

# Machine learning: lecture 14

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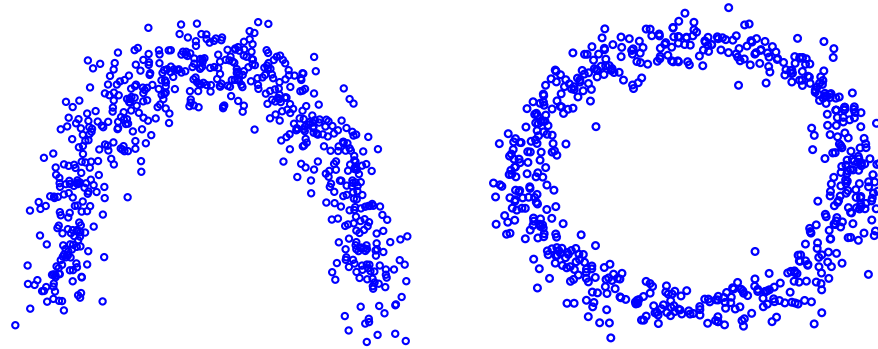
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# Topics

- Non-parametric density estimation
  - Parzen windows
- Clustering
  - mixture models, k-means
  - agglomerative hierarchical clustering
  - Markov random walk and spectral clustering
  - semi-supervised clustering (next lecture)

# Beyond parametric density models

- More mixture densities



- We can approximate almost any distribution by including more and more components in the mixture model

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{j=1}^k p_j p(\mathbf{x}|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$$

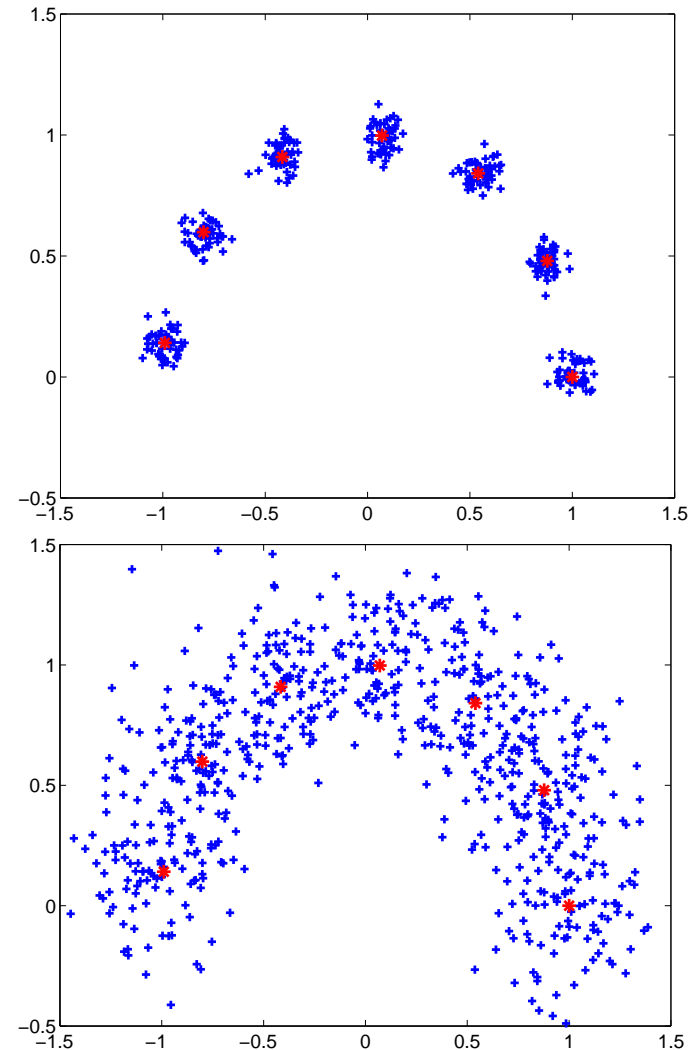
# Non-parametric densities

- We can even introduce one mixture component (Gaussian) per training example

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}; \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{x}_i, \sigma^2 I)$$

where  $n$  is the number of examples.

Here the covariances are all equal and spherical; the single parameter  $\sigma^2$  controls the smoothness of the resulting density estimate



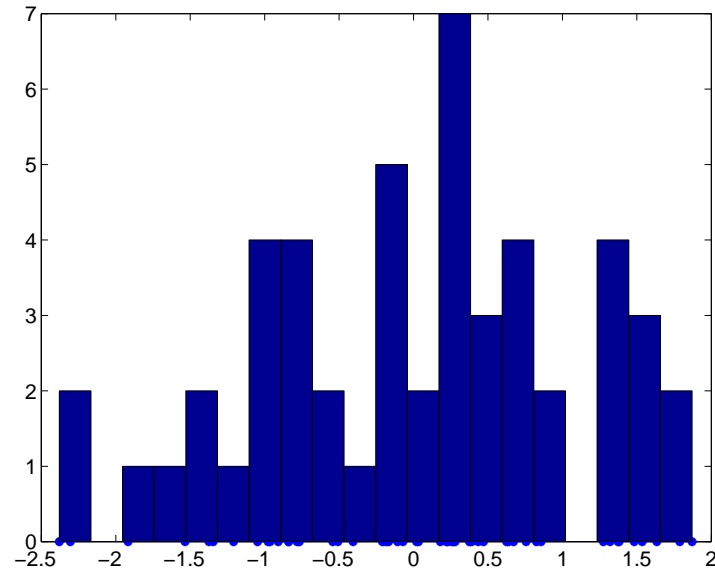
# Histograms

- $n$  training points  $x_1, \dots, x_n$

The real line divided into non-overlapping bins

$$[\mu_j - h, \mu_j + h)$$

where  $\mu_j = jh$  is the center of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  bin



The resulting density estimate is

$$\hat{p}_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{\# \text{ of } x_i \text{ in the same bin as } x}{\text{width of bin containing } x}$$

# Naive estimator

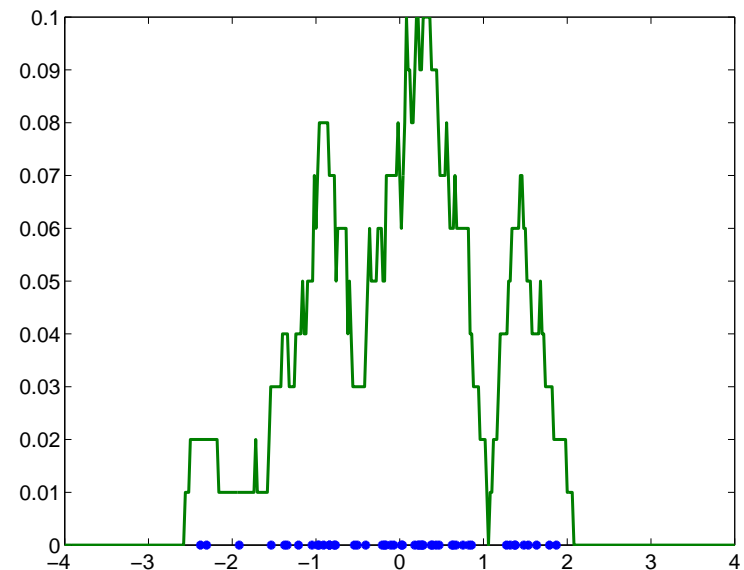
- Define a window function  $w(x)$ :

$$w(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & |x| < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

By introducing an additional parameter  $h$  controlling the window width, we get the following (naive) density estimate

$$\hat{p}_n(x; h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} w\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right)$$

(here  $n = 50$  and  $h = 0.02$ )



## Naive estimator cont'd

- The naive estimator actually converges to the true density provided that both  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $h \rightarrow 0$  (appropriately).

For a fixed  $x$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{p}_n(x; h) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} w\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right) \\ &\rightarrow \frac{1}{2h} P(x - h < X < x + h) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \\ &\rightarrow p(x) \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0\end{aligned}$$

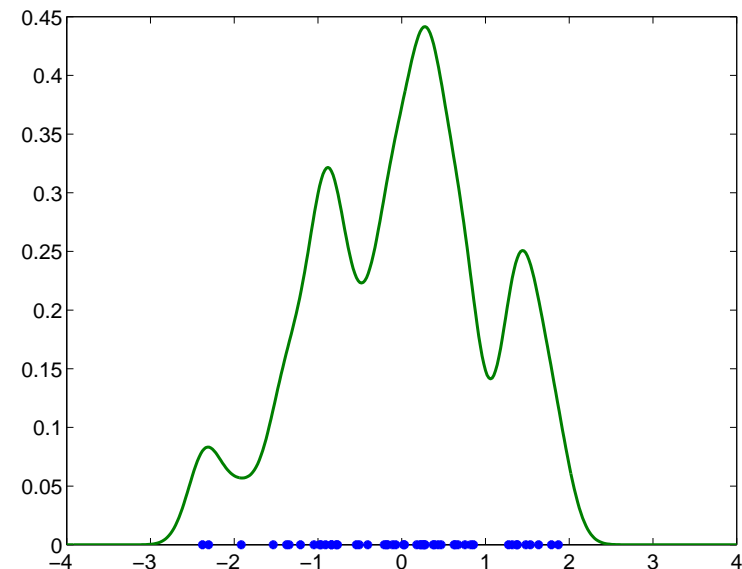
# Parzen windows

- Instead of the naive window function, we can put a smooth Gaussian (or other) bump on each training example

$$\hat{p}_n(x; h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h}\right), \text{ where}$$

$K(z) = \exp(-z^2/2)/\sqrt{2\pi}$   
(this is also known as a *kernel function*; very different from SVM kernels).

- As a result we get a smoother estimate ( $n = 50$  and  $h = 0.02$  as before)





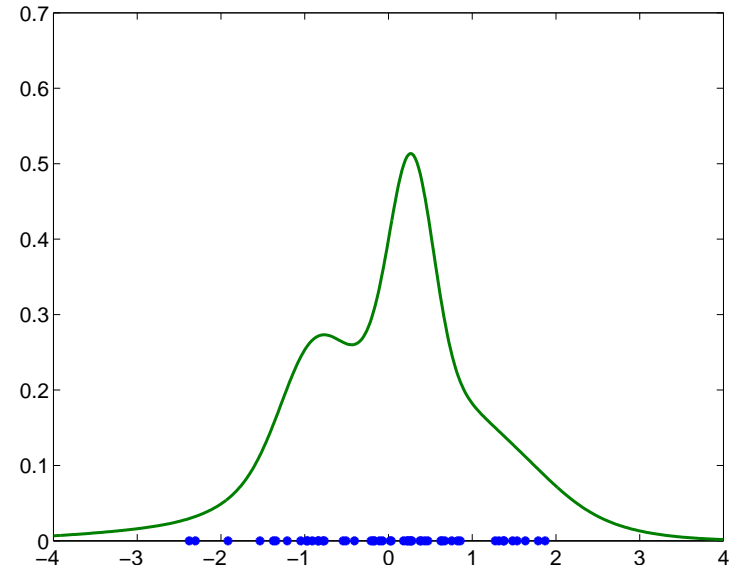
# Parzen windows: variable kernel width

- We can also set the kernel width locally

k-nearest neighbor choice: let  $d_{ik}$  be the distance from  $x_i$  to its  $k^{\text{th}}$  nearest neighbor

$$\hat{p}_n(x; k) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{d_{ik}} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{d_{ik}}\right)$$

- The estimate is smoother where there are only few data points



# Parzen windows: optimal kernel width

- We still have to set the kernel width  $h$  or the number of nearest neighbors  $k$
- A practical solution: cross-validation

Let  $\hat{p}_{n-i}(x; h)$  be a parzen windows density estimate constructed on the basis of  $n - 1$  training examples leaving out  $x_i$ .

We select  $h$  (or similarly  $k$ ) that maximizes the leave-one-out log-likelihood

$$CV(h) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \hat{p}_{n-i}(x_i; h)$$

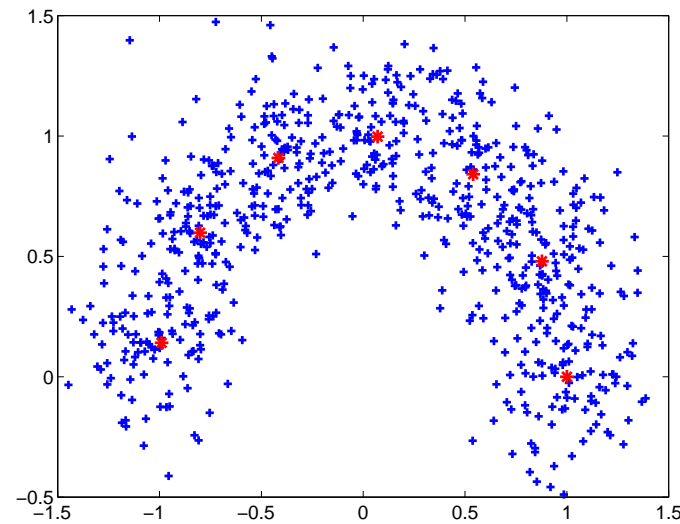
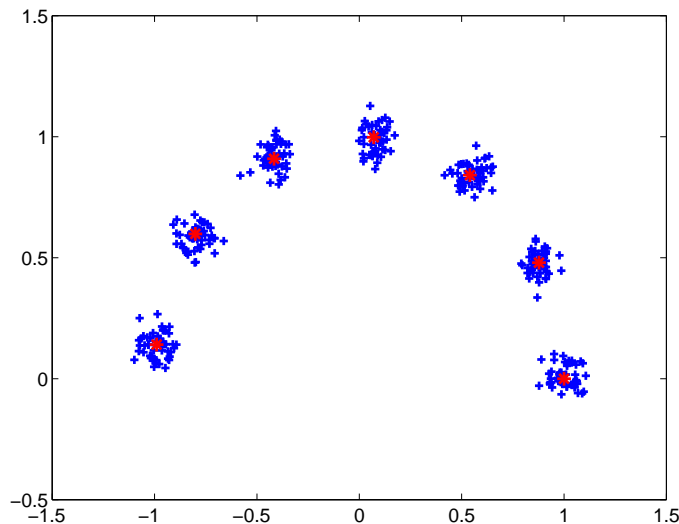
# Parzen windows: multi-dimensional case

- Multi-dimensional Parzen windows estimate:

$$\hat{p}_{parzen}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}_i, \sigma^2 I)$$

where  $n$  is the number of examples.

- The covariance matrices are all equal and spherical. The single parameter  $\sigma$  controls the smoothness of the density estimate

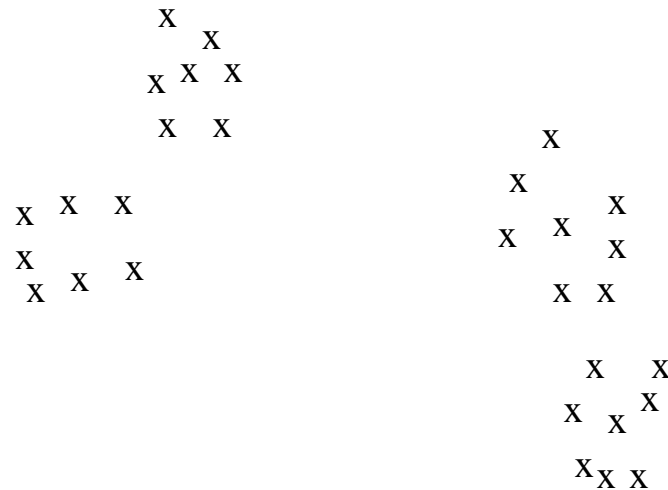


# Topics

- Clustering
  - mixture models, k-means
  - agglomerative hierarchical clustering
  - Markov random walk and spectral clustering
  - semi-supervised clustering (next lecture)

# Finding structure in the data: clustering

- The definition of “ground truth” often missing
  - the results need to be validated either internally (e.g., consistency) or externally (e.g., whether clusters make sense)



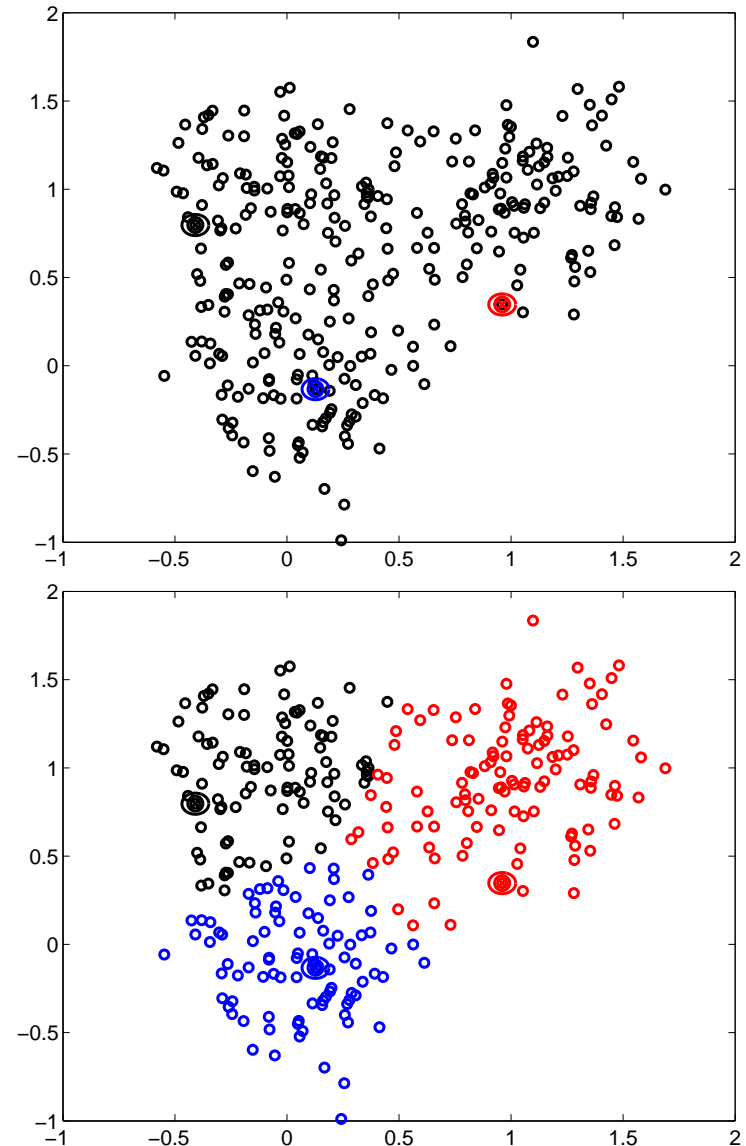
- Clustering relies crucially on the measure of similarity
  - position in “space”, input/output relation, dynamics, etc

# Basic clustering methods

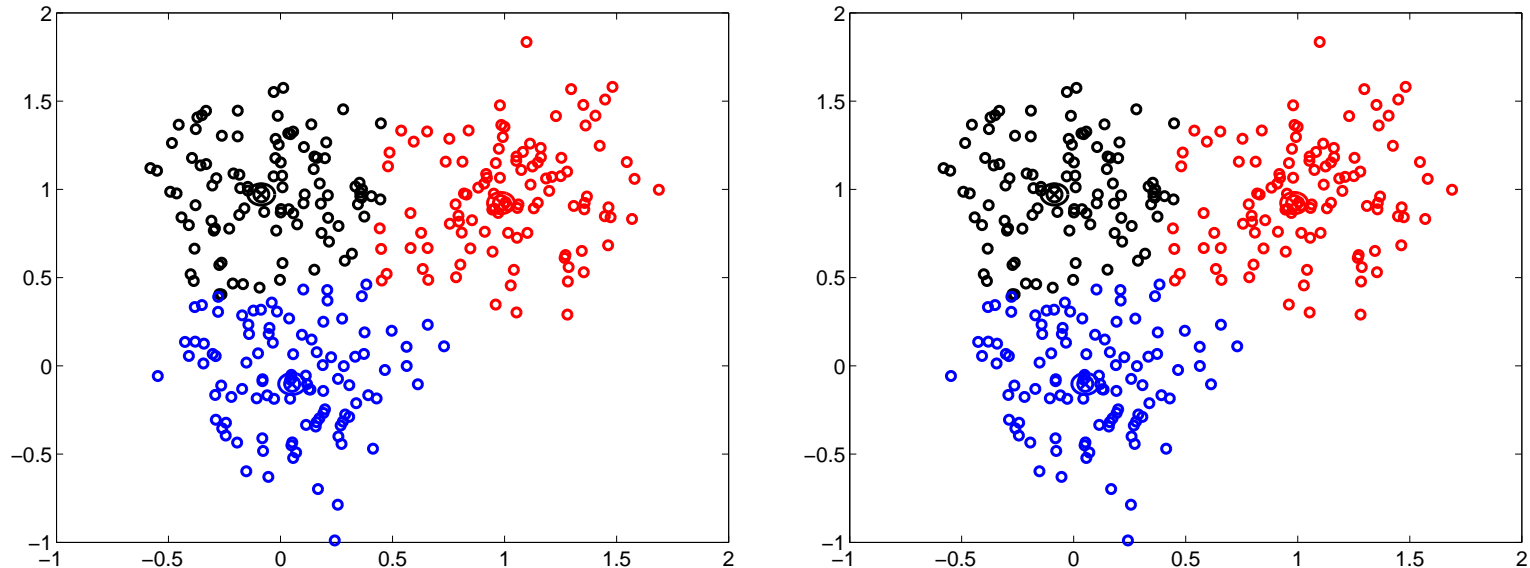
- Flat clustering methods
  - e.g., mixture models, k-means clustering
- Hierarchical clustering methods:
  1. Top-down (splitting)
    - e.g., hierarchical mixture models
  2. Bottom-up (merging)
    - e.g., hierarchical agglomerative clustering
- Other clustering methods
  - spectral clustering
  - semi-supervised clustering, etc

# K-means clustering

- The procedure:
  1. Pick  $k$  arbitrary centroids (cluster means)
  2. Assign each example to its “closest” centroid (**E-step**)
  3. Adjust the centroids to be the means of the examples assigned to them (**M-step**)
  4. Goto step 2 (until no change)
- The algorithm is guaranteed to converge in a finite number of iterations



# K-means clustering cont'd



- K-means clustering corresponds to a Gaussian mixture model estimation with EM whenever the covariance matrices of the Gaussian components are set to  $\Sigma_j = \sigma^2 I$ , for all  $j$  and some fixed small  $\sigma^2$



# Hierarchical (bottom-up) clustering

- Hierarchical agglomerative clustering: we sequentially merge the pair of “closest” points/clusters
- The procedure
  1. Find two closest points (clusters) and merge them
  2. Proceed until we have a single cluster (all the points)
- Two prerequisites:
  1. distance measure  $d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$  between two points
  2. distance measure between clusters (cluster linkage)

# Hierarchical (bottom-up) clustering

- A *linkage* method: we have to be able to measure distances between clusters of examples  $C_k$  and  $C_l$ 
  - a) Single linkage:

$$d_{kl} = \min_{i \in C_k, j \in C_l} d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

- b) Average linkage:

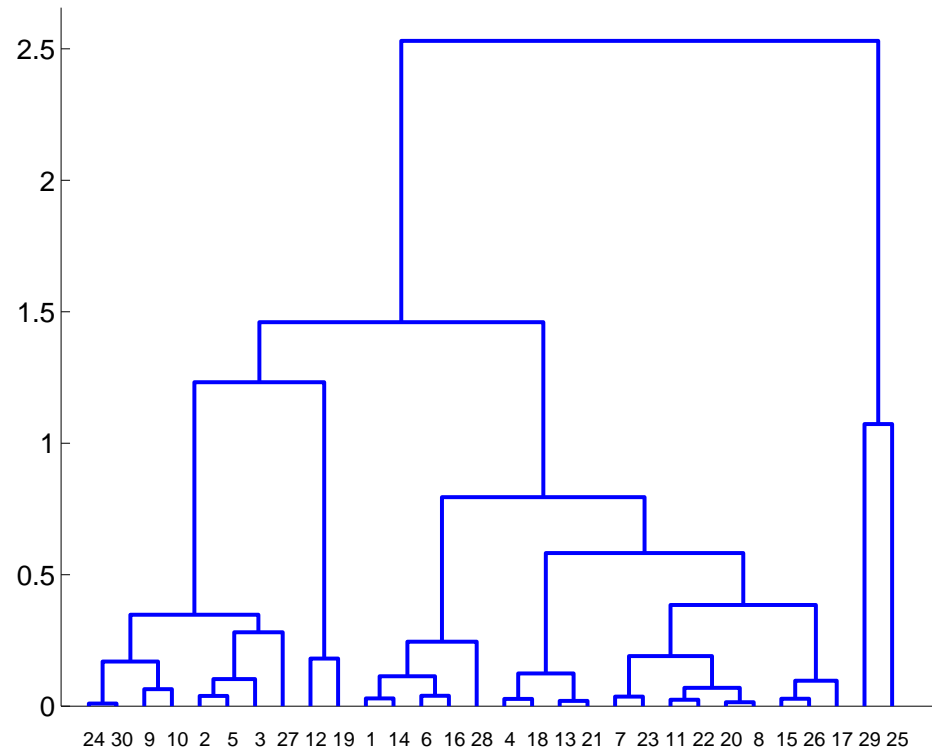
$$d_{kl} = \frac{1}{|C_l| |C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k, j \in C_l} d(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

- c) Centroid linkage:

$$d_{kl} = d(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_l), \quad \bar{\mathbf{x}}_l = \frac{1}{|C_l|} \sum_{i \in C_l} \mathbf{x}_i$$

# Hierarchical (bottom-up) clustering

- A dendrogram representation of hierarchical clustering



The height of each pair represents the distance between the merged clusters; the specific linear ordering of points is chosen for clarity

# Spectral clustering: preliminaries

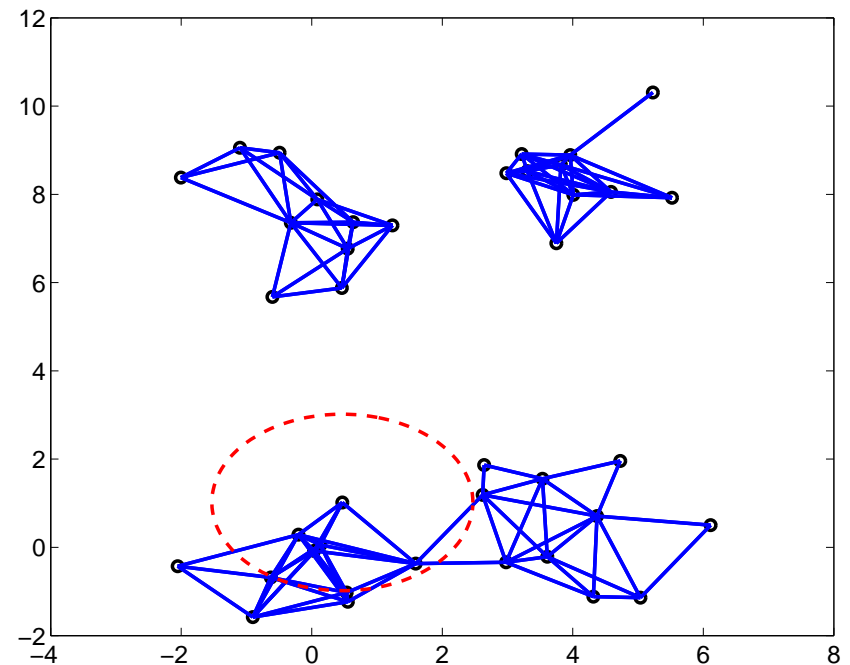
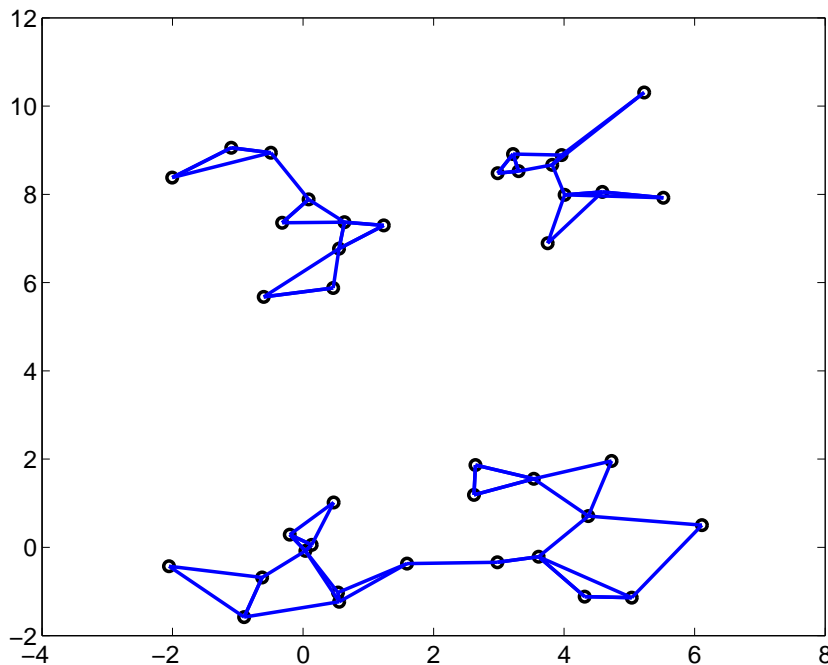
- Spectral clustering (as described here) relies on a random walk over the points

We find the random walk via the following steps

1. construct a neighborhood graph
  2. assign weights to the edges in the graph
  3. define a transition probability matrix based on the weights
- The points are clustered on the basis of the eigenvectors of the resulting transition probability matrix

# Step 1: neighborhood graph

- We can connect each point to its  $k$ -nearest neighbors, or connect each point to all neighbors within distance  $\epsilon$

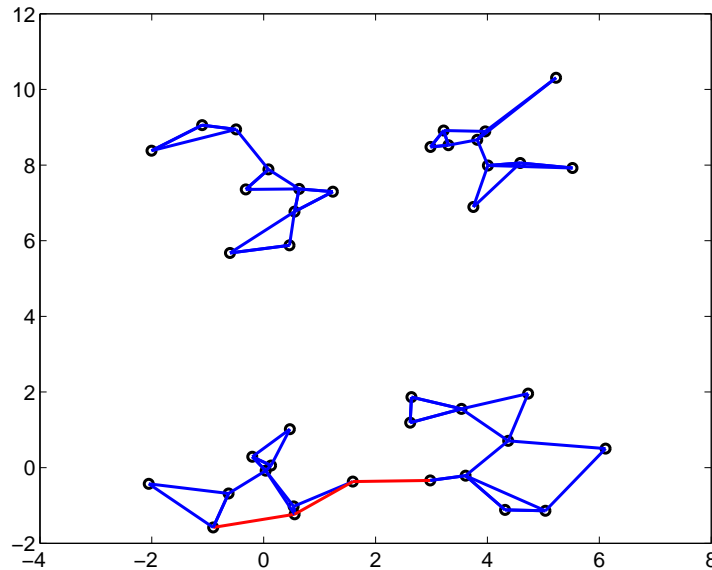


## Step 2: edge weights

- We assign symmetric non-negative edge weights  $W_{ij}$ :

$$W_{ij} = \exp\{-\beta\|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|\}, \text{ if } i \text{ and } j \text{ connected}$$

$$W_{ij} = 0, \text{ otherwise}$$



Note: we do not use a squared distance in the exponent so that a weight for a path is computed analogously to the edge weights

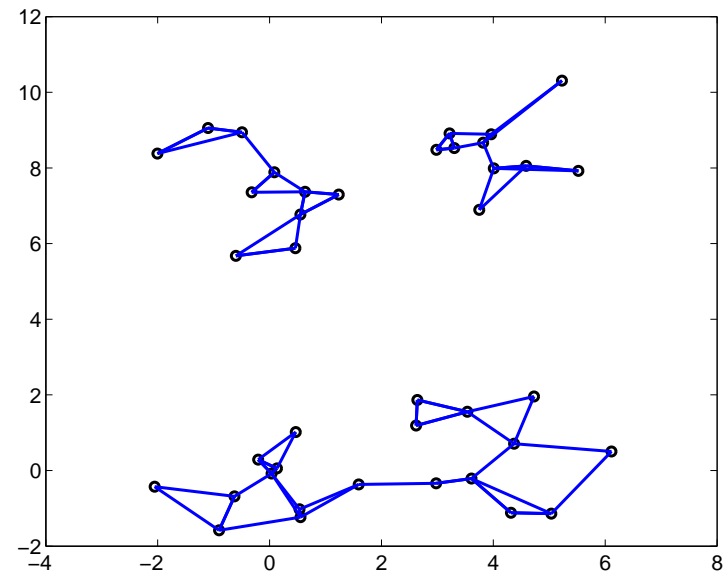
## Step 3: transition probability matrix

- Finally, we define a Markov random walk over the neighborhood graph by constructing a transition probability matrix from the edge weights

$$P_{ij} = \frac{W_{ij}}{W_{i\cdot}}, \quad \text{where } W_{i\cdot} = \sum_j W_{ij}$$

and  $\sum_j P_{ij} = 1$  for all  $i$ .

The random walk proceeds by successively selecting points according to  $j \sim P_{ij}$ , where  $i$  specifies the current location



# Random walk: properties

- If we start from  $i_0$ , the distribution of points  $i_t$  that we end up in after  $t$  steps is given by

$$i_1 \sim P_{i_0 i_1},$$

$$i_2 \sim \sum_{i_1} P_{i_0, i_1} P_{i_1 i_2} = [P^2]_{i_0 i_2},$$

$$i_3 \sim \sum_{i_1} \sum_{i_2} P_{i_0, i_1} P_{i_1 i_2} P_{i_2 i_3} = [P^3]_{i_0 i_3},$$

...

$$i_t \sim [P^t]_{i_0 i_t}$$

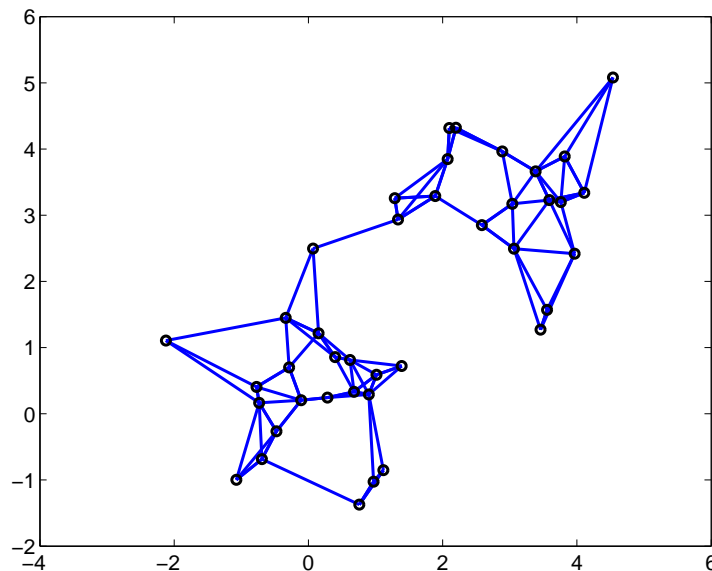
where  $P^t = PP \dots P$  ( $t$  matrix products) and  $[\cdot]_{ij}$  denotes the  $i, j$  component of the matrix.



# Random walk: properties

- The distributions of points we end up in after  $t$  steps converge as  $t$  increases. If the graph is connected, the resulting distribution is independent of the starting point

Even for large  $t$ , the transition probabilities  $[P^t]_{ij}$  have a slightly higher probability of transitioning within “clusters” than across; we want to recover this effect from eigenvalues/vectors



details in the next lecture...