

Machine Learning 1 – Fundamentals

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Outline



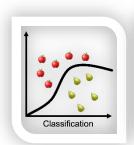
- Motivation
- Clustering
- Dimensionality Reduction / Feature Extraction
- Outlook: Advanced Methods

Types of Learning



Supervised Learning

- Data: Examples with input and desired output data (labeled data).
- **Goal**: Learn the relationship between input and output data in order to predict the correct output for new input data.
- Seen in lectures: Decision trees, neural networks and SVM

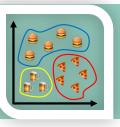




Unsupervised Learning

- Data: Examples contain only input data (unlabeled data).
- Goal: Find the underlying structure in the data.





Reinforcement Learning

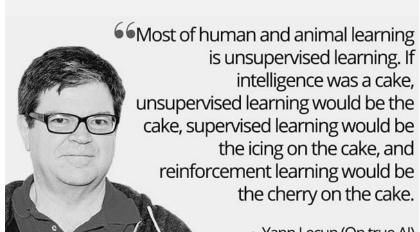
- Data: Experience from interaction with an environment and resulting reward.
- **Goal**: Learn a behavior that maximizes the reward in the long term.



Why Unsupervised Learning?



- Annotating training data is often the most expensive aspect of creating a dataset for machine learning. Obtaining vast quantities of unlabeled data, however, is relatively inexpensive
 - Download images/text from internet
 - Record sensor data while driving a car
- Unsupervised learning allows the discovery of new pattern relationships and insights into the structure of the underlying data
 - Can be used as a foundation for other methods



Unsupervised Learning - Basics



- Exploiting "similarities" in training data to:
 - agglomerate classes/clusters (iteratively)
 - extract essential characteristics, i.e. features
- Analogy to human learning

A student:

- gradually learns new concepts
- observes objects/events
- forms (hierarchical) concepts that summarize and organize the experiences
- finds a correct representation of data, which enables faster learning

Unsupervised Learning - Basics



- **Classical Clustering Algorithms**
 - k-means-Clustering
 - Agglomerative Hierarchical Clustering 层次聚类
- **Densitiy Based Clustering Algorithms**
 - DBSCAN
 - OPTICS

密度聚类

- Neural Network based Algorithms (Generative Models)
 - Autoencoder, Variational Autoencoder, Self-Supervised Learning
 - Bidirectional networks (RBM)
- **Conceptual Clustering:** CLUSTER/2
- **Concept Formation:** COBWEB, CLASSIT
- Learning by Discorvery: BACON, ABACUS

Outline



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- Dimensionality Reduction / Feature Extraction
- Outlook: Advanced Methods

K-means-Clustering (Lloyd, 1982)



- Very simple and yet frequently used
- Divides a data set into a (usually) pre-determined number of clusters

'将数据划分为 k 个聚类,每个聚类由一个中心点(质心)表示。

Basic Idea:

- Defining a center point for each cluster
- Iterative adaptation/improvement
 - ... regarding data belonging to the cluster
 - ... regarding center of cluster (also called centroids)
- Optimality Criterion: Minimization of distance between all data points and their respective centroids 目标是最小化所有数据点与其质心的距离平方和。





Given:

Set x of unlabeled training examples, each with d attributes:

$$x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_d]$$

Number of clusters k

Objective:

Partition the training set into clusters $X_1, ..., X_k$ (with center points $c_1, ..., c_k$) such that a minimum of distance between data and centroids is reached.

$$\mathcal{L} = \min \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{x_i \in X_j} ||x_i - c_j||^2$$

K-means-Clustering – Lloyd's Algorithm



- Place k points c_j "randomly" in the d-dimensional space to initialize the centers of the clusters / centroids
- Iterative Process:
 - While: c_i changes
 - **Assign** each element x_i towards its nearest centroid c_l :

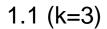
$$l = \underset{1 \le j \le k}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \| \boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{c}_j \|^2 \Longrightarrow \boldsymbol{x}_i \in X_l$$

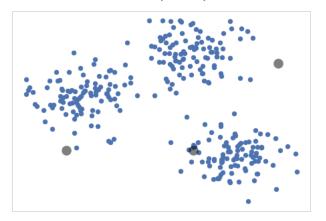
Recalculate centroids c_j for each resulting Cluster X_j :

$$c_j = \frac{\sum_{x_j \in X_j} x_j}{|X_j|}$$

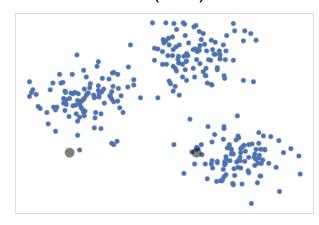
K-means-Clustering – Examples



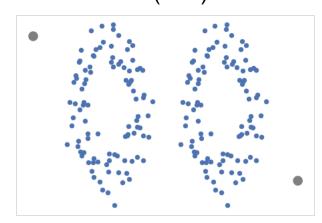


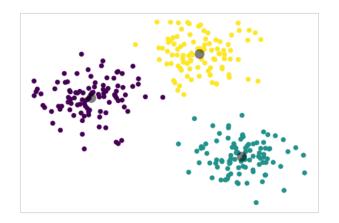


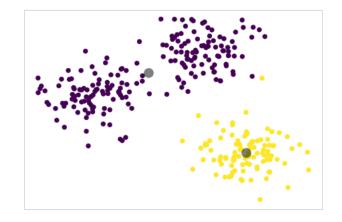
1.2 (k=2)

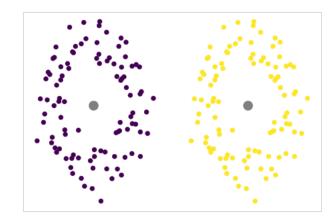


2.1(k=2)



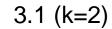


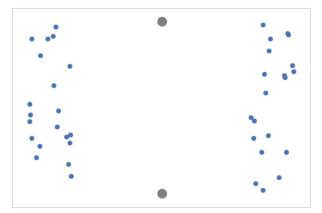




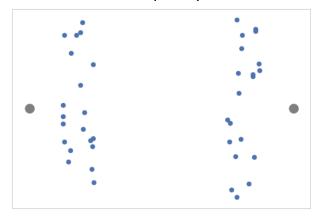
K-means-Clustering – Examples



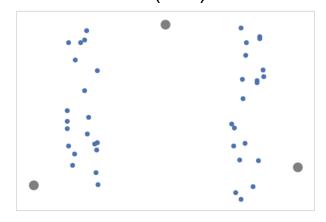


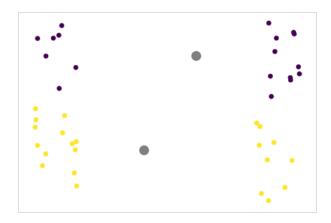


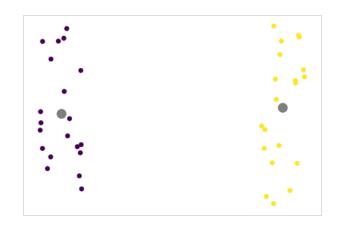
3.2 (k=2)



3.3 (k=3)









K-means-Clustering – Evaluation I

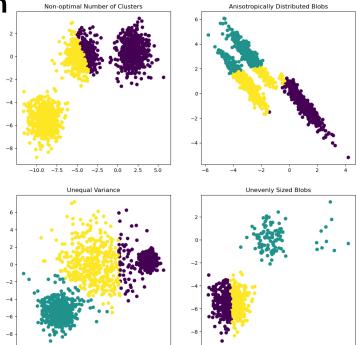


 Solving the problem is NP-hard, so Lloyd's algorithm is used, which converges to only a locally optimal solution

Results are **highly dependent** on the **number** k and **initialization** of centroids c_i

- Example 1.2:
 - Failure: Wrong number of initial clusters
 - **Solution:** Choose correct number of cluster
- Example 3.1 and 3.3:
 - Possible Failure: Potentially wrong cluster
 - Possible Solution: Initialize the algorithm multiple times with different centroid starting points
- Results are dependent of used distance metric $|x-c_i|$ 维度灾难
 - Curse of dimensionality! In high-dimensional representations, all data is dissimilar → Makes it harder to find clusters

在高维空间中,所有数据点可能都显得不相似,从而难以形成清晰的聚类结构。



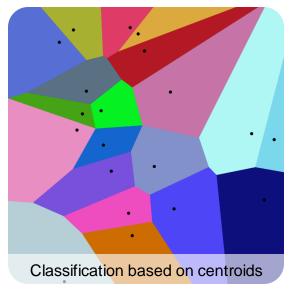
K-means-Clustering – Evaluation II



Centroids create Voronoi cells which are used for testing and inference of method

所以需要用先验知识来确定合适的k,规避overfitting

- Results depend on the correct choice of k
 - No sound theoretical solutions
 - Can we determine k from domain?
 - E.g. optical letter recognition $\Rightarrow k = 26$



- Triggering k-means method multiple times with different values for k
 - Termination if result meets a certain optimality criterion 如果结果符合特定的最优标准,则终止
 - Problem: Possibly overfitting on training data
 - Challenge: Find a good optimality criterion (e.g., minimum number of data points per cluster, maximum number of clusters...)

Fuzzy-k-means-Clustering I



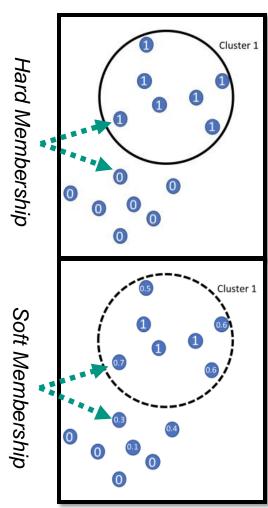
Regular k-means

Each instance belongs to exactly one cluster.

模糊K聚类

- **Softening**: Each instance x_i contains "soft" probabilities for a membership of cluster X_i
 - $P(X_i|x_i)$ "Probability measure of membership"
 - $P(X_i|x_i) \sim 0$: Instance is far away from centroid
 - $P(X_i|x_i) \sim 1$: Instance is close/inside the cluster
 - P is normalized over all clusters $X_j : \sum_{X_j} P(X_j \mid x_i) = 1$

每个数据点 x_i 对所有聚类的概率总和为t



Fuzzy-k-means-Clustering II



• Cluster belonging of instance x_i towards X_i with centroid c_i , is characterized by distance d_{ij} between x_i and c_j

東属于某个簇的隶属度公式 (其中 b 是控制模糊性的超参数,默认为2。)
$$\left(\frac{1}{d_{ij}}\right)^{\frac{1}{b-1}}$$
 $P(X_j|\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^k \left(\frac{1}{d_{ir}}\right)^{\frac{1}{b-1}}}$

b is a hyperparameter that scales the fuzziness/softness with default value = 2

with
$$d_{ij} = \left\| \boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{c}_j \right\|^2$$

lacktriangleq p is normalized over clusters X_i

$$\forall i = 1, ..., n$$
:

$$\forall i = 1, \dots, n: \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{k} P(X_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = 1$$





模糊隶属度影响质心更新,每次迭代根据当前隶属度计算新的质心位置:

lacktriangle Iterative adaptation of $oldsymbol{c}_j$ considers the fuzzy belongings of all data points $oldsymbol{x}_i$

$$c_j = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n P(X_j | \mathbf{x}_i)^b x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (P(X_j | \mathbf{x}_i))^b}$$

- Higher b-values reduce the influence of distant instances
- **Problem**: Runtime = O(kn) for each training iteration

运行时间(复杂度),k为族的数量,n为数据点数



DBSCAN – Density Based Spatial Clustering

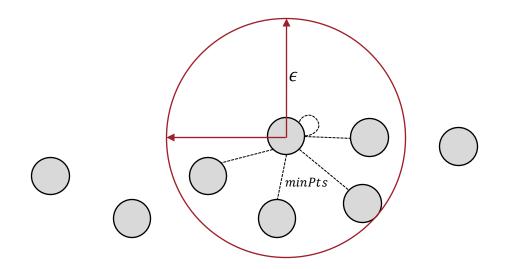
- Density based method
- Iteratively assigns data points to one of three classes:
 - Core sample
 - Neighbor
 - Noise
- Clusters are sets of core samples and their respective neighbors
- Separates high density areas from low density areas



- Algorithm is parametrized by minPts and a distance measure ε
- **Core Sample**: A point is a core sample if at least minPts points are within distance ε
- Neighbor: A point is a neighbor if there are not minPts points within distance ε , but at least one point within distance ε is a core sample.
- **Noise**: There is no core sample within distance ε

将点的噪声/归属于某个簇的划分归为两个参数 minPts(最小点数)+epsilon(半径参数)

这三个定义看

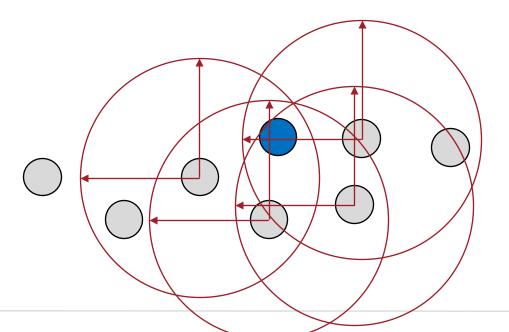


minPts = 4 (including itself)

$$\epsilon = \bigcirc$$



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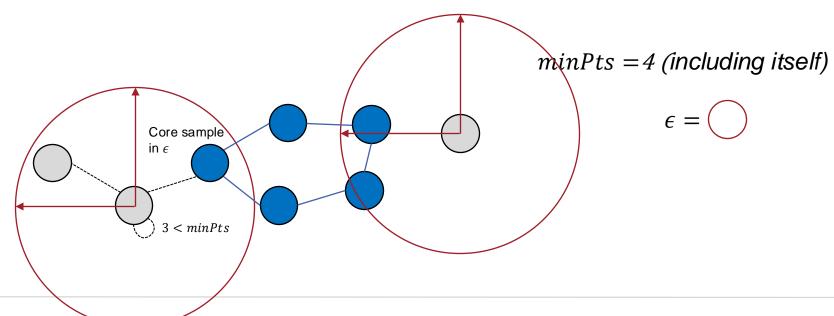


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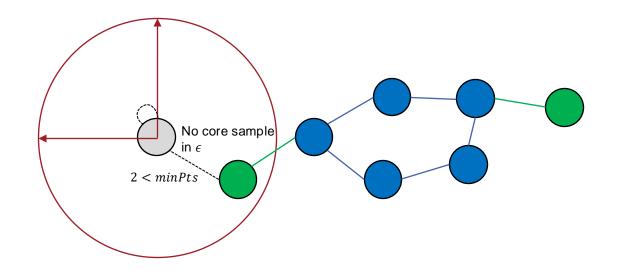


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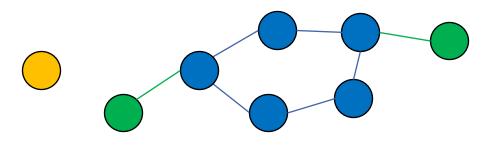
$$\epsilon = \bigcirc$$

Karlsruher Institut für Technologie

GDBSCAN: Pseudocode for Generalized DBSCAN

```
GDBSCAN(D, getNeighbors, isCorePoint)
 C = 0
  for each unvisited point P in D
    mark P as visited
   N = getNeighbors(P)
    if isCorePoint(P, N)
      C = next cluster
      expandCluster(P, N, C)
   else mark P as NOISE
expandCluster(P, N, C)
  add P to cluster C
  for each point P' in N
    if P' is not visited
       mark P' as visited
      N' = getNeighbors(P')
       if isCorePoint(P', N')
         N = N joined with N'
    if P' is not yet member of any cluster
      add P' to cluster C
```

一种DBSCAN的泛化版本

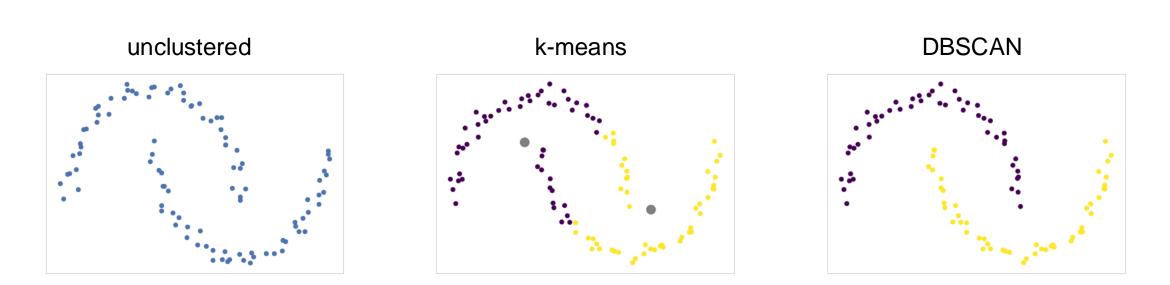


(G)DBSCAN vs. k-means-Clustering



DBSCAN的优缺点

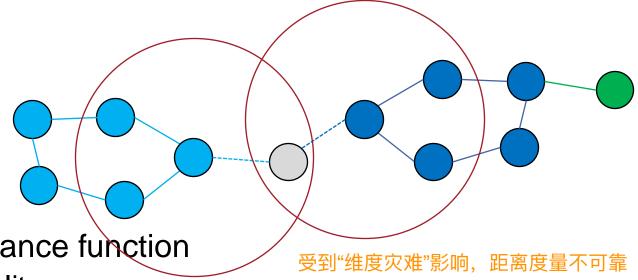
- DBSCAN is robust against noise → incorporates noisy samples into algorithm
- DBSCAN can cluster different data densities
 - Challenge: correctly define "density" with minPts and ε
- DBSCAN does not require a priori knowledge about number of clusters



(G)DBSCAN: Disadvantages



- DBSCAN non-deterministic e.g. 不确定性-点的处理顺序会影响结果
 - Grey point is neighbor of two separate core samples but no core sample itself
 - Cluster assignment depends on the order of processing



- Still dependent of distance function
 - Curse of Dimensionality
- Fitting Selection of ε , minPts can be difficult (different densities) 参数选择敏感

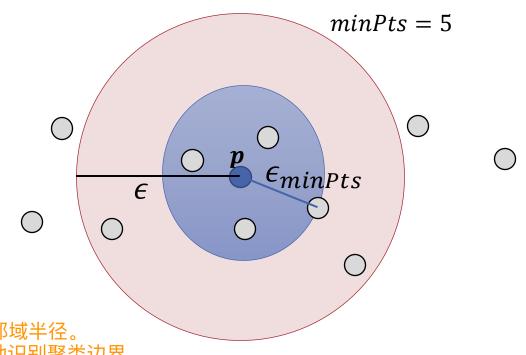
OPTICS – Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure



- OPTICS is extension of DBSCAN
 - Hyperparameter minPts still used to categorize core samples
 - Hyperparameter ε still used but influence is reduced (upper bound)
 - Extension: Calculate distance ε_{minPts} , from which a point would qualify as core sample (i.e. minPts in its vicinity)
 - ullet ε_{minPts} is also called the *core distance* of a point

相对于DBSCAN的拓展内容:

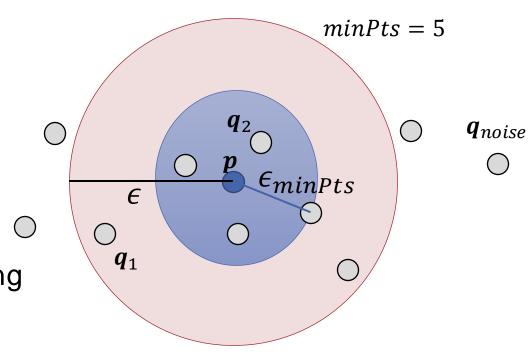
引入了ε_minPts(核心距离):表示一个点成为核心点所需的最小邻域半径。 通过计算点之间的reachability distance(可达距离)进行排序,以更灵活地识别聚类边界。



OPTICS – Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure



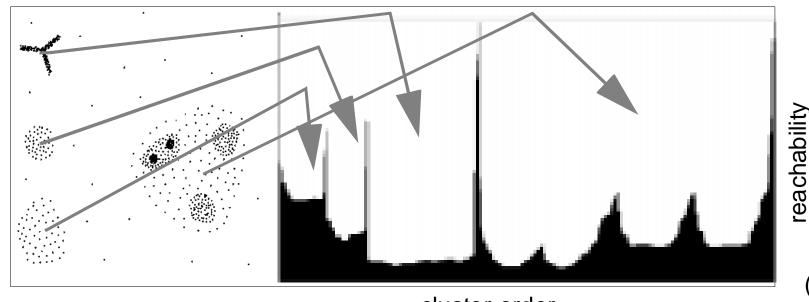
- **Definition**: reachability_{ϵ ,minPts}(q,p) = $\begin{cases} undefinded, & if |N_{\epsilon}(p)| < minPts \\ max(\epsilon_{minPts}, distance(p, q)) \end{cases}$
 - \blacksquare reachability(p, q_{noise}) = undefined
 - $ule{reachability}(q_1, p) = distance(p, q_1)$
 - ightharpoonup reachability(q_2, p) = ε_{minPts}
- Extension of DBSCAN with:
 - Iterative sorting of neighbors according to their (defined) reachability
 - Processing and assignment to clusters in sorting order (new cluster or noise depending on ε)



OPTICS – Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure



- Conclusion:
- 在reachability图中,低谷对应潜在聚类。
- Cells with large number of objects are potential cluster centers and are visible as "valleys" in reachability/cluster-order histogram.
- Complete processing of new clusters is possible algorithmically (see [8]) and provides the clusters ("valleys") 可进一步创建子聚类或调整参数获得更精确的聚类结果。



(Source: [8])

cluster-order

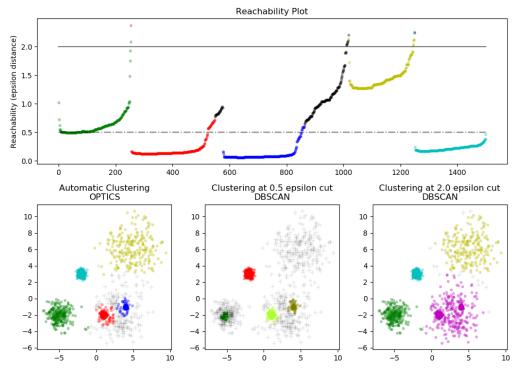
OPTICS – Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure 通过可決性 (reachability) 定义占与占之间的关系 西非依赖单一固定的密度阈值



通过可达性(reachability)定义点与点之间的关系,而非依赖单一固定的密度阈值 可达性度量了点之间的聚类紧密性

Parametrization less dependent on different cluster densities by defining reachability

- Search for valleys in histogram:
 - Returns cluster
 - Depth of valley represents density
 - Creation of subclusters also possible
- Cluster adjustable depending on ε as upper bound of reachability



Source: https://scikit-learn.org/stable/auto_examples/cluster/plot_optics.html#sphx-glr-auto-examples-cluster-plot-optics-py

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Unsupervised Learning with Neural Networks



- Principle: Network learns to reconstruct its input
 - with network architecture creating artificial restrictions 添加人为限制
- Network needs to learn features from dataset

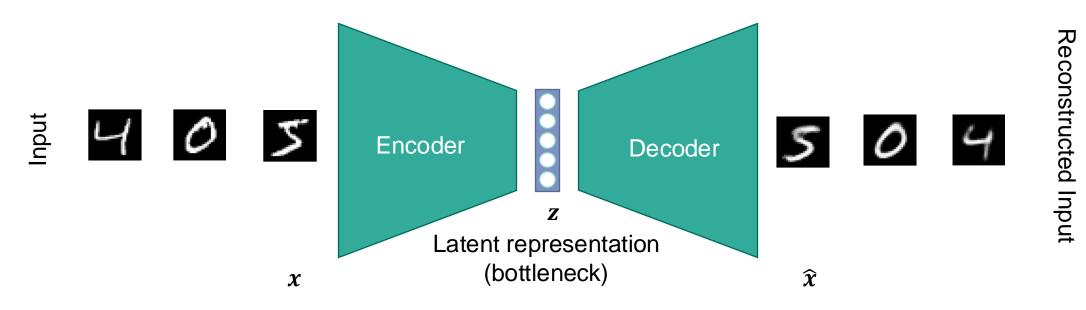
Examples:

- Autoencoder
- Restricted Boltzmann Machine
- Deep Belief Networks

Autoencoder



- Architecture containing Encoder and Decoder
- Tunneling of information through a bottleneck (latent representation)

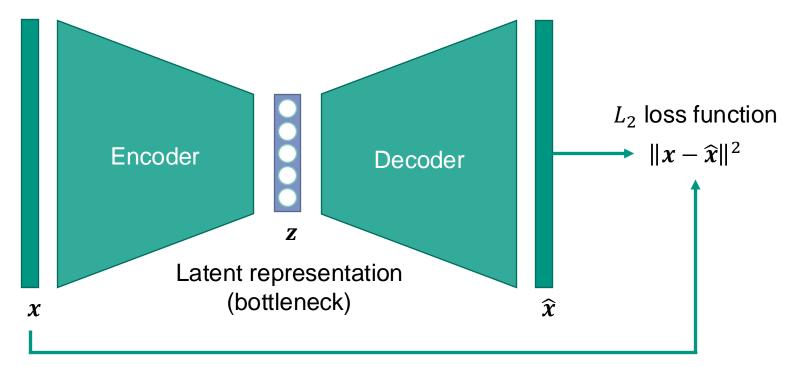


Encoder and Decoder usually deep neural networks (CNNs)

Autoencoder - Training



■ No extra label required. Label is identical to input and is used in reconstruction loss $||x - \hat{x}||^2$



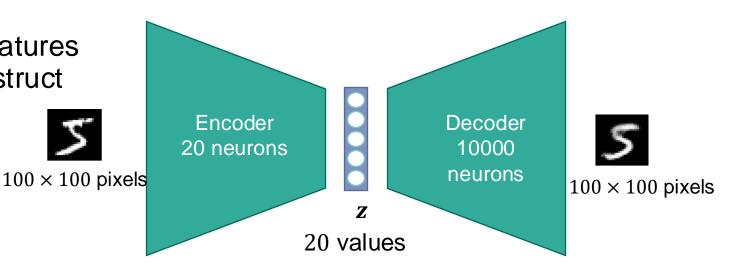
Network must compress all relevant information in small latent vector to to reproduce the input

Autoencoder



Example:

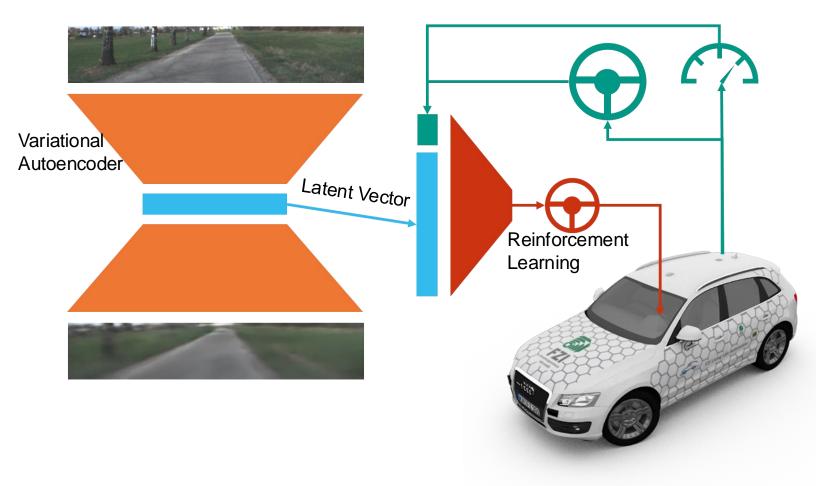
- 20-dimensional latent space
- 10,000 pixels must to be represented in 20 values
 - (lossy compression)
- Network stores important features in the latent space to reconstruct the input



Application: Learn latent representation for Reinforcement Learning



- Control with Reinforcement Learning on latent space
- Latent space by Variational Autoencoder (VAE) see ML2
- VAE trained offline with real video data
- Latent vector extended with data from CAN- Bus
- Agent converts within less than 1000 steps in real rollouts



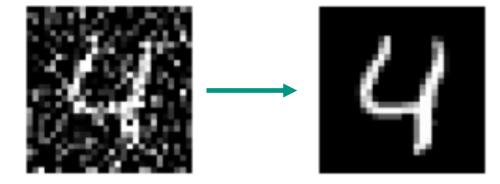
TOTAL TRAINING FRAMES: 5924

TOTAL TRAINING EPISODES: 54

Discussion Autoencoder



- Extension: De-noising Autoencoder
 - Add additional noise to input of encoder
 - Reduces overfitting.



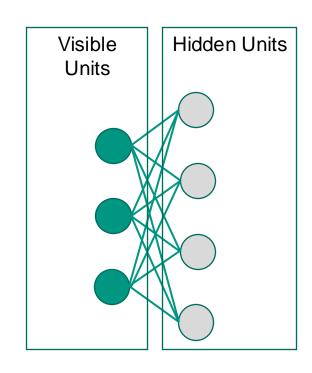
- Extension: Generative Models
 - Use Decoder to create new unseen images by sampling in latent space (and converting the latent representation into a distribution, Variational Autoencoder, see lecture ML2)
- Distinction between unsupervised and supervised learning blurry for neural networks
 - Unsupervised: does not require extra label annotation
 - Supervised: uses input as label
 - Nowadays also called: Self-Supervised Learning
 - (Fundamental learning method used to create today's largest modern neural networks such as ChatGPT/GPT-4, see lecture in ML2)

Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM) [Smolensky, 1986]



- Neurons form bipartite graph ^{-分图}
- Two layers: Visible and hidden units
- Neurons take binary values (activated / not activated)
- Network propagation is bidirectional and establishes equilibrium
 - propagated value generally defines the probability of activation 双向传播,传播的值通常定义了激活的概率。
- Weights on edges:
- Propagate between layers forward and backward until an equilibrium between hidden and visible layers is reached for learning data
- Example: Collaborative Filtering (Netflix) [6]

应用: 商城推荐算法

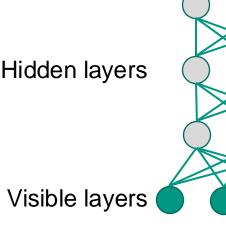


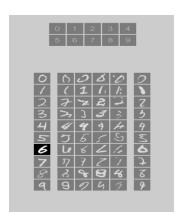
Deep Belief Networks

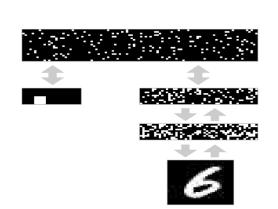


- Aggregation of bidirectional layers with hidden units
- Approximation with stacked RBM 堆叠的限制玻尔兹曼机 (RBM Hidden layers
- Layers can be trained sequentially
 one of the first effective approaches of deep learning with deep networks
- Applications
 - Feature extraction
 - Clustering
 - Classification
 - Also, as stacked Autoencoder

DBN的层可以逐层进行无监督的预训练,然后通过有监督学习进行微调。







Outline

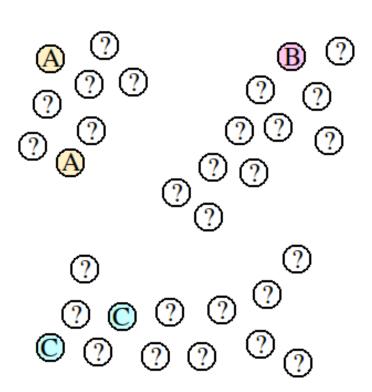


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Outlook: Advanced Methods



- Constrained k-mean Clustering [3]
 - additional must-link- and cannot-link-constraints
- Semi supervised learning [4,5]
 - Learning method when the dataset contains little labelled data and a lot of unlabeled data
 - Example:
 - Unsupervised clustering
 - Use labeled data instances to label clusters
- Self-Supervised Learning (ML2)

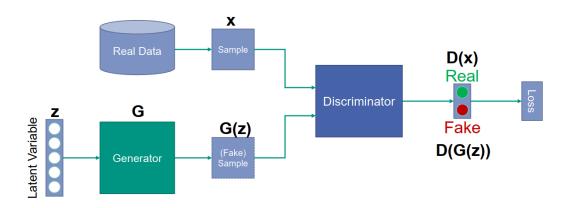


Outlook: Advanced Methods (in ML2)



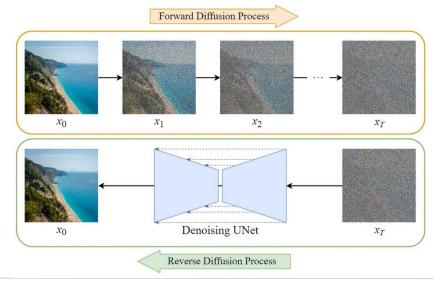
Generative Adversarial Networks

Simultaneously train generative and discriminative model that try to "fool" each other



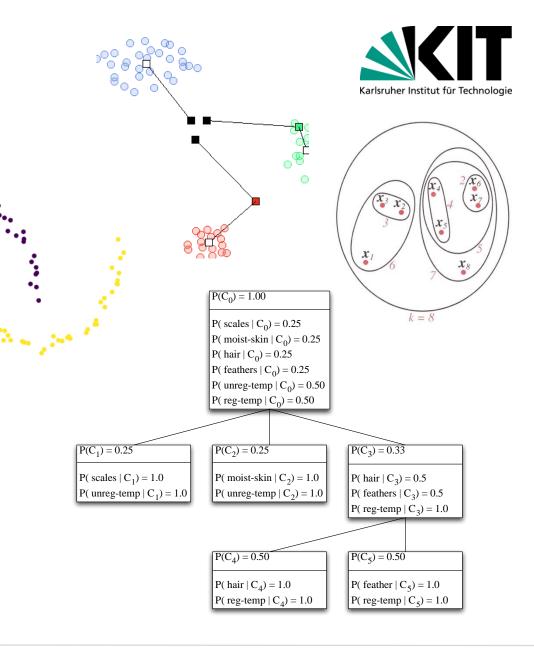
Diffusion Models

- Apply noise on image and train denoising network
 - Similar to denoising autoencoder using multiple steps)
 - Used in Dalle-2 / Stable Diffusion



Conclusion

- Different approaches / optimizations
 - k-means clustering
 - DBSCAN / OPTICS
 - Autoencoder
 - Generative models
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- Different objectives
- Commonly used in combination with other ML algorithms



Literature



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- [8] M. Ankerst, M. M. Breunig, H-P. Kriegel, J. Sander: OPTICS: Ordering Points To Identify the Clustering Structure. In: ACM SIGMOD Int. Conference on Management of data. ACM Press, 1999