Clustering and EM

CDS, NYU

April 25, 2022

Logistics

Final exam

- Period: May 15 4:00-5:50pm EST
- Format: in person, closed book
- Coverage: mainly about material from week 6 onwards but can overlap with basic concepts before midterm

K-means Clustering

Goal Discover interesting *structure* in the data.

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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).

• Assign each point to closest center.



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

• Compute new cluster centers.



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

• Assign points to closest center.



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

• Compute cluster centers.



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

• 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



From Sontag's DS-GA 1003, 2014, Lecture 8.

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

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

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(3)

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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.

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 - 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: minmizing some loss function by cooridinate descent.
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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**).
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 - Choose a random cluster $z \in \{1, 2, ..., k\}$.
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Example:

Choose z ∈ {1, 2, 3} with p(1) = p(2) = p(3) = ¹/₃.
 2 Choose x | z ~ N(X | μ_z, Σ_z).



Gaussian mixture model (GMM)

Generative story of GMM with k mixture components:

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

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Probability density of x:

• Sum over (marginalize) the latent variable z.

$$p(x) = \sum_{z} p(x, z)$$
(5)
$$= \sum_{z} p(x | z)p(z)$$
(6)
$$= \sum_{k} \pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mu_{k}, \Sigma_{k})$$
(7)

• Suppose we have found parameters

Cluster probabilities :	$\pi = (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_k)$
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- 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.

(CDS, NYU)

Learning GMMs

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• MLE (also called maximize marginal likelihood).

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• Log likelihood of data:

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

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \sum_{z} p(x, z; \theta)$$
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- Cannot push log into the sum... z and x are coupled.
- No closed-form solution for GMM—try to compute the gradient yourself!

(CDS, NYU)

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

 $^{^1 {\}rm See}$ Hosseini and Sra's Manifold Optimization for Gaussian Mixture Models for discussion and further references.

• What about running gradient descent or SGD on

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 - Then Σ_i is positive semidefinite.
- Even then, pure gradient-based methods have trouble.¹

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Learning GMMs: observable case

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

$$n_{z} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1(z_{i} = z) \qquad \# \text{ example}$$

$$\hat{\pi}(z) = \frac{n_{z}}{n} \qquad \text{fraction of}$$

$$\hat{\mu}_{z} = \frac{1}{n_{z}} \sum_{i:z_{i} = z} x_{i} \qquad \text{empirical}$$

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{z} = \frac{1}{n_{z}} \sum_{i:z_{i} = z} (x_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{z}) (x_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{z})^{T} \qquad \text{empirical}$$

#	examples in	each cluster	((10)

of examples in each cluster (11)

(12)cluster mean

empirical cluster covariance (13	;))
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- p(z | x) is a soft assignment.
- If we know the parameters μ , Σ , π , this would be easy to compute.

$\operatorname{\mathsf{EM}}$ for $\operatorname{\mathsf{GMM}}$

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The expectation-minimization (EM) algorithm:

- Initialize parameters μ , Σ , π randomly.
- 2 Run until convergence:
 - 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:

$$\gamma_{i}^{j} = \frac{\pi_{j}^{\text{old}} \mathcal{N}\left(x_{i} \mid \mu_{j}^{\text{old}}, \Sigma_{j}^{\text{old}}\right)}{\sum_{c=1}^{k} \pi_{c}^{\text{old}} \mathcal{N}\left(x_{i} \mid \mu_{c}^{\text{old}}, \Sigma_{c}^{\text{old}}\right)}.$$

• Exercise: show that

$$n_{z} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{i}^{z}$$

$$\mu_{z}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n_{z}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{i}^{z} x_{i}$$

$$\Sigma_{z}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{n_{z}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{i}^{z} (x_{i} - \mu_{z}^{\text{new}}) (x_{i} - \mu_{z}^{\text{new}})^{T}$$

$$\pi_{z}^{\text{new}} = \frac{n_{z}}{n}.$$

$\mathsf{E}\mathsf{M}$ for $\mathsf{G}\mathsf{M}\mathsf{M}$

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.

$\operatorname{\mathsf{EM}}$ for $\operatorname{\mathsf{GMM}}$

• 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 $p(z | x, \theta)$.
 - 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

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- z consists of unobserved hidden variables.
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A latent variable model is a probability model for which certain variables are never observed.

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

Complete and Incomplete Data

• Suppose we observe some data (x_1, \ldots, x_n) .

Complete and Incomplete Data

- Suppose we observe some data (x_1, \ldots, x_n) .
- To simplify notation, take x to represent the entire dataset

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

and z to represent the corresponding unobserved variables

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

- 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

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• Inference problem: Given x, find conditional distribution over z:

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

Note that

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- We often call p(x) the marginal likelihood,
 - because it is p(x, z) with z "marginalized out":

$$p(x) = \sum_{z} p(x, z)$$

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$$p(x) = \sum_{z} p(x, z)$$

- 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 $f : R \rightarrow R$ is a **convex** function, and x is a random variable, then

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

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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 $\mathbb{E}x^2 \ge (\mathbb{E}x)^2$. Thus
 $\operatorname{Var}(x) = \mathbb{E}x^2 - (\mathbb{E}x)^2 \ge 0$.

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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- How can we measure how "different" p and q are?
- The Kullback-Leibler or "KL" Divergence is defined by

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

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

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• Can also write this as

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

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

Theorem (Gibbs Inequality)

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

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

$$\operatorname{KL}(p \| q) = \mathbb{E}_{p}\left[-\log\left(\frac{q(x)}{p(x)}\right)\right]$$

J

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{KL}(p \| q) &= \mathbb{E}_{p} \left[-\log \left(\frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right) \right] \\ &\geqslant -\log \left[\mathbb{E}_{p} \left(\frac{q(x)}{p(x)} \right) \right] \end{aligned} \tag{Jensen's}$$

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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 $\log p(x \mid \theta)$

The Maximum Likelihood Estimator



Lower bound of the marginal log-likelihood

$$\log p(x; \theta) = \log \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} p(x, z; \theta)$$
Lower bound of the marginal log-likelihood

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

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Lower bound of the marginal log-likelihood

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

- 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 $\log p(x; \theta)$

(CDS, NYU)

MLE, EM, and the ELBO

• The MLE is defined as a maximum over $\boldsymbol{\theta}:$

$$\hat{\theta}_{\mathsf{MLE}} = \arg\max_{\theta} [\log p(x \mid \theta)]$$

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

 $\log p(x \mid \theta) \geqslant \mathcal{L}(q, \theta).$

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

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

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

• Choose sequence of q's and θ 's by "coordinate ascent" on $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$.

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 - Choose initial θ^{old} .
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 - **3** Let $\theta^{\text{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta)$.

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- EM Algorithm (high level):
 - Choose initial θ^{old} .
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 - $\textbf{3} \text{ Let } \theta^{\mathsf{new}} = \arg \max_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta).$
 - Go to step 2, until converged.
- Will show: $p(x \mid \theta^{new}) \ge p(x \mid \theta^{old})$
- \bullet Get sequence of θ 's with monotonically increasing likelihood.



1 Start at θ^{old} .

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



• Start at θ^{old} .

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

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

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

Is ELBO a "good" lowerbound?

$$\mathcal{L}(q,\theta) = \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{p(x, z \mid \theta)}{q(z)}$$
$$= \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{p(z \mid x, \theta)p(x \mid \theta)}{q(z)}$$
$$= -\sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log \frac{q(z)}{p(z \mid x, \theta)} + \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} q(z) \log p(x \mid \theta)$$
$$= -\mathsf{KL}(q(z) \| p(z \mid x, \theta)) + \underbrace{\log p(x \mid \theta)}_{\text{oridance}}$$

• KL divergence: measures "distance" between two distributions (not symmetric!)

•
$$\mathsf{KL}(q \| p) \ge 0$$
 with equality iff $q(z) = p(z | x)$.

• ELBO = evidence - $KL \leq evidence$

(CDS, NYU)

• Find *q* maximizing

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) = -\mathrm{KL}[q(z), p(z \mid x, \theta)] + \log p(x \mid \theta)$$

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• Summary:

$$\log p(x \mid \theta) = \sup_{q} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) \qquad \forall \theta$$

• For any θ , sup is attained at $q(z) = p(z \mid x, \theta)$.

(CDS, NYU)

Marginal Log-Likelihood IS the Supremum over Lower Bounds



Summary

Latent variable models: clustering, latent structure, missing lables etc. Parameter estimation: maximum marginal log-likelihood Challenge: directly maximize the evidence $\log p(x; \theta)$ is hard Solution: maximize the evidence lower bound:

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

Why does it work?

$$q^*(z) = p(z \mid x; \theta) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$
$$\mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta^*) = \max_{\theta} \log p(x; \theta)$$

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

- $\textcircled{0} \quad \mathsf{Random initialization:} \ \theta^{\mathsf{old}} \leftarrow \theta_0$
- 2 Repeat until convergence

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

 $J(\theta) = \mathcal{L}(q^*, \theta)$

Expectation Step

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

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Maximization Step

$$\theta^{\mathsf{new}} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} J(\theta).$$

[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



$$\log p(x; \theta^{\mathsf{new}}) \ge \log p(x; \theta^{\mathsf{old}})$$

Does EM converge to a global maximum?

(CDS, NYU)

Variations on EM

• The "E" Step: Computing

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• The "M" Step: Computing

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

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- Can use a standard nonlinear optimization strategy
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- We still get monotonically increasing likelihood.

EM and More General Variational Methods

- Suppose "E" step is difficult:
 - Hard to take expectation w.r.t. $q^*(z) = p(z | x, \theta^{\text{old}})$.

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EM and More General Variational Methods

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 - Hard to take expectation w.r.t. $q^*(z) = p(z | x, \theta^{\text{old}})$.
- \bullet Solution: Restrict to distributions Ω that are easy to work with.
- Lower bound now looser:

$$q^* = \underset{q \in \Omega}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \operatorname{KL}[q(z), p(z \mid x, \theta^{\mathsf{old}})]$$

Today's Summary

- Motivation: Unsupervised learning
- K-means: A simple algorithm for discovering clusters
- Making k-means probabilistic: Gaussian mixture models
- More generally: Latent variable models
- Learning of latent variable models: EM
- Underlying principle: Maximizing ELBO