# Intelligent Systems: Reasoning and Recognition

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Lesson 15

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# Clustering and non-supervised learning: K-Means and Expectation maximization

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#### Sources:

C. M. Bishop, "Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning", Springer Verlag, 2006.

Jeff Bilmes, A Gentle Tutorial of the EM Algorithm, Tech Report, Univ of Washington, 1998. (available for download from course website).

# **Notation**

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X a random variable (unpredictable value)

V The number of possible values for X (Can be infinite).

 $\vec{x}$  A vector of D variables.

 $\vec{X}$  A vector of D random variables.

D The number of dimensions for the vector  $\vec{x}$  or  $\vec{X}$ 

E An observation. An event.

k index for cluster, data source or GMM Mode

K Total number of clusters, or sources, of events

N Total number of sample events.

$$N = \sum_{k=1}^{K} N_k$$

 $\{\vec{X}_n\}$  A set of N Sample Observations (a training set)

 $\{\vec{y}_n\}$  A set of indicator vectors for the training samples in  $\{\vec{X}_n\}$ 

 $\vec{y}_n$  indicates the probability that sample  $\vec{X}_n$  came from source  $S_k$ 

 $h(n, k) = y_n(k)$  Indicator variables in matrix form.

Expected Value: 
$$E\{X\} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} X_n$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} \det(\Sigma)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})}$$

# **Multivariate Normal Density Function**

The "Central Limit Theorem" tells us that whenever the features an observation are the result of a sequence of N independent random events, the probability density of the features will tend toward a Normal or Gaussian density.

$$p(\vec{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} \det(\Sigma)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})}$$

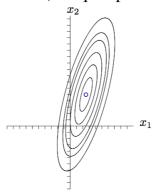
Where the parameters  $\vec{\mu}$ ,  $\Sigma$  and the mean and co-variance of the density. These are the first and second moments of the density.

Note that we use upper case for probabilities and lower case for functions. Thus  $P(\omega)$  is a value, p(X) is a function.

The mean is 
$$\vec{\mu} = E\{\vec{X}\} = \begin{pmatrix} E\{X_1\} \\ E\{X_2\} \\ \dots \\ E\{X_D\} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \\ \dots \\ \mu_D \end{pmatrix}$$

and the Covariance is 
$$\Sigma = E\{(\vec{X} - E\{\vec{X}\})(\vec{X} - E\{\vec{X}\})^T\} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{11}^2 & \sigma_{12}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{1D}^2 \\ \sigma_{21}^2 & \sigma_{22}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{2D}^2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \sigma_{D1}^2 & \sigma_{D2}^2 & \dots & \sigma_{DD}^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

The Normal density can be seen as a set of co-encentric ellipses. Each ellipse represents a contour of equal value (or equal probability) for a density function.



Ellipses for 99%, 95%, 90%, 75%, 50%, and 20%

## **Gaussian Mixture Models**

#### Gaussian Mixtures as a Sum of Independent Sources

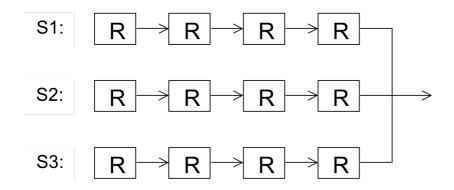
We can consider a sequence of random trials as a "source" of event

Source: 
$$R \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow R \longrightarrow E, X$$

The central limit theorem tells us that in this case, the resulting probability can be described by Normal density function:

$$p(\vec{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma)$$

Sometimes a population will result from a set of K different sources,  $S_k$ .



In this case, the probability density is better represented as a weighted sum of normal densities.

$$p(\vec{X}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)$$

Such a sum is referred to as a Gaussian Mixture Model. It can be used to represent density functions where the Central Limit theorem does not apply.

It can also be used to discover a set of subclasses within a global class.

Each normal density is considered to be produced from a different source. We can see the coefficients  $\{\alpha_n\}$  as the relative frequencies (probabilities) for a set of independent "sources",  $S_k$ , for events. The  $\alpha_k$  coefficients represent the relative probability that an event came from a source  $S_k$ .

For this to be a probability, we must assure that  $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k = 1$ 

Our problem is to discover the source for each sample, and to estimate the mean and covariance  $(\bar{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)$  for each source.

We will look at two possible algorithms for this: K-Means Clustering, and Expectation Maximization.

In both cases, the algorithm will iteratively construct a table, h(n,k) that assigns each sample to one of K clusters or sources.

For K-Means, this will be a hard assignment, with h(n, k) = 1 if observation  $\vec{X}_n$  is assigned to cluster  $S_k$  and 0 otherwise.

This can be seen as equivalent to the indicator variable  $y_n(k)$  seen in the last course.

$$h(n,k) = \vec{y}_n(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if sample } \vec{X}_n \in S_k \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $y_n(k) = h(n, k) = 1$  if E is assigned to cluster k, 0 otherwise.

In the case of EM, this will be a soft assignment, in which h(n,k) represents the probability that sample  $\vec{X}_n$  comes from source (or cluster),  $S_k$ .

$$h(n,k) = P(E_n \in S_k)$$

In either case we must initialize the estimated clusters:

This can be initialized with,  $\vec{\mu}_k^1 = k\vec{\mu}_0^1$ ,  $\Sigma_k^1 = I$  or any other convenient value.

K-means is sensitive to the starting point and can converge to a local minimum that is not the best estimate. EM is not sensitive and will converge to the global best estimate

Because K-Means and EM operate on an unlabeled training set, they can be used to discover classes in an unlabeled set of data. This is called <u>Unsupervised Learning</u>. They can also be used to estimate a multimodal density for a single class.

# **K-Means Clustering**

Assume a set of N sample observations  $\{\vec{X}_n\}$ , with each observation drawn from one of K clusters  $S_k$ . Our problem is to discover an assignment table h(n, k) that assigns each observation,  $\vec{X}_n$  in the sample set to the "best" cluster,  $S_k$ .

The assignment table is equivalent to the indicator variable  $\vec{y}_n(k)$  seen in the last course.

$$h(n,k) = \vec{y}_n(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if sample } \vec{X}_n \in S_k \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Given an estimate of the mean,  $\vec{\mu}_k$ , and covariance  $\Sigma_k$  for each cluster,  $S_k$  we can use the Mahalanobis Distance to determine the best cluster.

For each cluster we can then refine the estimate of the mean,  $\vec{\mu}_k$ , and covariance  $\Sigma_k$ .

This suggests an iterative process composed of two steps:

- 1) Expectation: For each sample,  $\vec{X}_n$ , determine the most likely cluster  $S_k$  using the distance to the current estimate of the mean,  $\vec{\mu}_k$ , and covariance  $\Sigma_k$ .
- 2) Maximization: For each cluster re-calcuate the mean,  $\vec{\mu}_k$ , and covariance  $\Sigma_k$  using sample assignments in h(n,k).

We can initialize the process to any value. For example,  $\vec{\mu}_k^{(0)} = k\vec{\mu}_0$ ,  $\Sigma_k^{(0)} = I$ 

However, it IS possible for K-means to be stuck in a local minimum, and the closer we start to the best values, the faster the process converges.

We will seek to minimize a quality metric:

For K-Means this is the sum of the mahalanobis distances.

$$Q^{(i)} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} h^{(i)}(n,k) (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k^{(i)})^T \Sigma_k^{(i)-1} (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k^{(i)})$$

Initially  $h^{(o)}(n,k) = 0$ , i=0.

We can stop the process after a fixed number of iterations, or when the assignment table does not change or when  $Q^{(i)}$  does not change.

## **Expectation:**

$$i \leftarrow i+1$$

$$\forall n = 1, N : h^{(i)}(n,k) \leftarrow \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = \arg-\min\left\{ (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k)^T \sum_{k=1}^{-1} (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k) \right\} \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### **Maximization**

Mean: 
$$\mu_k^{(i)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k) \cdot \vec{X}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k)}$$

Covariance: 
$$\Sigma_{k}^{(i)} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k) \cdot (\vec{X}_{n} - \vec{\mu}_{k})^{2}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k)}$$

The process stops after a fixed number of cycles, or when the sample assignment does not change or the quality metric does not change.

Each source can be interpreted as a separate class or as a mode in a Gaussian Mixture model, depending on the application.

# The Expectation Maximization Algorithm (EM)

As before, assume a set of N sample observations  $\{\vec{X}_n\}$ , with each observation drawn from one of K sources  $S_k$ . Our problem is to discover an assignment table h(n, k) that assigns each observation,  $\vec{X}_n$  in the sample set to the "best" cluster,  $S_k$ . For EM this will be a probability.

EM iteratively estimates the probability for the assignment of each observation to each source.

Expectation Maximization has many uses, including estimating the density functions for a Hidden Markov Model (HMM) as well as for estimating the parameters for a Gaussian Mixture model.

For a Gaussian Mixture model, a probability density is represented as a weighted sum of normal densities.

$$p(\vec{X}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)$$

It is sometimes convenient to group the parameters for each source into a single vector:

$$\vec{v}_k = (\alpha_k, \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)$$

The complete set of parameters is a vector with K·P coefficients. For a feature vector of D dimensions,  $\vec{v}_k$  has P = 1 + D + D(D+1)/2 coefficients.

To estimate  $\{\alpha_k, \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k\}$  we need the assignment of samples to source, h(n,k). To estimate h(n,k) we need the parameters  $\{\alpha_k, \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k\}$ 

This leads to an iterative two-step process in which we alternately estimate h(n,k). and then  $\{\alpha_k, \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k\}$ .

The EM algorithms constructs a table, h(m, n)Unlike K-Means, h(n,k) will contain probabilities.

$$h(n,k) = P(E_n \in S_k)$$

#### **Initialisation:**

Choose K (the number of sources). Use domain knowledge if possible. set i=0.

Form an initial estimate for  $\vec{v}^{(0)} = (\alpha_n^{(0)}, \vec{\mu}_n^{(0)}, \Sigma_n^{(0)})$  for k = 1 to K.

This can be initialized with 
$$\alpha_k^{(0)} = \frac{1}{K}$$
,  $\vec{\mu}_k^{(0)} = k\vec{\mu}_0$ ,  $\Sigma_k^{(0)} = I$ 

or with any reasonable first estimation. The closer the initial estimate, the faster the algorithm converges. Domain knowledge is useful here.

### **Expectation step (E)**

let 
$$i \leftarrow i+1$$

Calculate the table  $h^{(i)}(n,k)$  using the training data and estimated parameters.

$$h(n,k)^{(i)} = p((h_n = k) | \{X_n\}, \vec{v}^{(i-1)})$$

which gives:

$$h^{(i)}(n,k) \leftarrow \frac{\alpha_k^{(i-1)} \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}_n, \vec{\mu}_k^{(i-1)}, \Sigma_k^{(i-1)})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \alpha_j^{(i-1)} \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}_n, \vec{\mu}_j^{(i-1)}, \Sigma_j^{(i-1)})}$$

## **Maximization Step (M)**

Estimate the parameters  $\vec{v}^{(i)}$  using  $h^{(i)}(n,k)$ 

M: (Maximisation)

$$\alpha_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N h^{(i)}(n,k)$$

$$\vec{\mu}_{k}^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k)} \sum_{n=1}^{N} h^{(i)}(n,k) \vec{X}_{n}$$

$$\Sigma_k^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sum_{n=1}^N h^{(i)}(n,k)} \sum_{n=1}^N h^{(i)}(n,k) (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k^{(i)}) (\vec{X}_n - \vec{\mu}_k^{(i)})^T$$

## **Convergence Criteria**

The quality metric is the Log-likelihood of the probability of obtaining the data given the parameters.

$$Q^{(i)} = \ln\{p(\{\vec{X}_n\} \mid \vec{v}^{(i)})\} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \alpha_j^{(i)} \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}_n \mid \mu_j^{(i)}, \Sigma_j^{(i)})\right\}$$

It can be shown that, for EM, the log likelihood will converge to a stable maximum. The change in Q will monotonically decrease. This can be used to define a halting condition:

If 
$$\Delta Q = Q^{(i)} - Q^{(i-1)}$$
 is less than a threshold, halt.

# Log Likelihood for a Parameter Vector

The Likelihood of a parameter vector,  $\vec{V}$ , given a training set,  $\{X_n\}$  is defined as

$$L(\vec{v} \mid \{X_n\}) = P(\{X_n\} \mid \vec{v}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(X_n \mid \vec{v})$$

For normal density functions,  $\vec{v} = \vec{\mu}, \Sigma$  and

$$P(\vec{X} \mid \vec{v}) = \mathcal{N}(\vec{X}; \vec{\mu}, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} \det(\Sigma)^{\frac{1}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{X} - \vec{\mu})}$$

it is more convenient to work with the Log-Likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = Log\{L(\vec{v} \mid \{X_n\}) = Log\{P(\{X_n\} \mid \vec{v})\} = \sum_{m=1}^{M} Log\{P(X_n \mid \vec{v})\}$$

## **Maximum Likelihood Estimators**

A Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) can be used to derive the most likely values for the parameters a Gaussian Density.

To illustrate, consider that case of Univariate Gaussian Density function (D=1).

For D=1, the parameter vector for  $\mathcal{N}(X; \mu, \sigma)$  is  $\vec{V} = (\mu, \sigma)$ 

To estimate  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$  using a MLE, define the log likelihood.

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = Log\{P(X_n \mid \vec{v})\} = -\frac{1}{2}Log\{2\pi\sigma^2\} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(X_n - \mu)^2$$

The maximum of the Log-Likelihood occurs when the derivative is zero.

$$\frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \mu} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (X_n - \mu) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \sigma^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{(X_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^4} \right) = 0$$

We can formulate this as a gradient

$$\nabla_{\mu,\sigma} \mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \mu} \\ \frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \sigma^2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (X_n - \mu) \\ \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{(X_n - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^4} \right) \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

and with a little algebra discover that

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} X_n$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (X_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

(here is the algebra).

$$\frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \mu} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (X_n - \hat{\mu}) = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} X_n = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \hat{\mu}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} X_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \hat{\mu} = N\hat{\mu}$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} X_n$$

In the same way

$$\frac{\partial l(\vec{v})}{\partial \sigma^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( -\frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} + \frac{(X_n - \hat{\mu})^2}{2\hat{\sigma}^4} \right) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( -\frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} + \frac{(X_n - \hat{\mu})^2}{2\hat{\sigma}^4} \right) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{(X_n - \hat{\mu})^2}{2\hat{\sigma}^4}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} 1 = \frac{1}{2\hat{\sigma}^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{(X_n - \hat{\mu})^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} 1 = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{(X_n - \hat{\mu})^2}{\hat{\sigma}^2}$$

$$N = \frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (X_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (X_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

The same can be done for D > 1, however the algebra is a bit more complex

#### Maximum Likelihood for a Multivariate Density Function

The principle is the same for D > 1, however the equations are more complicated.

$$\vec{v} = (\alpha, \vec{\mu}, \Sigma)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = Log\{P(\vec{X}_n \mid \vec{v})\} = -\frac{1}{2}Log\{(2\pi)^D \det(\Sigma)\} - \frac{1}{2}(\vec{X}_n - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\vec{X}_n - \mu)$$

$$\hat{v} = \max_{v} \{ \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(\vec{X}_n \mid \vec{v}) \} = \max_{v} \{ \sum_{n=1}^{N} Log(P(\vec{X}_n \mid \vec{v})) \}$$

The most likely  $\hat{v}$  may be found when the gradient of  $\hat{v}$  is null.

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{V}} \mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = \nabla_{\mathbf{V}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} Log(P(\vec{X}_n | \vec{v})) = 0$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{V}}$$
 is the gradient operator:  $\nabla_{\mathbf{v}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial v_1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial v_2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial v_2} \end{pmatrix}$ 

$$\nabla_{v} \mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial v_{1}} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial v_{2}} \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial v_{D}} \end{pmatrix} \mathcal{L}(\vec{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\vec{v})}{\partial v_{1}} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\vec{v})}{\partial v_{2}} \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\vec{v})}{\partial v_{D}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Setting  $\nabla_{v}l(\vec{v})=0$  gives the classic formulae :

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \vec{X}_{m} \qquad \hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} (\vec{X}_{m} - \hat{\mu}) (\vec{X}_{m} - \hat{\mu})^{T}$$

Notice that the MLE for the covariance is biased. Why?