# Machine Learning

#### **MIRI Master**

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LECTURE 7: Probabilistic clustering (k-means and E-M)

#### **Outline**

- 1. Introduction
- 2. The k-means algorithm
- 3. Choosing the number of clusters
- 4. Gaussian mixture models (MoGs)
- 5. The E-M algorithm for MoGs
- 6. Closing remarks

#### Introduction

The goal of **clustering** is to partition a data sample into groups ("clusters") in such a way that observations in the same cluster tend to be more similar than observations in different clusters

There are vary many (families of) algorithms in the literature:

Hierarchical bottom-up/top-down: single linkage, average linkage, Ward, ...

Probabilistic use MoGs: k-means and E-M

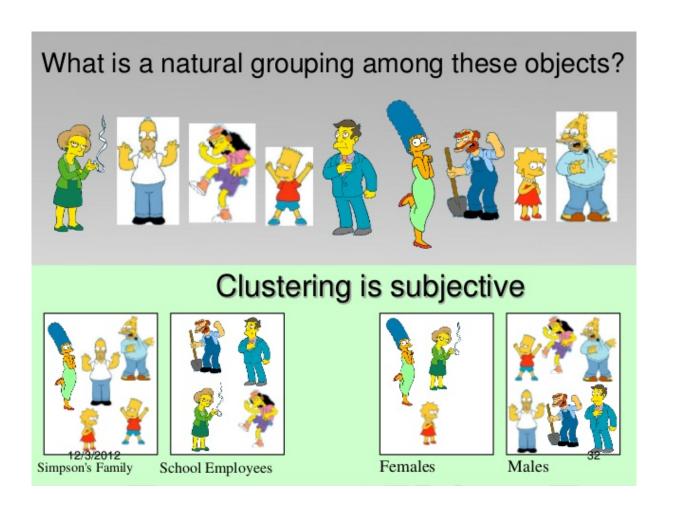
Possibilistic use memberships: fuzzy c-means clustering

Algorithmic greedy/hill-climbing (swapping elements between clusters, e.g. PAM)

**Spectral** use the spectrum (eigenvalues) of the data similarity matrix to perform dimensionality reduction before clustering in fewer dimensions

**Density-based** clusters are connected dense regions in the data space (e.g. DBSCAN)

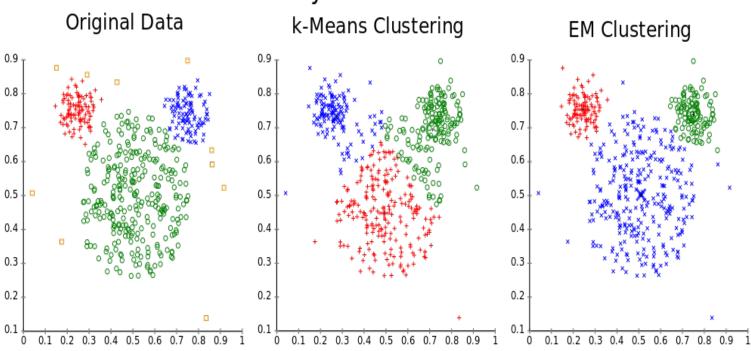
#### Introduction



Clustering is one of the more subjective ML tasks

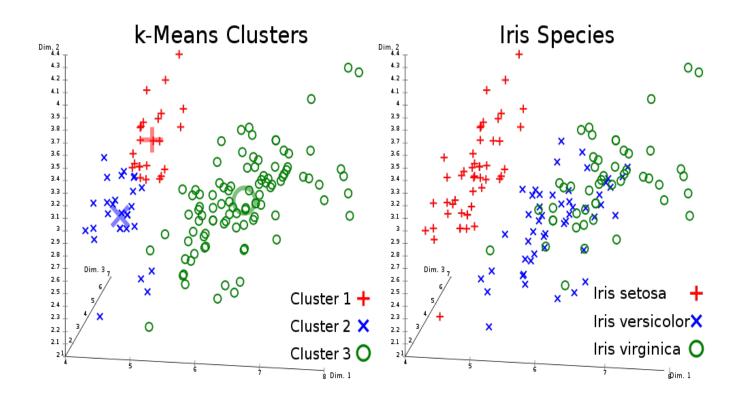
#### Introduction

Different cluster analysis results on "mouse" data set:



Every clustering methods "sees" the data differently

#### Introduction



We sometimes expect clusters to correspond to classes

#### Introduction

■ The number of different clusterings is astronomical:

$$S(N,K) = \frac{1}{K!} \sum_{k=1}^{K} (-1)^{K-k} {K \choose k} k^{N}$$

(number of ways to partition a set of N objects into K nonempty subsets: Stirling numbers of the second kind)

■ The sum over the possible K gives  $B(N) = \sum_{K=1}^{N} S(N,K)$ 

(number of partitions of a set with N members: the N-th Bell number)

$$S(10,4) = 35,105$$
  $S(19,4) \approx 10^{10}$   $B(71) \approx 4 \cdot 10^{74}$ 

#### The k-means algorithm

Consider the problem of grouping an i.i.d. data sample of N unlabelled observations  $D = \{x_n\}_{n=1,...,N}$ ,  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , into K disjoint groups.

Idea: introduce a set of prototypes (aka centroids: cluster centers)

$$\mathcal{P} = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_K\}, \ \boldsymbol{\mu}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

The goal is find  $\mathcal{P}$  such that the distances between every  $x_n$  and its assigned cluster (i.e. its prototype) are globally minimized

### The k-means algorithm

We introduce a set of indicator variables:

$$r_{nk} := \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \mbox{if } \pmb{x}_n \ \mbox{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

and an objective function:

$$J(\mathcal{P}) := \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{nk} \|x_n - \mu_k\|^2$$

### The k-means algorithm

The goal is to find  ${\mathcal P}$  and the  $\{r_{nk}\}$  that minimize  $J({\mathcal P})$ 

bad news: this is an NP-hard problem

illusion: if we have a pocket oracle ... then good news

1. if we asked the oracle for the right prototypes, optimizing for the assignments would be easy!

2. if we asked the oracle for the right assignments, optimizing for the prototypes would be easy!

### The k-means algorithm

1. Initialize the prototypes  ${\cal P}$ 

#### 2. repeat

- a) (re)compute the assignments  $\{r_{nk}\}$  in an optimal way
- b) (re)compute the prototypes  $\mathcal{P}$  in an optimal way
- 3. **until** no further changes in assignments (**or** max. number of iterations reached)

#### The k-means algorithm

Initialize the prototypes  ${\cal P}$ 

The preferred initialization method randomly chooses K observations from the data set and uses these as the initial prototypes  $\mu_k$ 

(Re)compute the assignments  $\{r_{nk}\}$  in an optimal way

$$r_{nk} = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 & \mbox{if } k = rg \min \| m{x}_n - m{\mu}_j \|^2 \\ 1 \leq j \leq K \\ 0 & \mbox{otherwise} \end{array} 
ight.$$

### The k-means algorithm

(Re)compute the prototypes  $\mu_k$  in an optimal way

The objective function

$$J(\mathcal{P}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{nk} ||x_n - \mu_k||^2$$

is quadratic on the  $\mu_k$ , therefore

$$\frac{\partial J(\mathcal{P})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_k} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \frac{\partial \|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_k} = 2 \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) = 0$$

#### The k-means algorithm

which gives:

$$\mu_k = \frac{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_n}{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk}}$$

the average (the centroid!) of those  $oldsymbol{x}_n$  currently assigned to cluster k

#### The k-means algorithm

#### **Advantages:**

- 1. Easy to implement and to apply
- 2. Pretty fast, even on large data sets, can be run many times

#### **Limitations:**

- 1. The loop ends up in a local minimum of  $J(\mathcal{P})$
- 2. We must specify the number of clusters K beforehand
- 3. Cluster assignments are "hard"
- 4. Initialization greatly influences the result

#### Choosing the number of clusters

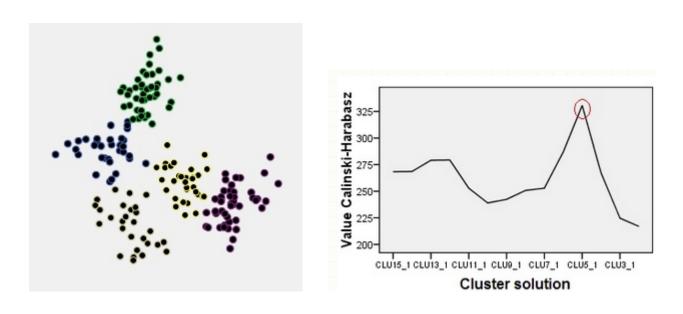
The Calinski-Harabasz index is defined as

$$\mathsf{CH}(K) := \frac{\sum\limits_{k=1}^{K} N_k \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\|^2}{\sum\limits_{k=1}^{K} \sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2} \cdot \frac{N-K}{K-1} = \frac{S_B}{S_W} \cdot \frac{N-K}{K-1}$$

 $S_B$  is the overall **between-cluster** scatter  $S_W$  is the overall **within-cluster** scatter

Well-defined clusterings will have a large  $S_B$  and a small  $S_W$ 

### Choosing the number of clusters



Left: scatterplot of data generated as 5 normally distributed clusters, lying quite close to each other

Right: clustering solutions from K = 15 clusters through K = 2 clusters against CH(K)

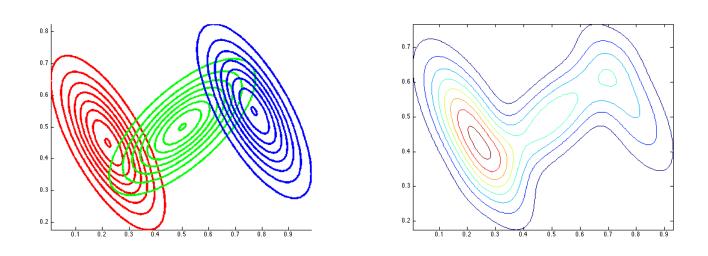
#### Gaussian mixture models

A **Mixture of Gaussians** (MoG) is a very flexible and elegant way for modelling an unknown density p(x) for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$p(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(x,k) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(x|k)P(k) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k N(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

- Every  $N(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$  is a multivariate Gaussian known as a **component** of the mixture
- The  $\pi_k$  are the mixture **coefficients**, such that  $0 \le \pi_k \le 1$  and  $\sum\limits_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$

#### Gaussian mixture models



Left: Three normally distributed clusters  $N(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k), k = 1, 2, 3$ 

Right: Mixture distribution p(x)

How do we sample from such a distribution?

#### Gaussian mixture models

**Assumption**: each data point is drawn from the MoG so it is assumed to have been generated by one of the Gaussians

... but we don't know which one!

**Idea**: there is a "theoretically complete" data set (x, z), where z indicates the true component of x

**Goal**: use an algorithm that "completes" probabilistic data sets: this is what the **Expectation-Maximization** (E-M) family of algorithms do

Notice the analogies clustering = MoG and cluster = component

#### Gaussian mixture models

Let us augment the x data with **latent** (unobserved) z data such that we have a **complete data** space (x, z):

- 1. We now have a joint distribution p(x,z) = p(x|z)P(z)
- 2. The  $z = (z_1, \dots, z_K)^T$  are such that only one  $z_k = 1$  (the rest are 0)
- 3. The  $m{z}$  vector represents the true membership of the corresponding  $m{x}$  to every one of the K clusters

#### Gaussian mixture models

The **marginal** distribution over z is:

$$P(z_k = 1) = \pi_k$$

therefore we may write

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

#### Gaussian mixture models

The **conditional** distribution of x given z is:

$$p(x|z_k=1) = N(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

therefore we re-write the mixture as

$$p(x) = \sum_{z} p(x|z)P(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(x|z_k = 1)P(z_k = 1) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k N(x; \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$$

#### Gaussian mixture models

The **conditional** distribution of z given x is:

$$P(z_{k} = 1|x) = \frac{p(x|z_{k} = 1)P(z_{k} = 1)}{p(x)}$$

$$= \frac{p(x|z_{k} = 1)P(z_{k} = 1)}{\sum_{\substack{K \ k=1}}^{K} p(x|z_{k} = 1)P(z_{k} = 1)}$$

$$= \frac{\pi_{k}N(x; \mu_{k}, \Sigma_{k})}{\sum_{\substack{j=1 \ j=1}}^{K} \pi_{j}N(x; \mu_{j}, \Sigma_{j})}$$

$$=: \gamma_{k}(x)$$

which has a nice Bayesian interpretation

#### Maximum likelihood

We have an i.i.d. sample of N unlabelled observations  $D = \{x_n\}_{n=1,\dots,N}$ ,  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , which we want to **model** as a MoG of K components.

Let us maximize the log-likelihood for  $\theta = \{\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k\}$ :

$$l(\theta) := \ln \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \ln \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k, \boldsymbol{\pi}_k\})$$

$$= \ln \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k N(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k N(\boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$

This optimization problem is nontrivial, because the mixture log-likelihood surface can have many local maxima

### The E-M algorithm

- The E-M algorithm<sup>(\*)</sup> is an iterative method for solving difficult likelihood problems in the presence of missing data
- In the mixture model context, the "missing data" are the latent labels  $z_k$  identifying the data component
- The E-M procedure guarantees convergence to a local maximum of the log-likelihood function (there is no guarantee of convergence to a global optimum)
- The procedure is often initialized from multiple randomly chosen initial conditions

<sup>(\*)</sup> Dempster, A.P.; Laird, N.M.; Rubin, D.B. (1977). Maximum Likelihood from Incomplete Data via the EM Algorithm. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, Series B 39 (1): 1-38

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

$$\frac{\partial l(\theta)}{\partial \mu_k} = 0$$

yields

$$\mu_k = rac{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_k(x_n) x_n}{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_k(x_n)} = rac{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} P(z_k = 1 | x_n) x_n}{\sum\limits_{n=1}^{N} P(z_k = 1 | x_n)}$$

the average of all  $x_n$ , weighted by the posterior probability that each instance was generated by the k-th component

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

$$\frac{\partial l(\theta)}{\partial \Sigma_k} = 0$$

yields

$$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(oldsymbol{x}_n)(oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu}_k)(oldsymbol{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathsf{T}} \ & \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(oldsymbol{x}_n) \ \end{aligned}$$

the sample covariance matrix of all  $x_n$ , weighted by the posterior probability that each instance was generated by the k-th component

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

Maximizing now 
$$l(\theta) + \lambda \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k - 1 \right)$$

The conditions 
$$\frac{\partial l(\theta)}{\partial \pi_k} = 0$$
 and  $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$  yield:

$$\pi_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_k(x_n)$$

the average, for all  $x_n$ , of the posterior probability that each was generated by the k-th component

#### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

- These update equations have the simple interpretation of being standard maximum likelihood estimates for mean, covariance and membership parameters, respectively, but where the data points are weighted by their membership probabilities
- The procedure is guaranteed to converge to a fixed point that need not be a global maximum and is a function of the initial conditions
- In practice, several different initial conditions can be tried (say, 10) and the maximum maximum likelihood among these selected

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

The procedure is often **initialized** by running k-means!

- 1. getting the  $\mu_k$  delivered by k-means
- 2. computing the sample  $\Sigma_k$  for each cluster
- 3. computing the  $\pi_k$  as the fraction of the  $x_n$  in each cluster

**Convergence** can be assessed by the changes in the  $l(\theta)$ 

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

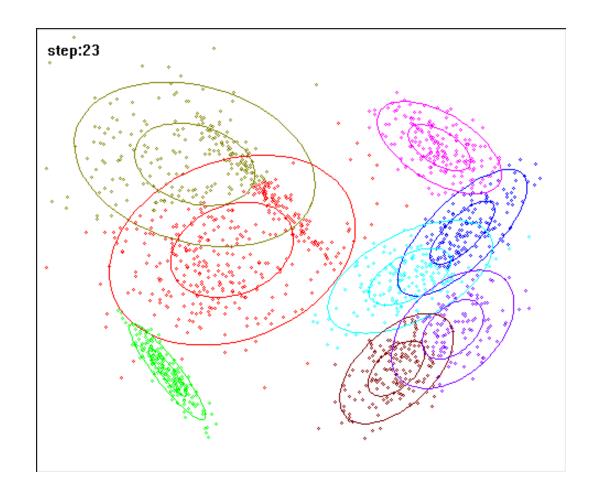
- 1. Initialize the  $\{ {m \mu}_k, {m \Sigma}_k, \pi_k \}$  using k-means
- 2. repeat

**E-step** (re)compute the assignments  $\gamma_k(x_n)$ 

**M-step** (re)compute the  $\{\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k\}$ 

3. **until** no further changes in  $l(\theta)$  are detected

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures



Nice E-M animation with K=8

### The E-M algorithm for Gaussian mixtures

Notice that the E-M cluster assignments  $\gamma_1(x_n), \ldots, \gamma_K(x_n)$  for a given  $x_n$  are "soft" (and sum to one)

It turns out that k-means is a degenerate case of E-M when  $\Sigma_k = \sigma^2 I$ 

Indeed, 
$$N(x; \mu_k, \sigma^2 I) = \frac{1}{\sigma(2\pi)^{d/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - \mu_k\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

It can be shown that, if we make  $\sigma^2 \to 0$ , then  $\gamma_k(\boldsymbol{x}_n) \to r_{nk}$  and hence

$$m{\mu}_k = rac{\sum\limits_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(m{x}_n)m{x}_n}{\sum\limits_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(m{x}_n)} 
ightarrow rac{\sum\limits_{n=1}^N r_{nk}m{x}_n}{\sum\limits_{n=1}^N r_{nk}}$$

#### Closing remarks: subjective considerations

- Why do we need clustering at all? What is the goal of clustering?
  - The same as any ML technique: finding regularities in data
  - One way of expressing regularity is to put a set of objects into groups that are similar to each other
- Benefits of a good clustering
  - 1. prediction
  - 2. lossy compression
  - 3. highlight interesting objects

### Closing remarks: conceptual considerations

- Where does the distance come from? What if we use a different distance between x and  $\mu$ ? How can we choose the 'best' distance?
- In mixture density modelling, the choice of distance corresponds to a choice of density; for example, standard Euclidean distance

$$d(x, y) = ||x - y||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

corresponds to Gaussian clusters with  $\Sigma_k = \sigma^2 I$  (yes, k-means)

What distance corresponds to a MoG?

### Closing remarks: how to handle other spaces?

■ In data analysis, there is a plethora of metrics for many data types; for example, when x, y are presence/absence (+/-) vectors:

$$d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{\#\{j/x_j \neq y_j\}}{\#\{j/x_j \neq -\land y_j \neq -\}}$$
 Jaccard distance

#### **Example:**

$$x = + - + - - - - - + - - -$$
  
 $y = - - + - - - + - - -$ 

then  $d(x,y) = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

 We can also embed the data in an Euclidean space (using MCA, MDS, ...)

### **Machine Learning**

### **Syllabus**

- 1. Introduction to Machine Learning
- 2. Theoretical issues (I): regression
- 3. Linear regression and beyond
- 4. Theoretical issues (II): classification
- 5. Generative classifiers
- 6. Discriminative classifiers

- 7. Clustering
- 8. Learning with kernels (I): The SVM
- 9. Learning with kernels (II): Kernel functions
- 10. Learning with kernels (III): Other kernel methods
- 11. Artificial neural networks (I): the MLP
- 12. Artificial neural networks (II): the RBF
- 13. Ensemble methods: Random Forests
- 14. Advanced topics and frontiers