

# Unsupervised Learning

- data unlabelled and unclassified information analyzed to discover hidden knowledge
- predict outcome variable  $Y$  on the basis of feature set  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  using regression and classification - supervised learning
- unsupervised learning - observe features  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  - not going to predict any any outcome variable
- interest is to find out
  - ▶ the association between features or
  - ▶ their grouping to understand the nature of the data,
  - ▶ reveal correlation between features,
  - ▶ behaviour within subgroup of data
- in statistics, supervised learning - try to learn probability of outcome  $Y$  for a particular input  $X$  which is called the posterior probability



# Unsupervised Learning

- unsupervised learning is related to density estimation in statistics
- input, target - a new set of inputs  $\{(X_1, Y_1), (X_2, Y_2), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)\}$
- better understanding of the correlation of  $X$  and  $Y$ , this probability notation is called joint probability
- movie promotions to correct group of people - recommendation system
- blind push of same data to all demography - everyone watches the same poster or trailer
- irrespective of their choice or preference
- results into ignoring it, waste of effort and money on promotion
- database to understand what type of movie liked by segment of demography
- ML finds out the pattern or repeated behaviour of small group or cluster within this database



# Unsupervised Learning

- like or dislike, relevant movie promotion or trailers pushed to the selected groups
- increase the chance of targeting the right interested person for the movie
- clustering - discovering unknown subgroups in data
- association analysis - identifies low dimensional presentation of observations
- explain variance and identify association rule for explanation
- identification of relationships among objects in a data set
- unsupervised learning works on uncategorized and unlabelled data
- segmentation of target consumer populations by consulting agency on the basis of
- demography, financial data, purchasing habit -
- advertisers can reach target consumers efficiently



# Unsupervised Learning

- anomaly or fraud detection in banking sector by identifying the patterns of loan defaulters
- image processing - segmentation - face recognition, expression identification
- genetic application - grouping based on characteristics
- data scientists to reduce dimensionalities
- AI and ML - chat bots, self driven cars
- **Clustering**: finding subgroups or clusters in the data set based on characteristics of the objects in the data,
  - objects within the group are similar - related to each other, and
  - different from - unrelated to objects from other groups
  - effectiveness - how similar or related objects within group and
  - how different or unrelated objects in different groups from each other



# Unsupervised Learning

- advertisements of new movie for promotional activity
- features: age, location, financial condition, political stability
- different type of campaign for different parts grouped accordingly to the data
- driving campaign in a targeted way
- different ways to group the set of people and arriving at different types of clusters
- applications
  - ▶ text data mining - text categorization, clustering, document summarization, concept extraction, sentiment analysis and entity relation modelling
  - ▶ customer segmentation - demographics, financial conditions, buying habits,



# Unsupervised Learning

- anomaly checking - anomalous behaviour, fraudulent bank transaction,
- unauthorized computer intrusion, suspicious movements on radar scanner
- data mining
- how clustering differs from classification, how clustering defines groups
- $k$ -means,  $k$ -medoids algorithms
- clustering - knowledge discovering - rather than prediction
- homogeneity within group
- goal is to create a model that relates features to an outcome or to other features model identifies patterns within data
- unlabelled objects given a cluster label which is inferred entirely from the relationship of attributes within data



# Clustering

- induction of faculty in university on particular subject
- list of research publications of faculty members from internet
- ML to group papers and infer expertise say, Statistics, Computer Science and Machine Learning
- closeness of points to each other to form a group or cluster
- clustering techniques
  - ▶ partitioning methods
  - ▶ hierarchical methods
  - ▶ density based methods





# Clustering

- partitioning methods

- ▶ uses mean or medoid to represent cluster centre
- ▶ distance based approach to refine cluster
- ▶ find mutually exclusive clusters of spherical or nearly spherical shape
- ▶ effective for small or medium data set

- hierarchical methods

- ▶ hierarchical or tree like structure through decomposition or merger
- ▶ distance based refinement nearest or furthest points in neighbouring clusters
- ▶ erroneous merges or splits can not be corrected at subsequent levels





# Clustering

- density based methods
  - ▶ identifying arbitrarily shaped clusters
  - ▶ cluster creation - identification of dense regions of objects in space
  - ▶ which are separated by low density regions
  - ▶ filter out outliers
- partitioning methods:  $k$ -means and  $k$ -medoid
- $k$ -means uses centroid, mean of group of points
- centroid does not correspond to an actual data point
- $k$ -medoid - medoid is always an actual data point



# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- assign each of  $n$  data points to one of  $K$  clusters
- $K$  is a user defined parameters as the number of clusters desired
- objective is to maximize homogeneity within clusters and maximize difference between clusters
- homogeneity and difference measured in terms of distance between objects or points in the dataset
  - 1 select  $K$  points in the data space and mark them initial centroids
  - loop:
    - 2 assign each point in the data space in the nearest centroid to form  $K$  clusters
    - 3 measure the distance of each point in the cluster from the centroid
    - 4 calculate the sum of squared error to measure the quality of the clusters
    - 5 identify the new centroid of each cluster on the basis of distance between points
    - 6 repeat above to refine until centroid do not change



# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- centroids are updated and points are reassigned to the updated centroids
- different numbers of starting cluster lead to completely different types of data split
- prior knowledge about number of clusters helps
- movie maker wants to cluster movies on budget high or low and casting star or non-star
- rule of thumb  $K = \sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}$
- for large data set this thumb rule does not work well
- efficiency is high but random chance that may not find optimal set of cluster



# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- Elbow method

- ▶ this method tries to measure the homogeneity or heterogeneity within the cluster for various values of  $K$
- ▶ helps in arriving optimal  $K$
- ▶ homogeneity will increase or heterogeneity will decrease with increasing  $K$  as the number of data points inside each cluster reduces with this increase
- ▶ more computations required
- ▶ after a certain point, the increase in homogeneity benefit is no longer in accordance with the investment required to achieve it, this point is known as elbow point

- Choosing initial centroids

- ▶ choose initial centroids properly
- ▶ random points chosen and refined in iterations - may leads to higher squared error in the final clustering
- ▶ assumption is that multiple subsequent runs will minimize the SSE and identify the optimal clusters



# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- effective approach is to employ the hierarchical clustering on sample points and then
- arrive at sample  $K$  clusters and then centroids of these initial  $K$  clusters are used as initial centroids
- recomputing cluster centroids
- proximities of data points from each other within cluster is measured to minimize the distances - Euclidean distance

$$\text{dist}(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

$$SSE = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{x \in C_k} \text{dist}(c_k, x)^2$$



# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- lower SSE better is representative position of centroid
- calculate SSE of each new centroid and arriving at optimal centroid identification
- after centroids are repositioned the data points nearest to the centroids are assigned to form the refined clusters
- centroid that minimizes the SSE of the cluster is its mean
- presence of outlier in data set - it can distort the mean value of clusters
- voronoi diagram - creates boundaries of clusters
- got initial clusters created by dashed lines from vertex of the clusters which is the point with the maximal distance from the centre of the clusters





# Clustering: $k$ -means algorithm

- aim is to minimize homogeneity within clusters and maximize the heterogeneity among different clusters
- cluster boundaries are refined on basis of new centroids and identification of nearest centroids for data points and reassigning them to the new centroids
- algorithm continues with update of centroid according to the new cluster and reassignment of the points until no more data points are changed due to centroid shift, it stops
- complexity  $O(nKt)$ ;  $t$  number of iterations,  $n$  number of data points,  $K$  is the number of clusters
- $k$ -means produce local optimum and not global optimum
- run algorithm multiple times with different cluster centres to identify optimal clusters
- initial  $K$  values to be set is a disadvantage





# Unsupervised Learning

- clustering is used as first step of identifying the subgroups within unlabelled set of the data then is used for classifying the new observed data
- software testing activity - identification of set of defects
- identify similar groups of defects, GUI related defects, business logic related defects,
- missing requirement defects, database related defects
- based on this grouping, item identified the developers to whom the defects should be sent for fixing
- $k$ -medoids - object based technique
- $k$ -means sensitive to outlier - means of data points are used as centroids



# Clustering: $k$ -medoids algorithm

- 1 –  $D$  data 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 10, 11, 25
- outlier is 25,  $K = 2$  initial cluster
- [1, 2, 3, 6] and [9, 10, 11, 25]; mean 3 and 14 respectively
- $SSE$  is 179,  $SSE = \sum_i (x - c_i)^2$
- if cluster [1, 2, 3, 6, 9] and [10, 11, 25]; mean 4.2 and 15.67
- $SSE$  is 113.84 lower, put point 9 in the cluster 1, 2, 3, 6 though the point nearer to 10 and 11
- skewedness is introduced due to outlier point 25 which shift mean away from centre of cluster



# Clustering: $k$ -medoids algorithm

- $k$ -medoids provides a solution to the above problem,
- instead of considering the mean of the data points in the cluster,
- $k$ -medoids considers  $k$  representative data points from the existing points in the data set as centre of the clusters
- assign the data points according to their distance from these centres to form  $k$  clusters

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{x \in C_i} dist(o_i, x)^2$$

- $o_i$  representative point or object of cluster  $C_i$
- $k$ -medoids groups  $n$  objects in  $k$  clusters by minimizing the  $SSE$
- less influenced by the outliers in the data



# Clustering: $k$ -medoids algorithm

- PAM partitioning around medoids algorithm
  - ➊ randomly choose  $k$  points in data set as initial representative points
  - ➋ loop:
    - ➌ assign each of remaining points to the cluster which has nearest representative point
    - ➍ randomly select a non-representative point  $o_r$  in each cluster
    - ➎ swap representative point  $o_j$  with  $o_r$  and compute the new  $SSE$  after swapping
    - ➏ if  $SSE_{new} < SSE_{old}$  swap  $o_j$  with  $o_r$  to form the new set of  $k$  representative objects
    - ➐ refine the  $k$  clusters on the basis of nearest representative point
    - ➑ logic continues until there is no change



# Clustering: $k$ -medoids algorithm

- in iterative process, all possible replacements are attempted until quality of clusters no longer improves
- if  $o_1, o_2, \dots, o_k$  are current set of representative objects or medoids and
- non-representative object  $o_r$  - is good replacement if SSE decreases it means that  $o_r$
- represents the cluster better than  $o_j$  and the data points in the set are reassigned according to the nearest medoids
- $k$ -medoids provides effective way to eliminate the noise or outliers in the data set which was the problem in  $k$ -means algorithm
- complexity of  $k$ -medoids is  $O(k(n - k)^2)$



# Hierarchical clustering

- data needs to be partitioned into groups at different levels such as in a hierarchy
- try to group the data into hierarchy or tree-like structure
- organizing employees of university in different departments
- group under different department
- group within each department based on role, professors, assistant professor, supervisor, lab assistant -
- creates hierarchy, eases visualization and analysis
- discover underlying hierarchy structure in data set
- agglomerative clustering and divisive clustering
- agglomerative clustering - bottom up technique which starts with individual objects as clusters and then iteratively merges them to form larger clusters
- merges the clusters according to their similarity
- terminates when a certain clustering condition imposed is achieved



# Hierarchical clustering

- **divisive method** starts with one cluster with all given objects and then splits it iteratively to form smaller clusters
- top-down approach - end iterations when final clusters sufficiently homogeneous to each other
- split and merger should be done carefully, subsequent splits or mergers use result of previous one and
- swapping of object between clusters or rectify the decisions made in previous steps not possible, results in poor clustering quality
- dendrogram - tree structure representation of step-by-step creation of hierarchical clustering
- core measures of proximities between clusters is the distance between them
- four standard methods to measure the distance between clusters
- let,  $C_i$  and  $C_j$  two clusters  $n_i$  and  $n_j$  points respectively,
- $p_i$  and  $p_j$  represents points in clusters  $C_i$  and  $C_j$  respectively





# Hierarchical clustering

- minimum distance  $D_{min}(C_i, C_j) = \min_{p_i \in C_i, p_j \in C_j} \{|p_i - p_j|\}$
- similarly, maximum distance, average distance
- $D_{avg}(C_i, C_j) = \frac{1}{n_i n_j} \sum_{p_i \in C_i, p_j \in C_j} |p_i - p_j|$
- mean distance
- these distance measures used to decide when to terminate the clustering
- nearest neighbour clustering
- user defined limit on  $D_{min}$  called single linkage algorithm
- furthestest neighbour clustering
- user defined limit on  $D_{max}$  called complete linkage algorithm
- mean or average distance avoids outlier and noisy data



# Clustering: Density based method DBSCAN

- partitioning and hierarchical clustering - resulting clustering spherical or nearly spherical in nature
- other shaped cluster, S-shaped or uneven shaped clusters, density based clustering used
- identifying the dense area and sparse area within the data set and then run the clustering algorithm
- DBSCAN density based algorithm creates cluster by using connected regions with high density



# Unsupervised Learning: Association Rule Mining

- association rules based analysis - set of frequent items
- market basket analysis
- retailers use for cross-selling of their products



# Association Rule Mining

- low support indicates the rule has occurred by chance
- rule may not be very attractive
- support can provide the intelligence of identifying the most interesting rules for analysis
- confidence provides measurement for reliability of the inference of a rule
- higher confidence of rule  $X \rightarrow Y$  denotes more likelihood of to be present in
- transactions that contain  $X$  as it is the estimate of the conditional probability of  $Y$  given  $X$
- association rule used in context of big data and data science
- unsupervised knowledge discovery: discovering association rule
- minimum support and minimum confidence of the association rule
- $support \geq minS$  and  $confidence \geq minC$



# Unsupervised learning - Density estimation

- aim to represent data in some way
- data points themselves as representation of the data - not helpful when dataset is huge
- interested in representing characteristics of the data
- **density estimation** - represent data compactly using a density from a parametric family e.g. Gaussian or Beta distribution
- mean and variance of a dataset in order to represent the data compactly using Gaussian distribution





# Density estimation

- dataset to be a typical realization from this distribution if we were to sample from it
- Gaussian have limited modeling capabilities
- Gaussian approximation of the density that generated the data may be a poor approximation
- more expressive family of distributions - can be used for density estimation: **mixture models**
- mixture models can be used to describe a distribution
- $p(\mathbf{x})$  by a convex combination of  $K$  simple or base distributions

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k p_k(\mathbf{x})$$

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



# Density estimation

- components  $p_k$  are members of a family of basic distributions e.g. Gaussians, Bernoullis, Gammas and  $\pi_k$  are mixture weights
- mixture models are more expressive than the corresponding base distributions
- allow for multimodal data representations
- describe datasets with multiple clusters
- Gaussian mixture models GMMs - basic distributions are Gaussians
- for a given dataset, aim to maximize the likelihood of the model parameters to train the GMM
  - ▶ will not find a closed form maximum likelihood solution
  - ▶ will arrive at a set of dependent simultaneous equations which can be solved iteratively





# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- it is density model - combine finite number of  $K$  Gaussian distributions  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$  so that

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

- $\boldsymbol{\theta} := \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k, \pi_k : k = 1, \dots, K\}$  as collection of all parameters of the model
- convex combination of Gaussian distribution gives more flexibility for modeling complex densities than a simple Gaussian distribution

$$p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0.5\mathcal{N}(x|-2, \frac{1}{2}) + 0.2\mathcal{N}(x|1, 2) + 0.3\mathcal{N}(x|4, 1)$$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- Parameter learning via Maximum Likelihood
- given a dataset  $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$   $\mathbf{x}_n; n = 1, \dots, N$  are drawn i.i.d. from an unknown distribution  $p(\mathbf{x})$
- objective is to find a good approximation / representation of this unknown distribution  $p(\mathbf{x})$  by means of a GMM with  $K$  mixture components
- the parameters of the GMM are the  $K$  means  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ , the covariances  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k$ , mixture weights  $\pi_k$
- parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta} := \{\pi_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k : k = 1, \dots, K\}$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- say, one dimensional dataset  $\mathcal{X} = \{-3, -2.5, -1, 0, 2, 4, 5\}$
- find a GMM with  $K = 3$  components that models the density of the data
- initialize the mixture components as

$$p_1(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|-4, 1)$$

$$p_2(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|0, 0.2)$$

$$p_3(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|8, 3)$$

- assign them equal weights  $\pi_1 = \pi_2 = \pi_3 = \frac{1}{3}$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- maximum likelihood estimate  $\theta_{ML}$  of the model parameters  $\theta$
- likelihood, i.e., the predictive distribution of the training data given the parameters
- i.i.d. assumption, leads to factorized likelihood

$$p(\mathcal{X}|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad p(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

- every individual likelihood term  $p(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta)$  is a Gaussian mixture density
- log likelihood

$$\log p(\mathcal{X}|\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \log p(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta) = \mathcal{L}$$

$$\mathcal{L} := \sum_{n=1}^N \log \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- for all three necessary conditions, applying chain rule
- partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})} \frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k, \pi_k, k = 1, \dots, K\}$  are model parameters

$$\frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})} = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)}$$



define the quantity

$$r_{nk} := \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)}$$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- as responsibility of the  $k$ th mixture component for the  $n$ th data point
- the responsibility  $r_{nk}$  of the  $k$ th mixture component for data point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  is proportional to the likelihood

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

of the mixture component  $k$  given the data point

- $r_n$  follows a Boltzmann/Gibbs distribution
- mixture components have a high responsibility for a data point when the data point could be a plausible sample from that mixture component
- $\mathbf{r}_n := [r_{n1}, \dots, r_{nK}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^K$  a normalized probability vector i.e.,  $\sum_k r_{nk} = 1$  with  $r_{nk} \geq 0$



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- this probability vector distributes probability mass among the  $K$  mixture components
- $\mathbf{r}_n$  as a soft assignment of  $\mathbf{x}_n$  to the  $K$  mixture components
- responsibility  $r_{nk}$  represents the probability that  $\mathbf{x}_n$  has been generated by the  $k$ th mixture component

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.057 & 0.943 & 0.0 \\ 0.001 & 0.999 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.066 & 0.934 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times K}$$





# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- $n$ th row tells us the responsibilities of all mixture components for  $x_n$
- sum of all  $K$  responsibilities for a data point (sum of every row) is 1
- $k$ th column gives us an overview of responsibility of the  $k$ th mixture component
- sum of all entries of a column gives us the values  $N_k$ , total responsibilities of the  $k$ th mixture component  
 $N_1 = 2.058, N_2 = 2.008, N_3 = 2.934$
- updates of model parameters for given responsibilities
- update equations all depend on the responsibilities, which makes a closed form solution to the maximum likelihood estimation problem impossible



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- for a given responsibilities, updating one model parameter at a time, while keeping the others fixed and recompute the responsibilities,
- iterating these two steps converges to a local optimum and is a specific instantiation of EM algorithm
- update of mean parameters  $\mu_k$   $k = 1, \dots, K$  is given by

$$\mu_k^{new} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk}}$$

- update of means  $\mu_k$  of individual mixture components depends on all means, covariance matrices  $\Sigma_k$  and mixture weights  $\pi_k$  via  $r_{nk}$
- so it is not possible to obtain a closed-form solution for all  $\mu_k$  at once



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- update of covariance parameters  $\Sigma_k$   $k = 1, \dots, K$

$$\Sigma_k^{new} = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T$$

$$N_k := \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk}$$

- updating mixture weights

$$\pi_k^{new} = \frac{N_k}{N}$$

$k = 1, \dots, K$ ,  $N$  number of data points

- the above updates of parameters, not possible to obtain closed form solution because
- responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  depend on those parameters in a complex way



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- EM expectation maximization algorithm proposed by Dempster et al.
- a general iterative scheme for learning parameters in mixture models, more generally, latent-variable models through maximum likelihood or MAP
- for Gaussian mixture model - choose initial values for  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k$  and alternate until convergence between
  - ▶ *E-step*: evaluate the responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  (posterior probability of data points  $n$  belonging to mixture component  $k$ )
  - ▶ *M-step*: use updated responsibilities to reestimate the parameters  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k$
- every step in the EM algorithm increases the log-likelihood function
- for convergence, check log-likelihood for the parameters directly



# Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

- EM algorithm is as follows

- 1 initialize  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k$
- 2 *E-step*: evaluate responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  for every data point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  using current parameters  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k$

$$r_{nk} := \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_j, \Sigma_j)}$$

- 3 *M-step*: reestimate  $\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k$  using the current responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  (from E-step)

$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n$$

$$\Sigma_k = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T$$

$$\pi_k = \frac{N_k}{N}$$



# Latent-Variable Model

- looking at GMM from perspective of a discrete latent-variable model
- latent variable  $z$  can attain only a finite set of values
- it is in contrast to PCA, where latent variables were continuous valued numbers in  $\mathbb{R}^M$
- advantages of probabilistic perspective are
  - ▶ it allows for a concrete interpretation of responsibilities as posterior probabilities
  - ▶ iterative algorithm for updating the model parameters can be derived using the EM algorithm for maximum likelihood parameter estimation in latent variable models
- generative process and probabilistic model
- to derive the probabilistic model for GMMs, it is useful to think about the generative process, i.e.,
- the process that allows us to generate data, using a probabilistic model



# Latent-Variable Model

- assume a mixture model with  $K$  components and that a data point  $\mathbf{x}$  can be generated by exactly one mixture component
- introduce binary indicator variable  $z_k \in \{0, 1\}$  with two states
- that indicates whether the  $k$ th mixture component generated that data point so that

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

- define  $\mathbf{z} := [z_1, \dots, z_K]^T \in \mathbb{R}^K$  as a probability vector consisting of  $K - 1$  many 0s and exactly one 1
- for  $K = 3$  a valid  $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2, z_3]^T = [0, 1, 0]^T$ ; select second mixture component since  $z_2 = 1$
- other configurations  $[1, 0, 0]^T$  or  $[0, 0, 1]^T$





# Latent-Variable Model

- this kind of probability distribution is called multinoulli, a generalization of Bernoulli distribution
- properties  $\mathbf{z}$  imply that  $\sum_{k=1}^K z_k = 1$   $\mathbf{z}$  is one-hot encoding also known as 1-of-K representation
- it is assumed that indicator variables  $z_k$  are known
- in practice, this is not the case, place a prior distribution
- $p(\mathbf{z}) = \boldsymbol{\pi} = [\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K]^T$   $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$  on the latent variable  $\mathbf{z}$  then
- the  $k$ th entry  $\pi_k = p(z_k = 1)$  of this probability vector describes the probability that  $k$ th mixture component generated data point  $\mathbf{x}$



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- sampling from GMM - construction of latent variable model leads to simple sampling procedure called generative process to generate data
  - 1 sample  $z^{(i)} \sim p(z)$
  - 2 sample  $x^{(i)} \sim p(x|z^{(i)} = 1)$
- in the first step select a mixture component  $i$  via one-hot encoding  $z$  at random according to  $p(z) = \pi$
- second step draw a sample from the corresponding mixture component
- discard the sample of latent variable so that left with  $x^{(i)}$  - valid samples from the GMM
- samples of random variables depend on samples from the variable's parents in the graphical model called ancestral sampling



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- probabilistic model is defined by the joint distribution of the data and latent variables
- with prior  $p(\mathbf{z})$  and conditional  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$
- obtain all  $K$  components of this joint distribution via

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

for  $k = 1, \dots, K$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \begin{bmatrix} p(\mathbf{x}, z_1 = 1) \\ \vdots \\ p(\mathbf{x}, z_K = 1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi_1 \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1) \\ \vdots \\ \pi_K \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_K, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_K) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- to obtain  $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  in a latent variable model

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} := \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k, \pi_k : k = 1, \dots, K\}$$

- sum over all  $K$  possible one-hot encodings of  $\mathbf{z}$  by  $\sum_{\mathbf{z}}$
- there is only a single nonzero single entry in each  $\mathbf{z}$  there are only  $K$  possible configurations of  $\mathbf{z}$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, z_k = 1)p(z_k = 1|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \end{aligned}$$

- which is identified as GMM model



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- given a dataset  $\mathcal{X}$ , the likelihood

$$p(\mathcal{X}|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

- which is exactly the GMM likelihood
- the latent variable model with latent indicators  $z_k$  is an equivalent way of thinking about Gaussian mixture model
- posterior distribution on latent variable  $\mathbf{z}$ , according to Bayes' theorem
- the posterior of  $k$ th component having generated data point  $\mathbf{x}$

$$p(z_k = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(z_k = 1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_k = 1)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

$$p(z_k = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(z_k = 1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_k = 1)}{\sum_{j=1}^K p(z_j = 1)p(\mathbf{x}|z_j = 1)} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)}$$



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- extension to a full dataset, the concepts of prior and posterior can be extended to the case of  $N$  data points  $\mathcal{N} := \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$
- in the probabilistic interpretation of GMM, every data point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  possesses its own latent variable

$$\mathbf{z}_n = [z_{n1}, \dots, z_{nK}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^K$$

- conditional distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

- posterior distribution

$$\begin{aligned} p(z_{nk} = 1 | \mathbf{x}_n) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_{nk} = 1) p(z_{nk} = 1)}{\sum_{j=1}^K p(\mathbf{x}_n | z_{nj} = 1) p(z_{nj} = 1)} \\ &= \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} = r_{nk} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$





# Latent-Variable based Approach

- $p(z_k = 1|\mathbf{x}_n)$  is the posterior probability that  $k$ th mixture component generated data point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  and
- corresponds to responsibility  $r_{nk}$ ; mathematically justified interpretation as posterior probabilities
- EM algorithm - iterative scheme for maximum likelihood estimation can be derived from the latent variable perspective
- given a current setting  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$  of model parameters,
- the *E-step* calculates the expected log-likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x},\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}} [\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta})] \\ &= \int \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) d\mathbf{z} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$



# Latent-Variable based Approach

- the expectation of  $\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is taken with respect to the posterior  $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$  of the latent variables
- the *M-step* selects an updated set of model parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)}$  by maximizing the above equation
- although an EM iteration does increase the log-likelihood, there are no guarantees that EM converges to the maximum likelihood solution
- it is possible that EM algorithm converges to a local maximum of the log-likelihood
- different initializations of parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  can be used to reduce the risk of ending up in a bad local optimum



# CREDITS SOME CS GUY!



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