

Unsupervised Learning

吉建民

USTC

`jianmin@ustc.edu.cn`

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Used Materials

Disclaimer: 本课件采用了 S. Russell and P. Norvig's Artificial Intelligence –A modern approach slides, 徐林莉老师课件和其他网络课程课件, 也采用了 GitHub 中开源代码, 以及部分网络博客内容

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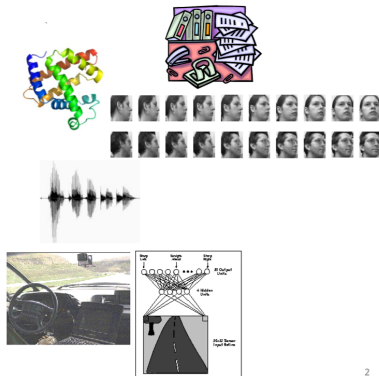
Unsupervised Learning

Clustering

Principle Component Analysis

Supervised learning has many successes

- ▶ Document classification
- ▶ Protein prediction
- ▶ Face recognition
- ▶ Speech recognition
- ▶ Vehicle steering etc.



However...

- ▶ Labeled data can be rare or expensive in many real applications

- Speech
- Medical data
- Protein
- ...

Task: speech analysis

- Switchboard dataset
- telephone conversation transcription
- 400 hours annotation time for each hour of speech

film ⇒ f ih_n uh_gl_n m

be all ⇒ bcl b iy iy_tr ao_tr ao l_d1

- ▶ Unlabeled data is much cheaper and abundant

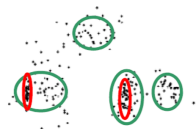
Question: Can we use unlabeled data to help?

Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)

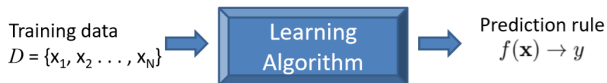


- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
 - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data

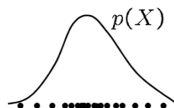


Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)

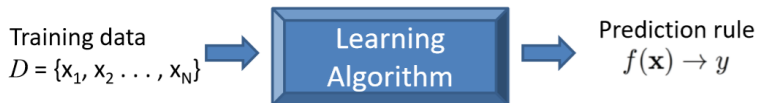


- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
 - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
 - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)

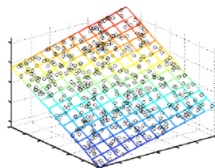


Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)

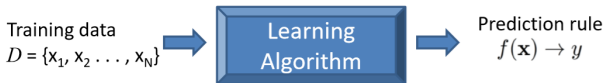


- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
 - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
 - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)
 - ▶ Low-dimensional structure
 - ▶ Principal Component Analysis 主元分析 (PCA) (linear)



Unsupervised learning

Learning from unlabeled data (without supervision)



- ▶ What can we predict from unlabeled data?
 - ▶ Groups or clusters in the data
 - ▶ Density estimation (密度估计)
 - ▶ Low-dimensional structure
 - ▶ Principal Component Analysis 主元分析 (PCA) (linear)
 - ▶ Manifold learning 流行学习 (non-linear)

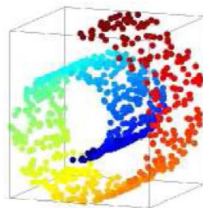


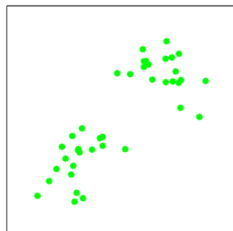
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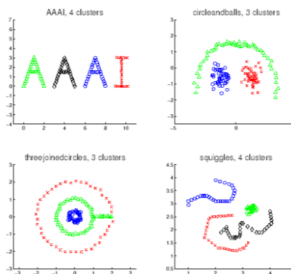
Clustering



- ▶ Are there any “groups” in the data ?
- ▶ What is each group ?
- ▶ How many ?
- ▶ How to identify them?

Clustering

- ▶ Group the data objects into subsets or “clusters”:
 - ▶ High similarity within clusters
 - ▶ Low similarity between clusters
- ▶ A common and important task that finds many applications in Science, Engineering, information Science, and other places
 - ▶ Group genes that perform the same function
 - ▶ Group individuals that has similar political view
 - ▶ Categorize documents of similar topics
 - ▶ Identify similar objects from pictures



Clustering

- ▶ Input: training set of input point

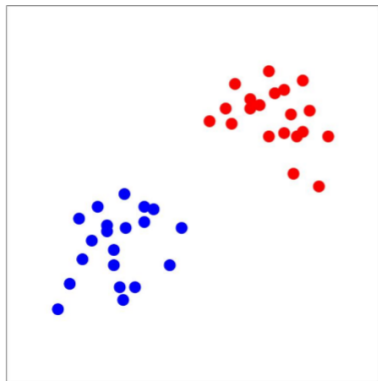
$$D_{train} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

- ▶ Output: assignment of each point to a cluster

$$(C(1), \dots, C(n)) \text{ where } C(i) \in \{1, \dots, k\}$$

K-means clustering

Create centers and assign points to centers to minimize sum of squared distance



K-means objective

- ▶ Each cluster is represented by a centroid μ
- ▶ Encode each point by its cluster center, pay a cost for deviation
- ▶ Loss function based on reconstruction

$$LOSS_{kmeans} = \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

K-means algorithm

- ▶ Goal: $\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$



- ▶ Strategy: alternating minimization
 - ▶ Step 1: if know cluster centers μ , can find best C
 - ▶ Step 2: if know cluster assignments C , can find best cluster centers

K-means algorithm

Optimize loss function $Loss(\mu, C)$

$$\min_{\mu} \min_C \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

(1) Fix μ , optimize C

$$\min_{C(1), C(2), \dots, C(n)} \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

Assign each point to the nearest cluster center

(2) Fix C , optimize μ

$$\min_{\mu(1), \mu(2), \dots, \mu(k)} \sum_{j=1}^n \|\mu_{C(j)} - \mathbf{x}_j\|^2$$

Solution: average of points in cluster i , exactly second step (re-center)

K-Means

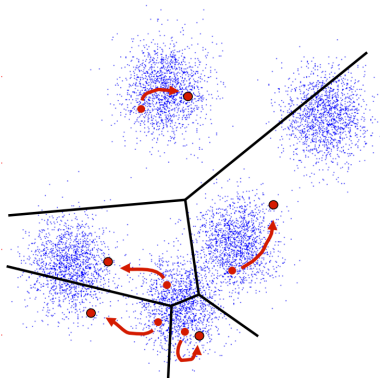
- An iterative clustering algorithm

- **Initialize:** Pick K random points as cluster centers

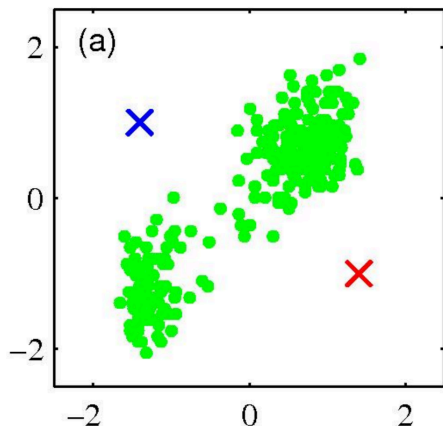
- **Alternate:**

1. Assign data points to closest cluster center
2. Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points

- **Stop** when no points' assignments change



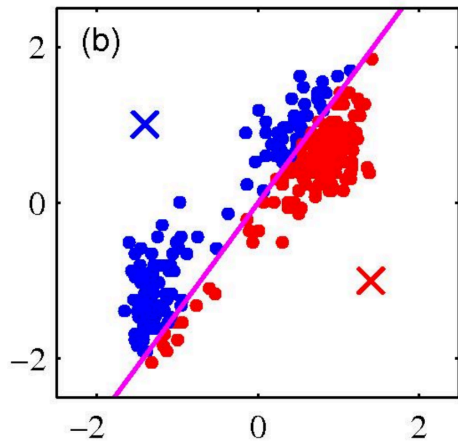
K-means clustering: Example



- Pick K random points as cluster centers (means)

Shown here for $K=2$

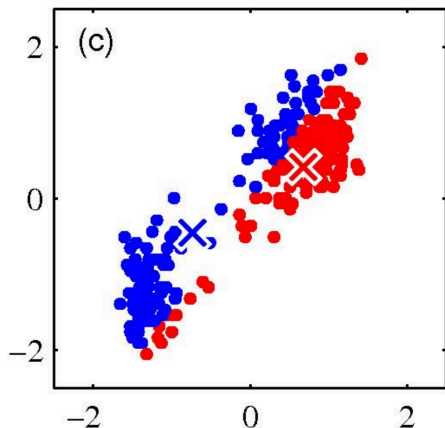
K-means clustering: Example



Iterative Step 1

- Assign data points to closest cluster center

K-means clustering: Example

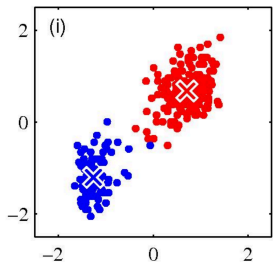
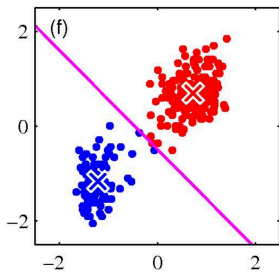
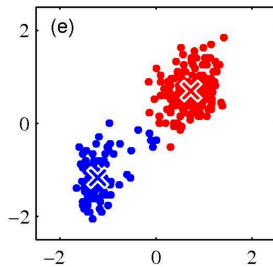
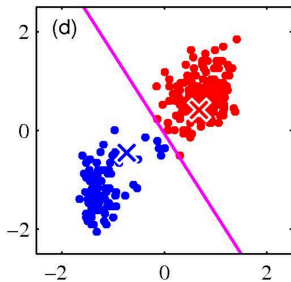


Iterative Step 2

- Change the cluster center to the average of the assigned points

K-means clustering: Example

Repeat until convergence



Properties of K-means algorithm

- ▶ Guaranteed to converge in a finite number of iterations
 - ▶ To a local minimum
 - ▶ The objective is non-convex, so coordinate descent on is not guaranteed to converge to the global minimum
- ▶ Running time per iteration: simple and efficient
 - ▶ Assign data points to closest cluster center

$$O(KN)$$

- ▶ Change the cluster center to the average of its assigned points

$$O(N)$$

- ▶ Different initialization will lead to different results
- ▶ K-means problem is **NP-hard** (之前公式的最优解)
- ▶ Not robust to noise and outliers

K-means convergence

Objective

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

1. Fix μ , 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 μ :

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

- Take partial derivative of μ_i and set to zero, we have

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

Step 2 of kmeans

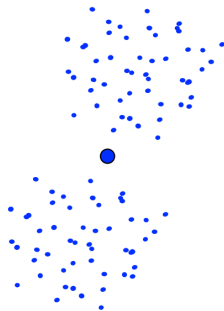
Kmeans takes an alternating optimization approach, each step is guaranteed to decrease the objective – thus guaranteed to converge

K-means getting stuck

A local optimum:



Would be better to have
one cluster here



... and two clusters here

K-means not able to properly cluster

Changing the features (distance function) can help

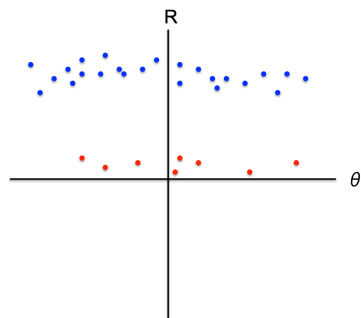
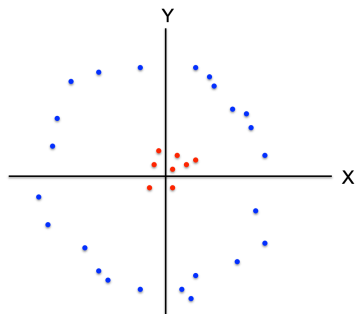


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Principle component analysis

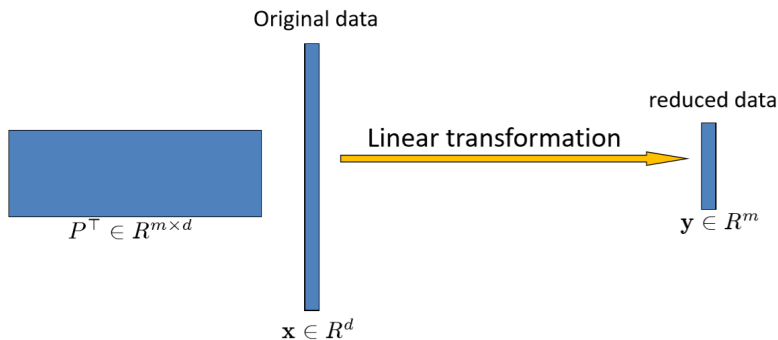
- ▶ What is dimensionality reduction?
- ▶ Why dimensionality reduction?
- ▶ Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- ▶ Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

What is dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ Dimensionality reduction refers to the mapping of the original high-dimensional data onto a lower-dimensional space.
 - Criterion for dimensionality reduction can be different based on different problem settings.
 - ▶ Unsupervised setting: minimize the information loss
最近重构性：样本点到这个超平面的距离都足够近
 - ▶ Supervised setting: maximize the class discrimination
最大可分性：样本点在这个超平面上的投影能尽可能分开
 - ▶ 对样本进行中心化处理后，两者等价
- ▶ Given a set of data points of d dimension variables $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$
- ▶ Compute the linear transformation (projection)

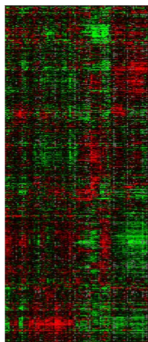
$$P \in R^{d \times m} : \mathbf{x} \in R^d \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = P^T \mathbf{x} \in R^m \quad (m \ll d)$$

What is dimensionality reduction?



$$P \in R^{d \times m} : \mathbf{x} \in R^d \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = P^T \mathbf{x} \in R^m$$

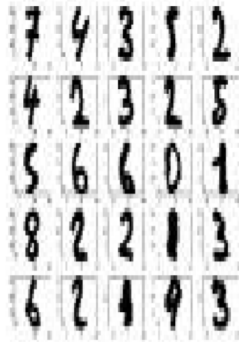
High-dimensional data



Gene expression



Face images



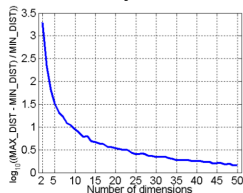
Handwritten digits

Why dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ Most machine learning and data mining techniques may not be effective for high-dimensional data
 - ▶ **Curse of Dimensionality**
 - ▶ Query accuracy and efficiency degrade rapidly as the dimension increases.
- ▶ The **intrinsic** dimension may be small.
 - ▶ For example, the number of genes responsible for a certain type of disease may be small.

Curse of Dimensionality (维数灾难)

- ▶ When dimensionality increases, data becomes increasingly sparse in the space that it occupies
- ▶ Definitions of density and distance between points, which is critical for clustering and outlier detection, become less meaningful
- ▶ If $N_1 = 100$ represents a dense sample for a single input problem, then $N_{10} = 100^{10}$ is the sample size required for the same sampling density with dimension 10.
- ▶ The proportion of a hypersphere (超球面) with radius r and dimension d , to that of a hypercube (超立方体) with sides of length $2r$ and dimension d converges to 0 as d goes to infinity —nearly all of the high-dimensional space is “far away” from the center



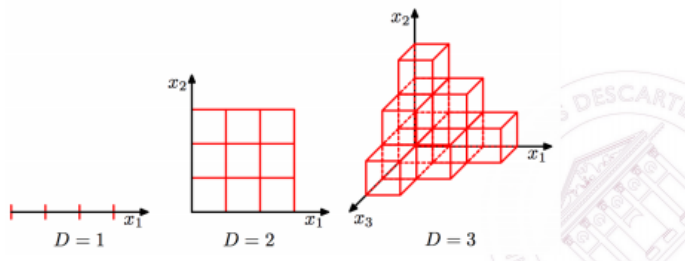
- ▶ Randomly generate 500 points
- ▶ Compute difference between max and min distance between any pair of points

High dimensional spaces are empty

The volume of a hypercube with an edge length of $r = 0.1$ is $0.1^p \rightarrow$ when p grows, it quickly becomes so small that the probability to capture points from your database becomes very very small...

Points in high dimensional spaces are isolated

To overcome this limitation, you need a number of sample which grows exponentially with p ...



Lost in space

Let's consider a hypersphere of radius r inscribed in a hypercube with sides of length $2r$. Then take the ratio of the volume (体积) of the hypersphere to the hypercube. We observe the following trends.

- ▶ in 2 dimensions:

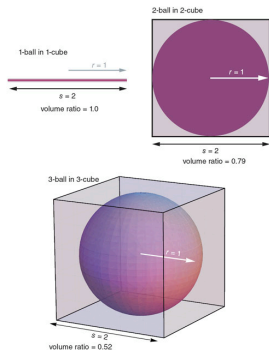
$$\frac{V(S_2(r))}{V(H_2(2r))} = \frac{\pi r^2}{4r^2} = 78.5\%$$

- ▶ in 3 dimensions:

$$\frac{V(S_3(r))}{V(H_3(2r))} = \frac{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}{8r^3} = 52.4\%$$

- ▶ when the dimensionality d increases asymptotically

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \frac{V(S_d(r))}{V(H_d(2r))} = \lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi^{d/2}}{2^d \Gamma(\frac{d}{2} + 1)} \rightarrow 0$$



Why dimensionality reduction?

- ▶ **Visualization**: projection of high-dimensional data onto 2D or 3D.
- ▶ **Data compression**: efficient storage and retrieval
- ▶ **Noise removal**: positive effect on query accuracy.

Application of feature reduction

- ▶ Face recognition
- ▶ Handwritten digit recognition
- ▶ Text mining
- ▶ Image retrieval
- ▶ Microarray data analysis
- ▶ Protein classification
- ▶ ...

What is Principal Component Analysis?

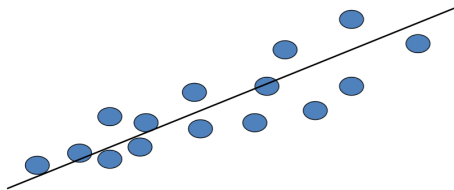
- ▶ Principal component analysis (PCA)
 - Reduce the dimensionality of a data set by finding a new set of variables, smaller than the original set of variables
 - Retains most of the sample's information.
 - Useful for the compression and classification of data.
- ▶ By information we mean the variation present in the sample, given by the correlations between the original variables.
 - ▶ The new variables, called principal components (PCs), are **uncorrelated**, and are ordered by the fraction of the total information each retains.

Principal components (PCs)

Given n points in a d dimensional space, for large d , how does one project on to a low dimensional space while preserving broad trends in the data and allowing it to be visualized?

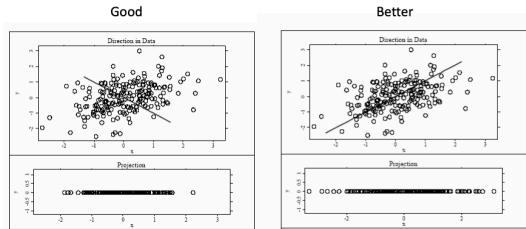
Geometric picture of principal components

- ▶ Given n points in a d dimensional space, for large d , how does one project on to a 1 dimensional space



- ▶ Choose a line that fits the data so the points are spread out well along the line

Let us see it on a figure



PCA 希望降维后信息损失最小，可以理解为投影后的数据尽可能的分开，这种分散程度可以用方差来表示 (μ 为均值):

$$\text{Var}(a) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i - \mu)^2$$

对数据进行中心化后，即 $\mu = 0$:

$$\text{Var}(a) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$$

Geometric picture of principal components

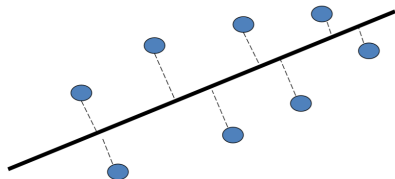
对数据进行中心化:

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i,$$

$$\mathbf{x}'_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

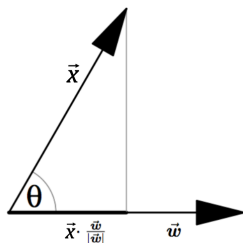
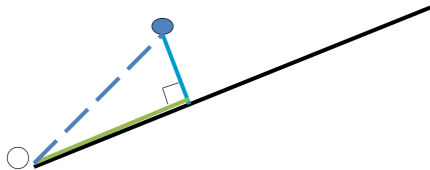
对于中心化以后的数据, 即 $\bar{\mathbf{x}}' = 0$, 以下说法等价: Find a line that

- ▶ maximize the variance of the projected data
- ▶ maximize the sum of squares of data samples' projections on that line
- ▶ minimize the sum of squares of distances to the line



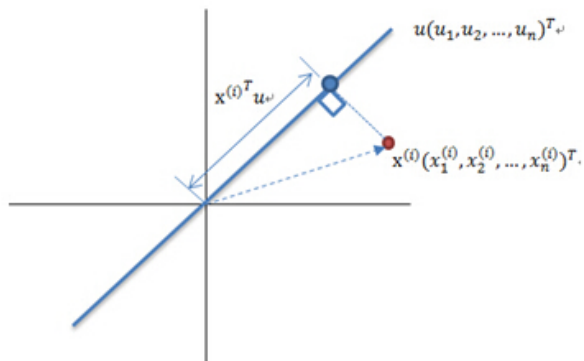
Algebraic Interpretation — 1D

- ▶ Minimizing sum of squares of distances to the line is the same as maximizing the sum of squares of the projections on that line, thanks to Pythagoras (毕达哥拉斯).



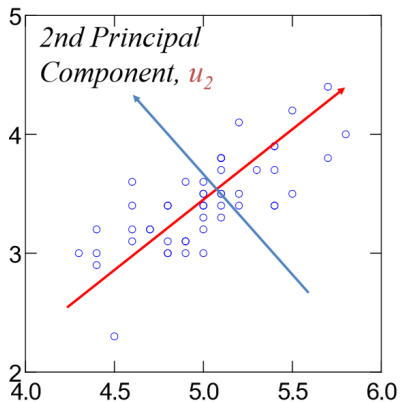
投影长度为: $\vec{x}^\top \frac{\vec{w}}{\|\vec{w}\|}$

Algebraic Interpretation — 1D



投影长度为: $x^T u = u^T x$ subject to $u^T u = 1$

Geometric picture of principal components



Geometric picture of principal components

- ▶ the 1st PC \mathbf{u}_1 is a minimum distance fit to a line in X space
- ▶ the 2nd PC \mathbf{u}_2 is a minimum distance fit to a line in the plane perpendicular (垂直于) to the 1st PC

PCs are a series of linear least squares fits to a sample, each orthogonal (垂直于) to all the previous.

Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ Given a sample of n observations on a vector of d variables

$$\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

- ▶ First project the data onto a one-dimensional space with a d -dimensional vector \mathbf{u}_1 (where $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$):

$$\{\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_n\}$$

- ▶ Find \mathbf{u}_1 to maximize the variance the projected data:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{u}_1^\top \bar{\mathbf{x}} \right)^2 = \mathbf{u}_1^\top S \mathbf{u}_1$$

Where $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$ and $S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^\top$

Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ To solve $\max_{\mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1$ subject to $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$
- ▶ Let λ_1 be a Lagrangian multiplier (拉格朗日乘子)

$$L = \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 + \lambda_1 (1 - \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{u}_1} = \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 - \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1 = 0$$

$$\mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{u}_1$$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_1$ is an eigenvector (特征向量)

$$\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1 = \lambda_1$$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{u}_1$ corresponds to the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue λ_1

- ▶ 即, $\max_{\mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_1$ subject to $\mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_1 = 1$ 的结果就是矩阵 S 的最大特征值
 - ▶ 矩阵 S 特征值计算方法: 构造特征多项式 $|S - \lambda I| = 0$ (I 为单位矩阵), 特征值为线性方程组的解

Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ To find the second component \mathbf{u}_2
- ▶ Solve the following

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2^\top \mathbf{S} \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad \mathbf{u}_2^\top \mathbf{u}_2 = 1 \quad \& \quad \mathbf{u}_1^\top \mathbf{u}_2 = 0$$

- \mathbf{u}_2 is the eigenvector with the second largest eigenvalue λ_2

...

Algebraic derivation of PCs

- ▶ Main steps for computing PCs
 - ▶ Calculate the covariance matrix S

$$S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}}) (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^\top$$

or first center the data: $\{\mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_n\}$ and $\bar{\mathbf{x}}' = 0$

$$\text{let } X = [\mathbf{x}'_1, \mathbf{x}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}; \text{ then } S = \frac{1}{n} X X^\top$$

- ▶ Find the first m eigenvectors $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^m$
- ▶ Form the projection matrix

$$P = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{u}_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$$

- ▶ A new test point can be projected as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{new} \in \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow P^\top \mathbf{x}_{new} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

Algebraic derivation of PCs

$$\mathbf{y} = P^\top \mathbf{x} \in R^m$$

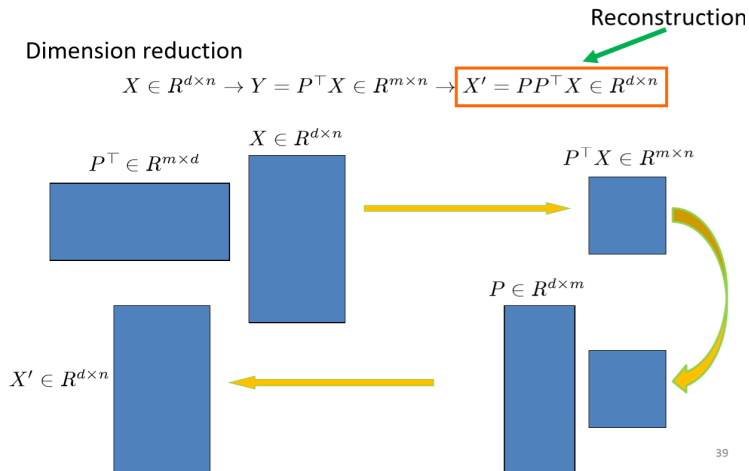
- ▶ Getting the old data back?
 - If P is a square matrix (方阵), we can recover \mathbf{x} by

$$\mathbf{x} = (P^\top)^{-1} \mathbf{y} = P \mathbf{y} = P P^\top \mathbf{x}$$

注: $\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_i = 1$ and $\mathbf{u}_i^\top \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$, then $P^\top P = I_m$ (where $m = n$) and $(P^\top)^{-1} = P$

- ▶ Here P is not full ($m \ll d$), but we can still recover \mathbf{x} by $\mathbf{x} = P \mathbf{y} = P P^\top \mathbf{x}$, and lose some information
- ▶ Objective:
 - ▶ Lose least amount of information

Optimality property of PCA



Optimality property of PCA

Main theoretical result:

The matrix P consisting of the first m eigenvectors of the covariance matrix S solves the following min problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}} \|X - X'\|^2 &= \arg \min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}} \|X - PP^T X\|^2 \\ &= \arg \max_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(X^T PP^T X) \\ &= \arg \max_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(P^T X X^T P) \\ &= \arg \max_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}} \text{trace}(P^T S P) \end{aligned}$$

subject to $P^T P = I_m$

Reconstruction error

Notice that, for a matrix A $m \times n$ and B $n \times m$,

$$\text{trace}(AB) = \text{trace}(BA) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{ji}$$

$\arg \min_P \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n (x_{ij} - x'_{ij})^2$ is equivalent to $\arg \max_P \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} x'_{ij}$,

$$\text{as } \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^n x'_{ij}{}^2 = \text{trace}((PP^T X)^T PP^T X) = \text{trace}(X^T PP^T X)$$

PCA projection minimizes the reconstruction error among all linear projections of size m .

PCA for image compression



m=1



m=2



m=4



m=8



m=16



m=32



m=64



m=100



**Original
Image**

Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

Rewrite PCA in terms of dot products

- ▶ Assume the data has been centered, i.e., $\sum_i \mathbf{x}_i = 0$
- ▶ The covariance matrix S can be written as $S = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top$
- ▶ If \mathbf{u} is an eigenvector of S corresponding to nonzero eigenvalue

$$S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n\lambda} \sum_i \left(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u} \right) \mathbf{x}_i$$

- ▶ Eigenvectors of S lie in the space spanned by all data points

Kernel methods:

- ▶ denote the representation of \mathbf{x} as $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$
- ▶ define the kernel function $k: \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by
 $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \varphi(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \varphi(\mathbf{x}_j)$
- ▶ define the kernel matrix K : $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$

Nonlinear PCA using Kernels

$$S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u} = \lambda \mathbf{u} \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n\lambda} \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{x}_i$$

The covariance matrix can be written in matrix form

$$S = \frac{1}{n} X X^\top, \text{ where } X = [\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n].$$

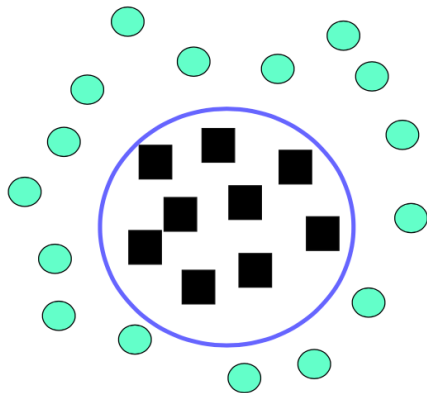
$$\mathbf{u} = \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{x}_i = X\boldsymbol{\alpha} \quad S\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{n} X X^\top X\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \lambda X\boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} (X^\top X)(X^\top X)\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \lambda (X^\top X)\boldsymbol{\alpha}$$

\longrightarrow $\frac{1}{n} (X^\top X)\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$ \longrightarrow $\frac{1}{n} K\boldsymbol{\alpha} = \lambda \boldsymbol{\alpha}$

Any benefits?

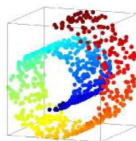
Nonlinear PCA



Linear projections
will not detect the
pattern.

Comments on PCA

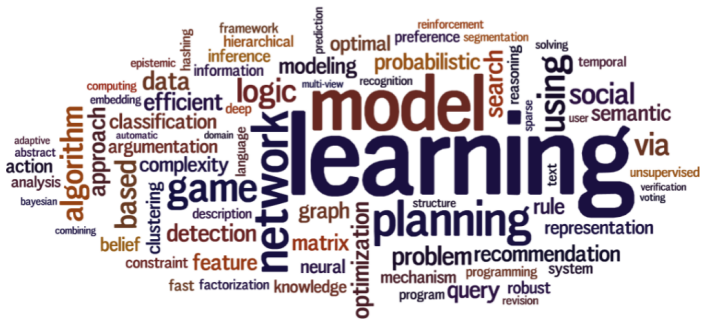
- ▶ Linear dimensionality reduction method
- ▶ Can be kernelized
- ▶ Many nonlinear dimensionality reduction methods (Isomap, graph Laplacian eigenmap, and locally linear embedding/LLE) can be described as kernel PCA with a special kernel
- ▶ Non-convex optimization problem
- ▶ But easy to solve...



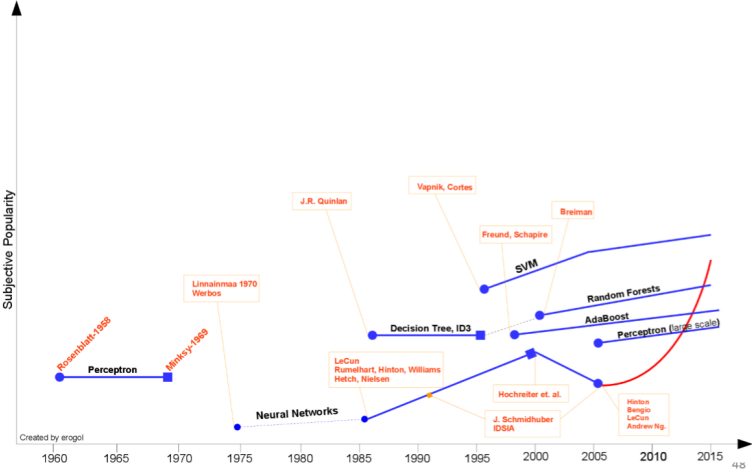
Want to Learn More?

- ▶ Machine Learning: a Probabilistic Perspective, K. Murphy
- ▶ Pattern Classification, R. Duda, P. Hart, and D. Stork.
Standard pattern recognition textbook. Limited to classification problems. Matlab code.
<http://rii.ricoh.com/~stork/DHS.html>
- ▶ Pattern recognition and machine learning. C. Bishop
- ▶ The Elements of statistical Learning: Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction. T. Hastie, R. Tibshirani, J. Friedman,
Standard statistics textbook. Includes all the standard machine learning methods for classification, regression, clustering. R code. <http://www-stat-class.stanford.edu/~tibs/ElemStatLearn/>
- ▶ Introduction to Data Mining, P.-N. Tan, M. Steinbach, V. Kumar. AddisonWesley, 2006
- ▶ Principles of Data Mining, D. Hand, H. Mannila, and P. Smyth. MIT Press, 2001
- ▶ 统计学习方法, 李航

Machine Learning in AI



Machine Learning History



Created by erogol

Summary

- ▶ Supervised learning
 - ▶ Learning Decision Trees
 - ▶ K Nearest Neighbor Classifier
 - ▶ Linear Predictions
 - ▶ Support Vector Machines
- ▶ Unsupervised learning
 - ▶ Clustering
 - ▶ Principle Component Analysis

作业

- ▶ K-means 算法是否一定会收敛? 如果是, 给出证明过程; 如果不是, 给出说明。