

Machine Learning

4771

Instructors:

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Lectures 17-18

- Decompose Maximum Likelihood with hidden variables
- Expectation Maximization as Bound Maximization
- EM for Maximum A Posteriori (MAP)
- Intro to Graphical Models

Expectation Maximization

- Recall the problem...
- We have observed variables X
- Hidden variables Z (e.g. the class or Gaussian distribution from which we draw)
- Joint distribution $p(X, Z | \theta)$ depends on parameters θ (e.g. for Gaussian mixture have μ_k, Σ_k, π_k)
- Goal is to find $\hat{\theta}$ to maximize likelihood

$$p(X | \theta) = \sum_Z p(X, Z | \theta)$$

We'd like the true probability $p(Z | X, \theta)$

Instead we use an approximation $q_t(Z) = p(Z | X, \theta_t)$

Decompose Log Likelihood

- Let $q(Z)$ be any probability distribution over the latent variables Z

- Define
$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) &= \sum_Z q(Z) \log \left(\frac{p(X, Z | \theta)}{q(Z)} \right) \\ &= \sum_Z q(Z) [\log p(X | \theta) + \log p(Z | X, \theta) - \log q(Z)] \\ &= \log p(X | \theta) - \sum_Z q(Z) \log \left(\frac{q(Z)}{p(Z | X, \theta)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$p(X, Z | \theta) = p(X | \theta) \cdot p(Z | X, \theta)$

Does this look familiar?

Decompose Log Likelihood

- Let $q(Z)$ be any probability distribution over the latent variables Z

- Define $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta) = \sum_Z q(Z) \log \left(\frac{p(X, Z | \theta)}{q(Z)} \right)$ $p(X, Z | \theta) = p(X | \theta) \cdot p(Z | X, \theta)$

$$= \sum_Z q(Z) [\log p(X | \theta) + \log p(Z | X, \theta) - \log q(Z)]$$

$$= \log p(X | \theta) - \sum_Z q(Z) \log \left(\frac{q(Z)}{p(Z | X, \theta)} \right)$$

Does this look familiar?

Our log likelihood – $KL(q || p(Z | X, \theta))$!

Decompose Log Likelihood

- Hence, the log likelihood

$$l(\theta) := \log p(X | \theta) = \mathcal{L}(q, \theta) + KL(q || p(Z | X, \theta))$$

independent of q lower bound

- E step: Lock $\theta = \theta_t$, maximize lower bound \mathcal{L} wrt q

- Recall $KL(q || p) \geq 0$, best can do is $q_t = p(Z | X, \theta_t)$

- M step: Lock $q = q_t$, maximize lower bound \mathcal{L} wrt θ

- Observe can write $\mathcal{L}(q_t, \theta) = \sum_Z q_t(Z) \log \left(\frac{p(X, Z | \theta)}{q_t(Z)} \right)$

Sometimes called
Auxiliary Function $Q(\theta | \theta_t)$
or $Q_t(\theta)$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q_t} \log p(X, Z | \theta) + H(q_t)$$

E step selects $Q_t(\theta)$ function

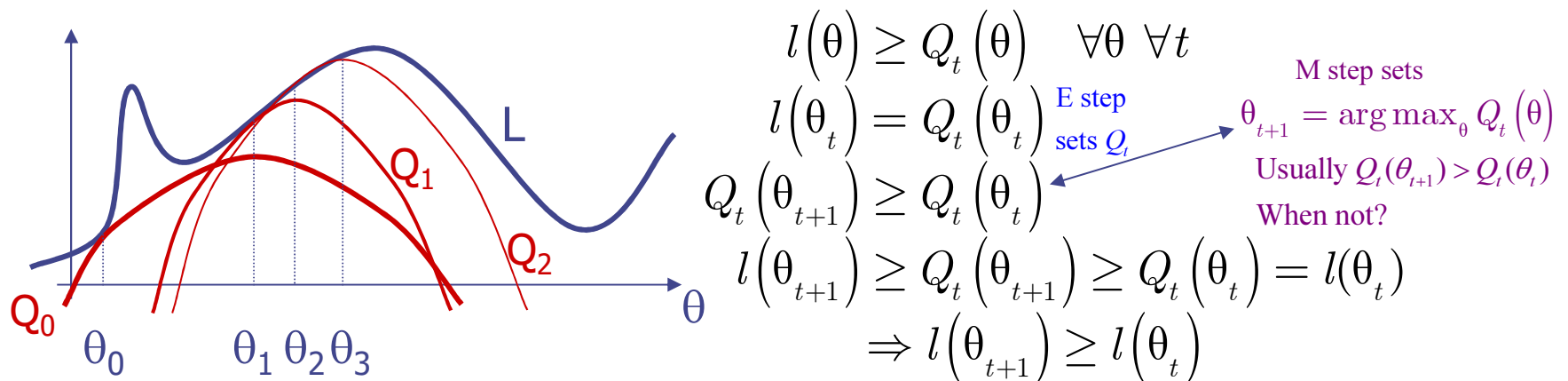
M steps sets $\theta_{t+1} = \arg \max_{\theta} Q_t(\theta)$

Expected complete likelihood
using q_t

Entropy of q_t
indep of θ
treat as const

EM as Bound Maximization

- **Bound Maximization:** optimize a lower bound on $l(\theta)$
- Since log-likelihood $l(\theta)$ not concave, can't max it directly
- Consider an auxiliary function $Q(\theta)$ which is concave
- $Q(\theta)$ kisses $l(\theta)$ at a point and is less than it elsewhere
 matches gradient there – why?



- Monotonically increases log-likelihood (at least can't decrease)

M step

- Find θ to maximize the expected complete likelihood

$$\mathbb{E}_{q_t} \log p(X, Z | \theta)$$

- If $p(X, Z | \theta)$ is in the exponential family (recall includes Gaussian, Binomial, Multinomial, Poisson... Bishop 2.4) then the log cancels the exp and M step is simple, just weighted maximum likelihood! For example, for Gaussian mixture:

$$\frac{\partial Q(\theta)}{\partial \vec{\mu}_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{\mu}_k} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_k \tau_{n,k} \log \pi_k N(\vec{x}_n | \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)$$

$$0 = \sum_{n=1}^N \tau_{n,k} \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{\mu}_k} \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\vec{x}_n - \vec{\mu}_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (\vec{x}_n - \vec{\mu}_k) \right)$$

$$\vec{\mu}_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \tau_{n,k} \vec{x}_n}{\sum_{n=1}^N \tau_{n,k}}$$

... similarly get π_k and Σ_k

EM for Max A Posteriori

- We can also do MAP instead of ML with EM (stabilizes sol'n)

$$p(\theta | X) = \frac{p(X | \theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(X)} \Rightarrow \log p(\theta | X) = \underbrace{\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)}_{\text{indep of } q} + \underbrace{KL(q || p)}_{\text{new terms}} + \underbrace{\log p(\theta)}_{\text{const}} - \underbrace{\log p(X)}_{\text{const}}$$

- The E-step remains the same: lock θ , optimize q
- The M-step becomes slightly different for each model
- For example, mixture of Gaussians with prior on covariance

$$\begin{aligned} \log \text{posterior}(\theta) &= \sum_{n=1}^N \log \sum_k \pi_k N(\vec{x}_n | \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k) + \log \prod_k p(\Sigma_k | S, \eta) + \text{const} \\ \log \text{posterior}(\theta) &\geq \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_k \tau_{n,k} \log \pi_k N(\vec{x}_n | \vec{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k) + \sum_k \log p(\Sigma_k | S, \eta) + \text{const} \end{aligned}$$

- Updates on π and μ stay the same, only Σ is:

$$\Sigma_k \leftarrow \frac{1}{\sum_{n=1}^N \tau_{n,k} + \eta} \left(\sum_{n=1}^N \tau_{n,k} (\vec{x}_n - \vec{\mu}_k)(\vec{x}_n - \vec{\mu}_k)^T + \eta S \right)$$

- Typically, we use the identity matrix I for S and a small eta. 9

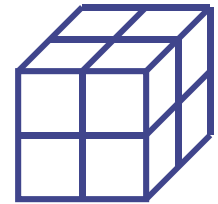
Intro to Graphical Models

- Structuring Probability Functions for Storage
- Structuring Probability Functions for Inference
- Basic Graphical Models
- Graphical Models
- Parameters as Nodes

Structuring PDFs for Storage

- Probability tables quickly grow if p has many variables

$$p(x) = p(\text{flu?}, \text{headache?}, \dots, \text{temperature?})$$



- For D true/false “medical” variables $table\ size = 2^D ?$
- Exponential blow-up of storage size for the probability
- If variables are independent (Naïve Bayes assumption) then much more efficient

$$p(x) = p(\text{flu?})p(\text{headache?})\dots p(\text{temperature?})$$

0.73	0.27
------	------

0.2	0.8
-----	-----

0.54	0.46
------	------

- For D true/false “medical” variables (really even less than that...) $table\ size = 2 \times D ?$

Structuring PDFs for Inference

- Inference: goal is to predict some variables given others

x1: flu

x2: fever

x3: sinus infection

x4: temperature

x5: sinus swelling

x6: headache

Patient claims headache
and high temperature.

Does he have a flu?

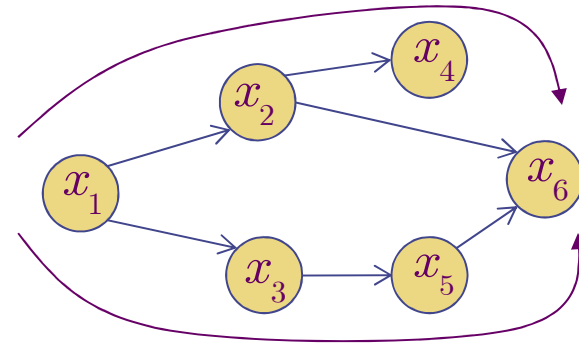
Given known/found variables X_f and unknown variables X_u
predict queried variables X_q

- Classical approach: truth tables (slow) or logic networks
- Modern approach: probability tables (slow) or Bayesian networks (fast belief propagation, junction tree algorithm)

From Logic Nets to Bayes Nets

- 1980's expert systems & logic networks became popular

x1	x2	$x1 \vee x2$	$x1 \wedge x2$	$x1 \rightarrow x2$
T	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T
F	F	F	F	T



- Problem: inconsistency, 2 paths can give different answers
- Problem: rules are hard, instead use soft probability tables

$$x3 = x1 \wedge x2$$

$$p(x3|x1,x2)$$

x3=0

x3=1

x3=0

x3=1

	x2=0	x2=1
x1=0	1.0	1.0
x1=1	1.0	0.0

	x2=0	x2=1
x1=0	0.0	0.0
x1=1	0.0	1.0

	x2=0	x2=1
x1=0	0.8	0.7
x1=1	0.7	0.1

	x2=0	x2=1
x1=0	0.2	0.3
x1=1	0.3	0.9

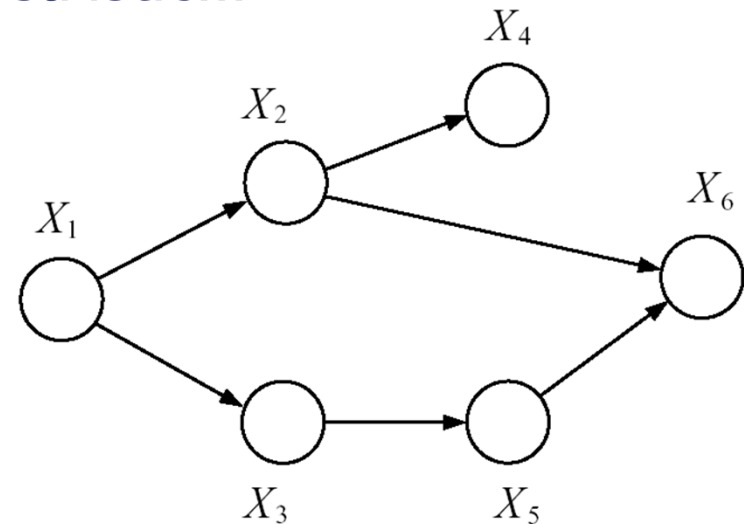
- These directed graphs are called Bayesian Networks

Graphical Models & Bayes Nets

- Independence assumptions make probability tables smaller
- But real events in the world not completely independent!
- Complete independence is unrealistic...




- **Graphical models** use a **graph** to describe more subtle dependencies and independencies:
...namely: **conditional independencies**

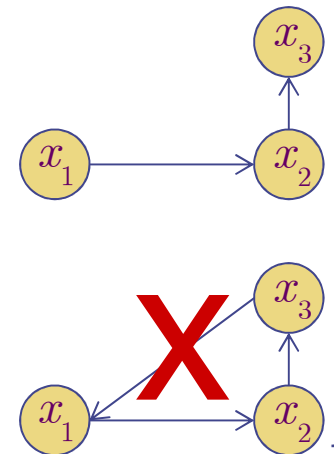
(like causality but not exactly...)





- Directed Graphical Model, also called Bayesian Network use a **directed acyclic graph** (DAG).
- Neural Network = Graphical Function Representation
- Bayesian Network = Graphical Probability Representation

Graphical Models & Bayes Nets

- Node: a random variable (discrete or continuous) 
 - Independent: no link  $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$
 - Dependent: link  $p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$
 - Arrow: from parent to child (like causality, not exactly)
 - Child: destination of arrow, response
 - Parent: root of arrow, trigger $parents\ of\ child\ i = pa_i = \pi_i$
 - Graph: dependence/independence
 - Graph: shows factorization of joint distribution as the products of conditionals
- $$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$
- DAG: directed acyclic graph



Basic Graphical Models


- Independence: all nodes are unlinked 
- Shading: variable is 'observed', condition on it moves to the right of the bar in the pdf 
- Examples of simplest conditional independence situations...

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

1) Markov chain: 

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(y | x)p(z | y)$$

Example binary events:
x = president says war
y = general orders attack
z = soldier shoots gun



$$p(x | y, z) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y, z)} = p(x | y)$$

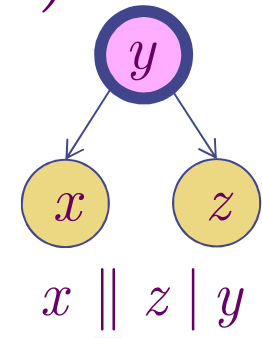
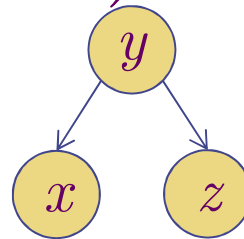
$x \perp\!\!\!\perp z \mid y$

"x is conditionally independent of z given y"

Basic Graphical Models

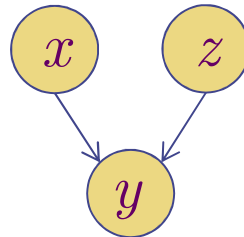
2) 1 Cause, 2 effects: $p(x, y, z) = p(y)p(x | y)p(z | y)$

y = flu
x = sore throat
z = temperature

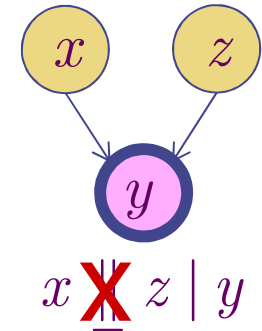


3) 2 Causes, 1 effect: $p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(z)p(y | x, z)$

x = aliens invade
y = mankind wiped out
z = giant asteroid hits



$x \parallel z$



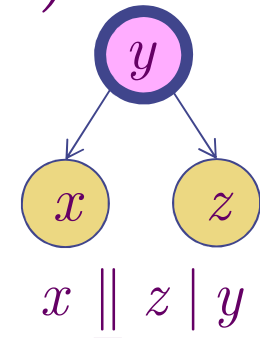
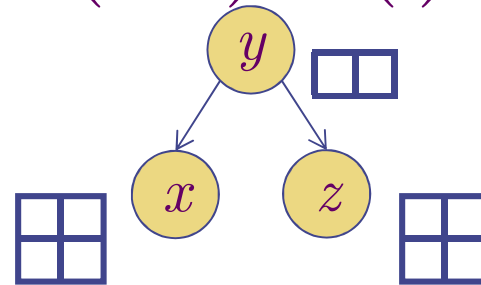
Explaining away...

- For discrete variables, each conditional is a mini-table (Multinomial or Bernoulli conditioned on parents)

Basic Graphical Models

2) 1 Cause, 2 effects: $p(x, y, z) = p(y)p(x | y)p(z | y)$

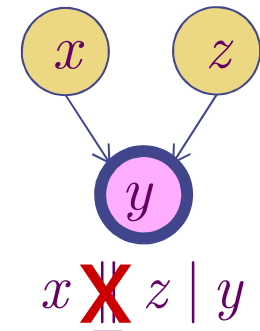
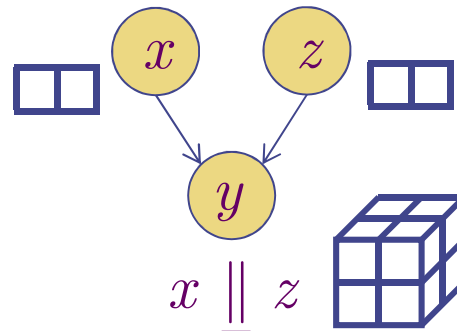
y = flu
x = sore throat
z = temperature



3) 2 Causes, 1 effect: $p(x, y, z) = p(x)p(z)p(y | x, z)$

x = dad is diabetic
y = child is diabetic
z = mom is diabetic

Explaining away...



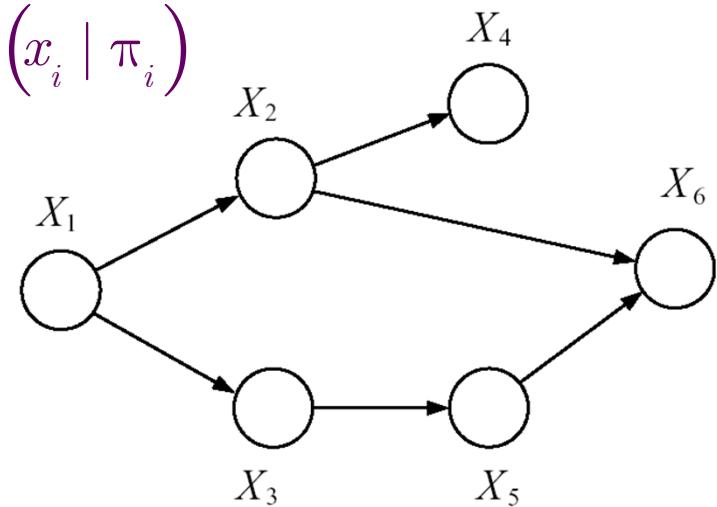
- For discrete variables, each conditional is a mini-table (Multinomial or Bernoulli conditioned on parents)

Graphical Models

- Example: factorization of the following system of variables

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = p(x_1) \dots$$



Graphical Models

- Example: factorization of the following system of variables

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = p(x_1) \dots$$

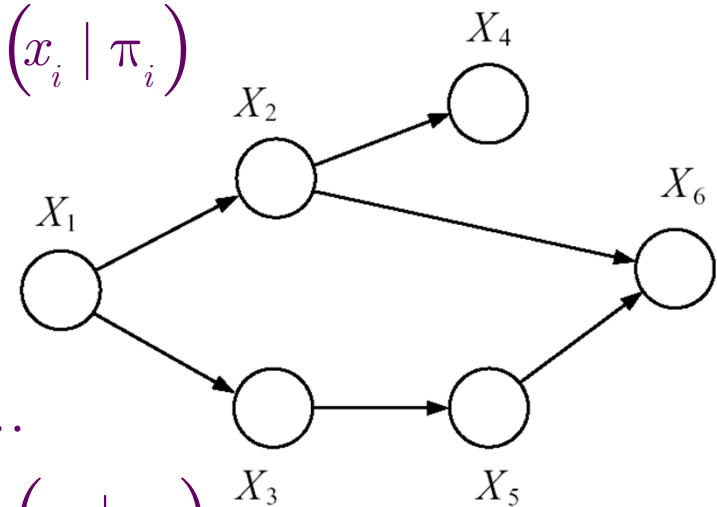
$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)$$



- How big are these tables (if binary variables)?

Graphical Models

- Example: factorization of the following system of variables

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = p(x_1) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) \dots$$

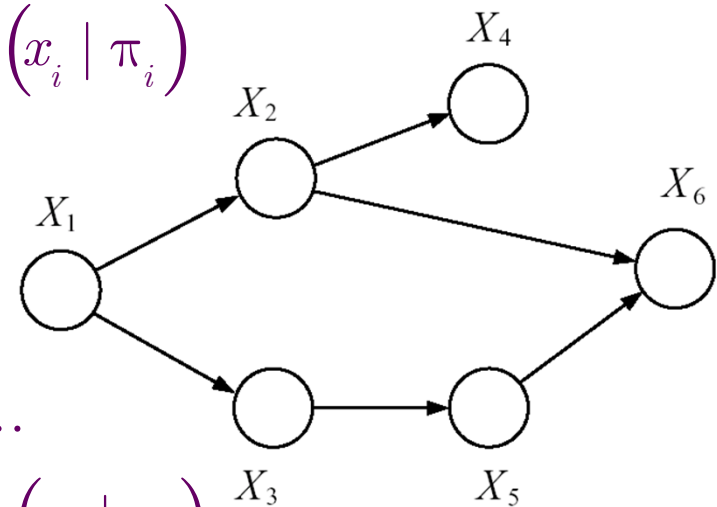
$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) \dots$$

$$= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)$$

 2^6
 2^1
 2^2
 2^2
 2^2
 2^2
 2^3

- How big are these tables (if binary variables)?

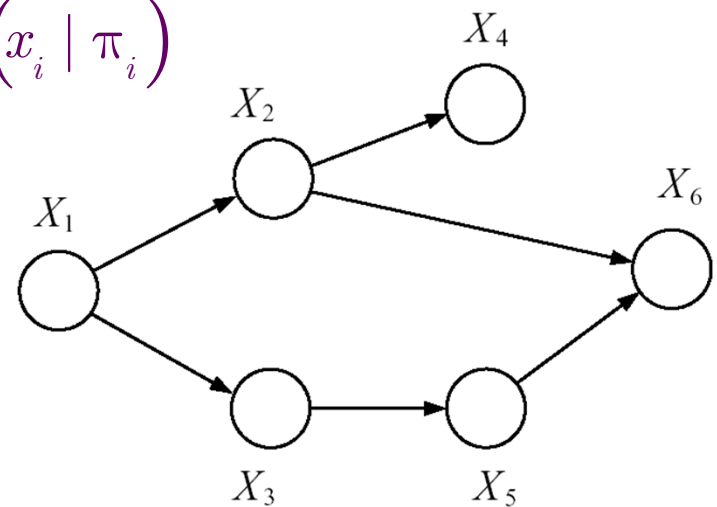


Graphical Models

- Example: factorization of the following system of variables

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

- Interpretation???



$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = & p(x_1) & p(x_2 | x_1) & p(x_3 | x_1) & p(x_4 | x_2) & p(x_5 | x_3) & p(x_6 | x_2, x_5) \\
 2^6 & 2^1 & 2^2 & 2^2 & 2^2 & 2^2 & 2^3 \\
 & \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline & \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} \\
 & & & & & & \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

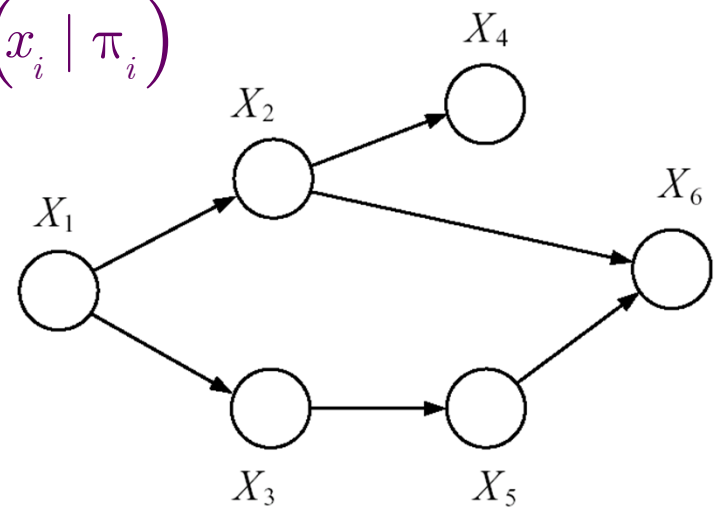
Graphical Models

- Example: factorization of the following system of variables

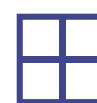
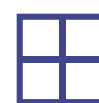
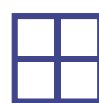
$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

- Interpretation:

- 1: flu
- 2: fever
- 3: sinus infection
- 4: temperature
- 5: sinus swelling
- 6: headache




$$p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)$$

 2^6
 2^1
 2^2
 2^2
 2^2
 2^2
 2^3



Graphical Models

- Normalizing probability tables. Joint distributions sum to 1.
- BUT, conditionals sum to 1 for *each* setting of parents.

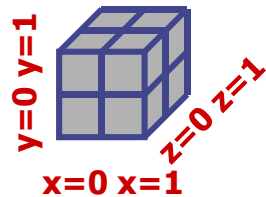
$$p(x) \quad \mathbf{2-1}$$

$$\sum_{x=0}^1 p(x) = 1$$


$$p(x,y) \quad \mathbf{4-1}$$

$$\sum_{x,y} p(x,y) = 1$$


$$p(x,y,z) \quad \mathbf{8-1}$$



$$\sum_{x,y,z} p(x,y,z) = 1$$

$$p(x|y) \quad \mathbf{4-2}$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 0) = 1$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 1) = 1$$

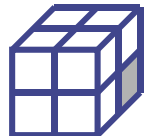
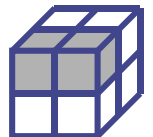
$$p(x|y,z) \quad \mathbf{8-4}$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 0, z = 0) = 1$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 1, z = 0) = 1$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 0, z = 1) = 1$$

$$\sum_x p(x | y = 1, z = 1) = 1$$



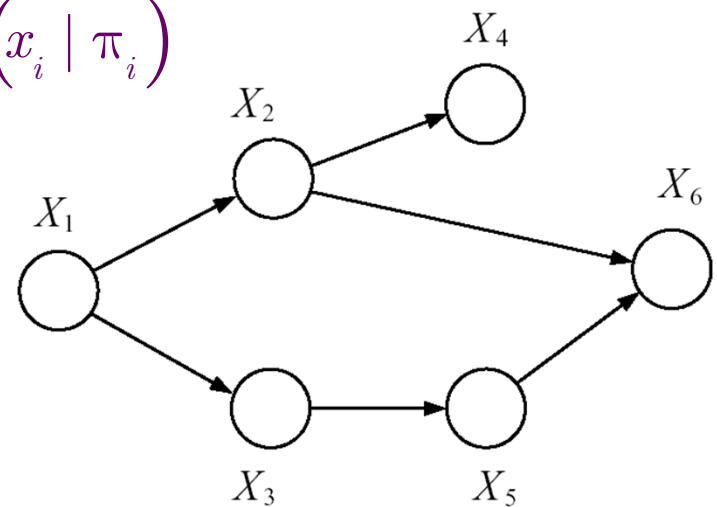
Graphical Models

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$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | pa_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$$

- Interpretation

- 1: flu
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$$p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)$$

$$2^6 - 1 \quad 2^1 - 1 \quad 2^2 - 2 \quad 2^2 - 2 \quad 2^2 - 2 \quad 2^2 - 2 \quad 2^3 - 4$$

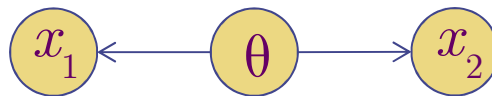
63 vs. 13 degrees of freedom

Parameters as Nodes

Mixture model
 $p(x,z)=p(z)p(x|z)$



- Consider the model variable θ ALSO as a random variable

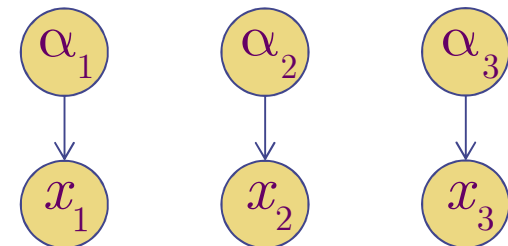


- But would need a prior distribution $P(\theta)$... ignore for now
- Recall: Naïve Bayes, probabilities are independent



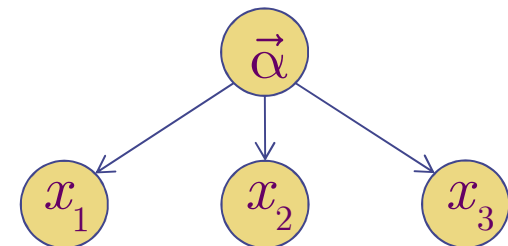
- Text: Multivariate Bernoulli

$$p(x | \vec{\alpha}) = \prod_{d=1}^{50000} \alpha_d^{x_d} (1 - \alpha_d)^{(1-x_d)}$$



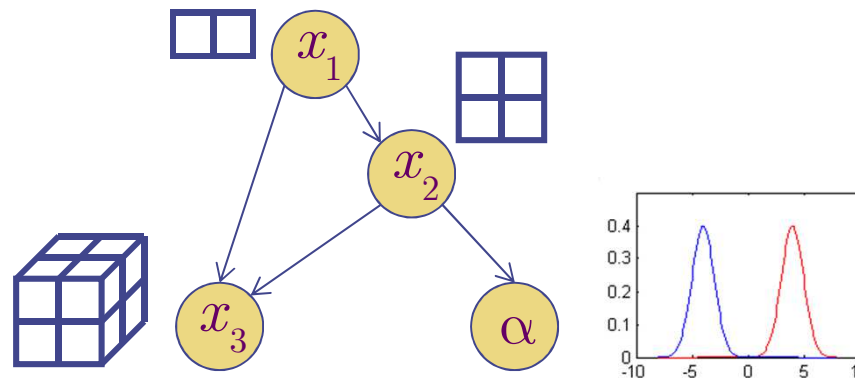
- Text: Multinomial

$$p(X | \vec{\alpha}) = \frac{(\sum_{m=1}^M X_m)!}{\prod_{m=1}^M X_m!} \prod_{m=1}^M \alpha_m^{X_m}$$



Continuous Conditional Models

- In previous slide, θ and α were a random variable in graph
- But, θ and α are continuous
- Network can have both discrete & continuous nodes
- Joint factorizes into conditionals that are either:
 - 1) discrete conditional probability tables
 - 2) continuous conditional probability distributions



- Most popular continuous distribution = Gaussian

Graphical Models

- In EM, we saw how to handle nodes that are: observed (shaded), hidden variables (E), parameters (M)
- But, only considered simple iid, single parent, structures
- More generally, have arbitrary DAG without loops

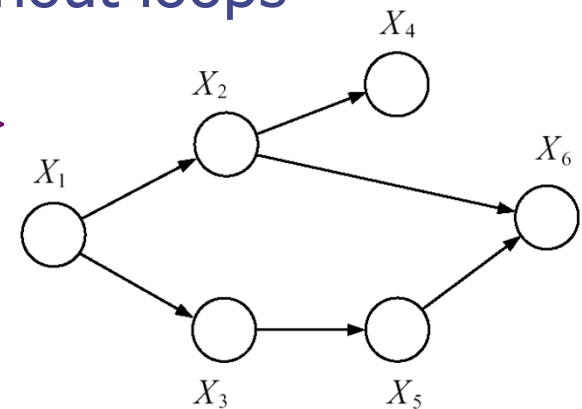
- Notation:

$$G = \{X, E\} = \{\text{nodes / randomvars, edges}\}$$

$$X = \{x_1, \dots, x_M\}$$

$$E = \{(x_i, x_j) : i \neq j\}$$

$$X_c = \{x_1, x_3, x_4\} = \text{subset}$$



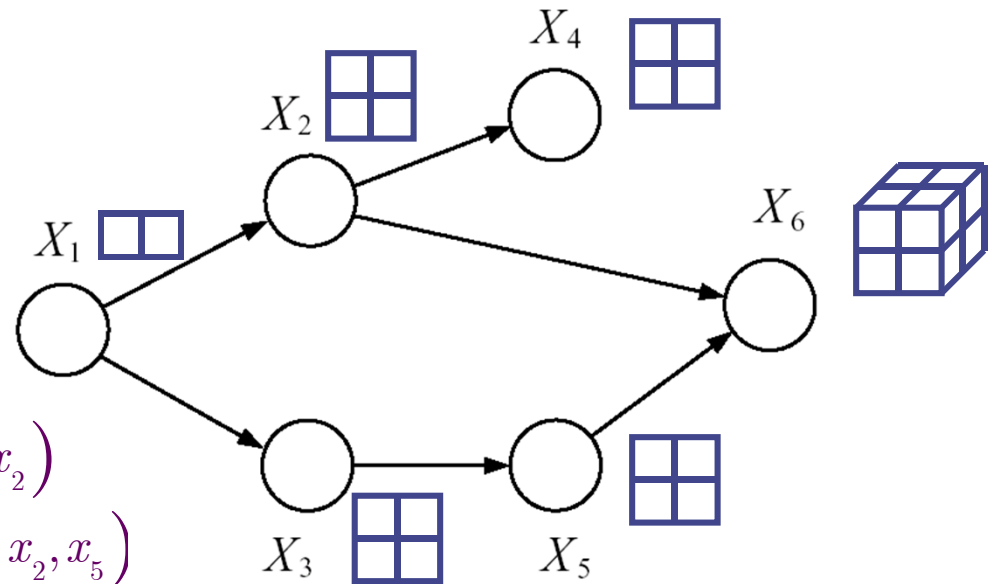
- Want to do 4 things with these graphical models:
 - 1) Learn Parameters (to fit to data)
 - 2) Query independence/dependence
 - 3) Perform Inference (get marginals/max a posteriori)
 - 4) Compute Likelihood (e.g. for classification)

Graphical Models

- Graph factorizes probability: $p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$

- **Topological graph:**
nodes are in order so
that parents π come
before children

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_1, \dots, x_6) = & p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) \\
 & \times p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) \\
 & \times p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)
 \end{aligned}$$



- Question? Which is the more general graph?

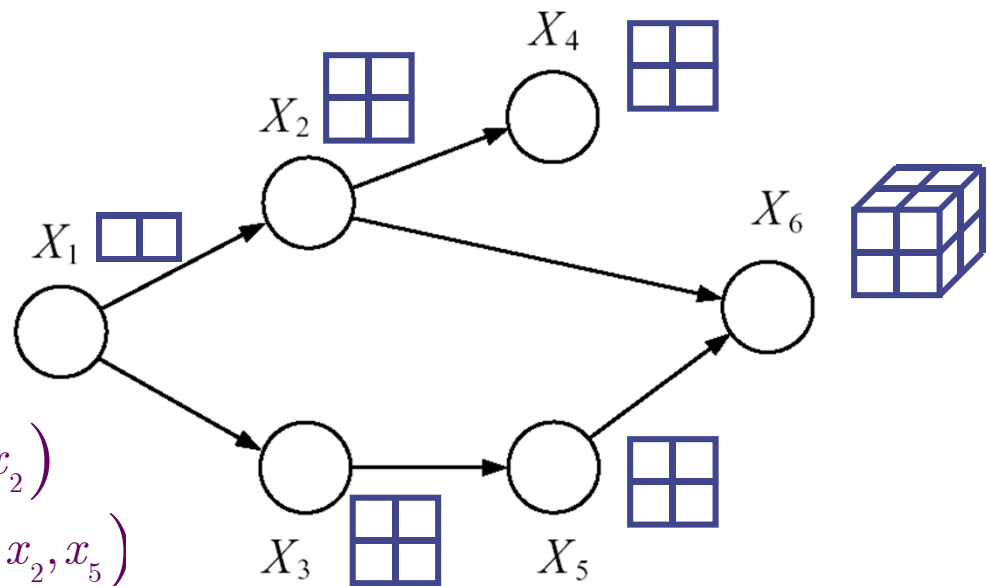


Graphical Models

- Graph factorizes probability: $p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \pi_i)$

- **Topological graph:**
nodes are in order so that parents π come before children

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_1, \dots, x_6) &= p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) \\
 &\quad \times p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_4 | x_2) \\
 &\quad \times p(x_5 | x_3) p(x_6 | x_2, x_5)
 \end{aligned}$$



- Question? Which is the more general graph?



- Conditional probability tables can be chosen to make 'busier' graph look like simpler graph