# Unsupervised Learning from Dyadic Data

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### Outline

- Problem description
- Contributions in a nutshell
- Models for dyadic data
- Parameter learning with EM
- Relationships between different models
- Results in one domain
- Concluding remarks

# Dyadic Data

- Two finite sets of objects X and Y.
- Observations made for pairs consisting of one element from each set: dyads (x, y).
- In some cases, a third observation w(x, y) might be available indicating similarity or association values between x and y.
- This paper restricts itself to purely dyadic observations: (x, y).

# Problem Description

- The objective is to accomplish two tasks:
  - Learning a joint or conditional probability distribution over  $X \times Y$ .
  - Discovering structure: Learning clusters or data hierarchies.
- Looks very similar to the usual learning setting.
- Why is this a hard problem ?
  - Metric distances are not known ! In the standard setting, features are represented as vectors in a Euclidean space.
  - Data can be extremely sparse, zero frequencies are common.

# To summarize the problems

- Consider two sets  $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$  and  $Y = \{y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4\}$ . Suppose our observations are  $(x_1, y_2), (x_1, y_3), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_1), (x_1, y_2)$ . Note that we can have |X| \* |Y| different dyads. Hence many pairs usually have zero frequencies in observations.
- How to handle sparse data ? What do we do when some pairs are never sampled (the zero-frequency problem)?
- How to handle the lack of a distance metric ?
- Sparseness problem also occurs in the standard setting, however, knowing a distance metric can help us generalize to unseen examples.

# Applications

- Computer Vision: In image segmentation, data is usually obtained as pixel values (or processed using some filters) for each image location. The task is to group similar regions together.
- Information retrieval: One set is the collection of documents, the other represents vocabulary. A dyad is the occurrence of an object from the vocabulary in the corresponding document.
- Consumer preference analysis: One set represents consumers and the other is objects they can consume.
- Note that in some of these examples, there does not exist an obvious "distance" metric between two objects of a set.

#### Basic modeling principles

- Modeling is done using latent variables by specifying a joint probability distribution for latent and observable variables.
- Marginalization (summing over latent variables) gives a model over observable variables.
- Bayes' rule is used to obtain posterior probabilities over latent variables with respect to observed variables - used for structure discovery. Useful where data groups and/or hierarchies are to be found.

#### Summary of Contributions

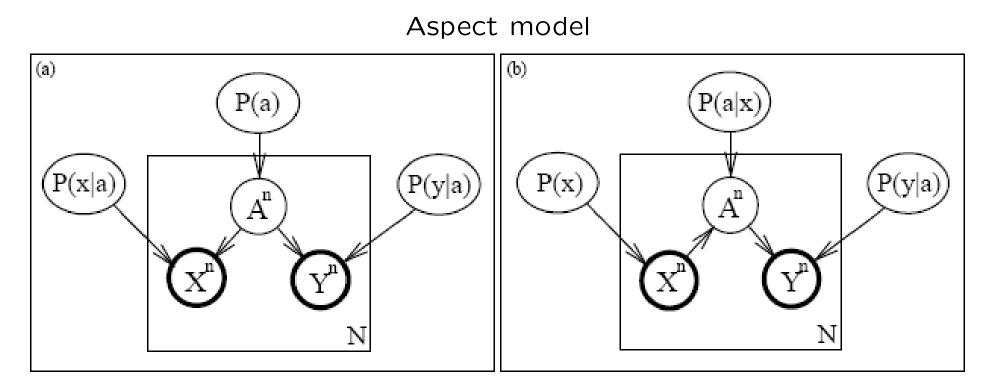
- The paper proposes a family of latent class models to deal with the data sparseness problem.
- Flat as well as hierarchical models are described and evaluated. A close relationship between aspect models and clustering models is shown.
- Previously studied models like *n*-gram models, distributional clustering, aggregate Markov models arise as special cases of this framework.
- The authors study EM algorithms for application to these models. Some promising results in the previously mentioned application domains are provided.

#### Aspect models

- Consider an observation sequence  $S = (x^n, y^n)_{1 \le n \le N}$  as a realization of an underlying sequence of random variables  $(X^n, Y^n)_{1 \le n \le N}$ .
- We can introduce a latent class for each dyad observed.  $(x^n, y^n)$  is associated with  $A^n$  over a finite set  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_K\}$ .
- Notice that aspect models partition the *observations*. Therefore, identical dyads can be associated with *different* latent classes.
- The set of observations can be thought of as generated by a (latent) finite mixture model. The choice of the latent class from A corresponds to choosing the component of a mixture. In this view, the observed variables  $(x^n, y^n)$  are those generated by this component  $a^n$  of the mixture.

#### Model description

- Assumption: The observations are i.i.d. and pairs of random variables  $X^n$  and  $Y^n$  are conditionally independent given the latent class  $A^n$ .
- Data generation process:
  - Choose an aspect a with P(a).
  - Choose an object x from the set X with P(x|a).
  - Choose an object y from the set Y with P(y|a).



Graphical representation of an aspect model.(a) In the symmetric parameterization(b) In the asymmetric parameterization.

• As described earlier, the complete data probability is first obtained and then marginalized.

$$P(S,a) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(x^n, y^n, a^n)$$
, where

$$P(x^n, y^n, a^n) = P(a^n)P(x^n|a^n)P(y^n|a^n).$$

 Decomposition into products follows from the i.i.d. assumption, simplification of chain rule follows from the conditional independence assumption. Model description

- Marginalizing w.r.t *a* gives  $P(x,y) = \sum_{a \in A} P(a)P(x|a)P(y|a)$ .
- Grouping identical dyads together, we get

•

$$P(S) = \prod_{x \in X} \prod_{y \in Y} P(x, y)^{n(x, y)}$$

• n(x,y) represents the empirical co-occurrence frequencies. This number is expected to be zero for most (x,y) pairs as we have sparse data.

#### Expectation Maximization

- Parameter estimation is to be done using Maximum Likelihood. However, there exist problems since we have a log of a summation. The EM algorithm is therefore applied.
- Expectation step: Estimating the posterior probabilities of the unobserved mapping  $P(a|S, \theta')$ .  $\theta'$  is the current parameter estimate.
- Maximization step: Maximization of the expected complete data log-likelihood  $L(\theta|\theta') = \sum_{a} P(a|S, \theta') \log P(S, a, \theta)$  with respect to  $\theta$ .

An equivalent asymmetric parameterization

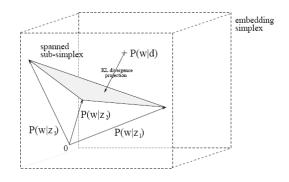
• From the asymmetric graphical model shown earlier,

$$P(x,y) = P(x)P(y|x) = P(x)\sum_{a \in A} P(a|x)P(y|a).$$
 (1)

- For a fixed x, all conditional distributions P(y|x) are obtained by convex combinations of P(y|a).
- Also, P(x) can be estimated independently as n(x)/N (the occurrence frequency). Thus, maximizing the joint likelihood P(x,y) and the conditional likelihood P(y|x) are equivalent.

Word generation example from documents

- Pick a document d with probability P(d).
- Pick a latent class z with probability P(z|d).
- Generate a word w with probability P(w|z).
- From before, we have  $P(w|d) = \sum_{z \in Z} P(w|z)P(z|d)$ .
- Document specific word distributions are obtained by a convex combination of the aspects P(w|z).
- Documents are not assigned to clusters, they are characterized by a specific mixture of factors with weights P(z|d). These mixing weights offer modeling flexibility.



- Assume a vocabulary of size M. Then, we have M 1 dimensional vectors  $P(\cdot|z)$  over the vocabulary. There are K such points assuming K latent classes.
- Because of the convex combination of described earlier,  $P(\cdot|d)$  can lie in a K-1 dimensional sub-simplex in the M-1 dimensional simplex as shown in the figure. The mixing weights P(z|d) correspond to the coordinates of a document in that sub-simplex.
- Dimensionality of the sub-simplex is K-1 as opposed to M-1 for the complete probability simplex. This can be seen as dimensionality reduction.

Cross Entropy Minimization

- Say the empirical co-occurrence frequencies are  $\hat{P}(x,y) = n(x,y)/N$ .
- The complete data likelihood is

$$\prod_{n=1}^{N} P(x^{n}, y^{n}, a^{n}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(x^{n}) \sum_{a \in A} P(a^{n} | x^{n}) P(y^{n} | a^{n})$$

. The log-likelihood is

$$L(S,\theta) = \log[\prod_{x \in X} \prod_{y \in Y} \left( P(x) \sum_{a \in A} P(a|x) P(y|a) \right)^{n(x,y)}]$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{x,y} n(x,y) \cdot \log[P(x) \sum_{a} P(a|x) P(y|a)]$$

. Hence

.

$$\frac{1}{N}L(S,\theta) = \sum_{x,y} \hat{P}(x,y) \log[P(x)\sum_{a} P(a|x)P(y|a)]$$

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#### Cross Entropy Minimization

• Separating out terms gives

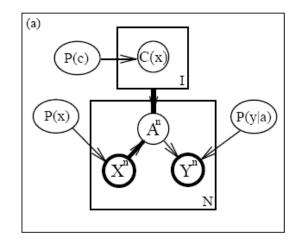
$$\frac{1}{N}L(S,\theta) = \sum_{x} \hat{P}(x) \left[ \log P(x) + \sum_{y} \hat{P}(y|x) \log \sum_{a} P(a|x) P(y|a) \right].$$

- The estimation of P(x) can be done independently.
- Therefore, maximum likelihood estimation of the above is equivalent to minimizing the sum over cross entropies between empirical conditional distributions and model distributions weighted by occurrence frequencies.
- This is the same as minimizing the Kullback-Leibler divergence between the two distributions.

One-Sided Clustering Model

- In this model, latent classes are introduced for *objects* in one of the spaces (X or Y).
- Consider latent variables C(x) over  $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_K\}$ . A realization of these latent variables partitions the space X.
- In the aspect model, identical *observations* can have different latent classes. In contrast, in this clustering model, we can have multiple *objects* belonging to the same latent class. Notice that the partition is on *objects* and not *observations*.
- The authors show that the clustering model can be derived as a constrained aspect model.

Constraints on the aspect model



A one-sided clustering model

• Introduce additional latent clustering variables where latent variable states for clusters and aspects are identified,  $c_k \cong a_k$ . Consistency constraints on the aspect variables are

$$P(a|x,c) \equiv P\{A^n = a | X^n = x, C(x) = c\} = \delta_{ac}.$$

• P(a|x,c) are not free parameters because of the above constraints. They are therefore not shown in the above graphical model. Complete data likelihood

• The complete data likelihood for the one-sided model is

$$P(S,c) = \prod_{x \in X} P(C(x)) \prod_{y \in Y} [P(x)P(y|c(x))]^{n(x,y)}.$$

• Marginalizing with respect to the clustering variables gives

$$P(S) = \prod_{x \in X} P(S_x) \text{ where,}$$
$$P(S_x) = \sum_{c \in C} P(c) \prod_{y \in Y} [P(x)P(y|c)]^{n(x,y)}.$$

• Co-occurrences in  $S_x$  are not independent for given parameters, but are coupled by the latent variable C(x).

One-sided model corresponds to Naive Bayes'

The E-step in the EM algorithm for update of posterior probabilities is

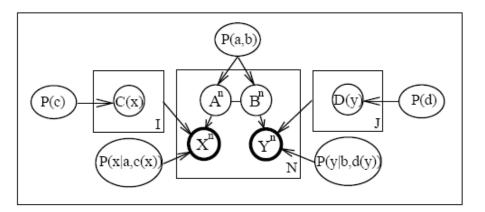
$$P\{C(x) = c | S_x, \theta\} = \frac{P(c) \prod_{y \in Y} P(y|c)^{n(x,y)}}{\sum_{c'} P(c') \prod_{y \in Y} P(y|c')^{n(x,y)}}$$

• Doing away with the normalization term, this can be written as

$$P\{C(x) = c | S_x, \theta\} \propto P(c) \exp\left[-n(x) \left(-\sum_{y \in Y} \hat{P}(y|x) \log P(y|c)\right)\right].$$

• Compare the above with a Gaussian Mixture model. If we interpret Y as a feature space for  $x \in X$ , then the one-sided model can be viewed as an unsupervised version of Naive Bayes' classifier.

Two-sided clustering model



A two-sided clustering model

• This model is defined by

 $P(x, y | c, d) \equiv P\{X^n = x, Y^n = y | C(x) = c, D(x) = d\} = P(x)P(y)\phi(c, d).$ 

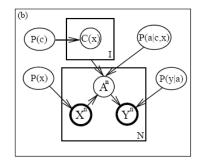
- Prior probabilities are  $P(c,d) = [\prod_x P(c(x))] \cdot [\prod_y P(d(y))].$
- The two-sided clustering model can also be interpreted as a constrained aspect model as earlier.

• Imposing the constraints, we (rather, the authors !) get

$$P(x,y|C(x) = c, D(y) = d) = P(x)P(y)\sum_{a,b}\delta_{ac}\delta_{bd}\frac{P(a,b)}{P(a)P(b)}.$$

- Comparing the two, we see that the cluster association parameters  $\phi(c, d)$  correspond to the ratio of aspect probabilities and the product of marginal probabilities.
- $\phi(c,d)$  can also be seen as cluster association strengths. They control the probability of observing the dyad (x,y) relative to the model with an unconditional independence assumption.

Hierarchical clustering model



A hierarchical clustering model

- Hierarchical models here are defined combining aspects and clusters.
- Aspects are identified with nodes of a hierarchy, clusters are identified with terminal nodes only.
- Compatibility constraints

$$P(a|x,c) \equiv P\{A^n = a | X^n = x, C(x) = c\} = 0,$$
  
if a is not on the path from root to c.

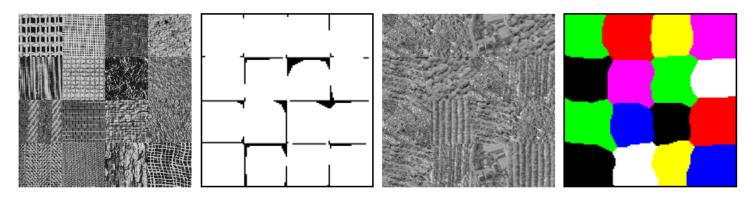
One-sided model vs hierarchical model

- The one-sided model is a degenerate hierarchical with only terminal nodes.
- The structure for a hierarchical model is less constrained as compared to the one-sided model. The clustering structure does not completely define the aspect variables. Thus, there are more parameters in the hierarchical model.

Model	P(y x,S)
Aspect	$\sum_{a} P(a x)P(y a)$
One-sided clustering	$\sum_{c} P\{C(x) = c S\} P(y c)$
Hierarchical clustering	$\sum_{c} P\{C(x) = c S\} \sum_{a} P(a x,c)P(y a)$
Two-sided clustering	$\sum_{c} P\{C(x) = c S\} P(y) \sum_{d} P\{D(y) = d S\} \phi(c,d)$

- Aspect model is the most general (least constrained), two-sided model is the most constrained.
- $P(\cdot)$  are parameters different from the posterior probabilities  $P\{\cdot\}$ .  $P\{C(x) = c|S\}$  asymptotically approach Boolean values while this does not hold for P(a|x). Thus, the parameters in the aspect model are free and it is less constrained that other models.

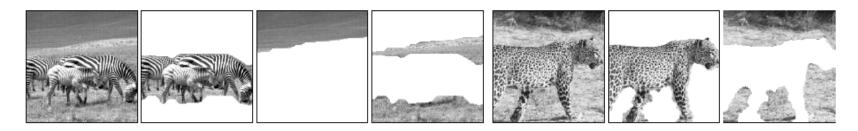
## Results (1/2)



Texture segmentation results

- The segmentation is done using the one-sided clustering model described in the paper. Looks fairly good.
- The paper does not mention how the number of latent clusters are chosen. If this is input by a human, then one of the hardest problems in image segmentation is circumvented. Given the number of clusters, according to my experience, other approaches will be able to do equally well.

## Results(2/2)



Segmentation results

• Segmentation using the one-sided clustering model for an outdoor scene. Again, the results are good, however, if the number of clusters are known, then it is not as useful.

#### Concluding Remarks

- The paper proposes statistically sound models for modeling dyadic data.
- The approach can be used for prediction or discovering latent structure in the data.
- Since the model is completely probabilistic, many powerful methods can be directly used for parameter estimation.
- It is not very clear (to me) how these models actually benefit predictive performance, or structure discovery as compared to other models.
- Specifically for the zero-frequency problem, I cannot see why models described in this paper excel as compared to others. Inputs ?

Questions?? Comments ??

Thank You!