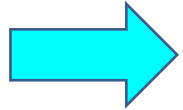


Clustering & Expectation-Maximization

STAT261: Introduction to Machine Learning

Prof. Allie Fletcher

Outline



Clustering

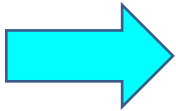
- Mixture Distributions
- Expectation Maximization Algorithm
- Convergence of EM
- Numerical Methods

K-means

- A simple iterative algorithm to determine:
 - μ_k = mean of each cluster (hence, the name K-means)
 - $C_n \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ = cluster that data point x_n belongs to
- Step 0: Start with guess at cluster centroids: μ_k
 - Random fine, but often "smart" heuristics: distance, etc
- Step 2: Update cluster membership:
$$C_n = \arg \min_k \|x_n - \mu_k\|^2$$
- Step 1: Update mean of each cluster:
 μ_k = average of x_n s.t. x_n such $C_n = i$
- Step 2: Update cluster membership:
$$\sigma_n = \arg \min_i \|x_n - \mu_i\|^2$$
 - Selects cluster with closest mean
- Return to step 1

Outline

- Factor Analysis
- Mixture Distributions
- Expectation Maximization Algorithm
- Convergence of EM



Probabilistic Mixture Model for Clusters

- Random variable $z \in \{1, \dots, K\}$
 - Discrete event with PMF: $P(z = i)$
 - Latent variable: often not directly observed
- Observed variable x , can be continuous
 - Probability depends on z , $p(x|z = i)$
 - One PDF, or component per state $z = i$
- Distribution of x : computed via total probability
 - PDF $p(x) = \sum p(x|z = i)P(z = i)$
 - CDF $F(x_0) = \sum P(x \leq x_0|z = i)P(z = i)$
- Example: Mixture of two Gaussians

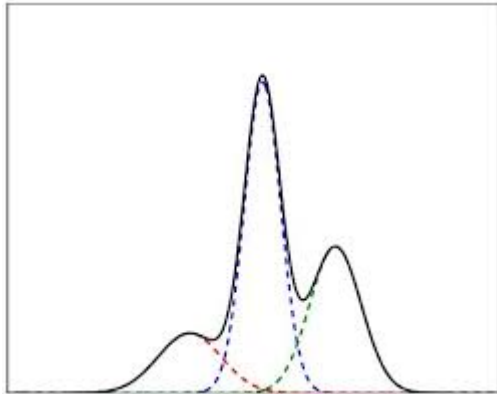
Mixture Models: Examples

- Many data occurs from underlying discrete states
- Example 1: Size of a webpage
 - z = content of the webpage, e.g. number of images
- Example 2: Speech
 - z = phoneme the speaker is saying
- Example 3: Image
 - x = RGB values of a pixel or region of pixels
 - z = one a small number of objects the pixel is part of

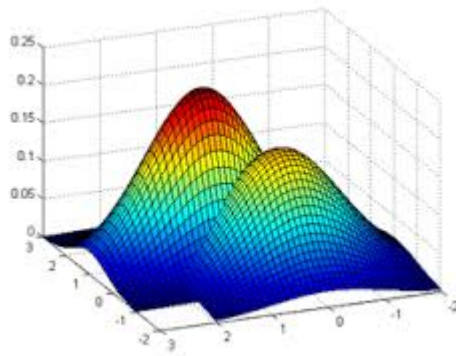
Gaussian Mixture Models

- Each $p(x|z = i)$ is a Gaussian
- Parametrized by:
 - $q_i = P(z = i)$ = Probability of each component
 - $\mu_i = E(x|z = i), P_i = \text{var}(x|z = i)$
mean and variance in each component
- Can be vector valued

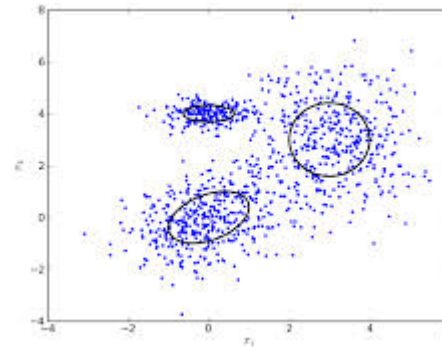
Visualizing GMMs



- 1d model with $K = 3$ components



- PDF for 2d GMM with $K = 2$ components



- Random points from a GMM with $K = 3$ components

Expectation and Variance

- Can compute expectation and variance by total probability
 - Expectation: $\mu = E(x) = \sum q_i \mu_i$
 - Variance:

$$\text{var}(x) = \sum_i q_i P_i + q_i (\mu_i - \mu)(\mu_i - \mu)^T$$

Variance within component Variance between components

- Proof on board

Estimating the Latent Variable

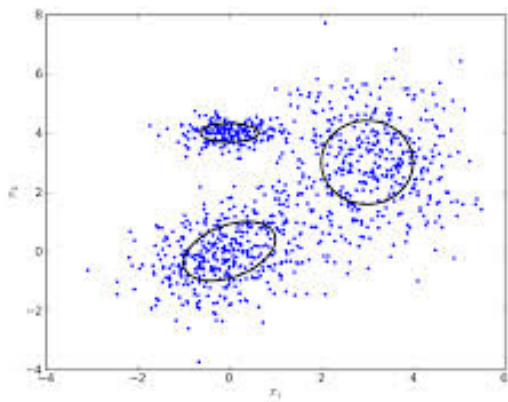
- Given \mathcal{X} , can we estimate z if we knew parameters:
- Use Bayes' rule:

$$P(z = i | \mathcal{X}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{X} | z = i) q_i}{\sum_k P(\mathcal{X} | z = k) q_k}$$

- Example: Scalar Gaussian
 - Illustration on board

Fitting a Mixture Model

- Given data $x = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$
- Find GMM parameters
 - Mean and variance in each component
 - Probability of each component
- Can be interpreted as “clustering”
- Parametric probabilistic model versus K-means



Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Unknown parameters in GMM:

$$\theta = (q_1, \dots, q_K, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_K, P_1, \dots, P_K)$$

- Data $\mathcal{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$

- Likelihood of x_n :

$$p(x_n|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(x_n|z_n = k, \theta)P(z_n = k|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^K q_k N(x_n|\mu_k, P_k)$$

- Negative log likelihood of all data

$$L(\theta) = -\ln p(\mathcal{x}|\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^N \ln \left[\sum_{i=1}^K q_i N(x_n|\mu_i, P_i) \right]$$

- ML estimation:

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} L(\theta)$$

- Type equation here.

Outline

- Factor Analysis
- LDA – multiple vectors
- Clustering
 - K-means
 - Hierarchical Clustering - brief description
- Mixture Distributions
- ➡ Expectation Maximization Algorithm
 - Convergence of EM

Expectation Maximization Algorithm

- Optimization of $L(\theta)$ is hard
 - No simple way to directly optimize
 - Likelihood is non-convex
- Expectation maximization:
 - Simple iterative procedure:
 - Generates a sequence of estimates $\hat{\theta}^0, \hat{\theta}^1, \dots$
 - Attempts to approach MLE

$$\hat{\theta}^k \rightarrow \arg \min_{\theta} L(\theta)$$

f

EM Steps

- **E-step**: Estimate the latent variables

- Find the posterior of the latent variables given $\hat{\theta}^k$

$$P(z|x, \theta = \hat{\theta}^k)$$

- Compute function, Q, auxiliary function

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\theta, \hat{\theta}^k) &:= E[\ln p(x, z|\theta) | \hat{\theta}^k] \\ &= \sum_z \ln p(x, z|\theta) P(z|x, \theta = \hat{\theta}^k) \end{aligned}$$

- **M-step**: Update parameters

$$\hat{\theta}^{k+1} = \arg \max_{\theta} Q(\theta, \hat{\theta}^k)$$

E-Step for a GMM: Finding the posterior

- Given parameters q_i, μ_i, P_i
- Find posterior by Bayes rule

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_{ni} = P(z_n = i|x) &= \frac{P(x_n|z_n = i)q_i}{\sum_k P(x_n|z_n = k)q_k} \\ &= \frac{N(x_n|\mu_i, P_i)q_i}{\sum_k P(x_n|\mu_k, P_k)q_k}\end{aligned}$$

- A “soft” selection

E-Step for a GMM

- Auxilliary function separates

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\theta, \hat{\theta}^k) &= E[\ln p(x, z) | \hat{\theta}^k] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_{ni} \ln P(x_n, z_n = i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_{ni} [\ln q_i + \ln N(x_n | \mu_i, P_i)] \end{aligned}$$

M-Step for the GMM

- Maximize $Q(\theta, \hat{\theta}^k)$
- Update for q_i (proof on board)

$$q_i = \frac{N_i}{\sum_j N_j}, \quad N_i = \sum_n \gamma_{ni}$$

- Update for μ_i

$$\mu_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_n \gamma_{ni} x_n$$

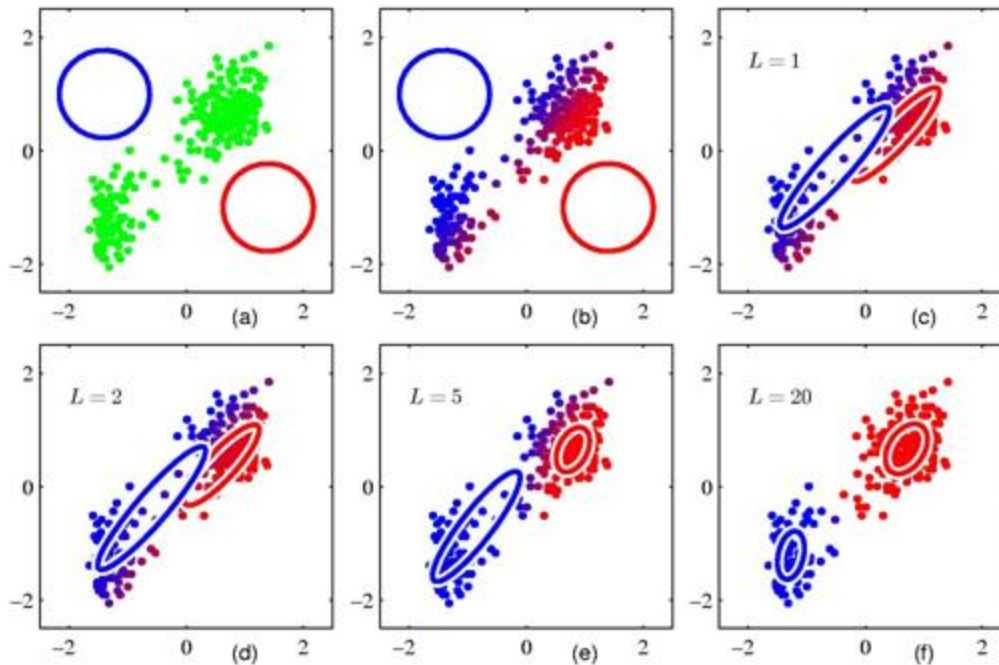
- Update for P_i

$$P_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \sum_n \gamma_{ni} (x_n - \mu_i)(x_n - \mu_i)^T$$

Relation to K means

- EM can be seen as a “soft” version
 - In K-Means: $\gamma_{ni} = 1$ or 0
- Variance
 - In K-means: $P_i = I$
 - In EM, this is estimated
- EM provides “scaling” of various dimensions

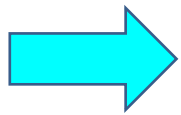
EM Illustrated



- Simple example with $K=2$ clusters
- Dimension = 2
- Convergence from a bad initial condition

Outline

- LDA - multiple
- Clustering
 - K-means
 - Hierarchical Clustering
- Mixture Distributions
- Expectation Maximization Algorithm



Convergence of EM

Majorization Minimization

- Suppose we wish to minimize $f(\theta)$
- MM algorithm: find a **majorizing** function $F(\theta, \theta^k)$:
 - $f(\theta^k) = F(\theta^k, \theta^k)$
 - $f(\theta) \leq F(\theta, \theta^k)$ for all θ
- Take $\theta^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\theta} F(\theta, \theta^k)$ (minimize majorization)
- Theorem: $f(\theta^{k+1}) \leq f(\theta^k)$
- Proof:

$$f(\theta^{k+1}) \leq F(\theta^{k+1}, \theta^k) \leq F(\theta^{k+1}, \theta^k) \leq f(\theta^k)$$

Gradient Descent as a MM

- Find $\alpha \geq f''(\theta)$
- Define

$$F(\theta, \theta^k) = f(\theta^k) + \nabla f(\theta^k)(\theta - \theta^k) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\theta - \theta^k\|^2$$

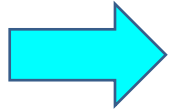
- By Taylor's theorem, this is a majorizing function
- Gradient descent:

$$\theta^{k+1} = \arg \min_{\theta} F(\theta, \theta^k) = \theta^k - \frac{1}{\alpha} \nabla f(\theta^k)$$

Convergence

- $p(z|x, \theta) = p(x, z|\theta)/p(x|\theta)$
- $J(\theta) = \ln p(x|\theta) = \ln p(x, z|\theta) - \ln p(z|x, \theta)$
- $J(\theta) = E[\ln p(x, z|\theta) | \theta^k] - E[\ln p(z|x, \theta) | \theta^k]$
 $= Q(\theta, \theta^k) + H(\theta, \theta^k)$
- EM algorithm: $J(\theta^{k+1}) \geq J(\theta^k)$
 - Proof on board
- Algorithm may get stuck in local maxima

Outline



Convex sets and functions

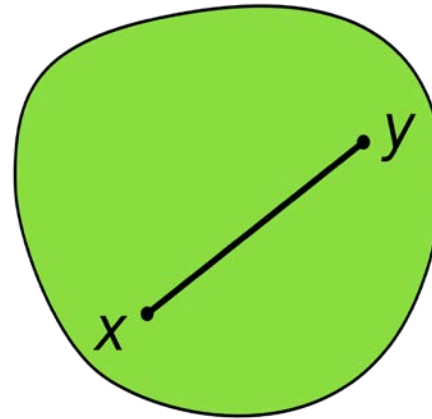
- Gradient descent
- Newton's method
- Using MATLAB for optimization
- Other topics

Convex Sets

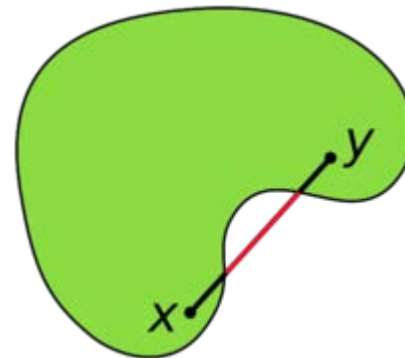
- **Definition:** A set X is **convex** if for any $x, y \in X$,
 $tx + (1 - t)y \in X$ for all $t \in [0,1]$
- Any line between two points remains in the set.
- Examples:
 - Square, circle, ellipse
 - $\{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$ for any matrix A and vector b
 - Not a star
- Will draw pictures on board

Convex Set Visualized

- Convex

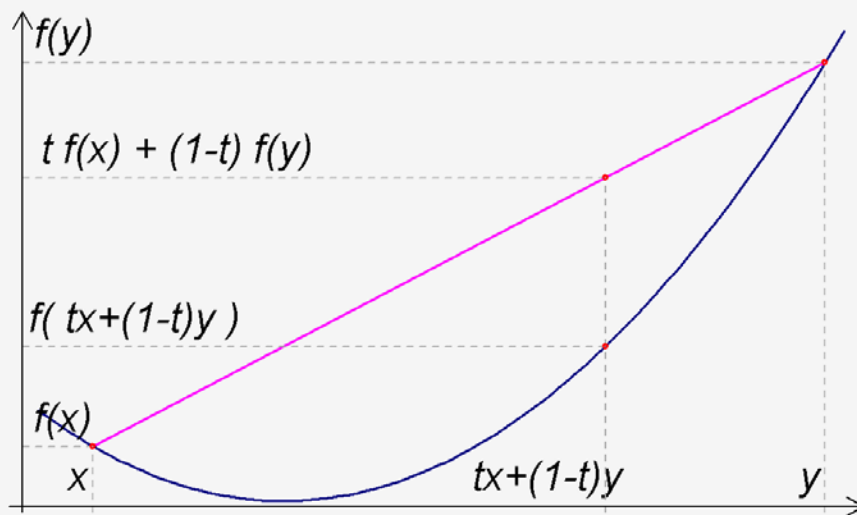


- Not convex



Convex Functions

- A real-valued function $f(x)$ is **convex** if:
 - Its domain is a convex set, and
 - For all x, y and $t \in [0,1]$:
$$f(tx + (1 - t)y) \leq tf(x) + (1 - t)f(y)$$



Convex Function Examples

- Linear function of a scalar $f(x) = ax + b$
- Linear function of a vector $f(x) = a^T x + b$
- Quadratic $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}ax^2 + bx + c$ is convex iff $a \geq 0$
- If $f''(x)$ exists everywhere, $f(x)$ is convex iff $f''(x) \geq 0$.
 - When x is a vector $f''(x) \geq 0$ means the Hessian must be positive semidefinite
- $f(x) = e^x$
- If $f(x)$ is convex, so is $f(Ax + b)$

Properties

- If $f(x)$ is convex, it is continuous
- If $f(x)$ has a derivative, then

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x)$$

Outline

- Convex sets and functions

 Gradient descent

- Newton's method
- Using MATLAB for optimization
- Other topics

Unconstrained optimization

- **Problem:** Given $f(x)$ find the minimum:

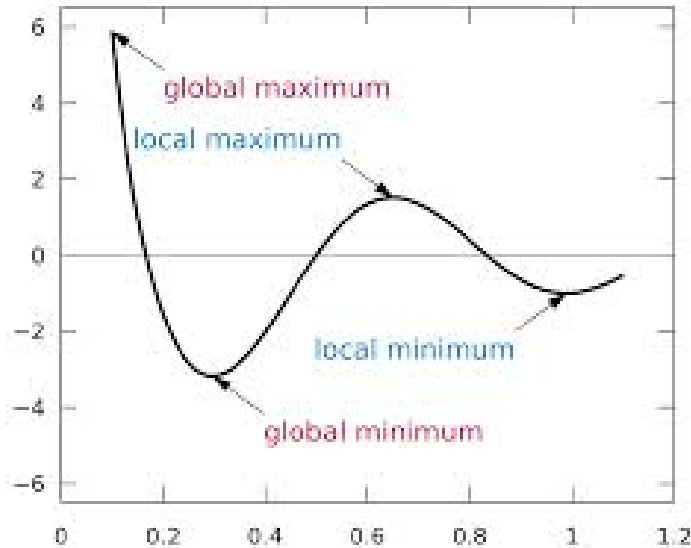
$$x^* = \arg \min_x f(x)$$

- $f(x)$ is called the **objective** function
 - $x = (x_1, \dots, x_p)$ is a vector of **decision variables** or parameters
-
- Called **unconstrained** since there are no constraints on x
 - Will discuss constrained optimization briefly later

Numerical Optimization

- We saw that we can find minima by setting $\nabla f(x) = 0$
 - p equations and p unknowns.
 - May not have closed-form solution
- Numerical methods: Finds a sequence of estimates x^k
$$x^k \rightarrow x^*$$
 - Or converges to some other “good” minima
 - Run on a computer program, like MATLAB

Local vs. Global Minima



- Definitions:
 - x^* is a **global minima** if $f(x) \geq f(x^*)$ for all x
 - x^* is a **local minima** if $f(x) \geq f(x^*)$ for all x in some open neighborhood of x^*
- Most numerical methods only guarantee convergence to **local minima**

Local Minima and Convex Function

- **Theorem:** If $f(x)$ is convex and x^* is a local minima, then it is a global minima
- Also, if $f(x)$ is **strictly convex**, then the global minima is unique
- **Implication:** If $f(x)$ is convex, a numerical method that converges to a local minima, will converge to a global minima.
- Many methods can find local minima
- For convex objectives, these methods will find global minima

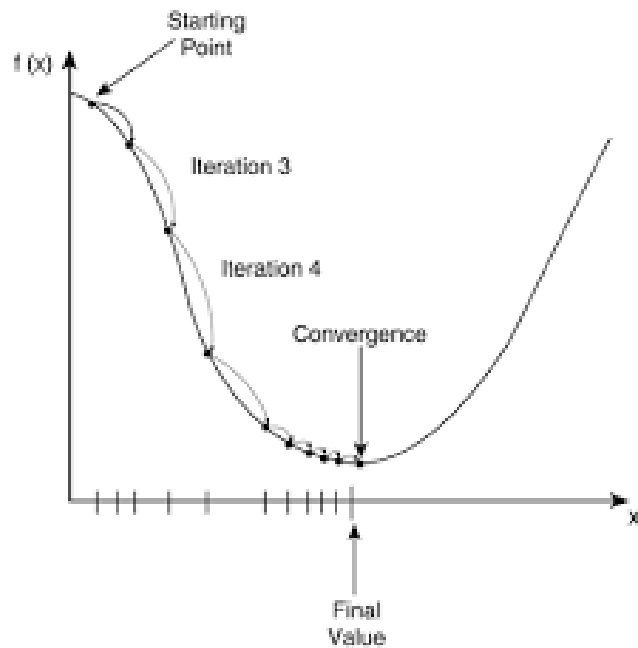
Gradient Descent

- Most simple method for unconstrained optimization
- Recall gradient:

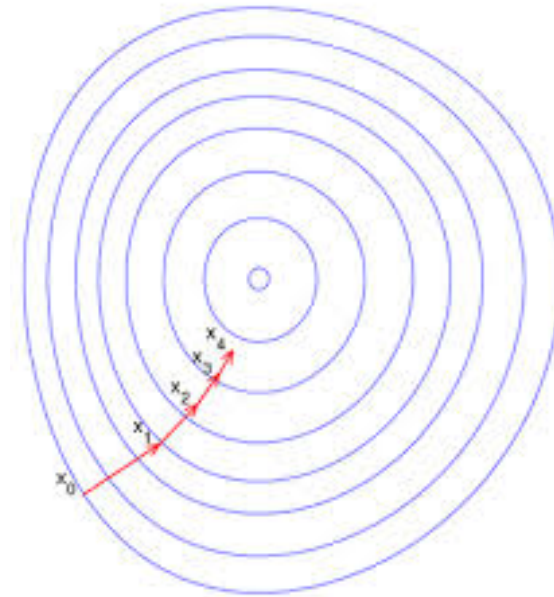
$$\nabla f(x) = \left(\partial f(x) / \partial x_1, \dots, \partial f(x) / \partial x_p \right)^T$$

- Column vector
- Gradient descent algorithm:
 - Start with initial x^0
 - $x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k)$
 - Repeat until some stopping criteria
- α_k is called the **step size**

Gradient Descent Illustrated



- $p = 1$



- $p = 2$

Gradient Descent Analysis

- Using gradient update rule

$$f(x^{k+1})$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= f(x^k) + \nabla f(x^k) \cdot (x^{k+1} - x^k) + O\|x^{k+1} - x^k\|^2 \\ &= f(x^k) - \alpha \nabla f(x^k) \cdot (x^{k+1} - x^k) + O(\alpha^2) \end{aligned}$$

- Consequence: If step size α is small, then $f(x^k)$ decreases
- **Theorem:** If $f''(x)$ is bounded above, $f(x)$ is bounded below, and α is chosen sufficiently small, then gradient descent converges to local minima

Step Size Selection

- Theorem shows we can always converge to a local minima
 - Global minima if $f(x)$ is convex
- But, step size selection is problematic
 - Need to know $f''(x)$ to find maximum step size
 - Practical choice tends to be conservative
- Very slow step size, many steps to convergence

Adaptive Step Size Selection

- Practical algorithms change step size adaptively

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k)$$

- Tradeoff: Selecting large α_k :
 - Larger steps, faster convergence
 - But, may overshoot

Armijo Rule

- Recall that we know if $x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha \nabla f(x^k)$
$$f(x^{k+1}) = f(x^k) - \alpha \|\nabla f(x^k)\|^2 + O(\alpha^2)$$

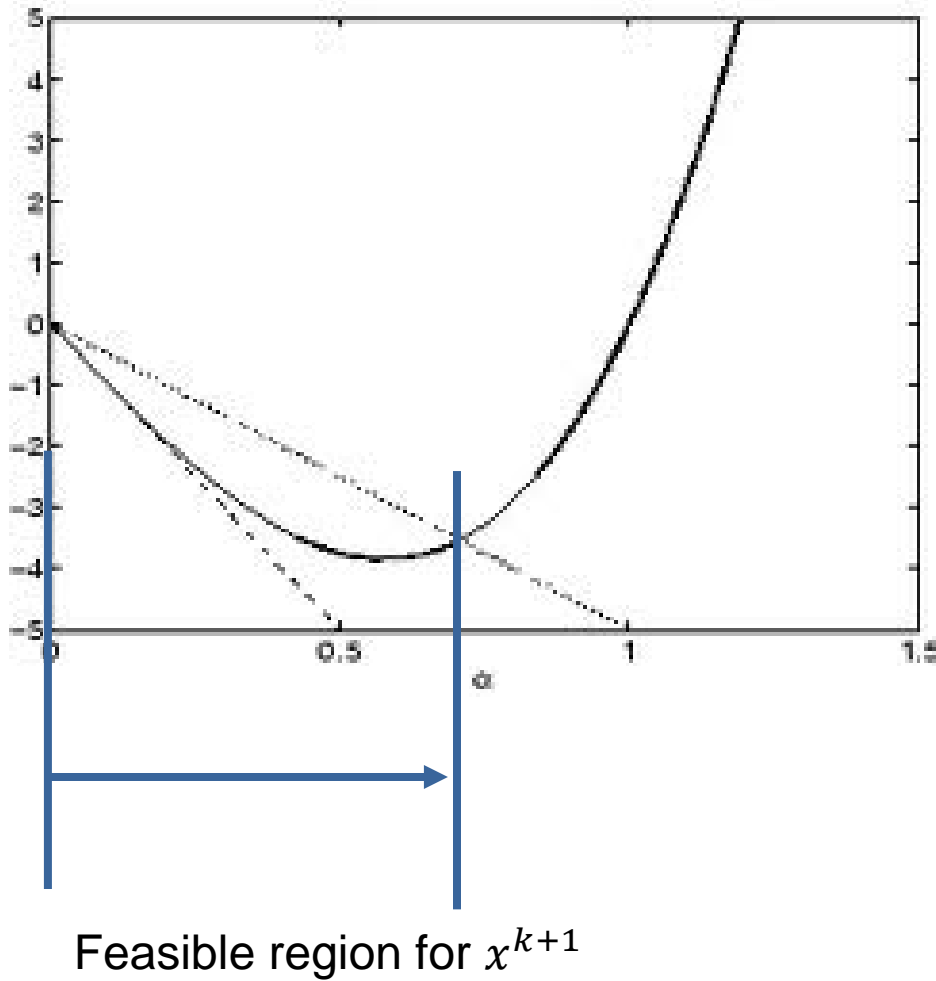
- Armijo Rule:

- Select some $c \in (0,1)$. Usually $c = 1/2$
- Select α such that

$$f(x^{k+1}) \leq f(x^k) - c\alpha \|\nabla f(x^k)\|^2$$

- Decreases by at least at fraction c predicted by linear approx.
- Step size α selected by a line search to find largest α satisfying above conditions

Armijo Rule Illustrated



- Armijo rule:
$$f(x^{k+1}) \leq f(x^k) - c\alpha \|\nabla f(x^k)\|^2$$
- Guarantees function decrements in each iteration
- No overshoot