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view of mixture distributions in which the discrete latent variables can be interpreted as defining assignments of data points to specific components of the mixture. A general technique for finding maximum likelihood estimators in latent variable models is the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm. We first of all use the Gaussian mixture distribution to motivate the EM algorithm in a fairly informal way, and then we give a more careful treatment based on the latent variable viewpoint. We shall see that the K-means algorithm corresponds to a particular nonprobabilistic limit of EM applied to mixtures of Gaussians. Finally, we discuss EM in some generality.

Gaussian mixture models are widely used in data mining, pattern recognition, machine learning, and statistical analysis. In many applications, their parameters are determined by maximum likelihood, typically using the EM algorithm. However, as we shall see there are some significant limitations to the maximum likelihood approach, and in Chapter 10 we shall show that an elegant Bayesian treatment can be given using the framework of variational inference. This requires little additional computation compared with EM, and it resolves the principal difficulties of maximum likelihood while also allowing the number of components in the mixture to be inferred automatically from the data.

9.1. K-means Clustering

We begin by considering the problem of identifying groups, or clusters, of data points in a multidimensional space. Suppose we have a data set $\{\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_N\}$ consisting of N observations of a random D-dimensional Euclidean variable \mathbf{x} . Our goal is to partition the data set into some number K of clusters, where we shall suppose for the moment that the value of K is given. Intuitively, we might think of a cluster as comprising a group of data points whose inter-point distances are small compared with the distances to points outside of the cluster. We can formalize this notion by first introducing a set of D-dimensional vectors μ_k , where $k=1,\ldots,K$, in which μ_k is a prototype associated with the k^{th} cluster. As we shall see shortly, we can think of the μ_k as representing the centres of the clusters. Our goal is then to find an assignment of data points to clusters, as well as a set of vectors $\{\mu_k\}$, such that the sum of the squares of the distances of each data point to its closest vector μ_k , is a minimum.

It is convenient at this point to define some notation to describe the assignment of data points to clusters. For each data point \mathbf{x}_n , we introduce a corresponding set of binary indicator variables $r_{nk} \in \{0,1\}$, where $k=1,\ldots,K$ describing which of the K clusters the data point \mathbf{x}_n is assigned to, so that if data point \mathbf{x}_n is assigned to cluster k then $r_{nk}=1$, and $r_{nj}=0$ for $j\neq k$. This is known as the 1-of-K coding scheme. We can then define an objective function, sometimes called a *distortion measure*, given by

$$J = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} r_{nk} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2$$
 (9.1)

which represents the sum of the squares of the distances of each data point to its

assigned vector μ_k . Our goal is to find values for the $\{r_{nk}\}$ and the $\{\mu_k\}$ so as to minimize J. We can do this through an iterative procedure in which each iteration involves two successive steps corresponding to successive optimizations with respect to the r_{nk} and the μ_k . First we choose some initial values for the μ_k . Then in the first phase we minimize J with respect to the r_{nk} , keeping the μ_k fixed. In the second phase we minimize J with respect to the μ_k , keeping r_{nk} fixed. This two-stage optimization is then repeated until convergence. We shall see that these two stages of updating r_{nk} and updating μ_k correspond respectively to the E (expectation) and M (maximization) steps of the EM algorithm, and to emphasize this we shall use the terms E step and M step in the context of the K-means algorithm.

Consider first the determination of the r_{nk} . Because J in (9.1) is a linear function of r_{nk} , this optimization can be performed easily to give a closed form solution. The terms involving different n are independent and so we can optimize for each n separately by choosing r_{nk} to be 1 for whichever value of k gives the minimum value of $\|\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\|^2$. In other words, we simply assign the n^{th} data point to the closest cluster centre. More formally, this can be expressed as

$$r_{nk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k = \arg\min_{j} \|\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\|^2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (9.2)

Now consider the optimization of the μ_k with the r_{nk} held fixed. The objective function J is a quadratic function of μ_k , and it can be minimized by setting its derivative with respect to μ_k to zero giving

$$2\sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk}(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) = 0$$
 (9.3)

which we can easily solve for μ_k to give

$$\mu_k = \frac{\sum_n r_{nk} \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_n r_{nk}}.$$
(9.4)

The denominator in this expression is equal to the number of points assigned to cluster k, and so this result has a simple interpretation, namely set μ_k equal to the mean of all of the data points \mathbf{x}_n assigned to cluster k. For this reason, the procedure is known as the K-means algorithm.

The two phases of re-assigning data points to clusters and re-computing the cluster means are repeated in turn until there is no further change in the assignments (or until some maximum number of iterations is exceeded). Because each phase reduces the value of the objective function J, convergence of the algorithm is assured. However, it may converge to a local rather than global minimum of J. The convergence properties of the K-means algorithm were studied by MacQueen (1967).

The K-means algorithm is illustrated using the Old Faithful data set in Figure 9.1. For the purposes of this example, we have made a linear re-scaling of the data, known as *standardizing*, such that each of the variables has zero mean and unit standard deviation. For this example, we have chosen K=2, and so in this

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Appendix A

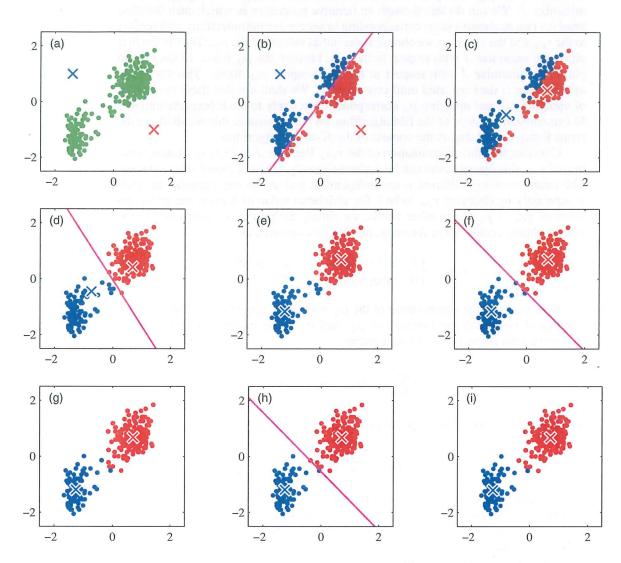
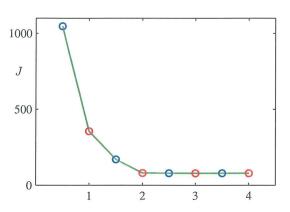


Figure 9.1 Illustration of the K-means algorithm using the re-scaled Old Faithful data set. (a) Green points denote the data set in a two-dimensional Euclidean space. The initial choices for centres μ_1 and μ_2 are shown by the red and blue crosses, respectively. (b) In the initial E step, each data point is assigned either to the red cluster or to the blue cluster, according to which cluster centre is nearer. This is equivalent to classifying the points according to which side of the perpendicular bisector of the two cluster centres, shown by the magenta line, they lie on. (c) In the subsequent M step, each cluster centre is re-computed to be the mean of the points assigned to the corresponding cluster. (d)–(i) show successive E and M steps through to final convergence of the algorithm.

Figure 9.2 Plot of the cost function *J* given by (9.1) after each E step (blue points) and M step (red points) of the *K*-means algorithm for the example shown in Figure 9.1. The algorithm has converged after the third M step, and the final EM cycle produces no changes in either the assignments or the prototype vectors.



case, the assignment of each data point to the nearest cluster centre is equivalent to a classification of the data points according to which side they lie of the perpendicular bisector of the two cluster centres. A plot of the cost function J given by (9.1) for the Old Faithful example is shown in Figure 9.2.

Note that we have deliberately chosen poor initial values for the cluster centres so that the algorithm takes several steps before convergence. In practice, a better initialization procedure would be to choose the cluster centres μ_k to be equal to a random subset of K data points. It is also worth noting that the K-means algorithm itself is often used to initialize the parameters in a Gaussian mixture model before applying the EM algorithm.

A direct implementation of the K-means algorithm as discussed here can be relatively slow, because in each E step it is necessary to compute the Euclidean distance between every prototype vector and every data point. Various schemes have been proposed for speeding up the K-means algorithm, some of which are based on precomputing a data structure such as a tree such that nearby points are in the same subtree (Ramasubramanian and Paliwal, 1990; Moore, 2000). Other approaches make use of the triangle inequality for distances, thereby avoiding unnecessary distance calculations (Hodgson, 1998; Elkan, 2003).

So far, we have considered a batch version of K-means in which the whole data set is used together to update the prototype vectors. We can also derive an on-line stochastic algorithm (MacQueen, 1967) by applying the Robbins-Monro procedure to the problem of finding the roots of the regression function given by the derivatives of J in (9.1) with respect to μ_k . This leads to a sequential update in which, for each data point \mathbf{x}_n in turn, we update the nearest prototype μ_k using

$$\mu_k^{\text{new}} = \mu_k^{\text{old}} + \eta_n(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k^{\text{old}})$$
 (9.5)

where η_n is the learning rate parameter, which is typically made to decrease monotonically as more data points are considered.

The *K*-means algorithm is based on the use of squared Euclidean distance as the measure of dissimilarity between a data point and a prototype vector. Not only does this limit the type of data variables that can be considered (it would be inappropriate for cases where some or all of the variables represent categorical labels for instance),

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Exercise 9.2