

# Probabilistic Graphical Models in Computer Vision (IN2329)

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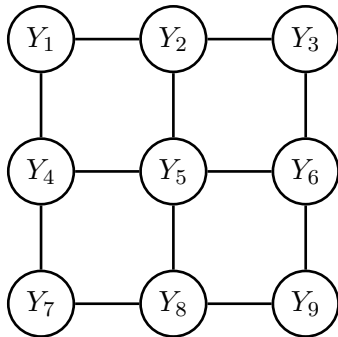
## 2. Expectation-maximization algorithm

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### Agenda for today's lecture \*

In the **previous lecture** we learnt about

- Probability space
- Conditional probability
- Independence, conditional independence

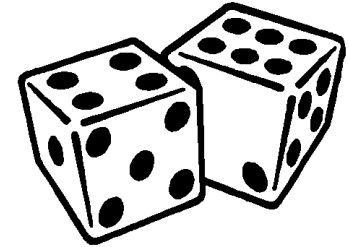


**Today** we are going to learn about

1. Random variables ( $Y_1, \dots, Y_9$ )
2. Probability distributions
  - Joint distribution ( $p(y_1, \dots, y_9)$ )
  - Marginal distribution ( $p(y_1)$ )
  - Conditional distribution ( $p(y | x)$ )
  - Expectation
3. Expectation-maximization algorithm

**Example: throwing two “fair” dice \***

We have the *sample space*  $\Omega = \{(i, j) : 1 \leq i, j \leq 6\}$  and the (*uniform*) *probability measure*  $P(\{(i, j)\}) = \frac{1}{36}$ , where  $(\Omega, \mathcal{P}(\Omega), P)$  forms a *probability space*.



In many cases it would be more natural to consider *attributes* of the outcomes. A **random variable** is a way of reporting an *attribute* of the *outcome*.

Let us consider the *sum of the numbers showing on the dice*, defined by define the **mapping**  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$ ,  $X(i, j) = i + j$ , where  $\Omega' = \{2, 3, \dots, 12\}$ .

It can be seen that this mapping leads a *probability space*  $(\Omega', \mathcal{P}(\Omega'), P')$ , such that  $P' : \mathcal{P}(\Omega') \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is defined as

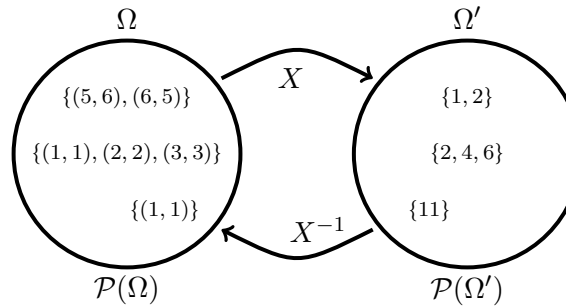
$$P'(A') = P(\{(i, j) : X(i, j) \in A'\}) .$$

Example:  $P'(\{11\}) = P(\{(5, 6), (6, 5)\}) = \frac{2}{36}$  .

## Preimage mapping

Let  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega'$  be an arbitrary *mapping*. The **preimage mapping**  $X^{-1} : \mathcal{P}(\Omega') \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$  is defined as

$$X^{-1}(A') = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A'\}.$$



## Random variable

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A})$  and  $(\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  measurable spaces. A mapping  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  is called **measurable mapping**, if

$$X^{-1}(A') = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A'\} \in \mathcal{A}.$$

A measurable mapping  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  is called **random variable**.

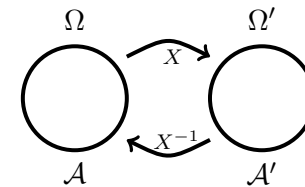
Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  be a random variable and  $P$  a measure over  $\mathcal{A}$ . Then

$$P'(A') := P_X(A') \triangleq P(X^{-1}(A'))$$

defines a measure over  $\mathcal{A}'$ .

$P_X$  is called the **image measure** of  $P$  by  $X$ .

Specially, if  $P$  is a probability measure then  $P_X$  is a probability measure over  $\mathcal{A}'$ . (See Exercise.)



**Example: throwing two “fair” dice \***

We are given two *sample spaces*  $\Omega = \{(i, j) : 1 \leq i, j \leq 6\}$  and  $\Omega' = \{2, 3, \dots, 12\}$ . We assume the (*uniform*) *probability measure*  $P$  over  $(\Omega, \mathcal{P}(\Omega))$ . Define a mapping  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{P}(\Omega)) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{P}(\Omega'))$ , where  $X(i, j) = i + j$ .

*Question:* Is  $X$  a random variable?

$$X^{-1}(A') = \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in A'\} \in \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$$

is satisfied, since for any  $\omega' \in \Omega'$  one can find an  $\omega \in \Omega$  such that  $X(\omega) = \omega'$ . Therefore  $X$  is *measurable*, thus it is a *random variable*. Moreover,  $P$  is a *probability measure*, hence the *image measure*

$$P_X(A') \triangleq P(X^{-1}(A'))$$

is a *probability measure* on  $(\Omega', \mathcal{P}(\Omega'))$ .

Example:  $P_X(\{2, 4, 5\}) = P(X^{-1}(\{2, 4, 5\})) = P(\{(1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (1, 4), (2, 3), (3, 2), (4, 1)\}) = \frac{8}{36} = \frac{2}{9}$ .

**Probability distribution**

Note that a *random variable* is a measurable mapping from a probability space to a measure space. It is *neither a variable nor random*.

Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (\Omega' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  be a *random variable*. Then the *image measure*  $P_X$  of  $P$  by  $X$  is called **probability distribution**.

We use the notation  $P(x)$  for  $P(X = x)$ , where

$$P(x) := P(X = x) \triangleq P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x\}) .$$

Similarly,  $P(X < x) \triangleq P(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) < x\})$ .

Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (\Omega' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  be a *random variable*. Then  $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$F_X(x) \triangleq P(X < x) , \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

is called **cumulative distribution function** (cdf.) of  $X$ .

Each probability measure is *uniquely defined* by its distribution function.



## Density function

Let  $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the *cumulative distribution function* of a *random variable*  $X$ . A measurable function  $f_X(x)$  is called a **density function** of  $X$ , if

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

A **measurable function** we mean to be a function with *improper Riemann-integral*.

A *random variable*  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  is said to be **discrete random variable** if  $\Omega'$  is *countable*.

## Continuous random variable

A random variable  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  is called **continuous random variable**, if it has a density function  $f_X(x)$ . Then the followings are held:

1.  $f_X(x)$  is non-negative,
2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = 1$ ,
3.  $P(a \leq X < b) \triangleq F_X(a \leq X < b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$ .

*Proof.*

1.  $F_X$  is non-negative and monotonously increasing, thus  $f_X(x) \geq 0$ .

2.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) dx = F_X(\infty) - F_X(-\infty) = 1 - 0 = 1.$$

3.

$$F_X(a \leq X < b) = F_X(b) - F_X(a) = \int_{-\infty}^b f_X(x) dx - \int_{-\infty}^a f_X(x) dx = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx.$$

□

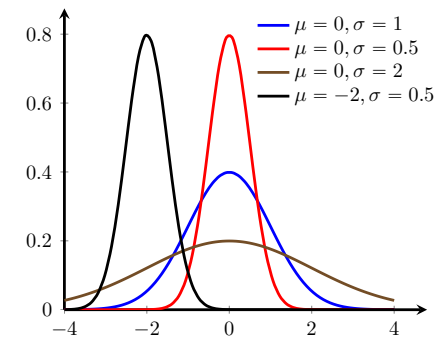
## The Normal (Gaussian) distribution \*

A continuous random variable  $X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with density function

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

is said to have **Normal distribution** (or **Gaussian distribution**) with parameters  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}_+$ .

**Standard normal distribution:**  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$ .



## Joint distribution

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  and  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega'', \mathcal{A}'')$  be *discrete* random variables, where  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $X$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $Y$ .

We introduce the notation

$$p_{ij} \triangleq P(X = x_i, Y = y_j) \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots$$

for the probability of the *events*

$$\{X = x_i, Y = y_j\} := \{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) = x_i \text{ and } Y(\omega) = y_j\}.$$

These probabilities  $p_{ij}$  form a *distribution*, called the **joint distribution** of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

Therefore,

$$\sum_i \sum_j p_{ij} = 1.$$

## Marginal distributions

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  and  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega'', \mathcal{A}'')$  be *discrete* random variables, where  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $X$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $Y$ .

The *distributions* defined by the probabilities

$$p_i \triangleq P(X = x_i) \quad \text{and} \quad q_j \triangleq P(Y = y_j)$$

are called the **marginal distributions** of  $X$  and of  $Y$ , respectively.

Let us consider the *marginal distribution* of  $X$ . Then

$$p_i = P(X = x_i) = \sum_j P(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \sum_j p_{ij}.$$

Similarly, the *marginal distribution* of  $Y$  is given by

$$q_j = P(Y = y_j) = \sum_i P(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \sum_i p_{ij}.$$

## Example: marginal distribution \*

Consider two producing machines creating identical product in a factory. Assume we are given the following table with probabilities

	Machine I	Machine II	
The product is good	0.56	0.41	0.97
The product is waste	0.01	0.02	0.03
	0.57	0.43	1

The marginal distributions of discrete random variables corresponding to the values of {good, waste} and {I, II} are shown in the last column and last row, respectively.

The following also holds

$$\sum_i p_i = \sum_i P(X = x_i) = \sum_i \sum_j P(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \sum_i \sum_j p_{ij} = 1.$$



## Joint density

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}')$  and  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega'' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}'')$  be random variables. The **joint cumulative distribution function** of  $X$  and  $Y$ , denoted by  $F_{XY} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , is defined as

$$F_{XY}(x, y) \triangleq P(X < x, Y < y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

If both  $X$  and  $Y$  are *continuous random variables*, then the **joint density function**  $f_{XY} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by

$$F_{XY}(x, y) = \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y f_{XY}(u, v) du dv.$$

The *joint density function*  $f_{XY}(x, y)$  also satisfies the following property:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(u, v) du dv = 1.$$

## Marginal densities

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega', \mathcal{A}')$  and  $Y : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}) \rightarrow (\Omega'', \mathcal{A}'')$  be random variables with *joint cumulative distribution function*  $F_{XY} : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The **marginal cumulative distribution functions** of  $X$  and  $Y$  are given by

$$F_X(x) := F_{XY}(x, \infty) = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} F_{XY}(x, y), \quad \text{and}$$
$$F_Y(y) := F_{XY}(\infty, y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F_{XY}(x, y).$$

If both  $X$  and  $Y$  are *continuous random variables* with the *joint density function*  $f_{XY}(x, y)$ , then the **marginal density functions**  $f_X, f_Y : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are defined as

$$f_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dy \quad \text{and} \quad f_Y(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{XY}(x, y) dx.$$

### Conditional distribution

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be *discrete random variables*, where  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $X$  and  $y_1, y_2, \dots$  denote the values of  $Y$ .

The **conditional distribution** of  $X$  given  $Y$  is defined by

$$P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) = \frac{P(X = x_i, Y = y_j)}{P(Y = y_j)} = \frac{p_{ij}}{\sum_k p_{kj}} = \frac{p_{ij}}{q_j}.$$

Therefore,  $\sum_i P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) = \sum_i \frac{p_{ij}}{\sum_k p_{kj}} = 1$  is also held.

The **conditional cumulative distribution function** is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} F_{X|Y}(x | y) &\triangleq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} P(X < x | y \leq Y < y + h) \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(X < x, y \leq Y < y + h)}{P(y \leq Y < y + h)}. \end{aligned}$$

### Conditional density

Suppose a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P)$ . Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables with *joint density function*  $f_{XY}(x, y)$ . If the *marginal density function*  $f_Y(y) \neq 0$ , then the **conditional density function** of  $X$  given  $Y$  is defined as

$$f_{X|Y}(x | y) = \frac{f_{XY}(x, y)}{f_Y(y)}.$$

**Expectation**

The *expectation* of a random variable is intuitively the long-run average value of repetitions of the experiment it represents.

Let  $X$  be a *discrete random variable* taking values  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ , respectively. The **expectation** (or **expected value**) of  $X$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_i ,$$

assuming that this series is *absolutely convergent* (that is  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i| p_i$  is convergent).

Example: throwing two “fair” dice and the value of  $X$  is *the sum the numbers showing on the dice*.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X] = & 2 \frac{1}{36} + 3 \frac{2}{36} + 4 \frac{3}{36} + 5 \frac{4}{36} + 6 \frac{5}{36} \\ & + 7 \frac{6}{36} + 8 \frac{5}{36} + 9 \frac{4}{36} + 10 \frac{3}{36} + 11 \frac{2}{36} + 12 \frac{1}{36} = 7 . \end{aligned}$$

**Expectation**

Let  $X$  be a (*continuous*) random variable with density function  $f_X(x)$ . The **expectation** of  $X$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_X(x) dx ,$$

assuming that this integral is *absolutely convergent* (that is the value of the integral  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x \cdot f_X(x)| dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| \cdot f_X(x) dx$  is finite).

Suppose a random variable  $X$  with density function  $f_X(x)$ . The **expected value of a function**  $g(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_X(x) dx ,$$

assuming that this integral is absolutely convergent.





### Conditional expectation

A **random vector**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is a vector whose components are random variables. If all  $X_i$  are discrete, then  $\mathbf{X}$  is called a **discrete random vector**.

Let  $(X, Y)$  be a *discrete random vector*. The **conditional expectation** of  $X$  given the event  $\{Y = y\}$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X | Y = y] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i P(X = x_i | Y = y) ,$$

assuming that this series is absolutely convergent.

Let  $(X, Y)$  be a (*continuous*) *random vector* with *conditional density function*  $f_{X|Y}(x | y)$ . The **conditional expectation** of  $X$  given the event  $\{Y = y\}$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X | Y = y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot f_{X|Y}(x | Y = y) dx ,$$

assuming that this integral is absolutely convergent.

### Conditional expectation

Suppose a (*continuous*) *random vector*  $(X, Y)$  with *conditional density function*  $f_{X|Y}(x | y)$ . The **conditional expectation of a function**  $g(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given the event  $\{Y = y\}$  is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X) | Y = y] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot f_{X|Y}(x | Y = y) dx ,$$

assuming that this integral is absolutely convergent.

## Summary \*

- A **random variable**  $X : (\Omega, \mathcal{A}, P) \rightarrow (\Omega' \subseteq \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{A}', P_X)$  is a measurable mapping from a probability space to a measure space.
- The image measure  $P_X$  of  $P$  by  $X$  is called **probability distribution**.
- The function  $F_X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $F_X(x) = P(x < X)$  is called **cumulative distribution function** of  $X$ .
- A measurable function  $f_X(x)$  is called **density function** of  $X$ , if

$$F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt .$$

- Probability distributions and densities
  - ◆ Joint distribution:  $p_{XY}(x, y)$
  - ◆ Marginal distribution:  $p_X(x)$
  - ◆ Conditional distribution:  $p_{X|Y}(x | y)$
- The **expected value** is intuitively the long-run average value of repetitions of the experiment.

## The Expectation-maximization algorithm

**Latent variables**

Suppose we are given a set of *i.i.d.* (i.e. independent and identically distributed) data samples  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$  represented by a matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ . The samples are drawn from a model (e.g., mixture of Gaussians) given by its parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ .

There are mainly two applications of the EM algorithm:

1. The data has **missing values** due to limitations of the observation.
2. The **likelihood function can be simplified** by assuming missing values.

**Latent variables** gathering the missing values are represented by a matrix  $\mathbf{Z}$ .

We generally want to maximize the **posterior probability**

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{Z} \mid \mathbf{X}) .$$

Alternatively, one can maximize the log-likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{X}) = \ln p(\mathbf{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ln \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) .$$

## Jensen's inequality \*

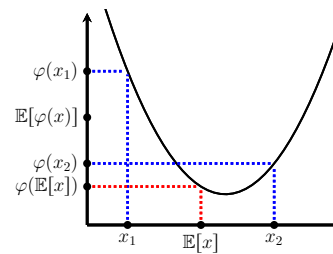
Reminder: A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **convex**, if  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall t \in [0, 1]$

$$f(ta + (1-t)b) \leq tf(a) + (1-t)f(b)$$

holds. A function  $f$  is said to be **concave** if  $-f$  is convex.

Assume a random vector  $\mathbf{X}$  and a convex function  $\varphi$ , then

$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}]) \leq \mathbb{E}[\varphi(\mathbf{X})].$$



### Proof of Jensen's inequality \*

For a discrete random variable  $X$  taking values  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ , one can obtain

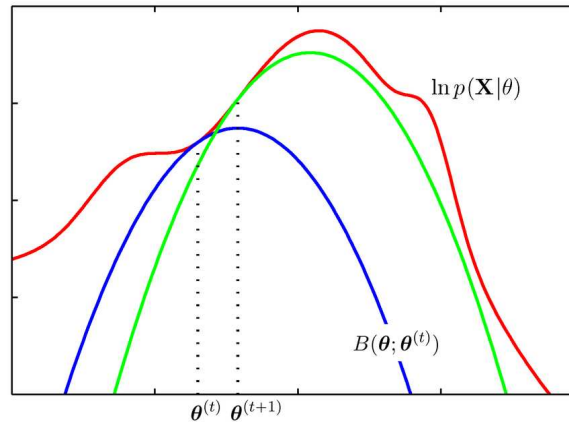
$$\varphi(\mathbb{E}[X]) = \varphi\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_i\right) \triangleq L\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_i\right) = a\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i p_i\right) + b,$$

where  $L : \mathbb{R} \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $L(x) = ax + b$  is an *affine function* corresponding to the **tangent line** of  $\varphi$  at  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i(ax_i + b) - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i b + b = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i(ax_i + b) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i L(x_i) \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i \varphi(x_i) = \mathbb{E}[\varphi(X)]. \end{aligned}$$

## The overview of the EM algorithm

**The idea:** start with a guess  $\theta^{(t)}$  for the parameters, calculate an easily computed lower bound  $B(\theta; \theta^{(t)})$  that touches the function  $\ln p(\mathbf{X} | \theta)$ , and maximize that bound instead. This procedure generally converges to a **local maximizer**  $\hat{\theta}$ .



### Lower bound maximization \*

First we derive the lower bound  $B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$ .

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ln \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ln \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})}}_{g(\mathbf{Z})}$$

where  $q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})$  is an arbitrary probability distribution of the latent variables  $\mathbf{Z}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &= \ln \mathbb{E} \left[ \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})}}_{g(\mathbf{Z})} \right] \geq \mathbb{E} \left[ \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})} \right] \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})} \triangleq B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) . \end{aligned}$$

### Lagrange multiplier \*

Suppose two functions  $f, g : \mathbb{R}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  having continuous first partial derivatives. We consider the following optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} \max f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \text{subject to } g(\mathbf{x}) = 0 . \end{aligned}$$

It is convenient to study the **Lagrangian function**, defined as

$$L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) \triangleq f(\mathbf{x}) + \lambda g(\mathbf{x}) ,$$

where  $\lambda \neq 0$  is called a **Lagrange multiplier**.

### Geometric interpretation of a Lagrange multiplier \*

The constraint  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  forms a  $D - 1$  dimensional surface in  $\mathbb{R}^D$ . Suppose  $\mathbf{x}$  and a nearby point  $\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  lying on the surface  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ . Based on the Taylor expansion of  $g$  around  $\mathbf{x}$  we get

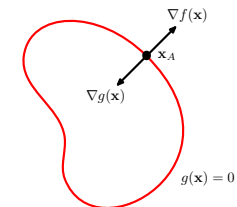
$$g(\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \approx g(\mathbf{x}) + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \approx 0 .$$

In the limit  $\|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\| \rightarrow 0$ , we have  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^T \nabla g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , which means that  $\nabla g(\mathbf{x})$  is **normal to the constraint surface**, since  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is parallel to the surface.

At an optimal  $\mathbf{x}_A$  lying on the constraint surface,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_A)$  **must be orthogonal to the surface**, otherwise we could increase the value of  $f$  by moving along the constraint surface. Therefore, there exist a **Lagrange multiplier**  $\lambda$  such that

$$\nabla f + \lambda \nabla g = 0$$

which can be equivalently written as  $\nabla_x L = 0$ . Note that  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} L = 0$  leads to the constraint  $g(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .





### Finding an optimal bound \*

We want to find the *best* lower bound, defined as the bound  $B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$  that touches the objective function  $\ln p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$  at  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$ .

The optimal bound at the current guess  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$  can be found by maximizing

$$B(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})}$$

with respect to the distribution  $q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})$ .

Introducing a *Lagrange multiplier*  $\lambda$  to enforce  $\sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) = 1$ , the objective becomes

$$h(q^{(t)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) - \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) + \lambda \left( \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) - 1 \right).$$

### Finding an optimal bound \*

$$h(q^{(t)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) - \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) + \lambda \left( \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) - 1 \right).$$

Setting the derivative of  $h$  w.r.t.  $q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})$  to 0, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})} h = \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) - \ln q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) - 1 - \lambda = 0.$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) \exp(-1 - \lambda) = q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \tag{1}$$

$$\exp(-1 - \lambda) \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) = 1$$

$$\exp(-1 - \lambda) = \frac{1}{\sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})} = \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})}.$$

Therefore, substituting back into Eq. (1), we get

$$q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})}{p(\mathbf{X} | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})} = p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}). \tag{2}$$



### Finding an optimal bound \*

The resulting optimal bound at  $\theta^{(t)}$  indeed touches the objective function:

$$B(\theta^{(t)}; \theta^{(t)}) = \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta^{(t)})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})}$$

By substituting Eq. (2), we get

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t)}) \ln \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta^{(t)})}{p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t)})}}_{p(\mathbf{X} | \theta^{(t)})} \\ &= \ln p(\mathbf{X} | \theta^{(t)}) \underbrace{\sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t)})}_{=1} \\ &= \ln p(\mathbf{X} | \theta^{(t)}) . \end{aligned}$$

### Maximizing the bound \*

We want to maximize  $B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$  with respect to  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta})}{q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z})} \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) . \end{aligned}$$

We need to consider the first term only

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} q^{(t)}(\mathbf{Z}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}] \triangleq Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) . \end{aligned}$$

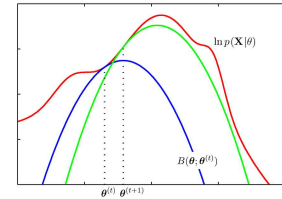
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} B(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) .$$

## The EM algorithm

- 1: Choose an initial setting for the parameters  $\theta^{(0)}$
- 2:  $t \rightarrow 0$
- 3: **repeat**
- 4:    $t \rightarrow t + 1$
- 5:   **E step.** Evaluate  $q^{(t-1)}(\mathbf{Z}) \triangleq p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)})$
- 6:   **M step.** Evaluate  $\theta^{(t)}$  given by

$$\theta^{(t)} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q(\theta, \theta^{(t-1)}),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{where } Q(\theta, \theta^{(t-1)}) &\triangleq \mathbb{E}[\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta) | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)}] \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta) \end{aligned}$$



- 7: **until** convergence of either the parameters  $\theta$  or the log likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathbf{X})$

## Summary \*

- We have finished the overview of Probability theory.
- The **Expectation-maximization algorithm** is an iterative method for parameter estimation of *maximum likelihood*, where the model also depends on *latent variables*.

In the **next lecture** we will learn about

- The EM algorithm for Mixtures of Gaussians
- Introduction to Graphical models:
  - ◆ *Directed* graphical models: Bayesian network
  - ◆ *Undirected* graphical models: Markov random field

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