

k -Means Clustering

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Slides based on Lecture 13a from David Rosenberg's course materials
(<https://github.com/davidrosenberg/mlcourse>)

CDS, NYU

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Final exam

- Period: 6:00pm EST, May 12 – 8:00pm EST, May 12
- Format: on Gradescope, same as midterm
- Coverage: mainly about material from week 6 onwards but can overlap with basic concepts before midterm
- Submission: **Make sure you leave enough time for submission!**

K-means Clustering

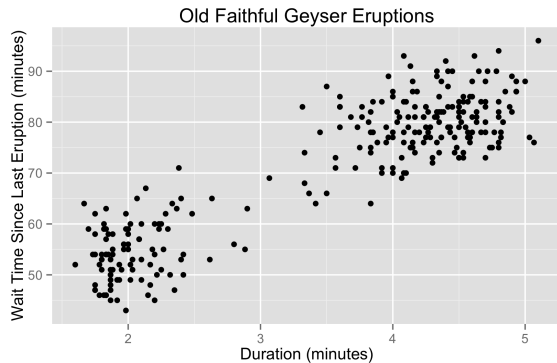
Unsupervised learning

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.

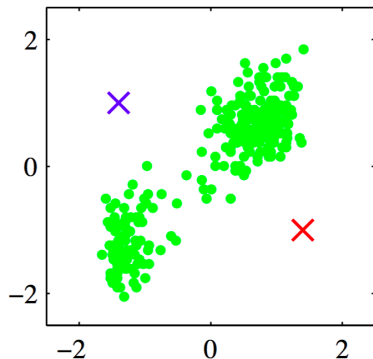
Example: Old Faithful Geyser



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

k -Means: By Example

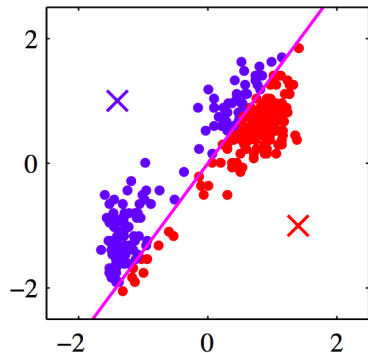
- Standardize the data.
- Choose two cluster centers.



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

k-means: by example

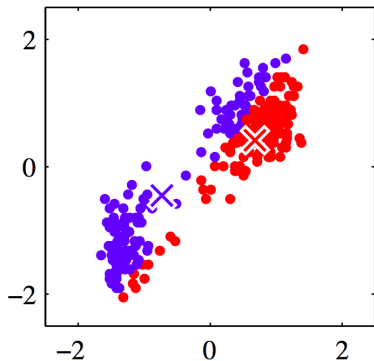
- Assign each point to closest center.



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

k -means: by example

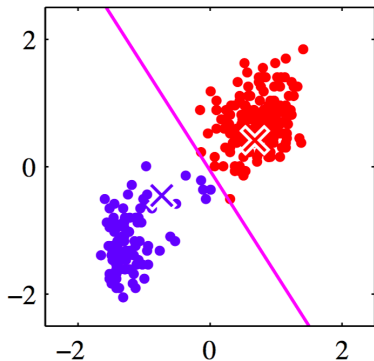
- Compute new cluster centers.



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

k -means: by example

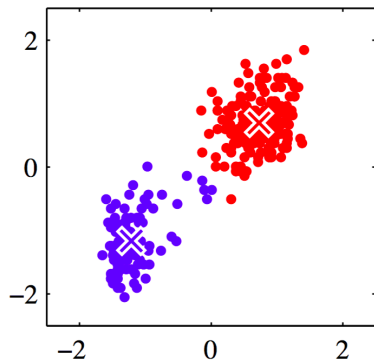
- Assign points to closest center.



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

k -means: by example

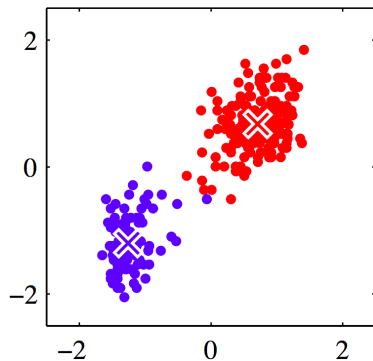
- Compute cluster centers.



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

k -means: by example

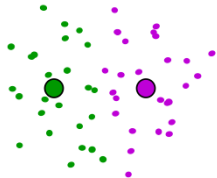
- Iterate until convergence.



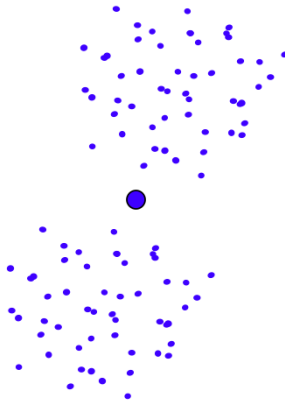
From Bishop's *Pattern recognition and machine learning*, Figure 9.1(i).

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 $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$.
- Goal: Partition data \mathcal{D} into k disjoint sets C_1, \dots, C_k .
- Let $c_i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ be the cluster assignment of x_i .
- The **centroid** of C_i is defined to be

$$\mu_i = \arg \min_{\mu \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{x \in C_i} \|x - \mu\|^2. \quad \text{mean of } C_i \quad (1)$$

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

$$J(c, \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i - \mu_{c_i}\|^2. \quad (2)$$

k-Means: Algorithm

- 1 Initialize: Randomly choose initial centroids $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
- 2 Repeat until convergence (i.e. c_i doesn't change anymore):

- 1 For all i , set

$$c_i \leftarrow \arg \min_j \|x_i - \mu_j\|^2. \quad \text{Minimize } J \text{ w.r.t. } c \text{ while fixing } \mu \quad (3)$$

- 2 For all j , set

$$\mu_j \leftarrow \frac{1}{|C_j|} \sum_{x \in C_j} x. \quad \text{Minimize } J \text{ w.r.t. } \mu \text{ while fixing } c. \quad (4)$$

- Recall the objective: $J(c, \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_i - \mu_{c_i}\|^2$.

Avoid bad local minima

k -means converges to a local minimum.

- J is non-convex, thus no guarantee to converging to the global minimum.

Avoid getting stuck with bad local minima:

- Re-run with random initial centroids.
- **k -means++**: choose initial centroids that spread over all data points.
 - Randomly choose the first centroid from the data points \mathcal{D} .
 - Sequentially choose subsequent centroids from points that are farther away from current centroids:
 - Compute distance between each x_i and the closest already chosen centroids.
 - 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.
- k -means:
 - Algorithm: alternating between assigning points to clusters and computing cluster centroids.
 - Objective: minimizing some loss function by coordinate descent.
 - Converge to a local minimum.

Next, probabilistic model of clustering.

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

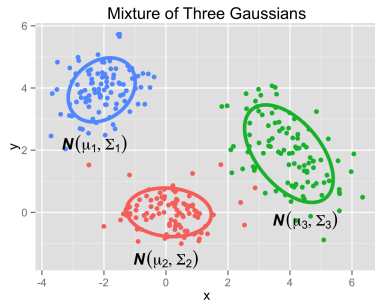
Gaussian Mixture Models

Probabilistic Model for Clustering

- Problem setup:
 - There are k clusters (or **mixture components**).
 - We have a probability distribution for each cluster.
- Generative story of a **mixture distribution**:
 - 1 Choose a random cluster $z \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.
 - 2 Choose a point from the distribution for cluster z .

Example:

- 1 Choose $z \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ with $p(1) = p(2) = p(3) = \frac{1}{3}$.
- 2 Choose $x \mid z \sim \mathcal{N}(X \mid \mu_z, \Sigma_z)$.



Gaussian mixture model (GMM)

Generative story of GMM with k mixture components:

- 1 Choose cluster $z \sim \text{Categorical}(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_k)$.
- 2 Choose $x \mid z \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_z, \Sigma_z)$.

Probability density of x :

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

$$p(x) = \sum_z p(x, z) \tag{5}$$

$$= \sum_z p(x \mid z) p(z) \tag{6}$$

$$= \sum_k \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \tag{7}$$

Identifiability Issues for GMM

- Suppose we have found parameters

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

Cluster means: $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k)$

Cluster covariance matrices: $\Sigma = (\Sigma_1, \dots, \Sigma_k)$

that are at a local minimum.

- What happens if we shuffle the clusters? e.g. Switch the labels for clusters 1 and 2.
- We'll get the same likelihood. How many such equivalent settings are there?
- Assuming all clusters are distinct, there are $k!$ equivalent solutions.
- Not a problem *per se*, but something to be aware of.

Learning GMMs

How to learn the parameters π_k, μ_k, Σ_k ?

- MLE (also called maximize marginal likelihood).
- Log likelihood of data:

$$L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x_i; \theta) \quad (8)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \sum_z p(x, z; \theta) \quad (9)$$

- Cannot push log into the sum... z and x are coupled.
- No closed-form solution for GMM—try to compute the gradient yourself!

Gradient Descent / SGD for GMM

- What about running gradient descent or SGD on

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

- Can be done, in principle – but need to be clever about it.
- For example, each covariance matrix $\Sigma_1, \dots, \Sigma_k$ has to be positive semidefinite.
- How to maintain that constraint?
 - Rewrite $\Sigma_i = M_i M_i^T$, where M_i is an unconstrained matrix.
 - Then Σ_i is positive semidefinite.
- Even then, pure gradient-based methods have trouble.¹

¹See Hosseini and Sra's [Manifold Optimization for Gaussian Mixture Models](#) for discussion and further references.

Learning GMMs: observable case

Suppose we observe cluster assignments z . Then MLE is easy:

$$n_z = \sum_{i=1}^n 1(z_i = z) \quad \# \text{ examples in each cluster} \quad (10)$$

$$\hat{\pi}(z) = \frac{n_z}{n} \quad \text{fraction of examples in each cluster} \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{\mu}_z = \frac{1}{n_z} \sum_{i: z_i = z} x_i \quad \text{empirical cluster mean} \quad (12)$$

$$\hat{\Sigma}_z = \frac{1}{n_z} \sum_{i: z_i = z} (x_i - \hat{\mu}_z)(x_i - \hat{\mu}_z)^T. \quad \text{empirical cluster covariance} \quad (13)$$

The inference problem: observe x , want to know z .

$$p(z = j | x_i) = p(x, z = j) / p(x) \quad (14)$$

$$= \frac{p(x | z = j) p(z = j)}{\sum_k p(x | z = k) p(z = k)} \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{\pi_j \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_j, \Sigma_j)}{\sum_k \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \quad (16)$$

- $p(z | x)$ is a *soft assignment*.
- If we know the parameters μ, Σ, π , this would be easy to compute.

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

The expectation-minimization (EM) algorithm:

- ① Initialize parameters μ, Σ, π randomly.
- ② Run until convergence:
 - ① E-step: fill in latent variables by inference.
 - compute soft assignments $p(z | x_i)$ for all i .
 - ② M-step: standard MLE for μ, Σ, π 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

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

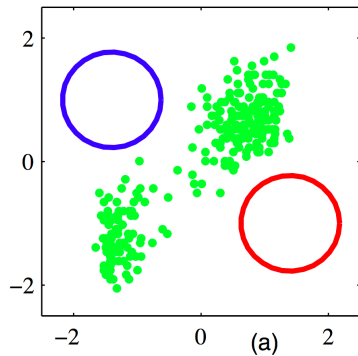
$$\mu_z^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n_z} \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_i^z x_i$$

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

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

EM for GMM

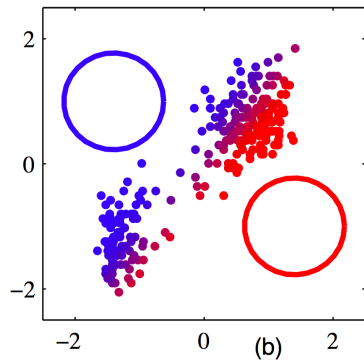
- Initialization



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

EM for GMM

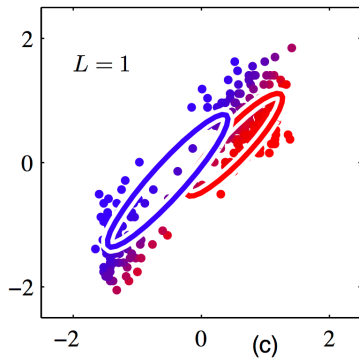
- First soft assignment:



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

EM for GMM

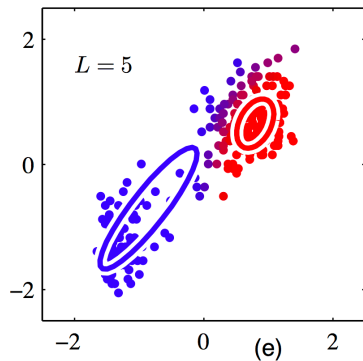
- First soft assignment:



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

EM for GMM

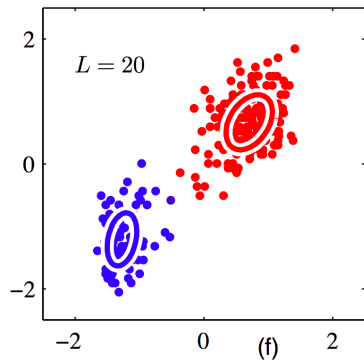
- After 5 rounds of EM:



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 .
- z consists of unobserved **hidden variables**.
- x consists of **observed variables**.
- Joint probability model parameterized by $\theta \in \Theta$:

$$p(x, z \mid \theta)$$

Definition

A **latent variable model** is a probability model for which certain variables are never observed.

e.g. The Gaussian mixture model is a latent variable model.

Complete and Incomplete Data

- Suppose we observe some data (x_1, \dots, x_n) .
- 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

- **Learning problem:** Given incomplete dataset x , find MLE

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(x | \theta).$$

- **Inference problem:** Given x , find conditional distribution over z :

$$p(z | x, \theta).$$

- For Gaussian mixture model, learning is hard, inference is easy.
- For more complicated models, inference can also be hard. (See DSGA-1005)

Log-Likelihood and Terminology

- Note that

$$\arg \max_{\theta} p(x \mid \theta) = \arg \max_{\theta} [\log p(x \mid \theta)].$$

- Often easier to work with this “**log-likelihood**”.
- We often call $p(x)$ the **marginal likelihood**,
 - because it is $p(x, z)$ with z “marginalized out”:

$$p(x) = \sum_z p(x, z)$$

- We often call $p(x, z)$ the **joint**. (for “joint distribution”)
- Similarly, $\log p(x)$ is the **marginal log-likelihood**.

EM Algorithm

Intuition

Problem: marginal log-likelihood $\log p(x; \theta)$ is hard to optimize (observing only x)

Observation: complete data log-likelihood $\log p(x, z; \theta)$ is easy to optimize (observing both x and z)

Idea: guess a distribution of the latent variables $q(z)$ (soft assignments)

Maximize the **expected complete data log-likelihood**:

$$\max_{\theta} \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log p(x, z; \theta)$$

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

$$\mathbb{E}f(x) \geq f(\mathbb{E}x).$$

Moreover, if f is **strictly convex**, then equality implies that $x = \mathbb{E}x$ with probability 1 (i.e. x is a constant).

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

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

(Assumes $q(x) = 0$ implies $p(x) = 0$.)

- Can also write this as

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

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

Theorem (Gibbs Inequality)

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

$$\text{KL}(p\|q) \geq 0,$$

with equality iff $p(x) = q(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

- KL divergence measures the “distance” between distributions.
- Note:
 - KL divergence **not a metric**.
 - KL divergence is **not symmetric**.

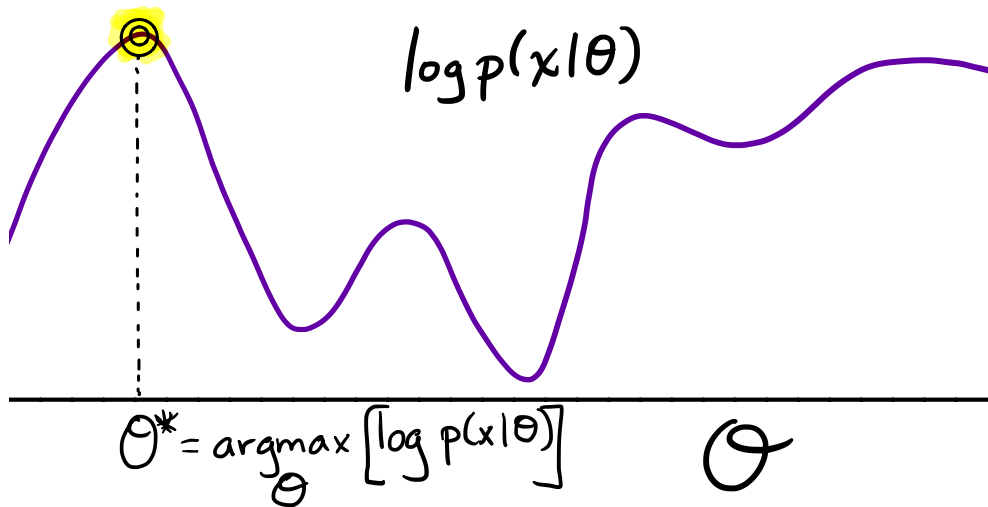
Gibbs Inequality: Proof

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{KL}(p\|q) &= \mathbb{E}_p \left[-\log \left(\frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right) \right] \\ &\geq -\log \left[\mathbb{E}_p \left(\frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right) \right] \quad (\text{Jensen's}) \\ &= -\log \left[\sum_{\{x|p(x)>0\}} p(x) \frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right] \\ &= -\log \left[\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} q(x) \right] \\ &= -\log 1 = 0.\end{aligned}$$

- 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

$$\begin{aligned}\log p(x; \theta) &= \log \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} p(x, z; \theta) \\ &= \log \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \frac{p(x, z; \theta)}{q(z)} \\ &\geq \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{p(x, z; \theta)}{q(z)} \\ &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta)\end{aligned}$$

- **Evidence:** $\log p(x; \theta)$
- **Evidence lower bound (ELBO):** $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$
- q : chosen to be a family of tractable distributions
- Idea: *maximize the ELBO* instead of $\log p(x; \theta)$

MLE, EM, and the ELBO

- The MLE is defined as a maximum over θ :

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg \max_{\theta} [\log p(x | \theta)].$$

- For any PMF $q(z)$, we have a lower bound on the marginal log-likelihood

$$\log p(x | \theta) \geq \mathcal{L}(q, \theta).$$

- In EM algorithm, we maximize the lower bound (ELBO) over θ and q :

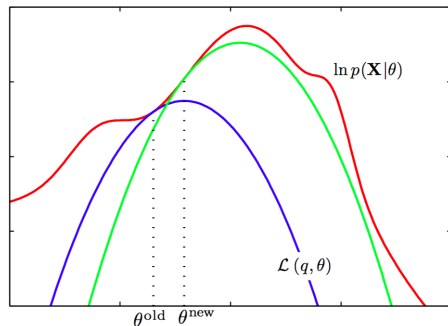
$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{EM}} \approx \arg \max_{\theta} \left[\max_q \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) \right]$$

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

EM: Coordinate Ascent on Lower Bound

- Choose sequence of q 's and θ 's by “**coordinate ascent**” on $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$.
- EM Algorithm (high level):
 - ① Choose initial θ^{old} .
 - ② Let $q^* = \arg \max_q \mathcal{L}(q, \theta^{\text{old}})$
 - 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 θ 's with monotonically increasing likelihood.**

EM: Coordinate Ascent on Lower Bound



- 1 Start at θ^{old} .
- 2 Find q giving best lower bound at $\theta^{\text{old}} \implies \mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$.
- 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 θ .

- Find q maximizing

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) = -\text{KL}[q(z), p(z | x, \theta)] + \underbrace{\log p(x | \theta)}_{\text{no } q \text{ here}}$$

- Recall $\text{KL}(p \| q) \geq 0$, and $\text{KL}(p \| p) = 0$.

- Best q is $q^*(z) = p(z | x, \theta)$ and

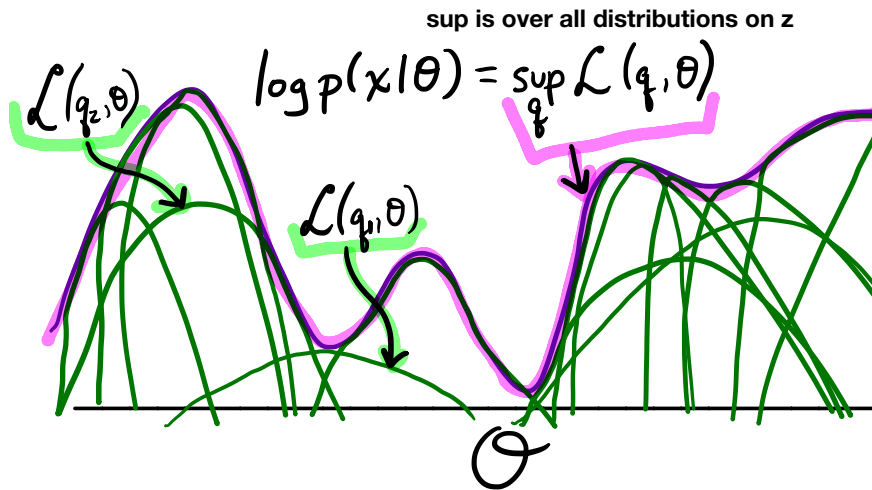
$$\mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta) = -\underbrace{\text{KL}[p(z | x, \theta), p(z | x, \theta)]}_{=0} + \log p(x | \theta)$$

- Summary:

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

- For any θ , **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): $\theta^{\text{new}} \leftarrow \arg \max_{\theta} J(\theta)$

① Expectation Step

- Let $q^*(z) = p(z \mid x, \theta^{\text{old}})$. [q^* gives best lower bound at θ^{old}]
- Let

$$J(\theta) := \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta) = \underbrace{\sum_z q^*(z) \log \left(\frac{p(x, z \mid \theta)}{q^*(z)} \right)}_{\text{expectation w.r.t. } z \sim q^*(z)}$$

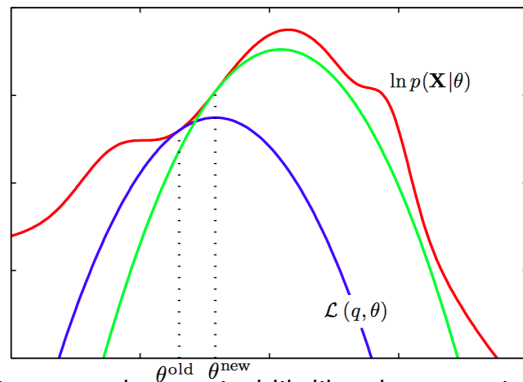
② Maximization Step

$$\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} J(\theta).$$

[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

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

- The “M” Step: Computing

$$\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} J(\theta).$$

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

Generalized EM (GEM)

- Addresses the problem of a difficult “M” step.
- Rather than finding

$$\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} J(\theta),$$

find **any** θ^{new} for which

$$J(\theta^{\text{new}}) > J(\theta^{\text{old}}).$$

- Can use a standard nonlinear optimization strategy
 - e.g. take a gradient step on J .
- We still get monotonically increasing likelihood.

EM and More General Variational Methods

- Suppose “E” step is difficult:
 - Hard to take expectation w.r.t. $q^*(z) = p(z \mid x, \theta^{\text{old}})$.
- Solution: Restrict to distributions \mathcal{Q} that are easy to work with.
- Lower bound now looser:

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