

# Clustering and Latent Variable Models

Mengye Ren

(Slides credit to David Rosenberg, He He, et al.)

NYU

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# K-means Clustering

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# Unsupervised learning

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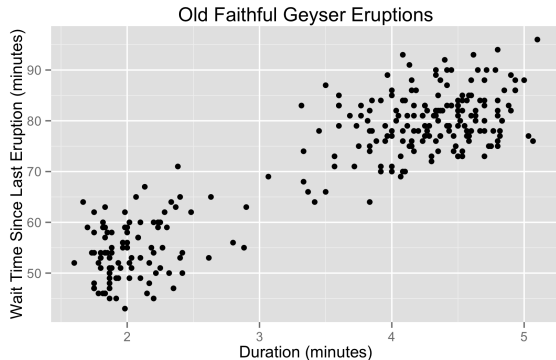
# Unsupervised learning

**Goal** Discover interesting *structure* in the data.

**Formulation** Density estimation:  $p(x; \theta)$  (often with *latent* variables).

- Examples**
- Discover *clusters*: cluster data into groups.
  - Discover *factors*: project high-dimensional data to a small number of “meaningful” dimensions, i.e. dimensionality reduction.
  - Discover *graph structures*: learn joint distribution of correlated variables, i.e. graphical models.

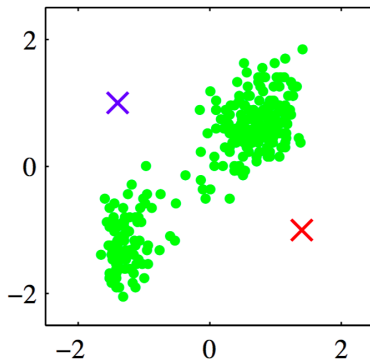
## Example: Old Faithful Geyser



- Looks like two clusters.
- How to find these clusters algorithmically?

## k-Means: By Example

- Standardize the data.
- Choose two cluster centers.

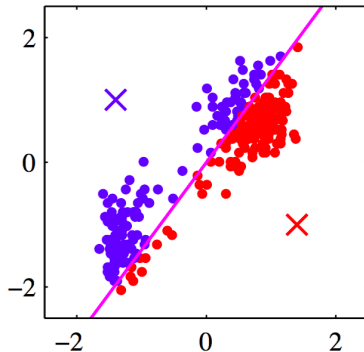


From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(a).



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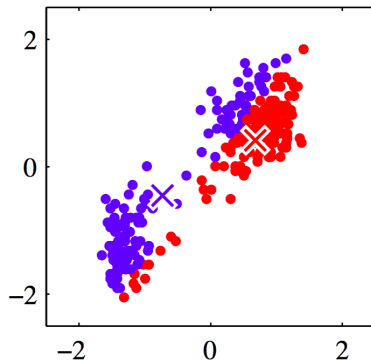
- Assign each point to closest center.



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(b).

## $k$ -means: by example

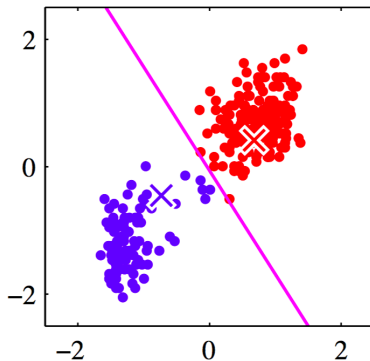
- Compute new cluster centers.



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(c).

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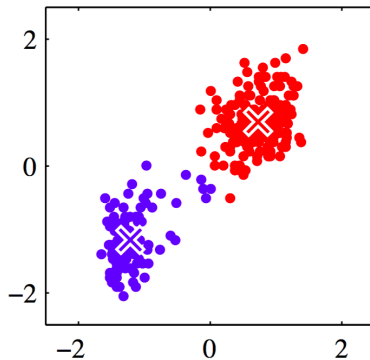
- Assign points to closest center.



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(d).

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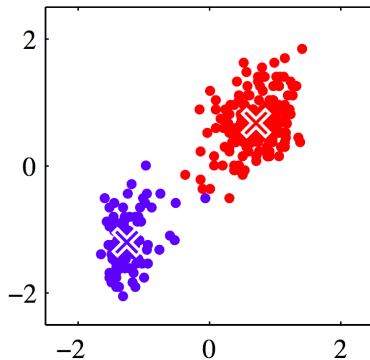
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From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(e).

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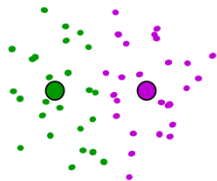
- Iterate until convergence.



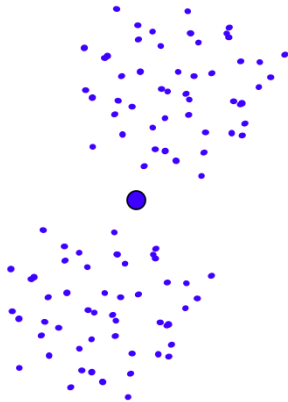
From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(i).

# Suboptimal Local Minimum

- The clustering for  $k = 3$  below is a local minimum, but suboptimal:



Would be better to have  
one cluster here



... and two clusters here

## Formalize $k$ -Means

- Dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \subset \mathcal{X}$  where  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$ .

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- The  $k$ -means objective is to minimize the distance between each example and its cluster centroid:

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    - Randomly choose next centroid with probability proportional to the computed distance squared.



# Summary

We've seen

- Clustering—an unsupervised learning problem that aims to discover group assignments.
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Next, probabilistic model of clustering.

- A generative model of  $x$ .
- Maximum likelihood estimation.

## Gaussian Mixture Models

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Probability density of  $x$ :

- Sum over (marginalize) the **latent variable**  $z$ .

# Identifiability Issues for GMM

- Suppose we have found parameters

Cluster probabilities:  $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k)$

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- Assuming all clusters are distinct, there are  $k!$  equivalent solutions.

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- MLE (also called maximize marginal likelihood).
- Log likelihood of data:
- Cannot push log into the sum...  $z$  and  $x$  are coupled.
- No closed-form solution for GMM—try to compute the gradient yourself!

- What about running gradient descent or SGD on

$$J(\pi, \mu, \Sigma) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left\{ \sum_{z=1}^k \pi_z \mathcal{N}(x_i \mid \mu_z, \Sigma_z) \right\}?$$

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- $p(z | x)$  is a *soft assignment*.
- If we know the parameters  $\mu, \Sigma, \pi$ , this would be easy to compute.

Let's compute the cluster assignments and the parameters iteratively.

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    - compute soft assignments  $p(z | x_i)$  for all  $i$ .
  - ② M-step: standard MLE for  $\mu, \Sigma, \pi$  given “observed” variables.
    - Equivalent to MLE in the observable case on data weighted by  $p(z | x_i)$ .

## M-step for GMM

- Let  $p(z | x)$  be the soft assignments:

$$\gamma_i^j = \frac{\pi_j^{\text{old}} \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_j^{\text{old}}, \Sigma_j^{\text{old}})}{\sum_{c=1}^k \pi_c^{\text{old}} \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_c^{\text{old}}, \Sigma_c^{\text{old}})}.$$

- Exercise: show that

$$n_z = \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i^z$$

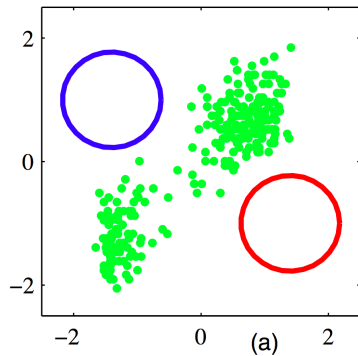
$$\mu_z^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n_z} \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i^z x_i$$

$$\Sigma_z^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n_z} \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i^z (x_i - \mu_z^{\text{new}}) (x_i - \mu_z^{\text{new}})^T$$

$$\pi_z^{\text{new}} = \frac{n_z}{n}.$$

# EM for GMM

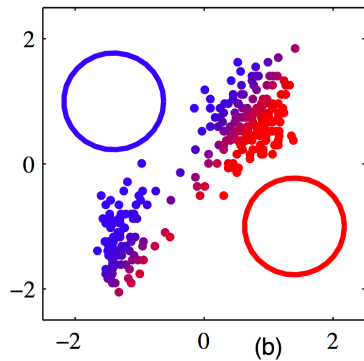
● Initialization



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.8.

# EM for GMM

- First soft assignment:

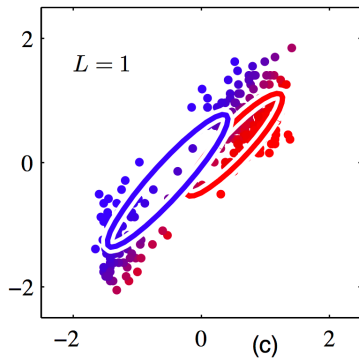


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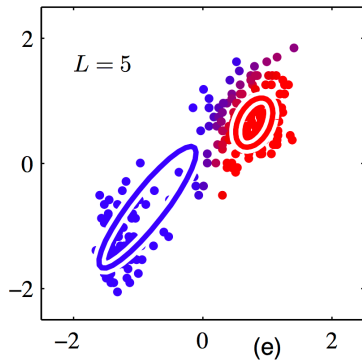
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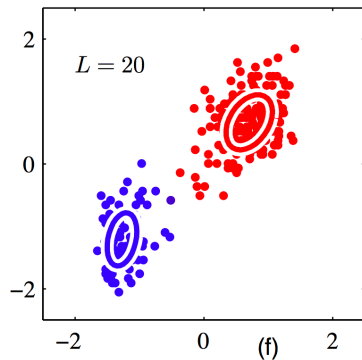
- After 5 rounds of EM:



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.8.

# EM for GMM

- After 20 rounds of EM:



From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.8.

## EM for GMM: Summary

- EM is a general algorithm for learning latent variable models.
- *Key idea*: if data was fully observed, then MLE is easy.
  - E-step: fill in latent variables by computing  $p(z \mid x, \theta)$ .
  - M-step: standard MLE given fully observed data.
- Simpler and more efficient than gradient methods.
- Can prove that EM monotonically improves the likelihood and converges to a local minimum.
- *k*-means is a special case of EM for GMM with *hard assignments*, also called hard-EM.

## Latent Variable Models

# General Latent Variable Model

- Two sets of random variables:  $z$  and  $x$ .
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e.g. The Gaussian mixture model is a latent variable model.

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- To simplify notation, take  $x$  to represent the entire dataset

$$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

and  $z$  to represent the corresponding unobserved variables

$$z = (z_1, \dots, z_n).$$

- An observation of  $x$  is called an **incomplete data set**.
- An observation  $(x, z)$  is called a **complete data set**.

# Our Objectives

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- For Gaussian mixture model, learning is hard, inference is easy.
- For more complicated models, inference can also be hard.

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- Similarly,  $\log p(x)$  is the **marginal log-likelihood**.

# EM Algorithm

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**EM assumption:** the expected complete data log-likelihood is easy to optimize

Why should this work?

## Math Prerequisites

---

# Jensen's Inequality

## Theorem (Jensen's Inequality)

If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a **convex** function, and  $x$  is a random variable, then

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- e.g.  $f(x) = x^2$  is convex. So  $\mathbb{E}x^2 \geq (\mathbb{E}x)^2$ . Thus

$$\text{Var}(x) = \mathbb{E}x^2 - (\mathbb{E}x)^2 \geq 0.$$

# Kullback-Leibler Divergence

- Let  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  be probability mass functions (PMFs) on  $\mathcal{X}$ .
- How can we measure how “different”  $p$  and  $q$  are?

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- The **Kullback-Leibler** or “**KL**” **Divergence** is defined by

$$\text{KL}(p\|q) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}.$$

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- Can also write this as

$$\text{KL}(p\|q) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p} \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}.$$



## Gibbs Inequality ( $\mathbf{KL}(p\|q) \geq 0$ and $\mathbf{KL}(p\|p) = 0$ )

### Theorem (Gibbs Inequality)

*Let  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  be PMFs on  $\mathcal{X}$ . Then*

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- Note:
  - KL divergence **not a metric**.
  - KL divergence is **not symmetric**.

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- Since  $-\log$  is strictly convex, we have strict equality iff  $q(x)/p(x)$  is a constant, which implies  $q = p$ .

## The ELBO: Family of Lower Bounds on $\log p(x | \theta)$

# The Maximum Likelihood Estimator

## Lower bound of the marginal log-likelihood

# MLE, EM, and the ELBO

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- In EM algorithm,  $q$  ranges over all distributions on  $z$ .

## EM: Coordinate Ascent on Lower Bound

- Choose sequence of  $q$ 's and  $\theta$ 's by “**coordinate ascent**” on  $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$ .

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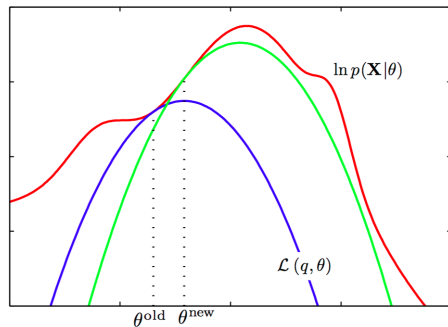
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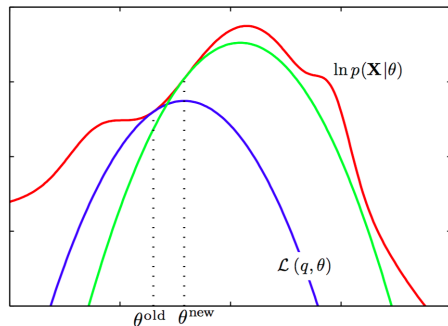
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  - ③ Let  $\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta)$ .
  - ④ Go to step 2, until converged.
- Will show:  $p(x | \theta^{\text{new}}) \geq p(x | \theta^{\text{old}})$
- **Get sequence of  $\theta$ 's with monotonically increasing likelihood.**

## EM: Coordinate Ascent on Lower Bound



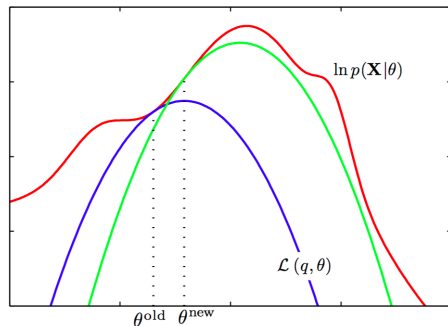
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- 3  $\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$ .

From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.14.



## Is ELBO a "good" lowerbound?

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) &= \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{p(x, z \mid \theta)}{q(z)} \\&= \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{p(z \mid x, \theta) p(x \mid \theta)}{q(z)} \\&= - \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{q(z)}{p(z \mid x, \theta)} + \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log p(x \mid \theta) \\&= -\text{KL}(q(z) \parallel p(z \mid x, \theta)) + \underbrace{\log p(x \mid \theta)}_{\text{evidence}}\end{aligned}$$

- **KL divergence:** measures “distance” between two distributions (not symmetric!)
- $\text{KL}(q \parallel p) \geq 0$  with equality iff  $q(z) = p(z \mid x)$ .
- $\text{ELBO} = \text{evidence} - \text{KL} \leq \text{evidence}$

## Maximizing over $q$ for fixed $\theta$ .

- Find  $q$  maximizing

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- Summary:

$$\log p(x | \theta) = \sup_q \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) \quad \forall \theta$$

- For any  $\theta$ , **sup is attained** at  $q(z) = p(z | x, \theta)$ .

## Marginal Log-Likelihood **IS** the Supremum over Lower Bounds



# Summary

**Latent variable models:** clustering, latent structure, missing labels etc.

**Parameter estimation:** maximum marginal log-likelihood

**Challenge:** directly maximize the **evidence**  $\log p(x; \theta)$  is hard

**Solution:** maximize the **evidence lower bound**:

$$\text{ELBO} = \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) = -\text{KL}(q(z) \| p(z | x; \theta)) + \log p(x; \theta)$$

Why does it work?

$$q^*(z) = p(z | x; \theta) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

$$\mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta^*) = \max_{\theta} \log p(x; \theta)$$

# EM algorithm

*Coordinate ascent on  $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$*

- 1 Random initialization:  $\theta^{\text{old}} \leftarrow \theta_0$
- 2 Repeat until convergence
  - i  $q(z) \leftarrow \arg \max_q \mathcal{L}(q, \theta^{\text{old}})$

**Expectation** (the E-step):  $q^*(z) = p(z \mid x; \theta^{\text{old}})$   
 $J(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta)$

ii  $\theta^{\text{new}} \leftarrow \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta)$

**Maximization** (the M-step):  $\theta^{\text{new}} \leftarrow \arg \max_{\theta} J(\theta)$

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[Equivalent to maximizing expected complete log-likelihood.]

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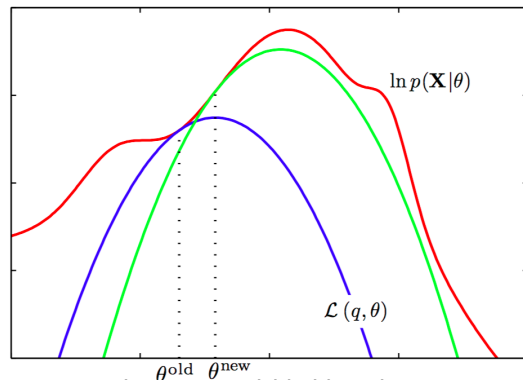
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[Equivalent to maximizing expected complete log-likelihood.]

EM puts no constraint on  $q$  in the E-step and assumes the M-step is easy. In general, both steps can be hard.

## Monotonically increasing likelihood



Exercise: prove that EM increases the marginal likelihood monotonically

$$\log p(x; \theta^{\text{new}}) \geq \log p(x; \theta^{\text{old}}).$$

Does EM converge to a global maximum?



## Variations on EM

# EM Gives Us Two New Problems

- The “E” Step: Computing

$$J(\theta) := \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta) = \sum_z q^*(z) \log \left( \frac{p(x, z | \theta)}{q^*(z)} \right)$$

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# EM Gives Us Two New Problems

- The “E” Step: Computing

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- Either of these can be too hard to do in practice.

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- We still get monotonically increasing likelihood.

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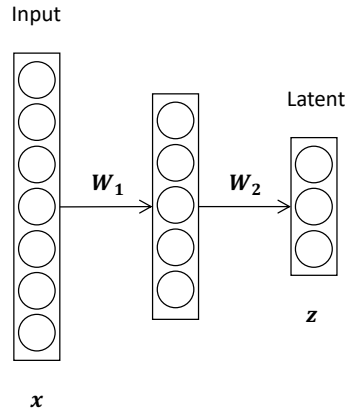
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- Lower bound now looser:

$$q^* = \arg \min_{q \in \mathcal{Q}} \text{KL}[q(z), p(z | x, \theta^{\text{old}})]$$

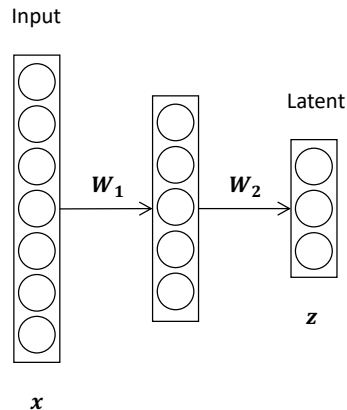
# Deep Latent Variable Models

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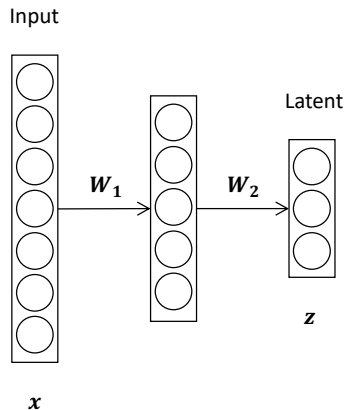
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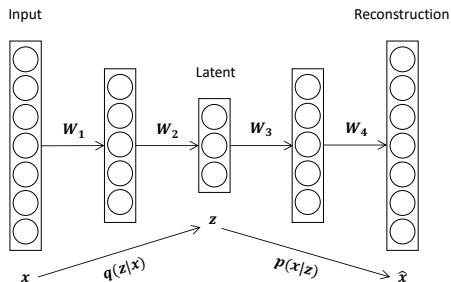
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- In neural networks, the hidden activations do not have probabilistic interpretation as they are not random variables.
- What if we let the hidden represent some learned latent code?



# Variational Autoencoders (VAE) <sup>1</sup>

- An autoencoder (AE) is a neural network that reconstructs the same input.

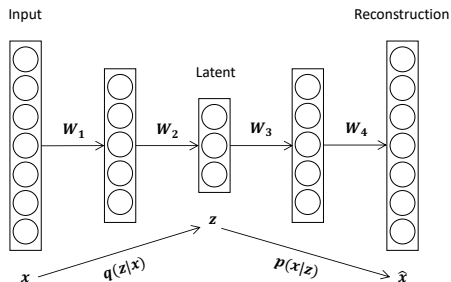


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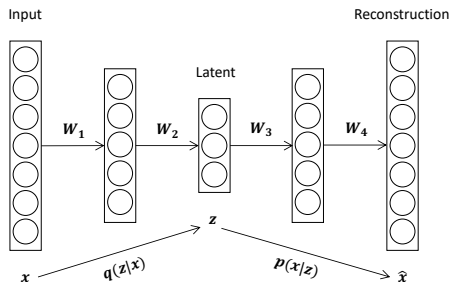
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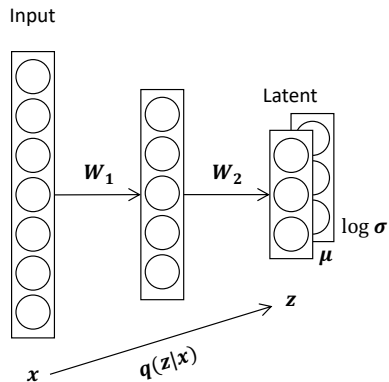
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- How to make  $q$  a probability distribution?



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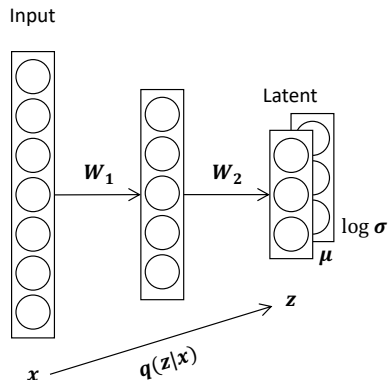
# Reparameterization Trick

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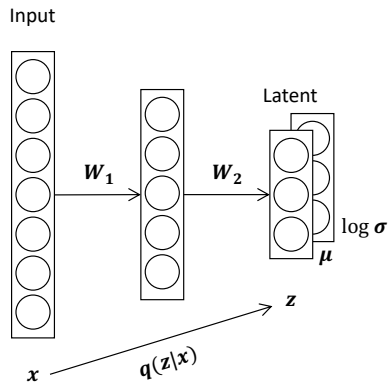
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- A stochastic  $z$  can be sampled from  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ :  $z = \mu + \sigma \cdot \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ .



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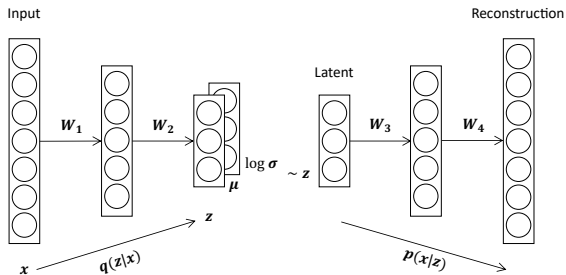
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# Stochastic Gradient

- The loss function needs to take expectation over  $q$ :

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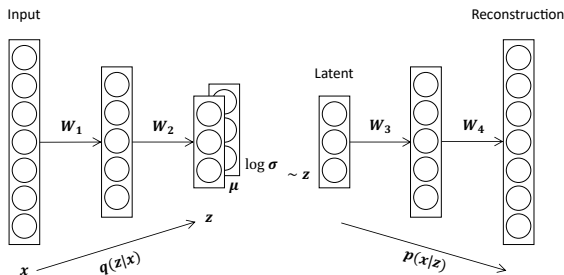


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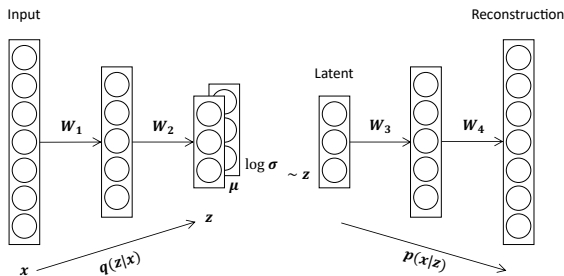


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## Learned Manifold

[illegible]

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- VAE: Introducing variational inference to neural networks. A classic starting example for deep generative modeling.

## Conclusion and Outlook

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- This is a very challenging grad-level course.
- Congrats, you are almost done.

## Next Lecture: Project Presentation

- Dec 10, in-person presentations.
- 22 groups, 120mins.
- Aim for **3 mins** per group, hard stop at 4 mins, and 1 min max for Q&A.
- Send your slides in PDF with your group number by Dec 9 11:59pm (via Google form).

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# Models

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- Start from the task requirements, e.g. amount of data, computation resource
- The best lesson is to practice!

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- Frequentist approach: expectation over data.
  - Empirical risk minimization, i.e. average loss on the training data.
  - Regularization: balance estimation error and generalization error.
- Bayesian approach: expectation over parameters.
  - Posterior: prior belief updated by observed data.
  - Bayes action minimizes the posterior risk.

**Learning** Find model parameters—often an optimization problem.

- (Stochastic) (sub)gradient descent
- Functional gradient descent (gradient boosting)
- Convex vs non-convex objectives

**Inference** Answer questions given a learned model.

- Bayesian inference: compute various quantities given the posterior.
- Dynamic programming: compute  $\arg \max$  in structured prediction.

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- Classic ML sheds new insight into understand DL.
- Classic ML lays down foundation when we innovate in DL algorithms.



## Other ML Related Advanced Courses in CS/DS

- Bayesian Machine Learning(Andrew Wilson)
- Computer Vision (Saining Xie)
- Deep Learning (Yann LeCun)
- Deep Reinforcement Learning (Lerrel Pinto)
- Embodied Learning and Vision (Mengye Ren)
- Foundations of Deep Learning Theory (Matus Telgarsky)
- Inference and Representation (Joan Bruna)
- Learning with Large Language and Vision Models (Saining Xie)
- Mathematics of Deep Learning (Joan Bruna)
- Natural Language Processing (He He)