

Spring School - April 2016 - Spartan/Macsenet Francis Bach

Slides generously provided by Guillaume Obozinski

Probabilistic models



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Ecole des Ponts - ParisTech



SOCN course 2014

Outline

- 1 Statistical concepts
- 2 A short review of convex analysis and optimization
- 3 The maximum likelihood principle
- 4 Linear regression
- 5 Logistic regression
- 6 Fisher discriminant analysis
- 7 Clustering
- 8 The EM algorithm for the Gaussian mixture model
- 9 Hidden Markov models

References for further reading

Christopher Bishop. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer, 2006.

Kevin Murphy. Machine Learning: a Probabilistic Perspective. MIT Press, 2012.

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Statistical concepts

Statistical Model

Parametric model – Definition:

Set of distributions parametrized by a vector $\theta \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^p$

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Multinomial model: $X \sim \mathcal{M}(n, \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_K)$ $\Theta = [0, 1]^K$

$$p(x|\theta) = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_k} \pi_1^{x_1} \dots \pi_k^{x_k}$$

Indicator variable coding for multinomial variables

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$$\mathbb{P}(C = k) = \mathbb{P}(Y_k = 1) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{P}(Y = \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{y_k}.$$

Bernoulli, Binomial, Multinomial

$Y \sim \text{Ber}(\pi)$	$(Y_1, \dots, Y_K) \sim \mathcal{M}(1, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_K)$
$p(y) = \pi^y (1 - \pi)^{1-y}$	$p(\mathbf{y}) = \pi_1^{y_1} \dots \pi_K^{y_K}$
$N_1 \sim \text{Bin}(n, \pi)$	$(N_1, \dots, N_K) \sim \mathcal{M}(n, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_K)$
$p(n_1) = \binom{n}{n_1} \pi^{n_1} (1 - \pi)^{n-n_1}$	$p(\mathbf{n}) = \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_K} \pi_1^{n_1} \dots \pi_K^{n_K}$

with

$$\binom{n}{i} = \frac{n!}{(n-i)!i!} \quad \text{and} \quad \binom{n}{n_1 \dots n_K} = \frac{n!}{n_1! \dots n_K!}$$

Gaussian model

Scalar Gaussian model : $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

X real valued r.v., and $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2) \in \Theta = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}_+^*$.

$$p_{\mu, \sigma^2}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

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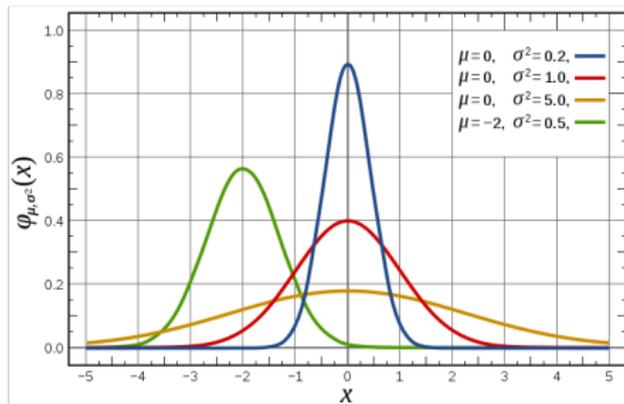
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Multivariate Gaussian model: $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

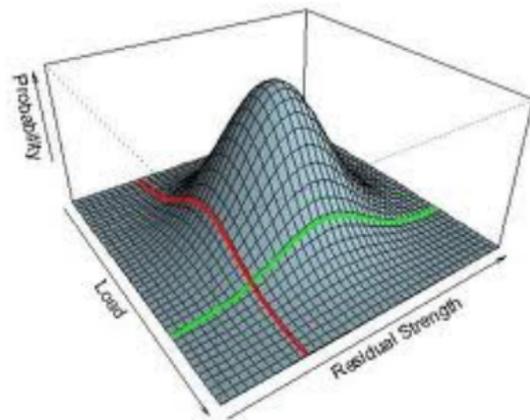
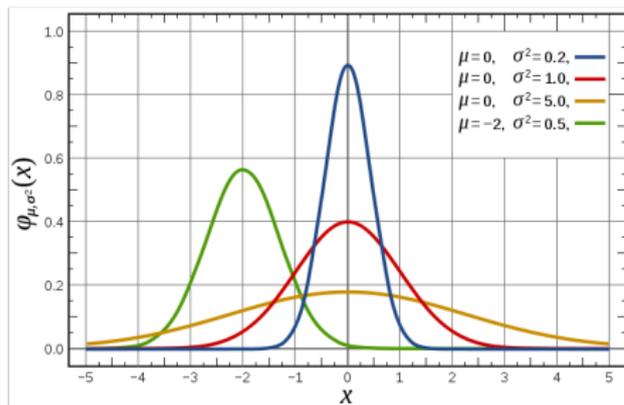
X r.v. taking values in \mathbb{R}^d . If \mathcal{K}_n is the set of positive definite matrices of size $n \times n$, and $\theta = (\mu, \Sigma) \in \Theta = \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{K}_n$.

$$p_{\mu, \Sigma}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d \det \Sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right)$$

Gaussian densities



Gaussian densities



Sample/Training set

The data used to learn or estimate a model typically consists of a collection of observation which can be thought of as instantiations of random variables.

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- **identically distributed**, i.e. have the same distribution P .

This collection of observations is called

- the *sample* or the *observations* in statistics
- the *samples* in engineering
- the *training set* in machine learning

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A short review of convex analysis and optimization

Review: convex analysis

Convex function

$$\forall \lambda \in [0, 1], \quad f(\lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y}) \leq \lambda f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \lambda) f(\mathbf{y})$$

Review: convex analysis

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$$\exists \mu > 0, \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) - \mu \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \text{ is convex}$$

Equivalently:

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The largest possible μ is called the strong convexity constant.

Minima of convex functions

Proposition (Supporting hyperplane)

If f is convex and differentiable at \mathbf{x} then

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$$

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If there is a local minimum, then it is unique and global.

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If there is a local minimum, then it is unique and global.

Strongly convex function

There exists a unique local minimum which is also global.

Minima and stationary points of differentiable functions

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Theorem (Stationary point of a convex differentiable function)

If f is convex and differentiable at \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{x} is stationary then \mathbf{x} is a minimum.

Theorem (Stationary points of a twice differentiable functions)

For f twice differentiable at \mathbf{x}

- if \mathbf{x} is a local minimum then $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succeq 0$.*
- conversely if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succ 0$ then \mathbf{x} is a strict local minimum.*

Minima of differentiable functions under linear constraints

Theorem

If the function f is differentiable at \mathbf{x} , and \mathbf{x} is a local minimum of

$$\min f(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad A\mathbf{x} = b$$

with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ then \mathbf{x} must satisfy

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) + A^T \lambda = 0,$$

for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

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More optimization later...

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The maximum likelihood principle

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Sir Ronald Fisher
(1890-1962)

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Case of i.i.d data

If $(x_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ is an i.i.d. sample of size n :

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{ML}} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta \in \Theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x_i|\theta)$$



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Examples of computation of the MLE

- Bernoulli model
- Multinomial model
- Gaussian model

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Linear regression

Generative models vs conditional models

- X is the input variable
- Y is the output variable

A **generative model** is a model of the joint distribution $p(x, y)$.

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Conditional models vs Generative models

- CM make less assumptions about the data distribution
- CM Require fewer parameters
- CM are typically harder to learn
- CM can typically not handle missing data or latent variables

Probabilistic version of linear regression

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Likelihood for one pair

$$p(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{\sigma^2}\right)$$

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Negative log-likelihood

$$-\ell(\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i | \mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{\sigma^2}.$$

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The minimization problem in \mathbf{w}

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

that we recognize as the usual linear regression, with

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Optimizing over σ^2 , we find:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{\mathbf{w}}_{MLE}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

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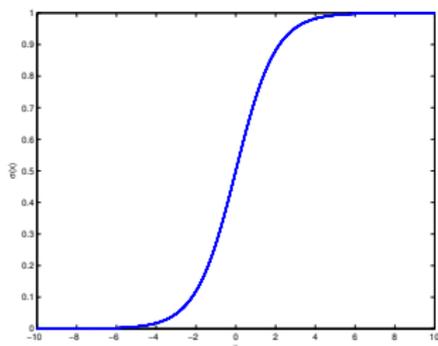
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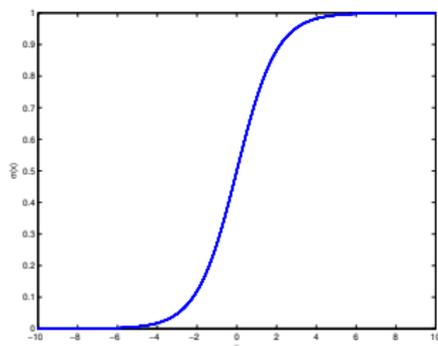
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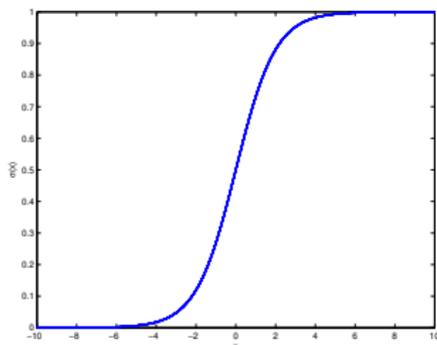
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Properties:

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sigma(-z) = 1 - \sigma(z),$$

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sigma'(z) = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z)) \\ = \sigma(z)\sigma(-z).$$

Likelihood for logistic regression

Let $\eta := \sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b)$. W.l.o.g. we assume $b = 0$.

By assumption: $Y|X = \mathbf{x} \sim \text{Ber}(\eta)$.

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Log-likelihood of a sample

Given an i.i.d. training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$

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No closed form solution !

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where \mathbf{X} is the design matrix.

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→ Note that $-H\ell$ is p.s.d. $\Rightarrow \ell$ is concave.

Newton's method

Use the Taylor expansion

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}^t) + (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^t)^\top \nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}^t) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^t)^\top H \ell(\mathbf{w}^t) (\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^t).$$

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and minimize w.r.t. \mathbf{w} . Setting $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}^t$, we get

$$\max_{\mathbf{h}} \mathbf{h}^\top \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ell(\mathbf{w}) + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{h}^\top H \ell(\mathbf{w}) \mathbf{h}.$$

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I.e., for logistic regression, writing $\mathbf{D}_\eta = \text{Diag}((\eta_i(1 - \eta_i)))_i$

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Modified normal equations

$$\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{D}_\eta \mathbf{X} \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{X}^\top \tilde{\mathbf{y}} \quad \text{with} \quad \tilde{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\eta}.$$

Iterative Reweighted Least Squares (IRLS)

Assuming $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{D}_\eta \mathbf{X}$ is invertible, the algorithm takes the form

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} + (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{D}_{\eta^{(t)}} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{(t)}).$$

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This is called iterative reweighted least squares because each step is equivalent to solving the reweighted least squares problem:

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\tau_i^2} (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{h} - \check{y}_i)^2$$

with

$$\tau_i^2 = \frac{1}{\eta_i^{(t)}(1 - \eta_i^{(t)})} \quad \text{and} \quad \check{y}_i = \tau_i^2 (y_i - \eta_i^{(t)}).$$

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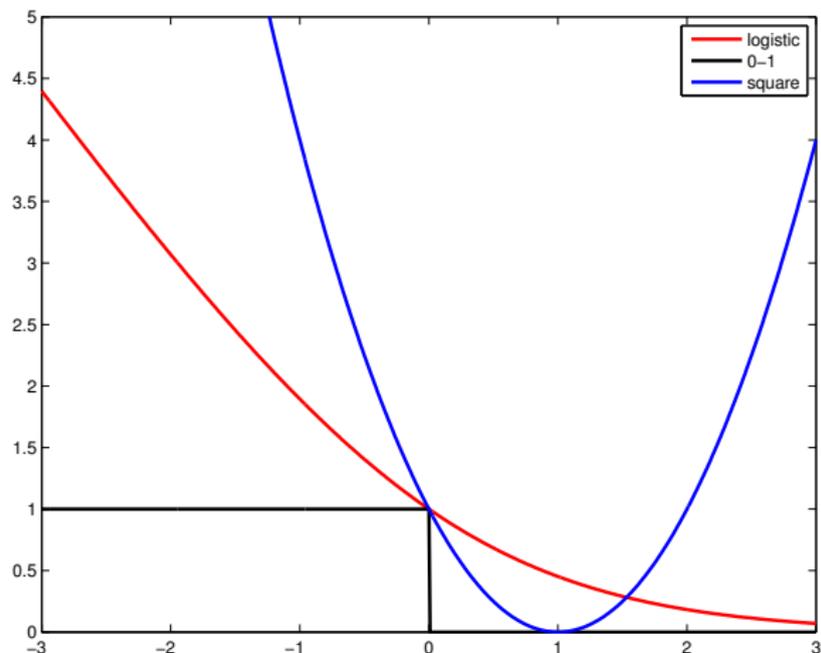
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The negative log-likelihood takes the form of an empirical risk with loss

$$(a, y) = h(ya) \quad \text{with} \quad h : z \mapsto \log(1 + e^{-za})$$

Comparing losses



$\ell(a, 1)$ for several classification losses

(the logistic loss is scaled by $\log(2)^{-1}$)

Maximum likelihood for conditional models as ERM

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The ERM principle proposes to minimize

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i|x_i),$$

which is equivalent to the maximum likelihood principle.

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Fisher discriminant analysis

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$X \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $Y \in \{0, 1\}$.

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In classification $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1 | X = \mathbf{x}) =$

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = 1) \mathbb{P}(Y = 1)}{\mathbb{P}(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = 1) \mathbb{P}(Y = 1) + \mathbb{P}(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = 0) \mathbb{P}(Y = 0)}$$

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For example one can assume

- $\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = \pi$
- $\mathbb{P}(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = 1) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1)$
- $\mathbb{P}(X = \mathbf{x} | Y = 0) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0)$.

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with $\mathbf{w} = \Sigma^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)$ and $b = \log \frac{1-\pi}{\pi} + \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\mu}_0^\top \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 - \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^\top \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1$.

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- Relevant if the model is a good match to the data.

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Clustering

Supervised, unsupervised and semi-supervised classification

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Training set composed of pairs $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$.

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Transductive learning

Data available at train time composed of

train data $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$ + test data $\{\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$

→ Classify all the test data

Supervised, unsupervised and semi-supervised classification

Supervised learning

Training set composed of pairs $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$.

→ Learn to classify new points in the classes

Unsupervised learning

Training set composed of pairs $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$.

→ Partition the data in a number of classes.

→ Possibly produce a decision rule for new points.

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Semi-supervised learning

Data available at train time composed of

labelled data $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$ + unlabelled data $\{\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$

→ Produce a classification rule for future points

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Clustering is not a well-specified problem

- Classes might be impossible to infer from the distribution of X alone
- Several goals possible:
 - Find the modes of the distribution
 - Find a set of denser **connected** regions supporting most of the density
 - Find a set of denser **convex** regions supporting most of the density
 - Find a set of denser **ellipsoidal** regions supporting most of the density
 - Find a set of denser **round** regions supporting most of the density

K-means

Key assumption: Data composed of K “roundish” clusters of similar sizes with centroids (μ_1, \dots, μ_K) .

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Difficult (NP-hard) nonconvex problem.

K-means algorithm

- 1 Draw centroids at random
- 2 Assign each point to the closest centroid

$$C_k \leftarrow \{i \mid \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mu_k\|^2 = \min_j \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mu_j\|^2\}$$

- 3 Recompute centroid as center of mass of the cluster

$$\mu_k \leftarrow \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} \mathbf{x}_i$$

- 4 Go to 2

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Three remarks:

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Three remarks:

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- It can be shown that K-means converges in a finite number of steps.
- The algorithm however typically get stuck in local minima and it practice it is necessary to try several restarts of the algorithm with a random initialization to have chances to obtain a better solution.
- Will fail if the clusters are not round

Outline

- 1 Statistical concepts
- 2 A short review of convex analysis and optimization
- 3 The maximum likelihood principle
- 4 Linear regression
- 5 Logistic regression
- 6 Fisher discriminant analysis
- 7 Clustering
- 8 The EM algorithm for the Gaussian mixture model**
- 9 Hidden Markov models

The EM algorithm for the Gaussian mixture model

Gaussian mixture model

- K components
- \mathbf{z} component indicator
- $\mathbf{z} = (z_1, \dots, z_K)^\top \in \{0, 1\}^K$
- $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{M}(\mathbf{1}, (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K))$
- $p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{z_k}$

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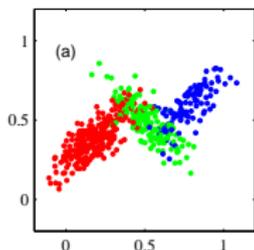
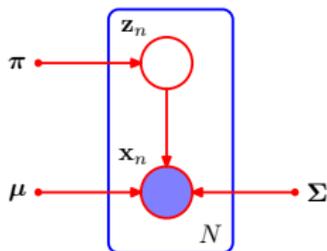
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- Estimation:
$$\operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k} \log \left[\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k) \right]$$



Applying maximum likelihood to the Gaussian mixture

Let $\mathcal{Z} = \{z \in \{0, 1\}^K \mid \sum_{k=1}^K z_k = 1\}$

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- Can we still use the intuitions above to construct an algorithm maximizing the marginal likelihood?

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- Moreover: $\boldsymbol{\theta} \mapsto \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a **concave** function.
- Finally it is possible to show that

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - KL(q || p(\cdot | \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

Principle of the Expectation-Maximization Algorithm

$$\begin{aligned}\log p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(\mathbf{z})} \\ &\geq \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(\mathbf{z})} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_q[\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})] + H(q) =: \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})\end{aligned}$$

- This shows that $\mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \leq \log p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$
- Moreover: $\boldsymbol{\theta} \mapsto \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a **concave** function.
- Finally it is possible to show that

$$\mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) - KL(q || p(\cdot | \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

So that if we set $q(\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$ then

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Principle of the Expectation-Maximization Algorithm

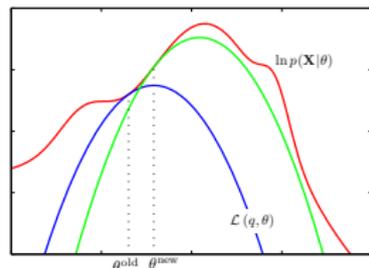
$$\begin{aligned}\log p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(\mathbf{z})} \\ &\geq \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q(\mathbf{z})} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_q[\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})] + H(q) =: \mathcal{L}(q, \boldsymbol{\theta})\end{aligned}$$

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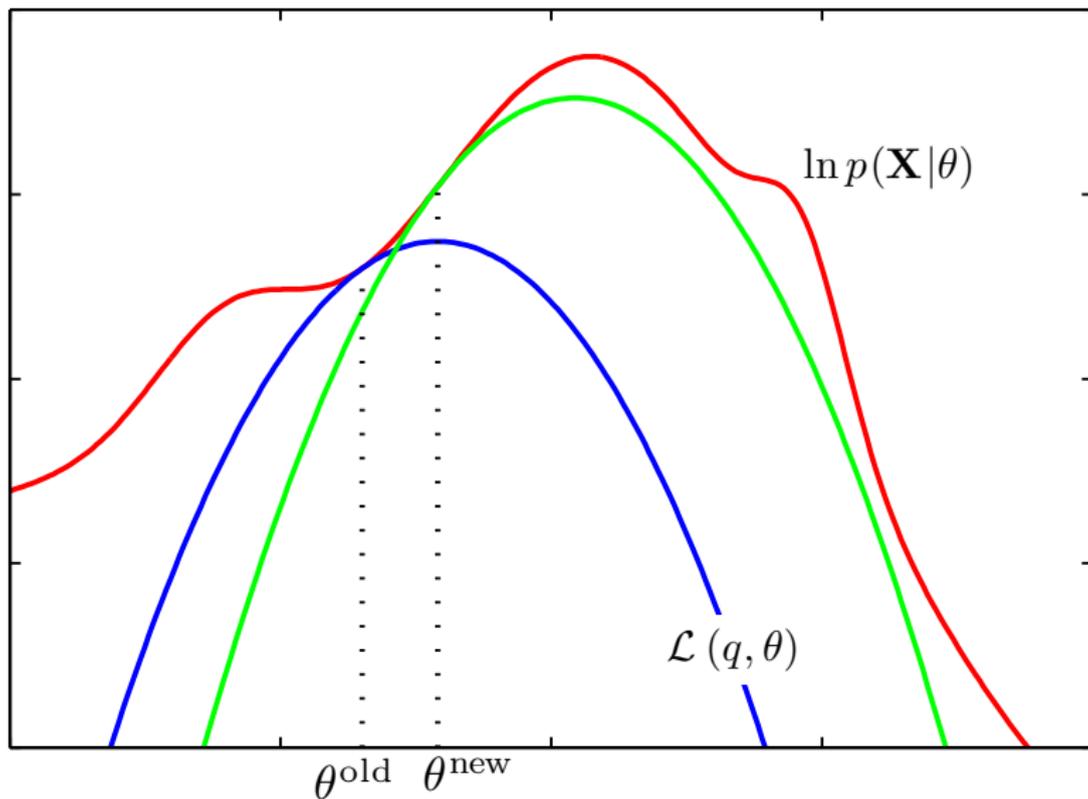
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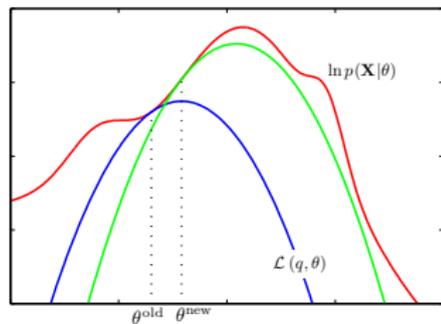
A graphical idea of the EM algorithm



Expectation Maximization algorithm

Expectation step

Maximization step



$$\theta^{\text{old}} = \theta^{(t-1)}$$

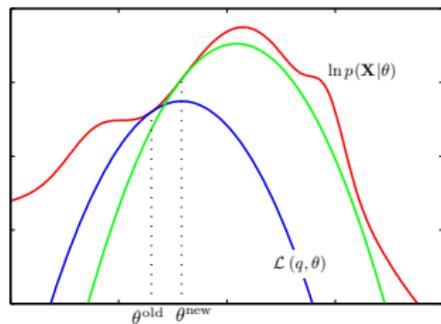
$$\theta^{\text{new}} = \theta^{(t)}$$

Expectation Maximization algorithm

Expectation step

1 $q(\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{z} \mid \mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)})$

Maximization step



$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}$$

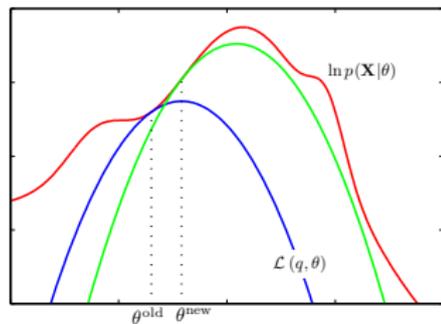
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Expectation Maximization algorithm

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Maximization step



$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}$$

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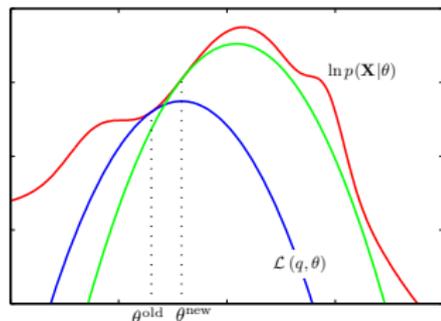
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- 1 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{E}_q[\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \boldsymbol{\theta})]$



$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t-1)}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{new}} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$$

Expectation Maximization algorithm

Initialize $\theta = \theta_0$

WHILE (Not converged)

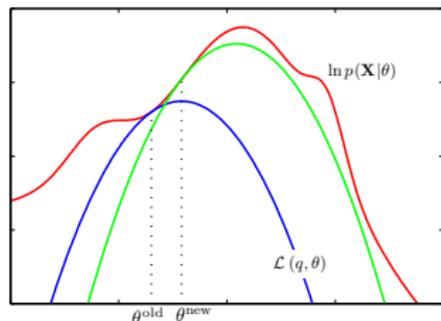
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Maximization step

- 1 $\theta^{(t)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_q[\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}; \theta)]$

ENDWHILE



$$\theta^{\text{old}} = \theta^{(t-1)}$$

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Expected complete log-likelihood

With the notation: $q_{ik}^{(t)} = \mathbb{P}_{q_i^{(t)}}(z_k^{(i)} = 1) = \mathbb{E}_{q_i^{(t)}}[z_k^{(i)}]$, we have

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Expectation step for the Gaussian mixture

We computed previously $q_i^{(t)}(\mathbf{z}^{(i)})$, which is a multinomial distribution defined by

$$q_i^{(t)}(\mathbf{z}^{(i)}) = p(\mathbf{z}^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \theta^{(t-1)})$$

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Abusing notation we will denote $(q_{i1}^{(t)}, \dots, q_{iK}^{(t)})$ the corresponding vector of probabilities defined by

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Maximization step for the Gaussian mixture

$$(\boldsymbol{\pi}^t, (\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t)})_{1 \leq k \leq K}) = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbb{E}_{q^{(t)}} [\tilde{\ell}(\theta)]$$

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This yields the updates:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_i \mathbf{x}^{(i)} q_{ik}^{(t)}}{\sum_i q_{ik}^{(t)}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_i (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)}) (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)})^\top q_{ik}^{(t)}}{\sum_i q_{ik}^{(t)}}$$

and

$$\pi_k^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_i q_{ik}^{(t)}}{\sum_{i,k'} q_{ik'}^{(t)}}$$

Final EM algorithm for the Multinomial mixture model

Initialize $\theta = \theta_0$

WHILE (Not converged)

Expectation step

$$q_{ik}^{(t)} \leftarrow \frac{\pi_k^{(t-1)} \log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t-1)})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \pi_j^{(t-1)} \log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_j^{(t-1)}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^{(t-1)})}$$

Maximization step

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_i \mathbf{x}^{(i)} q_{ik}^{(t)}}{\sum_i q_{ik}^{(t)}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{(t)} = \frac{\sum_i (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)}) (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{(t)})^\top q_{ik}^{(t)}}{\sum_i q_{ik}^{(t)}}$$

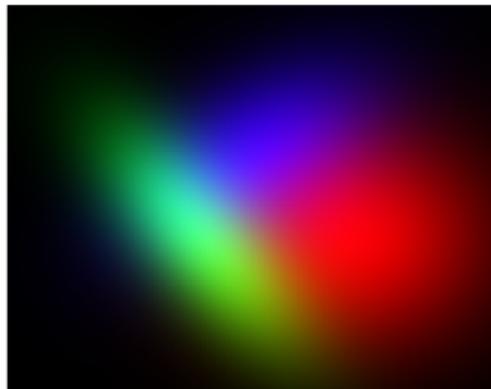
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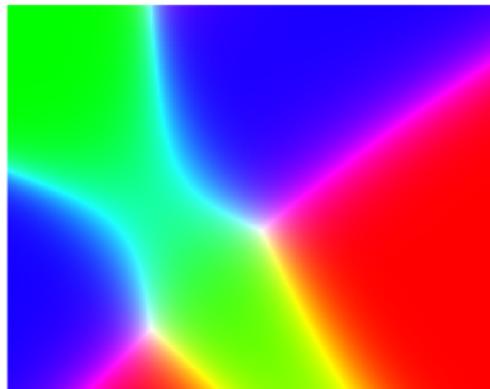
ENDWHILE

EM Algorithm for the Gaussian mixture model III

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z})$$



$$p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$$



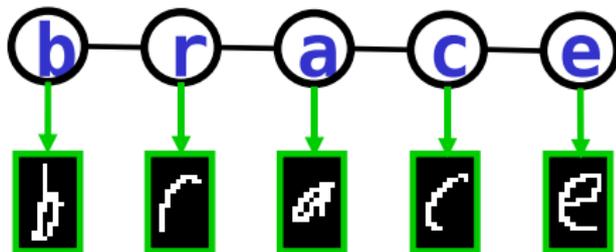
Outline

- 1 Statistical concepts
- 2 A short review of convex analysis and optimization
- 3 The maximum likelihood principle
- 4 Linear regression
- 5 Logistic regression
- 6 Fisher discriminant analysis
- 7 Clustering
- 8 The EM algorithm for the Gaussian mixture model
- 9 Hidden Markov models**

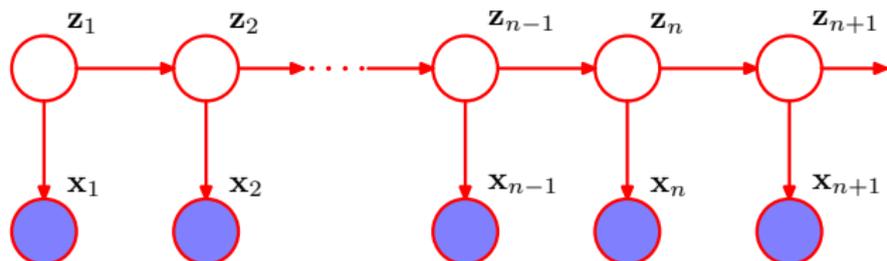
Hidden Markov models

Hidden Markov models (HMM)

- speech recognition
- natural language processing
- OCR
- biological sequences (proteins, DNA)



Hidden Markov Model(HMM)



$$p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_N) = p(\mathbf{z}_1) \prod_{n=2}^N p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{z}_{n-1}) \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

Homogeneous Markov chain

- $\mathbf{z}_n \in \{0, 1\}^K$ indicator variable for the state $(1, \dots, K)$
- Homogeneous Markov chain: $\forall n, p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{z}_{n-1}) = p(\mathbf{z}_2 | \mathbf{z}_1)$
- \mathbf{x}_n emitted symbol ($\{0, 1\}^K$) / observation (\mathbb{R}^d)

Hidden Markov Model (HMM)

Parametrization

distribution of initial state $p(\mathbf{z}_1; \pi) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{z_{1k}}$

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emission probabilities	$p(\mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{z}_n; \phi)$ e.g. Gaussian Mixture

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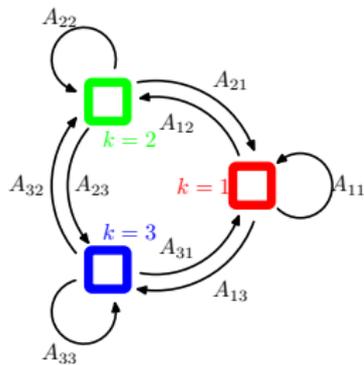
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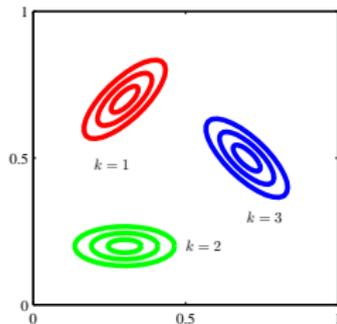
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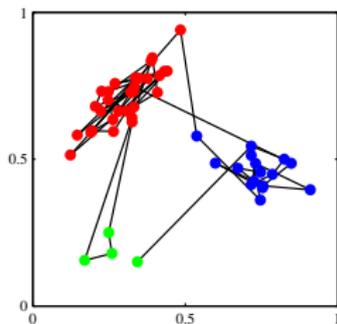
Interpretation



Transitions of \mathbf{z}_n



$p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n)$



Trajectory of \mathbf{x}_n

Maximum likelihood for HMMs

Applying the EM algorithm

$$\gamma(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \theta^t) \quad \xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \theta^t)$$

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Expectation of the log-likelihood:

$$Q(\theta, \theta^t) = \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma(z_{1k}) \log \pi_k + \sum_{n=2}^N \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{k=1}^K \xi(z_{n-1,j}, z_{nk}) \log A_{jk} + \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma(z_{nk}) \log p(x_n | \phi_k)$$

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When maximizing w.r.t. $\{\pi, A\}$ one obtains

$$\pi_k^{t+1} = \frac{\gamma(z_{1k})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \gamma(z_{1j})}$$

$$A_{jk}^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_{n=2}^N \xi(z_{n-1,j}, z_{nk})}{\sum_{l=1}^K \sum_{n=2}^N \xi(z_{n-1,j}, z_{nl})}$$

Maximum likelihood for HMMs

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If the emissions are Gaussians we have as well:

$$\mu_k^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{nk}) \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{nk})} \quad \Sigma_k^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{nk}) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^\top}{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma(z_{nk})}$$

Maximum likelihood for HMMs

Application of the sum-product algorithm

In the context of HMM, the algorithm is known as *forward-backward*.

The following messages are propagated

- forward $\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n) \sum_{\mathbf{z}_{n-1}} \alpha(\mathbf{z}_{n-1})p(\mathbf{z}_n|\mathbf{z}_{n-1})$

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Maximum likelihood for HMMs

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they satisfy the properties:

$$\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n) \quad \beta(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

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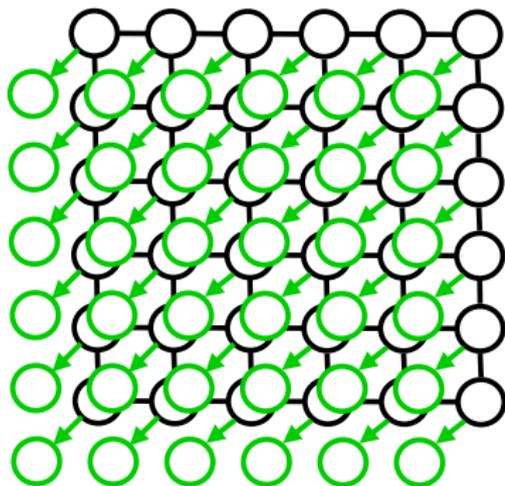
Finally we obtain the marginal probabilities:

$$\gamma(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \theta^t) = \frac{\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n)\beta(\mathbf{z}_n)}{p(\mathbf{X} | \theta^t)}$$

et

$$\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = \frac{\alpha(\mathbf{x}_{n-1})p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n)p(\mathbf{z}_n|\mathbf{z}_{n-1})\beta(\mathbf{x}_n)}{p(\mathbf{X} | \theta^t)}$$

Hidden Markov Field



Original image



Segmentation

Conclusions

Probabilistic models for interpretation

Probabilistic models for combining simple blocks

Probabilistic models for missing data

Probabilistic models for learning parameters and hyperparameters