

# Review for the Final

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<https://shuaili8.github.io/Teaching/VE445/index.html>



# Exam code

- Exam on Dec 6, 8:00-9:40 at Dong Xia Yuan 102 (lecture classroom)
- Finish the exam paper by yourself
- Allowed:
  - Calculator
- Not allowed:
  - Books, materials, cheat sheet, ...
  - Phones, any smart device
- No entering after 8:25
- Early submission period: 8:30--9:25

# Coverage of final

- Basics
- Supervised learning
  - Regression
  - SVM and Kernel methods
  - Decision Tree
- Deep learning
  - Neural Networks
  - Backpropagation
  - Convolutional Neural Network
  - Recurrent Neural Network
- Unsupervised learning
  - K-means, Agglomerative clustering, BFR, CURE
  - PCA, SVD, Autoencoder, Feature selection
  - EM, GMM
  - HMM
- Learning theory
  - Bias-variance decomposition

# Exam contents

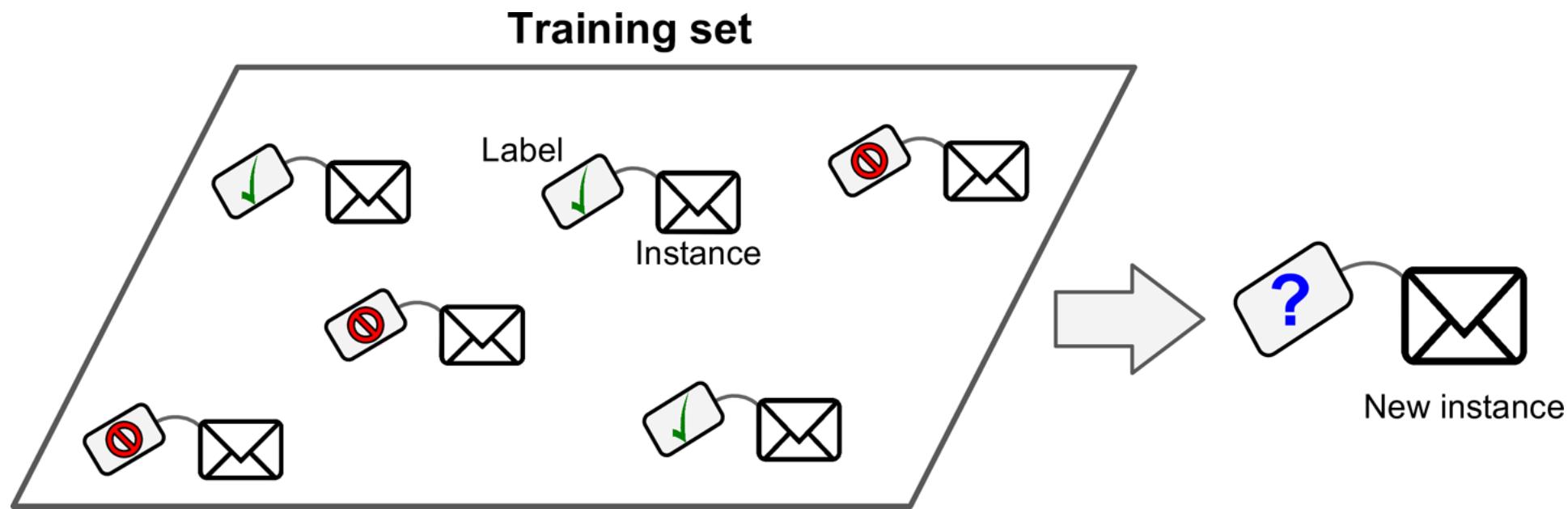
- 4 questions
  - 3 with 30 marks
    - Computation tasks
    - Concept understanding
  - 1 with 10 marks
    - Algorithm description

# Supervised Learning

# Machine Learning Categories

- Unsupervised learning
  - No labeled data
- Supervised learning
  - Use labeled data to predict on unseen points
- Semi-supervised learning
  - Use labeled data and unlabeled data to predict on unlabeled/unseen points
- Reinforcement learning
  - Sequential prediction and receiving feedbacks

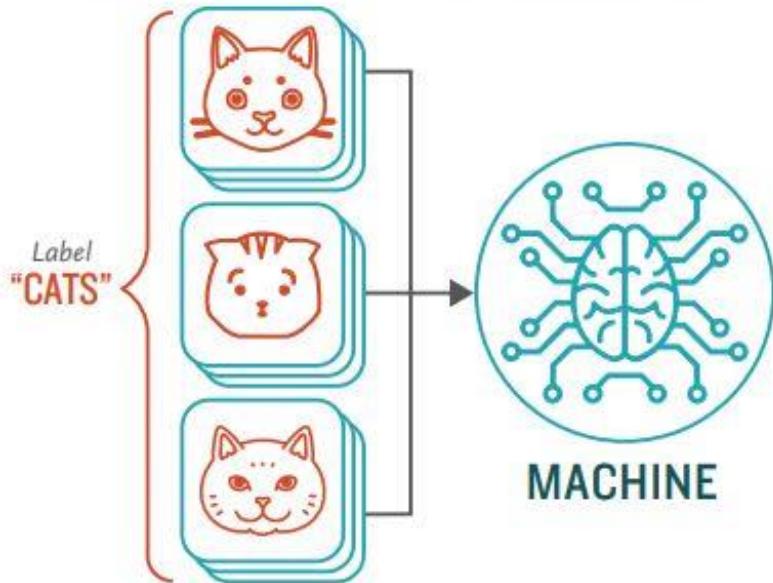
# Supervised learning example



# How **Supervised** Machine Learning Works

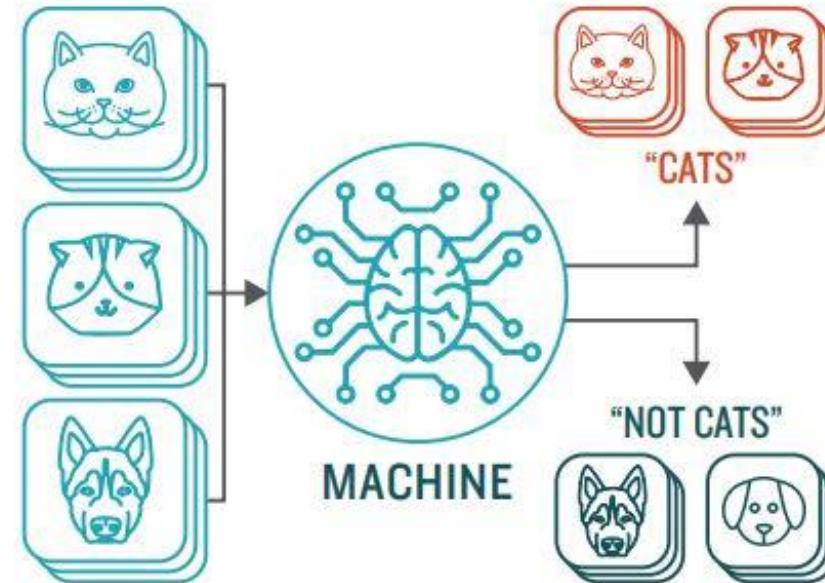
## STEP 1

Provide the machine learning algorithm categorized or "labeled" input and output data from to learn

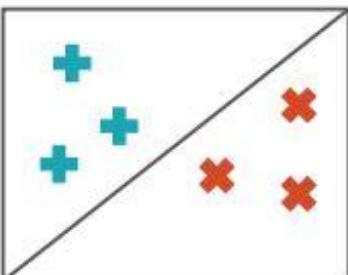


## STEP 2

Feed the machine new, unlabeled information to see if it tags new data appropriately. If not, continue refining the algorithm

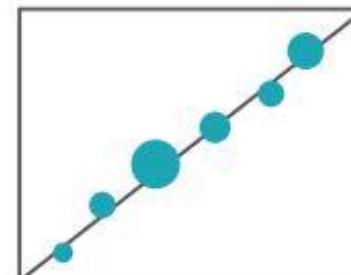


## TYPES OF PROBLEMS TO WHICH IT'S SUITED



### CLASSIFICATION

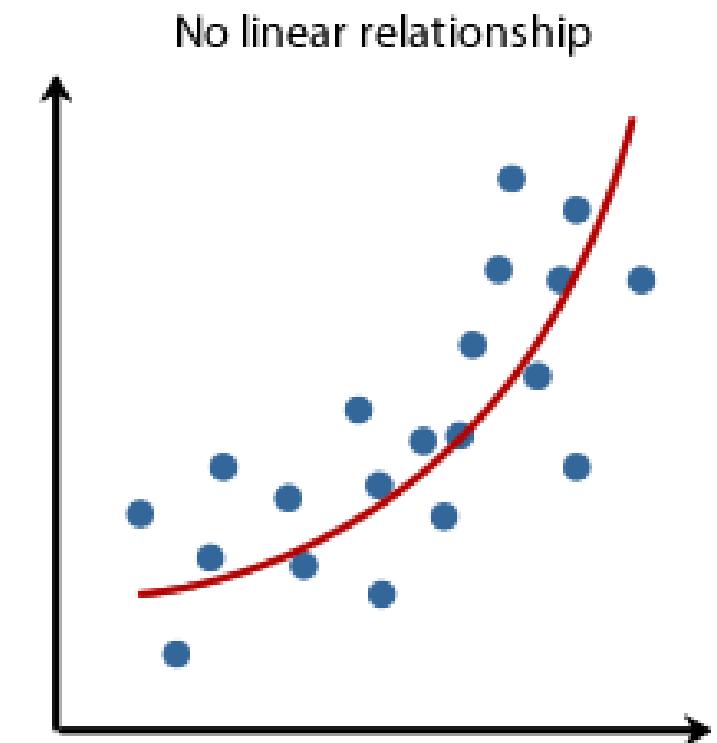
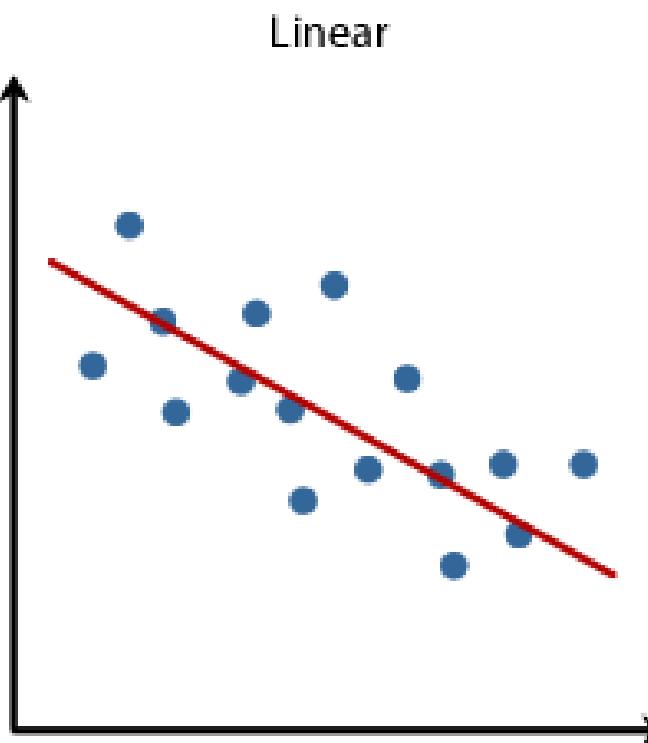
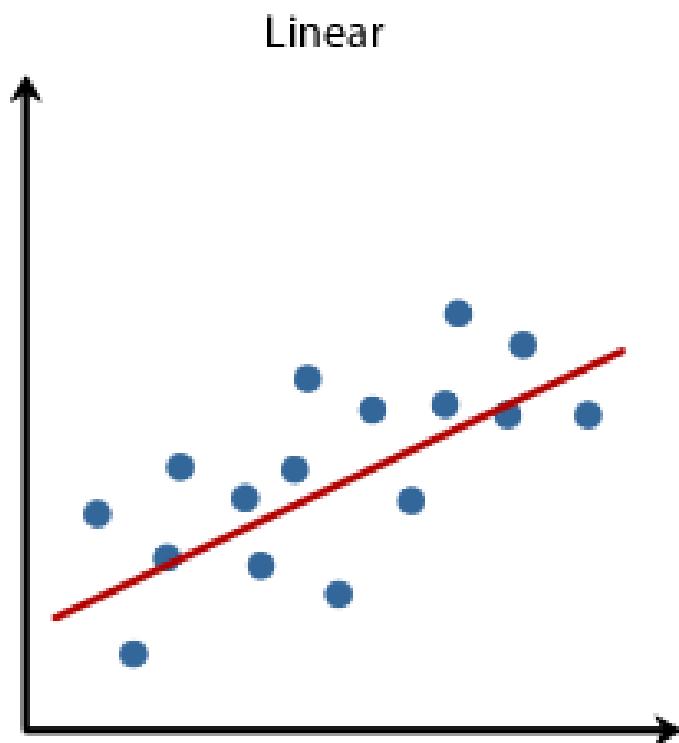
Sorting items into categories



### REGRESSION

Identifying real values (dollars, weight, etc.)

# Regression example



Copyright 2014. Laerd Statistics.

# Model Evaluations

# Classification -- Model evaluations

- Confusion Matrix
  - TP – True Positive ; FP – False Positive
  - FN – False Negative; TN – True Negative

		Predicted Class	
		Class = Yes	Class = No
Actual Class	Class = Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)
	Class = No	c (FP)	d (TN)

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{a + d}{a + b + c + d} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

# Classification -- Model evaluations

- Limitation of Accuracy
  - Consider a 2-class problem
    - Number of Class 0 examples = 9990
    - Number of Class 1 examples = 10
  - If a “stupid” model predicts everything to be class 0, accuracy is  $9990/10000 = 99.9\%$
- The accuracy is misleading because the model does not detect any example in class 1

# Classification -- Model evaluations

- Cost-sensitive measures

		Predicted Class	
Actual Class		Class = Yes	Class = No
	Class = Yes	a (TP)	b (FN)
	Class = No	c (FP)	d (TN)

$$\text{Precision (p)} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} = \frac{a}{a + c}$$

$$\text{Recall (r)} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} = \frac{a}{a + b}$$

Harmonic mean of Precision and Recall  
(Why not just average?)

$$\text{F - measure (F)} = \frac{2rp}{r + p} = \frac{2a}{2a + b + c}$$

# Example

- Given 30 human photographs, a computer predicts 19 to be male, 11 to be female. Among the 19 male predictions, 3 predictions are not correct. Among the 11 female predictions, 1 prediction is not correct.

		Predicted Class	
Actual Class		Male	Female
	Male	a = TP = 16	b = FN = 1
	Female	c = FP = 3	d = TN = 10

# Example

		Predicted Class	
Actual Class		Male	Female
	Male	a = TP = 16	b = FN = 1
	Female	c = FP = 3	d = TN = 10

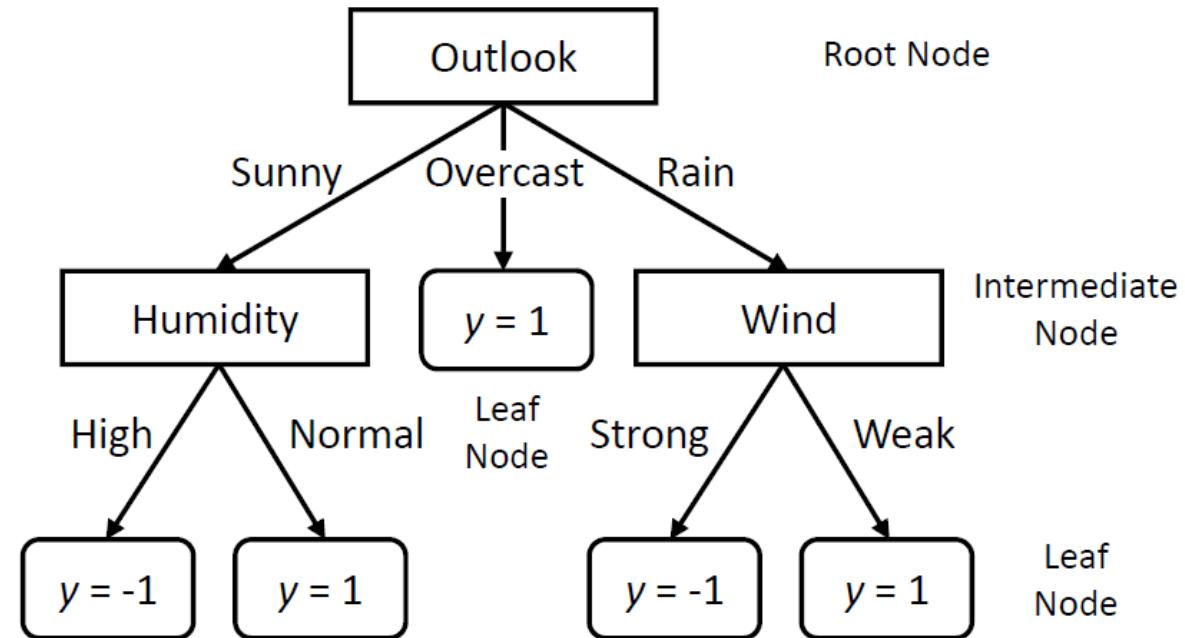
- Accuracy =  $(16 + 10) / (16 + 3 + 1 + 10) = 0.867$
- Precision =  $16 / (16 + 3) = 0.842$
- Recall =  $16 / (16 + 1) = 0.941$
- F-measure =  $2 (0.842)(0.941) / (0.842 + 0.941)$   
= 0.889

# Decision Tree

# Tree models

- Tree models
  - Intermediate node for splitting data
  - Leaf node for label prediction
- Discrete/categorical data example

Predictors				Response
Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Class
				Play=Yes
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
Overcast	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Rain	Mild	High	Weak	Yes
Rain	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rain	Cool	Normal	Strong	No
Overcast	Cool	Normal	Strong	Yes
Sunny	Mild	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Cool	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rain	Mild	Normal	Weak	Yes
Sunny	Mild	Normal	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Mild	High	Strong	Yes
Overcast	Hot	Normal	Weak	Yes
Rain	Mild	High	Strong	No

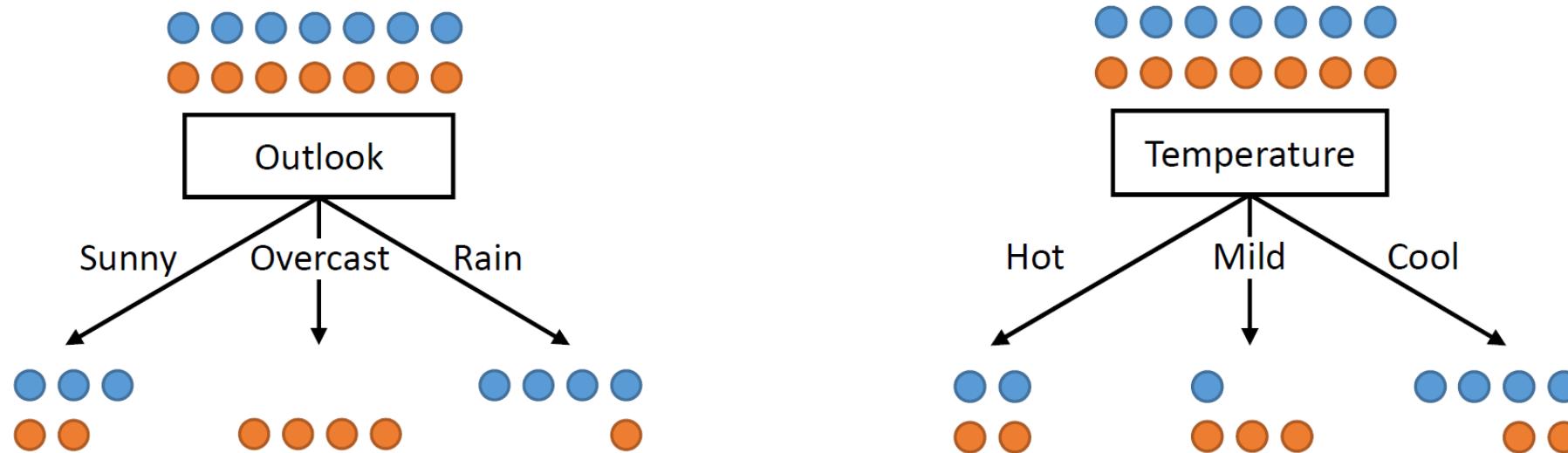


# Tree models

- Tree models
  - Intermediate node for splitting data
  - Leaf node for label prediction
- Discrete/categorical data example
- Key questions for decision trees
  - How to select node splitting conditions?
  - How to make prediction?
  - How to decide the tree structure?

# Node splitting

- Which node splitting condition to choose?



- Choose the features with higher classification capacity
  - Quantitatively, with higher **information gain**

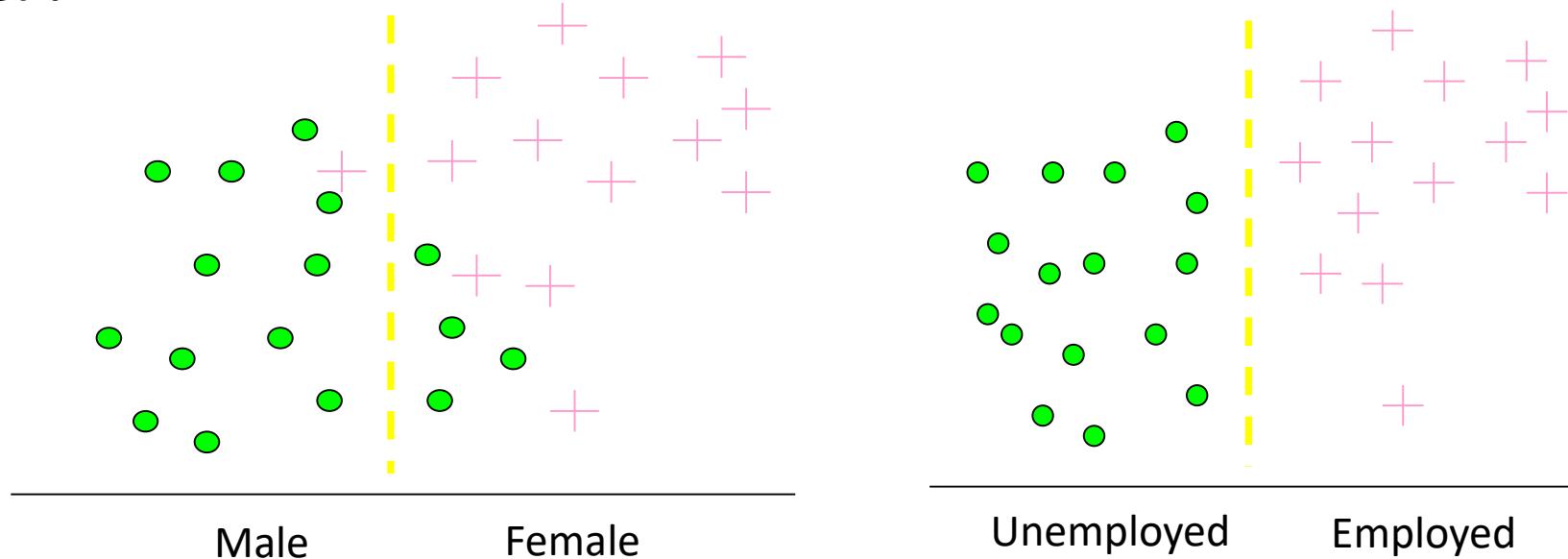
# Information Theory

# Motivating example 1

- Suppose you are a police officer and there was a robbery last night. There are several suspects and you want to find the criminal from them by asking some questions.
- You may ask: where are you last night?
- You are not likely to ask: what is your favorite food?
- Why there is a preference for the policeman? Because the first one can distinguish the guilty from the innocent. It is more **informative**.

# Motivating example 2

- Suppose we have a dataset of two classes of people. Which split is better?



- We prefer the right split because there is no outliers and it is more certain.

# Entropy

- How to measure the level of **informative** (first example) and level of **certainty** (second example) in mathematics?
- **Entropy** (more specifically, Shannon entropy) is the expected value (average) of the information contained in each message
- Suppose  $X$  is a random variable with  $n$  discrete values

$$P(X = x_i) = p_i$$

then the entropy is

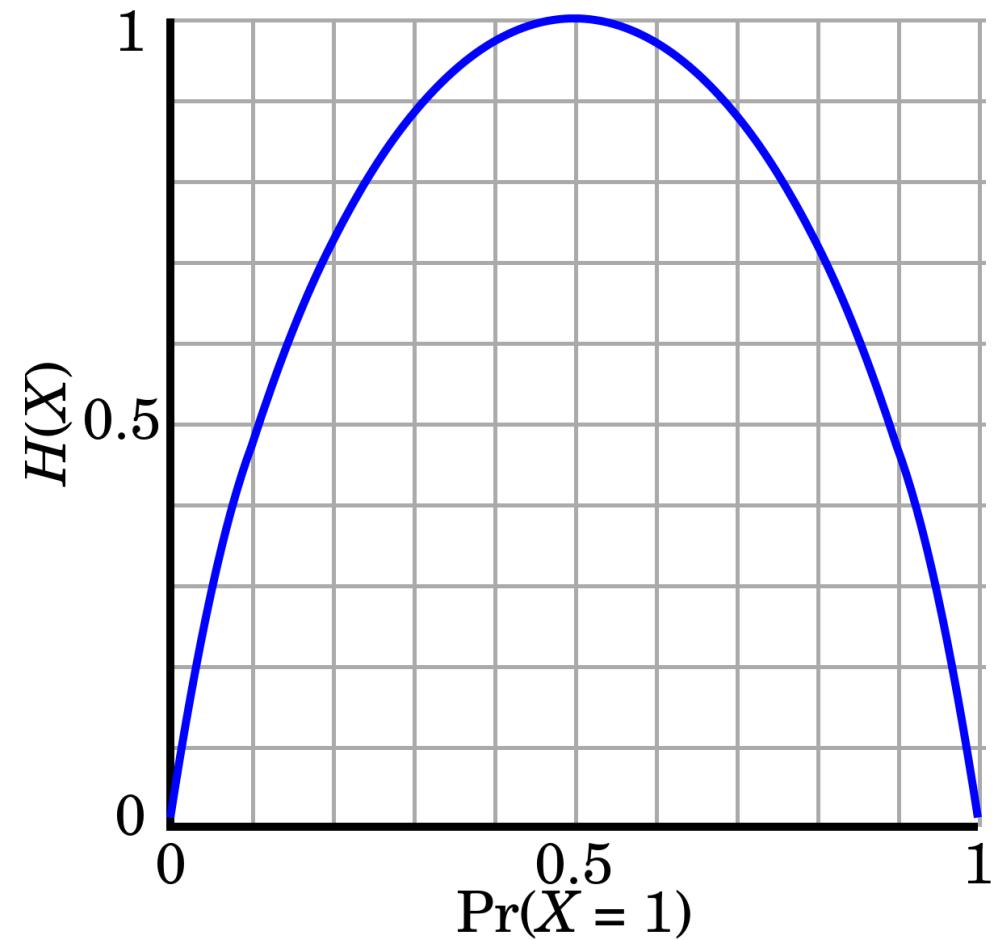
$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2(p_i)$$

- Easy to verify  $H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2(p_i) \leq - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \log_2 \frac{1}{n} = \log n$

# Illustration

- Entropy for binary distribution

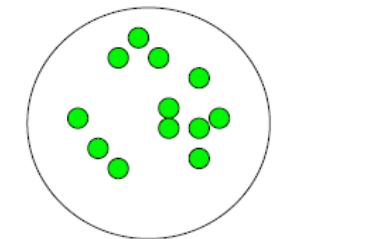
$$H(X) = -p_1 \log_2(p_1) - p_0 \log_2(p_0)$$



# Entropy examples

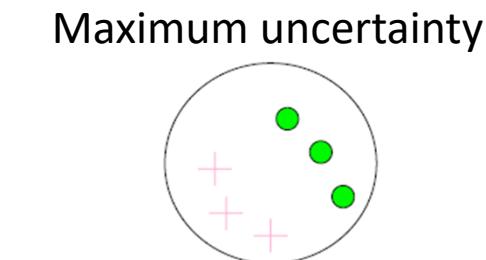
- What is the entropy of a group in which all examples belong to the same class?

- Entropy =  $-1 \log_2 1 = 0$



- What is the entropy of a group with 50% in either class?

- Entropy =  $-0.5 \log_2 0.5 - 0.5 \log_2 0.5 = 1$



# Conditional entropy

- Specific conditional entropy of  $X$  given  $Y = y$

$$H(X|Y = y) = - \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = i|Y = y) \log P(X = i|Y = y)$$

- Conditional entropy of  $X$  given  $Y$

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_y P(Y = y) H(X|Y = y)$$

- Information gain of  $X$  given  $Y$

$$I(X, Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

# Interpretation from coding perspective

- Usually **entropy** denotes the minimal average message length of the **best** coding (theoretically)
- When the probability distribution is composed of  $\frac{1}{2^i}$ , then the average length of Hoffman code is the entropy

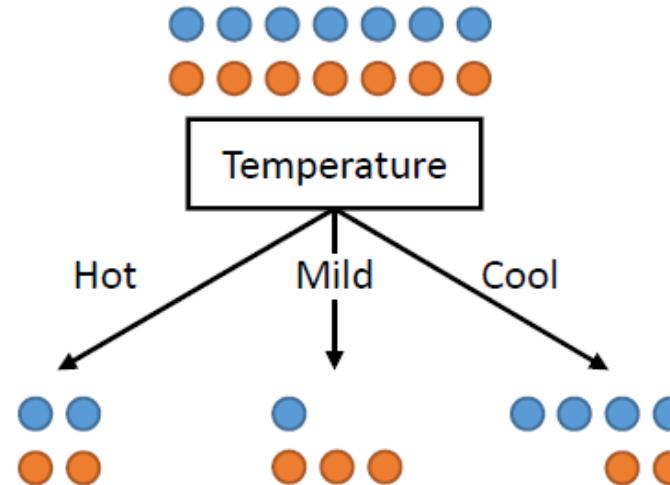
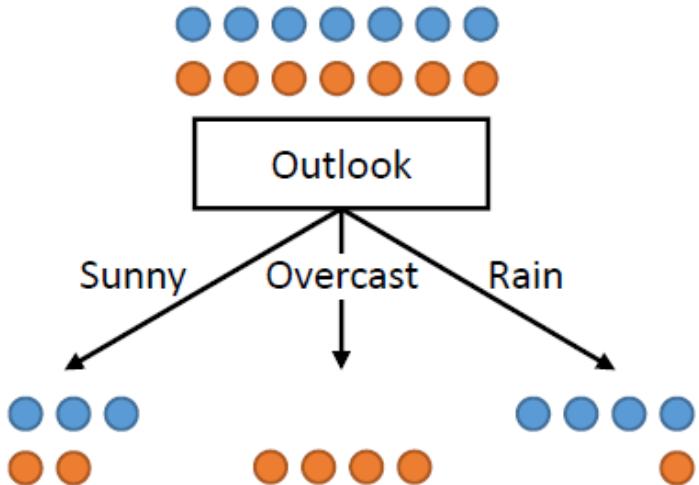
# Decision Tree

# Node Splitting

$$H(X|Y = v) = - \sum_{i=1}^n P(X = i|Y = v) \log P(X = i|Y = v)$$

$$H(X|Y) = \sum_{v \in \text{values}(Y)} P(Y = v) H(X|Y = v)$$

- Information gain



$$H(X|Y = S) = -\frac{3}{5} \log \frac{3}{5} - \frac{2}{5} \log \frac{2}{5} = 0.9710$$

$$H(X|Y = O) = -\frac{4}{4} \log \frac{4}{4} = 0$$

$$H(X|Y = R) = -\frac{4}{5} \log \frac{4}{5} - \frac{1}{5} \log \frac{1}{5} = 0.7219$$

$$H(X|Y) = \frac{5}{14} \times 0.9710 + \frac{4}{14} \times 0 + \frac{5}{14} \times 0.7219 = 0.6046$$

$$I(X, Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = 1 - 0.6046 = 0.3954$$

$$H(X|Y = H) = -\frac{2}{4} \log \frac{2}{4} - \frac{2}{4} \log \frac{2}{4} = 1$$

$$H(X|Y = M) = -\frac{1}{4} \log \frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \log \frac{3}{4} = 0.8113$$

$$H(X|Y = C) = -\frac{4}{6} \log \frac{4}{6} - \frac{2}{6} \log \frac{2}{6} = 0.9183$$

$$H(X|Y) = \frac{4}{14} \times 1 + \frac{4}{14} \times 0.8113 + \frac{5}{14} \times 0.9183 = 0.9111$$

$$I(X, Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = 1 - 0.9111 = 0.0889$$

# Node splitting

- We want to determine which attribute in a given set of training feature vectors is **most useful** for discriminating between the classes to be learned
- **Information gain** tells us how important a given attribute of the feature vectors is
  - Is used to decide the ordering of attributes in the nodes of a **decision tree**
  - **Information gain** of  $X$  given  $Y$ 
$$I(X, Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$

# Example

- Given a dataset of 8 students about whether they like the famous movie *Gladiator*, calculate the entropy in this dataset

Like
Yes
No
Yes
No
No
Yes
No
Yes

# Example (cont.)

- Given a dataset of 8 students about whether they like the famous movie *Gladiator*, calculate the entropy in this dataset

Like
Yes
No
Yes
No
No
Yes
No
Yes

$$E(Like) = -\frac{4}{8} \log \left( \frac{4}{8} \right) - -\frac{4}{8} \log \left( \frac{4}{8} \right) = 1$$

## Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the gender of these 8 students, what is the conditional entropy on gender?

Gender	Like
Male	Yes
Female	No
Male	Yes
Female	No
Female	No
Male	Yes
Male	No
Female	Yes

## Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the gender of these 8 students, what is the conditional entropy on gender?
- The labels are divided into two small dataset based on the gender

Like (male)
Yes
Yes
Yes
No

Like(female)
No
No
No
Yes

$$P(\text{Yes} \mid \text{male}) = 0.75$$

$$P(\text{Yes} \mid \text{female}) = 0.25$$

Gender	Like
Male	Yes
Female	No
Male	Yes
Female	No
Female	No
Male	Yes
Male	No
Female	Yes

# Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the gender of these 8 students, what is the conditional entropy on gender?

- $P(\text{Yes}|\text{male}) = 0.75$

- $P(\text{Yes}|\text{female}) = 0.25$

- $H(\text{Like}|\text{male})$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \log \left( \frac{1}{4} \right) - \frac{3}{4} \log \left( \frac{3}{4} \right)$$

$$= -0.25 * -2 - 0.75 * -0.41 = 0.81$$

- $H(\text{Like}|\text{female})$

$$= -\frac{3}{4} \log \left( \frac{3}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{4} \log \left( \frac{1}{4} \right)$$

$$= -0.75 * -0.41 - 0.25 * -2 = 0.81$$

Gender	Like
Male	Yes
Female	No
Male	Yes
Female	No
Female	No
Male	Yes
Male	No
Female	Yes

# Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the gender of these 8 students, what is the conditional entropy on gender?

- $E(\text{Like}|\text{Gender})$

$$\begin{aligned}&= E(\text{Like}|\text{male}) * P(\text{male}) \\&\quad + E(\text{Like}|\text{female}) * P(\text{female}) \\&= 0.5 * 0.81 + 0.5 * 0.81 = 0.81\end{aligned}$$

- $I(\text{Like}, \text{Gender}) = E(\text{Like}) - E(\text{Like}|\text{Gender})$

$$= 1 - 0.81 = 0.19$$

Gender	Like
Male	Yes
Female	No
Male	Yes
Female	No
Female	No
Male	Yes
Male	No
Female	Yes

## Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the major of these 8 students, what about the conditional entropy on major?

Major	Like
Math	Yes
History	No
CS	Yes
Math	No
Math	No
CS	Yes
History	No
Math	Yes

# Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the major of these 8 students, what about the conditional entropy on major?
- Three datasets are created based on major

Like (math)
Yes
No
No
Yes

$$P(\text{Yes}|\text{math}) = 0.5$$

Like(history)
No
No

$$P(\text{Yes}|\text{history}) = 0$$

Like(cs)
Yes
Yes

$$P(\text{Yes}|\text{cs}) = 1$$

Major	Like
Math	Yes
History	No
CS	Yes
Math	No
Math	No
CS	Yes
History	No
Math	Yes

# Example (cont.)

- Suppose we now also know the major of these 8 students, what about the new Entropy

- $$H(\text{Like}|\text{Math}) = -\frac{2}{4} \log\left(\frac{2}{4}\right) - \frac{2}{4} \log\left(\frac{2}{4}\right) = 1$$
- $$H(\text{Like}|\text{CS}) = -\frac{2}{2} \log\left(\frac{2}{2}\right) - \frac{0}{2} \log\left(\frac{0}{2}\right) = 0$$
- $$H(\text{Like}|\text{history}) = -\frac{2}{2} \log\left(\frac{2}{2}\right) - \frac{0}{2} \log\left(\frac{0}{2}\right) = 0$$
- $$\begin{aligned} H(\text{Like}|\text{Major}) &= H(\text{Like}|\text{math}) \times P(\text{math}) \\ &\quad + H(\text{Like}|\text{History}) \times P(\text{History}) \\ &\quad + H(\text{Like}|\text{cs}) \times P(\text{cs}) \\ &= 0.5 * 1 + 0.25 * 0 + 0.25 * 0 = 0.5 \end{aligned}$$
- $$\begin{aligned} I(\text{Like}, \text{Major}) &= E(\text{Like}) - E(\text{Like}|\text{Major}) \\ &= 1 - 0.5 = 0.5 \end{aligned}$$

Major	Like
Math	Yes
History	No
CS	Yes
Math	No
Math	No
CS	Yes
History	No
Math	Yes

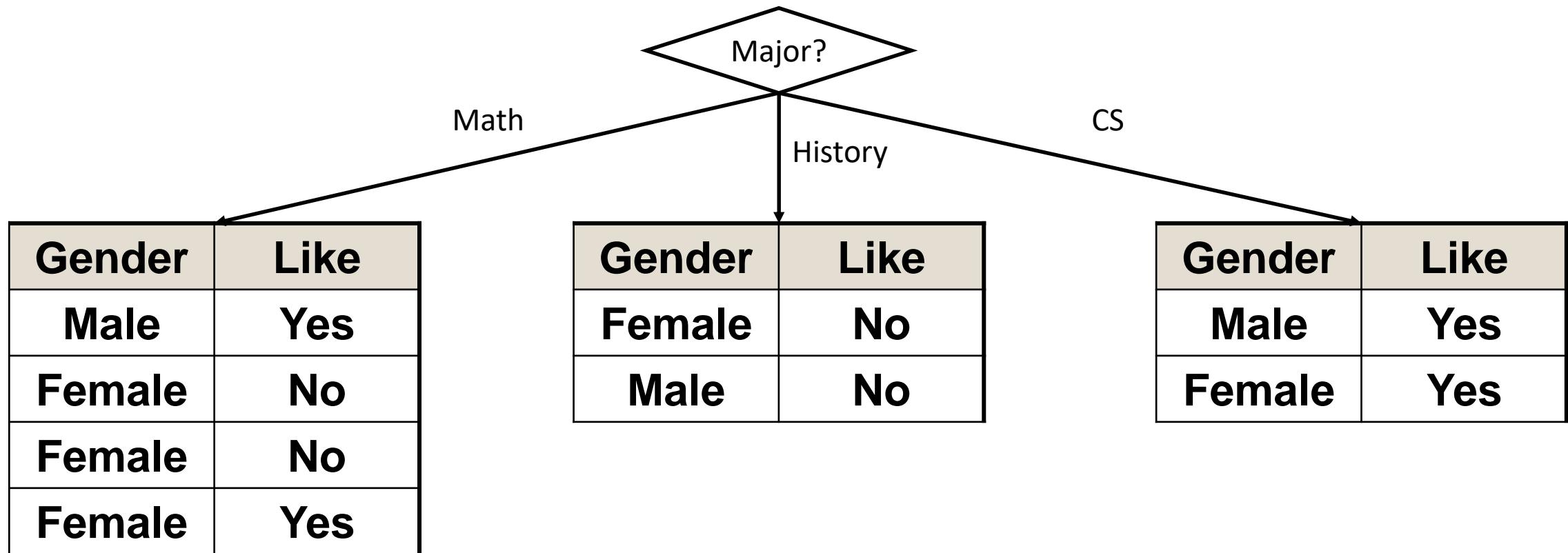
# Example (cont.)

- Compare gender and major
- As we have computed
  - $I(\text{Like}, \text{Gender}) = E(\text{Like}) - E(\text{Like}|\text{Gender}) = 1 - 0.81 = 0.19$
  - $I(\text{Like}, \text{Major}) = E(\text{Like}) - E(\text{Like}|\text{Major}) = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$
- Major is the better feature to predict the label “like”

Gender	Major	Like
Male	Math	Yes
Female	History	No
Male	CS	Yes
Female	Math	No
Female	Math	No
Male	CS	Yes
Male	History	No
Female	Math	Yes

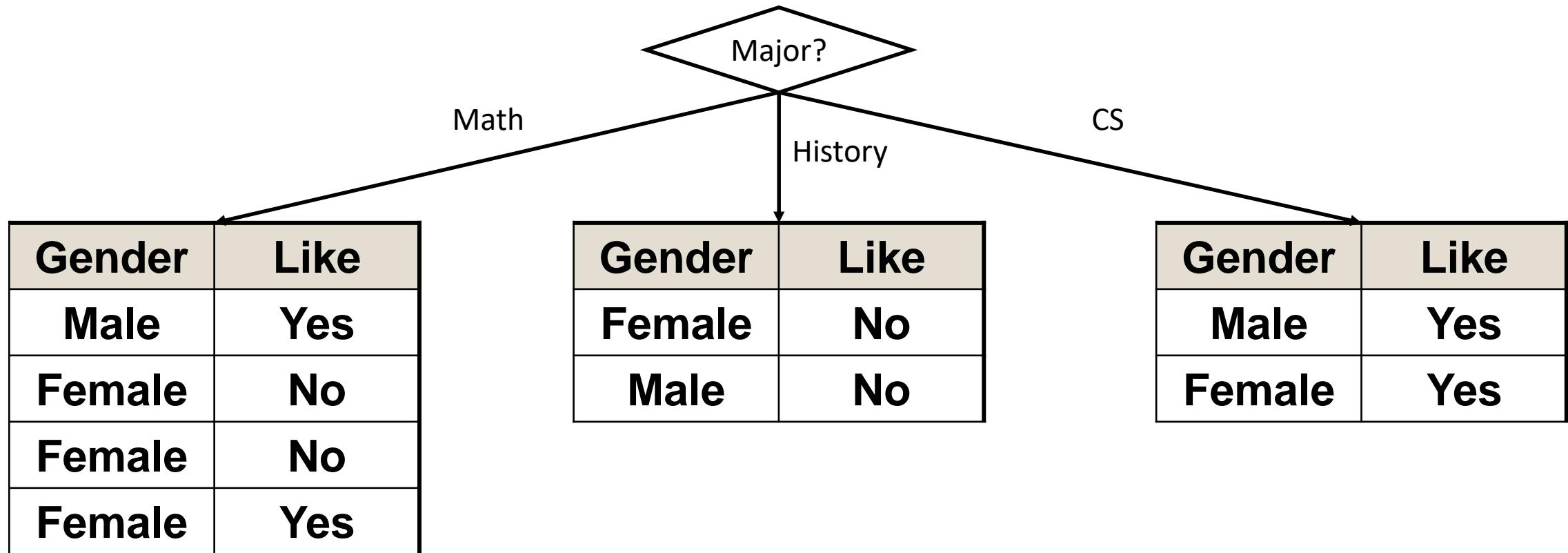
# Example (cont.)

- Major is used as the decision condition and it splits the dataset into three small one based on the answer

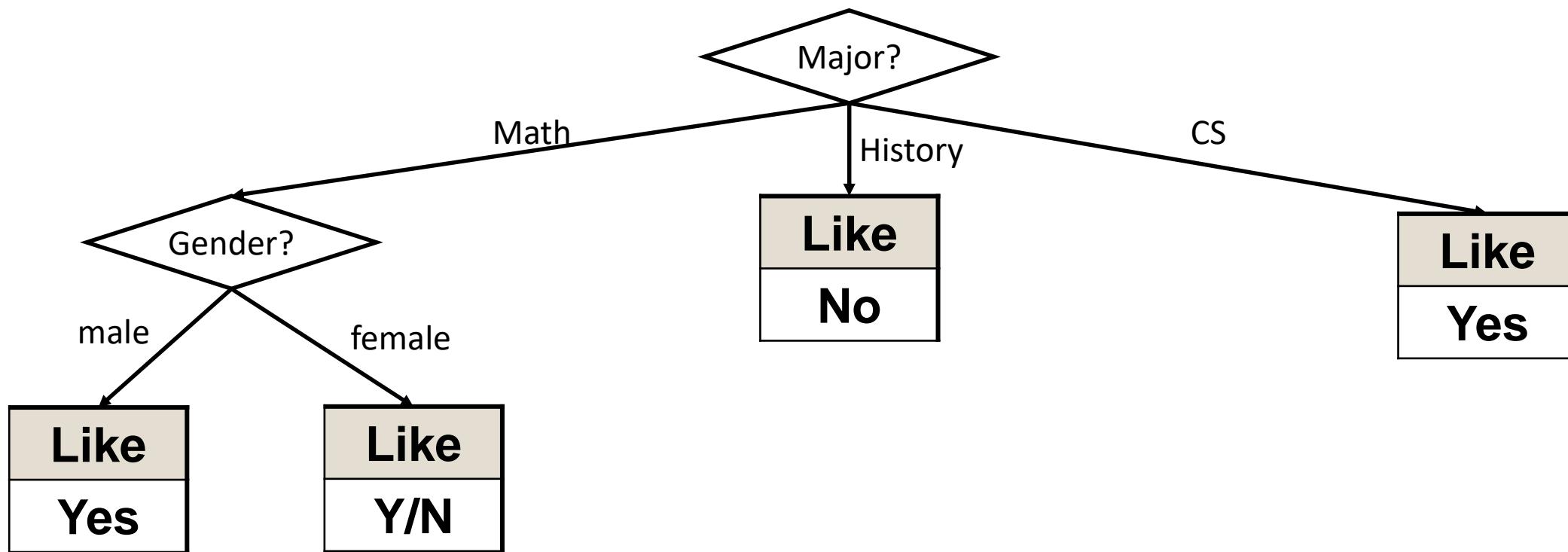


# Example (cont.)

- The history and CS subset contain only one label, so we only need to further expand the math subset

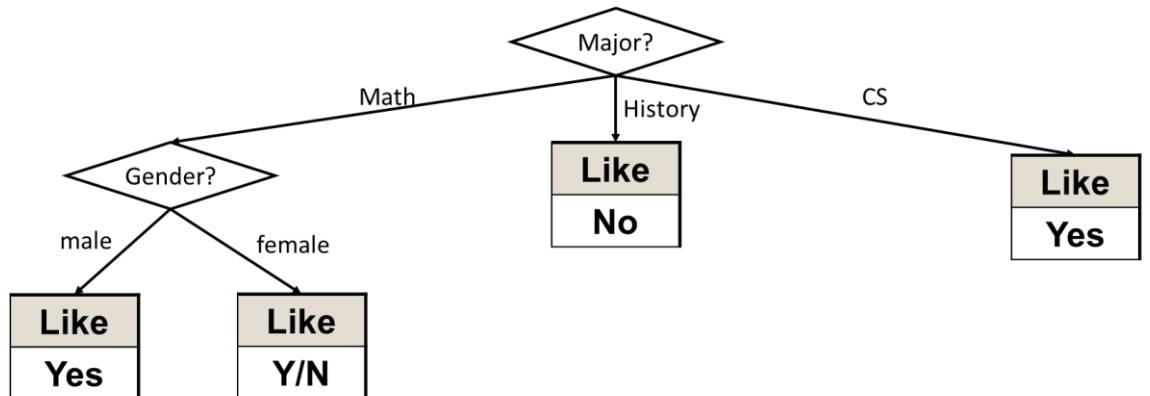


# Example (cont.)



# Example (cont.)

- In the stage of **testing**, suppose there come a female students from the CS department, how can we predict whether she like the movie Gladiator?
  - Based on the major of CS, we will directly predict she like the movie.
  - What about a male student and a female student from math department?



# Decision tree building: ID3 algorithm

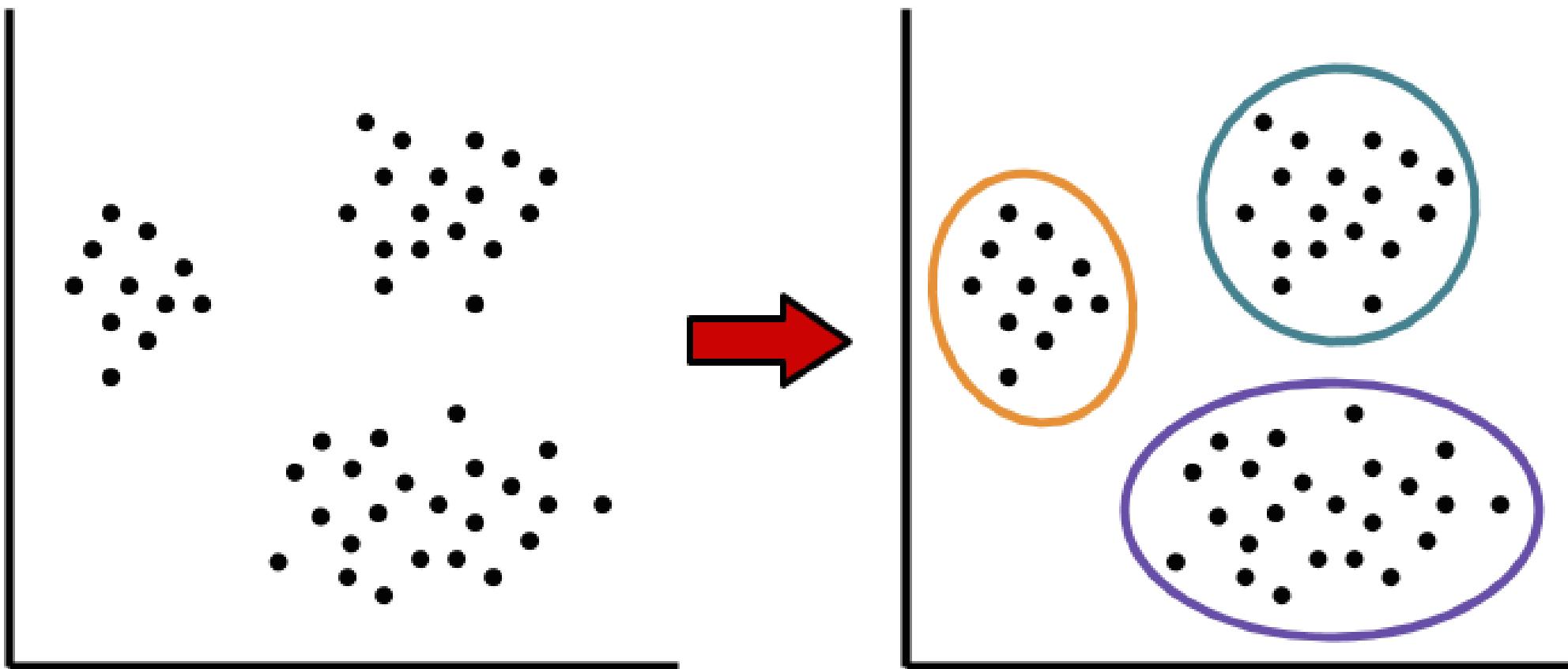
- Algorithm framework
  - Start from the root node with all data
  - For each node, calculate the information gain of all possible features
  - Choose the feature with the highest information gain
  - Split the data of the node according to the feature
  - Do the above recursively for each leaf node, until
    - There is no information gain for the leaf node
    - Or there is no feature to select
- Testing
  - Pass the example through the tree to the leaf node for a label

# Unsupervised Learning

# Machine learning categories

- **Unsupervised learning**
  - No labeled data
- **Supervised learning**
  - Use labeled data to predict on unseen points
- **Semi-supervised learning**
  - Use labeled data and unlabeled data to predict on unlabeled/unseen points
- **Reinforcement learning**
  - Sequential prediction and receiving feedbacks

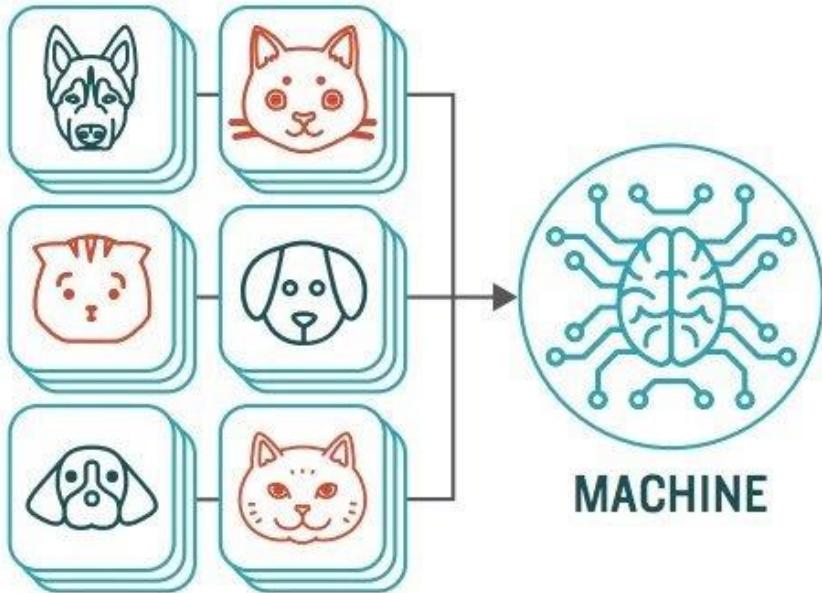
# Unsupervised learning example



# How **Unsupervised** Machine Learning Works

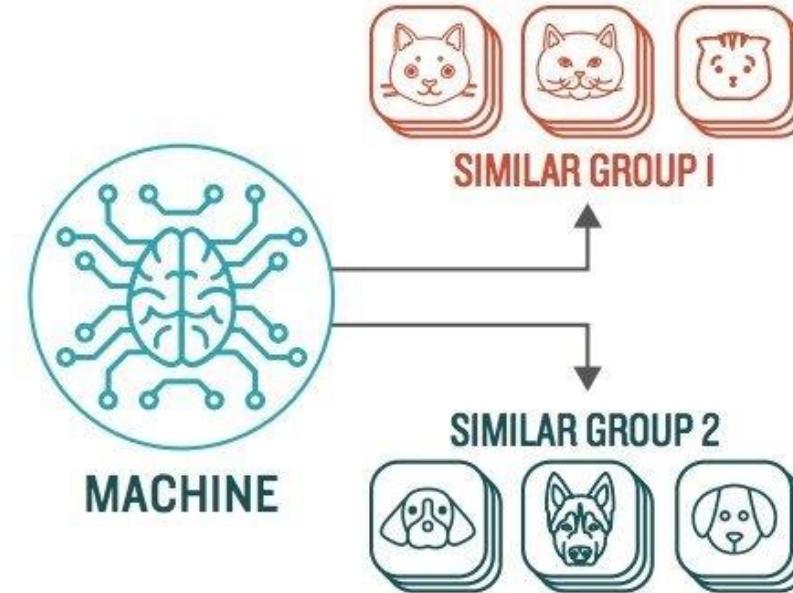
## STEP 1

Provide the machine learning algorithm uncategorized, unlabeled input data to see what patterns it finds

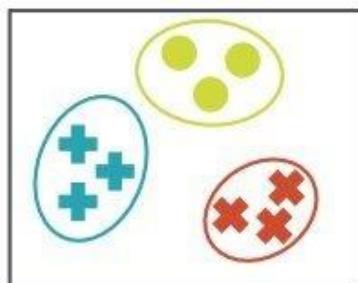


## STEP 2

Observe and learn from the patterns the machine identifies



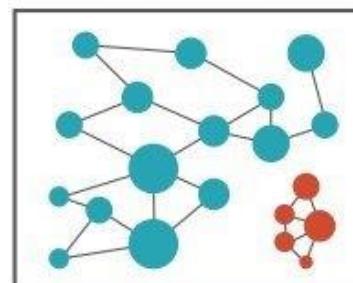
## TYPES OF PROBLEMS TO WHICH IT'S SUITED



### CLUSTERING

Identifying similarities in groups

For Example: Are there patterns in the data to indicate certain patients will respond better to this treatment than others?



### ANOMALY DETECTION

Identifying abnormalities in data

For Example: Is a hacker intruding in our network?

## **Supervised Learning**

Input data is labelled

Uses training dataset

Used for prediction

Classification and regression

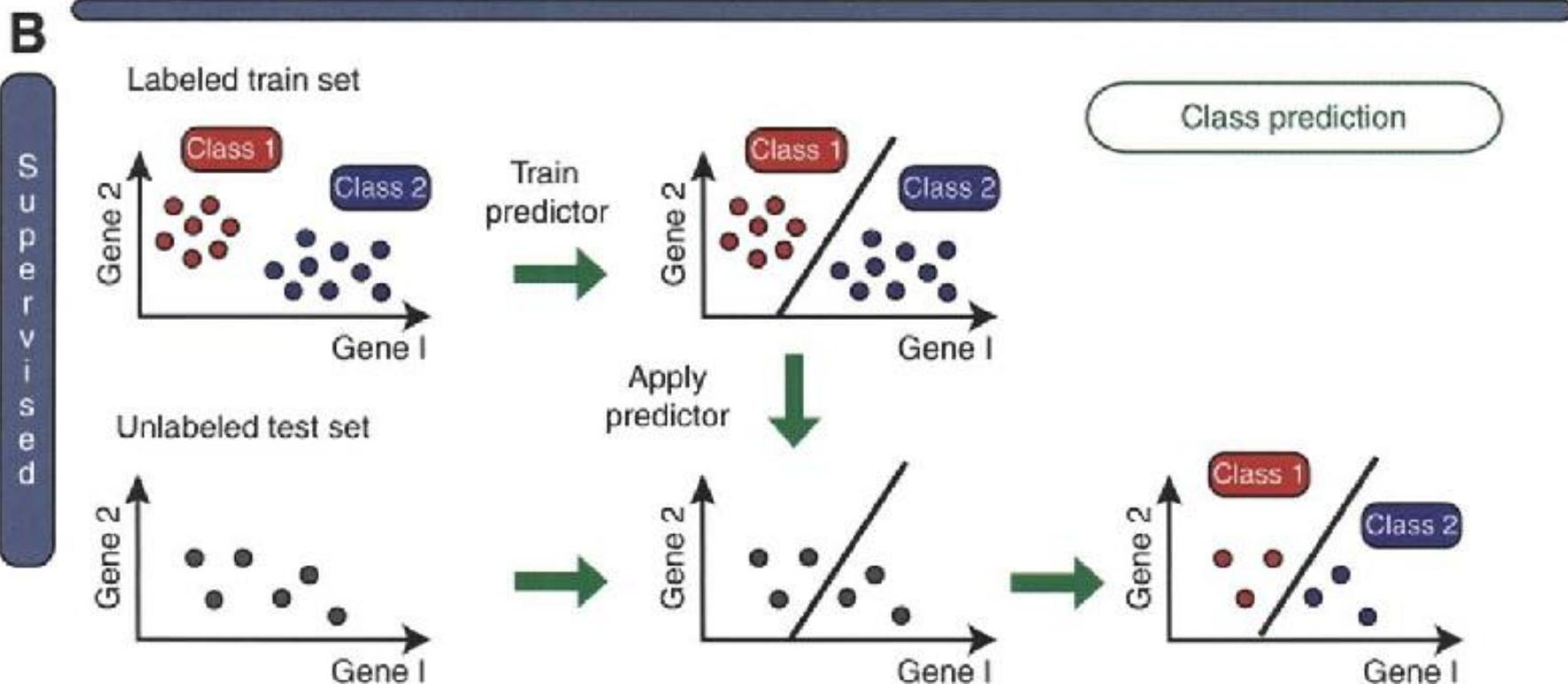
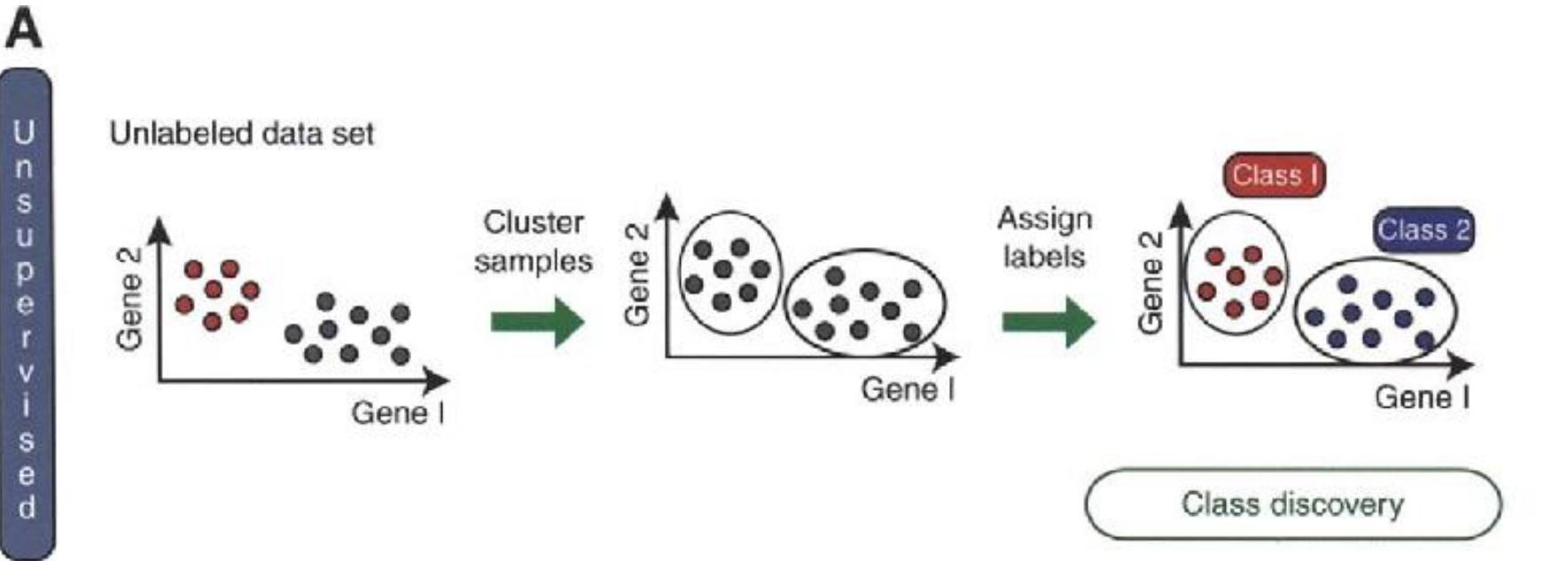
## **Unsupervised Learning**

Input data is unlabeled

Uses just input dataset

Used for analysis

Clustering, density estimation and  
dimensionality reduction



# Clustering

# Clustering

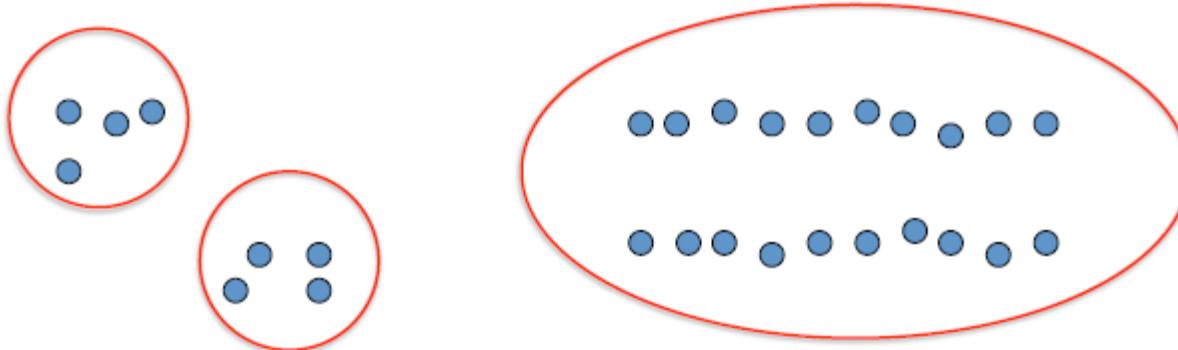
- Unsupervised learning
- Requires data, but no labels
- Detect patterns e.g. in
  - Group emails or search results
  - Customer shopping patterns
  - Regions of images
- Useful when don't know what you're looking for
- But: can get gibberish

# Clustering (cont.)

- Goal: Automatically segment data into groups of similar points
- Question: When and why would we want to do this?
- Useful for:
  - Automatically organizing data
  - Understanding hidden structure in some data
  - Representing high-dimensional data in a low-dimensional space
- Examples: Cluster
  - customers according to purchase histories
  - genes according to expression profile
  - search results according to topic
  - Facebook users according to interests
  - a museum catalog according to image similarity

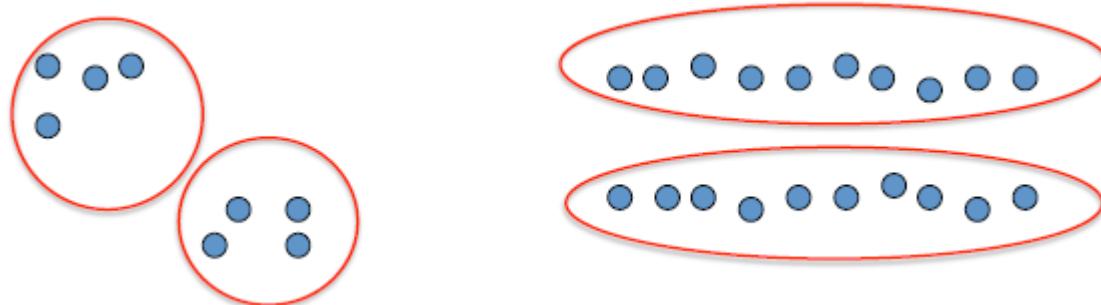
# Intuition

- Basic idea: group together similar instances
- Example: 2D point patterns



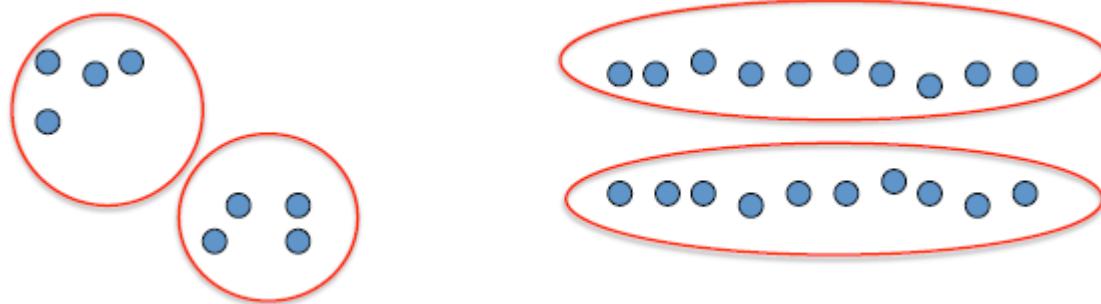
# Intuition (cont.)

- Basic idea: group together similar instances
- Example: 2D point patterns



# Intuition (cont.)

- Basic idea: group together similar instances
- Example: 2D point patterns



- What could “similar” mean?
- – One option: small Euclidean distance (squared)
- – Clustering results are crucially dependent on the measure of similarity (or **distance**) between “points” to be clustered

# Set-up

- Given the data:  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$

- Each data point  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $d$ -dimensional:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i,1}, \dots, x_{i,d})$$

- Define a distance function between data:

$$d(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m).$$

- Goal: segment the data into  $K$  groups

# Clustering algorithms

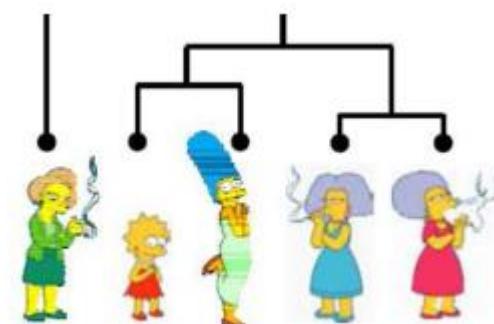
- Partition algorithms (flat clustering)

- K-means
- Mixture of Gaussian
- Spectral Clustering



- Hierarchical algorithms

- Bottom up-agglomerative
- Top down-divisive



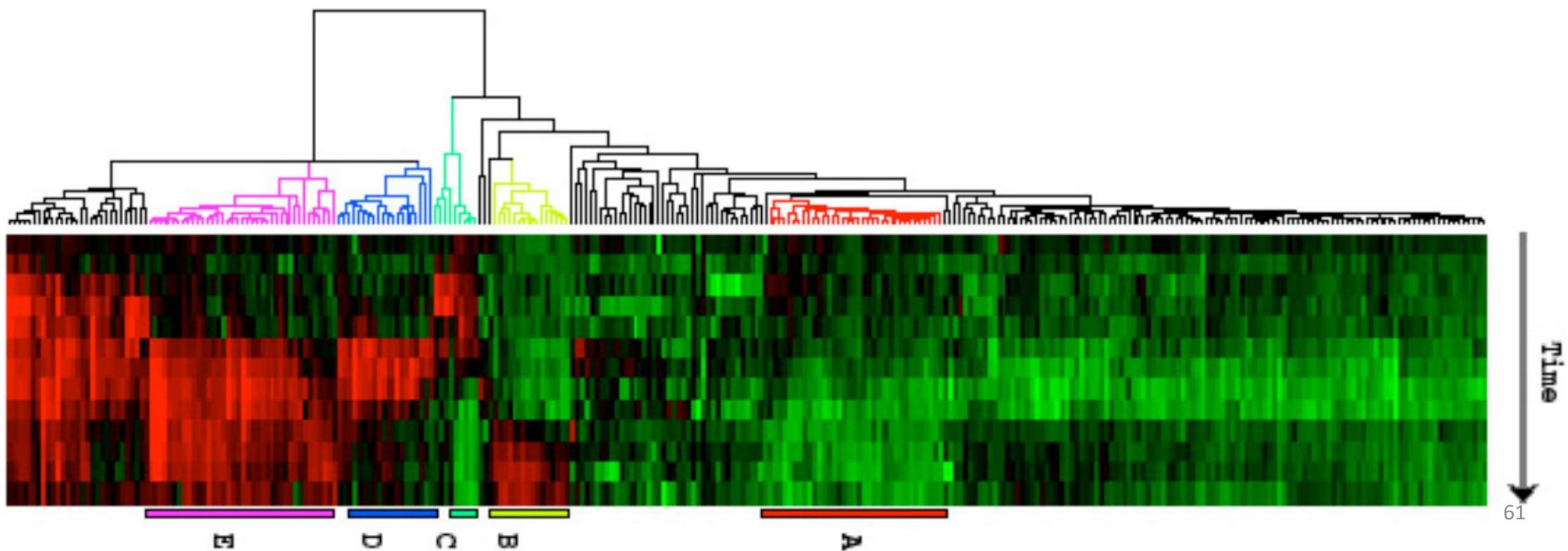
# Example

- Image segmentation
- Goal: Break up the image into meaningful or perceptually similar regions



# Example 2

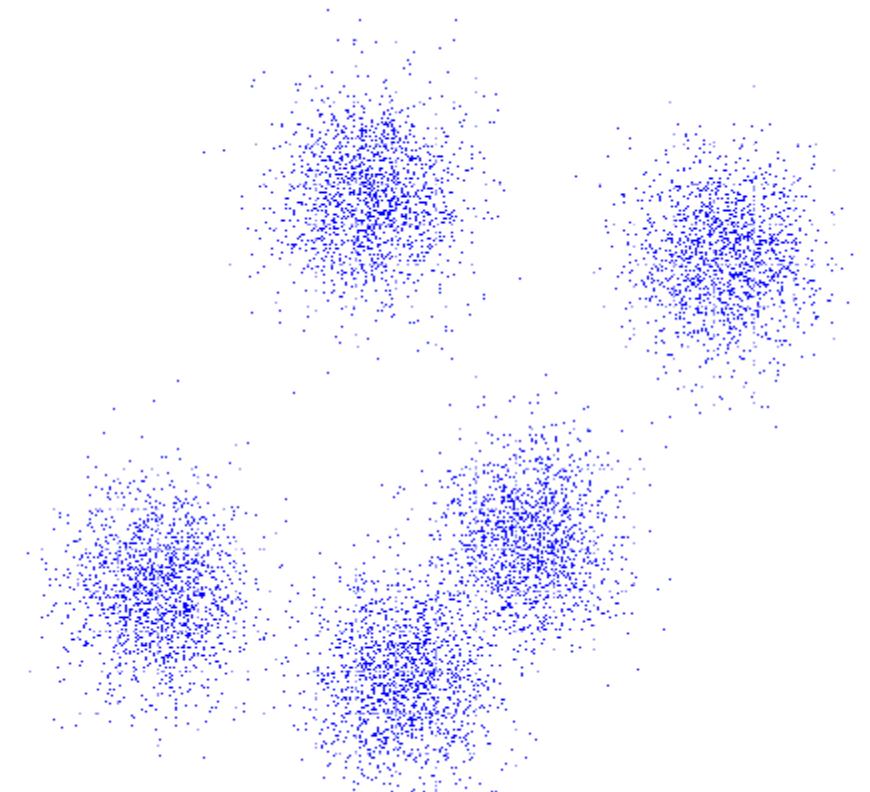
- Gene expression data clustering
  - Activity level of genes across time



# K-Means

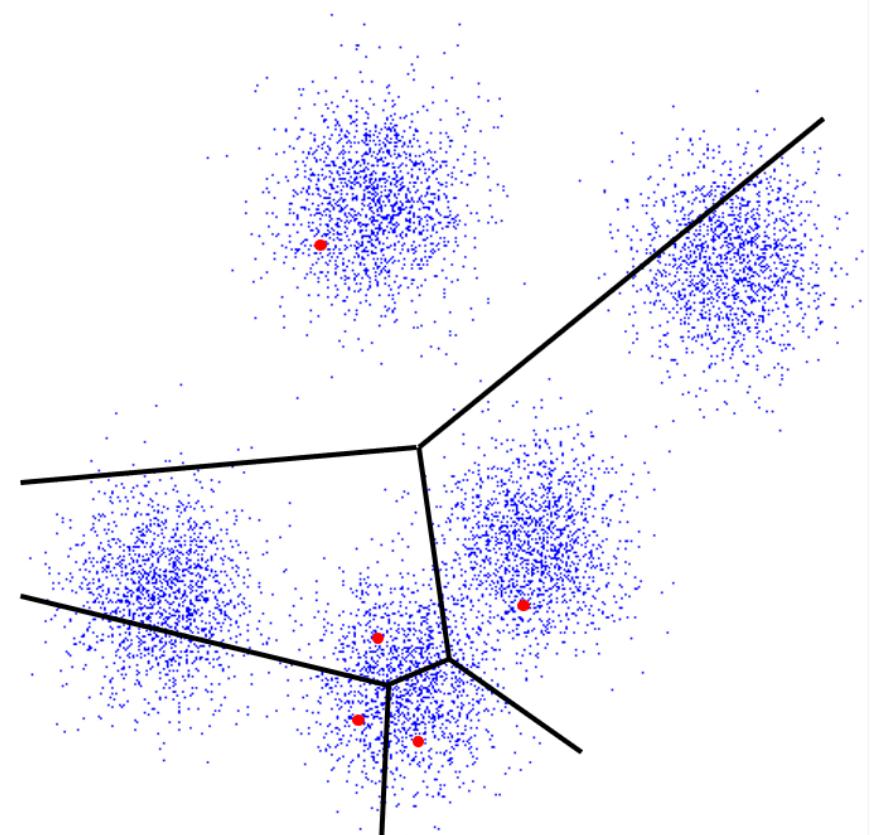
# K-Means

- An iterative clustering algorithm
- **Initialize:** Pick  $K$  random points as cluster centers
- **Alternate:**
  - Assign data points to closest cluster center
  - Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points
- **Stop:** when no points' assignments change



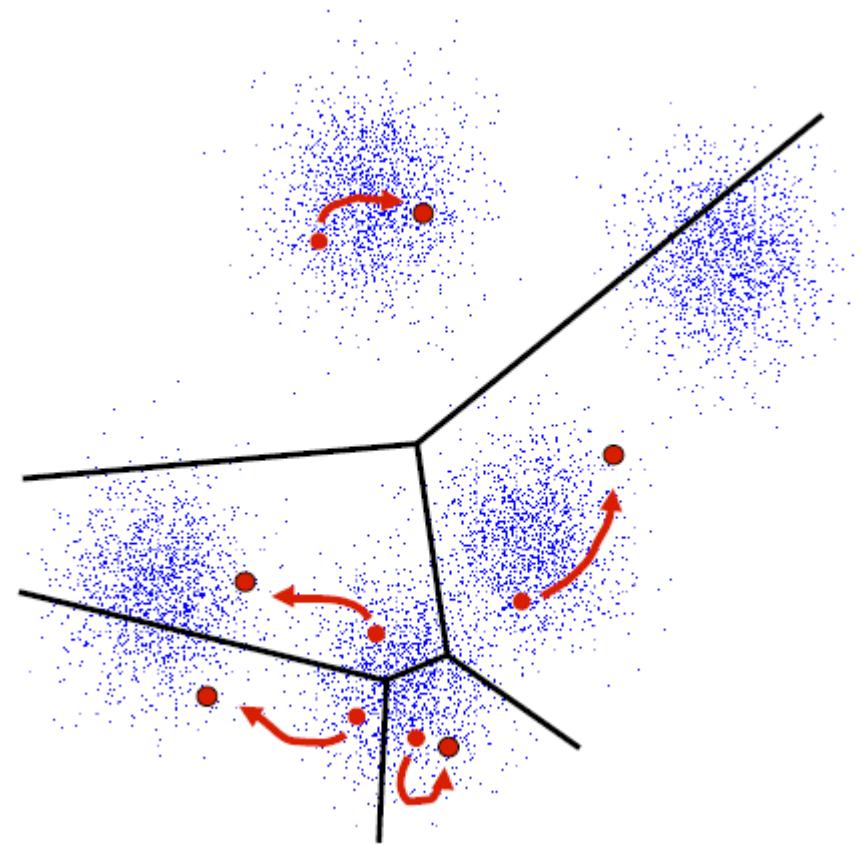
# K-Means (cont.)

- An iterative clustering algorithm
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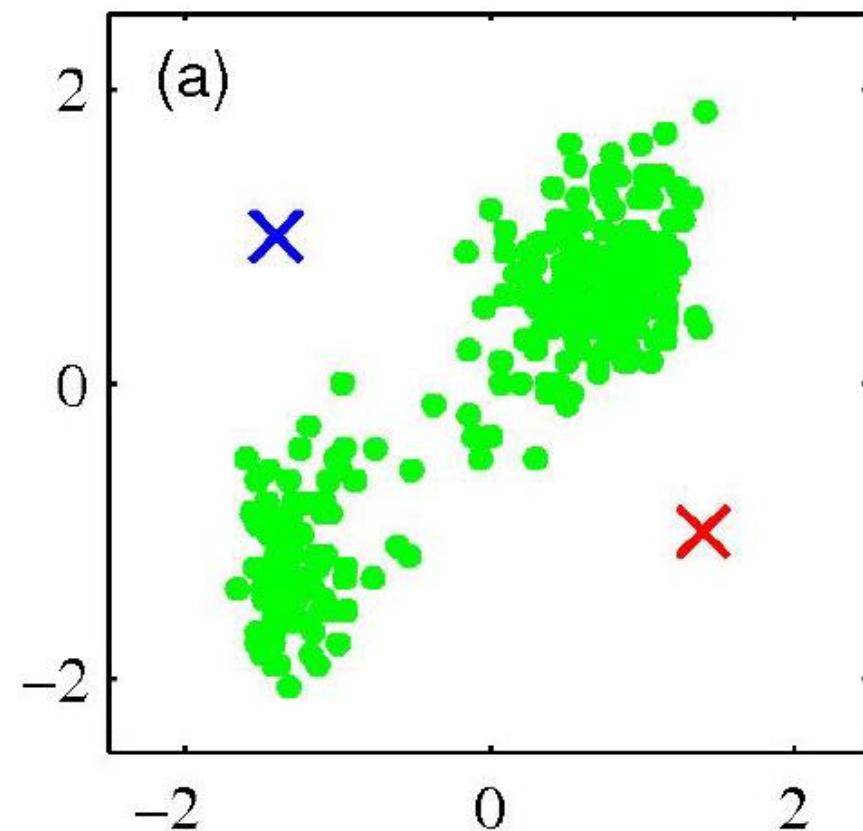
# K-Means (cont.)

- An iterative clustering algorithm
- **Initialize:** Pick  $K$  random points as cluster centers
- **Alternate:**
  - Assign data points to closest cluster center
  - Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points
- **Stop:** when no points' assignments change



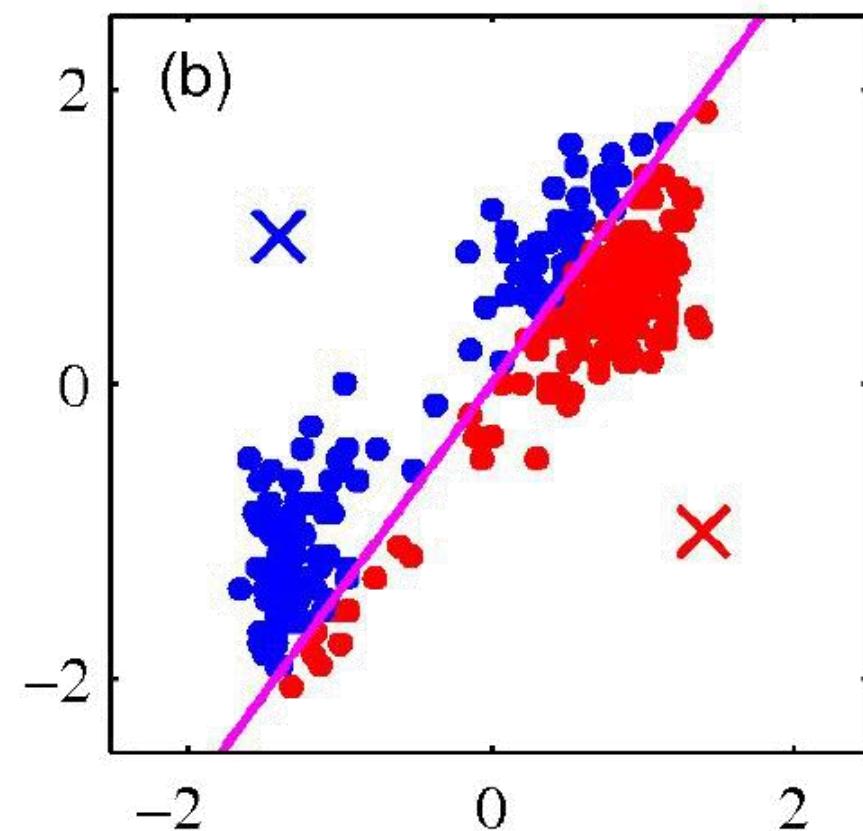
# Example

- Pick  $K$  random points as cluster centers (means)
- Shown here for  $K = 2$



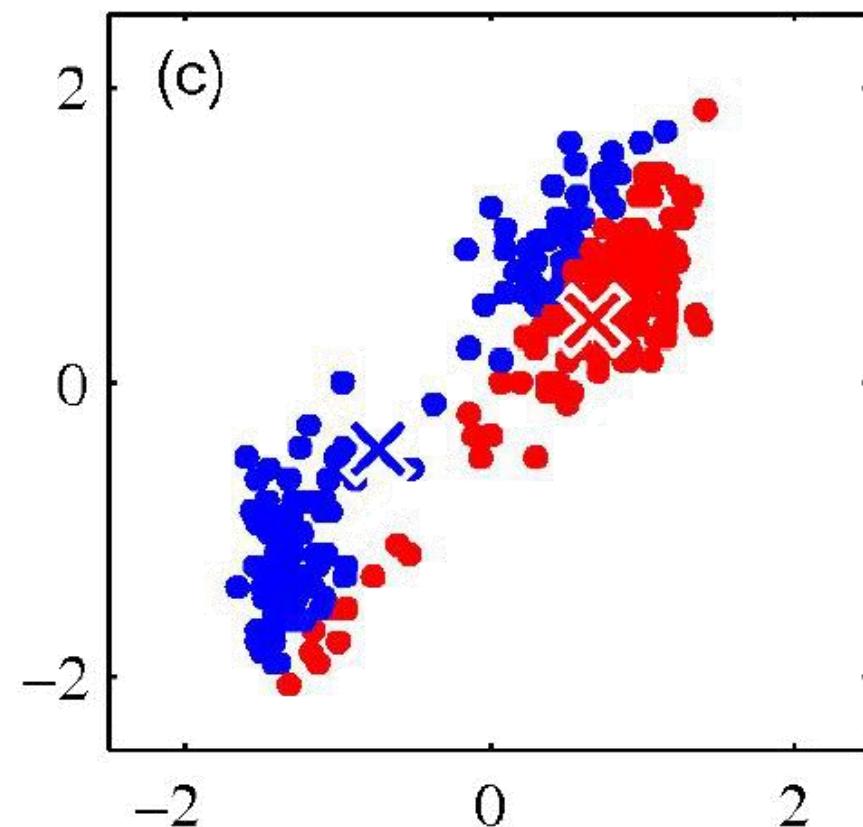
# Example (cont.)

- Iterative step 1
- Assign data points to closest cluster center



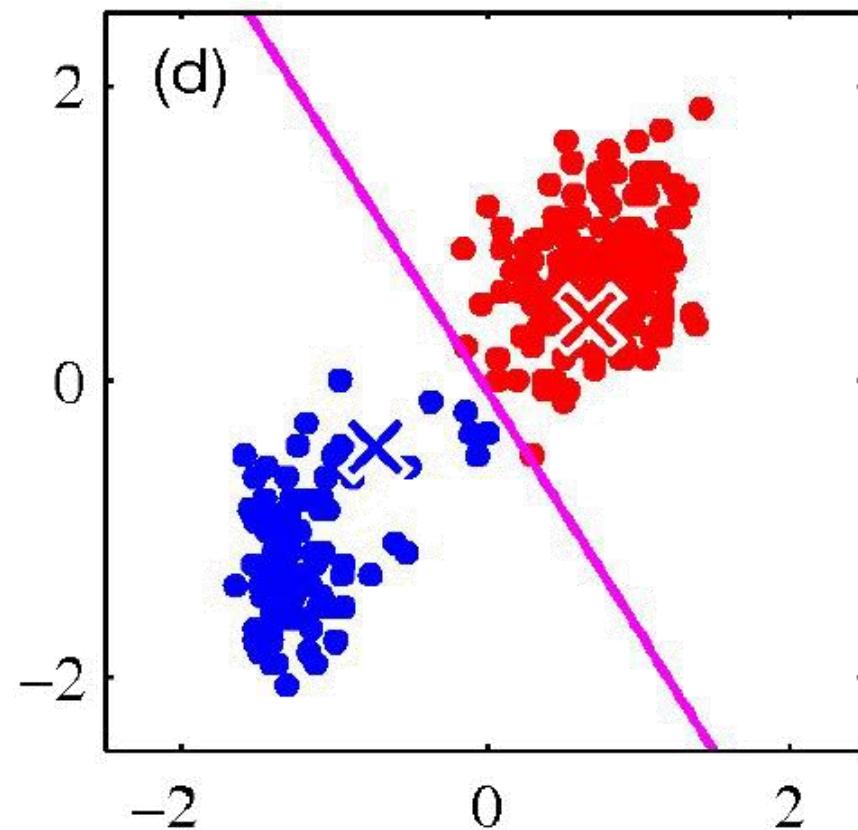
# Example (cont.)

- Iterative step 2
- Change the cluster center to the average of the assigned points



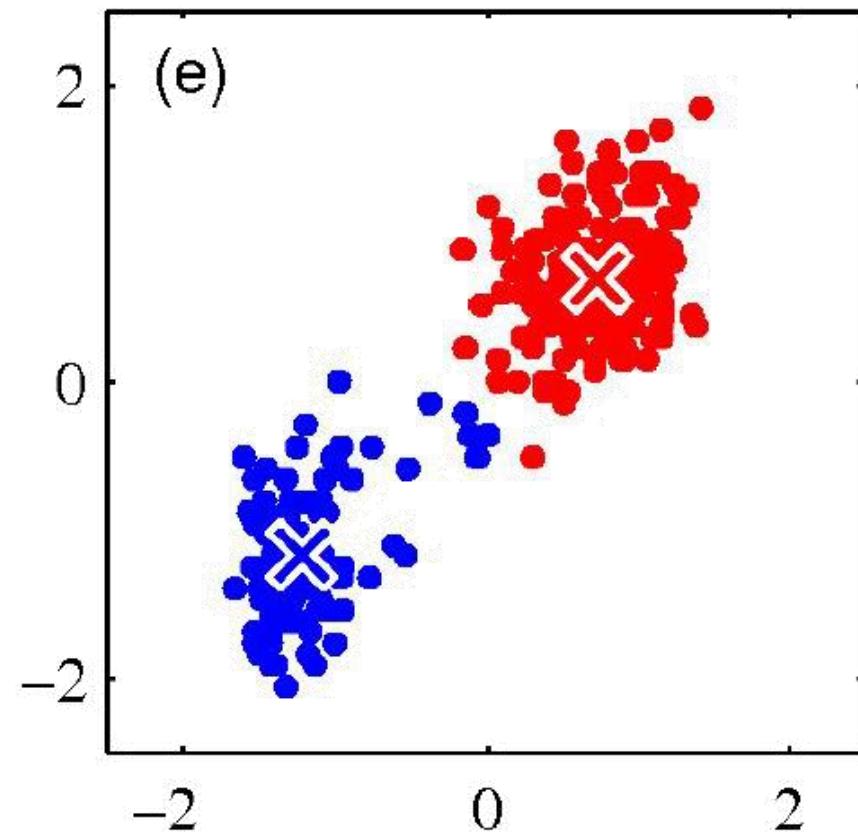
# Example (cont.)

- Repeat until convergence
- Convergence means that the differences of the center positions in two continuous loops is smaller than a threshold



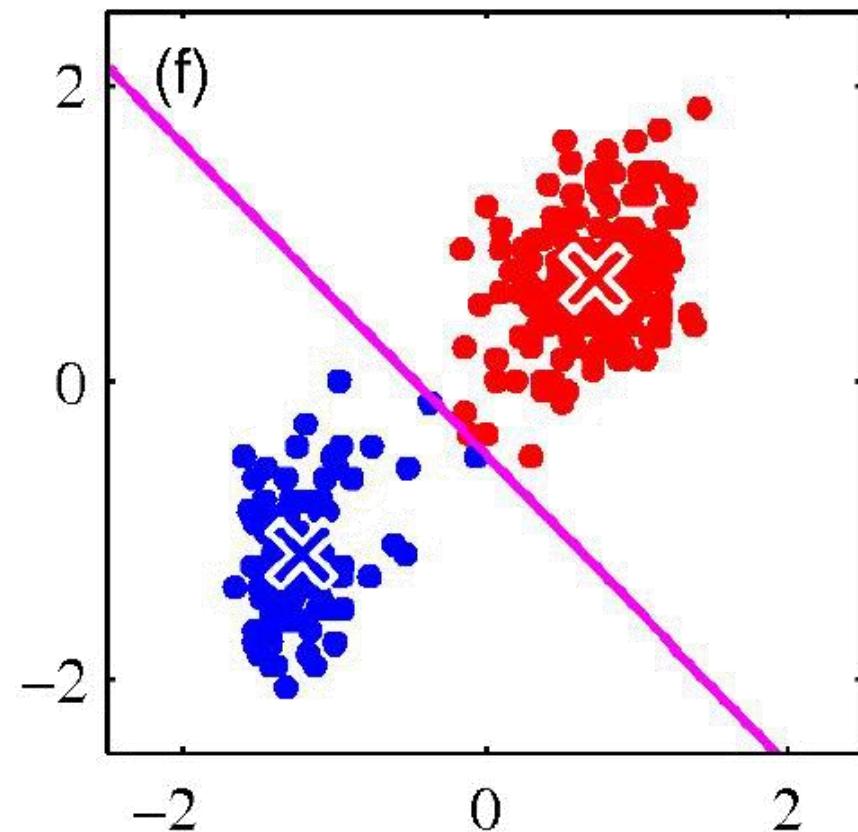
# Example (cont.)

- Repeat until convergence
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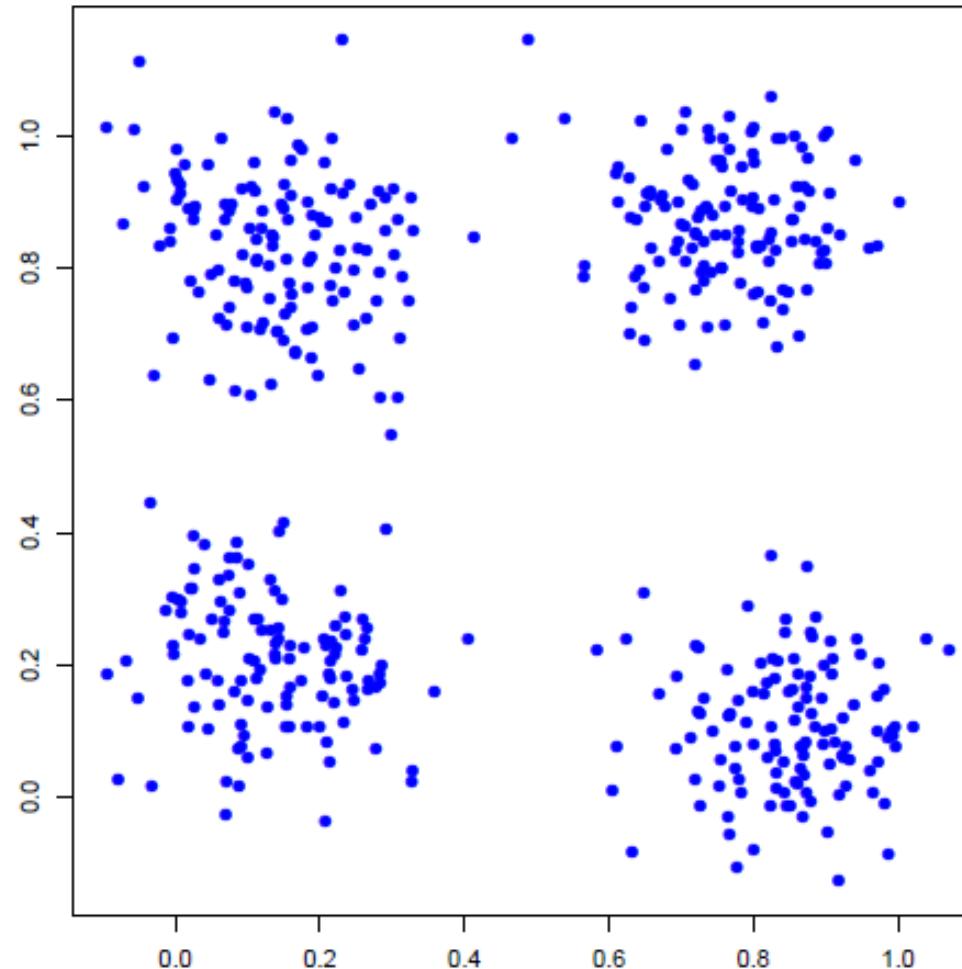
# Example (cont.)

- Repeat until convergence
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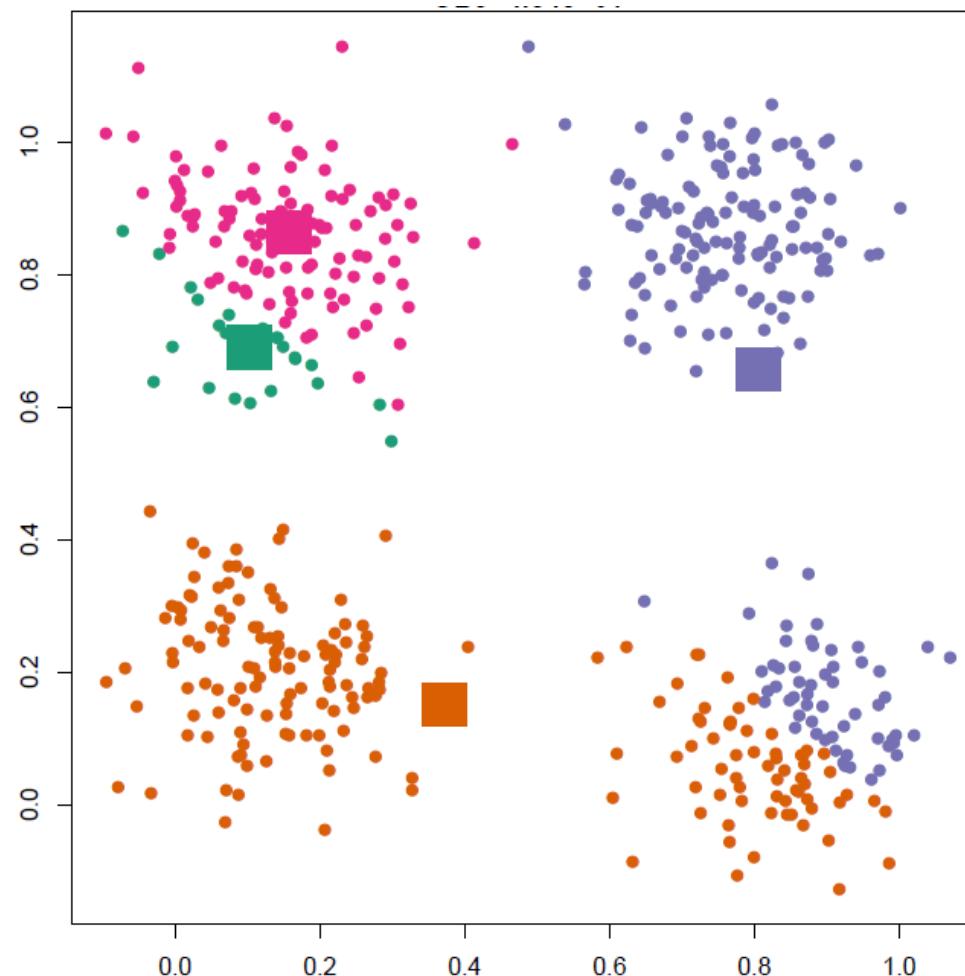
## Example 2

- $K = 4$



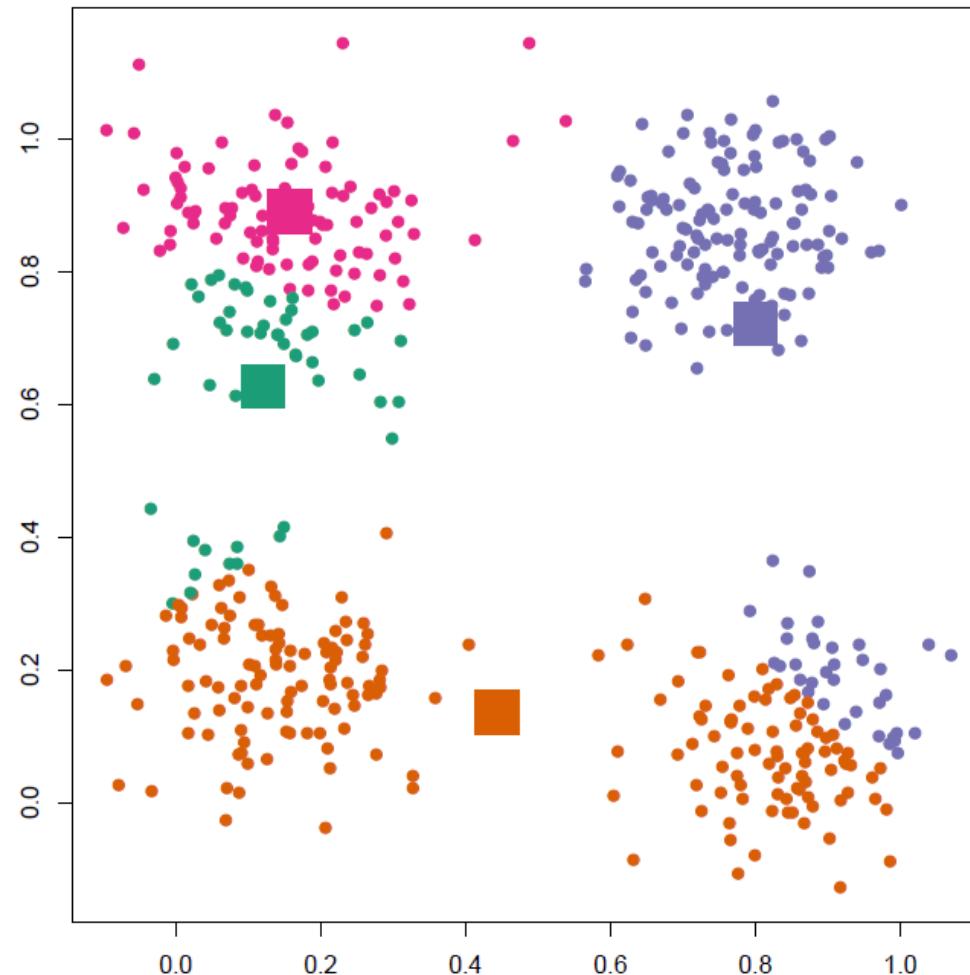
## Example 2 (cont.)

- $K = 4$



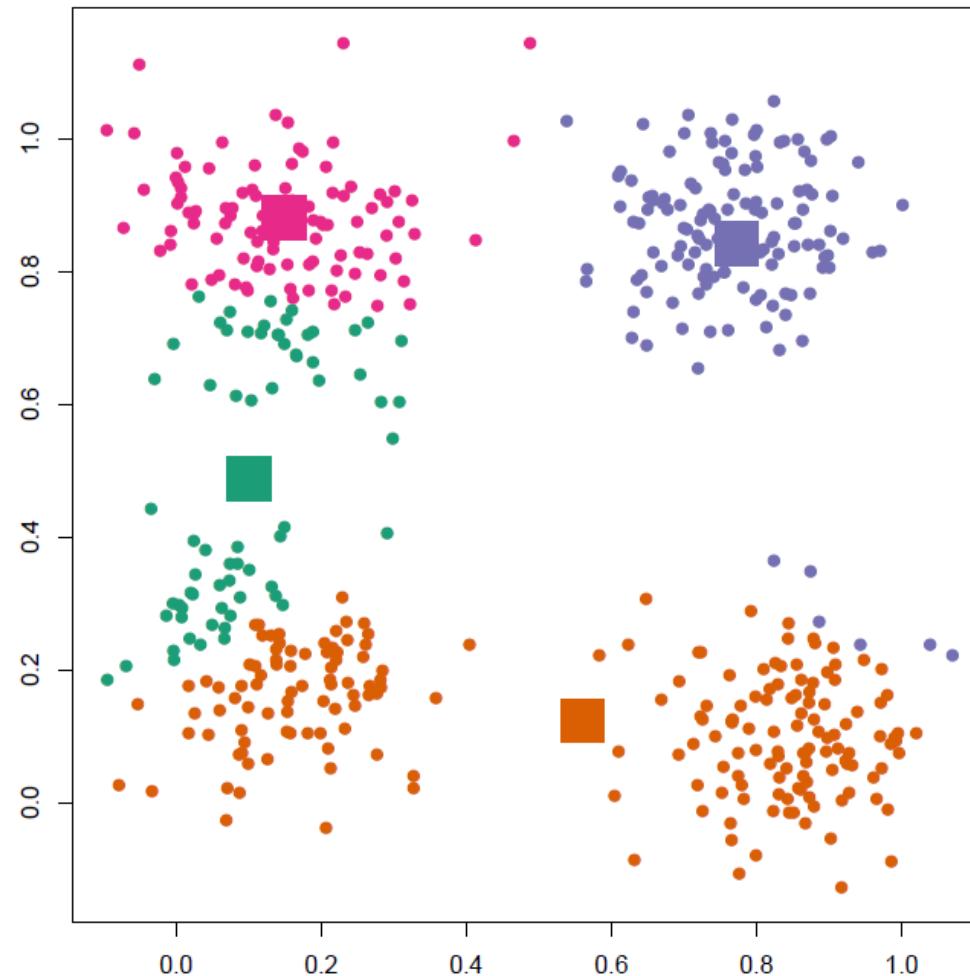
## Example 2 (cont.)

- $K = 4$



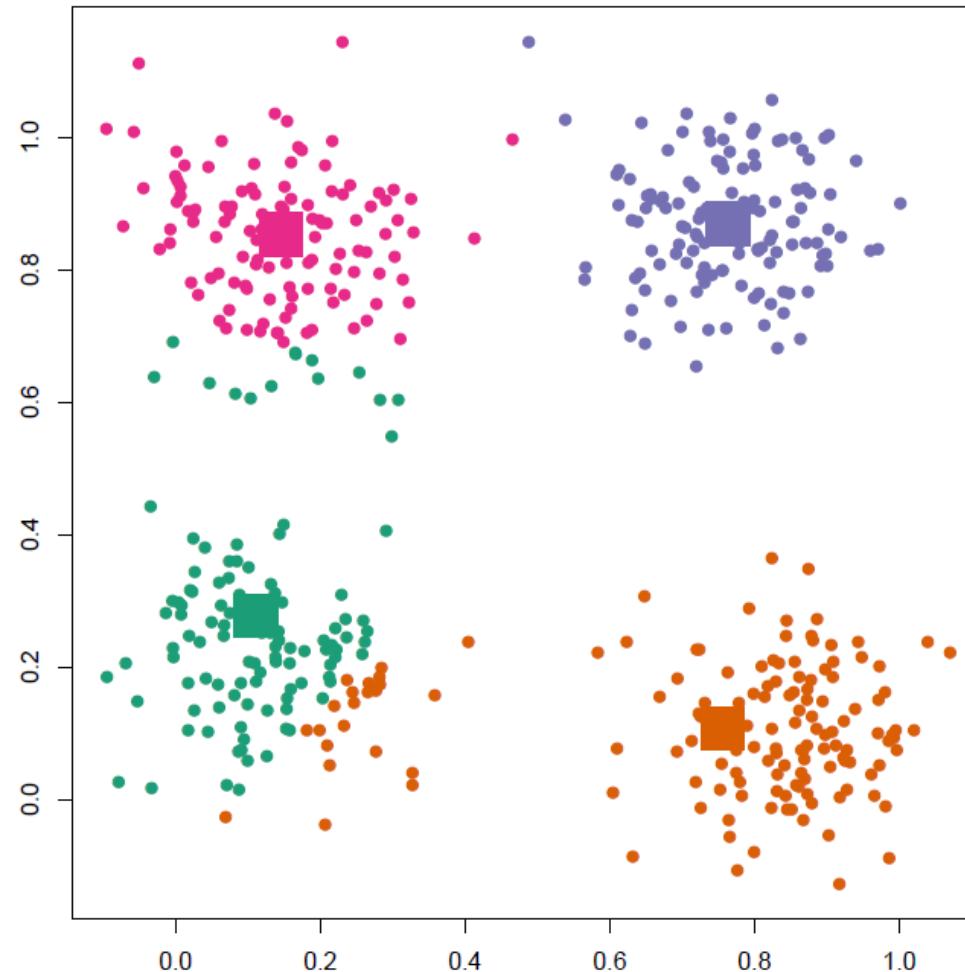
## Example 2 (cont.)

- $K = 4$



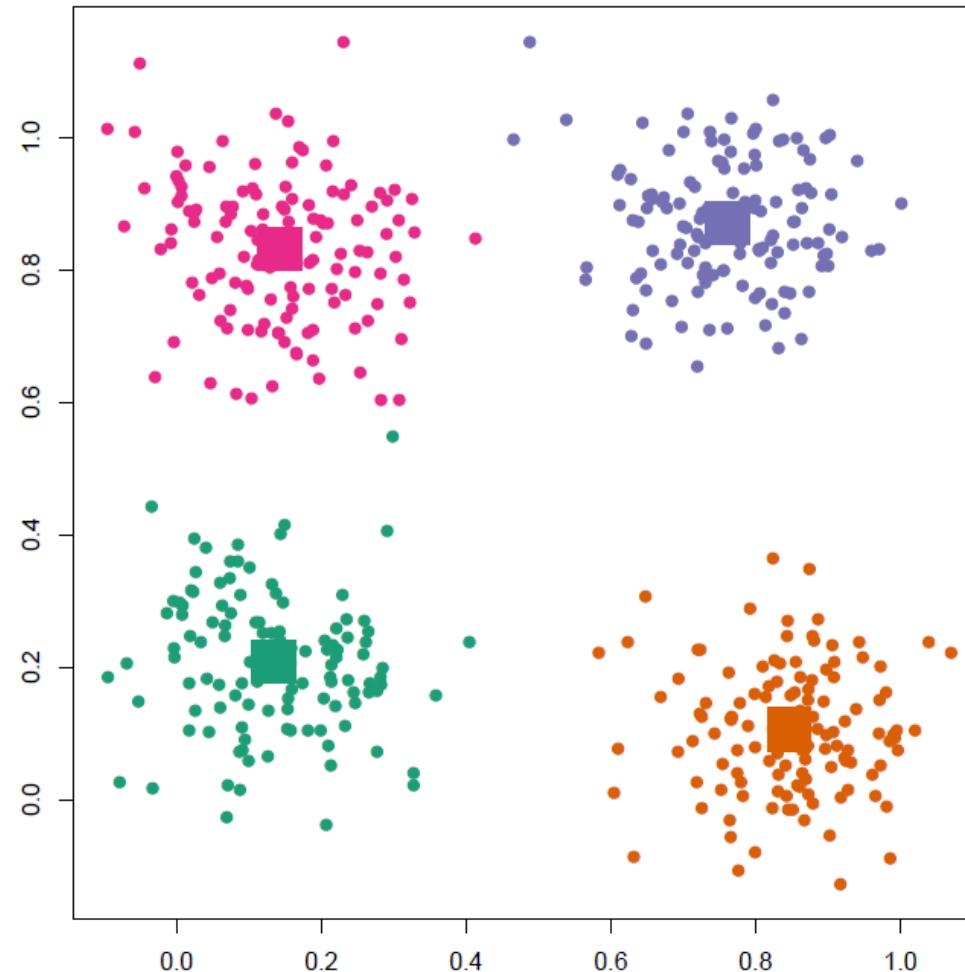
## Example 2 (cont.)

- $K = 4$



## Example 2 (cont.)

- $K = 4$



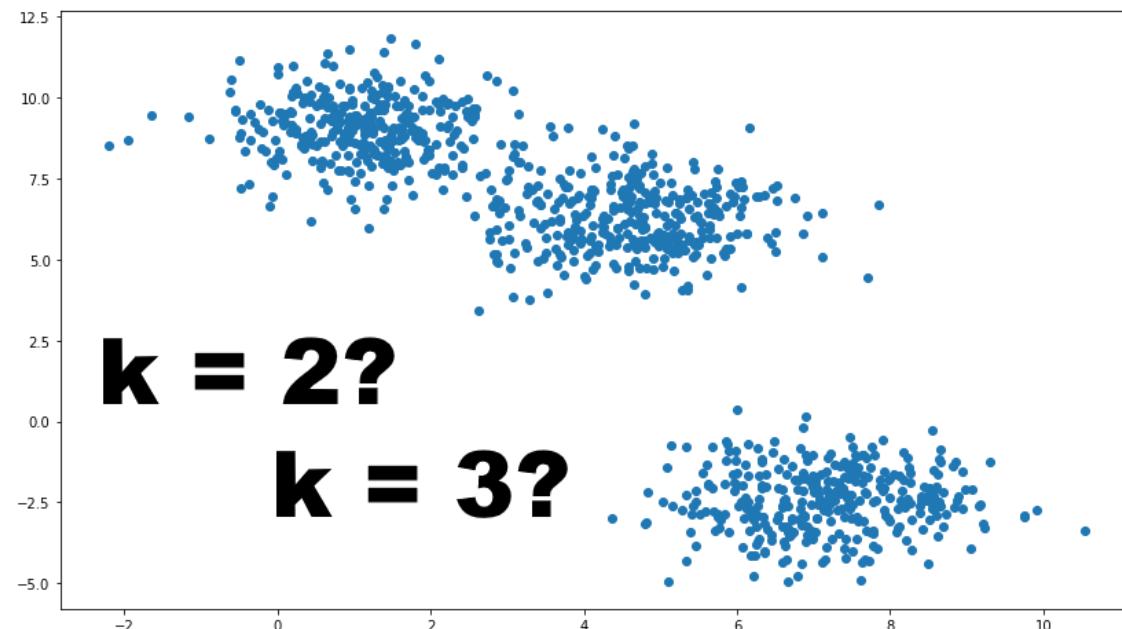
# Remained Questions in K-Means

# Remained questions in K-means

- Although the workflow of K-means is straight forward, there are some important questions that need to be discussed
- How to choose the hyper-parameter  $K$ ?
- How to initialize?

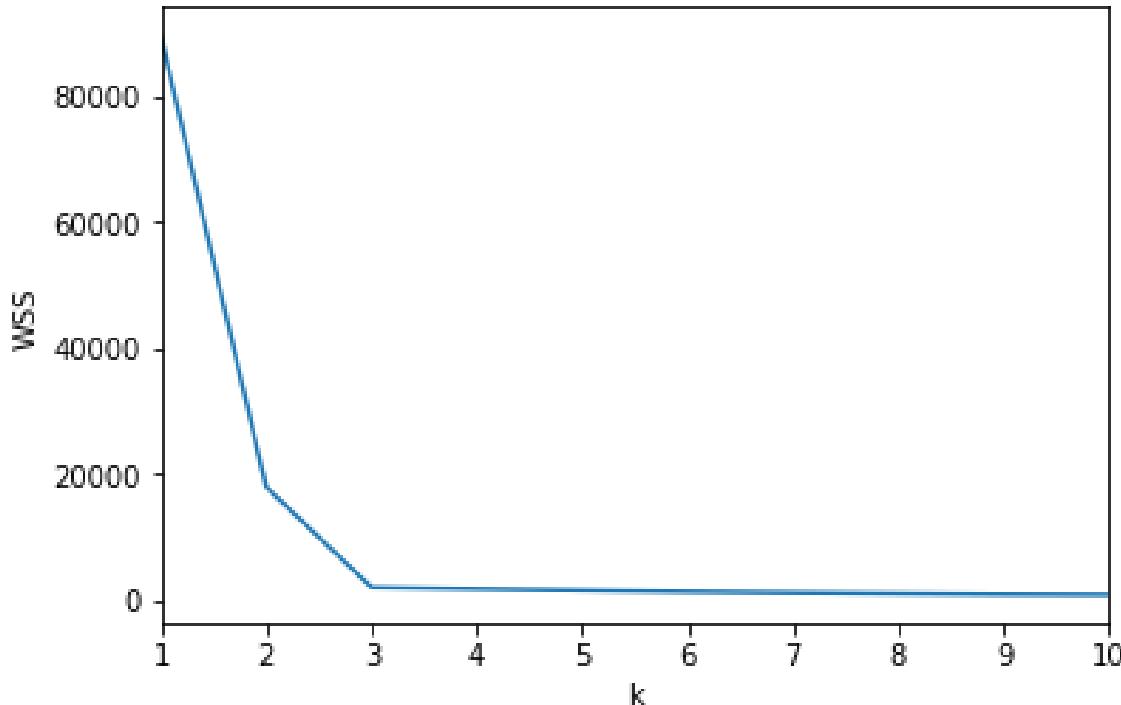
# How to choose K?

- K is the most important hyper-parameter in K-means which strongly affects its performance. In some situation, it's not an easy task to find the proper K
- The solution includes:
  - The elbow method
  - The silhouette method



# The elbow method

- Calculate the [Within-Cluster-Sum of Squared Errors \(WSS\)](#) for different values of  $K$ , and choose the  $K$  **for which WSS stops dropping significantly**. In the plot of WSS-versus- $k$ , this is visible as an elbow
- Example:  $K = 3$

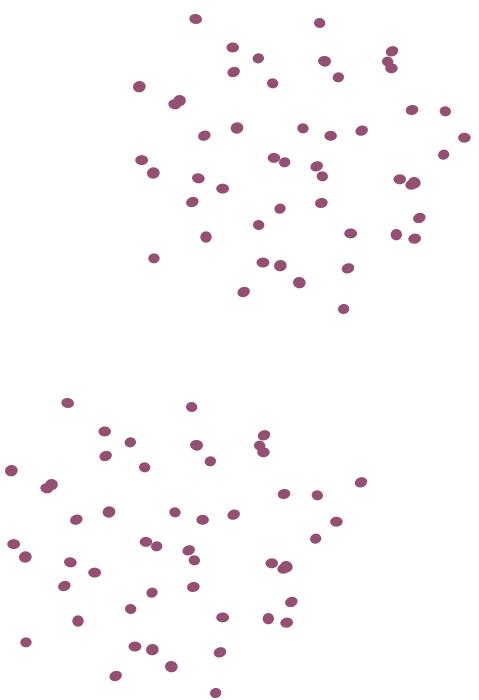
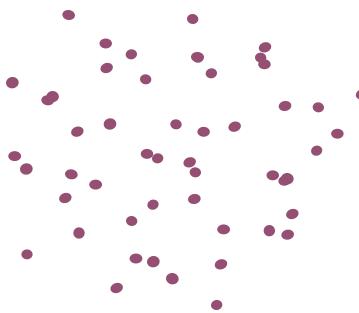


# The silhouette method

- The problem of the elbow method is that in many situations the most suitable  $K$  cannot be unambiguously identified. So we need the silhouette method
- The silhouette value measures how similar a point is to its own cluster (cohesion) compared to other clusters (separation). The range of the silhouette value is between +1 and -1. A high value is desirable and indicates that the point is placed in the correct cluster

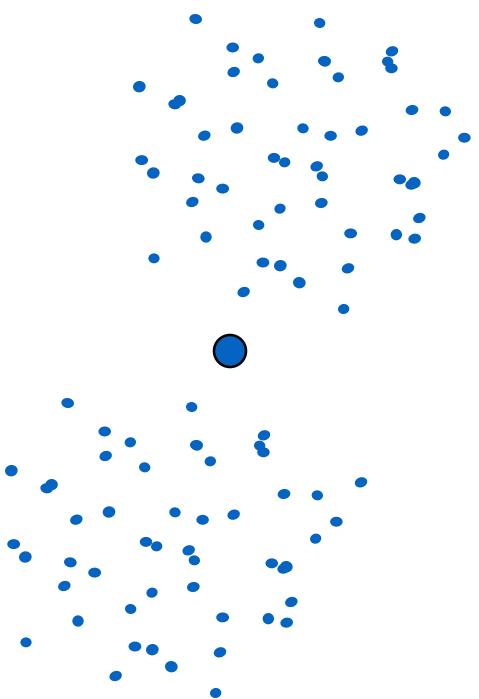
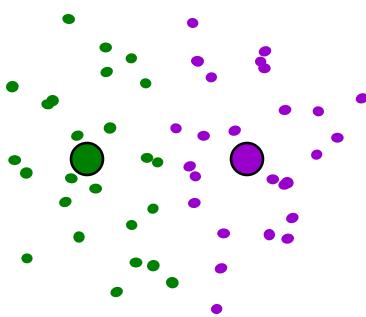
# How to initialize center positions?

- The positions of the centers in the stage of initialization are also very important in K-means algorithms. In some situations it can produce totally different clustering results
- Example:



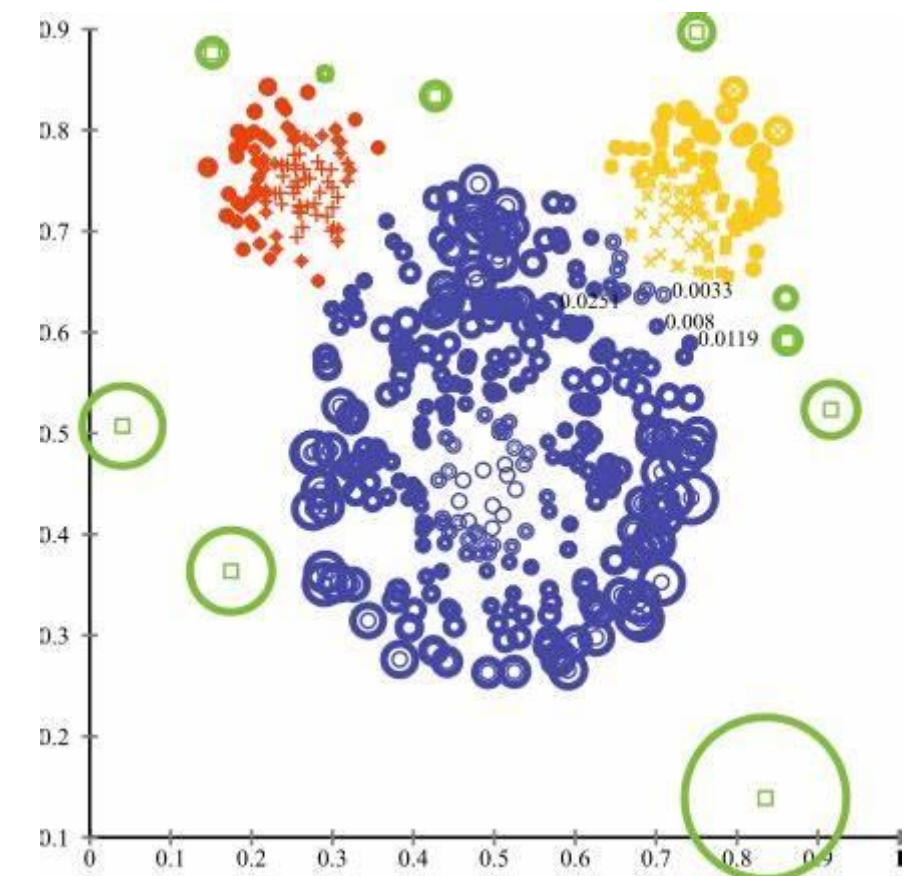
# How to initialize center positions? (cont.)

- The positions of the centers in the stage of initialization are also very important in K-means algorithms. In some situations it can produce totally different clustering results
- Example:



# A possible solution

- Pick one point at random, then  $K - 1$  other points, each as far away as possible from the previous points
  - OK, as long as there are no *outliers* (points that are far from any reasonable cluster)



# K-means++

1. The first centroid is chosen uniformly at random from the data points that we want to cluster. This is similar to what we do in K-Means, but instead of randomly picking all the centroids, we just pick one centroid here
2. Next, we compute the distance  $d_x$  is the nearest distance from data point  $x$  to the centroids that have already been chosen
3. Then, choose the new cluster center from the data points with the probability of  $x$  being proportional to  $d_x^2$
4. We then repeat steps 2 and 3 until  $K$  clusters have been chosen

# Example

- Suppose we have the following points and we want to make 3 clusters here:



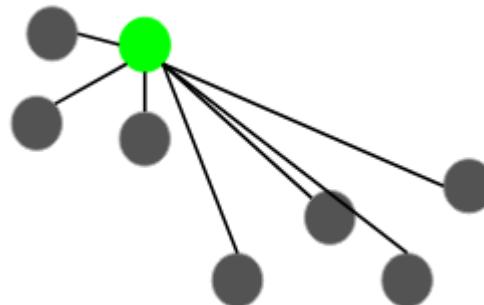
# Example (cont.)

- First step is to randomly pick a data point as a cluster centroid:



# Example (cont.)

- Calculate the distance  $d_x$  of each data point with this centroid:



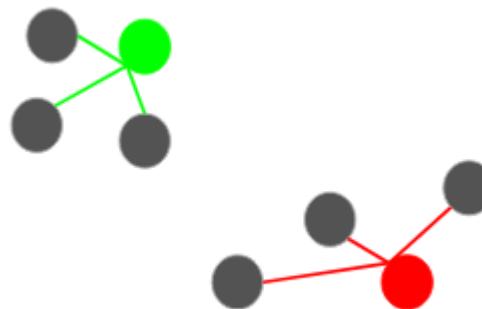
## Example (cont.)

- The next centroid will be sampled with the probability proportional to  $d_x^2$
- Say the sampled is the red one



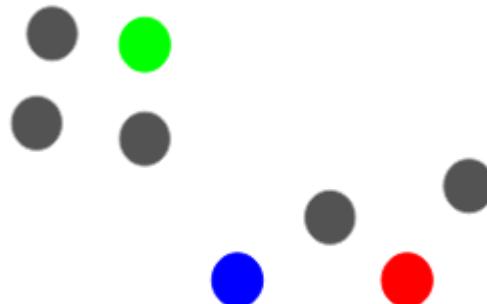
# Example (cont.)

- To select the last centroid, compute  $d_x$ , which is the distance to its closest centroid



# Example (cont.)

- Sample the one with the probability proportional to  $d_x^2$
- Say, the blue one



# Properties of K-Means

# How to measure the performance

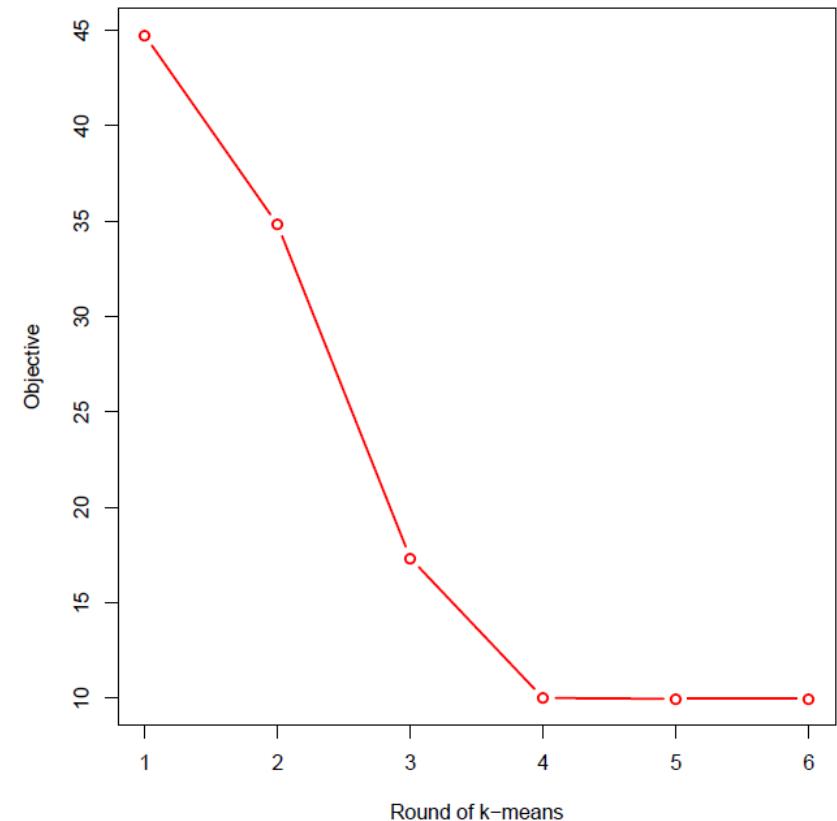
- K-means can be evaluated by the sum of distance from points to corresponding centers, or the WSS

$$\text{objective function} \leftarrow J = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i^{(j)} - c_j\|^2$$

number of clusters      number of cases  
 $k$        $n$   
case  $i$   
centroid for cluster  $j$

Distance function

- The loss will approach zero when increase  $K$



# Properties of the K-means algorithm

- Guaranteed to converge in a finite number of iterations
- Running time per iteration:
  1. Assign data points to closest cluster center  
 $O(KN)$  time
  2. Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points  
 $O(N)$

# Convergence of K-means

## Objective

$$\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2$$

1. Fix  $\mu$ , optimize  $C$ :

$$\min_C \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2 = \min_c \sum_i^n |x_i - \mu_{x_i}|^2$$

**Step 1 of kmeans**

2. Fix  $C$ , optimize  $\mu$ :

$$\min_{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{x \in C_i} |x - \mu_i|^2$$

- Take partial derivative of  $\mu_i$  and set to zero, we have

$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{x \in C_i} x$$

**Step 2 of kmeans**

Not guaranteed to converge to optimal

Kmeans takes an alternating optimization approach, each step is guaranteed to decrease the objective – thus guaranteed to converge

# Application: Segmentation

- Goal of segmentation is to partition an image into regions each of which has reasonably homogenous visual appearance
- Cluster the colors



4%



8%



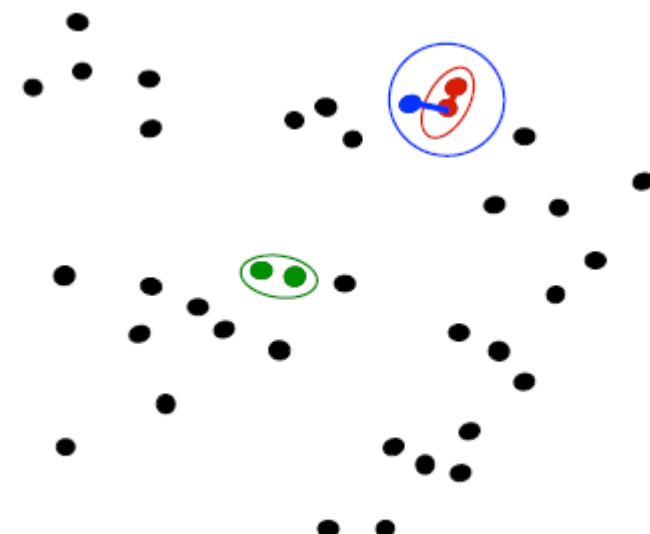
17%



# Agglomerative Clustering

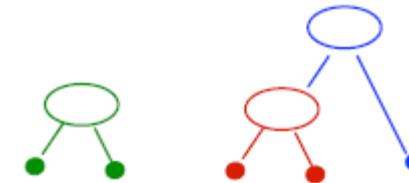
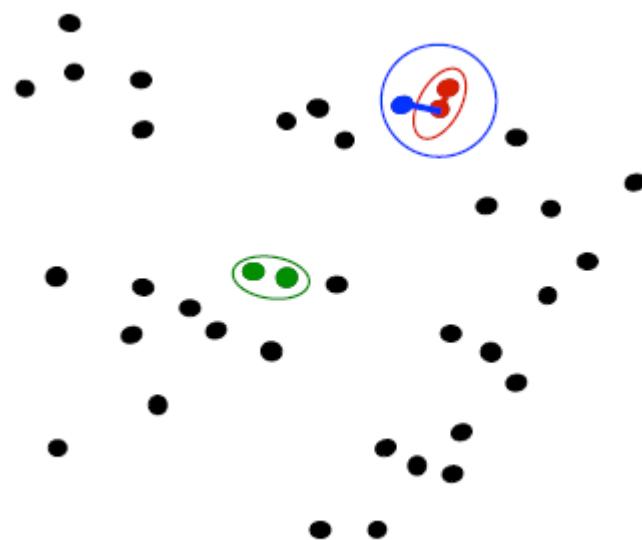
# Agglomerative clustering

- Agglomerative clustering:
  - First merge very similar instances
  - Incrementally build larger clusters out of smaller clusters
- Algorithm:
  - Maintain a set of clusters
  - Initially, each instance in its own cluster
  - Repeat:
    - Pick the two closest clusters
    - Merge them into a new cluster
    - Stop when there's only one cluster left



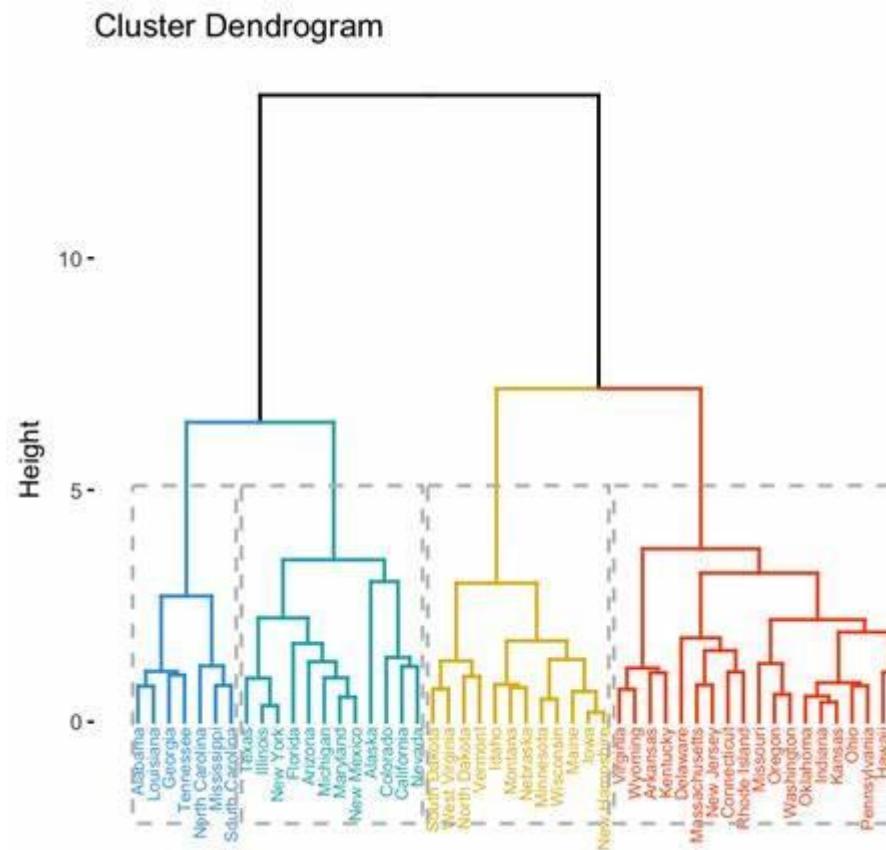
# Agglomerative clustering

- Produces not one clustering, but a family of clusterings represented by a dendrogram



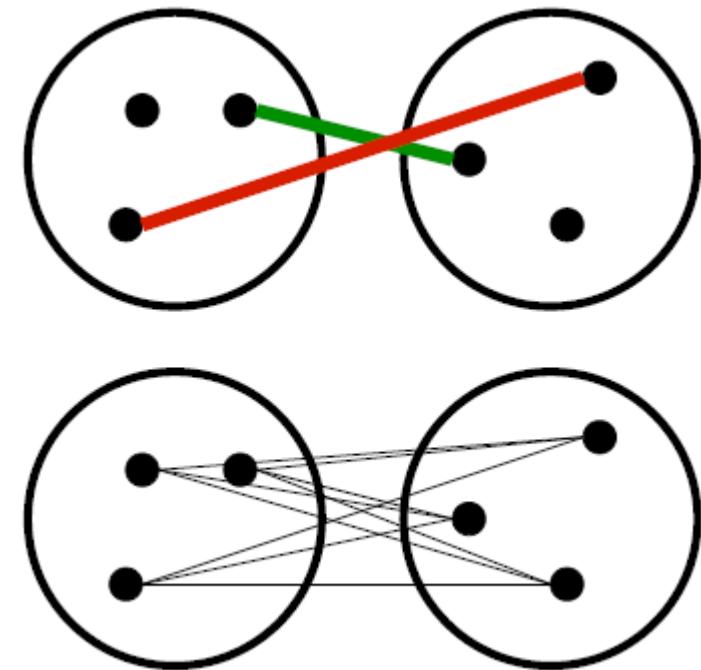
# Example

- Different heights give different clustering



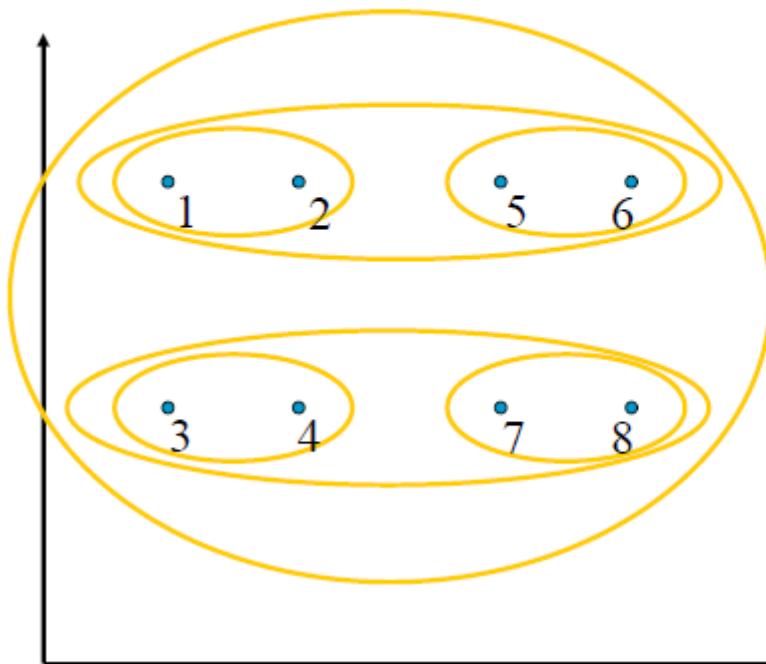
# Closeness

- How should we define “closest” for clusters with multiple elements?
- Many options:
  - Closest pair (single-link clustering)
  - Farthest pair (complete-link clustering)
  - Average of all pairs
- Different choices create different clustering behaviors

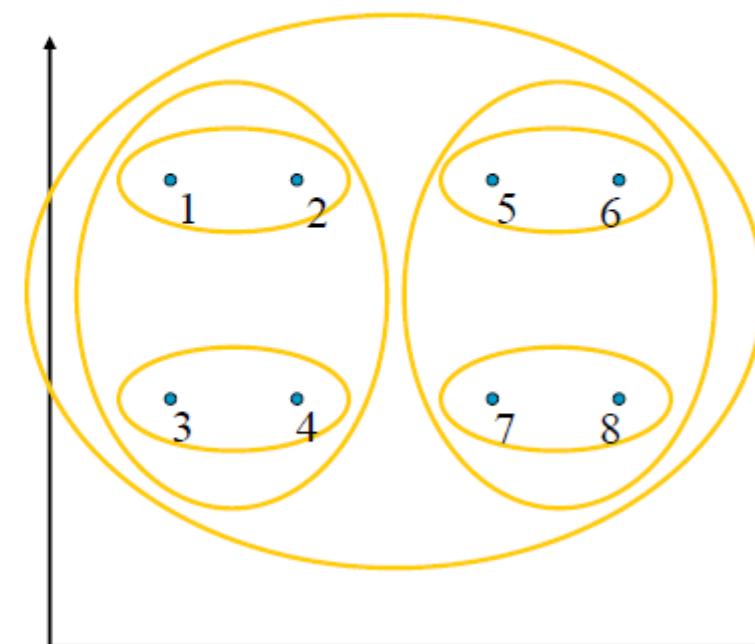


# Closeness example

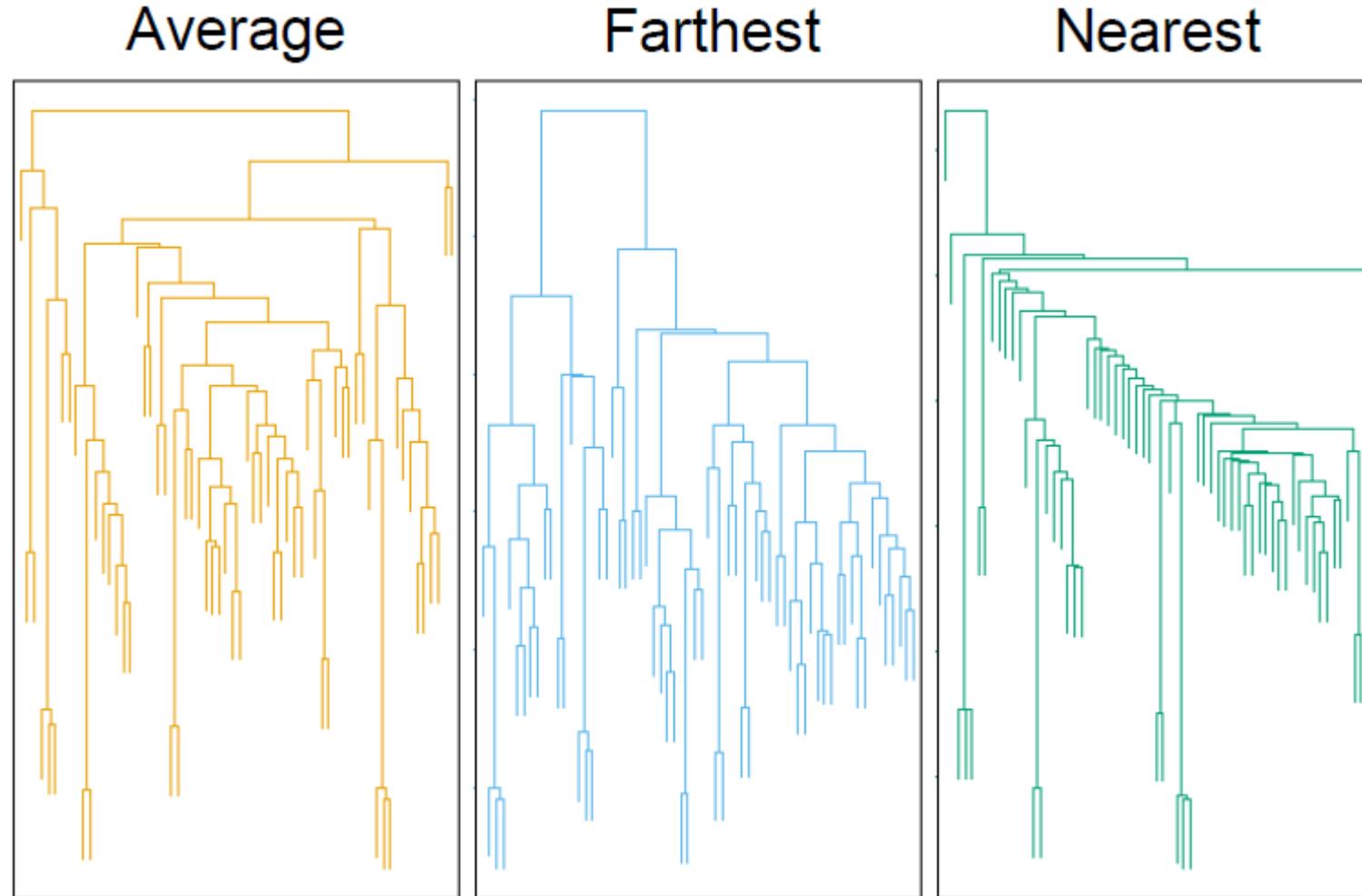
Closest pair  
(single-link clustering)



Farthest pair  
(complete-link clustering)

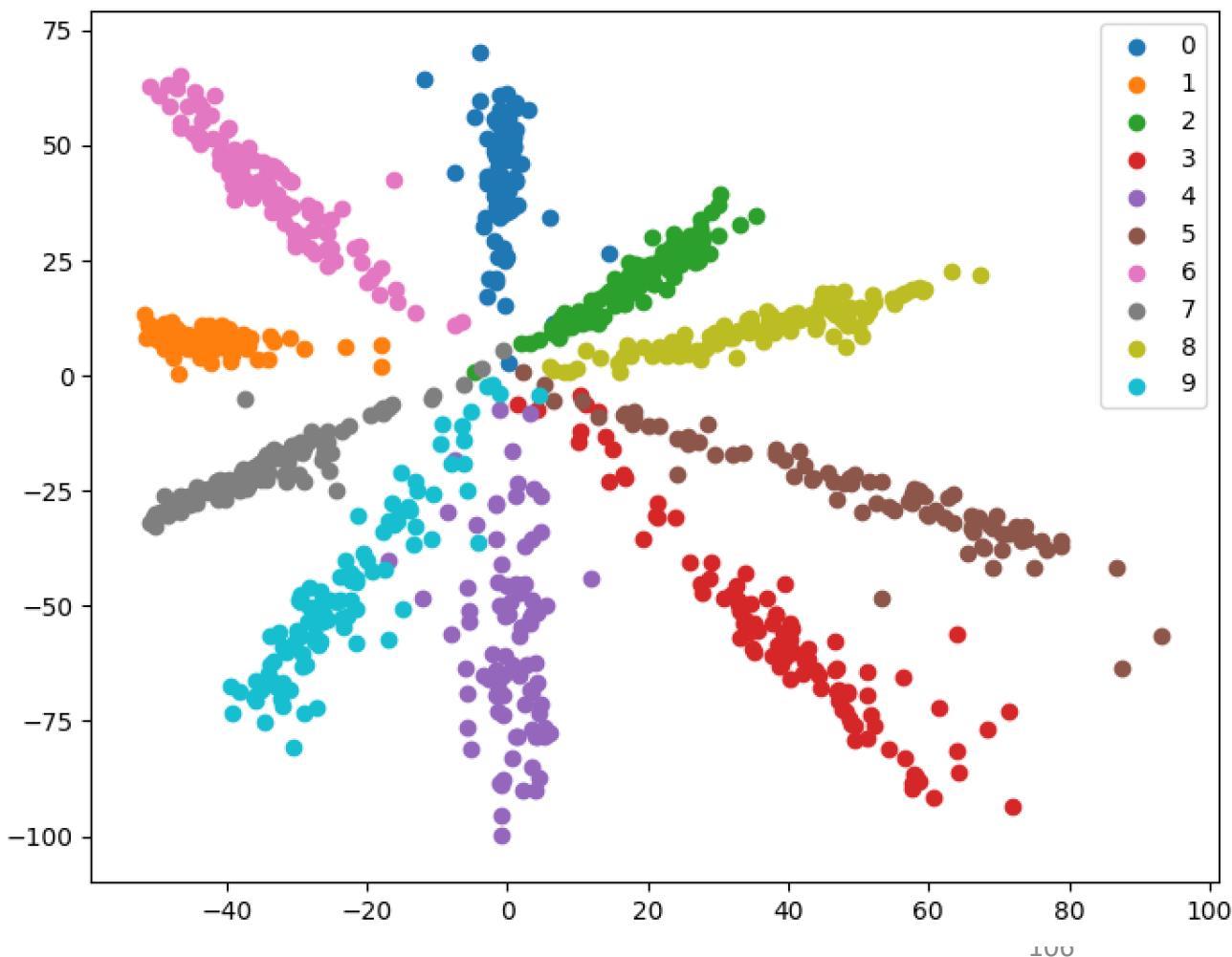
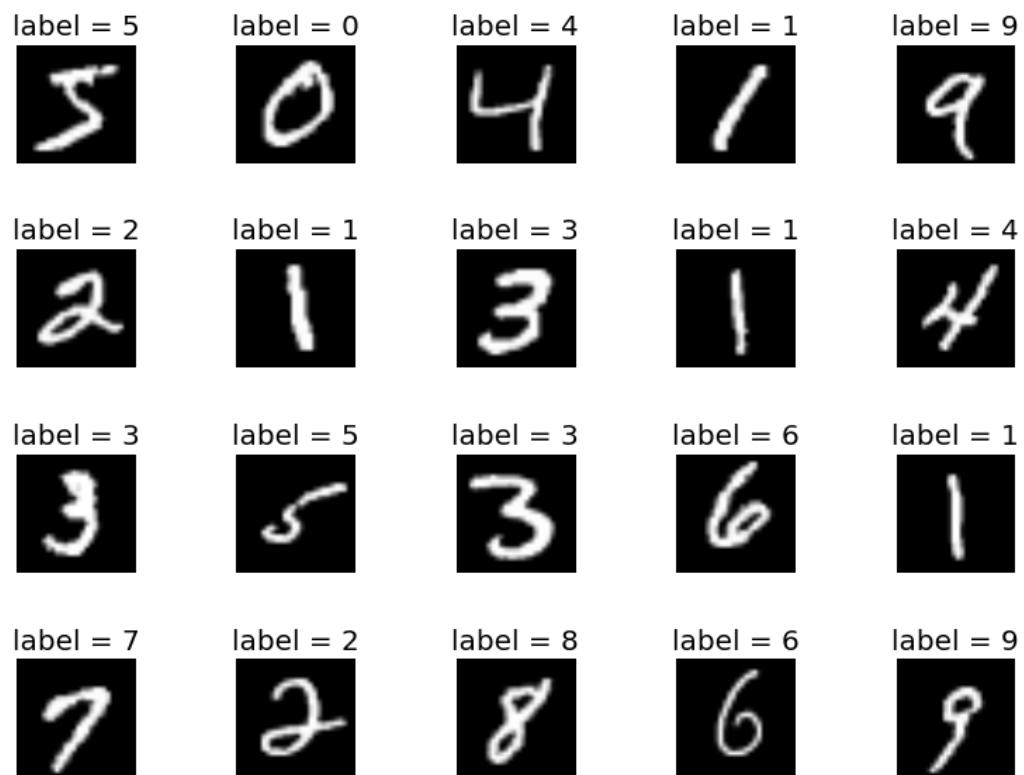


# Closeness example 2



# Dimensionality Reduction

# Example – MNIST dataset



# Principal Components Analysis

PCA

# Principal components analysis (PCA)

- Principal components analysis (PCA) is a technique that can be used to simplify a dataset
- It is usually a **linear** transformation that chooses a new coordinate system for the data set such that
  - **greatest** variance by any projection of the dataset comes to lie on the first axis (then called the **first** principal component)
    - the second greatest variance on the second axis, and so on
- PCA can be used for reducing dimensionality by eliminating the later principal components

# Example

- Consider the following 3D points

1
2
3

2
4
6

4
8
12

3
6
9

5
10
15

6
12
18

- If each component is stored in a byte, we need  $18 = 3 \times 6$  bytes

# Example (cont.)

- Looking closer, we can see that all the points are related geometrically
  - they are all in the same direction, scaled by a factor:

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array} = 1 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 4 \\ \hline 8 \\ \hline 12 \\ \hline\end{array} = 4 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 5 \\ \hline 10 \\ \hline 15 \\ \hline\end{array} = 5 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 2 \\ \hline 4 \\ \hline 6 \\ \hline\end{array} = 2 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 3 \\ \hline 6 \\ \hline 9 \\ \hline\end{array} = 3 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 6 \\ \hline 12 \\ \hline 18 \\ \hline\end{array} = 6 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 3 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

# Example (cont.)

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array} = 1 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 4 \\\hline 8 \\\hline 12 \\\hline\end{array} = 4 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 5 \\\hline 10 \\\hline 15 \\\hline\end{array} = 5 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 2 \\\hline 4 \\\hline 6 \\\hline\end{array} = 2 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

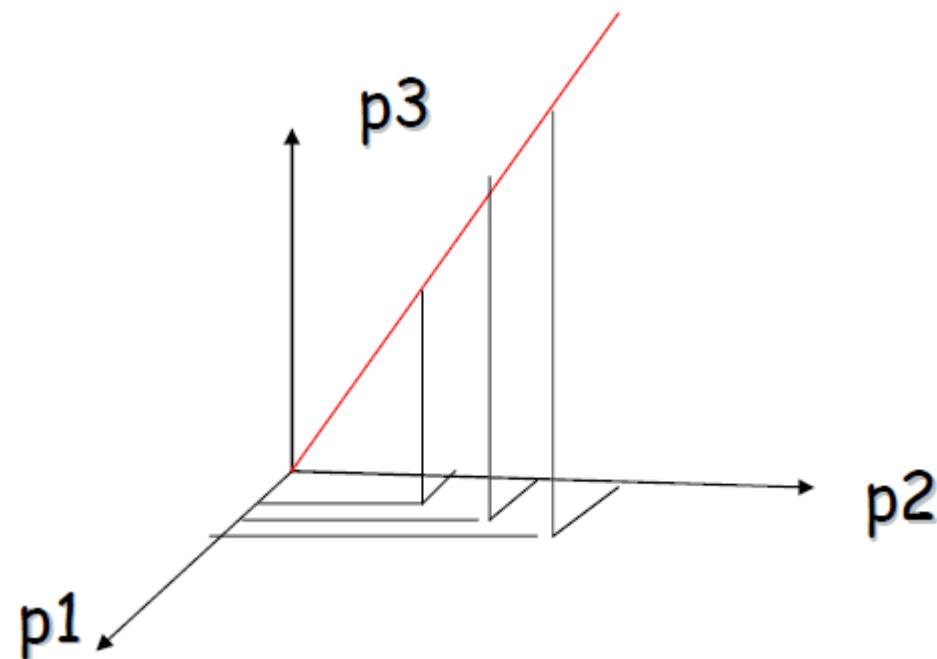
$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 3 \\\hline 6 \\\hline 9 \\\hline\end{array} = 3 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|}\hline 6 \\\hline 12 \\\hline 18 \\\hline\end{array} = 6 \times \begin{array}{|c|}\hline 1 \\\hline 2 \\\hline 3 \\\hline\end{array}$$

- They can be stored using only 9 bytes (**50% savings!**):
  - Store one direction (3 bytes) + the multiplying constants (6 bytes)

# Geometrical interpretation

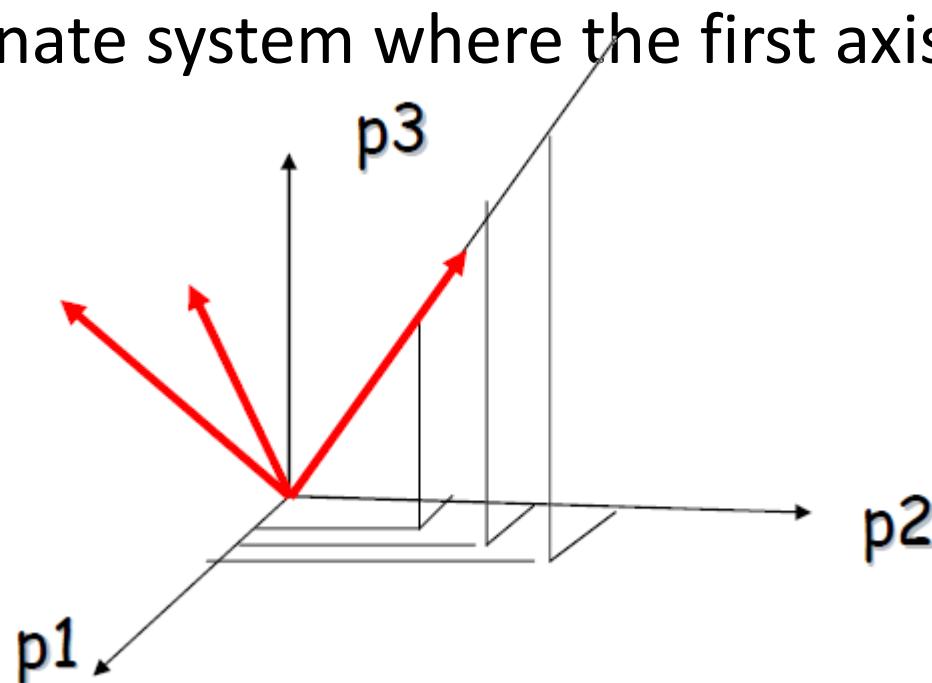
- View points in 3D space



- In this example, all the points happen to lie on one line
  - a 1D subspace of the original 3D space

# Geometrical interpretation

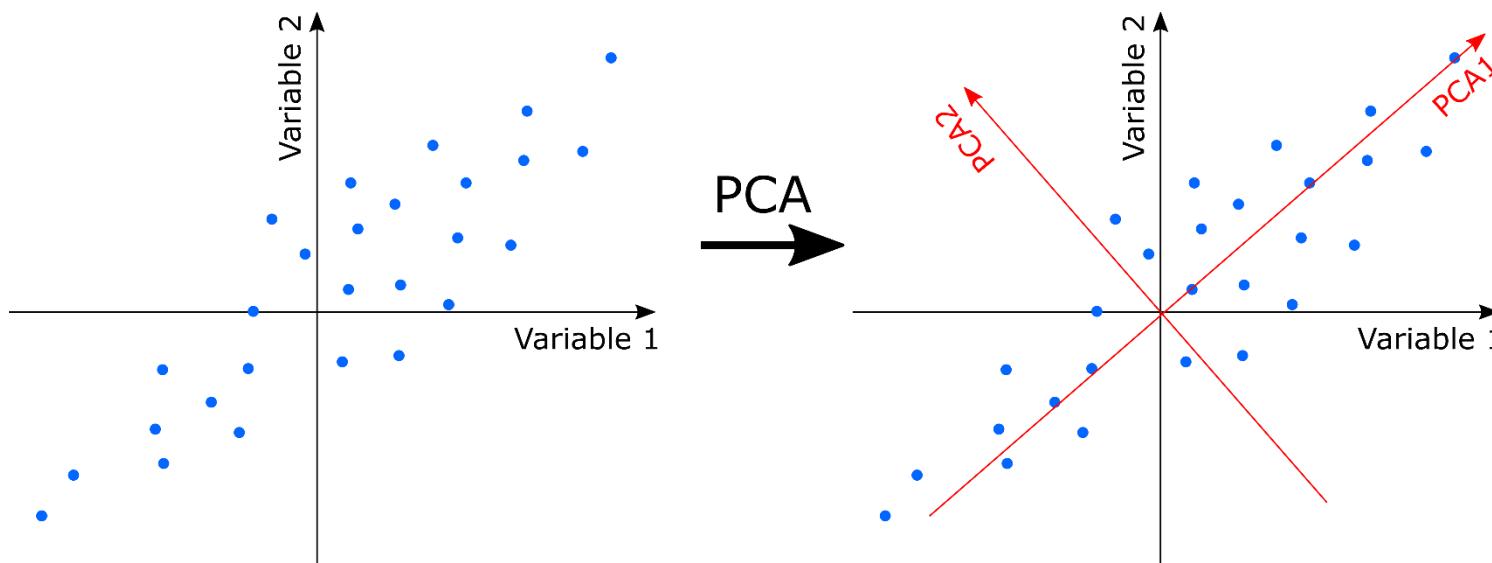
- Consider a new coordinate system where the first axis is along the direction of the line



- In the new coordinate system, every point has only one non-zero coordinate
  - we only need to store the direction of the line (a 3 bytes point) and the nonzero coordinates for each point (6 bytes)

# Back to PCA

- Given a set of points, how can we know if they can be compressed similarly to the previous example?
  - We can look into the **correlation** between the points by the tool of **PCA**

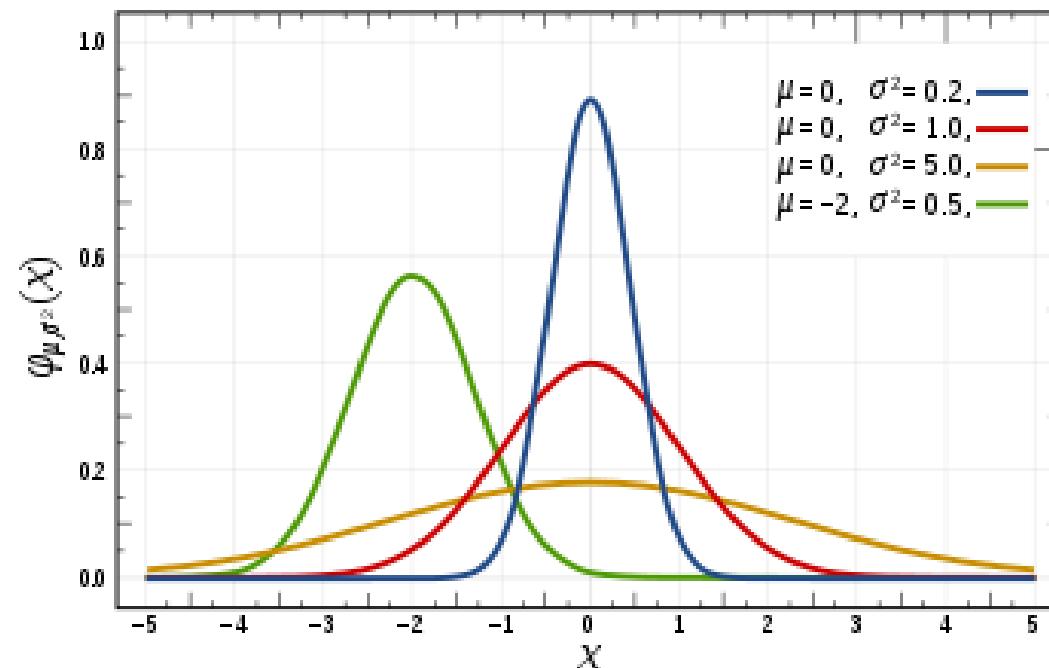


# From example to theory

- In previous example, PCA rebuilds the coordination system for the data by selecting
  - the direction with **largest variance** as the **first** new base direction
  - the direction with the **second largest variance** as the **second** new base direction
  - and so on
- Then how can we find the direction with largest variance?
  - By the **eigenvector** for the **covariance matrix** of the data

# Review – Variance

- Variance is the expectation of the squared deviation of a random variable from its mean
  - Informally, it measures **how far** a set of (random) numbers are **spread out** from their average value



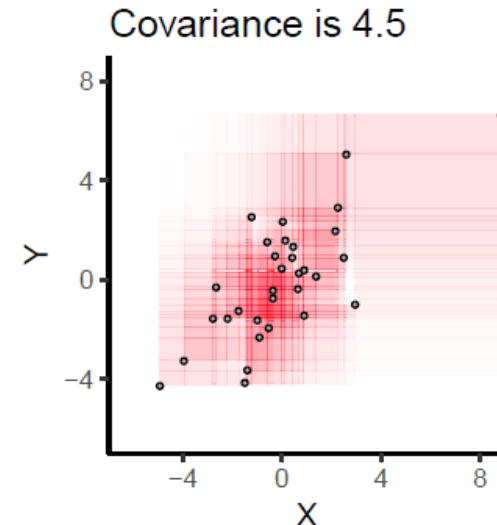
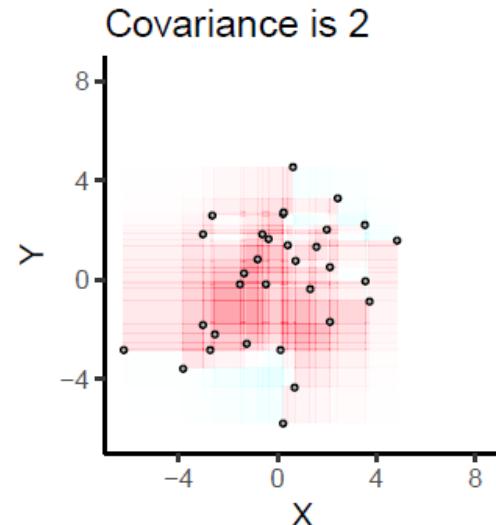
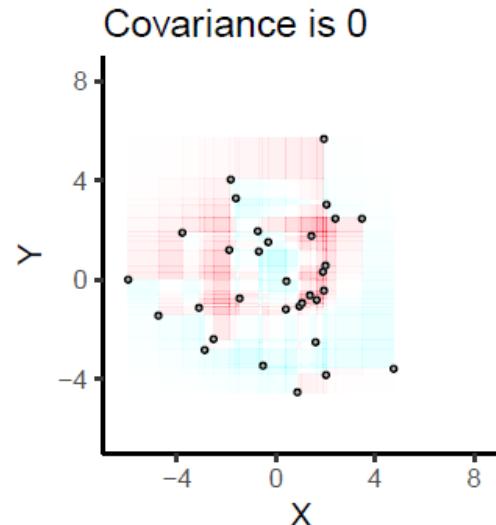
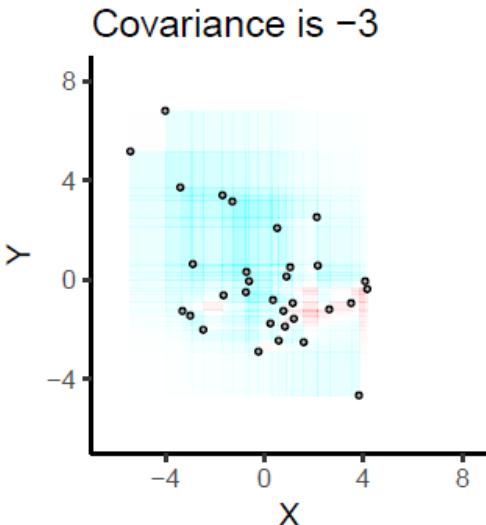
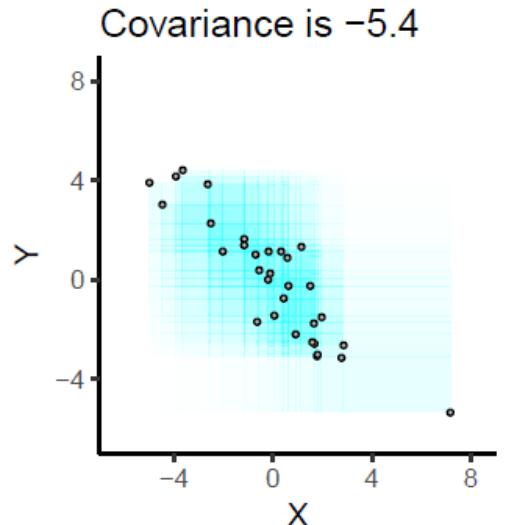
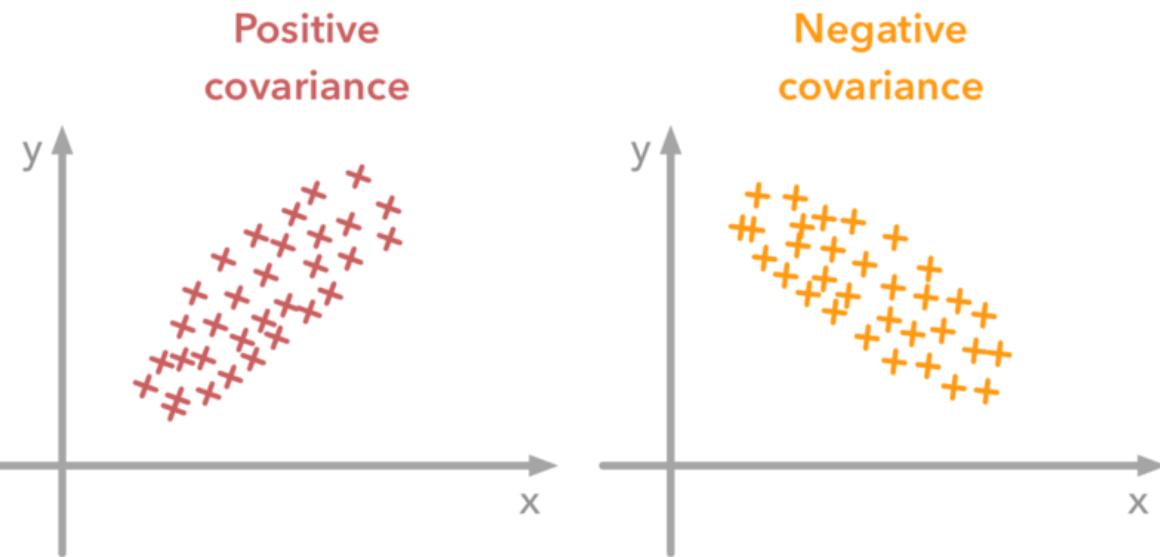
# Review – Covariance

- Covariance is a measure of the joint variability of two random variables
  - If the greater values of one variable mainly correspond with the greater values of the other variable, and the same holds for the lesser values, (i.e., the variables tend to show similar behavior), the covariance is **positive**
    - E.g. as the number of hours studied increases, the marks in that subject increase
  - In the opposite case, when the greater values of one variable mainly correspond to the lesser values of the other, (i.e., the variables tend to show opposite behavior), the covariance is **negative**
  - The **sign** of the covariance therefore shows the **tendency** in the **linear** relationship between the variables
  - The **magnitude** of the covariance is not easy to interpret because it is not normalized and hence depends on the magnitudes of the variables. The **normalized** version of the covariance, the correlation coefficient, however, shows by its magnitude the strength of the linear relation

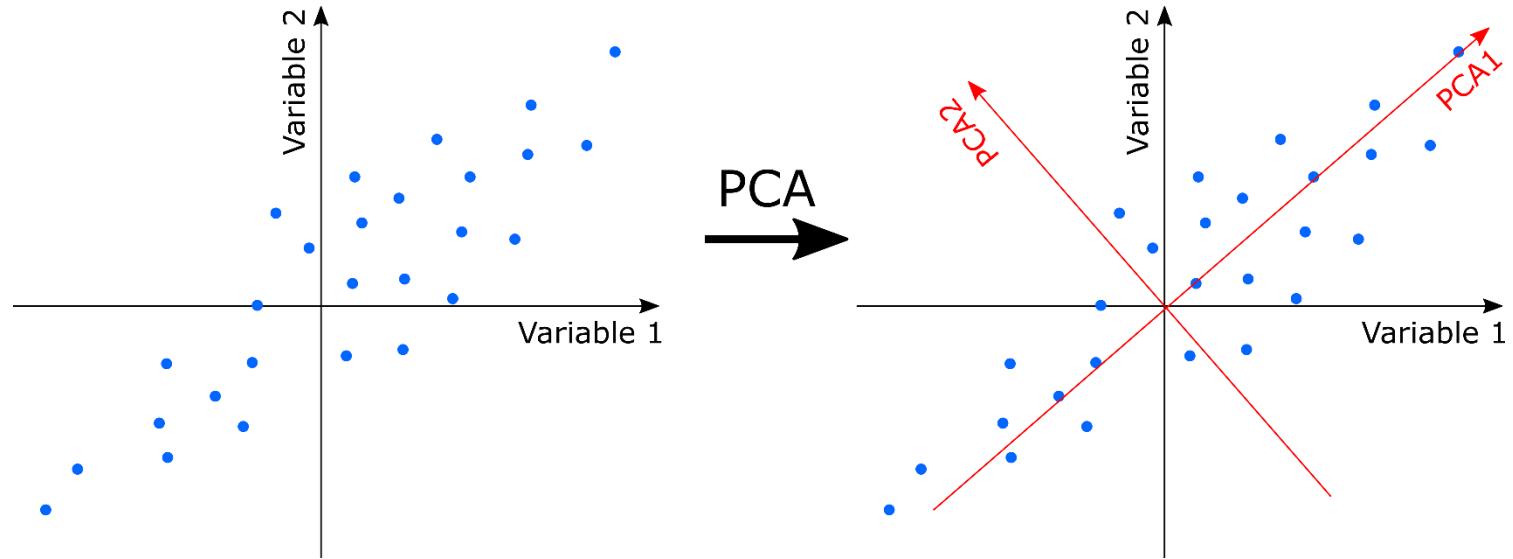
# Review – Covariance (cont.)

- Sample covariance

$$\text{covariance}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{N - 1}$$



# PCA



- PCA tries to identify the subspace in which the data approximately lies in
- PCA uses an **orthogonal transformation** on the coordinate system to convert a set of observations of possibly correlated variables into a set of values of linearly **uncorrelated** variables called principal components
  - The number of principal components is less than or equal to  $\min\{d, N\}$

# Covariance matrix

- Suppose there are 3 dimensions, denoted as  $X, Y, Z$ . The covariance matrix is

$$COV = \begin{bmatrix} COV(X, X) & COV(X, Y) & COV(X, Z) \\ COV(Y, X) & COV(Y, Y) & COV(Y, Z) \\ COV(Z, X) & COV(Z, Y) & COV(Z, Z) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note the **diagonal** is the covariance of each dimension with respect to itself, which is just the **variance** of each random variable
- Also  $COV(X, Y) = COV(Y, X)$ 
  - hence matrix is **symmetric** about the diagonal
- $d$ -dimensional data will result in a  $d \times d$  covariance matrix

# Covariance in the covariance matrix

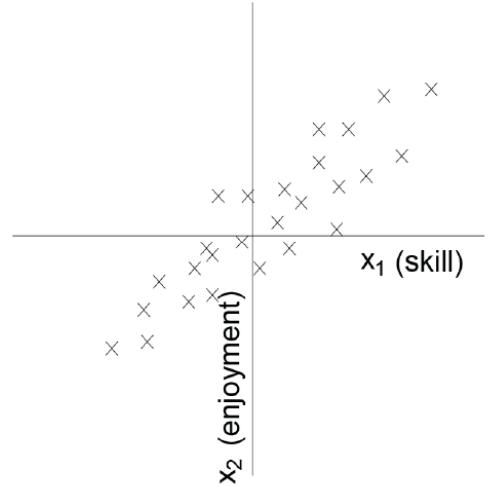
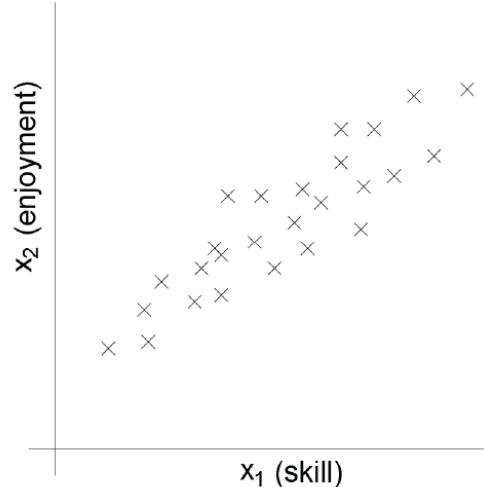
- Diagonal, or the **variance**, measures the deviation from the mean for data points in one dimension
- **Covariance** measures how one dimension random variable varies w.r.t. another, or if there is some linear relationship among them

# Data processing

- Given the dataset  $D = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^N$
- Let  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x^{(i)}$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)} - \bar{x})^\top \\ (x^{(2)} - \bar{x})^\top \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(N)} - \bar{x})^\top \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$$

- Move the center of the data set to 0



# Data processing (cont.)

$$\bullet Q = X^T X = [x^{(1)} - \bar{x} \quad x^{(2)} - \bar{x} \quad \dots \quad x^{(N)} - \bar{x}] \begin{bmatrix} (x^{(1)} - \bar{x})^T \\ (x^{(2)} - \bar{x})^T \\ \vdots \\ (x^{(N)} - \bar{x})^T \end{bmatrix}$$

- $Q$  is square with  $d$  dimension
- $Q$  is symmetric
- $Q$  is the **covariance** matrix [aka scatter matrix]
- $Q$  can be very large (in vision,  $d$  is often the number of pixels in an image!)
  - For a  $256 \times 256$  image,  $d = 65536!!$
  - Don't want to explicitly compute  $Q$

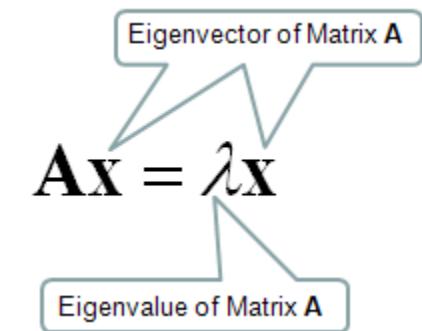
# PCA

- By finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the covariance matrix, we find that the **eigenvectors with the largest eigenvalues** correspond to the dimensions that have the strongest **variation** in the dataset
- This is the principal component
- Application:
  - face recognition, image compression
  - finding patterns in data of high dimension

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$$

Eigenvector of Matrix A

Eigenvalue of Matrix A



# PCA theorem

- Theorem:
- Each  $x^{(i)}$  can be written as:  $x^{(i)} = \bar{x} + \sum_{j=1}^d g_{ij} e_j$  where  $e_j$  are the  $d$  eigenvectors of  $Q$  with non-zero eigenvalues
- Notes:
  1. The eigenvectors  $e_1 e_2 \cdots e_d$  span an **eigenspace**
  2.  $e_1 e_2 \cdots e_d$  are  $d \times 1$  orthonormal vectors (directions in  $d$ -Dimensional space)
  3. The scalars  $g_{ij}$  are the coordinates of  $x^{(i)}$  in the space
$$g_{ij} = \langle x^{(i)} - \bar{x}, e_j \rangle$$

# Using PCA to compress data

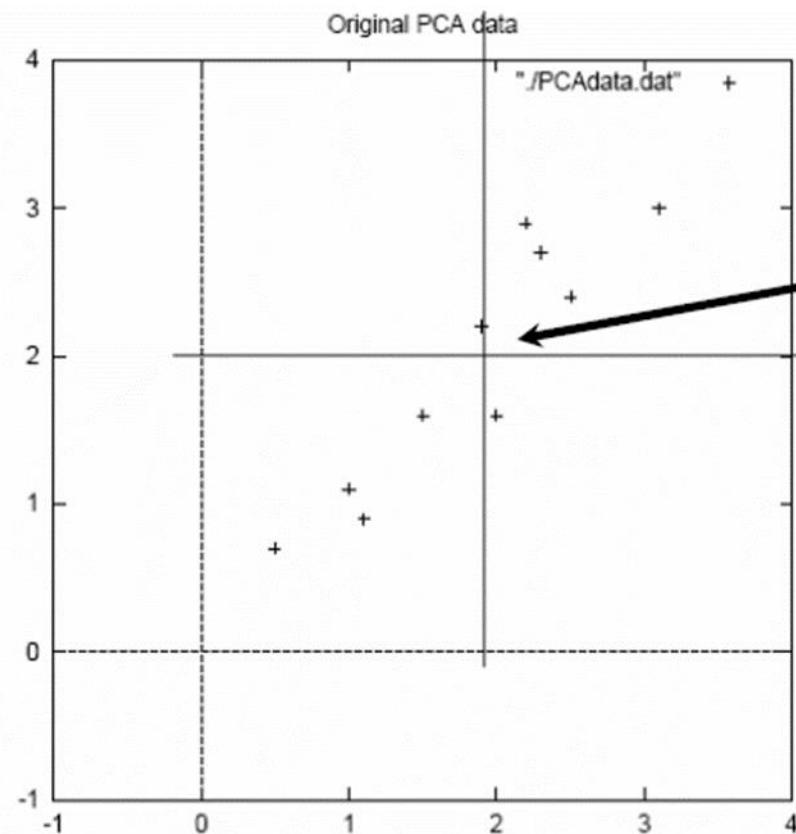
- Expressing  $x$  in terms of  $e_1 e_2 \cdots e_d$  doesn't change the size of the data
- However, if the points are highly correlated, many of the new coordinates of  $x$  will become zero or close to zero
- Sort the eigenvectors  $e_i$  according to their eigenvalue
$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_d$$
- Assume  $\lambda_j \approx 0$  if  $j > k$ . Then

$$x^{(i)} \approx \bar{x} + \sum_{j=1}^k g_{ij} e_j$$

# Example – STEP 1

DATA:

x	y
2.5	2.4
0.5	0.7
2.2	2.9
1.9	2.2
3.1	3.0
2.3	2.7
2	1.6
1	1.1
1.5	1.6
1.1	0.9



mean

this becomes the  
new origin of the  
data from now on

## Example – STEP 2

- Calculate the covariance matrix

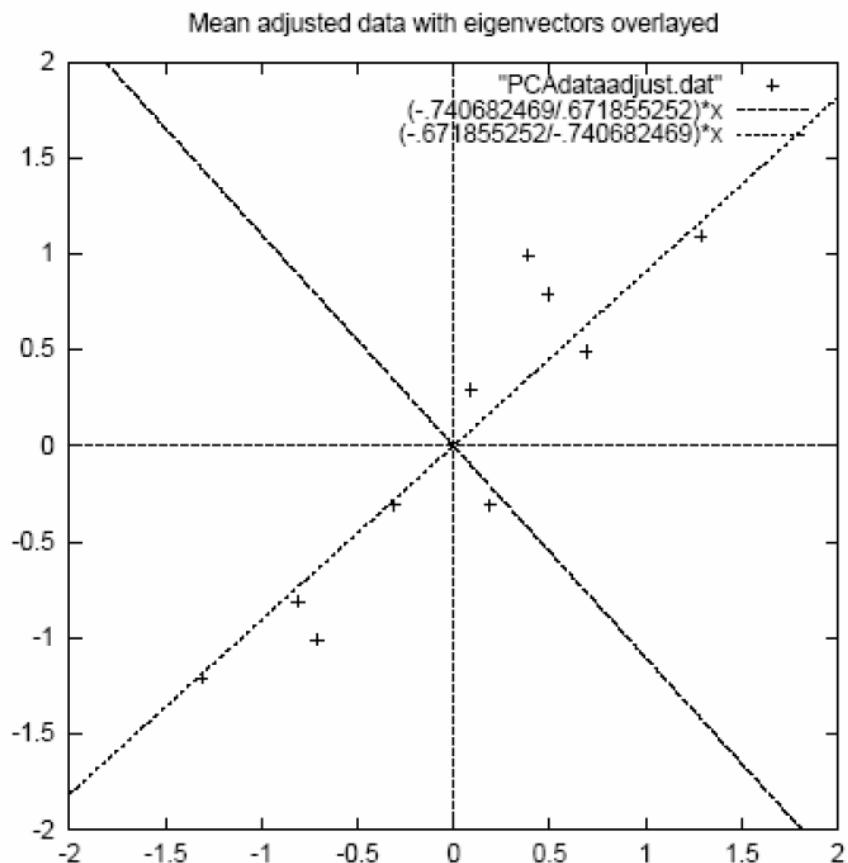
$$\text{Cov} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.616555556 & 0.615444444 \\ 0.615444444 & 0.716555556 \end{bmatrix}$$

- since  $\text{cov}(X, Y)$  is positive, it is expect that  $x$  and  $y$  increase together

## Example – STEP 3

- Calculate the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the covariance matrix
- eigenvalues =  $\begin{bmatrix} 0.0490833989 \\ 1.28402771 \end{bmatrix}$
- eigenvectors =  $\begin{bmatrix} -0.735178656 & -0.677873399 \\ 0.677873399 & -0.735178656 \end{bmatrix}$

# Example – STEP 3 (cont.)



- Eigenvectors are plotted as diagonal dotted lines on the plot
- Note they are **perpendicular** to each other
- Note one of the eigenvectors goes through the middle of the points, like drawing a line of best fit
- The second eigenvector gives us the other, less important, pattern in the data, that all the points follow the main line, but are off to the side of the main line by some amount

# Example – STEP 4

- Feature vector =  $[e_1 \quad e_2 \quad \cdots \quad e_d]$
- We can either form a feature vector with both of the eigenvectors:  
$$\begin{bmatrix} -0.735178656 & -0.677873399 \\ 0.677873399 & -0.735178656 \end{bmatrix}$$
- or, we can choose to delete the smaller, less significant component:  
$$\begin{bmatrix} -0.677873399 \\ -0.735178656 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Example – STEP 5

$$\text{FinalData}_{N \times d} = \begin{bmatrix} g(x^{(1)})^\top \\ \vdots \\ g(x^{(N)})^\top \end{bmatrix}_{N \times d} \begin{bmatrix} e_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ e_d^\top \end{bmatrix}_{d \times d}$$

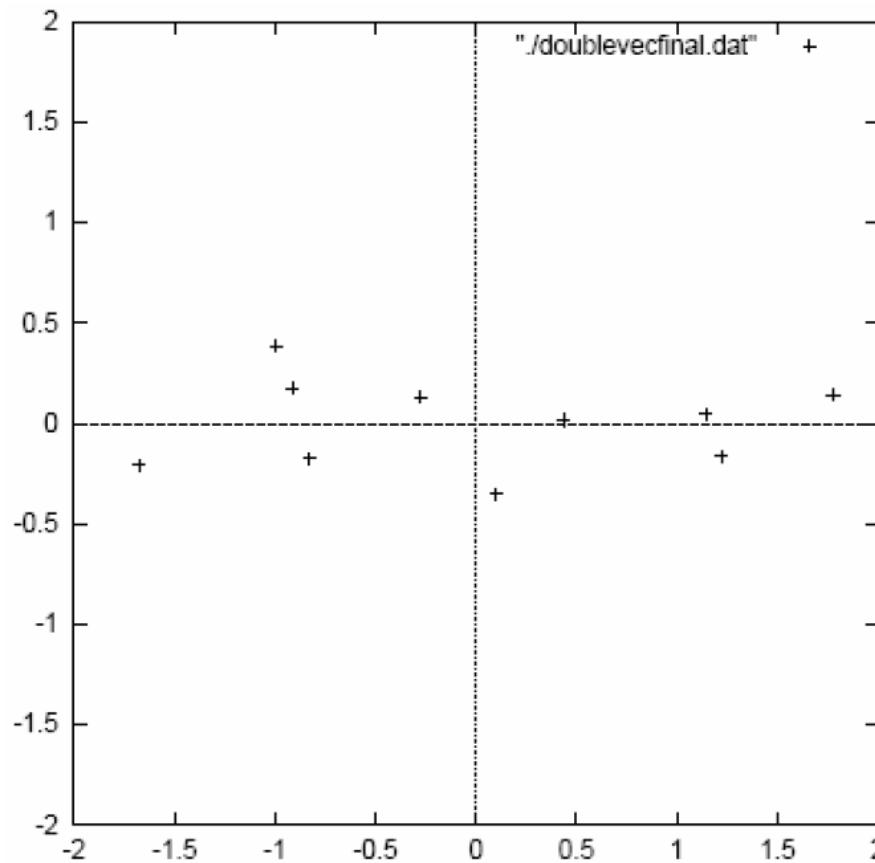
- Deriving new data coordinates

**FinalData** = **RowZeroMeanData** x **RowFeatureVector**

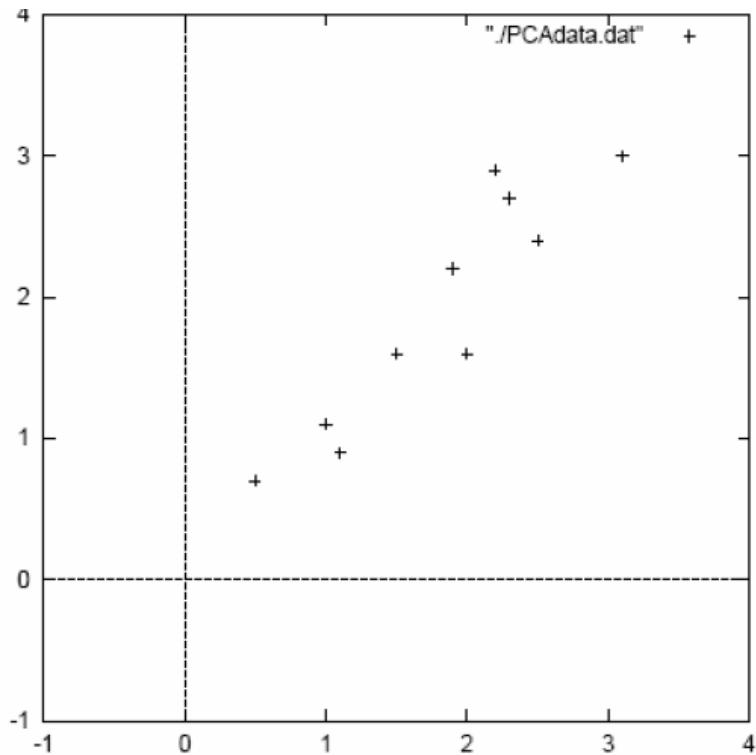
- **RowZeroMeanData** is the mean-adjusted data, i.e. the data items are in each row, with each column representing a separate dimension
- **RowFeatureVector** is the matrix with the eigenvectors in the columns transposed so that the eigenvectors are now in the rows, with the most significant eigenvector at the top
- Note: We rotate the coordinate axes so high-variance axis comes first

# Example – STEP 5 (cont.)

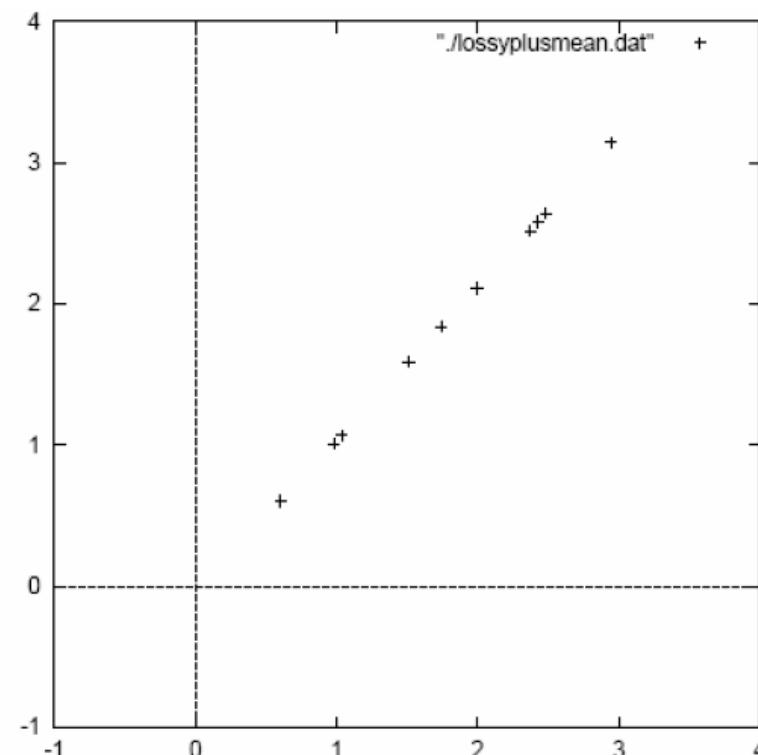
- The plot of the PCA results using both the two eigenvector



# Example – Final approximation



2D point cloud



Approximation using one eigenvector basis

# Example – Final approximation

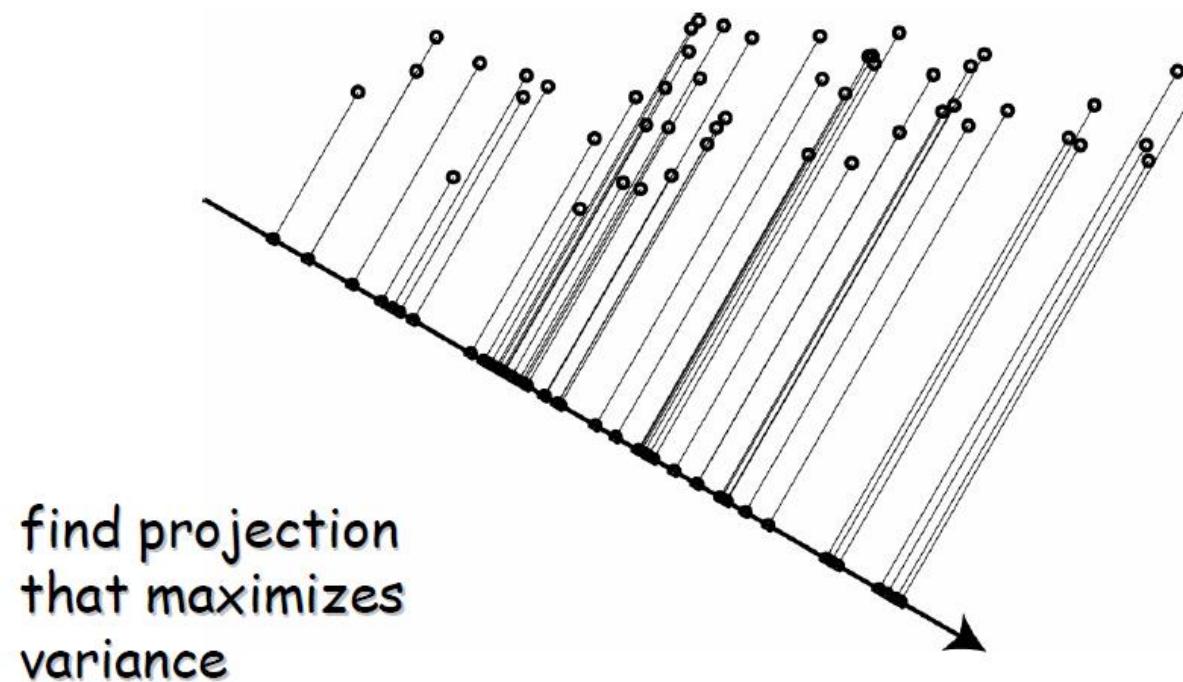
$$\text{FinalData}_{N \times d} = \begin{bmatrix} g(x^{(1)})^\top \\ \vdots \\ g(x^{(N)})^\top \end{bmatrix}_{N \times d} \begin{bmatrix} e_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ e_d^\top \end{bmatrix}_{d \times d}$$

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} g(x^{(1)})_1 & \dots & g(x^{(1)})_k & \dots & \cancel{g(x^{(1)})_d} \\ & & \vdots & & \\ g(x^{(N)})_1 & \dots & g(x^{(N)})_k & \dots & \cancel{g(x^{(N)})_d} \end{bmatrix}_{N \times d} \begin{bmatrix} e_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ e_k^\top \\ \vdots \\ e_d^\top \end{bmatrix}_{d \times d}$$

Zero!!

# Revisit the eigenvectors in PCA

- It is critical to notice that the *direction of maximum variance* in the input space happens to be same as the *principal eigenvector of the covariance matrix*
- Why?



# Revisit the eigenvectors in PCA (cont.)

- The projection of each point  $x$  to a direction  $u$  (with  $\|u\| = 1$ ) is  $x^\top u$
- The variance of the projection is

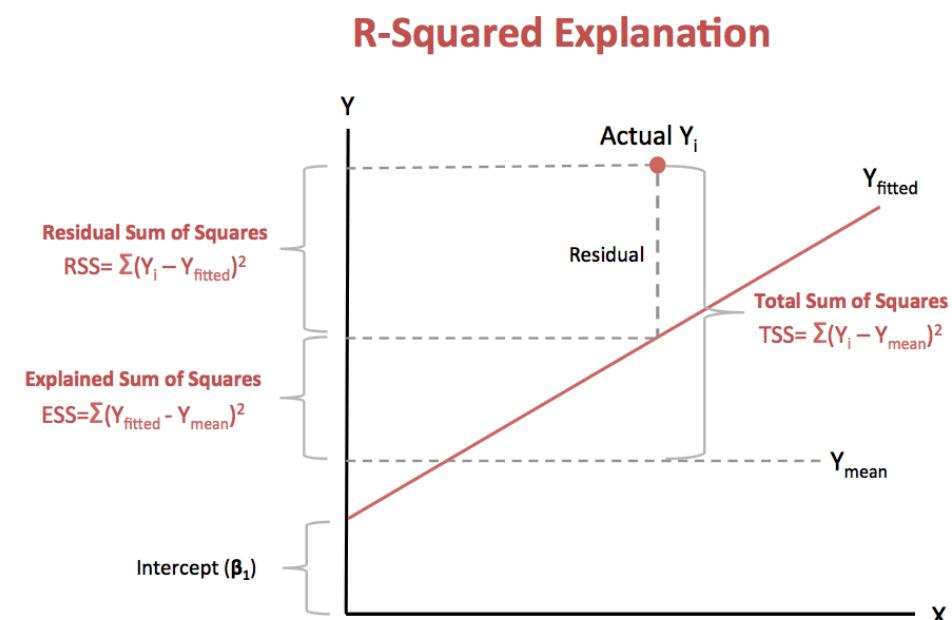
$$\sum_{i=1}^N \left( (x^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top u \right)^2 = u^\top Q u$$

which is maximized when  $u$  is the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue

- $Q = \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j e_j e_j^\top = E \Lambda E^\top$  with  $\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & \cdots & \lambda_d \end{bmatrix}$

# Review – Total/Explained variance

- $R^2 = \frac{\text{explained variance}}{\text{total variance}}$
- Total variance:  $SS_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2$
- Explained variance:  $SS_{\text{reg}} = \sum_i (f_i - \bar{y})^2$
- Or, it can be computed as:  
$$R^2 \equiv 1 - \frac{SS_{\text{res}}}{SS_{\text{tot}}} \quad \text{where} \quad SS_{\text{res}} = \sum_i (y_i - f_i)^2 = \sum_i e_i^2$$



$$R_{\text{Sq}} = 1 - \frac{RSS}{TSS}$$

# Total variance and PCA

- Note that  $I = e_1 e_1^\top + \cdots + e_d e_d^\top$
- Total variance is
  - $\sum_{i=1}^N (x^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top (x^{(i)} - \bar{x})$
  - $= \sum_{i=1}^N (x^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top (e_1 e_1^\top + \cdots + e_d e_d^\top) (x^{(i)} - \bar{x})$
  - $= \sum_{j=1}^d e_j^\top Q e_j = \lambda_1 + \cdots + \lambda_d$

# Total variance and PCA (cont.)

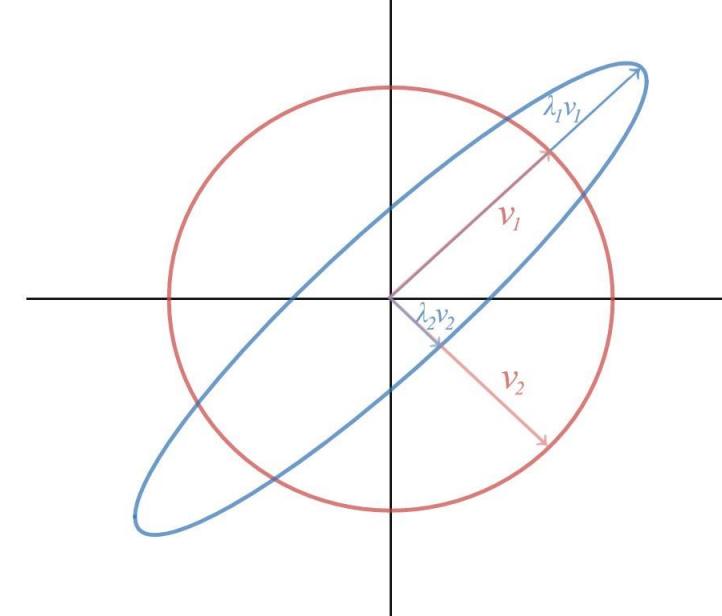
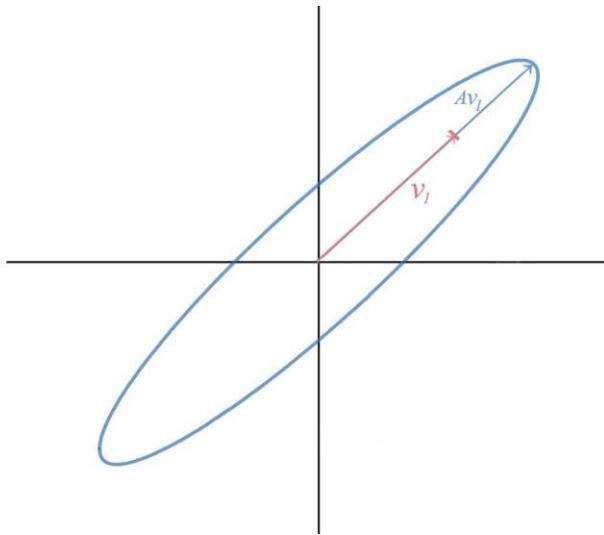
- Approximation of each  $x^{(i)} - \bar{x} \approx \sum_{j=1}^k g_{ij} e_j =: \tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x}$
- Then the **explained** variance is
- $\sum_{i=1}^N (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x})$
- $= \sum_{i=1}^N (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top (e_1 e_1^\top + \dots + e_d e_d^\top) (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x})$
- $= \sum_{j=1}^d e_j^\top \tilde{Q} e_j = \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k$
- where  $\tilde{Q} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x}) (\tilde{x}^{(i)} - \bar{x})^\top = E \tilde{\Lambda} E^\top$  with

- $\tilde{\Lambda} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \lambda_k & \\ & & & 0 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

# Properties

- Scalar  $\lambda$  and vector  $v$  are eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A$   
$$Av = \lambda v$$
- Visually,  $Av$  lies along the same line as the eigenvector of  $v$



# Example

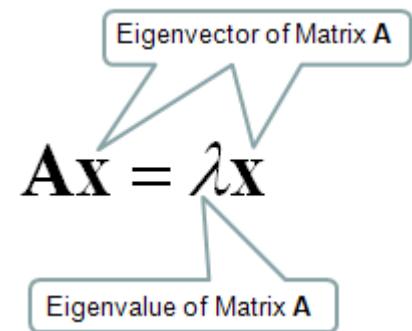
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 \\ 3 & -5 & 3 \\ 6 & -6 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 4 \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

*A*                   *eigenvalue*                   *eigenvector*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 \\ 3 & -5 & 3 \\ 6 & -6 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 \\ 3 & -5 & 3 \\ 6 & -6 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# How to solve eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

- If  $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$  has a nonzero solution for  $\lambda$ , then  $A - \lambda I$  is not invertible. Then the determinant of  $A - \lambda I$  must be zero
- $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if and only if  $A - \lambda I$  is singular:  
$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$



# Example

- Find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$
- Need to solve  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$
- $A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 4 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$
- $\det(A - \lambda I) = (1 - \lambda)(4 - \lambda) - 2 \times 2 = \lambda^2 - 5\lambda$
- $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$  would imply  $\lambda = 0$  and  $\lambda = 5$

## Example (cont.)

- Then solve  $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$  to get the eigenvectors for each of the eigenvalues
- $Ax = 0$  has a nonzero solution of  $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ , or  $\begin{bmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$
- $(A - 5I)x = 0$  has a nonzero solution of  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ , or  $\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$
- Note: Eigenvectors for different eigenvalues are **orthogonal**

# Singular Value Decomposition

SVD

# SVD

- Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) is a factorization method of matrix. It states that any  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  can be written as the product of 3 matrices:

$$A = U S V^T$$

- Where:
  - $U$  is  $m \times m$  and its columns are orthonormal **eigenvectors** of  $AA^T$
  - $V$  is  $n \times n$  and its columns are orthonormal **eigenvectors** of  $A^TA$
  - $S$  is  $m \times n$  is a diagonal matrix with  $r$  elements equal to the root of the positive eigenvalues of  $AA^T$  or  $A^TA$  (both matrices have the same positive eigenvalues anyway)

In full matrix form

$$A_{m \times n} = U_{m \times m} S_{m \times n} V^T_{n \times n}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{A} \\ \left( \begin{array}{ccc} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{1n} \\ & \ddots & \\ x_{m1} & & x_{mn} \end{array} \right) \\ m \times n \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} \text{U} \\ \left( \begin{array}{ccc} u_{11} & & u_{m1} \\ & \ddots & \\ u_{1m} & & u_{mm} \end{array} \right) \\ m \times m \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{S} \\ \left( \begin{array}{ccc} \sigma_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sigma_r \\ & & \ddots & 0 \end{array} \right) \\ m \times n \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{V}^T \\ \left( \begin{array}{ccc} v_{11} & & v_{1n} \\ & \ddots & \\ v_{n1} & & v_{nn} \end{array} \right) \\ n \times n \end{array}$$

# Example

- Let's assume:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- We can have:

$$AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} 17 & 8 \\ 8 & 17 \end{pmatrix} \quad A^TA = \begin{pmatrix} 13 & 12 & 2 \\ 12 & 13 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Example (cont.)

- Compute U and V respectively:

$$AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} 17 & 8 \\ 8 & 17 \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1=25, \lambda_2=9$

eigenvectors

$$u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad u_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^TA = \begin{pmatrix} 13 & 12 & 2 \\ 12 & 13 & -2 \\ 2 & -2 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1=25, \lambda_2=9, \lambda_3=0$

eigenvectors

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{18} \\ -1/\sqrt{18} \\ 4/\sqrt{18} \end{pmatrix} \quad v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ -2/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Example (cont.)

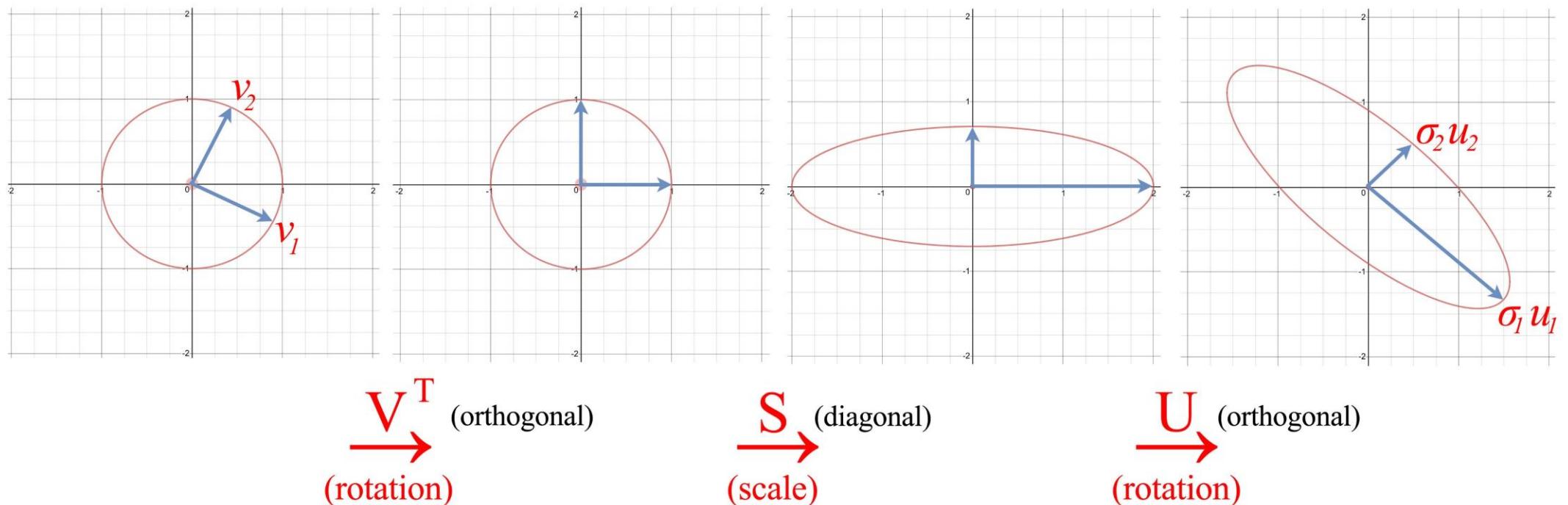
- Finally, we have:

$$A = USV^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{18} & -1/\sqrt{18} & 4/\sqrt{18} \\ 2/3 & -2/3 & -1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Visualization

- The eigenvector  $v_j$  of  $V$  is transformed into  $A v_j = \sigma_j u_j$

$$Ax = USV^T x$$

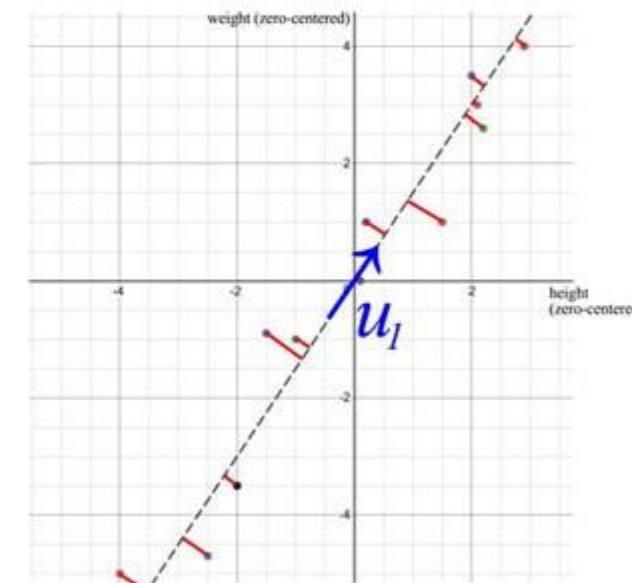
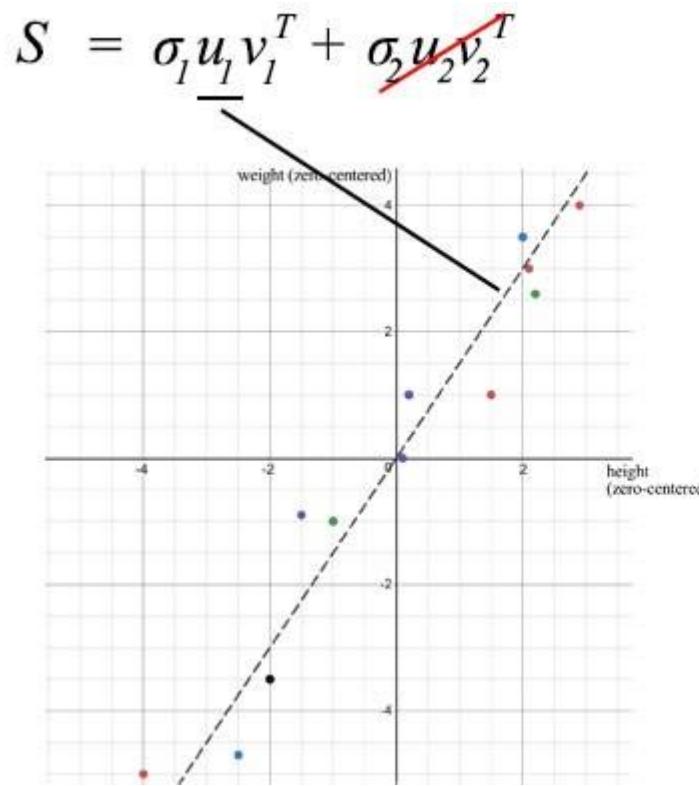


# Insight

more significant

less significant

$$A = U S V^T = \underbrace{\sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T}_{m \times n} + \dots + \underbrace{\sigma_r u_r v_r^T}_{1 \times n} + \underbrace{\dots}_{m \times n}$$



# SVD and PCA

$$(S^\top S)_{d \times d} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \sigma_d^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $X = US_{N \times d}V^\top$
- $Q = X^\top X = V(S^\top)_{d \times N}U^\top \cdot US_{N \times d}V^\top = V(S^\top S)_{d \times d}V^\top$

- This explains why singular value  $\sigma_j$  is the square root of the eigenvalue  $\lambda_j$  of  $Q$

- $\lambda_j = \sigma_j^2$

- Also  $V$  contains eigenvectors of  $X^\top X$

- Similarly,  $XX^\top = US_{N \times d}V^\top \cdot V(S^\top)_{d \times N}U^\top = U(SS^\top)_{N \times N}U^\top$

$$(SS^\top)_{N \times N} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \cdots & & & \\ \vdots & \ddots & & & \\ & & \sigma_d^2 & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

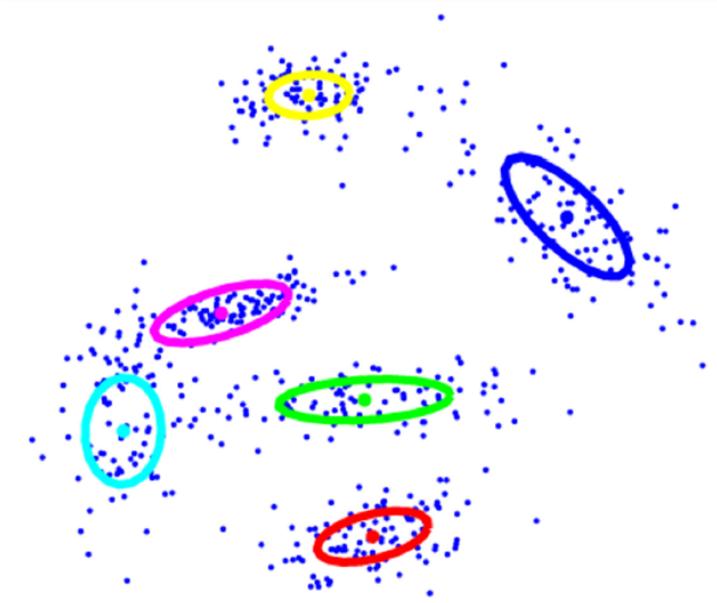
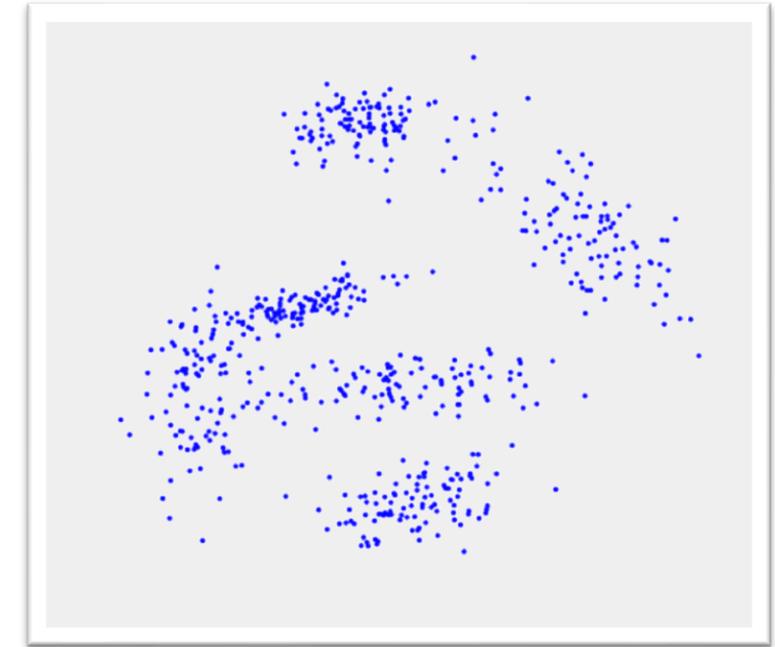
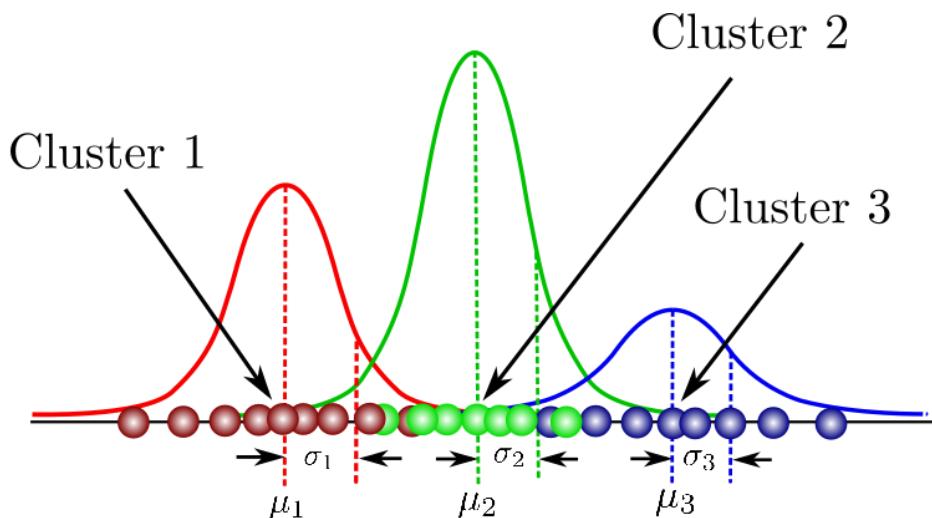
# Application

- Matrix factorization in recommendation system
- Suppose in the database of Taobao, there are  $m$  users and  $n$  items, and an  $m \times n$  binary matrix  $A$ 
  - Each entry indicates whether a user has bought an item or not
  - As each user only buys very few items among all items, the matrix is very sparse
- As the manager of Taobao, how can you predict the likelihood that a user will buy a given item?
- SVD could help

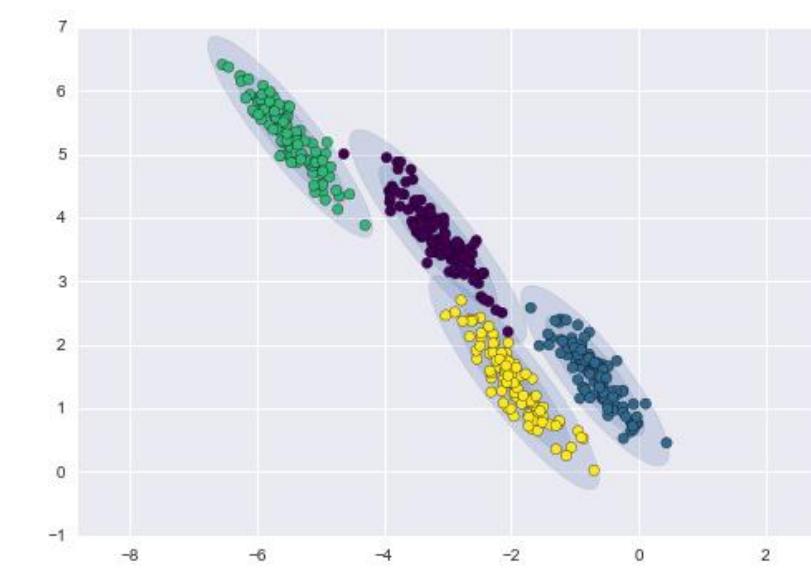
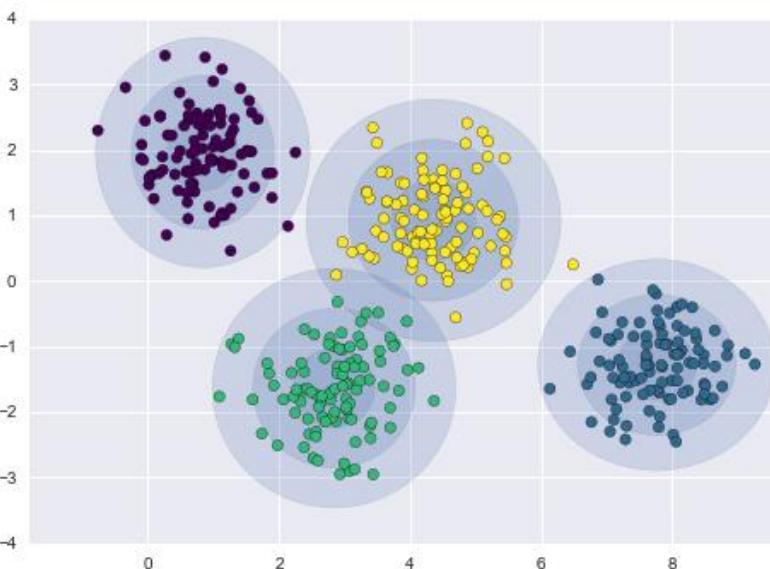
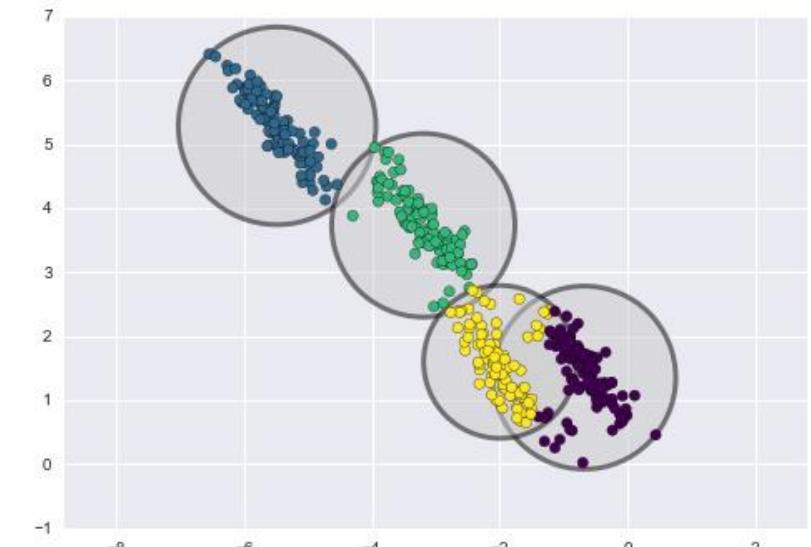
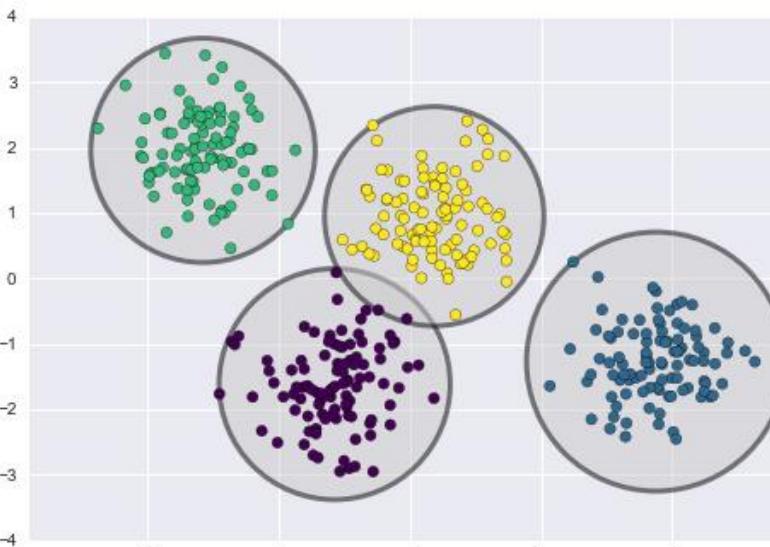
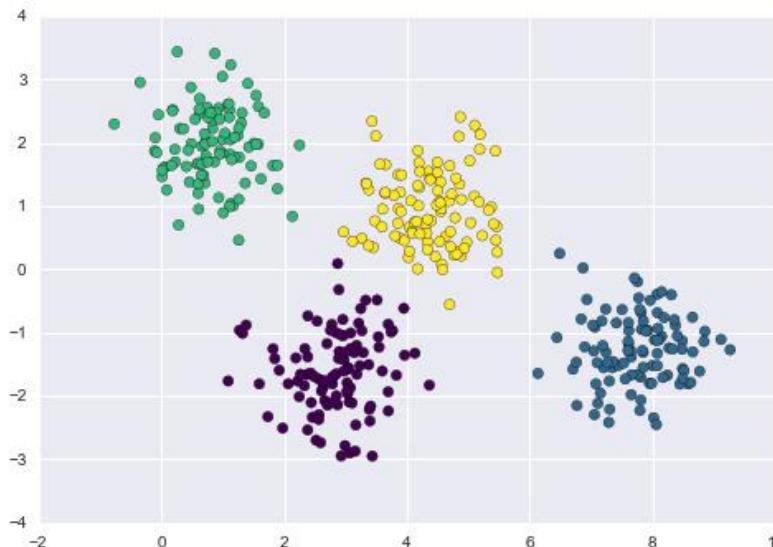
# Gaussian Mixture Models

# Gaussian Mixture Models

- Is a clustering algorithms
- Difference with K-means
  - K-means outputs the label of a sample
  - GMM outputs the probability that a sample belongs to a certain class
  - GMM can also be used to **generate** new samples!



# K-means vs GMM



# High-dimensional Gaussian distribution

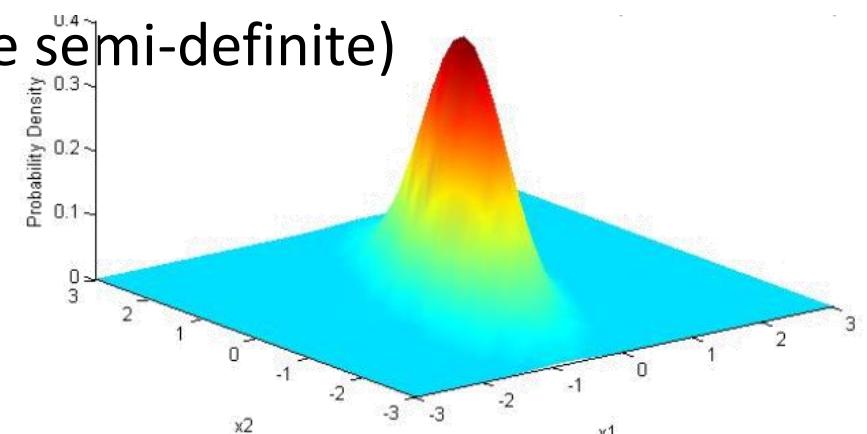
$$f(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

- The probability density of Gaussian distribution on  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)^\top$  is

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right)}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\Sigma|}}$$

- where  $\mu$  is the mean vector
- $\Sigma$  is the symmetric covariance matrix (positive semi-definite)
- E.g. the Gaussian distribution with

$$\mu = (0,0)^T \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0.25 & 0.30 \\ 0.30 & 1.00 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Mixture of Gaussian

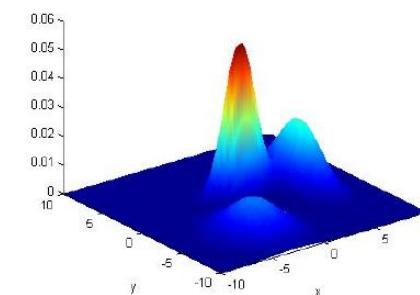
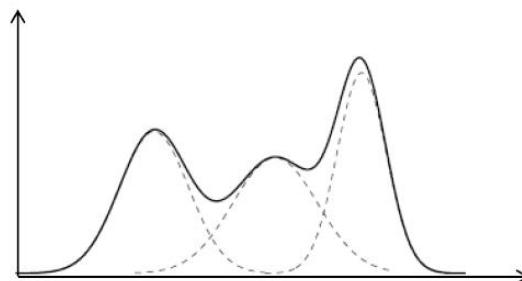
- The probability given in a mixture of  $K$  Gaussians is:

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^K w_j \cdot \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$$

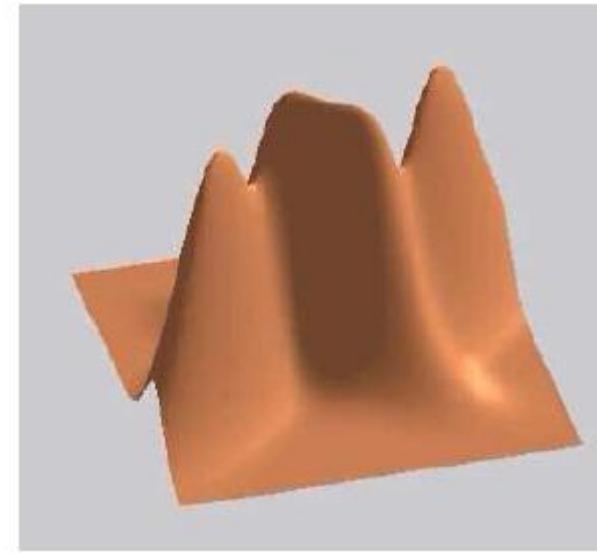
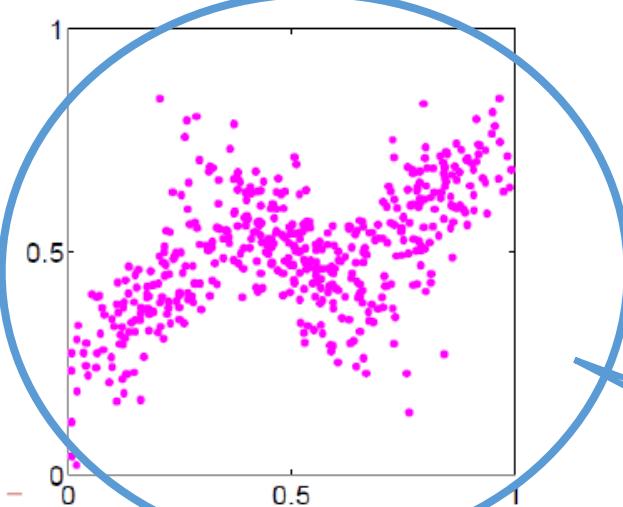
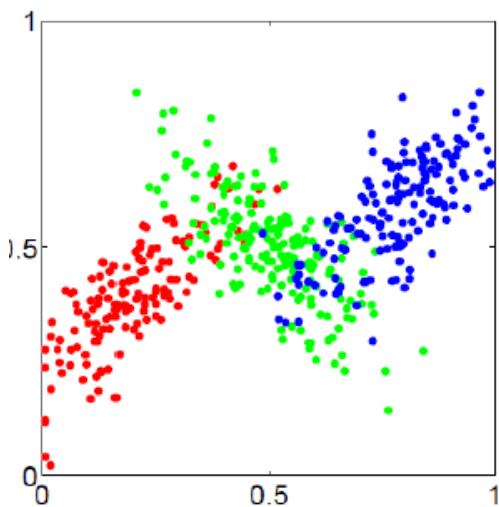
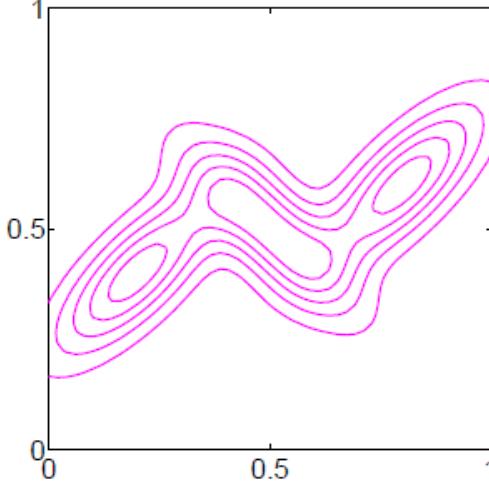
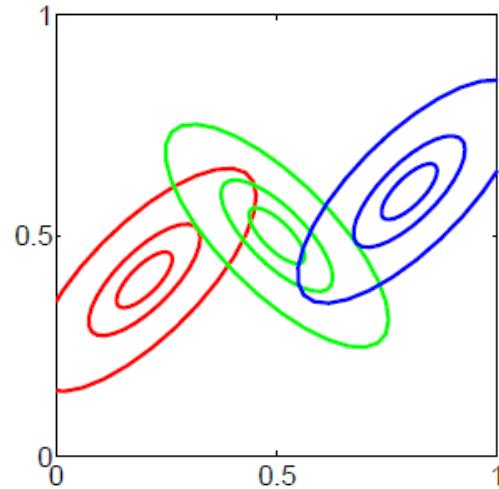
where  $w_j$  is the prior probability of the  $j$ -th Gaussian

$$\sum_{j=1}^K w_j = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq w_j \leq 1$$

- Example



# Examples



Observation

# Data generation

- Let the parameter set  $\theta = \{w_j, \mu_j, \Sigma_j : j\}$ , then the probability density of mixture Gaussian can be written as

$$p(x|\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^K w_j \cdot \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$$

- Equivalent to generate data points in two steps
  - Select which component  $j$  the data point belongs to according to the categorical (or multinoulli) distribution of  $(w_1, \dots, w_K)$
  - Generate the data point according to the probability of  $j$ -th component

# Learning task

- Given a dataset  $X = \{x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(N)}\}$  to train the GMM model
- Find the best  $\theta$  that maximizes the probability  $\mathbb{P}(X|\theta)$
- Maximal likelihood estimator (MLE)

$$\theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} p(X | \theta) = \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^N p(x_i | \theta)$$

# Introduce latent variable

- For data points  $x^{(i)}, i = 1, \dots, N$ , let's write the probability as

$$\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^K w_j \cdot \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)}|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$$

where  $\sum_{j=1}^K w_j = 1$

- Introduce latent variable
  - $z^{(i)}$  is the Gaussian cluster ID indicates which Gaussian  $x^{(i)}$  comes from
  - $\mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) = w_j$  “Prior”
  - $\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|z^{(i)} = j; \theta) = \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)}|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$
  - $\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) \cdot \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|z^{(i)} = j; \theta)$

# Maximal likelihood

- Let  $l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_j \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta)$  be the log-likelihood
- We want to solve

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{argmax} l(\theta) &= \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) \cdot \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | z^{(i)} = j; \theta) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_{j=1}^K w_j \cdot \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)} | \mu_j, \Sigma_j)\end{aligned}$$

- No closed solution by solving

$$\frac{\partial l(X|\theta)}{\partial w} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial l(X|\theta)}{\partial \mu} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial l(X|\theta)}{\partial \Sigma} = 0$$

# Likelihood maximization

- If we know  $z^{(i)}$  for all  $i$ , the problem becomes

$$\operatorname{argmax} l(\theta) = \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} | \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | \theta, z^{(i)}) + \log \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} | \theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)} | \mu_{z^{(i)}}, \Sigma_{z^{(i)}}) + \log w_{z^{(i)}}$$

Average over  
each cluster

The solution is

- $w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}$
- $\mu_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}}$
- $\Sigma_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^T}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}}$

# Likelihood maximization (cont.)

- Given the parameter  $\theta = \{w_j, \mu_j, \Sigma_j: j\}$ , the **posterior** distribution of each latent variable  $z^{(i)}$  can be inferred
- $$\mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j | \theta)}{\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | \theta)}$$
- $$= \frac{\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | z^{(i)} = j; \mu_j, \Sigma_j) \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | w)}{\sum_{j'=1}^K \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | z^{(i)} = j'; \mu_{j'}, \Sigma_{j'}) \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j' | w)}$$
- Or  $w_j^{(i)} = \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta) \propto \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | z^{(i)} = j; \mu_j, \Sigma_j) \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | w)$

# Likelihood maximization (cont.)

$$w_j^{(i)} = \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

- For every possible values of  $z^{(i)}$ 's

The solution is

- $w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}$
- $\mu_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}}$
- $\Sigma_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^\top}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}}$



Which is equivalent to

- $w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}$
- $(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}) \mu_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} x^{(i)}$
- $(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\}) \Sigma_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}\{z^{(i)} = j\} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^\top$



Take expectation

- Take the expectation on probability of  $z^{(i)}$

The solution is

- $w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}$
- $\mu_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)} x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}}$
- $\Sigma_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^\top}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}}$



Take expectation on two sides

- $w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j)$
- $(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j)) \mu_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) x^{(i)}$
- $(\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j)) \Sigma_j = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^\top$

# Likelihood maximization (cont.)

- If we know the distribution of  $z^{(i)}$ 's, then it is equivalent to maximize

$$l(\mathbb{P}_{z^{(i)}}, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j) \log \frac{\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j | \theta)}{\mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j)}$$

- Compared with previous if we know the values of  $z^{(i)}$

$$\operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} | \theta)$$

is a lower bound of

- Note that it is hard to solve if we directly maximize

$$l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_{j=1}^K \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | \theta) \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)} | z^{(i)} = j; \theta)$$



# Expectation maximization methods

- E-step:
  - Infer the **posterior** distribution of the latent variables given the model parameters
- M-step:
  - Tune parameters to maximize the data likelihood given the latent variable distribution
- EM methods
  - Iteratively execute E-step and M-step until convergence

# EM for GMM

- Repeat until convergence:{

(E-step) For each  $i, j$ , set

$$w_j^{(i)} = \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}, w, \mu, \Sigma)$$

(M-step) Update the parameters

$$w_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}, \quad \mu_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)} x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}}$$

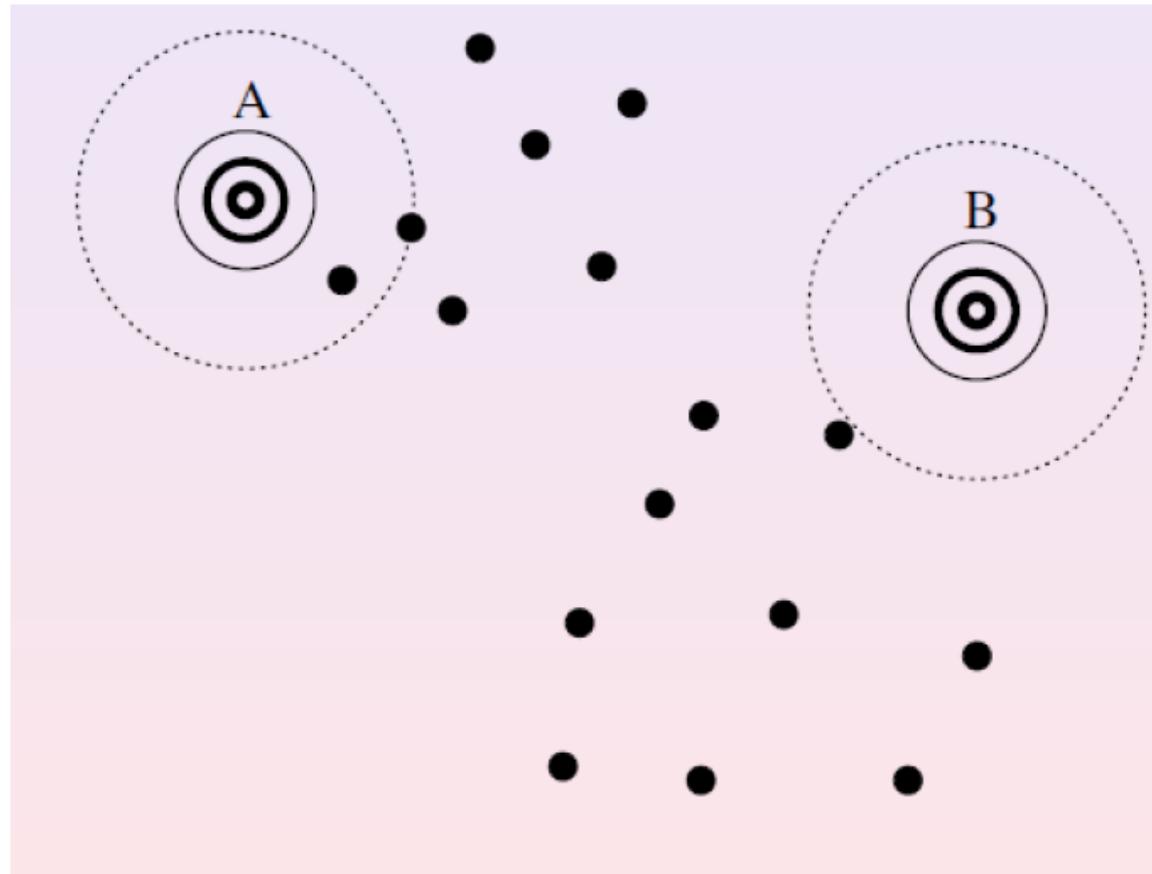
$$\Sigma_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j)(x^{(i)} - \mu_j)^\top}{\sum_{i=1}^N w_j^{(i)}}$$

}

# Example

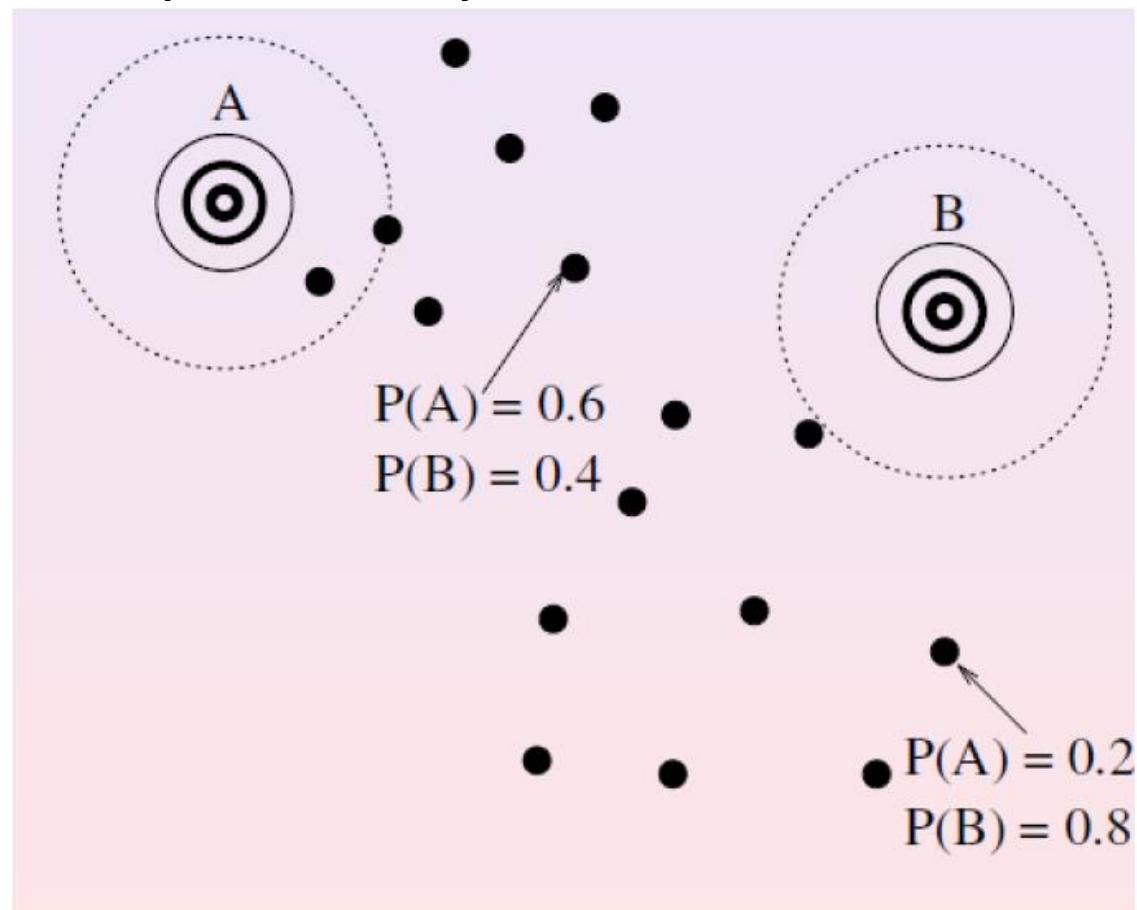
$$p(x|\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^K w_j \cdot \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$$

- Hidden variable: for each point, which Gaussian generates it?



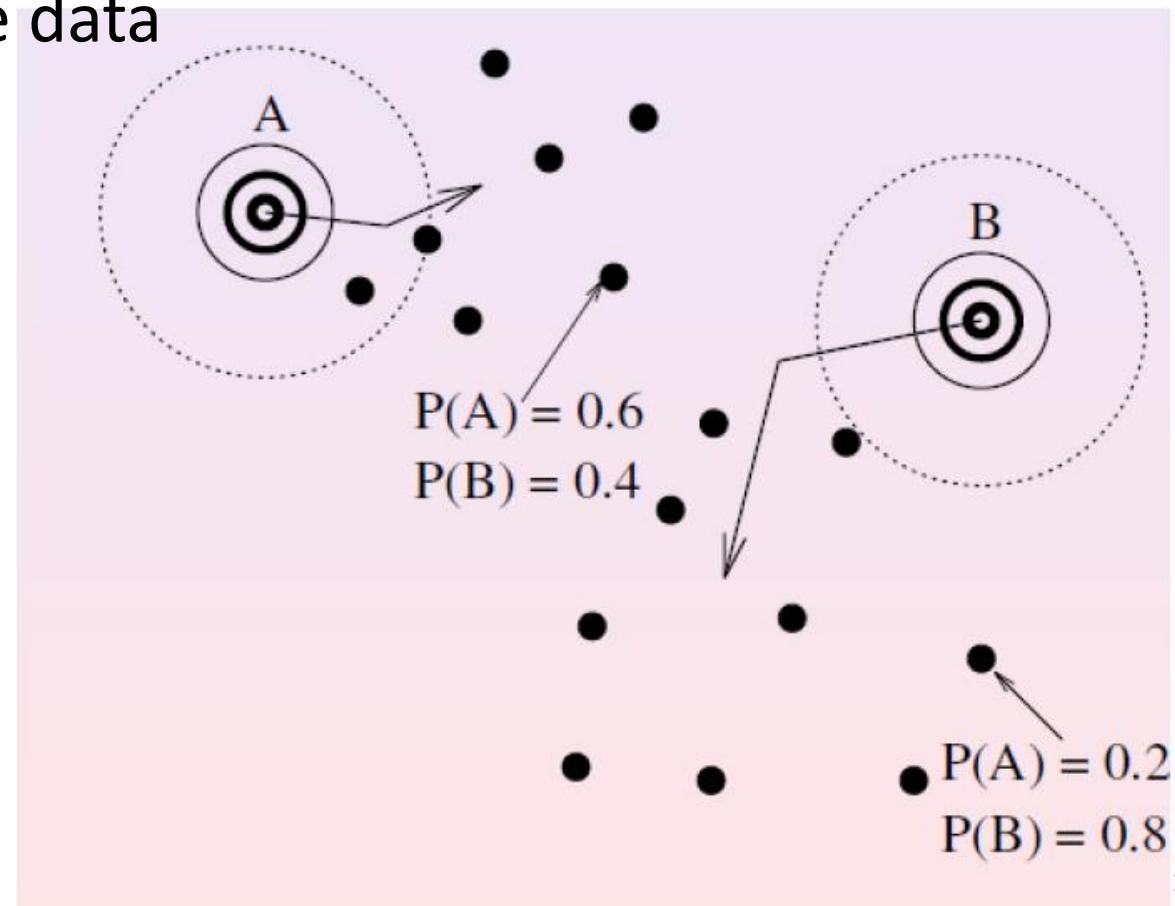
# Example (cont.)

- E-step: for each point, estimate the probability that each Gaussian component generated it

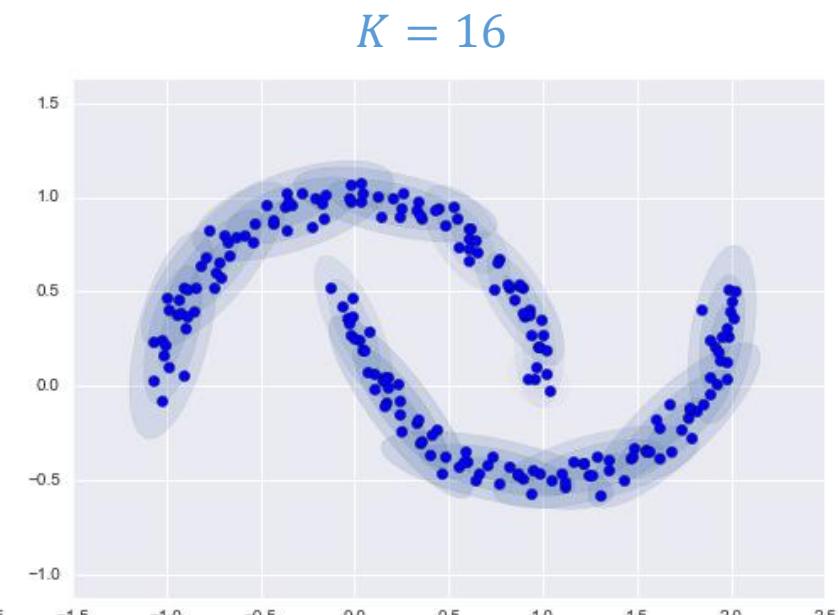
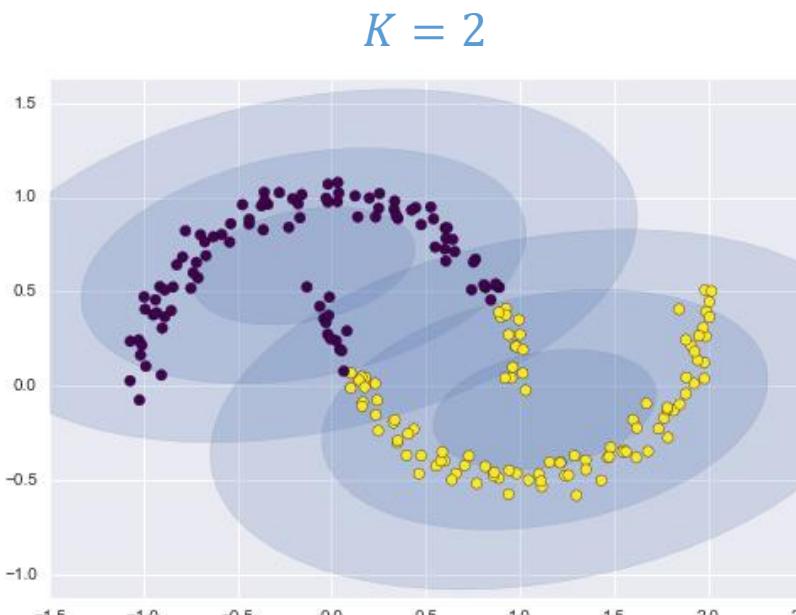
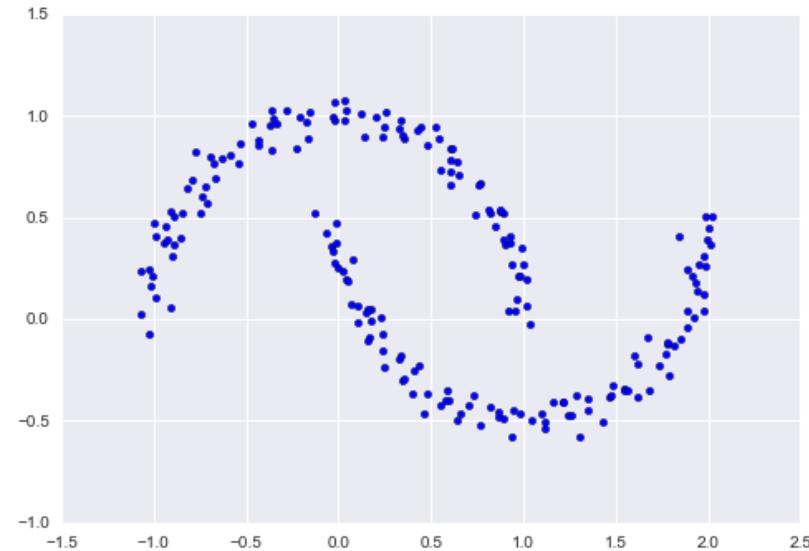


# Example (cont.)

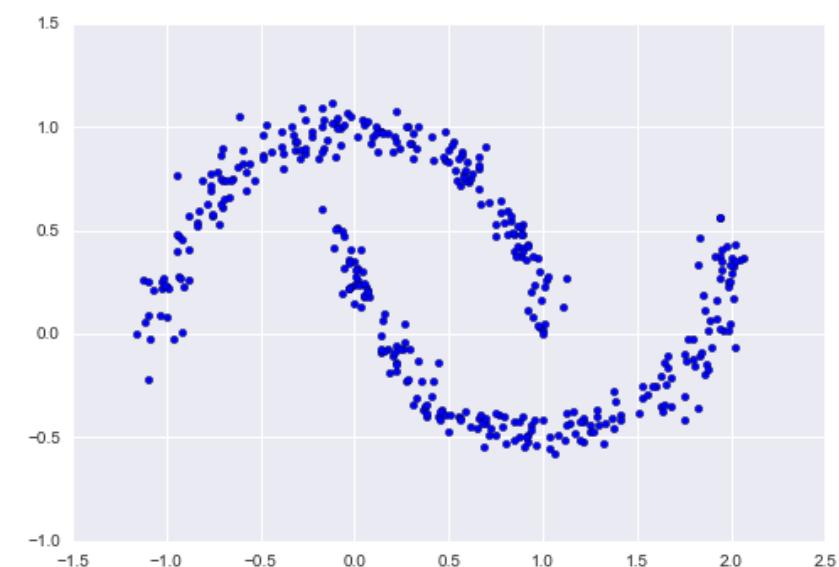
- M-Step: modify the parameters according to the hidden variable to maximize the likelihood of the data



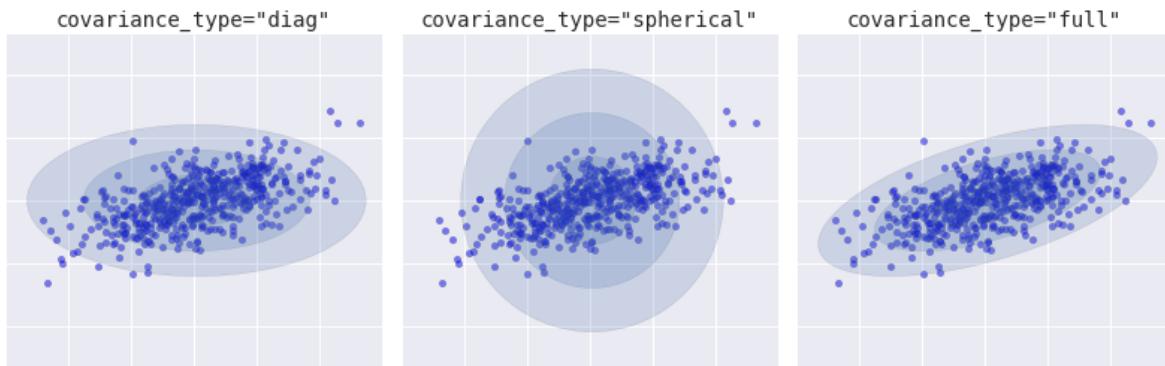
# Example



400 new data  
points generated  
from the 16-GMM

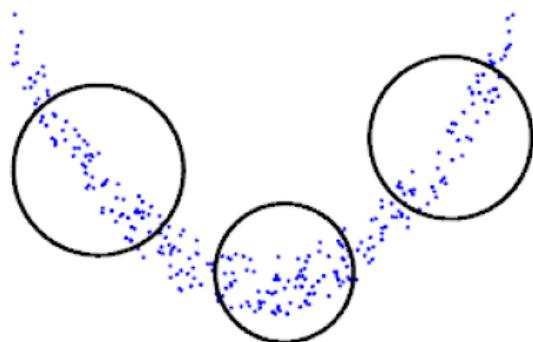


# Remaining issues (cont.)



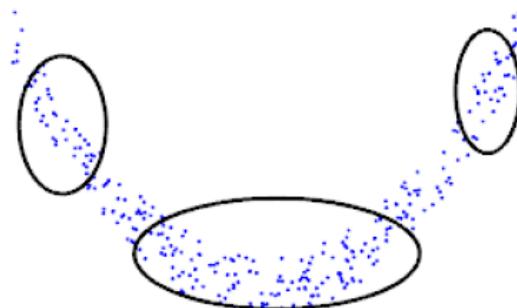
- Simplification of the covariance matrices

**Case 1:** Spherical covariance matrix  $\Sigma_j = \text{diag}(\sigma_j^2, \sigma_j^2, \dots, \sigma_j^2) = \sigma_j^2 I$



- Less precise.
- Very efficient to compute.

**Case 2:** Diagonal covariance matrix  $\Sigma_j = \text{diag}(\sigma_{j1}^2, \sigma_{j2}^2, \dots, \sigma_{jd}^2)$



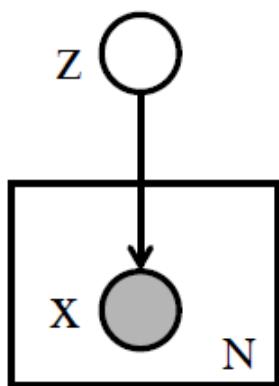
- More precise.
- Efficient to compute.

# Expectation and Maximization

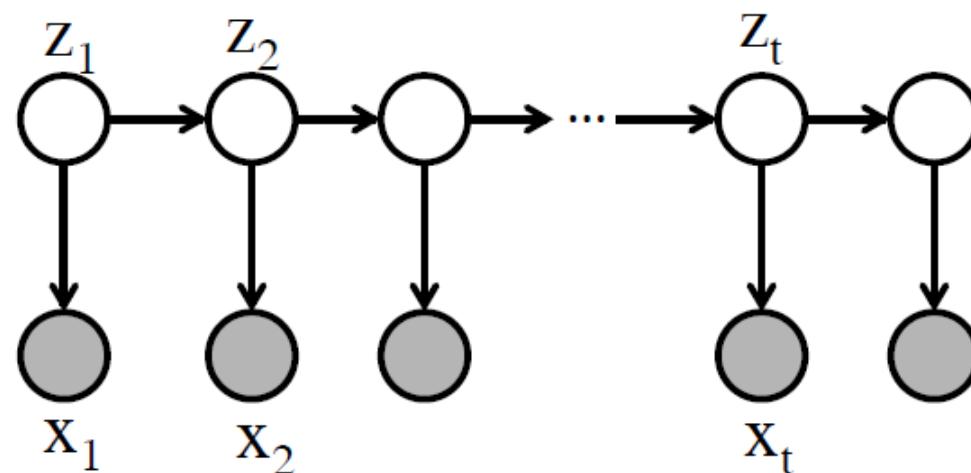
# Background: Latent variable models

- Some of the variables in the model are not observed
- Examples: mixture model, Hidden Markov Models, LDA, etc

Mixture Model



Hidden Markov Model



# Background: Marginal likelihood

- Joint model  $\mathbb{P}(x, z|\theta)$ ,  $\theta$  is the model parameter
- With  $z$  unobserved, we marginalize out  $z$  and use the marginal log-likelihood for learning

$$\mathbb{P}(x|\theta) = \sum_z \mathbb{P}(x, z|\theta)$$

- Example: mixture model

$$\mathbb{P}(x|\theta) = \sum_k \mathbb{P}(x|z = k, \theta_k) \mathbb{P}(z = k|\theta_k) = \sum_k \pi_k \mathbb{P}(x|z = k, \theta_k)$$

where  $\pi_k$  is the mixing proportions

# Examples

- Mixture of Bernoulli

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = k, \theta_k) = p(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k) = \prod_i \mu_k^{x_i} (1 - \mu_k)^{1-x_i}$$

- Mixture of Gaussians

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = k, \theta_k) &= p(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \\ &= \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma_k|^{\frac{D}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu_k)^\top \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu_k)\right) \end{aligned}$$

- Hidden Markov Model

$$p(\mathbf{Z}) = p(\mathbf{z}_1) \prod_t p(\mathbf{z}_t | \mathbf{z}_{t-1})$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z}) = \prod_t p(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{z}_t)$$

# Learning the hidden variable Z

- If all  $z$  observed, the likelihood factorizes, and learning is relatively easy

$$\ell(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{z}|\theta) + \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \theta)$$

- If  $z$  not observed, we have to handle a sum inside log
  - Idea 1: ignore this problem and simply take derivative and follow the gradient
  - Idea 2: use the current  $\theta$  to estimate  $z$ , fill them in and do fully-observed learning
- Is there a better way?

# General EM methods

- Repeat until convergence{  
    (E-step) For each data point  $i$ , set

$$q_i(j) = \mathbb{P}(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

(M-step) Update the parameters

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} l(q_i, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_j q_i(j) \log \frac{\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta)}{q_i(j)}$$

}

# Convergence of EM

- Denote  $\theta^{(t)}$  and  $\theta^{(t+1)}$  as the parameters of two successive iterations of EM, we want to prove that

$$l(\theta^{(t)}) \leq l(\theta^{(t+1)})$$

where note that

$$l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_j \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta)$$

- This shows EM always monotonically improves the log-likelihood, thus ensures EM will at least converge to a local optimum

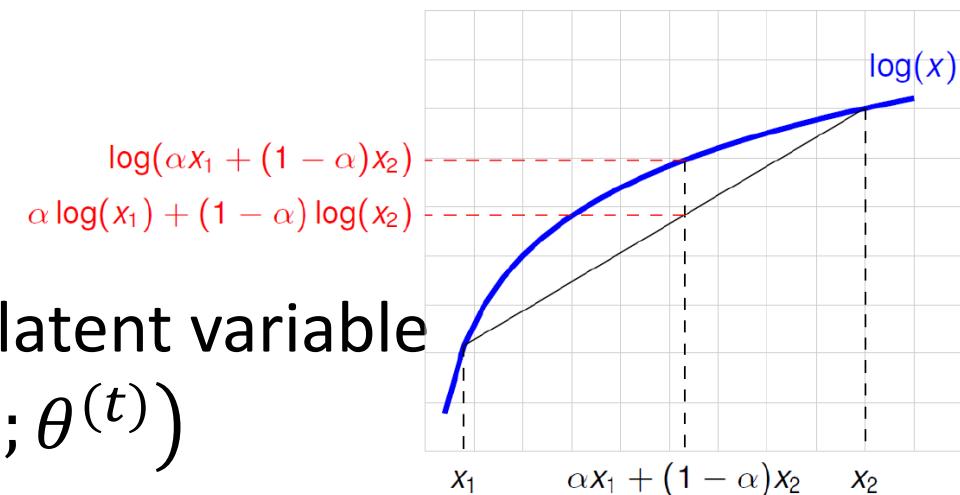
# Proof

- Start from  $\theta^{(t)}$ , we choose the posterior of latent variable

$$q_i^{(t)}(j) = p(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta^{(t)})$$

- By Jensen's inequality on the **log** function

$$\begin{aligned} & l(q, \theta^{(t)}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_j q_i(j) \log \frac{p(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta^{(t)})}{q_i(j)} \\ & \leq \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_j q_i(j) \cdot \frac{p(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta^{(t)})}{q_i(j)} \\ & = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \sum_j p(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta^{(t)}) = l(\theta^{(t)}) \end{aligned}$$



- When  $q_i^{(t)}(j) = p(z^{(i)} = j | x^{(i)}; \theta^{(t)})$ , the above inequality is equality

# Proof (cont.)

- Then the parameter  $\theta^{(t+1)}$  is obtained by maximizing

$$l\left(q_i^{(t)}, \theta\right) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_j q_i^{(t)} \log \frac{p(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)} = j; \theta)}{q_i^{(t)}}$$

- Thus

$$l(\theta^{(t+1)}) \geq l\left(q_i^{(t)}, \theta^{(t+1)}\right) \geq l\left(q_i^{(t)}, \theta^{(t)}\right) = l(\theta^{(t)})$$

- Since the likelihood is at most 1, EM will converge (to a local optimum)

# Example

- Follow previous example, suppose  $h = 20, c = 10, d = 10, \mu^{(0)} = 0$
- Then
- Convergence is generally linear: error decreases by a constant factor each time step



t	$\mu^{(t)}$	$b^{(t)}$
0	0	0
1	0.0833	2.857
2	0.0937	3.158
3	0.0947	3.185
4	0.0948	3.187
5	0.0948	3.187
6	0.0948	3.187

# K-means and EM

- After initialize the position of the centers, K-means interactively execute the following two operations:
  - Assign the label of the points based on their distances to the centers
    - Specific posterior distribution of latent variable
    - E-step
  - Update the positions of the centers based on the labeling results
    - Given the labels, optimize the model parameters
    - M-step