The full posterior of the Gaussian Mixture Model is

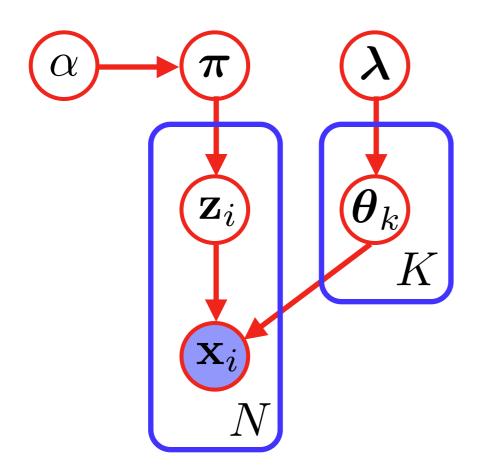
$$p(X, Z, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = p(X \mid Z, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) p(Z \mid \boldsymbol{\pi}) p(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mid \alpha) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma \mid \boldsymbol{\lambda})$$

data likelihood (Gaussian)

correspondence prob. (Multinomial)

mixture prior (Dirichlet)

parameter prior (Gauss-IW)



Given this model, we can create new samples:

- 1. Sample π , θ_k from priors
- 2. Sample corresp. z_i
- 3. Sample data point x_i

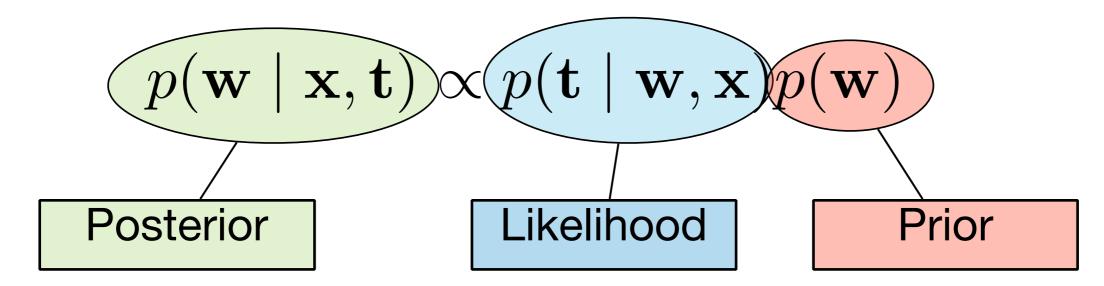


Repetition: MAP for Regression

In MLE, we searched for parameters w, that maximize the data likelihood. Now, we assume a Gaussian *prior*:

$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid \sigma_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \sigma_2 I)$$

Using this, we can compute the *posterior* (Bayes):



"Maximum A-Posteriori Estimation (MAP)"



Generalization: The Bayesian Approach

This idea can be generalized:

- Given a data-dependent likelihood term
- Find an appropriate prior distribution
- Multiply both and obtain the (unnormalized) posterior from Bayes rule
- Main benefit: less overfitting

However:

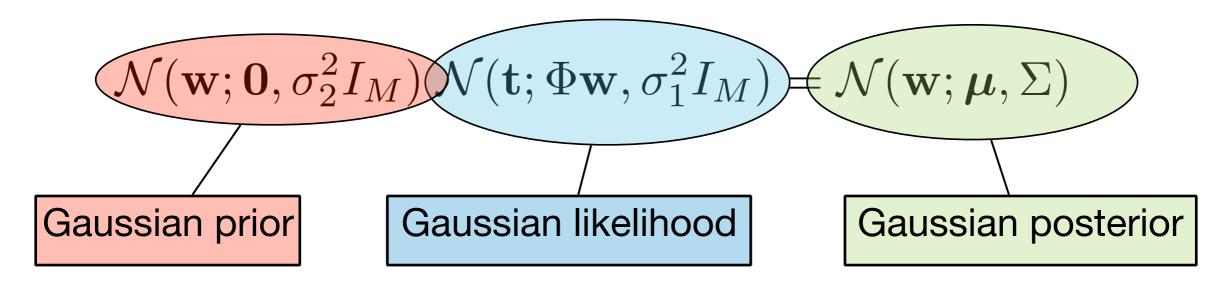
• How should we define the prior?

Often used principle: Conjugacy



Conjugate Priors

A conjugate prior distribution allows to represent the posterior in the same functional (closed) form as the prior, e.g.:



Common pairs of likelihood and conjugate priors are:

Likelihood	Conjugate Prior
Normal with known variance	Normal
Binomial	Beta
Multinomial	Dirichlet
Multivariate Normal	Normal-inverse Wishart





Multinomial

- Given K clusters and probabilities of these clusters π_1, \dots, π_K where $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$
- The probability that out of N samples m_k are in cluster k is:

$$p(m_1,\ldots,m_K\mid \boldsymbol{\pi},N) = \binom{N}{m_1\cdots m_K} \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{m_k}$$

- This is called the multinomial distribution
- In our case:

$$p(Z \mid \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k^{z_{nk}} = \prod_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k^{m_k}$$

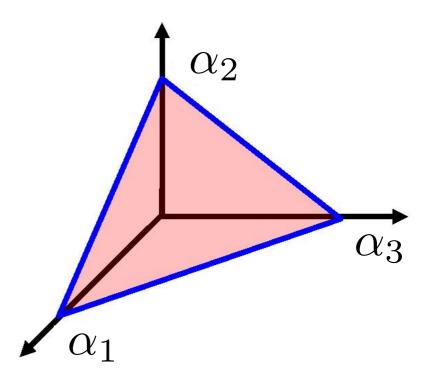
The Dirichlet Distribution

The Dirichlet distribution is defined as:

$$\operatorname{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\mu} \mid \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1) \cdots \Gamma(\alpha_K)} \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{\alpha_k - 1} \qquad \alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$$

$$0 \le \mu_k \le 1 \qquad \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_k = 1$$

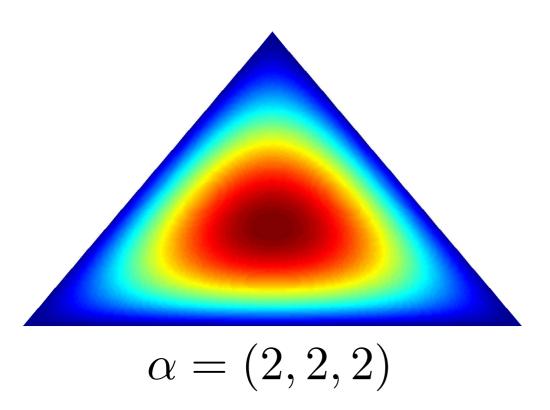
- It is the conjugate prior for the multinomial distribution
- There, the parameter α can be interpreted as the effective number of observations for every state



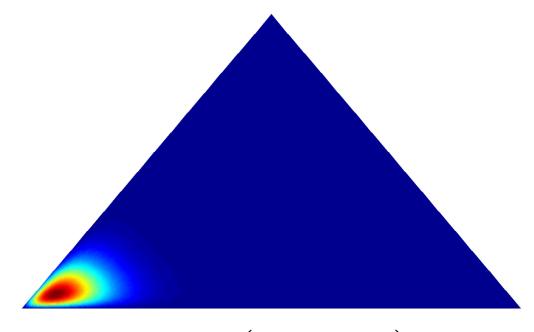
The simplex for K=3



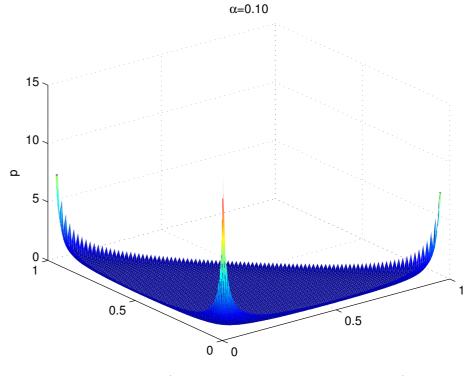
Some Examples



- α_0 controls the strength of the distribution ("peakedness")
- α_k control the location of the peak



$$\alpha = (20, 2, 2)$$



$$\alpha = (0.1, 0.1, 0.1)$$



The full posterior of the Gaussian Mixture Model is

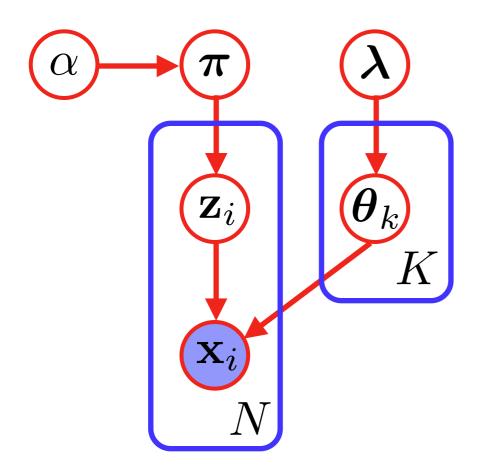
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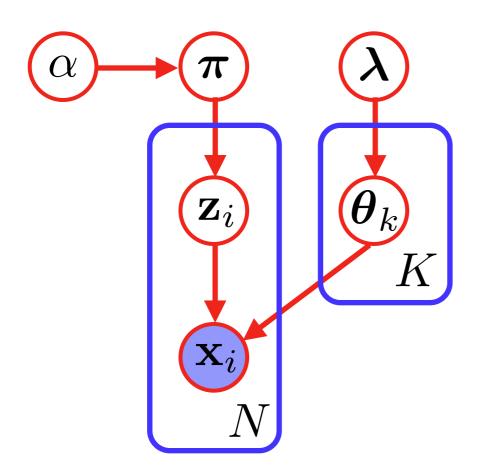
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data likelihood (Gaussian)

correspondence prob. (Multinomial)

mixture prior (Dirichlet)

parameter prior (Gauss-IW)



$$\boldsymbol{\pi} \sim \operatorname{Dir}(\frac{\alpha}{K}, \dots, \frac{\alpha}{K})$$

$$\mathbf{z}_i \sim \mathrm{Mult}(\boldsymbol{\pi})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_k \sim \mathrm{NIW}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$$

$$\mathbf{x}_i \sim \mathcal{N}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{\mathbf{z}_i})$$

The full posterior of the Gaussian Mixture Model is

$$p(X, Z, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = p(X \mid Z, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) p(Z \mid \boldsymbol{\pi}) p(\boldsymbol{\pi} \mid \alpha) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma \mid \boldsymbol{\lambda})$$

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data likelihood (Gaussian)

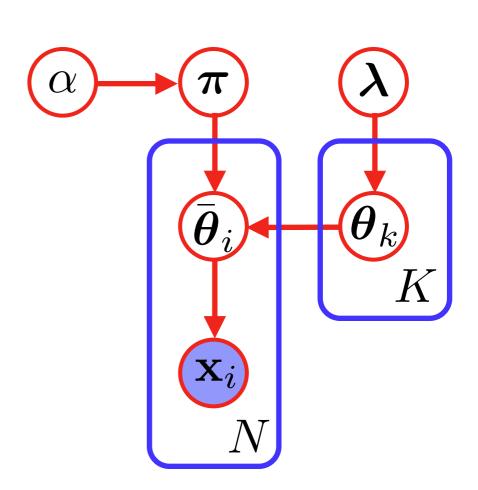
correspondence prob. (Multinomial)

mixture prior (Dirichlet)

parameter prior (Gauss-IW)

An equivalent formulation of this model is this:

- 1. Sample π , θ_k from priors
- 2.Sample params $\bar{\theta}_i$ from a discrete dist. G
- 3. Sample data point x_i





What is the difference in that model?

- ullet there is one parameter $ar{ heta}_i$ for each observation \mathbf{x}_i
- intuitively: we first sample the location of the cluster and then the data that corresponds to it

In general, we use the notation:

$$m{\pi} \sim ext{Dir}(rac{lpha}{K}\mathbf{1})$$
 $m{ heta}_k \sim ext{H}(m{\lambda})$ "Base distribution"
 $ar{m{ heta}}_i \sim ext{G}(m{\pi}, m{ heta}_k)$ where $G(m{\pi}, m{ heta}_k) = \sum_K \pi_k \delta(m{ heta}_k, ar{m{ heta}}_i)$

However: We need to know K



The Dirichlet Process

- So far, we assumed that K is known
- To extend that to infinity, we use a trick:

Definition: A Dirichlet process (DP) is a distribution over probability measures G, i.e. $G(\theta) \ge 0$ and

$$\int G(\theta)d\theta = 1$$
. If for any partition (T_1, \ldots, T_K) it holds:

$$(G(T_1),\ldots,G(T_K)) \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha H(T_1),\ldots,\alpha H(T_K))$$

then *G* is sampled from a Dirichlet process.

Notation: $G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$

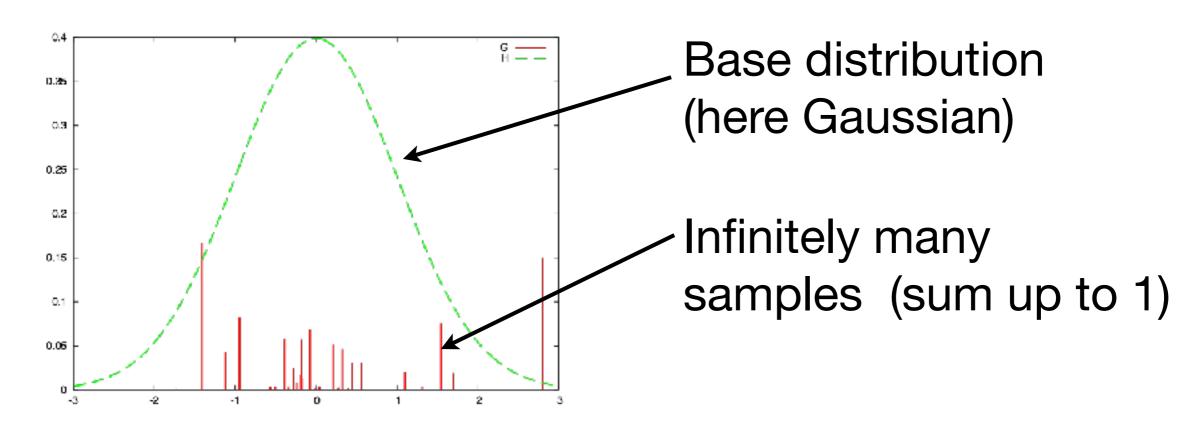
where α is the concentration parameter and H is the base measure





Intuitive Interpretation

- Every sample from a Dirichlet distribution is a vector of K positive values that sum up to 1, i.e. the sample itself is a finite distribution
- Accordingly, a sample from a Dirichlet process is an infinite (but still discrete!) distribution



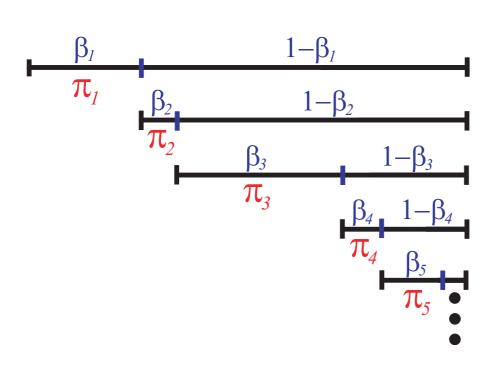
Construction of a Dirichlet Process

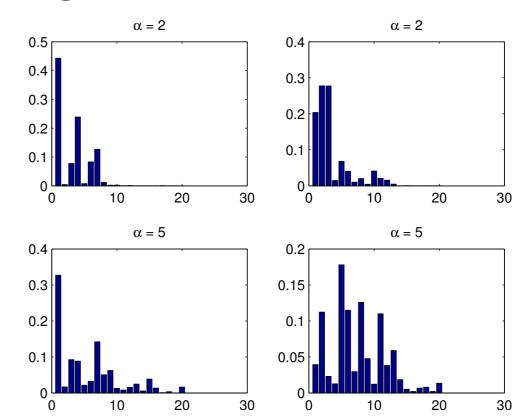
- The Dirichlet process is only defined implicitly, i.e.
 we can test whether a given probability measure is
 sampled from a DP, but we can not yet construct
 one.
- A DP can be constructed using the "stickbreaking" analogy:
 - imagine a stick of length 1
 - we select a random number β between 0 and 1 from a Beta-distribution
 - we break the stick at $\pi = \beta$ * length-of-stick
 - we repeat this infinitely often





The Stick-Breaking Construction





formally, we have

$$\beta_k \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha)$$

$$eta_k \sim \mathrm{Beta}(1, lpha)$$
 $\pi_k = eta_k \prod_{l=1}^{k-1} (1 - eta_l) = eta_k (1 - \sum_{l=1}^{k-1} \pi_l)$

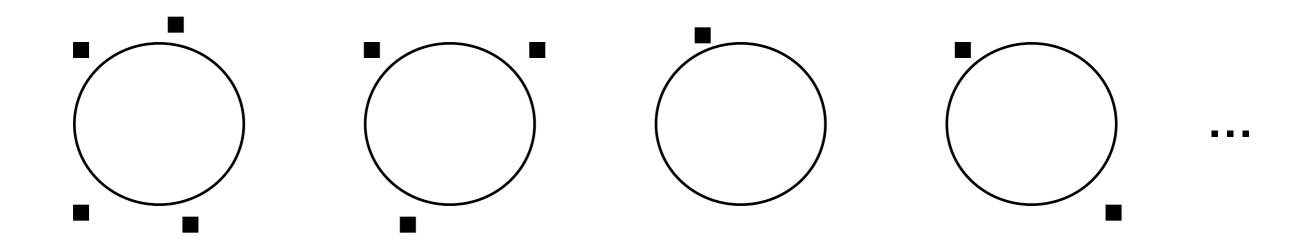
now we define

$$G(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta(\theta_k, \theta)$$
 $\theta_k \sim H$ then: $G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$

$$\theta_k \sim H$$

then:
$$G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$$

The Chinese Restaurant Process



- Consider a restaurant with infinitely many tables
- Everytime a new customer comes in, he sits at an occupied table with probability proportional to the number of people sitting at that table, but he may choose to sit on a new table with decreasing probability as more customers enter the room.



The Chinese Restaurant Process

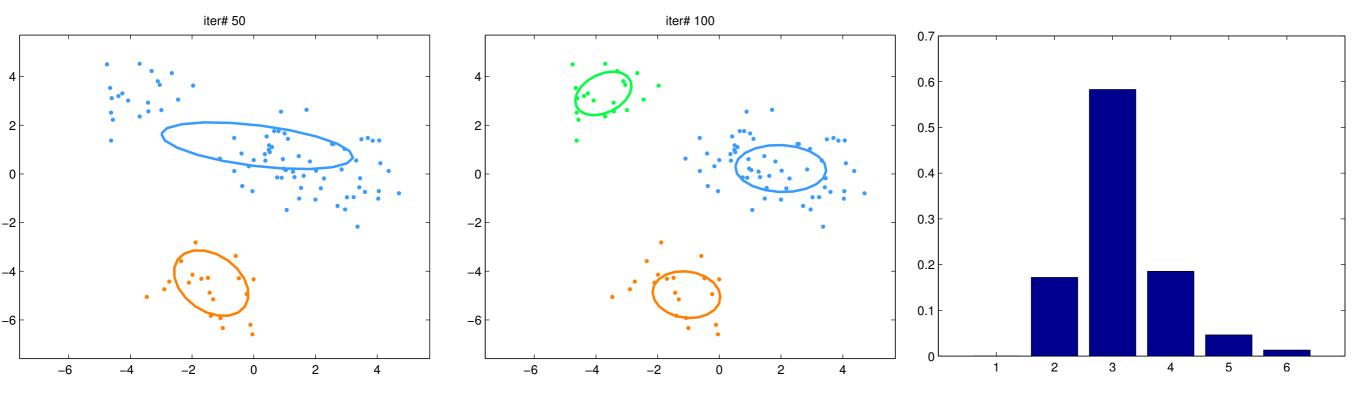
 It can be shown that the probability for a new customer is

$$p(\bar{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{N+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \bar{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{1:N}, \alpha, H) = \frac{1}{\alpha + N} \left(\alpha H(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} N_k \delta(\bar{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_k, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)$$

- This means that currently occupied tables are more likely to get new customers (rich get richer)
- The number of occupied tables grows logarithmically with the number of customers

The DP for Mixture Modeling

- Using the stick-breaking construction, we see that we can extend the mixture model clustering to the situation where *K* goes to infinity
- The algorithm can be implemented using Gibbs sampling





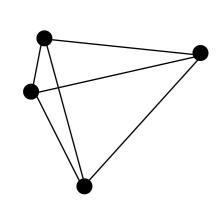
Questions

 What if the clusters can not be approximated well by Gaussians?

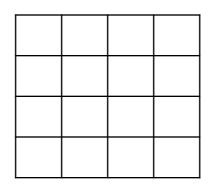
 Can we formulate an algorithm that only relies on pairwise similarities?

> One example for such an algorithm is Spectral Clustering

- Consider an undirected graph that connects all data points
- The edge weights are the similarities ("closeness")
- We define the weighted degree d_i of a node as the sum of all outgoing edges

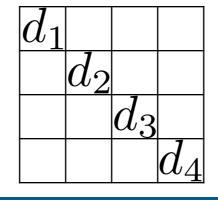


W =



$$d_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N} w_{ij}$$

$$D =$$



The Graph Laplacian is defined as:

$$L = D - W$$

- This matrix has the following properties:
 - the 1 vector is eigenvector with eigenvalue 0



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The Graph Laplacian is defined as:

$$L = D - W$$

- This matrix has the following properties:
 - the 1 vector is eigenvector with eigenvector 0
 - the matrix is symmetric and positive semi-definite
- With these properties we can show:

Theorem: The set of eigenvectors of L with eigenvalue 0 is spanned by the indicator vectors $\mathbf{1}_{A_1}, \ldots, \mathbf{1}_{A_K}$, where A_k are the K connected components of the graph.



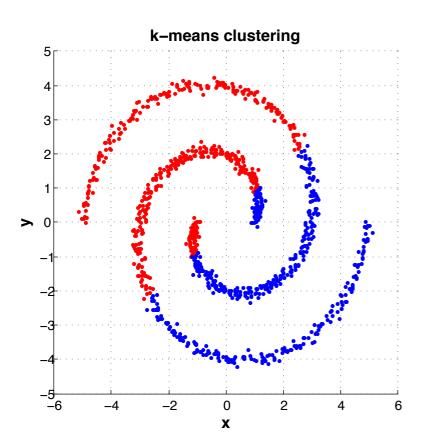


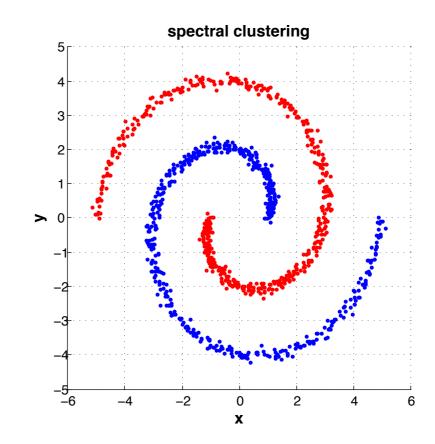
The Algorithm

- Input: Similarity matrix W
- Compute L = D W
- Compute the eigenvectors that correspond to the K smallest eigenvalues
- Stack these vectors as columns in a matrix U
- Treat each row of U as a K-dim data point
- Cluster the N rows with K-means clustering
- The indices of the rows that correspond to the resulting clusters are those of the original data points.



An Example





- Spectral clustering can handle complex problems such as this one
- The complexity of the algorithm is O(N³), because it has to solve an eigenvector problem
- But there are efficient variants of the algorithm

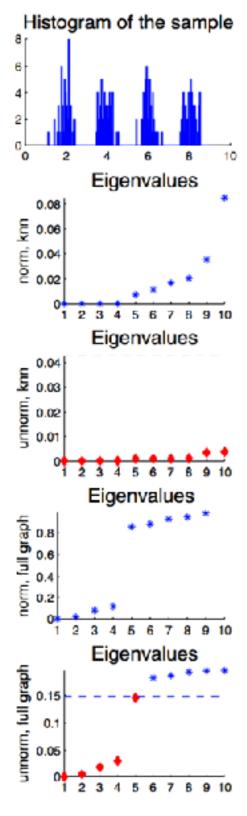


Further Remarks

- To account for nodes that are highly connected, we can use a normalized version of the graph Laplacian
- Two different methods exist:
 - $L_{rw} = D^{-1}L = I D^{-1}W$
 - $L_{sym} = D^{-\frac{1}{2}}LD^{-\frac{1}{2}} = I D^{-\frac{1}{2}}WD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$
- These have similar eigenspaces than the original Laplacian L
- Clustering results tend to be better than with the unnormalized Laplacian
- The number of clusters K can be found using the "eigen-gap heuristic"



Eigen-Gap Heuristic



- Compute all eigen values of the graph Laplacian
- Sort them in increasing order
- Usually, there is a big "jump" between two consecutive eigen values
- The corresponding number K is a good choice for the estimated number of clusters

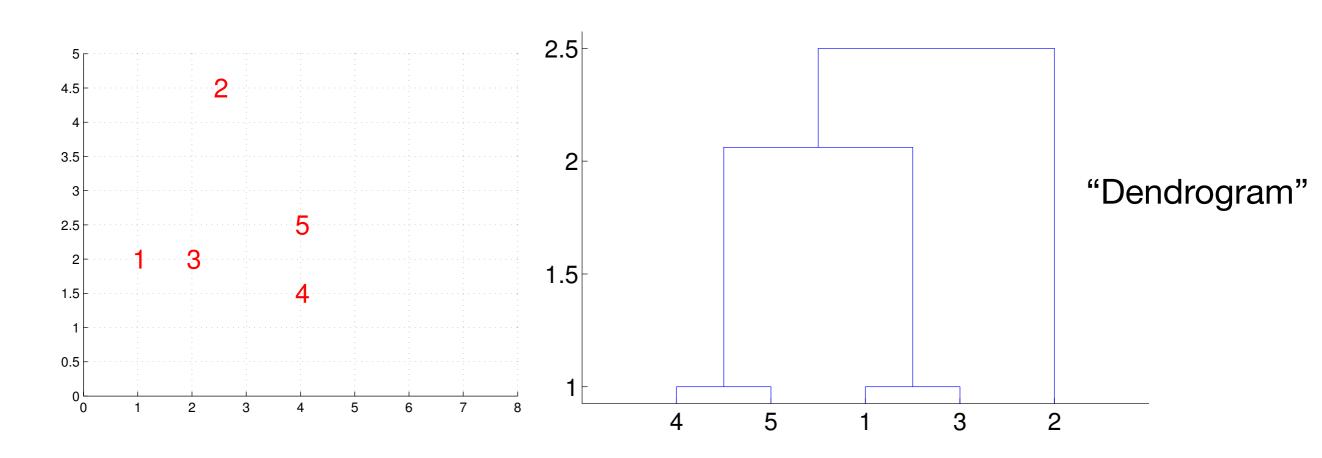
Hierarchical Clustering

- Often, we want to have nested clusters instead of a "flat" clustering
- Two possible methods:
 - "bottom-up" or agglomerative clustering
 - "top-down" or divisive clustering
- Both methods take a dissimilarity matrix as input
- Bottom-up grows merges points to clusters
- Top-down splits clusters into sub-clusters
- Both are heuristics, there is no clear objective function
- They always produce a clustering (also for noise)



Agglomerative Clustering

- Start with N clusters, each contains exactly one data point
- At each step, merge the two most similar groups
- Repeat until there is a single group



Linkage

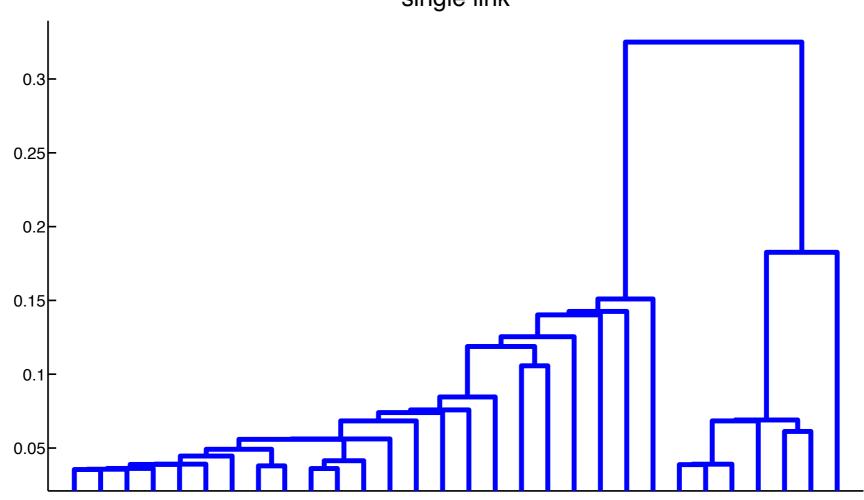
- In agglomerative clustering, it is important to define a distance measure between two clusters
- There are three different methods:
 - Single linkage: considers the two closest elements from both clusters and uses their distance
 - Complete linkage: considers the two farthest elements from both clusters
 - Average linkage: uses the average distance between pairs of points from both clusters
- Depending on the application, one linkage should be preferred over the other





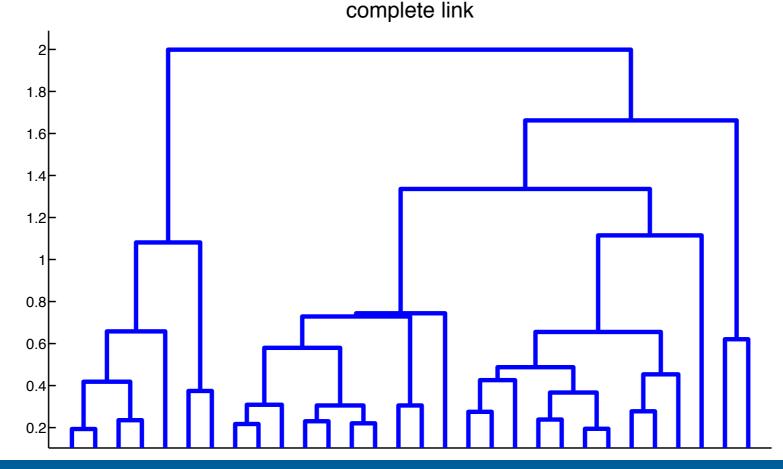
Single Linkage

- The distance is based on $d_{SL}(G,H) = \min_{i \in G, i' \in H} d_{i,i'}$
- The resulting dendrogram is a minimum spanning tree, i.e. it minimizes the sum of the edge weights
- Thus: we can compute the clustering in O(N²) time



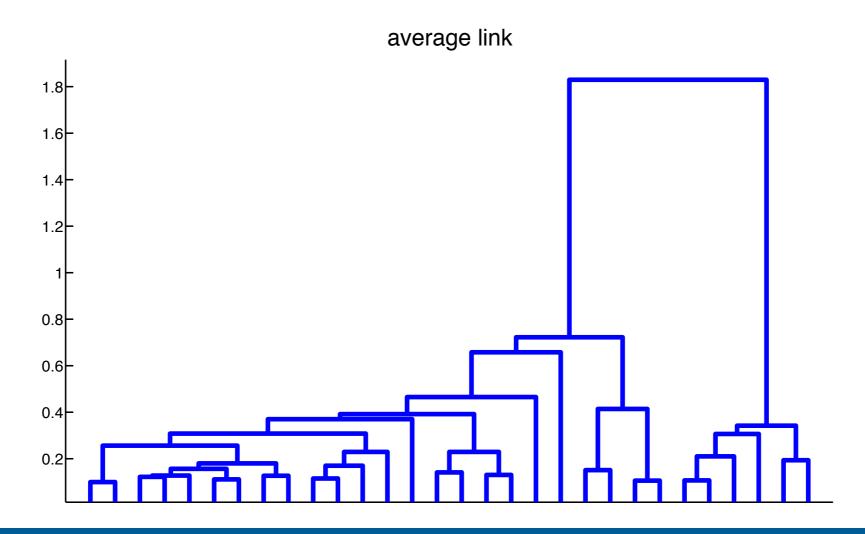
Complete Linkage

- The distance is based on $d_{CL}(G,H) = \max_{i \in G, i' \in H} d_{i,i'}$
- Complete linkage fulfills the compactness property, i.e. all points in a group should be similar to each other
- Tends to produce clusters with smaller diameter



Average Linkage

- The distance is based on $d_{avg}(G,H)=\frac{1}{n_Gn_H}\sum_{i\in G}\sum_{i'\in H}d_{i,i'}$ Is a good compromise between single and
- complete linkage
- However: sensitive to changes on the meas. scale



Divisive Clustering

- Start with all data in a single cluster
- Recursively divide each cluster into two child clusters
- Problem: optimal split is hard to find
- Idea: use the cluster with the largest diameter and use K-means with K = 2
- Or: use minimum-spanning tree and cut links with the largest dissimilarity
- In general two advantages:
 - Can be faster
 - More globally informed (not myopic as bottom-up)





Choosing the Number of Clusters

- As in general, choosing the number of clusters is hard
- When a dendrogram is available, a gap can be detected in the lengths of the links
- This represents the dissimilarity between merged groups
- However: in real data this can be hard to detect
- There are Bayesian techniques to address this problem (Bayesian hierarchical clustering)

Evaluation of Clustering Algorithms

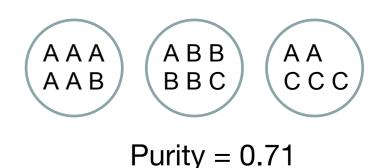
- Clustering is unsupervised: evaluation of the output is hard, because no ground truth is given
- Intuitively, points in a cluster should be similar and points in different clusters dissimilar
- However, better methods use external information, such as labels or a reference clustering
- Then we can compare clusterings with the labels using different metrics, e.g.
 - purity
 - mutual information



Purity

- Define N_{ij} the number of objects in cluster i that are in class j $_{C}$
- Define $N_i = \sum N_{ij}$ number of objects in cluster i
- $p_{ij} = \frac{N_{ij}}{N_i}$ $p_i = \max_j p_{ij}$ "Purity"

• overall purity
$$\sum_{i}^{N_{i}} \frac{N_{i}}{N} p_{i}$$



- Purity ranges from 0 (bad) to 1 (good)
- But: a clustering with each object in its own cluster has a purity of 1



Mutual Information

- Let U and V be two clusterings
- Define the probability that a randomly chosen point belongs to cluster u_i in U and to v_i in V

$$p_{UV}(i,j) = \frac{|u_i \cap v_j|}{N}$$

• Also: The prob. that a point is in
$$u_i$$
 $p_U(i) = \frac{|u_i|}{N}$
$$\mathbb{I}(U,V) = \sum_{i=1}^R \sum_{j=1}^C p_{UV}(i,j) \log \frac{p_{UV}(i,j)}{p_U(i)p_V(j)}$$

 This can be normalized to account for many small clusters with low entropy



Summary

- Several Clustering methods exist:
 - K-means clustering and Expectation-Maximization, both based on Gaussian Mixture Models
 - K-means uses hard assignments, whereas EM uses soft assignments and estimates also the covariances
 - The Dirichlet Process is a non-parametric model to perform clustering without specifying K
 - Spectral clustering uses the graph Laplacian and performs an eigenvector analysis
- Major Problem:
 - most clustering algorithms require the number of clusters to be given



