# Lecture 18: Cluster Analysis

Reading: Sections 8.5, 14.3

GU4241/GR5241 Statistical Machine Learning

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# Clustering

We assign a class to each sample in the data matrix. However, the class is not an output variable; we only use input variables.

Clustering is an **unsupervised** procedure, whose goal is to find homogeneous subgroups among the observations. It has wide applications in practice. Image segmentation, handwritten digit identification, vector quantization

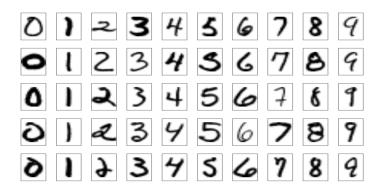
In this lecture, we will discuss 2 algorithms:

- ► Hierarchical clustering
- ► EM algorithm

We have discussed:

- ► K-means clustering
- ► K-medoids clustering

## Handwritten digit identification

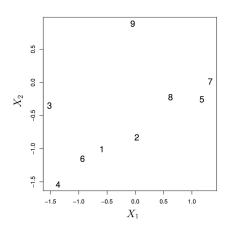


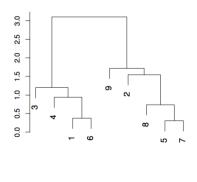
**FIGURE 11.9.** Examples of training cases from ZIP code data. Each image is a  $16 \times 16$  8-bit grayscale representation of a handwritten digit.

# Image segmentation

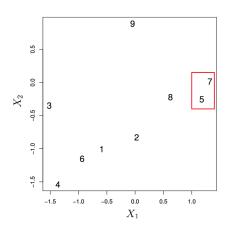


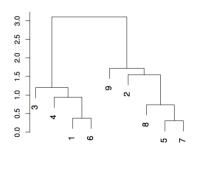
Most algorithms for hierarchical clustering are agglomerative.



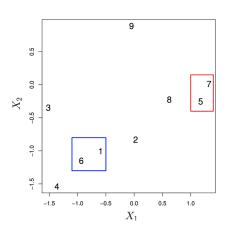


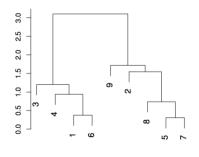
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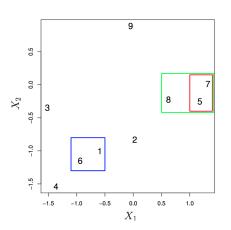


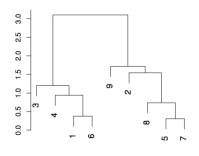
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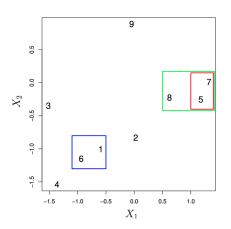


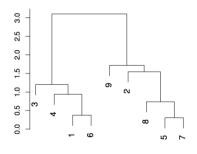
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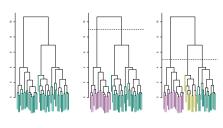


Most algorithms for hierarchical clustering are agglomerative.





We must be careful about how we interpret the dendogram.



ISL Figure 10.9

- ► The number of clusters is not fixed.
- Hierarchical clustering is not always appropriate.
  - e.g. Market segmentation for consumers of 3 different nationalities.
    - ► Natural 2 clusters: gender
    - ▶ Natural 3 clusters: nationality

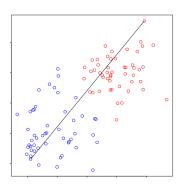
These clusterings are not nested or hierarchical.

At each step, we link the 2 clusters that are "closest" to each other.

Hierarchical clustering algorithms are classified according to the notion of distance between clusters.

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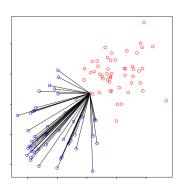


## Complete linkage:

The distance between 2 clusters is the *maximum* distance between any pair of samples, one in each cluster.

At each step, we link the 2 clusters that are "closest" to each other.

Hierarchical clustering algorithms are classified according to the notion of distance between clusters.

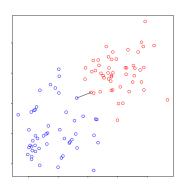


## Average linkage:

The distance between 2 clusters is the average of all pairwise distances.

At each step, we link the 2 clusters that are "closest" to each other.

Hierarchical clustering algorithms are classified according to the notion of distance between clusters.

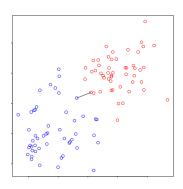


## Single linkage:

The distance between 2 clusters is the *minimum* distance between any pair of samples, one in each cluster.

At each step, we link the 2 clusters that are "closest" to each other.

Hierarchical clustering algorithms are classified according to the notion of distance between clusters.

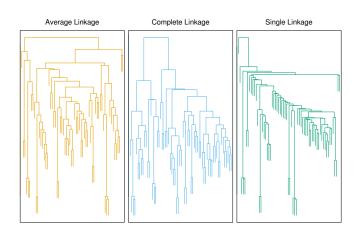


## Single linkage:

The distance between 2 clusters is the *minimum* distance between any pair of samples, one in each cluster.

Suffers from the chaining phenomenon

# Example



ESL Figure 14.13

#### Mixture Models

#### Mixture

For a parametric model  $p(x|\theta)$  and a probability density q, a distribution of the form

$$\pi(x) = \int_{\mathcal{T}} p(x|\theta) q(\theta) d\theta$$

is called a **mixture model**. The distribution given by q is called the **mixing distribution**.

## Interpretation

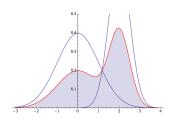
Mixtures describe two-stage sampling procedures. We can generate samples from  $\pi$  as follows:

- **1**. Sample  $\theta_i \sim q$ .
- 2. Sample  $X_i \sim p(.|\theta_i)$ .

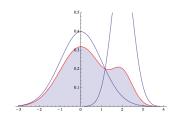
The distribution of a sample  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  generated in this manner has density  $\pi$ .

## Illustration

#### Mixture of two Gaussians



## Influence of the weights



The curve outlined in red is the mixture

$$\pi(x) = 0.5g(x|0,1) + 0.5g(x|2,0.5) ,$$

where g is the Gaussian density. The blue curves are the component densities.

Here, the weights  $c_1=c_2=0.5$  above have been changed to  $c_1=0.8$  and  $c_2=0.2$ . The component distributions are the same as above.

# Example: Continuous Mixture

## Example

We are mostly interested *discrete* mixing distributions, but  $\theta$  can be continuous variable, as in the following example.

## Mixture components

- 1. Sample  $\theta \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ .
- 2. Regard  $\theta$  as an inverse variance  $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} := \theta$  and sample

$$X \sim \mathsf{Normal}(0, \sigma)$$

#### Mixture distribution

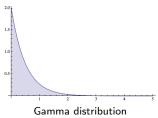
The distribution of X is the mixture with density

$$\pi(x|0,\nu:=\frac{\alpha}{\beta},\tau:=2\alpha)=\int_{\mathbb{D}_+}p_{\mathsf{Normal}}(x|0,1/\theta)q_{\mathsf{Gamma}}(\theta|\alpha,\beta)d\theta$$

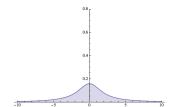
This is **Student's** t-distribution with parameters 0 (the mean of the normal),  $\nu$ ,  $\tau$ .

# Example: Continuous Mixture

## Mixture components



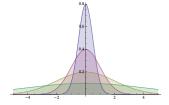
Mixture distribution



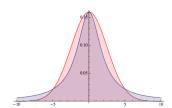
The mixture is a Student distribution.

Mixing over different variances results in

"heavy tails".



Normal distribution, different variances



Comparison: Normal distribution (red) vs Student distribution (blue)

## Finite Mixtures

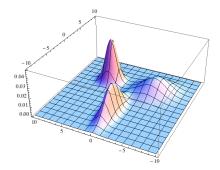
#### Finite Mixture Model

A finite mixture model is a distribution with density of the form

$$\pi(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k p(x|\theta_k) ,$$

where  $\sum_k c_k = 1$  and  $c_k \ge 0$ .

Example: Finite mixture of Gaussians



### Finite Mixtures

#### Interpretation as mixture

A mixture is of the form

$$\pi(x) = \int_{\mathcal{T}} p(x|\theta)q(\theta)d\theta$$
.

We choose q as

$$q = \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k \delta_{\theta_k}$$

for K fixed values  $\theta_k \in \mathcal{T}$ . Recall that integration against the Dirac distribution  $\delta_{\theta}$  "picks out" the function value at  $\theta$ .

The mixture with mixing distribution q is therefore

$$\pi(x) = \int_{\mathcal{T}} p(x|\theta) \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k \delta_{\theta_k} \right) d\theta = \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k \int_{\mathcal{T}} p(x|\theta) \delta_{\theta_k} d\theta$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k p(x|\theta_k) .$$

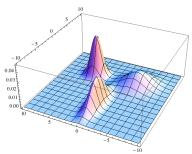
# Sampling

## Sampling from a finite mixture

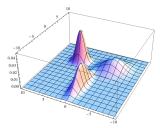
For a finite mixture with fixed parameters  $c_k$  and  $\theta_k$ , the two-step sampling procedure is:

- 1. Choose a mixture component at random. Each component k is selected with probability  $c_k$ .
- 2. Sample  $x_i$  from  $p(x|\theta_k)$ .

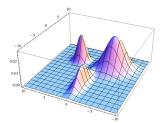
**Note:** We always repeat both steps, i.e. for  $x_{i+1}$ , we choose again choose a (possibly different) component at random.



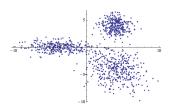
## Illustration: Mixture of Gaussian in 2D



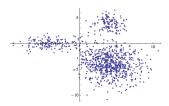
Plot of the mixture density.



Same components as above, with weight of one component increased.



A sample of size 1000.



A sample of 1000 points. Note how the relative size of one cluster has increased.

# Finite Mixtures and Clustering

### Clustering with finite mixtures

For a clustering problem with K clusters,

$$p(x|\theta_k) = \text{model of cluster } k$$

The weight  $c_k$  is the relative cluster size.

## Estimation problem

If K is fixed and given, the unknown parameters of a mixture model are the weights  $c_k$  and the cluster parameters  $\theta_k$ . The parameters of finite mixtures are estimated using a method known as the *EM algorithm*.

#### Mixture Estimation

#### Maximum likelihood for finite mixtures

Writing down the maximum likelihood problem is straightforward:

$$(\hat{\mathbf{c}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) := (\hat{c}_1, \dots, \hat{c}_K, \hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_K) = \arg\max_{\mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta}} \prod_{i=1}^n \left( \sum_{k=1}^K c_k p(x_i | \theta_k) \right)$$

The maximality equation for the logarithmic likelihood is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial(\mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k p(x_i | \theta_k) \right) = 0$$

The component equation for each  $\theta_k$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{c_k \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_k} p(x_i | \theta_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} c_k p(x_i | \theta_k)} = 0$$

Solving this problem is analytically infeasible (note that we cannot multiply out the denominator, because of the sum over i). Even numerical solution is often difficult.

### Latent Variables

#### Problems with ML estimation

- Solving the ML problem is difficult.
- For clustering, the maximum likelihood solution does not tell us which cluster generated each  $x_i$ .

## Cluster assignments

- ▶ The mixture assumption implies that each  $x_i$  was generated from one component.
- For each  $x_i$ , we again use an **assignment variable**  $m_i \in \{1, ..., K\}$  which encodes which cluster  $x_i$  was sampled from.

#### Latent Variables

Since we do not know which component each  $x_i$  was generated by, the values of the assignment variables are *unobserved*. Such variables whose values are not observed are called **latent variables** or **hidden variables**.

### Estimation With Latent Variables

## Latent variables as auxiliary information

If we knew the correct assignments  $m_i$ , we could:

- Estimate each component distribution  $p(x|\theta_k)$  separately, using only the data assigned to cluster k.
- ▶ Estimate the cluster proportions  $c_k$  as  $\hat{c}_k := \frac{\# \mathsf{points} \ \mathsf{in} \ \mathsf{cluster} \ k}{n}$ .

## EM algorithm: Idea

The EM algorithm estimates values of the latent variables to simplify the estimation problem. EM althernates between two steps:

- 1. Estimate assignments  $m_i$  given current estimates of the parameters  $c_k$  and  $\theta_k$  ("E-step").
- 2. Estimate parameters  $c_i$  and  $\theta_k$  given current estimates of the assignments ("M-step").

These two steps are iterated repeatedly.

# Representation of Assignments

We re-write the assignments as vectors of length K:

$$\mathbf{x}_i \text{ in cluster } k \qquad \text{as} \qquad M_i := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \longleftarrow k \text{th entry}$$

so  $M_{ik}=1$  if  $x_i$  in cluster k, and  $M_{ik}=0$  otherwise. We collect the vectors into a matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & \dots & M_{1K} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ M_{n1} & \dots & M_{nK} \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: Rows = observations, columns = clusters Row sums = 1, column sums = cluster sizes.

## E-Step

#### Hard vs soft assignments

- ▶ The vectors  $M_i$  are "hard assignments" with values in  $\{0,1\}$ .
- ▶ EM computes "soft assignments"  $a_{ik}$  with values in [0,1].
- Once the algorithm terminates, each point is assigned to a cluster by setting

$$m_i := \underset{k}{\operatorname{argmax}} a_{ik}$$

The vectors  $M_i$  are the latent variables in the EM algorithm. The  $a_{ik}$  are there current estimates.

## Assignment probabilities

The soft assignments are computed as

$$a_{ik} := \frac{c_k p(x_i | \theta_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K c_l p(x_i | \theta_l)}.$$

They can be interpreted as

$$a_{ik} := \mathbb{E}[M_{ik}|x_i, \mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = \Pr\{x_i \text{ generated by component } k \mid \mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta}\}$$

# M-Step (1)

## Objective

The M-Step re-estimates  ${\bf c}$  and  ${\boldsymbol \theta}$ . In principle, we use maximum likelihood within each cluster, but we have to combine it with the use of weights  $a_{ik}$  instead "switch variables"  $M_{ik}$ .

#### Cluster sizes

If we know which points belong to which cluster, we can estimate the cluster proportions  $c_k$  by counting point:

$$\hat{c}_k = \frac{\text{\# points in cluster } k}{n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n M_{ik}}{n}$$

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Since we do not know  $M_{ik}$ , we substitute our current best guess, which are the expectations  $a_{ik}$ :

$$\hat{c}_k := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}}{n}$$

# M-Step (2)

#### Gaussian special case

The estimation of the component parameters  $\theta$  depends on which distribution we choose for p. For now, we assume a Gaussian.

#### Component parameters

We use maximum likelihood to estimate  $\theta=(\mu,\Sigma)$ . We can write the MLE of  $\mu_k$  as

$$\hat{\mu}_k := \frac{1}{\# \text{ points in cluster } k} \sum_{i: \ x_i \text{ in } k} x_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n M_{ik} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n M_{ik}}$$

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By substituting current best guesses ( $=a_{ik}$ ) again, we get:

$$\hat{\mu}_k := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}}$$

For the covariance matrices:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_k := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k) (x_i - \hat{\mu}_k)^t}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}}$$

# **Notation Summary**

## Assignment probabilities

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1K} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \dots & a_{nK} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbb{E} \begin{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} M_{11} & \dots & M_{1K} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ M_{n1} & \dots & M_{nK} \end{pmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}[M_{11}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[M_{1K}] \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}[M_{n1}] & \dots & \mathbb{E}[M_{nK}] \end{pmatrix}$$

Rows = observations, columns = clusters.

#### Mixture parameters

$$au = (\mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$
  $\mathbf{c} = \text{cluster proportions}$   $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \text{component parameters}$ 

#### **Iterations**

 $\theta^{(j)}$ ,  $\mathbf{a}^{(j)}$  etc = values in jth iteration

# Summary: EM for Gaussian Mixture

#### Gaussian special case

$$\theta = (\mu, \Sigma)$$
 (mean & covariance)  $p(x|\theta) = g(x|\mu, \Sigma)$  (Gaussian density)

## Algorithm

The EM algorithm for a finite mixture of Gaussians looks like this:

- ▶ **Initialize:** Choose random values  $c_k^{(0)}$  and  $\theta_k^{(0)}$ .
- ▶ E-Step: Recompute the assignment weight matrix as

$$a_{ik}^{(j+1)} := \frac{c_k^{(j)} g(x_i | \theta_k^{(j)})}{\sum_{i=1}^{K} c_{ij}^{(j)} g(x_i | \theta_i^{(j)})}.$$

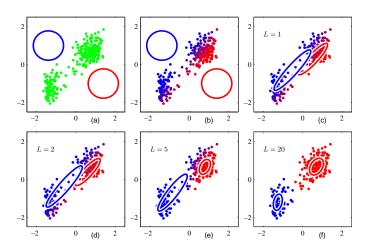
▶ M-Step: Recompute the proportions  $c_k$  and parameters  $\theta_k = (\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$  as

$$\mu_k^{(\mathsf{j}+1)} := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}^{(\mathsf{j}+1)} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}^{(\mathsf{j}+1)}}, \; \Sigma_k^{(\mathsf{j}+1)} := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}^{(\mathsf{j}+1)} (x_i - \mu_k^{(\mathsf{j}+1)}) (x_i - \mu_k^{(\mathsf{j}+1)})^t}{\sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik}^{(\mathsf{j}+1)}}$$

The E-Step and M-Step are repeated alternatingly until convergence criterion (e.g. threshold) satisfied.

### **EM**: Illustration

#### EM for a mixture of two Gaussians



The algorithm fits both the mean and the covariance parameter.

# Convergence Properties

#### Log-likelihood

It can be shown that the likelihood

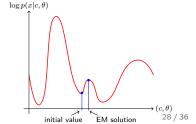
$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} \pi(x_i | \mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

always increases from each step to the next, unless  $(\mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$  is already a stationary point.

► The theory guarantees only that the algorithm terminates at a stationary point. That point can be a saddle point rather than a maximum (very rare problem).

## The real problem: Local maxima

- EM is effectively a gradient method.
- The maxima it finds are local maxima of the log-likelihood.



#### EM in Practice

## Comparing solutions

▶ If  $(\mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$  and  $(\mathbf{c}', \boldsymbol{\theta}')$  are two different EM solutions, we can always compute the log-likelihoods

$$\sum_i \log \pi(x_i | \mathbf{c}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$
 and  $\sum_i \log \pi(x_i | \mathbf{c}', \boldsymbol{\theta}')$ 

(no approximations or complications!).

- ▶ The solution with the higher likelihood is better.
- This is a very convenient feature of EM: Different solutions are comparable.

#### Random restarts

In practice, the best way to use EM is often:

- Restart EM repeatedly with randomly chosen initial values.
- ► Compute the log-likelihoods of all solutions and compare them.
- Choose the solution achieving maximal log-likelihood.

## K-means clustering algorithm

- 1. Assign each sample to a cluster from 1 to K arbitrarily, e.g. at random.
- 2. Iterate these two steps until the clustering is constant:
  - ▶ Find the *centroid* of each cluster  $\ell$ ; i.e. the average  $\overline{x}_{\ell,:}$  of all the samples in the cluster:

$$\overline{x}_{\ell,j} = \frac{1}{|\{i: C(i) = \ell\}|} \sum_{i: C(i) = \ell} x_{i,j} \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, p.$$

Reassign each sample to the nearest centroid.

# K-means: Gaussian Interpretation

#### K Gaussians

Consider the following algorithm:

- ▶ Suppose each  $\mu_k$  is the expected value of a Gaussian density  $p(x|\mu_k, \mathbb{I})$  with unit covariance.
- Start with K randomly chose means and iterate:
  - 1. Assign each  $x_i$  to the Gaussian under which it has the highest probability of occurrence (more precisely: highest density value).
  - 2. Given the assignments, fit  $p(x|\mu_k, \mathbb{I})$  by maximum likelihood estimation of  $\mu_k$  from all points assigned to cluster k.

## K-means: Gaussian Interpretation

## Comparison to K-means

- ▶ Since the Gaussians are spherical with identical covariance, the density  $p(x_i|\mu_k, \mathbb{I})$  is largest for the mean  $\mu_k$  which is closest to  $x_i$  in Euclidean distance.
- ▶ The maximum likelihood estimator of  $\mu_k$  is

$$\hat{\mu}_k := \frac{1}{|\{i : C(i) = k\}|} \sum_{i:C(i) = k} x_i$$

This is precisely the K-means algorithm!

# Clustering is riddled with questions and choices

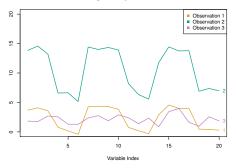
- Is clustering appropriate? i.e. Could a sample belong to more than one cluster?
  - Mixture models, soft clustering, topic models.
- ► Are the clusters robust?
  - ► Run the clustering on different random subsets of the data. Is the structure preserved?
  - Try different clustering algorithms. Are the conclusions consistent?
  - Most important: temper your conclusions.
- Should we scale the variables before doing the clustering.
  - ► Variables with larger variance have a larger effect on the Euclidean distance between two samples.

# Clustering is riddled with questions and choices

▶ Does Euclidean distance capture dissimilarity between samples?

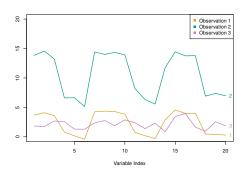
**Example:** Suppose that we want to cluster customers at a store for market segmentation.

- ► Samples are customers
- ► Each variable corresponds to a specific product and measures the number of items bought by the customer during a year.



### Correlation distance

- ► Euclidean distance would cluster all customers who purchase few things (orange and purple).
- Perhaps we want to cluster customers who purchase *similar* things (orange and teal).
- ► Then, the **correlation distance** may be a more appropriate measure of dissimilarity between samples.



### Fact of correlation distance

Correlation is defined by

$$\rho(x_i, x_{i'}) = \frac{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)(x_{i'j} - \bar{x}_{i'})}{\sqrt{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2 \sum_j (x_{i'j} - \bar{x}_{i'})^2}},$$

where  $\bar{x}_i = \text{mean of observation } i$ .

If observations are standardized:

$$x_{ij} \leftarrow \frac{x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i}{\sqrt{\sum_j (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2}},$$

then 
$$2(1 - \rho(x_i, x_{i'})) = \sum_j (x_{ij} - x_{i'j}))^2$$
.