where any more.

As seen in the two plots above the second eigenvector gives a slighty different result than only using the first, while using both retains the most information a seen in the bottom most plot above.

2.4 Case study 1: PCA for visualization

We now consider the *iris* dataset, a simple collection of data (N=150) describing iris flowers with four (M=4) features. The features are: Sepal Length, Sepal Width, Petal Length and Petal Width. Each sample has a label, identifying each flower as one of 3 possible types of iris: Setosa, Versicolour, and Virginica.

Visualizing a 4-dimensional dataset is impossible; therefore we will use PCA to project our data in 2 dimensions and visualize it.

2.4.1 Loading the data

The function *get_ iris_ data()* from the module *syntethicdata* returns the *iris* dataset. It returns a data matrix of dimension [150x4] and a label vector of dimension [150].

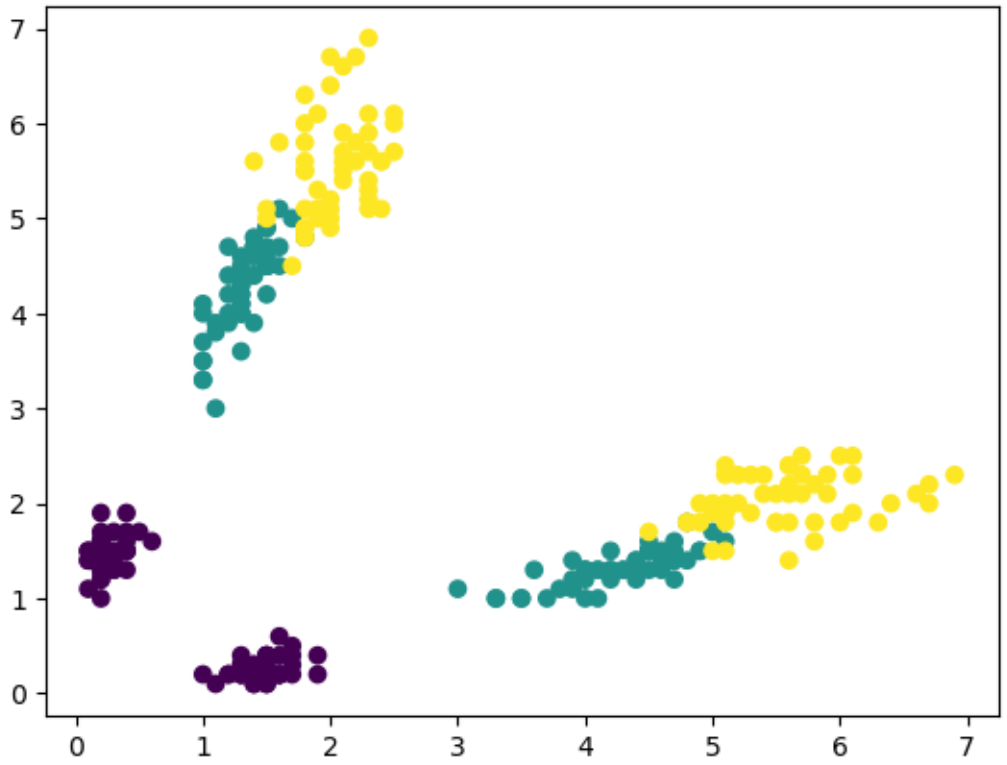
[22]:
```
X, y = syntheticdata.get_iris_data() #where y is the labels i assume
```

2.4.2 Visualizing the data by selecting features

Try to visualize the data (using label information) by randomly selecting two out of the four features of the data. You may try different pairs of features.

[23]:
```
#choosing two random features from the 4-dimensional dataset:
selected_features = np.random.choice(range(4), 2, replace=False)

#plot the data
#first plotting class 1 along the x axis, and then class 2. I dont know if this␣
↪is correct.
plt.scatter(X[:, selected_features[1]], X[:, selected_features[0]], c=y)
plt.scatter(X[:, selected_features[0]], X[:, selected_features[1]], c=y)
```

[23]:
```
<matplotlib.collections.PathCollection at 0x1244808d0>
```

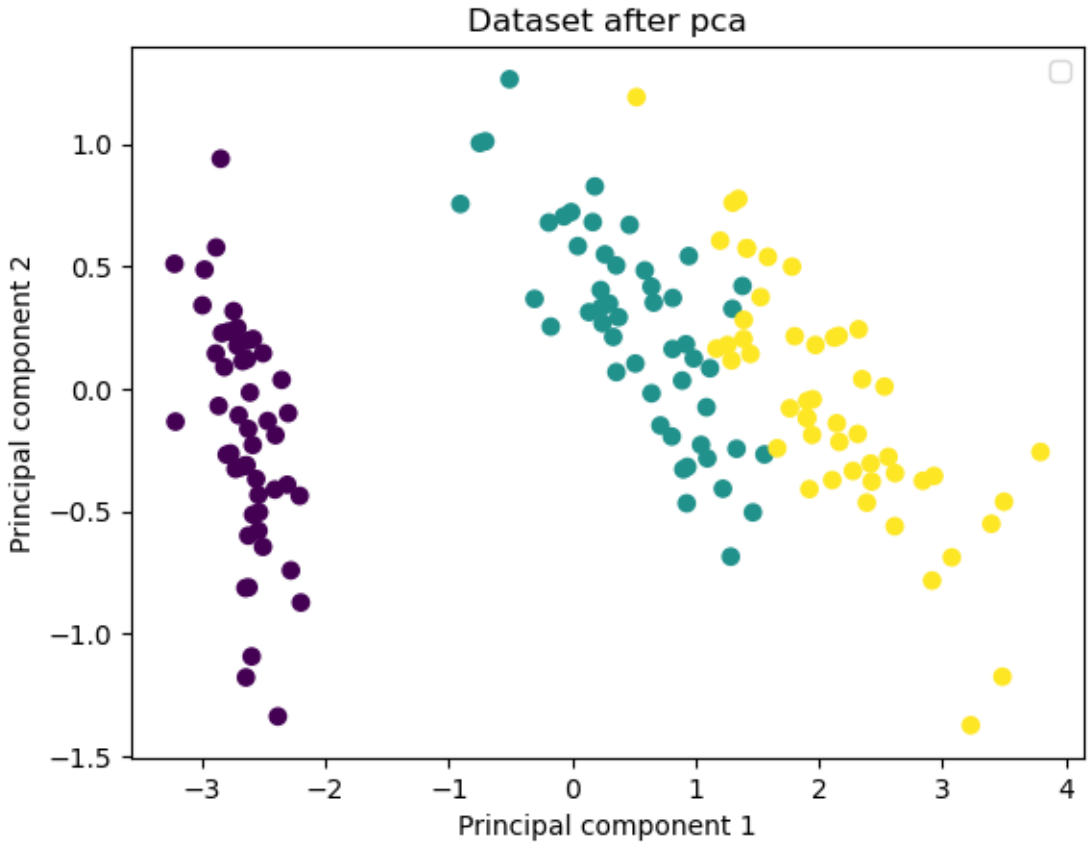


2.4.3 Visualizing the data by PCA

Process the data using PCA and visualize it (using label information). Compare with the previous visualization and comment on the results.

[24]:
```
# Perform PCA
_, X_pca = pca(X, 2)

#plot with pca
plt.scatter(X_pca[:, 0], X_pca[:, 1], c=y)

plt.xlabel('Principal component 1')
plt.ylabel('Principal component 2')
plt.title('Dataset after pca')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

```
No artists with labels found to put in legend.  Note that artists whose label
start with an underscore are ignored when legend() is called with no argument.
```



Comment: The pca results seem to be consistent with choosing two random features. The yellow and green dots seem to be close together in all plots while the purple seems to be furthest away

from the others.

2.5 Case study 2: PCA for compression

We now consider the *faces in the wild (lfw)* dataset, a collection of pictures (N=1280) of people. Each pixel in the image is a feature (M=2914).

2.5.1 Loading the data

The function `get_lfw_data()` from the module `syntethicdata` returns the `lfw` dataset. It returns a data matrix of dimension [1280x2914] and a label vector of dimension [1280]. It also returns two parameters, h and w, reporting the height and the width of the images (these parameters are necessary to plot the data samples as images). Beware, it might take some time to download the data. Be patient :)

[25]:
```
X, y, h, w = syntheticdata.get_lfw_data()
```

2.5.2 Inspecting the data

Choose one datapoint to visualize (first coordinate of the matrix X) and use the function imshow() to plot and inspect some of the pictures.

Notice that *imshow* receives as a first argument an image to be plot; the image must be provided as a rectangular matrix, therefore we reshape a sample from the matrix X to have height h and width w. The parameter *cmap* specifies the color coding; in our case we will visualize the image in black-and-white with different gradations of grey.

[26]:
```
plt.imshow(X[0, :].reshape((h, w)), cmap=plt.cm.gray)
```

[26]:
```
<matplotlib.image.AxesImage at 0x124562950>
```

2.5.3 Implementing a compression-decompression function

Implement a function that first uses PCA to project samples in low-dimensions, and the reconstruct the original image.

Hint: Most of the code is the same as the previous PCA() function you implemented.

[27]:
```
def encode_decode_pca(A, m):
    # Found this formula online : PCA reconstruction=PC scoresEigenvectors+Mean

    pca_eigvec, P = pca(A, m) #doing the pca


    mean_A = np.mean(A, axis=0) # Calculate the original data mean

    # Reconstructing the original data
    Ahat = np.dot(P, pca_eigvec.T) + mean_A

    return Ahat
```

2.5.4 Compressing and decompressing the data

Use the implemented function to encode and decode the data by projecting on a lower dimensional space of dimension 200 (m=200).

[28]:
```
Xhat = encode_decode_pca(X, 200)
```

2.5.5 Inspecting the reconstructed data

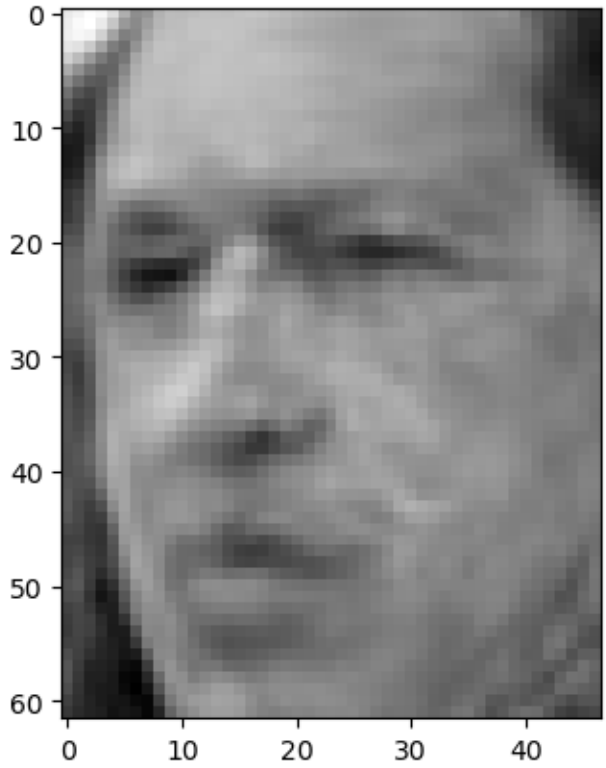
Use the function *imshow* to plot and compare original and reconstructed pictures. Comment on the results.

[29]:
```
plt.imshow(X[0, :].reshape((h, w)), cmap=plt.cm.gray) #original
```

[29]:
```
<matplotlib.image.AxesImage at 0x124599290>
```

[30]:
```
plt.imshow(Xhat[0, :].reshape((h, w)).astype(float), cmap=plt.cm.gray)␣
↪#reconstructed
```

[30]:
```
<matplotlib.image.AxesImage at 0x12463fa10>
```



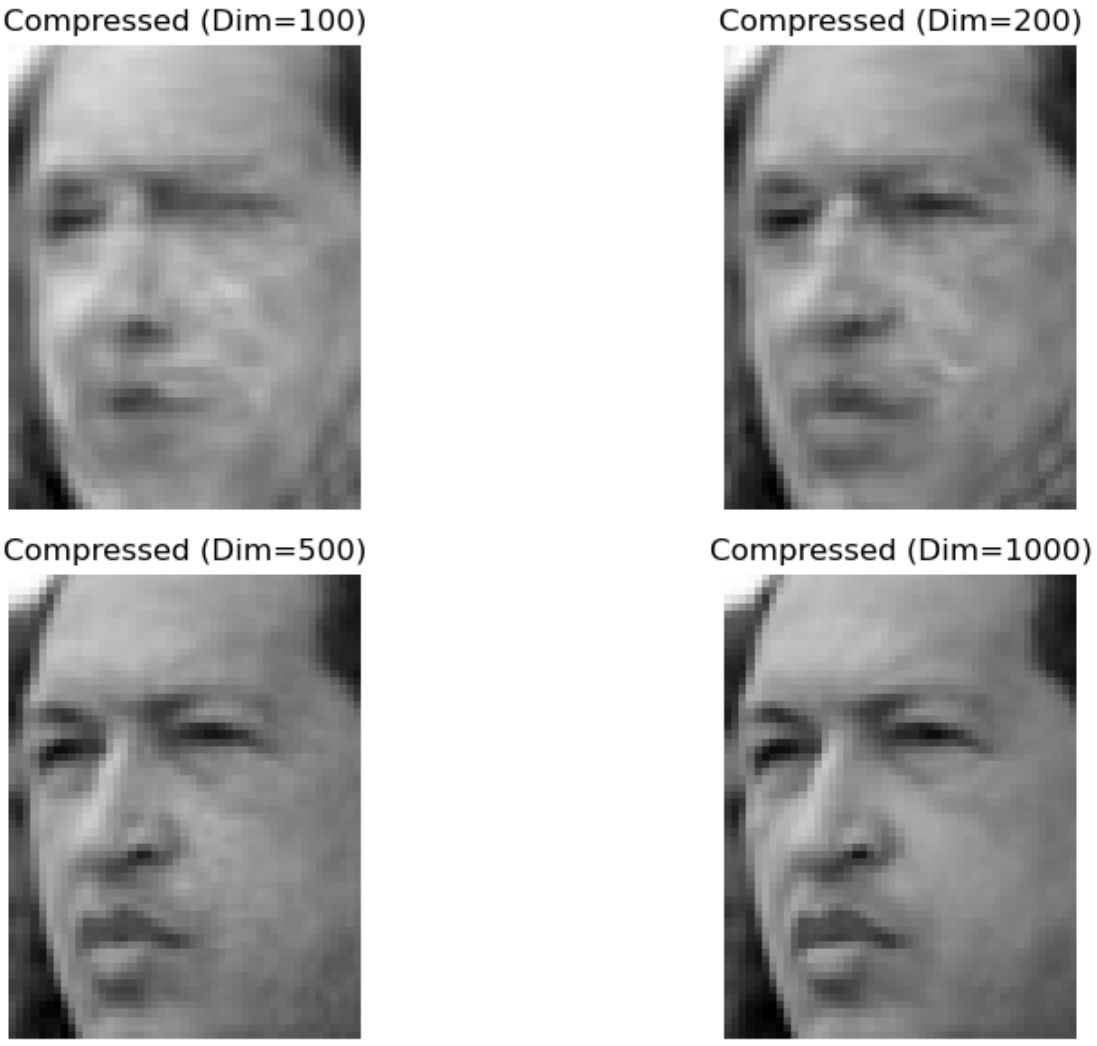
Comment: It seems the most important data is retained when reconstructing the image, however lots of detail seem to get lost from the original, like the smothnes in pixcels. The reconstructed seems more inconsistent where the original had smooth pixcels. The loss of details is however expected as we are reducing the image to a dimension of 200 and then trying to reconstruct it back. Therefore loosing some quality is due to the removal of the least important principal components when compressing the data to 200 dimesnions.

2.5.6 Evaluating different compressions

Use the previous setup to generate compressed images using different values of low dimensions in the PCA algorithm (e.g.: 100, 200, 500, 1000). Plot and comment on the results. Try to use `plt.subplot(n_rows, n_cols, position)`, in addition to titles, to get a nice plot.

[31]:
```
dimensions = [100,200,500,1000]

#defining rows and cols for plt.sub
n_rows = 2
n_cols = len(dimensions)//n_rows


fig, axes = plt.subplots(n_rows, n_cols, figsize=(10, 6))

for i, dim in enumerate(dimensions):
```

```
    #Encode and decode using PCA
    Xhat = encode_decode_pca(X, dim)

    #ploting compressed image
    ax = axes[i // n_cols, i % n_cols] #this looks messy but it seems to work
    ax.imshow(Xhat[0, :].reshape((h, w)).astype(float), cmap=plt.cm.gray)
    ax.set_title(f'Compressed (Dim={dim})')
    ax.axis('off')

plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



Comment: We can see that the more the image is compressed using pca, the more details are lost. The image compressed to Dim=1000 is pretty much identical to the original image, while the more reduced/data removed the more details will get lost.

2.6 Master Students: PCA Tuning

If we use PCA for compression or decompression, it may be not trivial to decide how many dimensions to keep. In this section we review a principled way to decide how many dimensions to keep.

The number of dimensions to keep is the only *hyper-parameter* of PCA. A method designed to decide how many dimensions/eigenvectors is the *proportion of variance*:

$$\text{POV} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i}{\sum_{j=1}^{M} \lambda_j},$$

where λ are eigenvalues, M is the dimensionality of the original data, and m is the chosen lower dimensionality.

Using the *POV* formula we may select a number M of dimensions/eigenvalues so that the proportion of variance is, for instance, equal to 95%.

Implement a new PCA for encoding and decoding that receives in input not the number of dimensions for projection, but the amount of proportion of variance to be preserved.

[32]:
```
def encode_decode_pca_with_pov(A, p):
    # INPUT:
    # A    [NxM] numpy data matrix (N samples, M features)
    # p    float number between 0 and 1 denoting the POV to be preserved
    #
    # OUTPUT:
    # Ahat [NxM] numpy PCA reconstructed data matrix (N samples, M features)
    # m    integer reporting the number of dimensions selected

    m = None
    Ahat = None

    return Ahat, m
```

Import the `lfw` dataset using the `get_lfw_data()` in `syntheticdata`. Use the implemented function to encode and decode the data by projecting on a lower dimensional space such that `POV=0.95`. Use the function `imshow` to plot and compare original and reconstructed pictures. Comment on the results.

[33]:
```
X, y, h, w = syntheticdata.get_lfw_data()
```

[34]:
```
Xhat, m = encode_decode_pca_with_pov(X, None)
```

[35]:
```
# Plot the images here
None
```

Comment: Enter your comment here.

3 K-Means Clustering (Bachelor and master students)

In this section you will use the *k-means clustering* algorithm to perform unsupervised clustering. Then you will perform a qualitative assesment of the results.

3.0.1 Importing scikit-learn library

We start importing the module `sklearn.cluster.KMeans` from the standard machine learning library `scikit-learn`.

[36]:
```
from sklearn.cluster import KMeans
```

3.0.2 Loading the data

We will use once again the *iris* data set. The function *get_ iris_ data()* from the module *syntethicdata* returns the *iris* dataset. It returns a data matrix of dimension [150x4] and a label vector of dimension [150].

[37]:
```
X, y = syntheticdata.get_iris_data()
```

3.0.3 Projecting the data using PCA

To allow for visualization, we project our data in two dimensions as we did previously. This step is not necessary, and we may want to try to use *k-means* later without the PCA pre-processing. However, we use PCA, as this will allow for an easy visualization.

[38]:
```
_, P = pca(X,2)
```

3.0.4 Running k-means

We will now consider the *iris* data set as an unlabeled set, and perform clustering to this unlabeled set. We can compare the results of the clustering to the lableled calsses.

Use the class *KMeans* to fit and predict the output of the *k-means* algorithm on the projected data. Run the algorithm using the following values of $k = \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

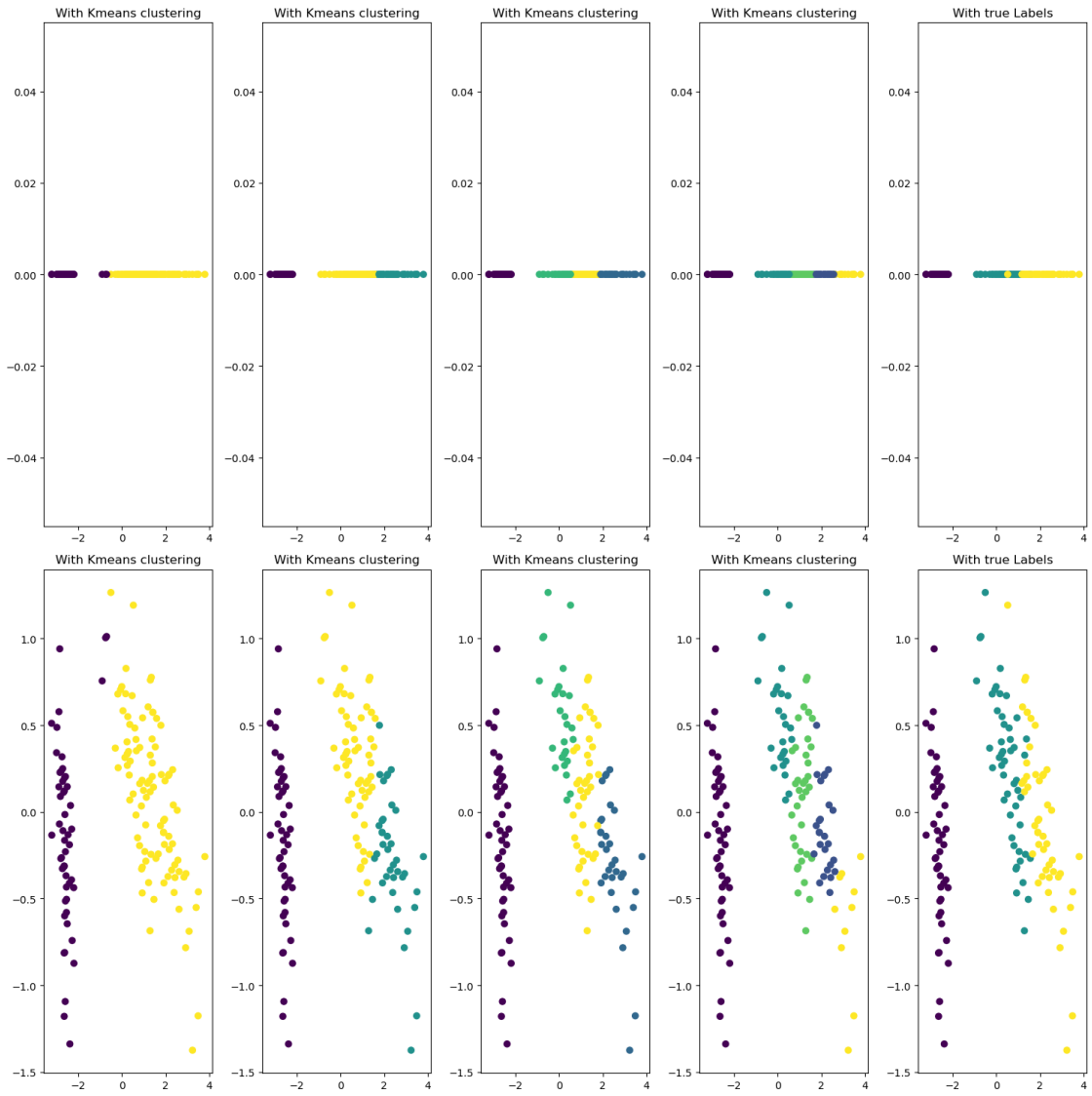
[39]:
```
k_values = [2,3,4,5]
y_hats = []

for i in range(len(k_values)):
    KM = KMeans(k_values[i], random_state=0, n_init="auto")
    yhat = KM.fit_predict(P)  #storing the prediction
    y_hats.append(yhat)
```

3.0.5 Qualitative assessment

Plot the results of running the k-means algorithm, compare with the true labels, and comment. Try to use `plt.subplot(n_rows, n_cols, position)` with titles to make a nice plot.

Hint: Plot the first and second dimension of `P` using `plt.scatter()`, and set the keyword argument `c` to the predictions made with KMeans.

[40]:
```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

#define the number of rows and columns for the subplot grid
n_rows = 2
n_cols = len(k_values)+1

# Create a figure and subplots
fig, axes = plt.subplots(n_rows, n_cols, figsize=(15, 15))

for i in range(len(k_values)):
    #plotting the first principal component in one dimesion since it is the one␣
 ↪wiht most variance
    axes[0][i].scatter(P[:,0], np.zeros(P.shape[0]), c = y_hats[i]) #setting␣
 ↪color to yhat which is the predictions of clusters
    axes[0][i].set_title("With Kmeans clustering")
    #plotting the true labels for comparing

axes[0][len(k_values)].scatter(P[:,0], np.zeros(P.shape[0]), c = y ) #setting␣
 ↪color to yhat which is the predictions of clusters
axes[0][len(k_values)].set_title("With true Labels")

for i in range(len(k_values)):
#ploting first and second principal components in 2d
    axes[1][i].scatter(P[:,0], P[:,1], c = y_hats[i])
    axes[1][i].set_title("With Kmeans clustering")
#plotting the true labels for comparing
axes[1][len(k_values)].scatter(P[:,0], P[:,1], c = y)
axes[1][len(k_values)].set_title("With true Labels")

plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()
```



Comment: It seems that the further away a cluster is from another cluster, the better k-Means can find a correct cluster according to the true labels, as is the case with the purple cluster. The most interesting of the K-means runs is perheps where k=3 which is as many clusters as it is in the true labels of the data. It seems that when k=3 the algorithm is clustering the pruple cluster correctly but is struggeling more to correctly cluster the data that is close together. Still i find it impressive that K-means and PCA together is able to label unlabeled data not to badly when compared to the true labels.

3.1 Quantitative Assessment of K-Means (Bachelor and master students)

We used k-means for clustering and we assessed the results qualitatively by visualizing them. However, we often want to be able to measure in a quantitative way how good the clustering was. To do this, we will use a classification task to evaluate numerically the goodness of the representation learned via k-means.

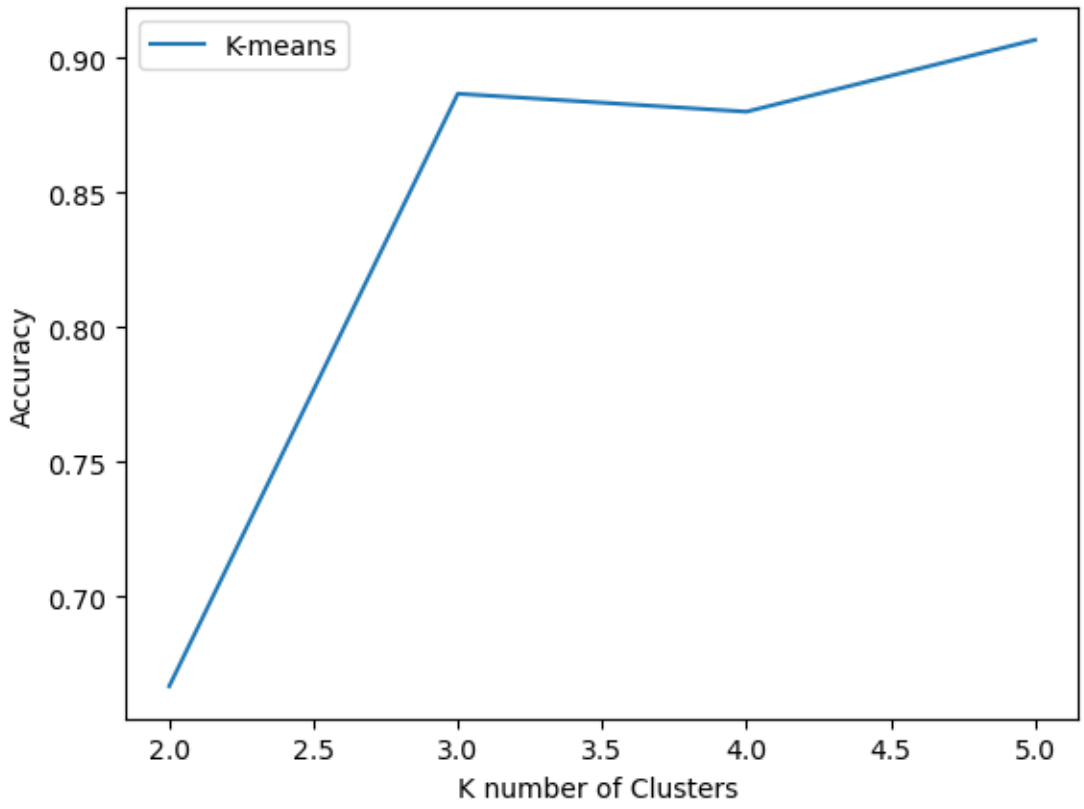
Reload the *iris* dataset. Import a standard `LogisticRegression` classifier from the module `sklearn.linear_model`. Use the k-means representations learned previously (`yhat2,...,yhat5`) and the true label to train the classifier. Evaluate your model on the training data (we do not have a test set, so this procedure will assess the model fit instead of generalization) using the `accuracy_score()` function from the *sklearn.metrics* module. Plot a graph showing how the accuracy score varies when changing the value of k. Comment on the results.

- Train a Logistic regression model using the first two dimensions of the PCA of the iris data set as input, and the true classes as targets.
- Report the model fit/accuracy on the training set.
- For each value of K:
  - One-Hot-Encode the classes output by the K-means algorithm.
  - Train a Logistic regression model on the K-means classes as input vs the real classes as targets.
  - Calculate model fit/accuracy vs. value of K.
- Plot your results in a graph and comment on the K-means fit.

[41]:
```
from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
from sklearn import metrics
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score
from sklearn.preprocessing import OneHotEncoder

# Assuming i can use sklearn library to easily create logistic regression␣
 ↪without having to manually do everything like in assignment 2

#Training a logistic reg model using pca of the dataset
X_pca = P
log_reg_pca = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000)
log_reg_pca.fit(X_pca, y)
accuracy_pca = log_reg_pca.score(X_pca, y)
print("Accuracy of logistic Reg on pca:", accuracy_pca)

# For storing the accuracies
accuracies_kmeans = []

for yhat in y_hats:
    #onehot encoding the k-means
    encoder = OneHotEncoder()
    yhat_encoded = encoder.fit_transform(yhat.reshape(-1, 1)).toarray()

    #training a logisticReg with the k-means classes as input
    # Tren en Logistic Regression modell med k-means klassene som input
    log_reg_kmeans = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000)
    log_reg_kmeans.fit(yhat_encoded, y) #yhat encoded with onehot as input, y as␣
 ↪labeldata
    accuracy_kmeans = log_reg_kmeans.score(yhat_encoded,y) #getting the accuracy
    accuracies_kmeans.append(accuracy_kmeans)
```

```
plt.plot(k_values, accuracies_kmeans, label='K-means')
plt.xlabel('K number of Clusters ')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

```
Accuracy of logistic Reg on pca: 0.9666666666666667
```



Comment: As we can see in the plot, the Accuracy does not differ much between k=3 , k=4 and k=5. k=3 is however much more accurate than when k<=2. I find it impressiv that by using k-means clustering we can get almost as close to the same accuracy as the logistic regression trained on the actual labeldata.

4 Conclusions

In this notebook we studied **unsupervised learning** considering two important and representative algorithms: **PCA** and **k-means**.

First, we implemented the PCA algorithm step by step; we then run the algorithm on synthetic data in order to see its working and evaluate when it may make sense to use it and when not. We then

considered two typical uses of PCA: for **visualization** on the *iris* dataset, and for **compression-decompression** on the *lfw* dateset.

We then moved to consider the k-means algorithm. In this case we used the implementation provided by *scikit-learn* and we applied it to another prototypical unsupervised learning problem: **clustering**; we used *k-means* to process the *iris* dataset and we evaluated the results visually.

In the final part, we considered two additional questions that may arise when using the above algorithms. For PCA, we considered the problem of **selection of hyper-parameters**, that is, how we can select the hyper-parameter of ou algorithm in a reasonable fashion. For k-means, we considered the problem of the **quantitative evaluation** of our results, that is, how can we measure the performance or usefulness of our algorithms.

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