# IERG4300 Web-Scale Information Analytics

### Clustering

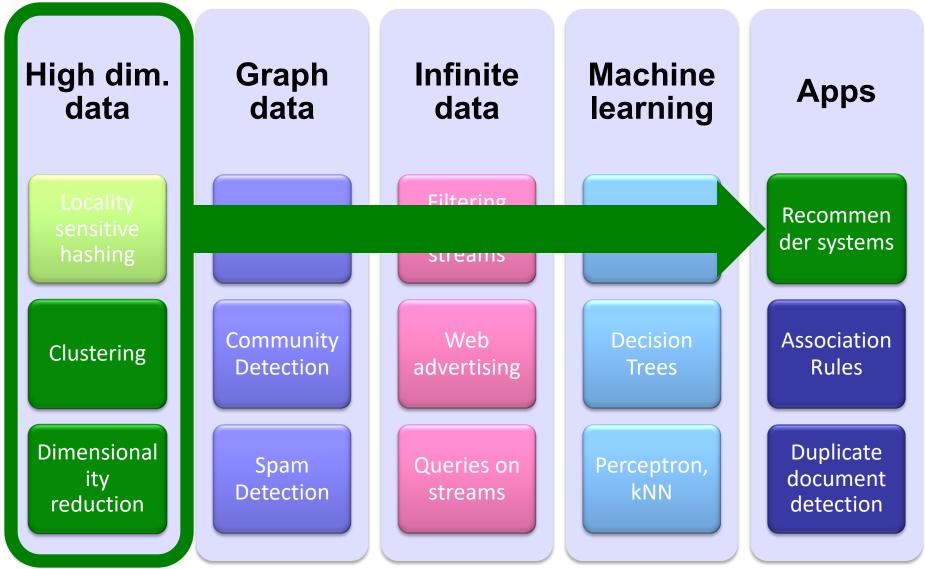
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### Acknowledgements

- The slides used in this chapter are adapted from:
  - CS246 Mining Massive Data-sets, by Jure Leskovec, Stanford University.
  - Statistical Data Mining Tutorials Tutorial Slides by Andrew W. Moore, CMU, http://www.autonlab.org/tutorials/list.html
  - Ch 1 and 9 of Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning (PRML) by Christopher M. Bishop, Publisher: Springer Science and Business.
    - http://www.cse.psu.edu/~rcollins/CSE586Spring2010/papers/prmlMixtur esEM.pdf

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### **High Dimensional Data**



### **High Dimensional Data**

Given a cloud of data points we want to understand their structure



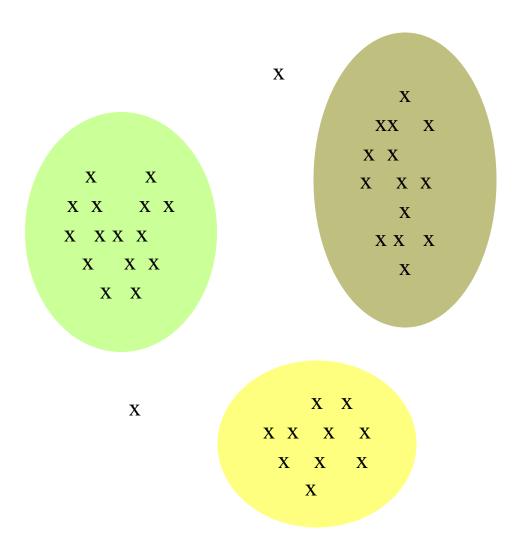
### The Problem of Clustering

- Given a set of points, with a notion of distance between points, group the points into some number of clusters, so that
  - Members of a cluster are close/similar to each other
  - Members of different clusters are dissimilar

### o Usually:

- Points are in a high-dimensional space
- Similarity is defined using a distance measure
  - Euclidean, Cosine, Jaccard, edit distance, ...

### **Example: Clusters**



### Clustering is a hard problem!



## Why is it hard?

- Clustering in two dimensions looks easy
- Clustering small amounts of data looks easy
- And in most cases, looks are *not* deceiving
- Many applications involve not 2, but 10 or 10,000 dimensions
- High-dimensional spaces look different

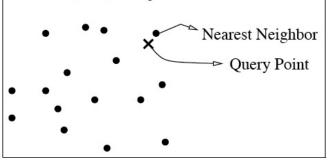
# **Curse of Dimensionality**

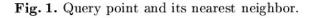
### • High-dimensional spaces look different: The so-called "Curse of Dimensionality"

- Need many more data points scattered in the High Dimensional (HD) space in order to form clusters (instead of being isolated dots in the mostly empty space) !
- Almost all pairs of points are at about the same distance in HD space

=> The notion of neighborhood becomes not very useful as the distance between a data point and is its nearest neighbor approaches the distance to its farthest neighbor.







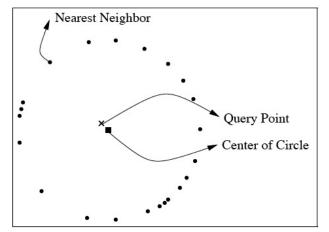


Fig. 2. Another query point and its nearest neighbor.

Source: K.Beyer et al, "When is "Nearest Neighbor" Meaningful ?", ICDT 99.

# Curse of Dimensionality (cont'd)

Consider a sphere of radius r=1 in a D-dimensional space

Fraction of the volume of the sphere that lies between radius  $r=1-\epsilon$  and r=1 is given by:

$$\frac{V_D(1) - V_D(1 - \varepsilon)}{V_D(1)} = 1 - (1 - \varepsilon)^D$$

where

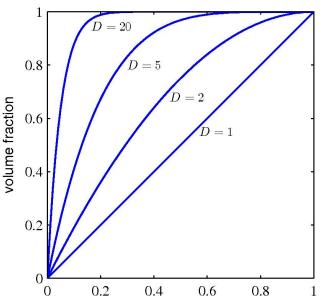
 $V_D(r) =$  Vol. of a D-dim sphere of radius r=  $K_D r^D$ 

for some constant  $K_D$ .

=> As D >> 1, most of the vol. of the sphere is concentrated in a thin-shell near the surface of the sphere......(\*\*)

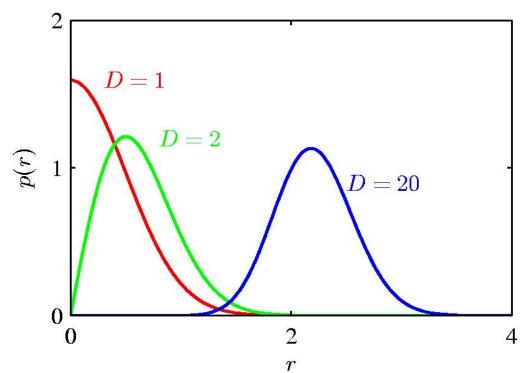
Assume data points are randomly scattered in the D-dim space under uniform density (i.e. const. # of data points per unit volume)

For an arbitrary data point P (whose position is taken as the origin), (\*\*) implies that most of the neighboring points of P are of more or less the same distance from it (and NOT quite local to P) when D >> 1



### Curse of Dimensionality (cont'd)

Gaussian Densities in higher dimensions



### Clustering Problem: SkyCat

- A catalog of 2 billion "sky objects" represents objects by their radiation in 7 dimensions (frequency bands)
- Problem: Cluster into similar objects, e.g., galaxies, nearby stars, quasars, etc.
- Sloan Digital Sky Survey is a newer, better version of this

### Example: Clustering CD's

 Intuitively: Music divides into categories, and customers prefer a few categories

• But what are categories really?

• Represent a CD by a set of customers who bought it

 Similar CDs have similar sets of customers, and viceversa

# Example: Clustering CDs

### **Space of all CDs:**

• Think of a space with one dim. for each customer

- Values in a dimension may be 0 or 1 only
- A CD is a point in this space is  $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)$ , where  $x_i = 1$  iff the *i*<sup>th</sup> customer bought the CD
  - Compare with boolean matrix: rows = customers; cols. = CDs
- For Amazon, the dimension is tens of millions
- **Task:** Find clusters of similar CDs
- An alternative: Use Minhash/LSH to get Jaccard distance between "close" CDs
- Use that as input to clustering

### **Example: Clustering Documents**

### **Finding topics:**

- Represent a document by a vector  $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_k)$ , where  $x_i = 1$  iff the *i*<sup>th</sup> word (in some order) appears in the document
  - It actually doesn't matter if k is infinite; i.e., we don't limit the set of words
- Documents with similar sets of words may be about the same topic

### Cosine, Jaccard, and Euclidean

- As with CDs we have a choice when we think of documents as sets of words or shingles:
  - Sets as vectors: measure similarity by the cosine distance
  - Sets as sets: measure similarity by the Jaccard distance
  - Sets as points: measure similarity by Euclidean distance

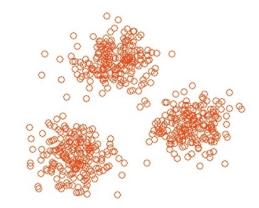
### **Overview: Methods of Clustering**

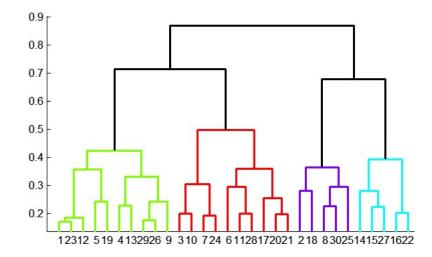
### • Hierarchical:

- Agglomerative (bottom up):
  - Initially, each point is a cluster
  - Repeatedly combine the two "nearest" clusters into one
- **Divisive** (top down):
  - Start with one cluster and recursively split it

#### • Point assignment:

- Maintain a set of clusters
- Points belong to "nearest" cluster





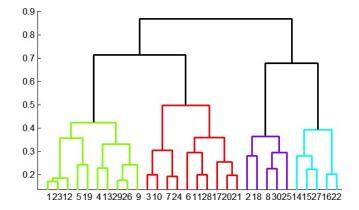
# **Hierarchical Clustering**

#### • Key operation:

Repeatedly combine two nearest clusters

### • Three important questions:

- 1) How do you represent a cluster of more than one point?
- 2) How do you determine the "nearness" of clusters?
- **3)** When to stop combining clusters?

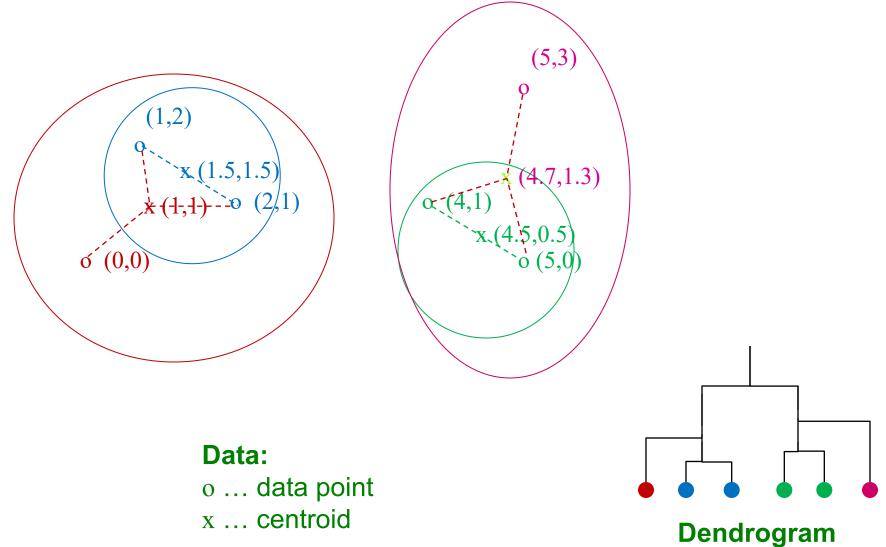


### **Hierarchical Clustering**

• Key operation: Repeatedly combine two nearest clusters

- o (1) How to represent a cluster of many points?
  - **Key problem:** As you build clusters, how do you represent the location of each cluster, to tell which pair of clusters is closest?
- Euclidean case: each cluster has a centroid = average of its (data)points
- o (2) How to determine "nearness" of clusters?
  - Measure cluster distances by distances of centroids

### **Example: Hierarchical clustering**



### And in the Non-Euclidean Case?

#### What about the Non-Euclidean case?

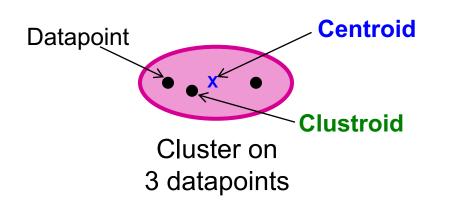
- The only "locations" we can talk about are the points themselves
  - i.e., there is no "average" of two points

#### • Approach 1:

- (1) How to represent a cluster of many points?
   *clustroid* = (data)point "<u>closest</u>" to other points
- (2) How do you determine the "nearness" of clusters? Treat clustroid as if it were centroid, when computing intercluster distances

### "Closest" Point?

- (1) How to represent a cluster of many points?
   *clustroid* = point "<u>closest</u>" to other points
- Possible meanings of "closest":
  - Smallest maximum distance to other points
  - Smallest average distance to other points
  - Smallest sum of squares of distances to other points
    - For distance metric **d** clustroid **c** of cluster **C** is:  $\min_{c} \sum_{c} d(x,c)^{2}$



**Centroid** is the avg. of all (data)points in the cluster. This means centroid is an "artificial" point. **Clustroid** is an **existing** (data)point that is "closest" to all other points in the cluster.

### Defining "Nearness" of Clusters

### o (2) How do you determine the "nearness" of clusters?

#### • Approach 2:

**Intercluster distance** = minimum of the distances between any two points, one from each cluster

#### • Approach 3:

Pick a notion of "**cohesion**" of clusters, *e.g.*, maximum distance from the clustroid

• Merge clusters whose *union* is most cohesive

# Cohesion

- Approach 3.1: Use the diameter of the merged cluster = maximum distance between points in the cluster
- Approach 3.2: Use the average distance between points in the cluster

#### • Approach 3.3: Use a density-based approach

- Take the diameter or avg. distance, e.g., and divide by the number of points in the cluster
- Perhaps raise the number of points to a power first, e.g., squareroot

### Implementation

### • Naïve implementation of hierarchical clustering:

- At each step, compute pairwise distances between all pairs of clusters, then merge
- O(*N*<sup>3</sup>)
- Careful implementation using priority queue can reduce time to O(N<sup>2</sup> log N)
  - Still too expensive for really big datasets that do not fit in memory

# k-means clustering

# *k*-means Algorithm(s)

- Assumes Euclidean space/distance
- Start by picking **k**, the number of clusters
- Initialize clusters by picking one point per cluster
  - **Example:** Pick one point at random, then *k*-1 other points, each as far away as possible from the previous points

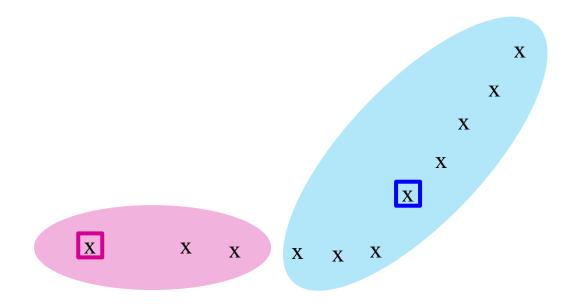
### **Populating Clusters**

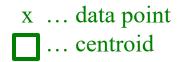
- 1) For each point, place it in the cluster whose current centroid it is nearest
- 2) After all points are assigned, update the locations of centroids of the *k* clusters
- 3) Reassign all points to their closest centroid
  - Sometimes moves points between clusters

#### • Repeat 2 and 3 until convergence

Convergence: Points don't move between clusters and centroids stabilize

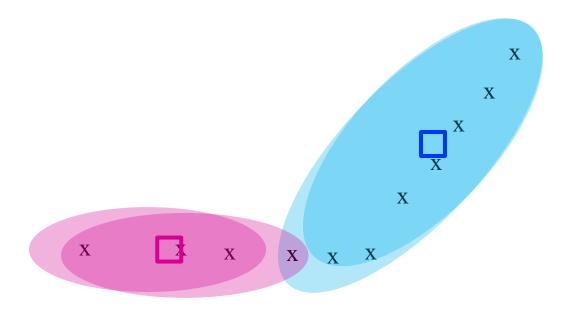
### **Example: Assigning Clusters**





#### **Clusters after round 1**

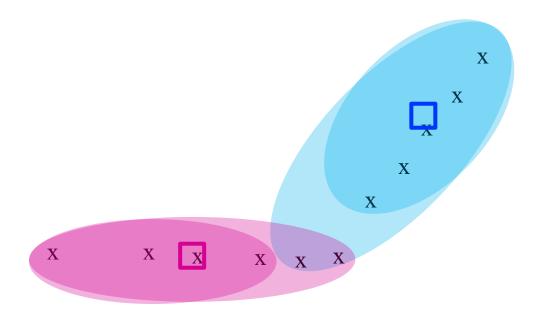
### **Example: Assigning Clusters**



x ... data point ... centroid

#### **Clusters after round 2**

### **Example: Assigning Clusters**



x ... data point ... centroid

#### **Clusters at the end**

### K-means

Iterate:

- Assign/cluster each example to closest center
- Recalculate centers as the mean of the points in a cluster

Mean of the points in the cluster:

$$\mu(\mathbf{C}) = \frac{1}{|C|} \sum_{x \in C} x$$

### K-means loss function

K-means tries to minimize what is called the "k-means" loss function:

$$loss = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x_i, \mu_k)^2$$
 where  $\mu_k$  is cluster center for  $x_i$ 

that is, the sum of the squared distances from each point to the associated cluster center

### Minimizing k-means loss

Iterate:

- 1. Assign/cluster each example to closest center
- 2. Recalculate centers as the mean of the points in a cluster

$$loss = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x_i, \mu_k)^2$$
 where  $\mu_k$  is cluster center for  $x_i$ 

Does each step of k-means move towards reducing this loss function (or at least not increasing)?

### Minimizing k-means loss

#### Iterate:

- 1. Assign/cluster each example to closest center
- 2. Recalculate centers as the mean of the points in a cluster

$$loss = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x_i, \mu_k)^2$$
 where  $\mu_k$  is cluster center for  $x_i$ 

Sketch of proof/ argument:

- 1. Any other assignment would end up in a larger loss
- 1. The mean of a set of values minimizes the squared error

### Minimizing k-means loss

Iterate:

- 1. Assign/cluster each example to closest center
- 2. Recalculate centers as the mean of the points in a cluster

$$loss = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x_i, \mu_k)^2$$
 where  $\mu_k$  is cluster center for  $x_i$ 

Does this mean that k-means will always find the minimum loss/clustering?

# Minimizing k-means loss

Iterate:

- 1. Assign/cluster each example to closest center
- 2. Recalculate centers as the mean of the points in a cluster

$$loss = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d(x_i, \mu_k)^2$$
 where  $\mu_k$  is cluster center for  $x_i$ 

NO! It will find a minimum.

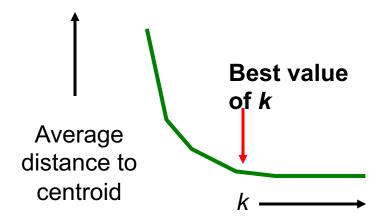
Unfortunately, the k-means loss function is generally not convex and for most problems has many, many minima

We're only guaranteed to find one of them => It's therefore important to try different random seeds

# Getting the *k* right

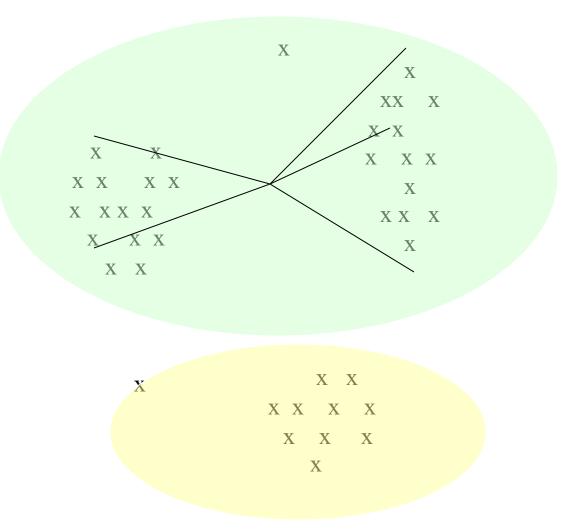
#### How to select k?

- Try different *k*, looking at the change in the average distance to centroid, as *k* increases.
- Average falls rapidly until right *k*, then changes little

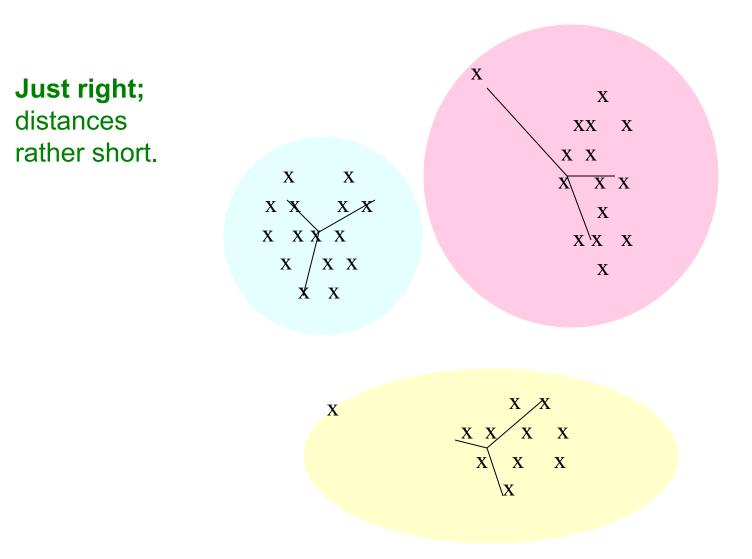


# Example: Picking k

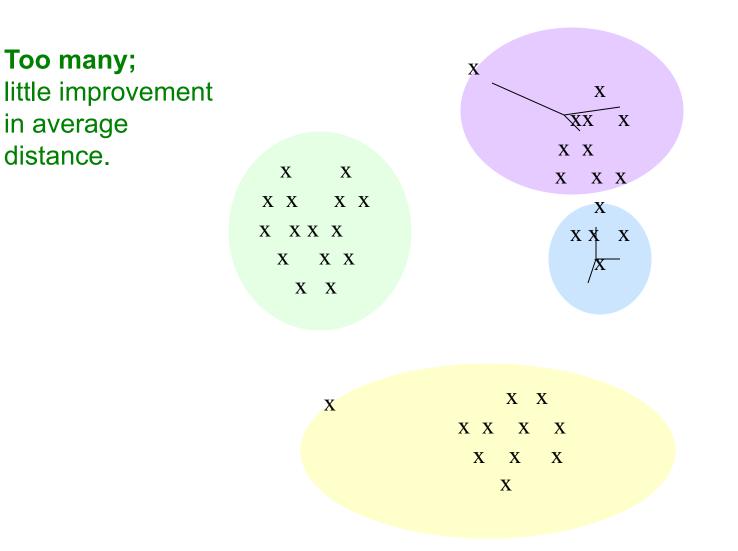
**Too few;** many long distances to centroid.



# Example: Picking k



# Example: Picking k



# Examples of k-means clustering

- Clustering RGB vectors of pixels in images
- Compression of image file: N x 24 bits
  - Store RGB values of cluster centers: K x 24 bits
  - Store cluster index of each pixel: N x log K bits



Original image







K = 10











# K-Means time complexity

Variables: *K* clusters, *n* data points, *m* features/dimensions, *I* iterations

#### What is the runtime complexity?

- Computing distance between two points (e.g. Euclidean)
- Reassigning clusters
- Computing new centers
- Iterate...

# K-Means time complexity

Variables: *K* clusters, *n* data points, *m* features/dimensions, *I* iterations

What is the runtime complexity?

- Computing distance between two points is O(m) where m is the dimension of the vectors/number of features.
- Reassigning clusters: O(Kn) distance computations, or O(Knm)
- Computing centroids: Each points gets added once to some centroid: O(nm)
- Assume these two steps are each done once for *I* iterations: O(*IKnm*)

In practice, K-means converges quickly and is fairly fast

#### Limitations of K-means

- Need to determine "K" via domain knowledge or heuristics (as stated before)
- Only converge to local optimal
  - Need to try multiple starting points
  - Nice and Practical Research results on "Careful Randomized Seeding" in available, e.g. :
    - K-means++ and
    - K-means // (aka K-means parallel)

Refer to the "More on K-means" supplementary lecture notes in course website.

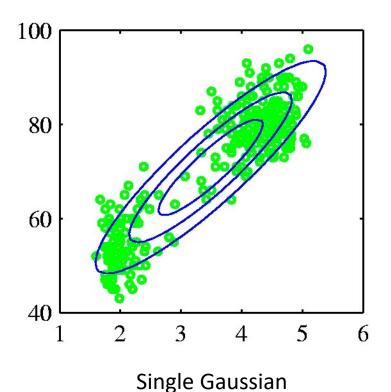
- "Hard" assignment of each data point to a single cluster:
  - Each data point can only be assigned to 1 cluster (class)
  - What about points that lie in between groups ? e.g. Jazz + Classical
- Overall results can be affected by a few Outliners

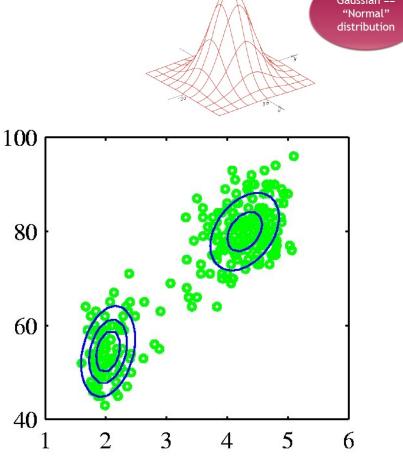
Can we do better ?

The famous "GMM" – The Gaussian Mixture Model Key Idea: Assume Gaussian distribution of data points  $p(X) = N(X | \mu, \Sigma)$ 

within each cluster

• A sample data set

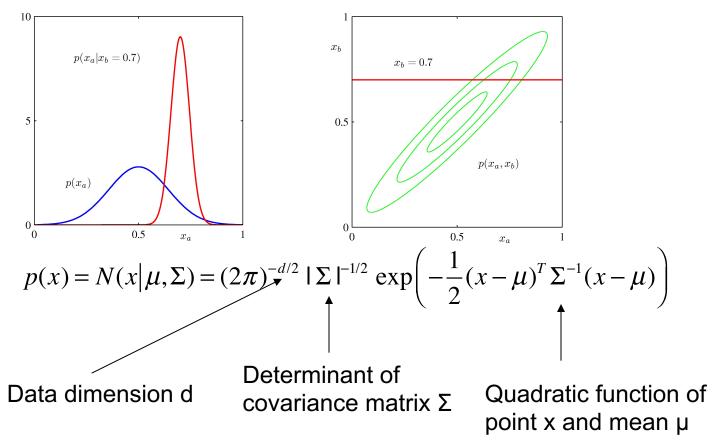




Mixture of two Gaussians

# Clustering with Gaussian mixture density

- Each cluster represented by Gaussian density
  - Center, as in K-means
  - Covariance matrix: cluster spread around center



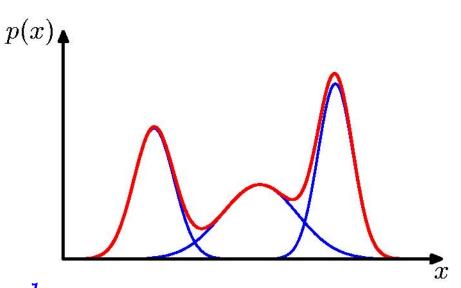
### The Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) (cont'd)

Combine simple models into a complex model:

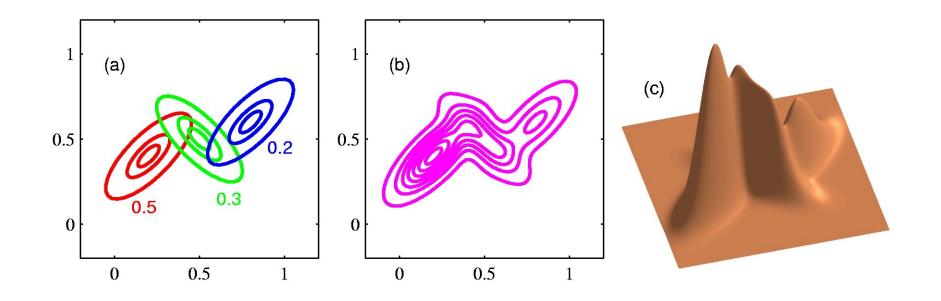
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$
  
Component

Mixing coefficient: can be seen as the "contribution" from Gaussian component  $\boldsymbol{k}$ 

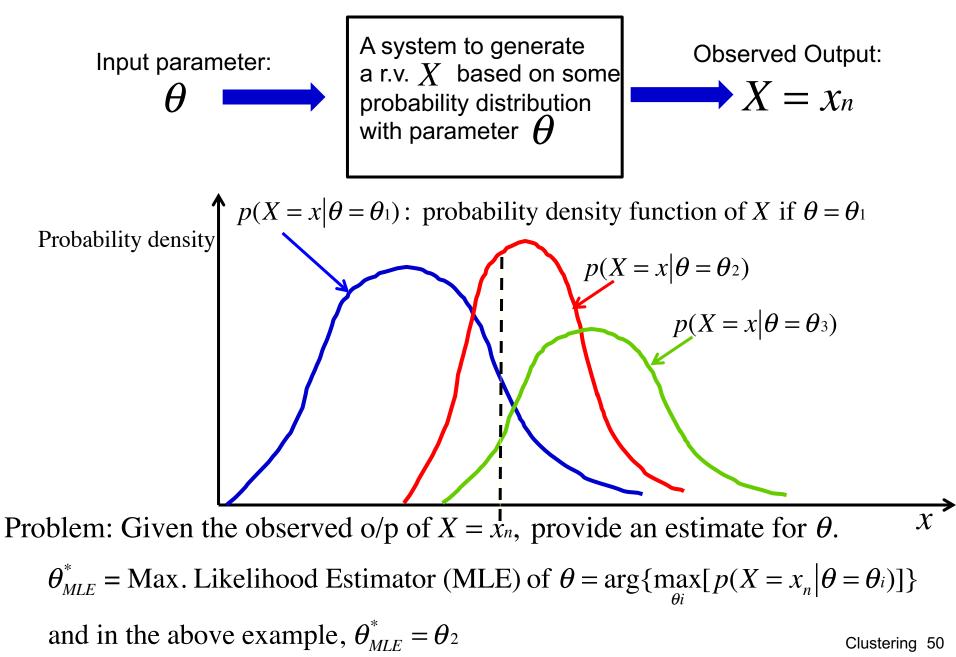
$$\forall k : \pi_k \ge 0 \qquad \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$$



### The Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) (cont'd)



#### The Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE)



# An Alternative Estimator: The Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Estimator

Input parameter:

A

A system to generate a r.v. X based on some probability distribution with parameter  $\theta$ 

**Observed Output:** 

$$\longrightarrow$$
  $X = x_n$ 

 $\theta_{MAP}^* = \text{Max. a posteriori estimator (MAP) of } \theta = \arg\{\max_{\theta_i} [p(\theta = \theta_i | X = x_n)]\}$ 

$$= \arg\{\max_{\theta i} \left[\frac{p(X = x_n \text{ and } \theta = \theta_i)}{p(X = x_n)}\right]\} = \arg\{\max_{\theta i} \left[\frac{p(X = x_n | \theta = \theta_i)p(\theta = \theta_i)}{p(X = x_n)}\right]\}$$
$$= \arg\{\max_{\theta i} \left[p(X = x_n | \theta = \theta_i)p(\theta = \theta_i)\right]\}$$

The "true" probability distribution,  $p(\theta)$ , of the parameter, i.e.  $\theta$ , to be estimated is the so-called prior distribution.

If no prior knowledge about the distribution of  $\theta$  is available,

we can assume  $p(\theta) \sim$  uniform distribution, i.e.  $p(\theta = \theta_i) =$  some constant.

In this case, we have  $\theta_{MAP}^* = \theta_{MLE}^*$  Clustering 51

### The Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) (cont'd)

• Given the set of N data points represented by a matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ , we find the model parameters  $\pi$  ,  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  (which are vectors and a matrices) which maximize the probability of the occurrence of the observed data, via the Maximum (log) Likelihood Estimation (MLE) approach MLE) approach  $p(X|\pi,\mu,\Sigma) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x_n|\mu_k,\Sigma_k)$  $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$ 

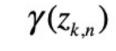
Log of a sum; no closed form maximum

• Solution: use standard, iterative, numeric optimization methods or the *Expectation Maximization (EM)* algorithm (see next slides and Chapter 9 of PRML of C.M.Bishop). How to Maximizing Log Likelihood for GMM

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$

Maximum of log likelihood: derivatives of  $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\pi, \mu, \Sigma)$  w.r.t parameters to 0.

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} \qquad \qquad N_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n})$$



) is called a "responsibility": how much is this Gaussian k responsible for this point X<sub>n</sub>?

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) | \mathbf{x}_{n} \qquad \pi_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{N_{k}}{N}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}})^{\text{T}}$$

Clustering 53

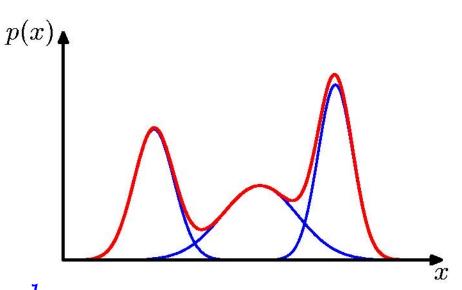
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Combine simple models into a complex model:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$
  
Component

Mixing coefficient: can be seen as the "contribution" from Gaussian component  $\boldsymbol{k}$ 

$$\forall k : \pi_k \ge 0 \qquad \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$$



#### **Derivation of MLE for GMM**

Maximum of log likelihood:

derivatives of  $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\pi, \mu, \Sigma)$  w.r.t parameters to 0.

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\pi,\mu,\Sigma) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x_h|\mu_k,\Sigma_k) \right\}$$
  
For the  $\mu_k^{-}$ : Recall that  $N(x|\mu,\Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right)$ 
$$0 = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \underbrace{\frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_h|\mu_k,\Sigma_k)}{\sum_k \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_h|\mu_k,\Sigma_k)}}_{\gamma(z_k)} \Sigma_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)$$
$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n \gamma(z_k)} \sum_n \gamma(z_k) \mathbf{x}_n$$

 $\gamma(z_{k,n}) \equiv \operatorname{Prob}(z_{k,n} = 1 | x_n)$  where  $z_{k,n} = 1$  iff the  $n^{\text{th}}$  data point  $x_n$  is generated by cluster k $N_k \equiv \sum_n \gamma(z_{k,n}) = \text{effective number of data points in the } k^{\text{th}} \text{cluster.}$ Clustering 55

#### Derivation of MLE for GMM (cont'd)

For 
$$\Sigma_k$$
:

$$\Sigma_k = \frac{1}{\sum_n \gamma(z_{kn})} \sum_n \gamma(z_{kn}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T$$

For the  $\pi_k$ :

- Take into account constraint  $\sum_k \pi_k = 1$
- Lagrange multiplier

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\pi, \mu, \Sigma) + \lambda (\sum_{k} \pi_{k} - 1)$$
$$0 = \sum_{n} \frac{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_{k}, \Sigma_{k})}{\sum_{k} \pi_{k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_{k}, \Sigma_{k})} + \lambda$$

Multiply by  $\pi_k$  and summing over k, we get  $\lambda = -N \Rightarrow \pi_k = \frac{\sum_n \gamma(z_k)}{N}$ 

#### The Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)

• Given the set of N data points represented by a matrix  $\mathbf{X}$ , we find the model parameters  $\pi$  ,  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  (which are vectors and a matrices) which maximize the probability of the occurrence of the observed data, via the Maximum (log) Likelihood Estimation (MLE) approach MLE) approach  $p(X|\pi,\mu,\Sigma) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x_n|\mu_k,\Sigma_k)$  $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$ 

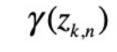
Log of a sum; no closed form maximum

• Solution: use standard, iterative, numeric optimization methods or the *Expectation Maximization (EM)* algorithm (see next slides and Chapter 9 of PRML of C.M.Bishop). Summary: How to Maximizing Log Likelihood for GMM

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$

Maximum of log likelihood: derivatives of  $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\pi, \mu, \Sigma)$  w.r.t parameters to 0.

$$\boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)} \qquad \qquad N_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n})$$



) is called a "responsibility": how much is this Gaussian k responsible for this point X<sub>n</sub>?

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) | \mathbf{x}_{n} \qquad \pi_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{N_{k}}{N}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}})^{\text{T}}$$

Clustering 58

## Derivation of MLE for the Mixture of Gaussian model (cont'd)

- ▶ No closed form solutions:  $\gamma(z_{kn})$  depends on parameters
- But these equations suggest simple iterative scheme for finding maximum likelihood:
   Alternate between estimating the current γ(z<sub>kn</sub>) and updating the parameters {μ<sub>k</sub>, Σ<sub>k</sub>, π<sub>k</sub>}.

- 1. Initialize the parameters: means  $\mu_k$ , covariances  $\sum_k$  and mixing coeff.  $\pi_k$  of the *K* Gaussian components.
- 2. E Step: Assign each point  $\mathbf{X}_n$  an assignment score  $\gamma(z_{k,n})$  for each cluster k
- 3. M Step: Given scores, adjust  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ ,  $\pi_k$  for each cluster k
  - Evaluate Likelihood value. If likelihood value or parameters converge, stop; Otherwise Goto Step 2. (the E Step)

#### where

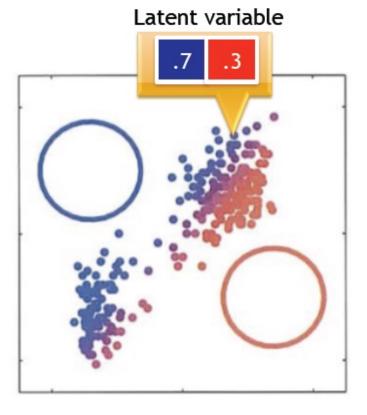
 $Z_{k,n}$  is the 0-1 indicator r.v. showing whether  $X_n$  belongs to cluster k

 $\gamma(z_{k,n})$  is an estimate of the posterior probability that data point  $X_n$  is "contributed" by cluster k, i.e. the conditional probability that  $X_n$  belongs to cluster k given the value of  $X_n$  and parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\sum_{k}$ ,  $\pi_k$ 

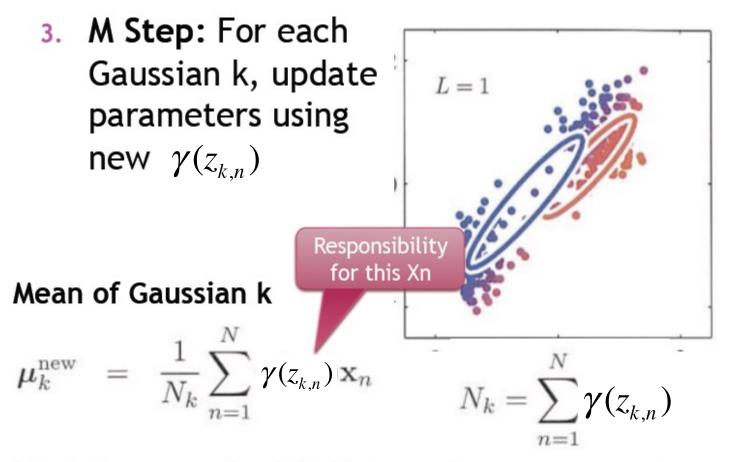
- 1. Initialize  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$  $\pi_k$ , one for each Gaussian k
  - Tip! Use K-means result to initialize:
    - $\mu_k \leftarrow \mu_k$   $\Sigma_k \leftarrow \operatorname{cov}(cluster(K))$  $\pi \leftarrow \text{Number of points in } k$
    - $\pi_k \leftarrow \frac{\text{Number of points in } \mathbf{k}}{\text{Total number of points}}$

 E Step: For each point X<sub>n</sub>, determine its assignment score to each Gaussian k:

$$\gamma(z_{k,n}) = rac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^K \pi_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)}$$



 $\gamma(z_{k,n})$  is called a "responsibility": how much is this Gaussian k responsible for this point  $X_n$ ?

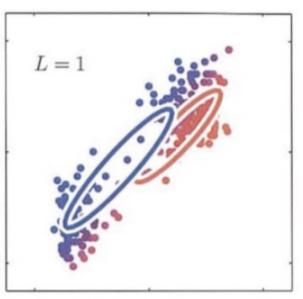


Find the mean that "fits" the assignment scores best

3. M Step: For each Gaussian k, update parameters using new  $\gamma(z_{k,n})$ 

Covariance matrix

of Gaussian k

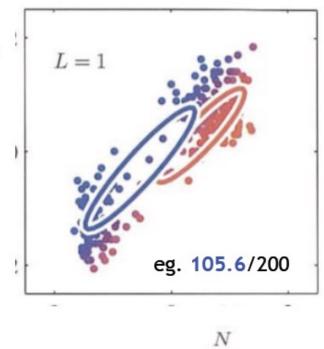


 $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k}^{\text{new}} = \frac{1}{N_{k}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\gamma}(\boldsymbol{z}_{k,n}) \left( \mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}} \right) \left( \mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}^{\text{new}} \right)^{\text{T}}$ Just calculated this!

3. M Step: For each Gaussian k, update parameters using new  $\gamma(z_{k,n})$ 

AT



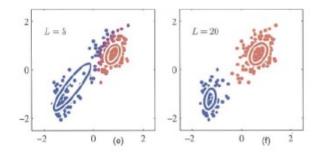


$$= \frac{N_k}{N}$$
Total # of points
$$N_k = \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{k,n})$$

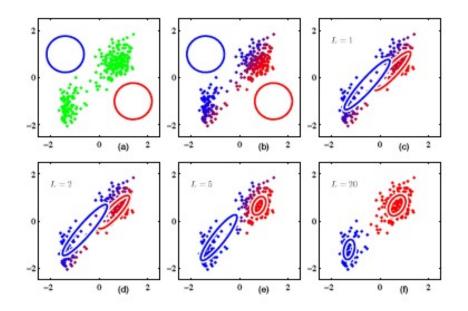
 Evaluate log likelihood. If likelihood or parameters converge, stop. Else go to Step 2 (E step).

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \boldsymbol{\pi}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right\}$$

**Likelihood** is the probability for the observed data-set X to occur (i.e to be generated) given the current values of the parameters.



### The EM approach for GMM (cont'd)



- More iterations needed to converge than K-means algorithm, and each cycle requires more computation
- Common, initialise parameters based K-means run.

### Recap: EM for GMM

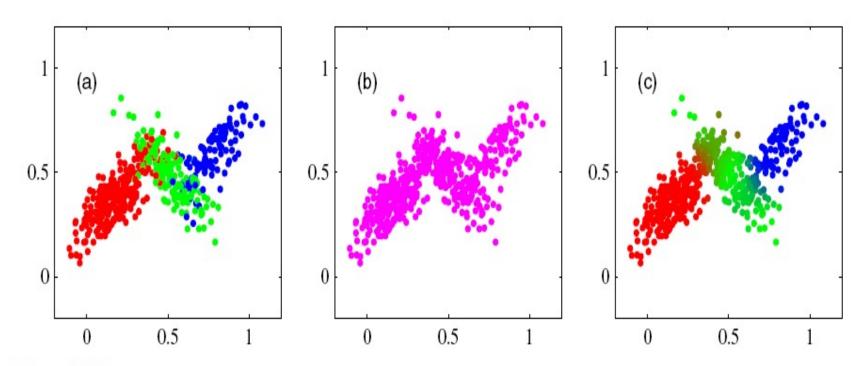
The EM Algorithm

- 1. Initialize the parameters: means  $\mu_k$  , covariances  $\Sigma_k$  and mixing coeff.  $\pi_k$  of the *K* Gaussian components.
- 2. E Step: Assign each point  $\mathbf{x}_n$  an assignment score  $\gamma(z_{k,n})$  for each cluster k
- 3. M Step: Given scores, adjust  $\mu_k$ ,  $\sum_k$ ,  $\pi_k$  for each cluster k
  - Evaluate Likelihood value. If likelihood value or parameters converage, stop; Otherwise Goto Step 2. (the E Step)

 $\gamma(z_{k,n})$  is an estimate of the posterior probability that data point  $X_n$  is "contributed" by (or belongs to) cluster k, i.e. the conditional probability given the parameters  $\mu_k$ ,  $\Sigma_k$ ,  $\pi_k$  and the observation  $X_n$ 

#### Comparing to the K-means algorithm

- 1. Initialize means  $\mu_k$ 
  - E Step: Assign each point to a cluster
  - M Step: Given clusters, refine mean  $\mu_k$  of each cluster k
  - 4. Stop when change in means is small



**Figure 9.5** Example of 500 points drawn from the mixture of 3 Gaussians shown in Figure 2.23. (a) Samples from the joint distribution p(z)p(x|z) in which the three states of z, corresponding to the three components of the mixture, are depicted in red, green, and blue, and (b) the corresponding samples from the marginal distribution p(x), which is obtained by simply ignoring the values of z and just plotting the x values. The data set in (a) is said to be *complete*, whereas that in (b) is *incomplete*. (c) The same samples in which the colours represent the value of the responsibilities  $\gamma(z_{nk})$  associated with data point  $x_n$ , obtained by plotting the corresponding point using proportions of red, blue, and green ink given by  $\gamma(z_{nk})$  for k = 1, 2, 3, respectively

# Application: Using GMM for Image Segmentation

Source: https://kittipatkampa.wordpress.com/2011/02/17/image-segmentation-using-gaussian-mixture-models/





#### Original Image

Segmentation results using GMM with 3 components Input Features:

x-y pixel locations & pixel lightness/color in L\*a\*b color space

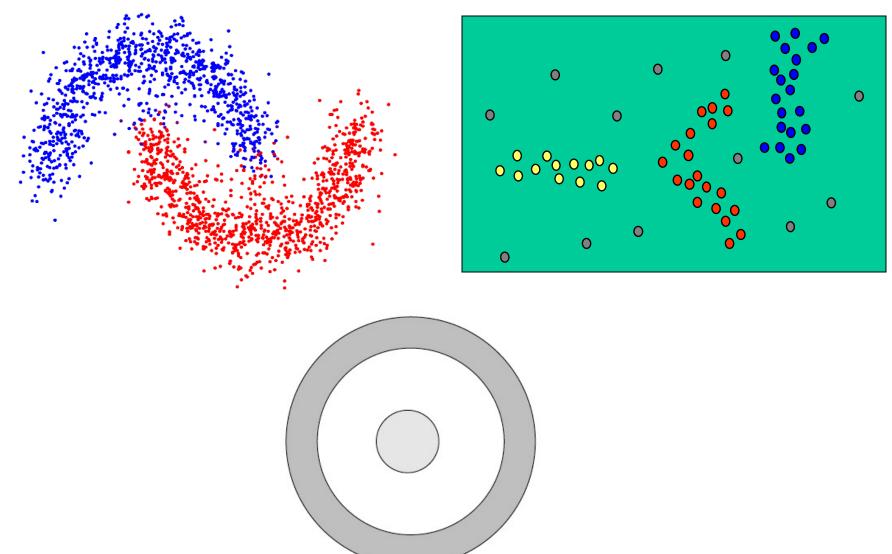
#### **Output Results:**

Each color represents a class ; The brightness represents the posterior probability – darker pixels represent high uncertainty of the posterior distribution.

# From K-means to GMM

- K-means is a 0-1 classifier, which assigns every data point to one and only one cluster
  - As shown previously, K-means can also be formulated as EM
- Mixture of Gaussians is a Probability Model to describe/characterize a given set of data
  - GMM can be used as a "Soft" classifier
  - For every point we can quantify the **likelihood** that it belongs to a particular cluster
  - Once you have established the model for a given data set, you can use it for other applications, e.g. Prediction, Density Estimator, statistical inference etc.
- The EM-approach can be generalized to other non-Gaussian distributions.
- K-means, GMM and the general EM-approach are all widely used in practice for large-scale problems.

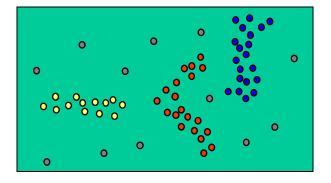
# K-means and GMM CANNOT deal with Clusters of Random Shapes !!



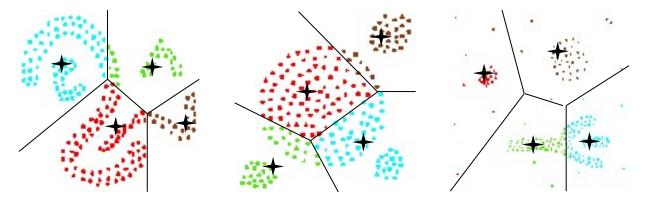
# **Density-based Clustering**

#### 💥 Basic Idea:

Clusters are dense regions in the data space, separated by regions of lower object density



#### Why Density-Based Clustering?



Results of a *k*-medoid algorithm for *k*=4

# **Density-based Clustering**

- Density-based Clustering locates regions of high density that are separated from one another by regions of low density.
- Density = number of points within a specified radius (ε) (in d-dimensional space)
- Why Density-Based Clustering methods?
  - Discover clusters of arbitrary shape.
  - Clusters Dense regions of objects separated by regions of low density
- DBSCAN the first density based clustering
  - To be covered in ESTR4300 ! All are welcome

# **Backup Slides**

# DBSCAN: Density Based Spatial Clustering of Applications with Noise

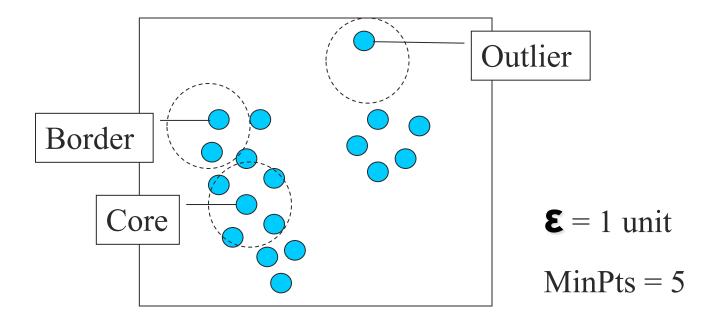
- Proposed by Ester, Kriegel, Sander, and Xu (KDD1996) – 2014 SIGKDD Test of Time Award
- Relies on a density-based notion of cluster: A cluster is defined as a maximal set of densityconnected points.
- Discovers clusters of arbitrary shape in spatial databases with noise

# **DBSCAN Terminology**

- A point is a core point if it has more than a specified number of points (MinPts) within a radius of ε
  - These are points that are at the interior of a cluster
- A border point has fewer than MinPts within ε, but is in the neighborhood of a core point

• A noise point is any point that is not a core point or a border point.

#### **Border & Core**

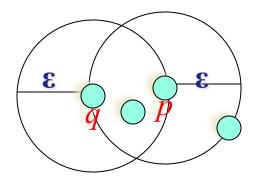


# Key Idea for Cluster Formation under DBSCAN

- Any two core points are close enough— within a distance ε of one another are put in the same cluster
- Any border point that is close enough to a core point is put in the same cluster as the core point
- Noise points are discarded

# **Concepts: ε-Neighborhood**

- ε-Neighborhood Points within a radius of ε from a point. (epsilon-neighborhood)
- "High density" ε-Neighborhood of a point contains at least MinPts of points

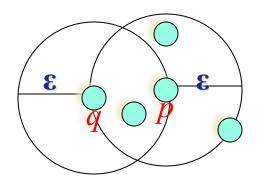


ε-Neighborhood of p
ε-Neighborhood of q
Density of p is "high" (w.r.t. MinPts = 4)
Density of q is "low" (w.r.t. MinPts = 4)

# **Concepts: Reachability**

# Directly Density-Reachable

 A point q is directly density-reachable from a point p if q is within the ε-Neighborhood of p and p is a core point.



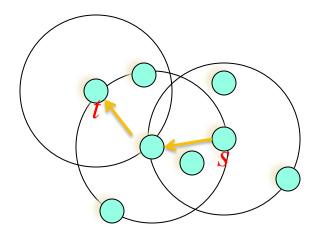
- q is directly densityreachable from p
- p is not directly densityreachable from q !

=> Asymmetric in general

# **Concepts: Reachability**

#### **Density-Reachable:**

• A point *q* is density-reachable from *p* w.r.t  $\varepsilon$  and *MinPts* if there is a chain of points  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ , with  $p_1 = p$ ,  $p_n = q$  such that  $p_{i+1}$  is directly density-reachable from  $p_i$  w.r.t  $\varepsilon$  and *MinPts* for all  $1 \le i \le n$ 

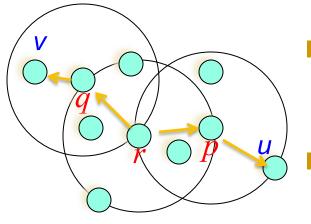


- t is density-reachable from s
- BUT s is not density-reachable from t !
- Transitive closure of Direct
   Density-Reachability ;
   Asymmetric in general !

# **Concepts: Connectivity**

# Density-connectivity

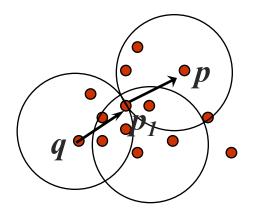
 Point *p* is density-connected to Point *q* w.r.t ε and *MinPts* if there is a point *r* such that both *p* and *q* are density-reachable from *r* w.r.t ε and *MinPts*



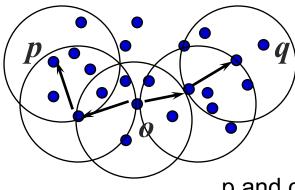
- p and q are densityconnected to each other by r
- v and u are densityconnected to each other by r

Density-connectivity is symmetric

# Density-reachable vs. Density-Connected



p is Density-reachable from q

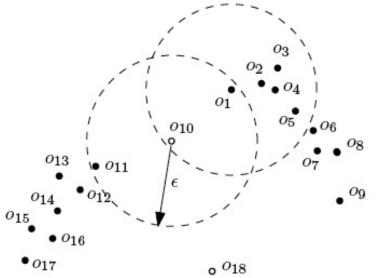


p and q are Density-connected via o

# Formal Description of a Cluster

- Given a data set D, parameter ε and a threshold of MinPts.
- A cluster C is a subset of points satisfying two criteria:
  - Connected: For all p,q in C: p and q are densityconnected.
  - Maximal: For all p,q: if p in C and q is <u>density-reachable</u> from p, then q in C (=> p is a core point)
  - => Each cluster has at least 1 Core point
  - => Each cluster contains at least MinPts points
- Note: a Cluster contains both Core and Border points
- Noise: points which are not directly density-reachable from at least one core point.
- The set of Clusters defined as above is ALWAYS Unique !...except...=> border point may belong to multiple cluster

# **Cluster Examples**



C1 = {o1, o2,...o10} C2 = {o10, o11,...,o17} o18 is a noise point

Figure 2: An example dataset (the two circles have radius  $\epsilon$ ; MinPts = 4)

*Connected:* For all p,q in C: p and q are density-connected.

*Maximal:* For all p,q: if p in C and q is <u>density-reachable from p</u>, then q in C ; <u>also => each cluster has at least 1 Core point</u>

- {o1, o10} alone is NOT a cluster by itself because NOT Maximal
- A Border point, e.g. o10, can belong to MULTIPLE clusters
- Clusters produced by DBSCAN is NOT necessarily disjoint !
- However, if p belongs to more than 1 cluster, it MUST BE a Border point A core point always belongs to a Unique cluster, Why ?

# DBSCAN: The Algorithm (Simplified)

for each  $o \in D$  do if o is not yet classified then if o is a core-object then collect all objects density-reachable from oand assign them to a new cluster. else assign o to NOISE

- Worst-case Time Complexity = O(n<sup>2</sup>) ! (trivial ?)
  - NOT O(n log n) Time as initially mis-claimed (for 17 years) !
- Time complexity =  $\Omega(n^{4/3})$  for d > 2 [Gan&Tao 2015];
- O(n) space complexity
- O(n log n) Time only for 2-dimensional case [Gunawan 2013];
- p-approx DBSCAN runs in O(n) Time in Expectation for all dimensions [Gan&Tao 2015]
   Clustering 88

# DBSCAN: The Algorithm (a more detail version)

```
DBSCAN(D, eps, MinPts)
```

```
C = 0
```

for each unvisited point P in dataset D

mark P as visited

```
N = regionQuery(P, eps)
```

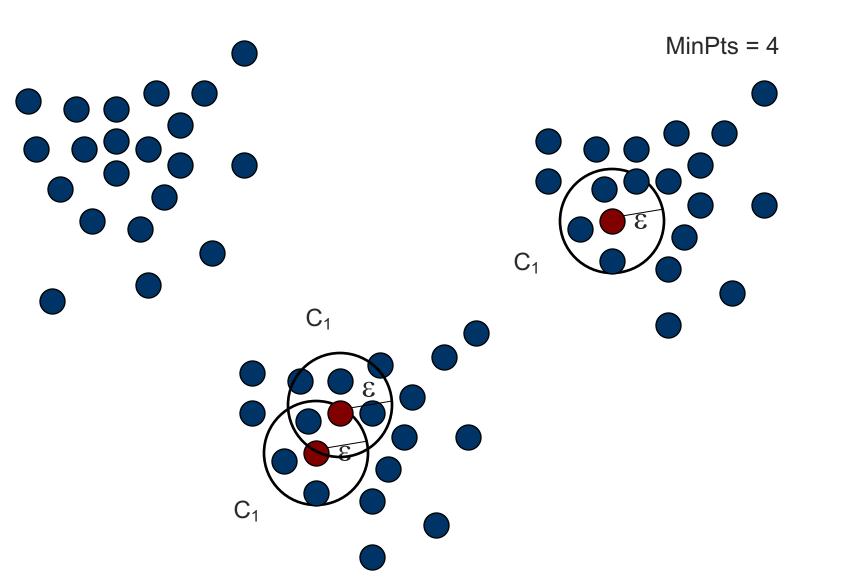
if sizeof(N) < MinPts

mark P as NOISE

else

expandCluster(P,N,C,eps,MinPts)
add P to cluster C
for each point P' in N
if P' is not visited
mark P' as visited
N' = regionQuery(P', eps)
if sizeof(N') >= MinPts
N = N joined with N'
if P' is not yet member of
any cluster
add P' to cluster C

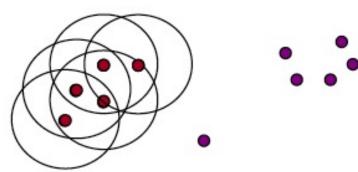
# An Example



Running the DBSCAN Algorithm: An Example

# Parameter

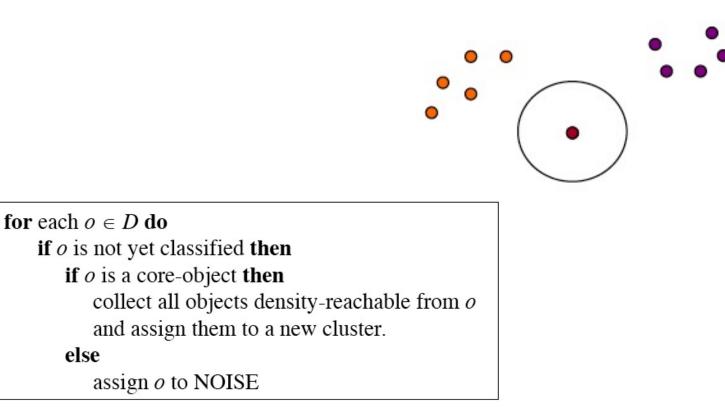
- $\varepsilon = 2 \text{ cm}$
- MinPts = 3



for each  $o \in D$  do if o is not yet classified then if o is a core-object then collect all objects density-reachable from oand assign them to a new cluster. else assign o to NOISE Running the DBSCAN Algorithm: An Example

# Parameter

- ε = 2 cm
- MinPts = 3

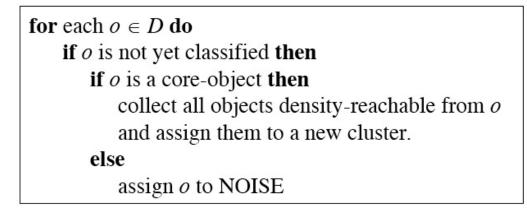


# Running the DBSCAN Algorithm: An Example

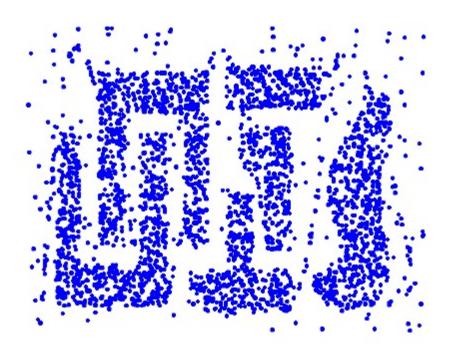
0 0

# Parameter

- ε = 2 cm
- MinPts = 3



# **Another Example**





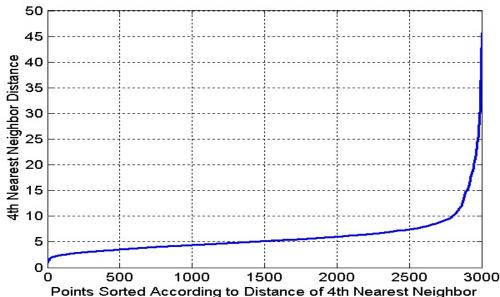
**Original Points** 

Point types: core, border and outliers

 $\epsilon$  = 10, MinPts = 4

# DBSCAN: Determining ε and MinPts

- Idea is that for points in a cluster, their k<sup>th</sup> nearest neighbors are at roughly the same distance (BUT may NOT always be true !!)
- Noise points have the k<sup>th</sup> nearest neighbor at farther distance
- So, plot sorted distance of every point to its k<sup>th</sup> nearest neighbor



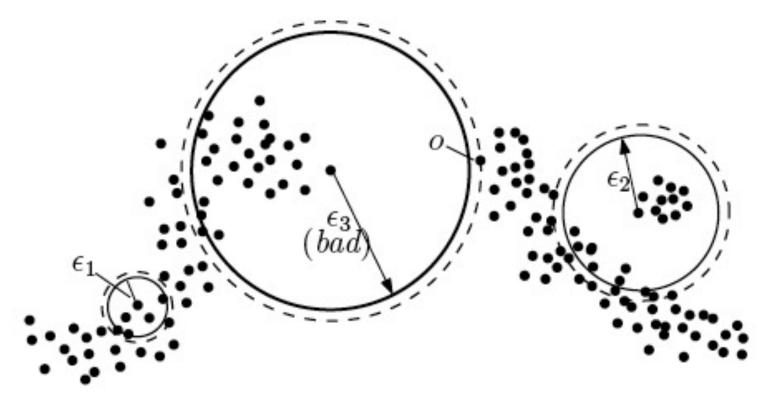
# DBSCAN: Determining ε and MinPts

- Distance from a point to its *k*<sup>th</sup> nearest neighbor=>k-dist
- For points that belong to some clusters, the value of k-dist will be small if k is not larger than cluster size
- For points that are not in a cluster such as noise points, the k-dist will be relatively large
- Compute k-dist for all points for some k
- Sort them in increasing order and plot sorted values
- A sharp change at the value of k-dist that corresponds to suitable value of ε and the value of k as MinPts

# DBSCAN: Determining ε and MinPts

- A sharp change at the value of k-dist that corresponds to suitable value of ε and the value of k as MinPts
  - Points for which k-dist is less than ε will be labeled as core points while other points will be labeled as noise or border points.
- If k is too large=> small clusters (of size less than k) are likely to be labeled as noise
- If k is too small=> Even a small number of closely spaced that are noise or outliers will be incorrectly labeled as clusters

# Sensitivity of DBSCAN w.r.t. the Choice of $\epsilon$



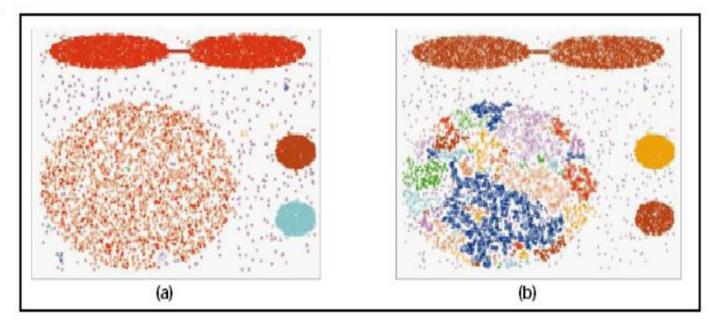
#### Figure 6: Good and bad choices of $\epsilon$

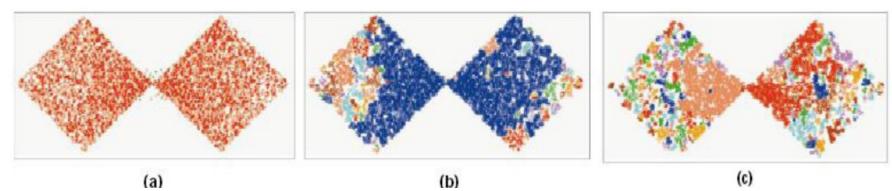
- Choice of Eps1 will give 3 clusters and Eps2 will give 2 clusters ; these choices of Eps are robust w.r.t. minor perturbation ;
- Eps3 is a bad choice because a slight perturbation of eps3 will change the result from 2 clusters to 1 cluster ; Eps3 is TOO CLOSE to the distance between 2 clusters !!

# **DBSCAN results Sensitive to Parameters**

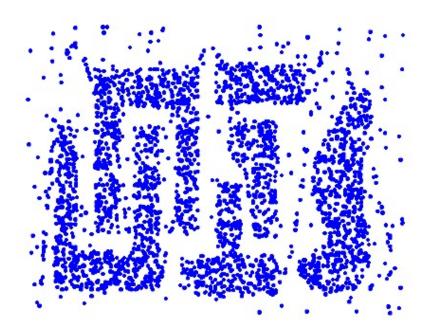
Figure 8. DBScan results for DS1 with MinPts at 4 and Eps at (a) 0.5 and (b) 0.4.

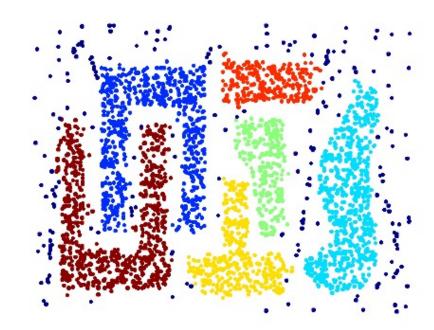
Figure 9. DBScan results for DS2 with MinPts at 4 and Eps at (a) 5.0, (b) 3.5, and (c) 3.0.





# When DBSCAN works well



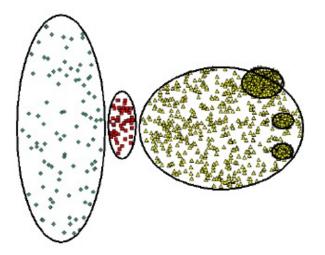


**Original Points** 

Clusters

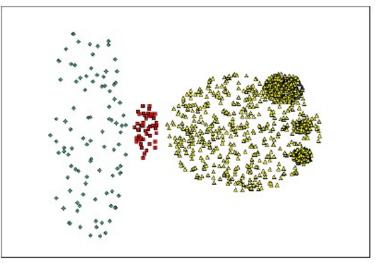
- Resistant to Noise
- Can handle clusters of different shapes and sizes

# When DBSCAN does NOT work well

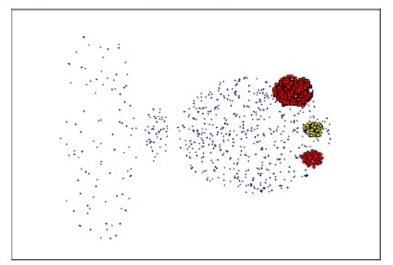


**Original Points** 

- Cannot handle varying densities
- sensitive to parameters—hard to determine the correct set of parameters



#### (MinPts=4, Eps=9.92).



(MinPts=4, Eps=9.75)

# Summary for DBSCAN

- **DBSCAN** depends on 2 critical parameters:
  - ε and Minpts
- The notion of ε-neighborhood w.r.t. Minpts threshold
- Definition of Core vs. Border vs. Noise (Outliner) points
- Density-Reachability vs. Density-Connectivity
- Defining a Cluster based on Density-Connectivity and MAXIMAL Density-Reachability
- Can be tricky to set the "correct" value of k (size of a cluster)
  - Inability to handle highly variable density within the

# Summary

 Clustering: Given a set of points, with a notion of distance between points, group the points into some number of clusters

#### • Algorithms:

- Agglomerative hierarchical clustering:
  - Centroid and clustroid
- *k*-means:
  - Initialization, picking k
- EM for GMM
- Density-based Clustering with DBSCAN for Clusters of arbitrary shapes

# **Backup Slides**

Backup Slides of the Derivation of MLE estimator for GMM

- Given data points x<sub>n</sub>, n=1,...,N
- Find a single Gaussian distribution that maximizes data log-likelihood

$$L(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log p(x_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log N(x_n; m, C) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\frac{d}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log |C| - \frac{1}{2} (x_n - m)^T C^{-1} (x_n - m) \right]$$

• Set derivative of data log-likelihood w.r.t. parameters to zero

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial m}L(\theta) = C^{-1}\sum_{n=1}^{N} [x_n - m] = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial C^{-1}}L(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\frac{1}{2}C - \frac{1}{2}(x_n - m)(x_n - m)^T\right] = 0$$
$$m = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n \qquad \qquad C = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} (x_n - m)(x_n - m)^T$$

• Parameters set as data covariance and mean

$$P(x_n|\theta_k) = P(x_n|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) = \mathcal{N}(x_n|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_k|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x-\mu_k)}$$

The derivative of a gaussian with respect to its mean

$$\frac{d}{d\mu_{k}} \{ (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \} =$$

$$(2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \frac{d}{d\mu_{k}} \{ -\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k}) \} =$$

$$(2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k}) =$$

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k}) \Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})$$

Maximize for  $\mu_k$ 

$$\frac{d}{d\mu_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} = 0$$
$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\mu_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

Use the derivative that we previously found

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Maximize for  $\mu_k$ 

$$\frac{d}{d\mu_k} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\mu_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \Sigma_k^{-1}(x_n - \mu_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk}(x_n - \mu_k) = 0$$

$$\mu_k \sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} x_n$$

$$\mu_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} z_{nk} x_n}{N_k}$$

The derivative of a gaussian with respect to its covariance

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} \{ (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \} =$$

$$(2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} \{ -\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k}) \} +$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} |\Sigma_{k}| =$$

Product rule

The derivative of a gaussian with respect to its covariance

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} \{ (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \} = 
(2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} \{ -\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k}) \} + 
-\frac{1}{2} (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-\frac{3}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k})} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} |\Sigma_{k}| = 
\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k}) \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} \{ -\frac{1}{2} (x-\mu_{k})^{T}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}(x-\mu_{k}) \} \\
-\frac{1}{2} |\Sigma_{k}|^{-1} \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k}) \frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}} |\Sigma_{k}| =$$

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T (x-\mu_k)\right) \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \Sigma_k^{-1} \\ -\frac{1}{2} |\Sigma_k|^{-1} \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) |\Sigma_k| \Sigma_k^{-1} =$$

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) (-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T (x-\mu_k)) \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \Sigma_k^{-1} \\ -\frac{1}{2} |\Sigma_k|^{-1} \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) |\Sigma_k| \Sigma_k^{-1} = \qquad \text{Derivative of inverse} \\ \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) (-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_k)^T (x-\mu_k)) (-\Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1}) \\ -\frac{1}{2} |\Sigma_k|^{-1} \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) |\Sigma_k| \Sigma_k^{-1} =$$

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}(x-\mu_{k}))\frac{d}{d\Sigma_{k}}\Sigma_{k}^{-1} \\ -\frac{1}{2}|\Sigma_{k}|^{-1}\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})|\Sigma_{k}|\Sigma_{k}^{-1} = \\\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}(x-\mu_{k}))(-\Sigma_{k}^{-1}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}) \\ -\frac{1}{2}|\Sigma_{k}|^{-1}\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})|\Sigma_{k}|\Sigma_{k}^{-1} = \\\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_{k})^{T}(x-\mu_{k})\Sigma_{k}^{-1}\Sigma_{k}^{-1} \\ -\frac{1}{2}\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})\Sigma_{k}^{-1} = \\\frac{1}{2}\mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{k},\Sigma_{k})\{(x-\mu_{k})^{T}(x-\mu_{k})\Sigma_{k}^{-1}\Sigma_{k}^{-1}-\Sigma_{k}^{-1}\}$$

0

Set derivative with respect to  $\Sigma_k$  equal to 0:

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} =$$
$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) = 0$$

Use derivative of gaussian

Set derivative with respect to  $\Sigma_k$  equal to 0:

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{1}{2} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1} \} = 0$$

Drop distributions

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Set derivative with respect to  $\Sigma_k$  equal to 0:

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{1}{2} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1} \} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1} \} = 0$$

Multiply with  $\Sigma_k \Sigma_k$ 

Set derivative with respect to  $\Sigma_k$  equal to 0:

$$\frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} \{ ln(\pi_k) + ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} ln(P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{d}{d\Sigma_k} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \frac{1}{P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{1}{2} P(x_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1} \} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} \Sigma_k^{-1} - \Sigma_k^{-1} \} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \{ (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) - \Sigma_k \} = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} \Sigma_k = \sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k)$$

$$N_k \Sigma_k = \sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k) \qquad \qquad \Sigma_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N z_{nk} (x_n - \mu_k)^T (x_n - \mu_k)}{N_k}$$