A Refresher on Probabilities, K-means Clustering and Gaussian Mixture Models

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Overview

A Refresher on Probabilities

K-means Clustering

Gaussian mixture models Why EM works?

Sample spaces and probabilities

- ightharpoonup A sample space Ω is the set of outcomes of a random experiment.
- ▶ Subsets $A \subseteq \Omega$ are called *events*.
- ► For example, consider the experiment of tossing a fair coin twice.
 - ▶ Sample space: $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
 - ▶ Event of at least one "head" occurring: $A = \{HH, HT, TH\}$.
- ▶ A probability distribution is a function that assigns a real number Pr[A] to each event $A \subseteq \Omega$.

Random variables

- Usually, we do not deal directly with sample spaces. Instead, we define random variables and probability distributions on those.
- ▶ A random variable is a function $X : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.
- ► For example, if *X* := "the number of heads in two coin tosses", then

$$X(HH) = 2$$

$$X(HT) = 1$$

$$X(TH) = 1$$

$$X(TT) = 0$$

Probabilities of random variables

- ▶ If we denote by \mathcal{X} the set of values a random variable X can take, we can define probabilities directly on \mathcal{X} .
- ▶ In the above example, $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1, 2\}$ and we define

$$Pr[X = 0] := Pr[\{TT\}]$$

 $Pr[X = 1] := Pr[\{HT, TH\}]$
 $Pr[X = 2] := Pr[\{HH\}]$

In practice, we often completely forget about the sample space and work only with random variables.

Discrete random variables

- X is called a discrete random variable if X is a finite or countably infinite set.
- Examples:
 - $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$
 - $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{N}$
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{N}^d$
- ▶ The corresponding probability distribution

$$P(x) := \Pr[X = x]$$

is called a probability mass function.

- ▶ Non-negativity: $P(x) \ge 0$, $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$
- Normalization: $\sum_{x \in X} P(x) = 1$

Continuous random variables

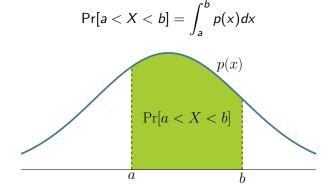
- X is called a continuous random variable if X is an uncountably infinite set.
- Examples:
 - $\mathcal{X} = [0, 1]$
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$
- ▶ The corresponding probability distribution p(x) is called a probability density function.
- ▶ Non-negativity: $p(x) \ge 0$, $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$
- Normalization: $\int_{\mathcal{X}} p(x)dx = 1$

The meaning of density

Important: For continuous random variables

$$p(x) \neq \Pr[X = x] = 0$$

► To acquire a probability, we have to integrate *p* over the desired set



Joint distributions

For two random variables $X \in \mathcal{X}$ and $Y \in \mathcal{Y}$, their *joint distribution* is defined as

$$P(x,y) := \Pr[X = x, Y = y]$$

- ▶ Non-negativity: $P(x, y) \ge 0$
- Normalization: $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(x, y) = 1$
- ► For example, assume we throw two fair six-sided dice and define X := "the number on the first die" and Y := "the number on the second die".
 - $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - ► $P(6,6) = \Pr[X = 6, Y = 6] = \frac{1}{36}$

Marginal and conditional distributions

Let P(x, y) be a joint distribution of random variables X and Y.

▶ The marginal distribution of X is defined as

$$P(x) := \Pr[X = x] := \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(x, y)$$

► The *conditional distribution* of *X* given that *Y* has a known value *y* is defined as

$$P(x|y) := \Pr[X = x|Y = y]$$

$$:= \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)} \qquad \text{(defined if } P(y) > 0\text{)}$$

▶ Note that for any fixed y, P(x|y) is a distribution over x, i.e.

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x|y) = 1, \ \forall y \in \mathcal{Y}$$

The chain rule

▶ By definition of conditional distributions, we can always write a joint distribution of X and Y as a product of conditionals:

$$P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y)$$

We can do the same for an arbitrary number of random variables X_1, \ldots, X_n :

$$P(x_1,...,x_n) = P(x_1|x_2,...,x_n)...P(x_{n-1}|x_n)P(x_n)$$

Consistency of marginals and conditionals:

$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(x, y) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y|x)P(x) \qquad \text{(chain rule)}$$

$$= P(x) \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P(y|x)$$

$$= P(x) \qquad \text{(normalization)}$$

Bayes' rule

► For two random variables *X* and *Y*, by definition of the conditional distribution of *X* given *Y*:

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)}$$

Also, by the chain rule:

$$P(x,y) = P(y|x)P(x)$$

▶ Combining the above we get Bayes' rule:

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x)P(x)}{P(y)}$$

Independence

► Two random variables X and Y are called independent, if knowing the value of X does not give any additional information about the distribution of Y (and vice versa):

$$P(x|y) = P(x)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow P(y|x) = P(y)$$

Equivalently, X and Y are independent if their joint distribution factorizes:

$$P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(x)P(y)$$

IID

- ► IID := Independent and Identically Distributed
- ▶ Random variables $X_1, ..., X_n$ are called IID if
 - ► Each of them has the same (marginal) distribution
 - ► They are mutually independent
- ▶ Note that if $X_1, ..., X_n$ are IID, then

$$P(x_1,...,x_n) = P(x_1)...P(x_n)$$

= $\prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i)$

Expectation

▶ The *expectation* of a random variable *X* is defined as

$$\mu_X := \mathrm{E}[X] := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x P(x)$$

- Note that the expectation E[X] is *not* the same as the most likely value $\max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x)$.
- Can also be defined for a function f of X:

$$E[f(X)] := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)P(x)$$

Variance

▶ The *variance* of a random variable *X* is defined as

$$Var[X] := E[(X - \mu_X)^2] := \sum_{x \in X} (x - \mu_X)^2 P(x)$$

- ▶ $Var[X] \ge 0$
- ▶ The *standard deviation* of *X* is defined as

$$\sigma_X := \sqrt{\operatorname{Var}[X]}$$

Multidimensional moments

Let $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ be a vector of random variables.

▶ The expectation of **X** is defined as

$$\mathrm{E}[\boldsymbol{X}] := (\mathrm{E}[X_1], \ldots, \mathrm{E}[X_n])$$

▶ The covariance of variables X_i and X_j is defined as

$$Cov[X_i, X_j] := E[(X_i - \mu_{X_i})(X_j - \mu_{X_j})]$$

- $ightharpoonup \operatorname{Cov}[X_i, X_i] = \operatorname{Var}[X_i]$
- ► X_i, X_j independent $\Rightarrow \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j] = 0$
- ▶ $Cov[X_i, X_j] > 0$ roughly means that X_i and X_j increase and decrease together.
- ▶ $Cov[X_i, X_j]$ < 0 roughly means that when X_i increases X_j decreases (and vice versa).

Covariance matrix

For a random vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ we define its $n \times n$ covariance matrix as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{X}} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{Var}[X_1] & \operatorname{Cov}[X_1, X_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Cov}[X_1, X_n] \\ \operatorname{Cov}[X_2, X_1] & \operatorname{Var}[X_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Cov}[X_2, X_n] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \operatorname{Cov}[X_n, X_1] & \operatorname{Cov}[X_n, X_2] & \cdots & \operatorname{Var}[X_n] \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ The diagonal elements are the variances of each random variable $Cov[X_i, X_i] = Var[X_i]$.
- ▶ Σ_X is symmetric, because $Cov[X_i, X_j] = Cov[X_j, X_i]$.
- $ightharpoonup \Sigma_{X}$ is positive semi-definite.
- ▶ What does it mean if Σ_X is diagonal?

K-means Clustering

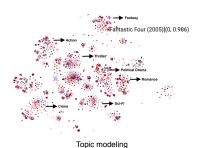
The clustering problem

- Also known as vector quantization, depending on the application.
- ▶ Consider N data points in a D-dimensional space, i.e. each data point is a D-dimensional vector \mathbf{x}_n , n = 1, ..., N.
- ▶ Our goal is to partition the data set into *K* clusters.
- In other words, find K representative vectors (centroids) $\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_K$, one for each cluster, that best fit the data according to some distance metric.

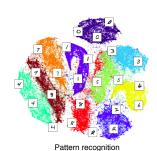
(Some) applications of clustering



Compression



Semantic segmentation



K-means

One of the many vector quantization algorithms.

- Arguably the most famous and the simplest
- ▶ The distance metric is the *squared* Euclidean distance
- ▶ **Not** the Euclidean distance, which results in another algorithm (*K*-medoids)

Objective

Minimize the following cost function

$$J = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{k,n} \| \mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{u}_k \|_2^2.$$

- ▶ Data points: $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N \in \mathbb{R}^D$
- lacksquare Centroids: $oldsymbol{u}_1,\ldots,oldsymbol{u}_K\in\mathbb{R}^D$
- lacksquare Assignments: $\pmb{z}_1,\ldots,\pmb{z}_N\in\mathbb{R}^K$ (with $z_{k,n}:=(\pmb{z}_n)_k$)

K-means constraints

Hard assignment constraints

Each point x_n is assigned to exactly one cluster:

- $z_1, \ldots, z_N \in \{0, 1\}^K$
- $ightharpoonup \sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{k,n} = 1, \ \forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$

In practice

- K-means builds a dictionary that maps code words to points and vice versa.
- ► The assignment matrix Z can be just implemented as a list of indices.

Challenges

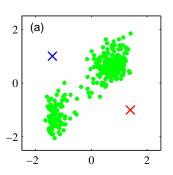
► The objective function *J* is **non-convex**

- Finding the global optimum is NP-Hard
 - Only possible by brute-forcing all assignments
 - Exception: 1D data (dynamic programming solution)

▶ In practice: local minima are good enough.

K-means algorithm

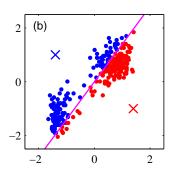
1. Initialize centroids $\boldsymbol{u}_1^{(0)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{u}_K^{(0)}$ and $t \leftarrow 1$.



K-means algorithm

2. Cluster assignment.

$$\begin{split} k^*(\boldsymbol{x}_n) &= \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\text{arg min}} \|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{u}_k^{(t-1)}\|_2^2, \ \forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \\ z_{j,n}^{(t)} &= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \quad \text{, if } j = k^*(\boldsymbol{x}_n) \\ 0 \quad \text{, otherwise} \end{array} \right., \ \forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \end{split}$$

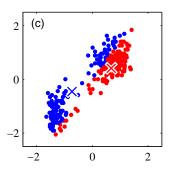


K-means algorithm

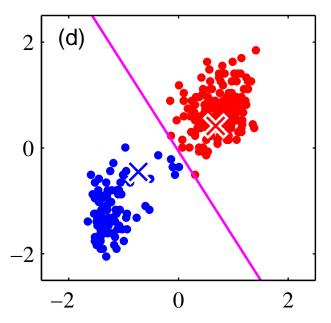
3. Centroid update.

$$\boldsymbol{u}_{k}^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{k,n}^{(t)} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{k,n}^{(t)}}, \ \forall k \in \{1, \dots, K\}$$

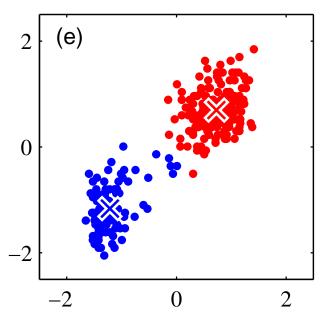
4. If termination condition $(\boldsymbol{u}_k^{(t)} = \boldsymbol{u}_k^{(t-1)}, \ \forall k)$ is not met, $t \leftarrow t+1$ and go to step 2.



K-Means: Second E-Step



K-Means: Second M-Step

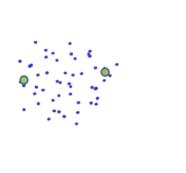


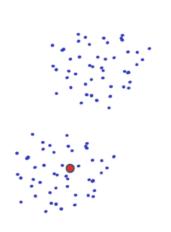
Practical considerations

- Convergence to local minimum guaranteed
- Quadratic convergence rate
 - Equivalent to Newton's method
 - In principle, J can also be optimized via (stochastic) gradient descent

- ▶ Computational cost: O(nkd) per iteration
- Issues: convergence to poor minima (less likely with good initialization), empty clusters. Some implementations take the best result out of multiple runs.

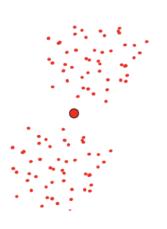
Bad initialization





Bad initialization





K-Means convergence proof

Strategy

Prove that steps 2 (E step) and 3 (M step) always result in a decrease (or no change) of the objective function J.

- ▶ E step: cluster centroids are fixed, assignments change
- ▶ M step: cluster centroids change, assignments are fixed
- What is the minimizer (optimal strategy) of each step?

K-Means convergence proof

E step

Objective function ${\it J}$ minimized by definition, since we assign each point to the nearest centroid.

$$\begin{split} k^*(\boldsymbol{x}_n) &= \underset{k \in \{1, \dots, K\}}{\text{arg min}} \|\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{u}_k^{(t-1)}\|_2^2, \ \forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \\ z_{j,n}^{(t)} &= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 \quad \text{, if } j = k^*(\boldsymbol{x}_n) \\ 0 \quad \text{, otherwise} \end{array} \right., \ \forall n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \end{split}$$

K-Means convergence proof

M step

We exploit the property of the mean being the minimizer of the sum of squared distances to all points

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x_n} = \min_{\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{x_n} - \mu\|^2$$

or for a weighted mean:

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} w_i \mathbf{x_n}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} w_i} = \min_{\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_i \|\mathbf{x_n} - \mu\|^2$$

Strategy: derive gradient w.r.t. cluster centroids, set it to zero, and recover closed-form solution. Then show that this is a minimizer by pointing out that the function is convex (given **Z** fixed).

K-Means as a matrix factorization problem

K-Means solves the matrix factorization problem:

$$\min \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{UZ}\|_F^2$$

where **Z** is an indicator matrix.

Proof strategy

Show that the formulation above is equivalent to the original objective function ${\it J}$

$$\|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{U}\mathbf{Z}\|_F^2 = \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{k,n} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{u}_k\|_2^2 = J$$

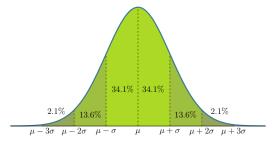
Gaussian mixture models

Gaussian distribution (1-D)

- lacksquare Random variable X with $\mathcal{X}=\mathbb{R}$
- Probability density function

$$p(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

ightharpoonup $\mathrm{E}[X] = \mu, \ \mathrm{Var}[X] = \sigma^2$

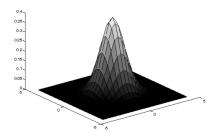


Gaussian Distribution (d-D)

- ▶ Random vector $\boldsymbol{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ with $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$
- Probability density function

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}}|\Sigma|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- ightharpoonup $\mathrm{E}[X] = \mu$
- $ightharpoonup \Sigma$ is the covariance matrix of X and $|\Sigma|$ is its determinant.



Data vs. Distribution

- Data: input
- Distribution: model assumption
- ML methods usually make some general assumption about the distribution (e.g. a parametric family) then try to obtain ("infer") the specifics from the data available.
- Example:
 - Modeling step: Assume a Gaussian distribution as model (parameterized by mean and variance)
 - Inference Step: Estimate parameters mean & variance from data.

Maximum Likelihood

- ▶ Data set: $D = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}, n = 1, \dots, N$
- ▶ Likelihood function: $p(D \mid \mu, \Sigma) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n \mid \mu, \Sigma)$
- Set the parameter by maximizing log likelihood

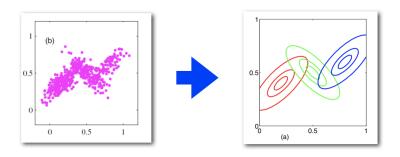
$$\log p(D \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{N}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| - \frac{Nd}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

► Take derivatives and obtain sample mean and sample variance

$$oldsymbol{\mu}_{ML} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n \qquad \Sigma_{ML} = rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu}_{ML}) (\mathbf{x}_n - oldsymbol{\mu}_{ML})^T$$

What if...

Our data looks like:



Gaussian Mixture Models

Assume data is generated from a weighted mixture of K Gaussian distributions:

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

Normalization and positivity require: $\pi_k \geq 0$, $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$

Generation Process

- ▶ Sample k with probability π_k .
- ▶ Sample x with probability $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$.

Mixing Coefficients

The mixing coefficients (π_k) can be interpret as prior prob:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(k)p(x \mid k)$$

GMM - Parameters

K mixture components with parameters (for k = 1, ..., K):

- μ_k : mean of the k-th component (similar to centroid u_k in K-means)
- $ightharpoonup \Sigma_k$: covariance of the k-th component
- \blacktriangleright π_k : mixture weight of the k-th component

MLE?

GMM - Objective

The likelihood of all the data is:

$$p(\mathbf{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}) \right)$$

Maximize the log-likelihood of the Gaussian mixture model:

$$L(\boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) := \ln p(\boldsymbol{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_n \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$

Log of a sum!

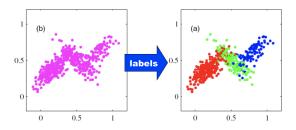
It is really hard to optimize with respect to μ_k and Σ_k ... We need to find an other method to compute them!

GMM - Latent Variables

- Let's introduce new variables z_k , called **latent variables**, that tell us which point comes from which gaussian.
- For each data point x:

$$z_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x} \text{ comes from k-th Gaussian component} \\ 0 & \text{ow} \end{cases}$$

▶ Note: $\sum_{k=1}^{K} z_k = 1$ and $p(z_k = 1) = \pi_k$.

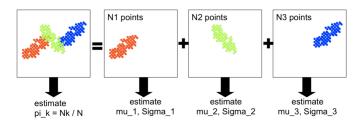


GMM - Latent Variables

- ▶ For each data point we define $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_K)$, where $z_i = 0$ for all $i \neq k$, and $z_k = 1$.
- ightharpoonup Then the conditional distribution of x given a z is a Gaussian:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{x}|z_k = 1) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

▶ Given **z** for each datapoint, the parameter inference is easy!



Complete Log-likeligood

- Remember the log-likelihood... $log \ p(\mathbf{x} \mid \pi_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = log \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \right)$
- ► The complete log-likelihood for each x:

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \mid \pi_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{z_k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)^{z_k}$$

▶ The complete log-likelihood for the dataset *X* then is:

$$\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} \mid \pi_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{nk} \Big(\log \pi_k + \log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \Big)$$

The EM Algorithm - Key Idea

The EM algorithm proposes instead to look at the expected complete log-likelihood:

$$E_{Z}\big[\log p(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z}\mid\pi_{k},\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma})\big] = \sum_{n=1}^{N}\sum_{k=1}^{K}\gamma_{nk}\Big(\log \pi_{k} + \log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{n}\mid\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})\Big)$$

 $ightharpoonup \gamma_{nk}$ is the posterior probability of the latent variables.

$$\gamma_{nk} = E(z_{nk}) = p(z_{nk} = 1) = p(z_k = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_n)$$

▶ **Remember:** the expectation of a binary variable is the probability that is equal to 1.

The EM Algorithm - Lower Bound

Let's find a lower-bound of the log-likelihood:

$$\log p(\mathbf{X}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left[\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_i) \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left[\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{nk} \frac{\pi_k p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_i)}{q_{nk}} \right]$$
$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{nk} \left[\log p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_i) + \log \pi_k - \log q_{nk} \right] = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}; \theta)$$

where q_{nk} is any distribution s.t. $\sum_{k=1}^{K} q_{nk} = 1$.

The EM Algorithm - E-Step

- Given that we can't directly maximize the log-likelihood we maximize its lower bound.
- ▶ In the lecture you derived the optimal *q* that makes this lower bound tighter:

$$q_{nk}^* = \frac{\pi_k \ p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_n)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \ p_{\theta_l}(\mathbf{x}_n)} = p(z_k = 1 \mid \mathbf{x}_n) = \gamma_{nk}$$

► The optimal *q*—distribution equals the posterior probability of the latent variables.

The EM Algorithm - M-Step

- Now we maximize the lower bound w.r.t. the parameters (π_k, μ, Σ) .
- ▶ Let's have a closer look at the lower bound with optimal *q*:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_{nk} \left[\log p_{\theta_k}(\mathbf{x}_i) + \log \pi_k - \log \gamma_{nk} \right]$$
$$= E_Z \left[\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} \mid \theta) \right] - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_{nk} \log \gamma_{nk}$$

▶ Hence optimizing $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}; \theta)$ w.r.t. θ is equal to maximize the **expected complete data log-likelihood**.

EM Algorithm: M-Step

3. Find the parameters (π_k, μ, Σ) that maximize the expected log likelihood.

Blackboard

The EM Algorithm - Overview

The EM algorithm proposes to:

- 1. Compute the posterior probability of the latent variables.
- 2. Compute the expected value of the complete log likelihood.
- 3. Find the parameters (π_k, μ, Σ) that maximize the expected complete log likelihood.
- 4. Iterate.

The EM algorithm - Overview

- 1. Initialize $\pi_k^{(0)}$, $\mu_k^{(0)}$, $\Sigma_k^{(0)}$ for $k=1,\ldots,K$ and $t\leftarrow 1$.
- 2. **E-step.** Evaluate responsibilities using current parameters:

$$\gamma_{nk} := \frac{\pi_k^{(t-1)} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t-1)})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j^{(t-1)} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^{(t-1)})}$$

3. M-step. Update parameters using new responsibilities:

$$\mu_{k}^{(t)} := \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_{nk} \mathbf{x}_{n}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} q_{kn}}$$

$$\Sigma_{k}^{(t)} := \frac{1}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_{nk}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_{nk} (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t)}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{(t)})^{T}$$

$$\pi_{k}^{(t)} := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma_{nk}$$

4. If termination condition is not met, t := t + 1 and go to step 2.

Gaussian Mixture Models

Side remark.

Log likelihood for GMM is:

$$L(X, \mu, \Sigma) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log (\pi_{z_i} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mu_{z_i}, \Sigma_{z_i}))$$

$$L(X,\mu) \sim -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_{z_i})^T \Sigma_{z_i}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_{z_i})$$

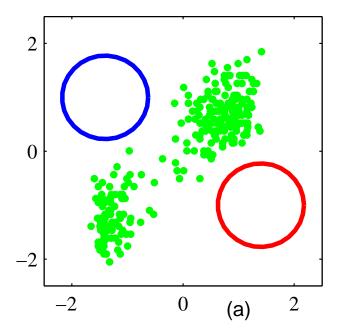
Which looks almost the same as K-means functional with introduced z:

$$L_{\text{K-means}}(X, \mu) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \min_{j \in 1, \dots, k} ||\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k||_2^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{N} ||\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_{z_i}||_2^2$$

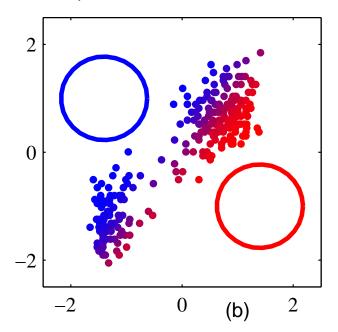
K-means vs. mixture models

- ► *K*-means
 - ► Hard cluster assignments
 - Spherical clusters with uniform prior
 - Fast runtime (can be used to initialize a mixture model)
- Gaussian mixture models
 - lacktriangle Soft cluster assignments \leftrightarrow probabilities of assignments
 - **ightharpoonup** Each cluster has its own covariance (Σ_k) and "weight" (π_k)
 - Slower runtime

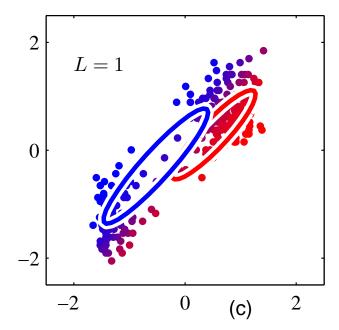
GMM: Initial configuration



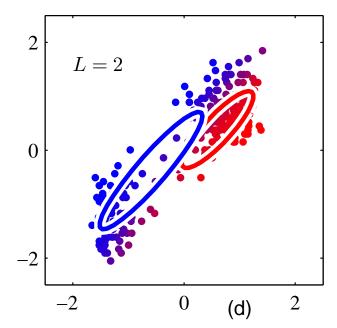
GMM: First E-Step



GMM: First M-Step



GMM: Two EM cycles



GMM: Five EM cycles

