# Density Estimation with Gaussian Mixture Models

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# Pre-train, Prompt, and Predict: A Systematic Survey of Prompting Methods in Natural Language Processing. Liu et al., ACM Computing Surveys, 2022.

Paradigm	Engineering	Task Relation
a. Fully Supervised Learning (Non-Neural Network)	Features (e.g. word identity, part-of-speech, sentence length)	CLS TAG
		GEN
b. Fully Supervised Learning (Neural Network)	Architecture (e.g. convolutional, recurrent, self-attentional)	CLS TAG
		GEN
c. Pre-train, Fine-tune	Objective (e.g. masked language modeling, next sentence prediction)	CLS TAG
		GÉN
d. Pre-train, Prompt, Predict	Prompt (e.g. cloze, prefix)	CLS TAG

Fine-tuning:
Given a pre-trained model,
Classify the sentiment of each sentence
into positive, negative, neutral

"I love this movie." label: *positive* 

Pre-training process:

#### Prompt and predict:

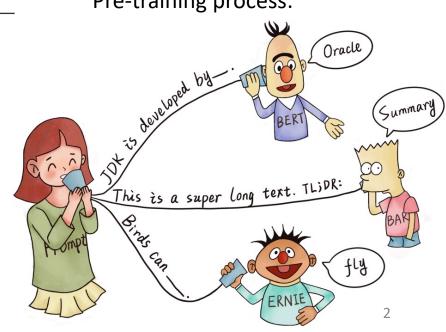
Given a pre-trained model, fill in the blank:

"I love this movie; Overall, it was a movie."

Your algorithm will fill "excellent", "great", etc.

#### Then, predict:

"excellent", "great" -> positive



#### What we learned last time

$$p(x \mid y) = \frac{\overbrace{p(y \mid x)}^{\text{likelihood}} \overbrace{p(x)}^{\text{prior}}}{\overbrace{p(y)}^{\text{posterior}}}$$
evidence



Suppose you are a detective

You observe a crime scene characterized by evidence/clues y

Given the scene, you want to know who the criminal is:  $p(x \mid y)$ 

You have 2 suspects  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ :

You ask yourself: how likely will  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  generate the crime scene?  $p(y \mid x)$ 

Does the fingerprint in y match  $x_1$  or  $x_2$ ?

Does the surveillance camera imaging match  $x_1$  or  $x_2$ ?

You then ask yourself: how likely will  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  commit a crime? p(x)

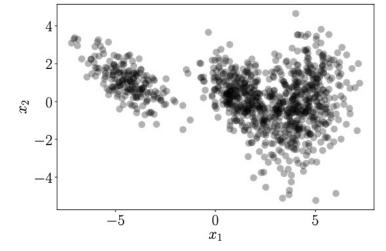
Do  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  have a history?

#### Motivation

• In practice, the Gaussian distribution has limited modeling capabilities.

• Below is a two-dimensional dataset that cannot be meaningfully represented by a

single Gaussian



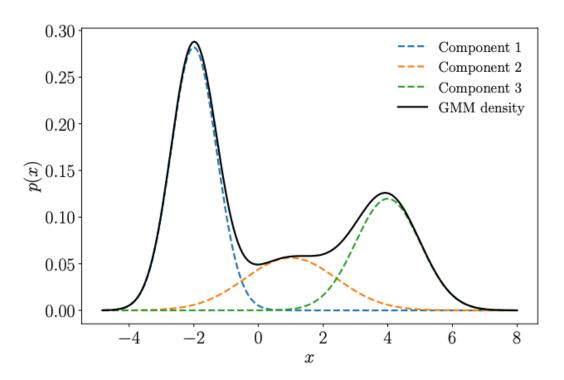
- We can use mixture models for density estimation.
- Mixture models can be used to describe a distribution p(x) by a convex combination of K simple (base) distributions

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

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

where the components  $p_k$  are members of a family of basic distributions, e.g., Gaussians, Bernoullis, or Gammas, and the  $\pi_k$  are mixture weights.

#### 11.1 Gaussian Mixture Model



The Gaussian mixture distribution (black) is composed of a convex combination of Gaussian distributions and is more expressive than any individual component. Dashed lines represent the weighted Gaussian components.

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

#### 11.1 Gaussian Mixture Model

• A Gaussian mixture model (GMM) is a density model where we combine a finite number of K Gaussian distributions  $N(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$  so that

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$
$$0 \le \pi_k \le 1, \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1$$

where we defined  $\theta := \{\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k : k = 1, \dots, K\}$  as the collection of all parameters of the GMM.

• GMM gives us significantly more flexibility for modeling complex densities than a simple Gaussian distribution.

# 11.2 Parameter Learning via Maximum Likelihood

- Assume we are given a dataset  $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$ , where  $x_n, n = 1, ..., N$ , are drawn i.i.d. from an unknown distribution p(x).
- Our objective is to find a good approximation/representation of this unknown distribution p(x) by means of a GMM with K components.

$$p(oldsymbol{ heta}|oldsymbol{x})$$
 posterior  $p(oldsymbol{x}|oldsymbol{ heta})$ 

What we want to get

Maximum likelihood optimization

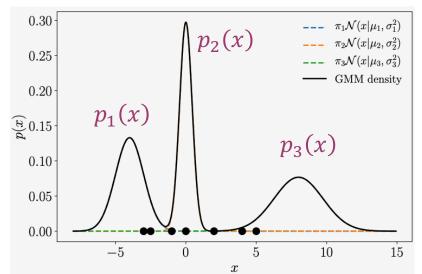
#### Example

- We consider a one-dimensional dataset  $X = \{-3, -2.5, -1, 0, 2, 4, 5\}$  consisting of 7 data points and wish to find a GMM with K = 3 components that models the density of the data.
- We initialize the mixture components as

$$p_1(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|-4,1)$$
  
 $p_2(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|0,0.2)$   
 $p_3(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|8,3)$ 

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

We can view the corresponding model and the data points below.



- How to obtain a maximum likelihood estimate  $\theta_{ML}$  of model parameters  $\theta$ ?
- We start by writing down the likelihood, i.e., the predictive distribution of the training data given the parameters. We exploit our i.i.d. assumption, which leads to the factorized likelihood

$$p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \qquad p(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \overline{\pi_k} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$
Observed data

Mixture proportion

where every individual likelihood term  $p(x_n|\theta)$  is a Gaussian mixture density.

• Then we obtain the log-likelihood (loss function) as

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

• We aim to find parameters  $\theta_{ML}^*$  (including  $\mu_k^*, \Sigma_k^*, \pi_k^*$ ) that maximize log-likelihood  $\mathcal{L}$  defined above.

• We obtain the following necessary conditions when we optimize the log-likelihood with respect to the GMM parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ ,  $\pi_k$ :

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}} = \mathbf{0}^{\mathrm{T}} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n_{\overline{N}}}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}} = \mathbf{0}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n_{\overline{N}}}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\pi}_{k}} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{n_{\overline{N}}}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\pi}_{k}} = 0$$

 For all three necessary conditions, by applying the chain rule, we require partial derivatives of the form

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

• where  $\theta = \{\mu_k, \Sigma_k, \pi_k : k = 1, \cdots, K\}$  are the model parameters and  $\frac{1}{p(x_n|\theta)} = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}\left(x_n \left| \mu_j, \Sigma_j \right.\right)}$ 

# 11.2.1 Responsibilities

We define the quantity

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

as the responsibility of the kth mixture component for the nth data point.

• We can see  $r_{nk}$  is proportional to the likelihood

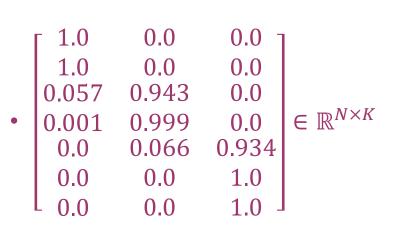
$$p(\mathbf{x}_n | \pi_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) = \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

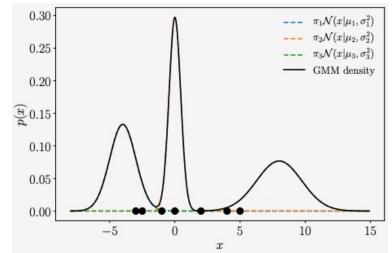
of the kth mixture component given the data point  $x_n$ .

- The responsibility  $r_{nk}$  represents the posterior probability that  $x_n$  has been generated by the kth mixture component
- Note that  $r_n := [r_{n1}, \cdots, r_{nK}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^K$  is a (normalized) probability vector, i.e.,  $\sum_k r_{nk} = 1$  with  $r_{nk} \ge 0$ .
- This probability vector distributes probability mass among the K mixture components, and we can think of  $\mathbf{r}_n$  as a "soft assignment" of  $\mathbf{x}_n$  to the K mixture components.

#### Responsibilities - example

• From the figure below, suppose we have computed the responsibilities  $r_{nk}$ 





- The *n*th row tells us the responsibilities of all mixture components for  $x_n$ .
- The sum of all *K* responsibilities for a data point (sum of every row) is 1.
- The *k*th column gives us an overview of the responsibility of the *k*th mixture component.
- The third mixture component (third column) is not responsible for any of the first four data points but takes much responsibility of the remaining data points.
- The sum of all entries of a column gives us the values  $N_k$ , i.e., the total responsibility of the kth mixture component. In our example, we get  $N_I = 2.058$ ,  $N_2 = 2.008$ ,  $N_3 = 2.934$ .
- We will determine the updates of the model parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ , and  $\pi_k$  for given responsibilities

- In GMM, we first initialize the parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ , and  $\pi_k$  and alternate until convergence between the following two steps
- E-step: Evaluate the responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  (probability of data point n belonging to mixture component k)
- M-step: Use the updated responsibilities to re-estimate the parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ , and  $\pi_k$

- Initialize  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ ,  $\pi_k$ . (below is an example)
  - $\pi_k = 1/K$  for all k
  - $\mu_k$ : centroids from k-means algorithm or using randomly chosen data points
  - =  $\Sigma$  the sample variance, for all k
- E-step: Evaluate responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  for every data point  $x_n$  using current parameters  $\pi_k$ ,  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ :

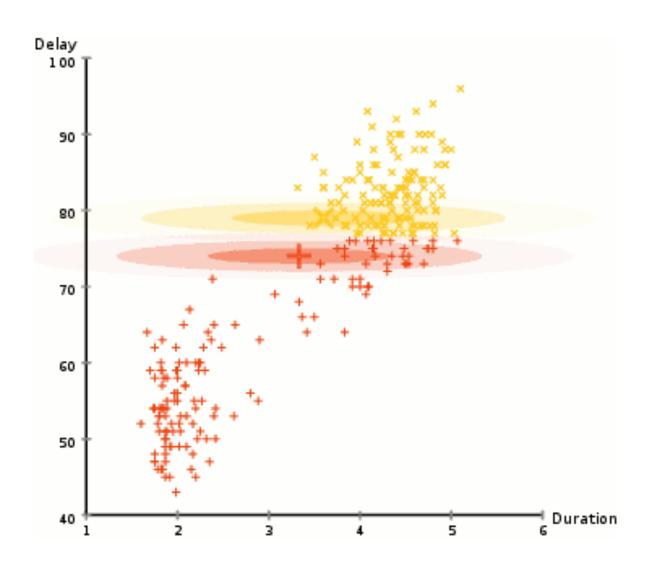
$$r_{nk} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_j \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)}$$

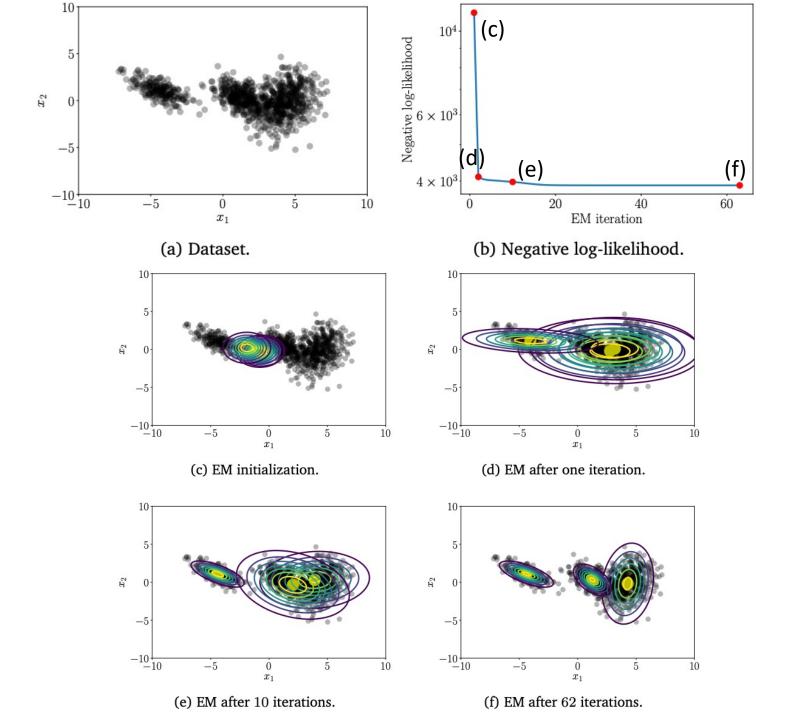
• M-step: Re-estimate parameters  $\pi_k$ ,  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$  using the current responsibilities  $r_{nk}$  (from E-step):

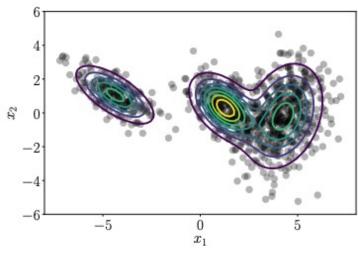
$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} x_n$$

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

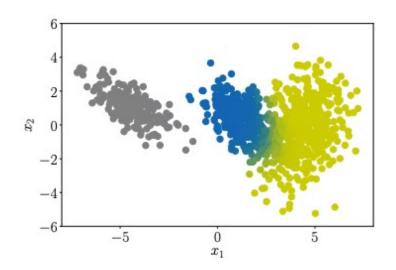
$$\pi_k = \frac{N_k}{N}$$







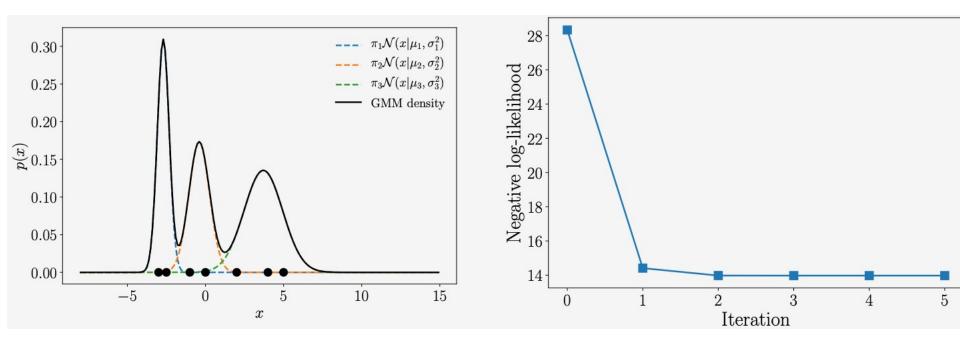




(b) Dataset colored according to the responsibilities of the mixture components.

- The dataset is colored according to the responsibilities of the mixture components when EM converges.
- A single mixture component is highly responsible for the data on the left.
- The overlap of the two data clusters on the right could have been generated by two mixture components.
- It becomes clear that there are data points that cannot be uniquely assigned to a single component (either blue or vellow), such that the responsibilities of these two clusters for those points are around 0.5.

• The final GMM is given as  $p(x) = 0.29 \mathcal{N}(x|-2.75, 0.06) + 0.28 \mathcal{N}(x|-0.50, 0.25) + 0.43 \mathcal{N}(x|3.64, 1.63)$ 



Final GMM fit. After five iterations, the EM algorithm converges and returns this GMM

Negative log-likelihood as a function of the EM iterations.

# Check your understanding

- Given a dataset generated by a mixture of 3 Gaussians, when we randomly sample a data point, it has the probability of 1/3 belonging to each Gaussian.
- A GMM is a linear combination of several Gaussian distributions.
- In GMM, K (number of Gaussians) is a hyperparameter.
- If a dataset is not generated by Gaussian distributions, it cannot be modeled by GMM.
- Maximum likelihood optimization comes from Bayes' theory.

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{X})$$
  $p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ 

#### 11.2.2 Updating the Means

- The update of the mean parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $k = 1, \ldots, K$ , of the GMM is given by  $\mu_k^{new} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} x_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk}}$
- Proof: Calculate the gradient of the log-likelihood with respect to  $\mu_k$
- Considering

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

We have

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

Recall our knowledge in multivariate Gaussian distribution and vector calculus 
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{1}{2}}exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu}))$$
 
$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{x}^T(\boldsymbol{B}+\boldsymbol{B}^T)$$

We have

$$\frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_k} = \pi_k (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} \mathcal{N} (\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

#### 11.2.2 Updating the Means

• The desired partial derivative of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to  $\mu_k$  is given as

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})} \frac{\partial p(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}},$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\boldsymbol{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \underbrace{\frac{\pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})}{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j=1}^{K} \pi_{j} \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{j}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j})}}_{= r_{nk}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1}$$

• We now solve the above gradient for  $\mu_k^{new}$  so that  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\mu_k^{new})}{\partial \mu_k} = \mathbf{0}^T$  and obtain

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{new} \iff \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{new} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}}{\left[\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk}\right]} = \frac{1}{\left[N_{k}\right]} \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}$$

where we define

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

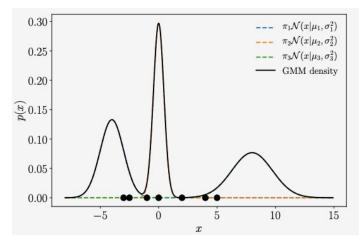
as the total responsibility of the kth mixture component for the entire dataset.

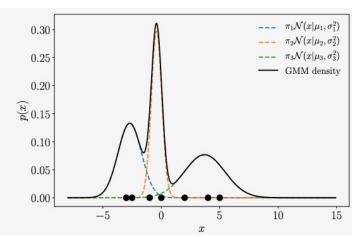
This concludes the proof.

# 11.2.2 Updating the Means

$$\mu_k^{new} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} x_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk}}$$

- · This is an importance-weighted Monte Carlo estimate of the mean.
- The importance weights of data point  $x_n$  is  $r_{nk}$
- Mean update





#### Initialization:

$$\mathcal{X} = \{-3, -2.5, -1, 0, 2, 4, 5\}$$

$$\pi_1 = \pi_2 = \pi_3 = \frac{1}{3}$$

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

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

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

$$\mu_1: -4 \longrightarrow -2.7$$

$$\mu_2: 0 \longrightarrow -0.4$$

$$\mu_3: 8 \longrightarrow 3.7$$

$$-2.7 = \frac{-3 \times 1 - 2.5 \times 1 - 1 \times 0.057 - 0 \times 0.001}{1 + 1 + 0.057 + 0.001}$$

• The update of the covariance parameters  $\Sigma_k$ , k = 1, ..., K is given by

$$\Sigma_k^{new} = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}}$$

• *Proof* We compute the partial derivatives of the log-likelihood  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to the covariances  $\Sigma_k$ , set them to  $\mathbf{0}$ , and solve for  $\Sigma_k$ . We start by

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_k} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_k} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta})} \frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_k}$$

• We already know  $1/p(x_n|\theta)$ . To obtain  $\partial p(x_n|\theta)/\partial \Sigma_k$ , we have,

$$\frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} \left( \pi_{k} (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right) \right) 
= \pi_{k} (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right) \right] 
+ \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})\right) \right]$$

From Vector Calculus, we have the following identities

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = -\frac{1}{2} \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) = -\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}$$

We obtain the desired partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k} = \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \cdot \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} \right) \right]$$

• Thus, the partial derivative of the log-likelihood with respect to  $\Sigma_k$  is given by

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_{k}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_{k}} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})} \frac{\partial p(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \mathbf{\Sigma}_{k}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \pi_{j} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{j}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{j})} \cdot \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \left( \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \right) \right]$$

$$= r_{nk}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \left( \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} + \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{-1} \right)$$

Setting this partial derivative to 0, we obtain the necessary optimality condition

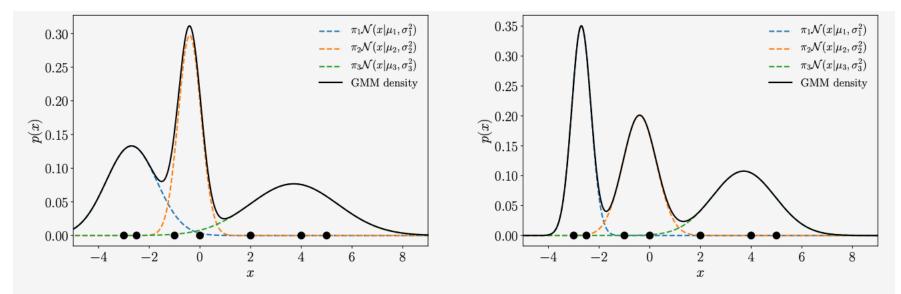
$$N_k \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1} \left( \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \right) \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow N_k \boldsymbol{I} = \left( \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\mathrm{T}} \right) \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{-1}$$

• By solving for  $\Sigma_k$ , we obtain

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_k} \sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^{\text{T}}$$

- This gives us a simple update rule for  $\Sigma_k$  for k = 1, ..., K and proves our theorem.
- This update method is the weighted covariance of data points  $x_n$  associated with the kth component.
- The weights are the responsibilities  $r_{nk}$



(a) GMM density and individual components prior to updating the variances.

(b) GMM density and individual components after updating the variances.

$$\sigma_1^2 : 1 \to 0.14$$
 $\sigma_2^2 : 0.2 \to 0.44$ 
 $\sigma_3^2 : 3 \to 1.53$ 

# 11.2.4 Updating the Mixture Weights

The mixture weights of the GMM are updated as

$$\pi_k^{new} = \frac{N_k}{N}, k = 1, \cdots, K$$

where *N* is the number of data points

- *Proof* We calculate the partial derivative of the log-likelihood with respect to the weight parameters  $\pi_k$ , k=1,...,K.
- We have the constraint

$$\sum_k \pi_k = 1$$

Using Lagrange multipliers (will not be covered in this course), we have

$$\mathfrak{L} = \mathcal{L} + \lambda \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k - \mathbf{1} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N} (\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) + \lambda \left( \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k - \mathbf{1} \right)$$

$$\mathfrak{Q} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) + \lambda \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k - \mathbf{1}\right)$$

• We obtain the partial derivative with respect to  $\pi_k$  as

$$\frac{\partial \mathfrak{L}}{\partial \pi_k} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} + \lambda$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} + \lambda = \frac{N_k}{\pi_k} + \lambda$$

$$= N_k$$

The partial derivative with respect to the Lagrange multiplier λ is

$$\frac{\partial \mathfrak{L}}{\partial \lambda} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k - \mathbf{1}$$

Setting both partial derivatives to p yields the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \pi_k = -\frac{N_k}{\lambda} \\ 1 = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \end{cases}$$

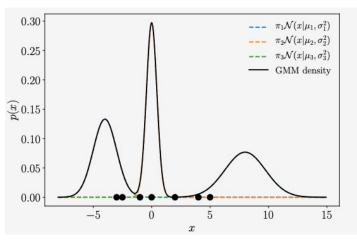
Using the two equations, we obtain

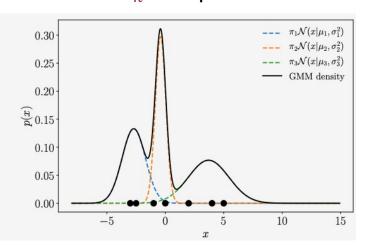
$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1 \Leftrightarrow -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{N_k}{\lambda} = 1 \Leftrightarrow -\frac{N}{\lambda} = 1 \Leftrightarrow \lambda = -N$$

• This allows us to substitute -N for  $\lambda$  in  $\pi_k = -\frac{N_k}{\lambda}$  to obtain  $\pi_k^{new} = \frac{N_k}{N}$ 

$$\begin{cases} \pi_k = -\frac{N_k}{\lambda} \\ 1 = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \end{cases}$$

which gives us the update for the weight parameters  $\pi_k$  and proves the Theorem.





$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 1.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.057 & 0.943 & 0.0 \\ 0.001 & 0.999 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.066 & 0.934 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi_1 : \frac{1}{3} \longrightarrow 0.29$$

$$\pi_2 : \frac{1}{3} \longrightarrow 0.29$$

$$\pi_3 : \frac{1}{3} \longrightarrow 0.42$$

$$0.29 = \frac{1+1+0.057+0.001}{7}$$

 We see that the third component gets more weight/importance, while the other components become slightly less important.

#### Generating a new dataset with GMM

- For a given GMM with parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ ,  $\pi_k$ ,  $k=1,\ldots,K$ , we want to generate a dataset with N data points.
- We sample an index k from  $\{1, 2, ..., K\}$  with probabilities  $\pi_1, ..., \pi_k$
- We generate a number of  $N\pi_k$  data points for the kth component
- In the kth component, every data point is sampled as  $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k)$

#### Comparing GMM with K-Means

#### Algorithms.

#### 1. k-Means

- a. Given hard labels, compute centroids
- b. Given centroids, compute hard labels

#### 2. GMM

- a. Given soft labels, compute Gaussians
- b. Given Gaussians, compute soft labels
- Like k-means, GMM may get stuck in local minima.
- Unlike k-means, the local minima are more favorable because soft labels allow points to move between clusters slowly.

# Check your understanding

- If *K* takes a greater value, the likelihood becomes greater after convergence.
- Assume we have N data points. The maximum likelihood will be achieved if we set K = N.
- In GMM, the EM algorithm gives us global minimum, because we can update  $\pi_k$ ,  $\mu_k$  and  $\Sigma_k$  through closed-form solutions.
- GMM has a higher computational complexity than kmeans.
- When the N data points are close to each other in the feature space, we should set K to a small value.