# COMPSCI 689 Lecture 16: Mixture Models and EM

Benjamin M. Marlin

College of Information and Computer Sciences University of Massachusetts Amherst

Slides by Benjamin M. Marlin (marlin@cs.umass.edu).

#### Mixture Models

- A mixture model is a simple structured model in the Bayesian network family.
- The model consists of one discrete variable  $Z \in \{1, ..., K\}$  called the mixture indicator, and a vector of feature random variables  $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, ..., X_D]$  where  $X_d \in \mathcal{X}_d$ .
- The joint distribution for a mixture model is composed from a product of two factors:

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}, Z = z | \theta) = P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi)$$

# Mixture Models: Generative process

- The distribution over Z is a multinoulli distribution  $P(Z = z | \pi) = \pi_z$ . The parameters  $\pi_z$  are referred to as the *mixture proportions*.
- The distribution over **X** given Z = z is referred to as the mixture component distribution:  $P(\mathbf{X}|Z=z,\theta_z)$ .
- Thus, each setting of the mixture indicator variable z induces its own distribution over **X** via the parameters  $\theta_z$ .

#### Mixture Models: Observed Z

- If we observe the value of Z in the training data, then this model is what is known as a generative classifier. Z is the class label.
- This model makes predictions at test time using Bayes rule:

$$P(Z = z | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}, \theta) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi)}{\sum_{z'=1}^{K} P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Z = z', \theta_z) P(Z = z' | \pi)}$$

#### Mixture Models: Observed Z

- If all the  $X_d$ 's are single Bernoulli random variables, this model is called *Bernoulli Naive Bayes*.
- If all the  $X_d$ 's are single Multinomial random variables, this model is called *Multinomial Naive Bayes*.
- If all the  $X_d$ 's are single Normal random variables, this model is called *Gaussian Naive Bayes*.

#### Mixture Models: Observed Z

- If **X** is jointly Gaussian, this model is called *Quadratic Discriminant Analysis*.
- If X is jointly Gaussian and all mixture components have the same covariance matrix, this model is called *Linear Discriminant Analysis*.
- Naive Bayes, QDA and LDA have some interesting properties as generative classifiers, but they are nearly always out-performed by discriminative classifiers (logistic regression, SVMs, neural networks).

#### Mixture Models: Unobserved Z

- In the case where *Z* is not observed in the data, a mixture model can be interpreted as a clustering model.
- The model asserts that observed data vectors **x** belong to groups or clusters as specified by their unobserved (or latent) mixture indicator variable values.
- Learning algorithms for the case of unobserved Z attempt to explain a complex data distribution in terms of a finite collection of simple mixture components.
- **Question:** What optimization criteria should we use to learn the parameters of a mixture model with unobserved Z's?

#### MLE for Mixtures

- When we don't know what the right value of the mixture indicator variable is, we can still apply the maximum likelihood framework.
- Specifically, we need to select the parameters to maximize the likelihood of the *observed* data. For a mixture model with unobserved Z's, this is just the x's.
- **Question:** What is the likelihood of just the  $\mathbf{x}'s$ ?

## The Marginal Likelihood

- The function we need to optimize is the marginal log likelihood.
- $\blacksquare$  The marginal likelihood of **x** is given by:

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{z=1}^{K} P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z|\pi)$$

■ The marginal log likelihood of a data set  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1:N}$  is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{z=1}^{K} P(\mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{x}_n | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi) \right)$$

#### Learning

- We can learn the model parameters  $\theta = [\pi, \theta_1, ..., \theta_K]$  directly by numerically optimizing the marginal likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$ .
- However, there is an interesting alternative approach based on lower bound optimization that results in a coordinate ascent algorithm that has exact updates and is guaranteed to monotonically improve  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$  without line search.
- This algorithm was developed in the statistics literature and is known as the *Expectation Maximization* or EM algorithm.

## Problems with the Marginal Likelihood

■ Recall the marginal log likelihood of a data set  $\mathcal{D}$  is:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{z=1}^{K} P(\mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{x}_n | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi) \right)$$

- The main barrier to analytically maximizing  $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$  is the log of the sum over z.
- Learning would decompose nicely over the mixture model's Bayesian network if we could only take the sum over *z* outside the log...

## Key Idea 1: Learning by Bound Optimization

- Suppose we have a function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  that we would like to maximize, but directly maximizing  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is hard for some reason.
- Suppose we have a function  $g(\mathbf{x})$  that provides a lower bound  $g(\mathbf{x}) \le f(\mathbf{x})$  on  $f(\mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- In that case, we can maximize  $g(\mathbf{x})$  instead of  $f(\mathbf{x})$ .
- If we find a local maximum  $\mathbf{x}_*$  of  $g(\mathbf{x})$ , we know that the maximum of  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is at least  $f(\mathbf{x}_*)$ .
- Importantly, we can also add more optimization variables to g if this helps in some way. For example, if  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq f(\mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , we can optimize  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  over  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

## Key Idea 2: Jensen's Inequality

- Suppose f() is a concave function.
- Consider the application of f() to a convex combination of inputs  $x_1, ..., x_K$  where the combination weights are  $\alpha = [\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_K]$ ,  $\alpha_k > 0$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k = 1$ :

$$f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{K}\alpha_k x_k\right)$$

■ Jensen's Inequality states that for any valid choice of  $\alpha_k$ 's, the following lower bound holds:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k f(x_k) \le f\left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k x_k\right)$$

#### Lower-Bounding Marginal Likelihood

■ Suppose we introduce an auxiliary set of multinoulli probability distributions  $q_n(Z = z) = \phi_{zn}$  into the marginal likelihood in the following way:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \left( \sum_{z=1}^{K} \frac{\phi_{zn}}{\phi_{zn}} P(\mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{x}_n | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi) \right)$$

Note that this doesn't change the marginal likelihood, but since log is concave, we can now apply Jensen's inequality using  $q_n(Z=z)$  as the convex combination weights for each n:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta) \ge \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{z=1}^{K} \phi_{zn} \log \left( \frac{P(\mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{x}_n | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi)}{\phi_{zn}} \right)$$

#### The Q Function

- This lower bound is denoted by  $Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi) \leq \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$
- We can now simplify  $Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi)$  as shown below:

$$Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{z=1}^{Z} \phi_{zn} \log \left( \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Z = z, \theta_z) P(Z = z | \pi)}{\phi_{zn}} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{z=1}^{Z} \phi_{zn} \left( \log P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | Z = z, \theta_z) + \log P(Z = z | \pi) - \log \phi_{zn} \right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbb{E}_{q_n} [\log P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}, Z = z | \theta)] + \mathbb{H}(q_n) \right)$$

■ The first term is the *expected complete log likelihood* and the second term is the entropy of  $q_n$ .

## Optimizing the Q Function

- We could again simply optimize  $Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi)$  numerically, but it turns out that we can obtain a coordinate ascent algorithm with exact steps.
- This algorithm starts from random parameters and optimizes the  $\phi_n$  variables for every data case with the model parameters  $\theta$  fixed.
- It then optimizes the  $\theta$  variables with the  $\phi$  variables fixed.
- We obtain these two steps by solving the gradient equations  $\nabla_{\theta} Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi) = 0$  and  $\nabla_{\phi} Q(\mathcal{D}, \theta, \phi) = 0$ . This yields the EM algorithm.

## The Expectation Maximization Algorithm

E-Step: In E-Step step of the algorithm, we determine the responsibility of each mixture component for each data case:

$$\phi_{zn}^t \leftarrow P(Z = z | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}_n, \theta^{t-1})$$

M-Step: In the M-step, we update the parameters using responsibility weighted averages.

$$\pi_z^t \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \phi_{zn}^t$$

$$\theta_{dz}^{t} \leftarrow \underset{\theta_{dz}}{\operatorname{arg max}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi_{zn}^{t} \log P(\mathbf{X}_{d} = \mathbf{x}_{dn} | Z = z, \theta_{dz}^{t-1})$$

# Example: Gaussian Mixture Models

- In a Gaussian mixture model, there is one block of observed data variables that are Gaussian distributed given the value of the mixture indicator.
- $P(Z=z|\pi)=\pi_z$
- $P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}|Z = z, \theta_z) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}, \mu_z, \Sigma_z)$
- $\bullet_z = [\mu_z, \Sigma_z]$

# Example: EM for Gaussian Mixture Models

E-Step: Compute responsibilities.

$$\phi_{zn}^{t} \leftarrow \frac{\pi_{z}^{t-1} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \mu_{z}^{t-1}, \Sigma_{z}^{t-1})}{\sum_{z'=1}^{K} \pi_{z'}^{t-1} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}; \mu_{z'}^{t-1}, \Sigma_{z'}^{t-1})}$$

M-Step: Update parameters.

$$\pi_z^t \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \phi_{zn}^t \qquad \mu_z^t = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \phi_{zn}^t \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n'=1}^N \phi_{zn'}^t}$$

$$\Sigma_{z}^{t} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi_{zn}^{t} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \mu_{z}^{t})^{T} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \mu_{z}^{t})}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi_{zn}^{t}}$$