Homework 2 Questions

1 Programming exercise

Using scikit-learn, train an SVM to do classification on the iris data set and evaluate the significance of the obtained classification accuracy. As a hint, consider the following steps:

- 1. Consider two possible models one linear and one with an RBF kernel.
- 2. Determine which model is better for the classification task.
- 3. Using the better of the two models, obtain a test accuracy.
- 4. Evaluate whether the test classification accuracy is significant using a permutation test.
- 5. Report the p-value you obtained.

Question 1: In class, we considered one way of doing feature selection through quantifying the mutual information between features and class labels. Which regularization penalty can be used as another way to discard irrelevant features?

a. ℓ_1

b. ℓ_2

c. none of the above

Question 2: Consider a data set with 19 features per data instance. You decide to do feature selection in a brute force way by selecting subsets of features and performing cross validation to determine whether the selected subset of features is a good one for some task. You form 19 subsets of features with sizes 1, 2,...,19. Note that you decide not to investigate all possible subsets (that would be 2^{19} possible subsets). You have better things to do with your life.

You have performed 19 complete cross validations, and plot the training and validation errors in order of increasing subset size. Which of the following lines is the training error? (note that "root MSE" (mean squared error) is one way to quantify error, and "Index" is the subset index in the list, which is equivalent to the size of the subset)



Question 3: Consider the setting of question 2. Based on the training and validation error plots, which size subset would you choose for the final evaluation of your model?

- a. 5 b. 7
- c. 14
- d. 19

Question 4: Consider performing leave-2-out cross validation on a data set with 150 total data instances. If you decide to leave 10% of the data for testing, how many folds of cross validation will you need to run?

a. 2

b. 9045

c. 11175

d. none of the above

Question 5: Consider performing 2-fold cross validation on the same data set as in question 4. Now, if you decide to leave 20% of the data for testing, how many folds of cross validation will you need to run?

a. 2

b. 9045

c. 11175

d. none of the above

Question 6: Which of the following methods will be best to use to determine the best number of nearest neighbors k in kNN for a certain data set?

a. feature selection

- b. cross validation
- c. regularization

Dimensionality reduction and clustering

06/17/2016 Mariya Toneva mariya@cmu.edu

Some figures derived from slides by Alona Fyshe, Aarti Singh, Barnabás Póczos, Tom Mitchell

How can ML help neuroscientists?

Deal with large number of sensors/recording sites





- investigate high-dimensional representations
 - classification (what does this high-dimensional data represent?)
 - regression (how does it represent it? can we predict a different representation?)
 - model selection (what model would best describe this high dimensional data?)
 - **clustering (which high-dimensional representations are similar to each other?)**
- uncover few underlying processes that interact in complex ways
 - dimensionality reduction techniques

□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods
 - □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - **u** regression

- □ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods
 - □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - □ regression
 - Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles



□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - regression
- Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive, or not even possible?



□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - regression
- Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive, or not even possible?
 - expensive labels: DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles



- □ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods
 - □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - □ regression
 - Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive, or not even possible?
 - expensive labels: DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
 - unknown labels: "brain states" assignments of resting state fMRI



□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - regression
- Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles

But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive, or not even possible?

- expensive labels: DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- unknown labels: "brain states" assignments of resting state fMRI



Unsupervised learning! We'll discuss two such methods today

□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - regression
- Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles

But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive, or not even possible?

- expensive labels: DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- unknown labels: "brain states" assignments of resting state fMRI



- Unsupervised learning! We'll discuss two such methods today
 - □ dimensionality reduction
 - □ clustering

Today: dimensionality reduction & clustering

Dimensionality reduction techniques

- □ Principal component analysis (PCA)
- □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
- □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)
- Laplacian eigenmaps

Today: dimensionality reduction & clustering

Dimensionality reduction techniques

- Principal component analysis (PCA)
- □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
- □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)
- Laplacian eigenmaps

Clustering

- Partitional algorithms
 - K-means
 - Spectral clustering
- Hierarchical algorithms
 - Divisive
 - □ Agglomerative

Today: dimensionality reduction & clustering

Dimensionality reduction techniques

- Principal component analysis (PCA)
- □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
- □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)
- Laplacian eigenmaps

Clustering

- Partitional algorithms
 - □ K-means
 - Spectral clustering
- Hierarchical algorithms
 - Divisive
 - □ Agglomerative

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - □ 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - **u** 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings
- Relevant information dimension: low

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - □ 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings
- Relevant information dimension: low
 - Redundant features can add more noise than signal

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - □ 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings
- Relevant information dimension: low
 - Redundant features can add more noise than signal
 - Dimension of relevant information depends on the number of free parameters describing the probability densities

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - □ 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings
- Relevant information dimension: low
 - Redundant features can add more noise than signal
 - Dimension of relevant information depends on the number of free parameters describing the probability densities
 - Given Supervised methods, want to learn P(labels|data)

- Data dimension: high
 - □ 100s of fMRI voxels in an ROI
 - □ 100s of sensors or sources in MEG recordings
- Relevant information dimension: low
 - Redundant features can add more noise than signal
 - Dimension of relevant information depends on the number of free parameters describing the probability densities
 - □ For supervised methods, want to learn P(labels|data)
 - Given For unsupervised methods, want to learn P(data)

Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features
 - We've seen this in the context of a supervised task -- wanting to maximize the mutual information between selected features and labels

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features
 - We've seen this in the context of a supervised task -- wanting to maximize the mutual information between selected features and labels
 - □ What is the alternative in unsupervised tasks?

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features
 - We've seen this in the context of a supervised task -- wanting to maximize the mutual information between selected features and labels
 - □ What is the alternative in unsupervised tasks?
 - Non trivial

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features
 - □ We've seen this in the context of a supervised task -- wanting to maximize the mutual information between selected features and labels
 - □ What is the alternative in unsupervised tasks?
 - Non trivial
 - Latent features extraction (usually what people have in mind when they say dimensionality reduction)

- Want to combine highly correlated or dependent features and focus on uncorrelated or independent features
- □ We've seen one way to do this already -- what is it?
 - Feature selection
 - Directly removes subsets of the observed features
 - □ We've seen this in the context of a supervised task -- wanting to maximize the mutual information between selected features and labels
 - □ What is the alternative in unsupervised tasks?
 - Non trivial
 - Latent features extraction (usually what people have in mind when they say dimensionality reduction)
 - Some linear or nonlinear combination of observed features provides more efficient representation for the data than observed features

Example: how does the brain store these pictures?



Data: 64x64 dimensions, but are there fewer underlying relevant dimensions?



We can condense data to 3 underlying informative dimensions

Don't need every pixel (64x64)



We can condense data to 3 underlying informative dimensions

- Don't need every pixel (64x64)
- We want to extract perceptually meaningful structure



We can condense data to 3 underlying informative dimensions

- Don't need every pixel (64x64)
- We want to extract perceptually meaningful structure
 - Up-down pose
 - Left-right pose
 - Lighting direction


We can condense data to 3 underlying informative dimensions

- Don't need every pixel (64x64)
- We want to extract perceptually meaningful structure
 - Up-down pose
 - Left-right pose
 - Lighting direction
- Reduction of high-dimensional inputs to 3dimensional intrinsic manifold



□ What kind of manifold does our observed data lie on?

What kind of manifold does our observed data lie on?
Linear



- □ What kind of manifold does our observed data lie on?
 - Linear
 - Principal component analysis (PCA)
 - □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
 - □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)



- □ What kind of manifold does our observed data lie on?
 - Linear
 - Principal component analysis (PCA)
 - □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
 - □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)
 - Nonlinear





- □ What kind of manifold does our observed data lie on?
 - Linear
 - Principal component analysis (PCA)
 - □ Independent component analysis (ICA)
 - □ Canonical correlation analysis (CCA)
 - Nonlinear
 - Laplacian eigenmaps









Assumption: observed D-dimensional data lies on or near a low ddimensional linear subspace





Axes of this subspace are an effective representation of the data





- Axes of this subspace are an effective representation of the data
 - □ What does an "effective" representation mean?





- Axes of this subspace are an effective representation of the data
 - □ What does an "effective" representation mean?
 - Able to distinguish data instances that are truly different





- Axes of this subspace are an effective representation of the data
 - □ What does an "effective" representation mean?
 - □ Able to distinguish data instances that are truly different
- Goal: identify these axes = also known as the principal components (PCs) ⁴⁷

□ PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other

- □ PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data



- □ PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on



- PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - Let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - □ let 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$



- □ PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - Let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - Iet 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$
 - □ 2nd PC = next orthogonal direction of greatest variability



- PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - □ projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - □ let 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$
 - 2nd PC = next orthogonal direction of greatest variability
 - Remove all variability in first direction, then find next PC



- PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - Let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - □ let 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$
 - □ 2nd PC = next orthogonal direction of greatest variability
 - Remove all variability in first direction, then find next PC



Once the PCs are computed, we can reduce dimensionality of data

- PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - Let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - □ let 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$
 - □ 2nd PC = next orthogonal direction of greatest variability
 - Remove all variability in first direction, then find next PC



- Once the PCs are computed, we can reduce dimensionality of data
 - Original D-dimensional data instance $x_i = \langle x_i^1, ..., x_i^D \rangle$

- PCs are the axes of the subspace so they're orthogonal to each other
- Intuitively, PCs are the orthogonal directions that capture most of the variance in the data
 - ordered so that 1st PC is direction of greatest variability in data, and so on
 - projection of data points along 1st PC discriminate the data most along any direction
 - Let data instance x_i be a 2-dimensional vector
 - □ let 1st PC be vector v
 - **D** projection of x_i onto v is $v^T x_i$
 - □ 2nd PC = next orthogonal direction of greatest variability
 - Remove all variability in first direction, then find next PC



- Once the PCs are computed, we can reduce dimensionality of data
 - Original D-dimensional data instance $x_i = \langle x_i^1, ..., x_i^D \rangle$
 - **Q** Reduced d-dimensional transformations: transformed $x_i = \langle v_1^T x_i, ..., v_d^T x_i \rangle$

PCA: low rank matrix factorization for compression



How do we know how many PCs we need?

□ Plot how much variance in the data is explained by each PC

How do we know how many PCs we need?

- □ Plot how much variance in the data is explained by each PC
- Because PCs are ordered (1st PC explains the most variance), we can do a cumulative plot of variance explained

How do we know how many PCs we need?

- Plot how much variance in the data is explained by each PC
- Because PCs are ordered (1st PC explains the most variance), we can do a cumulative plot of variance explained
 - Cut off when certain % of variance explained is reached or when you see a sharp decrease in % variance explained

- □ PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projections of data

- PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projects of data
- □ Exact solution (non-iterative)

- PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projects of data
- □ Exact solution (non-iterative)
- No local optima

- PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projects of data
- □ Exact solution (non-iterative)
- No local optima
- No tuning parameters

- PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projects of data
- □ Exact solution (non-iterative)
- No local optima
- No tuning parameters
- □ Note that PCA assumes that data is centered (mean is subtracted)

- PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique
 - Limited to linear projects of data
- □ Exact solution (non-iterative)
- No local optima
- No tuning parameters
- □ Note that PCA assumes that data is centered (mean is subtracted)
- PCs are orthogonal

Do we need the latent dimensions to be orthogonal?



Do we need the latent dimensions to be orthogonal?



What if instead, they're statistically independent? => Independent component analysis (ICA)

ICA aims to separate the observed data into some underlying signals that have been mixed



underlying sources of signal

mixed observations

Similarities between PCA and ICA

Both are linear methods (perform linear transformations)

Similarities between PCA and ICA

- Both are linear methods (perform linear transformations)
- Both can be formulated as a matrix factorization problem

Similarities between PCA and ICA

- Both are linear methods (perform linear transformations)
- Both can be formulated as a matrix factorization problem

PCA: low rank matrix factorization for compression


Similarities between PCA and ICA

- Both are linear methods (perform linear transformations)
- Both can be formulated as a matrix factorization problem

PCA: low rank matrix factorization for compression



ICA: full rank matrix factorization to remove dependencies among rows



- □ PCA does compression (fewer latent dimensions than observed dimensions)
- □ ICA does not do compression (same number of features)

- □ PCA does compression (fewer latent dimensions than observed dimensions)
- □ ICA does not do compression (same number of features)
- □ PCA just removes correlations and not higher order dependence
- □ ICA removes correlations, and higher order dependence

- □ PCA does compression (fewer latent dimensions than observed dimensions)
- □ ICA does not do compression (same number of features)
- PCA just removes correlations and not higher order dependence
- □ ICA removes correlations, and higher order dependence
- □ In PCA, some components are more important than others
- □ In ICA, all components are equally important

- □ PCA does compression (fewer latent dimensions than observed dimensions)
- ICA does not do compression (same number of features)
- PCA just removes correlations and not higher order dependence
- □ ICA removes correlations, and higher order dependence
- □ In PCA, some components are more important than others
- □ In ICA, all components are equally important
- □ In PCA, components are orthogonal
- □ In ICA, components are not orthogonal but statistically independent

ICA takeaways

ICA is a linear method that aims to separate the observed signal into underlying sources that have been mixed

ICA takeaways

- ICA is a linear method that aims to separate the observed signal into underlying sources that have been mixed
- Unlike PCA, which finds orthogonal latent components, ICA finds components that are statistically independent

ICA takeaways

- ICA is a linear method that aims to separate the observed signal into underlying sources that have been mixed
- Unlike PCA, which finds orthogonal latent components, ICA finds components that are statistically independent
- Used for denoising and source localization in neuroimaging

What if we're interested in explaining variance in multiple data sets at the same time?



What if we're interested in explaining variance in multiple data sets at the same time?



 Example: simultaneous recordings of NIRS (data set A) and fMRI (data set B), can we find the common brain processes?

What if we're interested in explaining variance in multiple data sets at the same time?



- Example: simultaneous recordings of NIRS (data set A) and fMRI (data set B), can we find the common brain processes?
- Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) maximizes the correlation of the projected data A and data B in the common latent lower-dimensional space

CCA: example use in neuroscience = discovering shared semantic basis between people



CCA: example use in neuroscience = discovering shared semantic basis between people



□ In an fMRI, we present words to subjects, one at a time

CCA: example use in neuroscience = discovering shared semantic basis between people



- In an fMRI, we present words to subjects, one at a time
- We aim to use the fMRI data, along with its corresponding word label to train a general model that can predict brain activity for an arbitrary word (even a word that was never presented to the subject)

Let's consider semantics within one person first



Semantic features for 2 presented words

Semantic feature values: "celery"	Semantic feature values: "airplane"	
0.8368, eat	0.8673, ride	
0.3461, taste	0.2891, see	
0.3153, fill	0.2851, say	
0.2430, see	0.1689, near	
0.1145, clean	0.1228, open	
0.0600, open	0.0883, hear	
0.0586, smell	0.0771, run	
0.0286, touch	0.0749, lift	
0.0000, drive	0.0049, smell	
0.0000, wear	0.0010, wear	
0.0000, lift	0.0000, taste	
0.0000, break	0.0000, rub	
0.0000, ride	0.0000, manipulate	-

Training the model: learn a regression between semantic vectors and fMRI data for all words in training set



Applying the model: for any given word, look up semantic vector, then apply learned regression weights to generate corresponding fMRI image



We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation

- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation

- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded

- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images

- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)
 - □ Random guessing -> ?



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)
 - □ Random guessing -> 0.50 accuracy



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)
 - □ Random guessing -> 0.50 accuracy
 - □ Accuracy above 0.61 is significant (p<0.05, permutation test)



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)
 - □ Random guessing -> 0.50 accuracy
 - Accuracy above 0.61 is significant (p<0.05, permutation test)
 - □ Mean accuracy over 9 subjects is 0.79



- We don't have fMRI images for any arbitrary word, so there is no ground truth for evaluation
- Do leave-2-out cross validation
 - Train on 58 of 60 words and their corresponding fMRI images we have recorded
 - □ Apply model on the remaining 2 test words to predict 2 fMRI images
 - Test model by showing it the 2 true fMRI images corresponding to the held out words and asking it to guess which image corresponds to which word
 - □ 1770 test pairs (60 words choose 2)
 - □ Random guessing -> 0.50 accuracy
 - Accuracy above 0.61 is significant (p<0.05, permutation test)
 - □ Mean accuracy over 9 subjects is 0.79
- We can predict the fMRI activation corresponding to a word the model has never seen before



CCA: extending the model to multiple subjects and experiments improves accuracy to 87% (by 8%)



CCA takeaways

CCA learns linear transformations of multiple data sets, such that these transformations are maximally correlated

CCA takeaways

- CCA learns linear transformations of multiple data sets, such that these transformations are maximally correlated
- In neuroscience, it can be used to extend models to multiple subjects or experiments

Beyond linear transformation: laplacian eigenmaps

Linear methods find lower-dimensional linear projects that preserves distances between all points

Beyond linear transformation: laplacian eigenmaps

- Linear methods find lower-dimensional linear projects that preserves distances between all points
- Laplacian eigenmaps preserves **local information only**

Beyond linear transformation: laplacian eigenmaps

- Linear methods find lower-dimensional linear projects that preserves distances between all points
- Laplacian eigenmaps preserves **local information only**



Laplacian eigenmaps: 3 main steps

□ Construct graph
Laplacian eigenmaps: 3 main steps

- Construct graph
- Compute graph Laplacian

Laplacian eigenmaps: 3 main steps

- Construct graph
- Compute graph Laplacian
- Embed points using graph Laplacian

Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 G(V,E,W)



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - $\label{eq:G} \square \quad G(V,E,W)$
 - □ V = vertices = all data points



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - $\ \ \Box \quad G(V,E,W)$
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - E = edges
 - □ 2 ways to construct edges



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - □ G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges
 - \Box put edge between 2 data points if they are within ϵ distance of each other



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - □ G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - □ 2 ways to construct edges



- \Box put edge between 2 data points if they are within ϵ distance of each other
- put edge between 2 data points if one is a k-NN of another
 - □ can lead to 3 types of graphs:

- □ Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - □ G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges



- \Box put edge between 2 data points if they are within ϵ distance of each other
- put edge between 2 data points if one is a k-NN of another
 - □ can lead to 3 types of graphs:
 - □ directed: edge A->B if A is k-NN of B



Directed nearest neighbors

- □ Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - □ G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges



- \Box put edge between 2 data points if they are within ϵ distance of each other
- put edge between 2 data points if one is a k-NN of another
 - □ can lead to 3 types of graphs:
 - □ directed: edge A->B if A is k-NN of B
 - Symmetric: edge A-B if A is k-NN of B OR B is k-NN of A



Directed nearest neighbors



(symmetric) kNN graph

- □ Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - □ G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges



- \Box put edge between 2 data points if they are within ϵ distance of each other
- put edge between 2 data points if one is a k-NN of another
 - □ can lead to 3 types of graphs:
 - □ directed: edge A->B if A is k-NN of B
 - Symmetric: edge A-B if A is k-NN of B OR B is k-NN of A
 - mutual: edge A-B if A is k-NN of B AND B is k-NN of A



Directed nearest neighbors



(symmetric) kNN graph



mutual kNN graph

- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - □ 2 ways to construct edges
 - \Box W = weights



- Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges
 - \Box W = weights
 - **2** ways to make weights:



- □ Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges
 - \Box W = weights
 - **Q** 2 ways to make weights:

 \Box W_{ii} = 1 if edge between nodes i and j is present, 0 otherwise



- □ Similarity graphs model local neighborhood relations between data points
- Graph fully described by vertices, edges, and weights
 - G(V,E,W)
 - V = vertices = all data points
 - □ E = edges
 - 2 ways to construct edges
 - \Box W = weights
 - **Q** 2 ways to make weights:
 - \square W_{ii}= 1 if edge between nodes i and j is present, 0 otherwise
 - $\square \qquad W_{ij} = e^{-\frac{\|x_i x_j\|^2}{2\sigma^2}} , \text{ Gaussian kernel similarity function (aka heat kernel)}$



How do we choose k, ϵ ?

The goal is to preserve local information so we don't want to choose neighborhood sizes that are too large



How do we choose k, ϵ ?

- The goal is to preserve local information so we don't want to choose neighborhood sizes that are too large
- Mostly dependent on the data, but want to avoid "shortcuts" that connect different arms of the swiss roll



Step 2: compute the graph Laplacian of the constructed graph

Graph Laplacian = D - W



Step 2: compute the graph Laplacian of the constructed graph

- Graph Laplacian = D W
- □ W = weight matrix from the constructed graph
 - Given Born data points, W is size n x n



Step 2: compute the graph Laplacian of the constructed graph

- Graph Laplacian = D W
- □ W = weight matrix from the constructed graph
 - Given the second second
- $\Box \quad D = degree matrix = diag(d_1,...,d_n)$
 - \Box d_i = degree of vertex i = sum of all weights that connect to vertex i
 - Given the second second



Step 3: embed data points using graph Laplacian

Original Representation	Transformed representation
data point	projections
$x_i \rightarrow$	$(f_1(i),, f_d(i))$
(D-dimensional vector)	(d-dimensional vector)

□ Intuition = find vector f such that, if x_i is close to x_j in the graph (i.e. W_{ij} is large), then the projections f(i) and f(j) are also close

Step 3: embed data points using graph Laplacian

Original Representation	Transformed representation
data point	projections
$x_i \rightarrow$	$(f_1(i),, f_d(i))$
(D-dimensional vector)	(d-dimensional vector)

□ Intuition = find vector f such that, if x_i is close to x_j in the graph (i.e. W_{ij} is large), then the projections f(i) and f(j) are also close

□ Find eigenvectors of graph Laplacian and corresponding eigenvalues

Step 3: embed data points using graph Laplacian

Original Representation	Transformed representation
data point	projections
$x_i \rightarrow$	(f ₁ (i),, f _d (i))
(D-dimensional vector)	(d-dimensional vector)

Intuition = find vector f such that, if x_i is close to x_j in the graph (i.e. W_{ij} is large), then the projections f(i) and f(j) are also close

Find eigenvectors of graph Laplacian and corresponding eigenvalues
 To embed data points in d-dimensional space, we project data into eigenvectors associated with the d smallest eigenvalues



Unrolling the swiss roll with Laplacian eigenmaps



N=number of nearest neighbors, t = the heat kernel parameter (Belkin & Niyogi'03)

Laplacian eigenmaps takeaways

□ A way to do nonlinear dimensionality reduction

Laplacian eigenmaps takeaways

- A way to do nonlinear dimensionality reduction
- Aim to preserve local information

Laplacian eigenmaps takeaways

- □ A way to do nonlinear dimensionality reduction
- □ Aim to preserve local information
- Require 3 main steps:
 - Construct a similarity graph between data points
 - Compute the graph Laplacian
 - Use graph Laplacian to embed data points

Supervised vs unsupervised learning

□ So far we've only looked at supervised learning methods

- □ Supervised methods require labels for each training data instance
 - classification
 - regression
- Example: kNN classifier for DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles

But what if we have a lot of unlabeled data and acquiring labels is expensive,

or not even possible?

- expensive labels: DTI fibers assignments to anatomical bundles
- unknown labels: "brain states" assignments of resting state fMRI



- Unsupervised learning! We'll discuss two such methods today
 - □ dimensionality reduction
 - **clustering**

We talked about using kNN to classify individual DTI fibers into anatomical bundles



- We talked about using kNN to classify individual DTI fibers into anatomical bundles
- However, this still requires some human effort to label the training fibers with corresponding anatomical bundles



- We talked about using kNN to classify individual DTI fibers into anatomical bundles
- However, this still requires some human effort to label the training fibers with corresponding anatomical bundles
 - error-prone
 - effortful





- We talked about using kNN to classify individual DTI fibers into anatomical bundles
- However, this still requires some human effort to label the training fibers with corresponding anatomical bundles
 - error-prone
 - effortful
- Can we free the human?



Organizing data into groups, or clusters, such that there is:



- Organizing data into groups, or clusters, such that there is:
 - □ High similarity within groups



- Organizing data into groups, or clusters, such that there is:
 - □ High similarity within groups
 - Low similarity between groups



- Organizing data into groups, or clusters, such that there is:
 - High similarity within groups
 - Low similarity between groups
- Unsupervised, so no labels to rely on for clustering


How to measure "similarity" between/within clusters?

Any function that takes two data points as input and produces a real number as output

How to measure "similarity" between/within clusters?

- Any function that takes two data points as input and produces a real number as output
- **Examples**:

Euclidean distance (as a measure of dissimilarity): $d(x,y) = \sqrt{\sum (x_i - y_i)^2}$

How to measure "similarity" between/within clusters?

- Any function that takes two data points as input and produces a real number as output
- **Examples**:

Euclidean distance (as a measure of dissimilarity): $d(x,y) = \sqrt{\sum (x_i - y_i)^2}$

Correlation coefficient:

$$s(x,y) = \frac{\sum_{i} (x_i - \mu_x)(y_i - \mu_y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

Clustering algorithms divide into 2 main types

Partitional algorithms

• Construct various partitions and then evaluate the partitions by some criterion

Partitional



Clustering algorithms divide into 2 main types

Partitional algorithms

- Construct various partitions and then evaluate the partitions by some criterion
- Hierarchical algorithms
 - Create a hierarchical decomposition of the set of objects using some criterion

Partitional

Hierarchical





Partitional clustering

Each data instance is placed in exactly one of K non-overlapping clusters



Partitional clustering

- Each data instance is placed in exactly one of K non-overlapping clusters
- □ The user must specify the number of clusters K



Partitional clustering

- Each data instance is placed in exactly one of K non-overlapping clusters
- □ The user must specify the number of clusters K
- □ We'll discuss 2 such algorithms:
 - k-means
 - spectral clustering



□ Input desired number of clusters k

- □ Input desired number of clusters k
- □ Initialize the k cluster centers (randomly if necessary)

- Input desired number of clusters k
- □ Initialize the k cluster centers (randomly if necessary)
- □ Iterate:
 - □ Assign all data instances to the nearest cluster center

- Input desired number of clusters k
- □ Initialize the k cluster centers (randomly if necessary)
- □ Iterate:
 - Assign all data instances to the nearest cluster center
 - Re-estimate the k cluster centers (aka cluster mean) based on current assignments

- Input desired number of clusters k
- □ Initialize the k cluster centers (randomly if necessary)
- □ Iterate:
 - Assign all data instances to the nearest cluster center
 - Re-estimate the k cluster centers (aka cluster mean) based on current assignments
- Terminate if none of the assignments changed in the last iteration

Step 1 + 2: input number of clusters k, initialize their positions



Step 3.1: assign all data to nearest cluster



Step 3.2: re-estimate k cluster means



Step 3.2: re-estimate k cluster means



Step 3.1 again: assign all data to nearest cluster



Step 3.2: re-estimate k cluster means



Step 4: terminate when cluster assignments don't change















Very important to try multiple starting points for the initialization of cluster means

- Very important to try multiple starting points for the initialization of cluster means
- □ Consider using k-means++ initialization

- Very important to try multiple starting points for the initialization of cluster means
- □ Consider using k-means++ initialization
 - initializes cluster means to be generally distant from each other

- Very important to try multiple starting points for the initialization of cluster means
- □ Consider using k-means++ initialization
 - initializes cluster means to be generally distant from each other
 - provably better results than random initialization

□ Objective function:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} ||\mu_{C(j)} - x_j||^2$$

• Objective function: $\sum_{j=1}^{m} ||\mu_{C(j)} - x_j||^2$

□ In practice, look for "knee"/"elbow" in objective function:



• Objective function: $\sum_{j=1}^{m} ||\mu_{C(j)} - x_j||^2$

□ In practice, look for "knee"/"elbow" in objective function:



□ Can we choose k by minimizing the objective over k?

• Objective function: $\sum_{j=1}^{m} ||\mu_{C(j)} - x_j||^2$

□ In practice, look for "knee"/"elbow" in objective function:



Can we choose k by minimizing the objective over k? No! The objective will go to 0 as the number of clusters approaches the number of centers!

K-means problems: shape of clusters

Assumes convex clusters



K-means takeaways

□ A simple, iterative way to do clustering

K-means takeaways

- □ A simple, iterative way to do clustering
- □ Sensitive to initialization of cluster means

K-means takeaways

- A simple, iterative way to do clustering
- Sensitive to initialization of cluster means
- □ Assumes convexity of clusters

What if clusters aren't convex?

We can first do laplacian eigenmaps to reduce dimensionality


What if clusters aren't convex?

- We can first do laplacian eigenmaps to reduce dimensionality
- Then we can do k-means on the embedded points in lower-dimension



What if clusters aren't convex?

- We can first do laplacian eigenmaps to reduce dimensionality
- Then we can do k-means on the embedded points in lower-dimension
- □ This is called spectral clustering



Spectral clustering: intuition

□ Laplacian eigenmaps constructs a graph. If there are separable clusters, the corresponding graph should have disconnected subgraphs



Spectral clustering: intuition

- Laplacian eigenmaps constructs a graph. If there are separable clusters, the corresponding graph should have disconnected subgraphs
- Points are easy to cluster in the embedded space using k-means



Spectral clustering problems

G Same problems as laplacian eigenmaps (choice of k for k-NN, or ε)



Spectral clustering problems

- **G** Same problems as laplacian eigenmaps (choice of k for k-NN, or ε)
- Also need a way to choose number of clusters k



Spectral clustering problems

- Same problems as laplacian eigenmaps (choice of k for k-NN, or ε)
- □ Also need a way to choose number of clusters k
 - Most stable clustering is usually given by the value of k that maximizes the eigengap between consecutive eigenvalues



Spectral clustering vs k-means



Spectral clustering vs k-means



□ Another type of partitional clustering

- □ Another type of partitional clustering
- □ Can deal with non-convex clusters

- Another type of partitional clustering
- Can deal with non-convex clusters
- First performs laplacian eigenmaps, and then clusters the embedded points using k-means

- Another type of partitional clustering
- Can deal with non-convex clusters
- First performs laplacian eigenmaps, and then clusters the embedded points using k-means
- Still need to choose the number of clusters k

Clustering algorithms divide into 2 main types

Partitional algorithms

- Construct various partitions and then evaluate the partitions by some criterion
- Hierarchical algorithms
 - **Create a hierarchical decomposition of the set of objects using some criterion**

Partitional

Hierarchical





Hierarchical clustering: 2 types

Divisive (top-down)



Hierarchical clustering: 2 types

Divisive (top-down)
Agglomerative (bottom-up)





□ Step 1: start with all data in one cluster



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method
- Step 3: apply step 2 to every individual cluster until every data instance is in its own cluster



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method
- Step 3: apply step 2 to every individual cluster until every data instance is in its own cluster
- Benefits from global information



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method
- Step 3: apply step 2 to every individual cluster until every data instance is in its own cluster
- Benefits from global information
- Can be efficient if:



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method
- Step 3: apply step 2 to every individual cluster until every data instance is in its own cluster
- Benefits from global information
- Can be efficient if:
 - □ Stopped early (not wait until all points are in own clusters)



- Step 1: start with all data in one cluster
- Step 2: split cluster using a partitional clustering method
- Step 3: apply step 2 to every individual cluster until every data instance is in its own cluster
- Benefits from global information
- Can be efficient if:
 - Stopped early (not wait until all points are in own clusters)
 - Use an efficient partitional method (like k-means)



Agglomerative clustering (bottom-up)

□ Step 1: start with each item in own cluster



Agglomerative clustering (bottom-up)

- □ Step 1: start with each item in own cluster
- □ Step 2: find best pair to merge into a new cluster



Agglomerative clustering (bottom-up)

- Step 1: start with each item in own cluster
- Step 2: find best pair to merge into a new cluster
- □ Step 3: repeat step 2 until all clusters are fused together



But how do we find the best data points to merge?

Start with a distance matrix that contains the distances between every pair of data instances





Step 2: find the best pair to merge in a cluster





Step 2: find the best pair to merge in a cluster





Step 2: find the best pair to merge in a cluster

Now what? How do we compute distances between clusters with multiple data instances?



Distance between two closest members in each class
 "single link"



Distance between two closest members in each class

- Generation "single link"
- potentially long and skinny clusters



- Distance between two closest members in each class
 - "single link"
 - potentially long and skinny clusters
- Distance between two farthest members
 - "complete link"



••

- Distance between two closest members in each class
 - "single link"
 - potentially long and skinny clusters
- Distance between two farthest members
 - "complete link"
 - Left tight clusters





. .

...

- Distance between two closest members in each class
 - "single link"
 - potentially long and skinny clusters
- Distance between two farthest members
 - "complete link"
 - Left tight clusters
- Average distance of all pairs
 - "average link"





. .

...

- Distance between two closest members in each class
 - "single link"
 - potentially long and skinny clusters
- Distance between two farthest members
 - "complete link"
 - Left tight clusters
- Average distance of all pairs
 - "average link"
 - robust against noise




How do we compute distances between clusters?

. .

...

- Distance between two closest members in each class
 - "single link"
 - potentially long and skinny clusters
- Distance between two farthest members
 - "complete link"
 - Left tight clusters
- Average distance of all pairs
 - "average link"
 - robust against noise
 - most widely used







Step 2: find the best pair to merge in a cluster

Now what? How do we compute distances between clusters with multiple data instances?





Step 2: find the best pair to merge in a cluster

Now what? How do we compute distances between clusters with multiple data instances? => **use complete link!**





















Creates a hierarchical decomposition of groups of objects

- Creates a hierarchical decomposition of groups of objects
- □ There are two types: top-down and bottom-up

- Creates a hierarchical decomposition of groups of objects
- □ There are two types: top-down and bottom-up
- □ Neither is very efficient

- Creates a hierarchical decomposition of groups of objects
- □ There are two types: top-down and bottom-up
- □ Neither is very efficient
- But we don't have to specify number of clusters apriori

Clustering takeaways

Can be useful when there is a lot of unlabeled data

Clustering takeaways

- □ Can be useful when there is a lot of unlabeled data
- Evaluation of clustering algorithms is subjective because there is no ground truth (since there are no labels)

Clustering takeaways

- Can be useful when there is a lot of unlabeled data
- Evaluation of clustering algorithms is subjective because there is no ground truth (since there are no labels)
- It's very important to understand the assumptions that each clustering algorithm makes when you use it

Main takeaways: dimensionality reduction and clustering

Both are unsupervised methods that can be used when no labeled data is available

Main takeaways: dimensionality reduction and clustering

- Both are unsupervised methods that can be used when no labeled data is available
- Dimensionality reduction can uncover underlying or latent dimensions of the observed data that can better explain the variance of the data

Main takeaways: dimensionality reduction and clustering

- Both are unsupervised methods that can be used when no labeled data is available
- Dimensionality reduction can uncover underlying or latent dimensions of the observed data that can better explain the variance of the data
- Clustering can group different data instances without much domain knowledge

Next time: advanced topics!

Evaluate results

- □ cross validation (how generalizable are our results?)
- nearly assumption-free significance testing (are the results different from chance?)
- Complex data-driven hypotheses of brain processing
 - advanced topics: latent variable models, reinforcement learning, deep learning





