EE 381V: Large Scale Learning

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8.1 Introduction

We have learned some approaches of Dimension Reduction (DR), such as LSH for nearest neighbor search and spectral clustering for a given similarity graph (or matrix). In the lecture today, we are going to introduce spectral clustering for Gaussian Mixture Models (GMM).

8.2 Gaussian Mixture Models

A Gaussian mixture model is a distribution with the probability density function defined as follows.

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i), \qquad (8.1)$$

where $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{R}^n$ is a sampled point, $w_i \geq 0 \ \forall i, \ \sum_{i=1}^k w_i = 1$, and $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i)$ is a multivariate Gaussian distribution characterized by the mean vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i$ and the covariance matrix Σ_i .

Sampling Process. We first select a index $i \in \{1, ..., k\}$, where each i is selected with the probability w_i , then sample a point \boldsymbol{x} from $\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i)$.

8.2.1 Clustering Problem

Given m points (without index label) sampled from a GMM, where only the parameter k is known, we want to find the correct index label for each point.

The difficulty of this problem depends on the parameters of the underlying GMM (i.e., $\{\boldsymbol{\mu}_i\}$ and $\{\Sigma_i\}$). Let's look at a simple example in Figure 8.1, where we consider a simplified GMM with k = n = 2, $\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2\| = 2$, and $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \sigma^2 I_2$. Figure 8.1a shows the result for $\sigma^2 = 1$, while Figure 8.1b shows the result for $\sigma^2 = 0.1$. Obviously, the clustering problem for $\sigma^2 = 0.1$, where points generated from different Gaussian distributions do not overlap, is easier than clustering for $\sigma^2 = 1$, where points are highly mixed. In general, for any two Gaussian \mathcal{N}_i and \mathcal{N}_j , if $E[\|X^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|]$ and $E[\|X^{(j)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\|]$ are much smaller than $\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2\|$, where X^i denotes a random data point sampled from \mathcal{N}_i , then clustering problem becomes easier. Therefore, the distance between $\{\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\| : i \neq j\}$ and $\{E\|X^i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i\|\}$ is the key to determine the difficulty of the clustering problem.

We state a useful lemma for estimate $E[||X - \mu||]$ for a multivariate Gaussian:



Figure 8.1: Clustering Difficulty for different σ^2

Lemma 8.1. For an *n*-dimensional Gaussian distribution $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$,

$$E[||X - \boldsymbol{\mu}||^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{ii}^2,$$

where σ_{ii} is the *i*-th entry in the diagonal of Σ .

Proof: By definition, $X = \mu + Y$, where $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$. Thus,

$$E[||X - \boldsymbol{\mu}||^2] = E[||Y||^2] = E[\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n E[Y_i^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{ii}^2.$$

8.3 Settings

In this lecture, we consider the clustering problem for a simplified version of GMM:

- the dimension n is large,
- the covariance matrix for each Gaussian distributions is just a diagonal matrix $\Sigma_i = \sigma_i^2 I_n$.
- $\mu_i \mu_j$ is considered a constant which is independent of the dimension n.

Based on Lemma 8.1, we have the following Corollary to measure the difficulty of clustering problems under our setting.

Corollary 8.2. For an *n*-dimensional Gaussian distribution $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 I_n)$,

$$E[\|X - \boldsymbol{\mu}\|] = \sigma \sqrt{n}.$$

As a result, to obtain a good clustering result, distance-based methods such as K-means require that

$$\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\| > C \max\{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} \sqrt{n}$$
(8.2)

holds for $i \neq j$, where C is a constant. As the RHS of (8.2) is linear to \sqrt{n} , distance-based methods will fail when n is large.

Does this high-dimensional clustering problem become easier when $\{\boldsymbol{\mu}_i\}$ is also given? Consider a simple case where k = 2 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$ are known. We can simply project all data points on the line connecting $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$,¹ then

$$E[\|\operatorname{Proj}(X^{(i)}) - \operatorname{Proj}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i)\|] = \sigma_i, \ i = 1, 2.$$

As a result, as long as $\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2\| > C \max\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2\}$, distance-based methods can work well on the projected data because the RHS is independent of n. In general, if $\{\boldsymbol{\mu}_i\}$ are told, and $\|\boldsymbol{\mu}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\| > C \max\{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\}$ for each pair of (i, j), the clustering problem becomes easier when we apply appropriate projection.

8.4 Two Ideas for Projection

However, in real-world application, $\{\mu_i\}$ are usually unknown. Here we try two ideas to find an appropriate projection.

8.4.1 Idea I - Random Projection

The first idea is projecting the data onto a random r-dimensional subspace V, where $n \gg r > k$. As the dimension becomes r, $\sigma \sqrt{n}$ becomes $\sigma \sqrt{r}$, which is a good thing as the RHS in (8.2) is reduced. However, by the Johnson-Lindendstrauss lemma [1, 2],

$$E[\|\operatorname{Proj}_V(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i) - \operatorname{Proj}_V(\boldsymbol{\mu}_j)\|^2] = \frac{r}{n} \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j\|^2,$$

which means that the LHS in (8.2) is also reduced by random projection. This means that if distance-based methods are not able to cluster the original data well, the projected data cannot be well-clustered as the difficulty remains after the random projection.

¹We can assume $\mu_2 = c\mu_1$ for some constant c to make the line an one-dimensional subspace.

Algorithm 1 Spectral Clustering for Gaussian Mixture Models

- 1: Form the $m \times n$ sample matrix A, where each row is data point.
- 2: Calculate the truncated SVD for A with rank r:

 $A \approx \hat{U}_r \hat{\Sigma}_r \hat{V}_r^T.$

3: Form the projected $m \times r$ sample matrix $A' = \hat{U}_r \hat{\Sigma}$.

4: Run an elementary clustering algorithm on A'.

8.4.2 Idea II - Projection covering $Span\{\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_k\}$

The reason why random projection does not work is that it also reduces the distance between $\{\mu_i\}$. If we knew a *r*-dimensional subspace U that contains $\text{Span}\{\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_k\}$, then after a projection onto U, the RHS in (8.2) is reduced, while the distance between μ_i and μ_j (i.e., the LHS in (8.2)) remains unchanged:

$$\|\operatorname{Proj}_{U}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i}) - \operatorname{Proj}_{U}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{j})\| = \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{j}\|, \ \forall i, j$$
$$E[\|\operatorname{Proj}_{U}(X^{i}) - \operatorname{Proj}_{U}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{i})\|] = \sigma_{i}\sqrt{r}, \ \forall i.$$

As a result, clustering projected data becomes easier for distance-based methods. Next we discuss how to find the desired subspace U.

8.5 Spectral Clustering for GMMs

Spectral clustering for GMMs is an approach to find/approximate the projection "U" described in Section 8.4.2.

Intuition. Assume that X is generated from a single Gaussian $\sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2 I_n)$ and consider the optimization problem:

$$\arg\max_{\|\boldsymbol{v}\|=1} E[\langle X, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle^2].$$
(8.3)

Recall that $X = \boldsymbol{\mu} + Y$, $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 I_n)$, thus $\langle X, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle + \langle Y, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle$. As $E[\langle Y, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle]$ is a constant for all \boldsymbol{v} ,

$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{v}:\|\boldsymbol{v}\|=1} E[\langle X, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle^2]$$

=
$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{v}:\|\boldsymbol{v}\|=1} E[\langle X, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle]$$

=
$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{v}:\|\boldsymbol{v}\|=1} E[\langle \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle] + E[\langle Y, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle]$$

=
$$\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{v}:\|\boldsymbol{v}\|=1} E[\langle \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle] + \text{constant}$$

=
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}.$$

The optimal solution for (8.3) is just μ . Similarly, for a GMM with k > 1, we have

$$\arg \max_{V:dim(V)=k} E[\|\operatorname{Proj}_V X\|^2] = \operatorname{Span}\{\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_K\}.$$

Thus, ideally, we can find a desired projection U through finding a projection which maximizing the expected length of projected data.

Given m data points sampled from a GMM following the setting in Section 8.3, the goal is to find a projection which maximizing the empirical expectation of length of the projected data.

$$\arg \max_{V:dim(V)=r} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|\operatorname{Proj}_{V} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}\|_{2}^{2},$$
(8.4)

where $\boldsymbol{x}_i \in \mathcal{R}^n$ is the *i*-th data point. It can be analytically shown that the optimal projection is \hat{V}_r^T , the transpose of the matrix corresponding to the top-*r* right singular vectors of the $m \times n$ sample matrix *A*, where *i*-th row, $A_i = \boldsymbol{x}_i^T$, is the *i*-th data point. In particular, if we form the rank-*r* truncated SVD for *A*:

$$A \approx \hat{U}_r \hat{\Sigma}_r \hat{V}_r^T$$

we have

$$\hat{V}_r^T = \arg \max_{V:dim(V)=r} \frac{1}{m} \sum_i^m \|\operatorname{Proj}_V A_i\|^2,$$
$$\hat{U}_r \hat{\Sigma}_r = \operatorname{Proj} A, \text{ the projected } m \times r \text{ sample matrix }.$$

As a result, we can conduct an elementary clustering algorithm on the projected sample matrix $\operatorname{Proj} A$. We describe the spectral algorithm for GMM in Algorithm 1.

Bibliography

- W. Johnson and J. Lindenstrauss, "Extensions of lipshitz mapping into hilbert space," in Modern analysis and probability, vol. 26, pp. 189–206, 1984.
- [2] E. Bingham and H. Mannila, "Random projection in dimensionality reduction: applications to image and text data," in *Proceedings of the seventh ACM SIGKDD international* conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining, KDD '01, (New York, NY, USA), pp. 245–250, ACM, 2001.