

## Clustering and EM

STATS 303 Statistical Machine Learning

Spring 2022

Lecture 8

# nonparametric methods (cont'd): smoothing kernels

## recall: regression

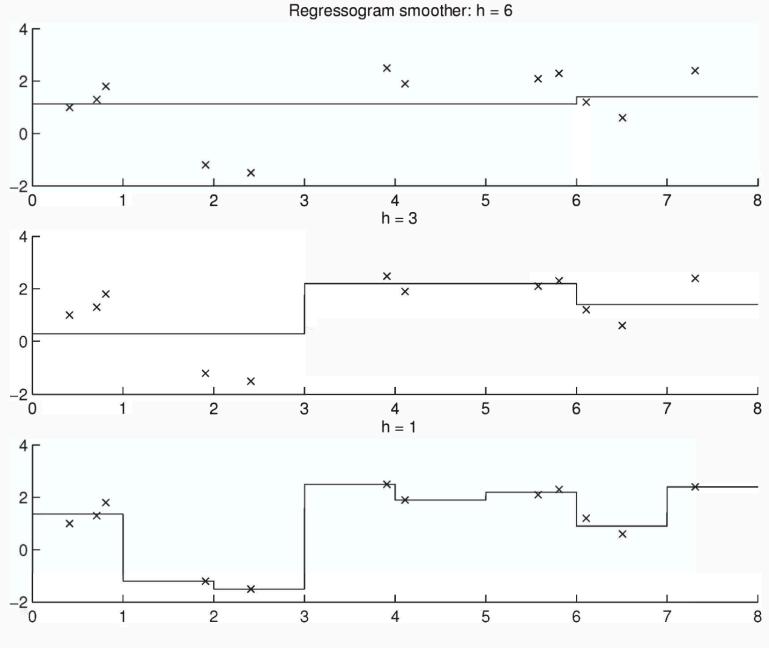
• Given training set  $\mathcal{X}=\{x_n,y_n\}_{n=1}^N$  where  $x_n\in\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $y_n\in\mathbb{R}$ 

- Assume  $y_n = g(x_n) + \epsilon$ 
  - In parametric setting, we assumed a polynomial of certain order and compute its coefficients so that the sum of squared error is minimized

## nonparametric regression

- Nonparametric setting:
  - We only assume that close x should have close g(x)
- Nonparametric approach:
  - Find the neighborhood of x, average the y values to calculate a local  $\hat{g}(x)$
- Such an estimator is called a smoother and the estimate is called a smooth.

## regressogram



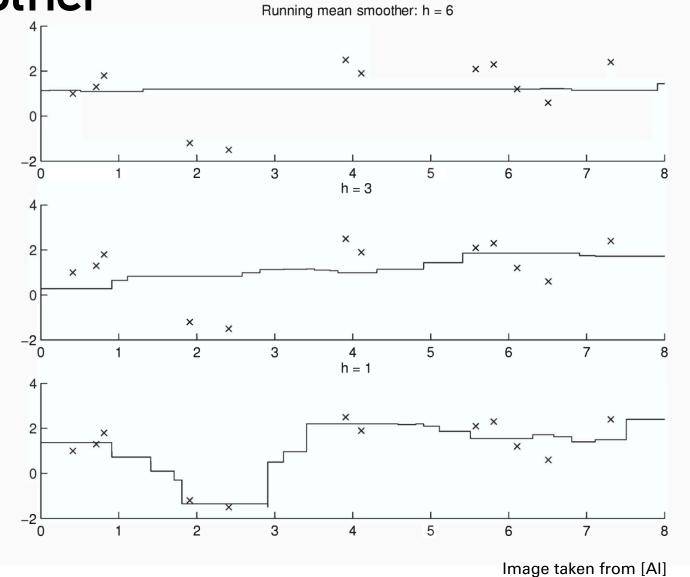
## running mean smoother

No fixed bins (similar to naïve estimators)

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} w\left(\frac{x - x_n}{h}\right) y_n}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} w\left(\frac{x - x_n}{h}\right)}$$

where 
$$w(u) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } |u| < 1/2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

running mean smoother



#### remark: median

1 2 3 4 50 mean: 12 noise median: 3 should be '5'

• In either the regressogram or the running mean smoother, we tend to use the median of  $y_n$  instead of mean if there is noise in data.

 In general, the median is a more robust statistic than the mean.

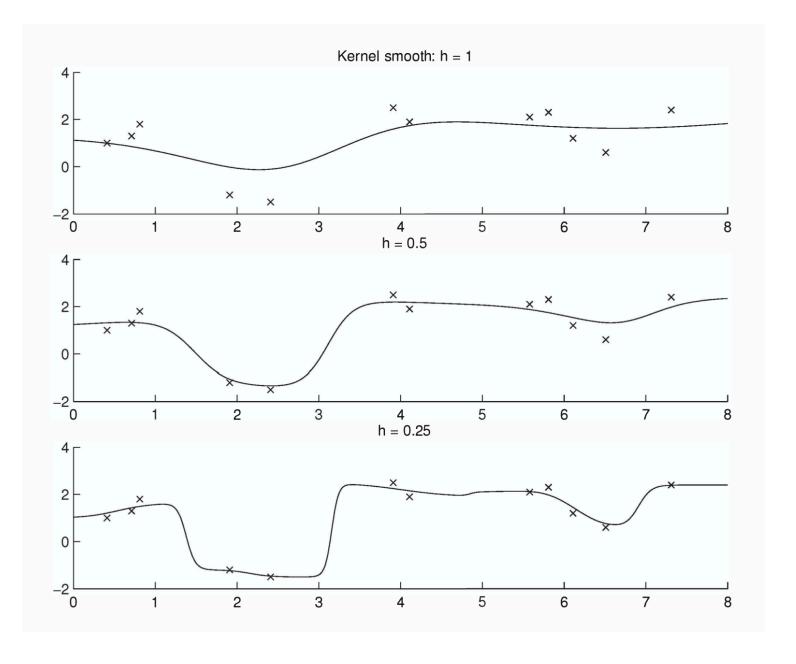
### kernel smoother

We can also use a smooth kernel K

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{x - x_n}{h}\right) y_n}{\sum_{t=1}^{N} K\left(\frac{x - x_n}{h}\right)}$$

- In nonparametric methods, a "kernel" is mainly used as a device for localization.
- Later in the course, we will talk about "kernel methods". In that context, kernels are used for nonlinear embedding.

### kernel smoother



# remark concerning matrix calculus

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial A} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial A_i}\right)_{i \in I}$$
same shape as A
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial A_i} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial A_i}\right)_{i \in I}$$
(Also denoted as  $\nabla_A f$ ) watrix
or tensor

or tensor

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial a}$$
 is a vector whose i-th entry is  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial a_i}$ 
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial A}$ 
 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial A}$ 

In some cases, there are nice formulae so that we can work directly with vectors/ matrices.

eg 1. 
$$f(\vec{x}) = \vec{a}^T \vec{x} = \sum_i a_i x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = a_i$$
Therefore,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{x}}$  is a vector whose i-th entry is a vector whose i-th entry is a vector whose i =  $\vec{a}$ 

$$\underbrace{e.g. 2}_{f(\vec{x})} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} \quad \text{where} \quad A = A^T.$$

$$\underbrace{f(\vec{x})}_{f(\vec{x})} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} \sum_{j} \chi_i A_{ij} \chi_j = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} A_{ii} \chi_i^2 + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} \sum_{i \neq j} \chi_i A_{ij} \chi_j$$

$$\underbrace{+ \frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} \sum_{i \neq j} \sum_{i \neq j} \chi_i A_{ji} \chi_i$$

$$\underbrace{= \frac{1}{2}}_{\vec{x}} A_{ii} \chi_i^2 + \underbrace{\sum_{i \neq j}}_{\vec{x}} \sum_{i \neq j} A_{ij} \chi_j \chi_i$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} A_{ii} \chi_{i}^{2} + \sum_{i \neq j} \sum_{A_{ij} \chi_{j} \chi_{i}} Z_{i} \chi_{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} A_{ii} \chi_{i}^{2} + \sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} \chi_{j} \chi_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{j=i} A_{ij} \chi_{j} + \sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} \chi_{j}$$

$$= \sum_{j=i} A_{ij} \chi_{j} + \sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} \chi_{j}$$

$$= \underbrace{z}_{s} A_{ij} \chi_{s} = A_{i} \overrightarrow{\chi} = (A \overrightarrow{\chi})_{i}$$

$$A \xrightarrow{i-th} vow \text{ at } A$$

Therefore.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \vec{x}}$$
 is a vector whose ith entry is given by  $(A\vec{x})_i$ .

That is,  $\frac{2f}{2\vec{x}} = A\vec{x}$ .

e.g. 3. 
$$f(A) = tr(A^{-1}B)$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial A_{ij}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial A_{ij}} tr(A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(\frac{\partial}{\partial A_{ij}} A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}A^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-A^{-1}B^{-1}B)$$

$$= tr(-B^{-1}A^{-1}B^{-1}B)$$

$$= -B^{-1}A^{-1}B^{-1}B^{-1}B$$

$$= (i,j)-th \ entry \ of (A^{-1}B^{-1}B^{-1})^{-1}$$

Therefore,  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial A} = (A^{-1} B A^{-1})^{T}$ 

## K-means and EM

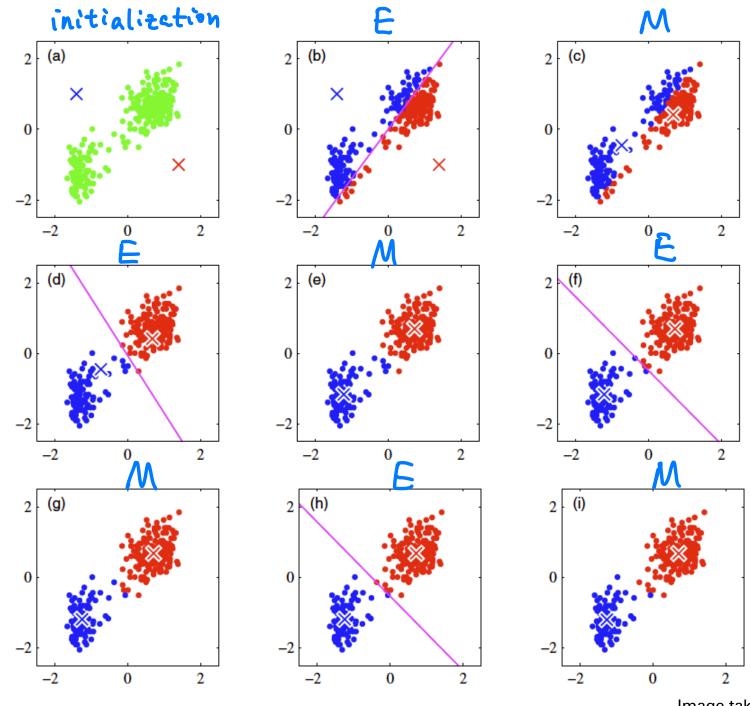


Image taken from [Bi]

- We can assume K "centers" of the clusters, denoted by  $\mu_1, \cdots, \mu_K$
- We would like that the "total distance" between data points is small:

$$J = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{nk} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2$$

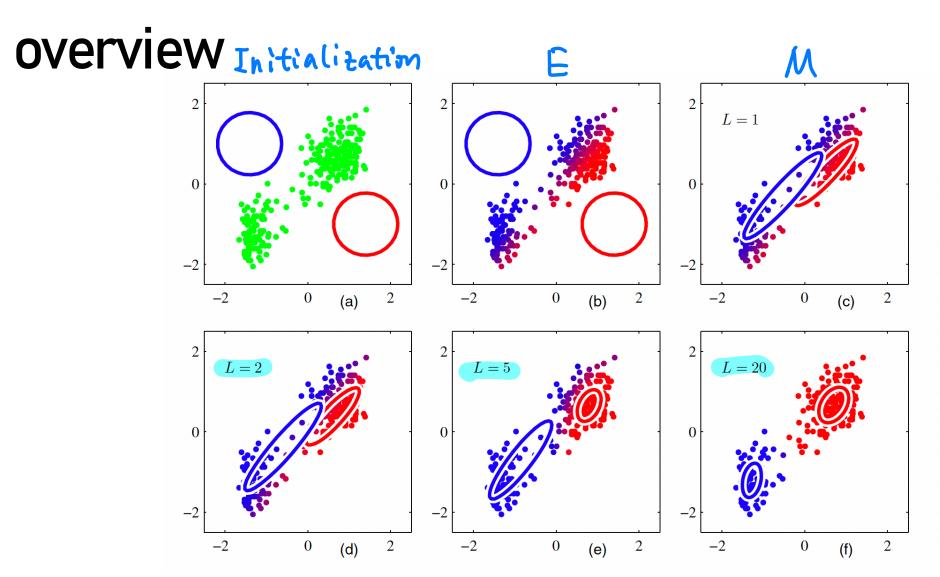
#### indicator:

- $r_{nk} = 1$  if  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is assigned to the k-th class
- $r_{nk} = 0$  if  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is not assigned to the k-th class

- To minimize J, we need to deal with both  $\{r_{nk}\}$  and  $\{\mu_k\}$ , which is difficult if we want to find the global minimizer.
- Instead, we iteratively update  $\{r_{nk}\}$  and  $\{\mu_k\}$ :
  - 1. (Initialization) randomly initialize  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$
  - 2. iteratively do the following until convergence: (E-step): for fixed  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$ , find  $\{r_{nk}\}$  that minimize J i.e., assign points to the closest center (M-step): for fixed  $\{r_{nk}\}$ , find  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_K$  that minimize J i.e., calculate the sample means

- K-means is "hard": assigning a point to a cluster deterministically.
- We may want to take a "softer" approach: need to consider a probabilistic view.

## EM for Gaussian mixture models



**Figure 9.8** Illustration of the EM algorithm using the Old Faithful set as used for the illustration of the K-means algorithm in Figure 9.1. See the text for details.

## semiparametric approach

- In the parametric approach, we assumed that the sample comes from a known distribution.
- In cases when such an assumption is untenable and a nonparametric approach is not informative, we use a semiparametric approach that allows a mixture of distributions to be used for estimating the input sample.

## Gaussian mixture model (GMM)

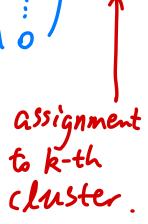
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- Let z be a random variable that denotes the clustering.
  - **z** is one-hot and  $z_k = 1$  implies choosing the k-th cluster.
- The marginal distribution over z is given by

$$p(z_k = 1) = \pi_k \Leftrightarrow P(t = e_k) = \pi_k$$

where the parameters satisfy

$$0 \leqslant \pi_k \leqslant 1$$
$$\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$$



## Gaussian mixture model (GMM)

· Similar to multi-class classification, we can write

$$p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{z_k}$$

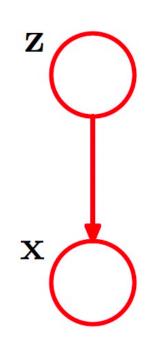
• In a Gaussian mixture model (GMM), the conditional distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$  satisfies

$$p(\mathbf{x}|z_k = 1) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

$$\uparrow(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{z} = \boldsymbol{e}_k)$$

• That is, each cluster is a Gaussian. We can write

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)^{z_k}$$



Gaussian mixture model (GMM) 
$$p(\mathbf{z} = e_k) \quad p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z} = e_k)$$
 • Therefore, 
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

By Bayes' Theorem,

ayes' Theorem, 
$$\gamma(z_k) \equiv p(z_k=1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(z_k=1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_k=1)}{\frac{K}{K}}$$
 "responsibility" 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{K} p(z_j=1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_j=1)$$
 explaining  $\mathbf{x}$  
$$= \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{K}.$$

$$rac{K_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|oldsymbol{\mu}_{k},oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})}{\sum_{j=1}^{K}\pi_{j}\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|oldsymbol{\mu}_{j},oldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j})}$$

#### Questions?

#### Reference

- Matrix Calculus
  - [Bi] Appendix C
- K-means:
  - [Al] Ch.7.3
  - [HaTF] Ch.13.2.1
  - [Bi] Ch.9.1
- *EM*:
  - [Al] Ch.7.2, 7.4
  - [HaTF] Ch.13.2.3
  - [Bi] Ch.9.2-9.4
- Spectral clustering:
  - [Al] Ch.6.12 7.7
  - [HaTF] Ch.14.5.3

