

Machine Learning Unsupervised Methods Part 1

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Course



3 ECTS 2 SWS VO (class) 1.5 ECTS 1 SWS UE (exercise)

Basic Course of Master Bioinformatics

Basic Course of Master Computer Science: Computational Engineering / Int. Syst.

Class: Mo 15:30-17:00 (S3 055); Exercise: Mo 14:30-15:15 (S2 059)

VO: final exam (oral if few students subscribe)

UE: weekly homework (evaluated)

	Lecture		Lecturer	
365,077	Machine Learning: Unsupervised Techniques	VL	Hochreiter	Mon 15:30-17:00/S3 055
365,078	Machine Learning: Unsupervised Techniques	UE	Mitterecker	Mon 14:30-15:15/S2 059
365,041	Theoretical Concepts of Machine Learning	VL	Hochreiter	Thu 15:30-17:00/S3 055
365,042	Theoretical Concepts of Machine Learning	UE	Povysil	Mon 13:45-14:30/S2 059
365,081	Genome Analysis & Transcriptomics	ΚV	Regl	Tue 8:30-11:00/S3 055
365,082	Structural Bioinformatics	K۷	Regl	Tue 8:30-11:00/S3 055
365,036	Special Topics on Bioinformatics - Population genetics	K۷	Povysil	Tue 11:00-12:45/S3 318
365,079	Introduction to R	ΚV	Bodenhofer	Wed 15:30-17:00/S3 055
365,067	Master's Seminar	SE	Hochreiter	Mon 10:15-11:45/S3 318
365,080	Master's Thesis Seminar SS	SE	Hochreiter	Mon 10:15-11:45/S3 318
365,019	Dissertantenseminar 3	SE	Hochreiter	Mon 10:15-11:45/S3 318
347,337	Bachelor Seminar Biological Chemistry (incl. Bachelor Thesis)		Hochreiter	-

Computational Engineering Colloquium



Computational Engineering (CE) Colloquium

The CE Colloquium provides a forum for students and researchers from JKU and industry to exchange ideas and experiences related to computational engineering.

Summer Semester 2014

The colloquium is scheduled for **Thursdays at 5:15 pm** in room **MT 226/1** in Science Park 1 (Mechatronics Building).

Mar 20	Christoph Steindl, Catalysts	HPC for Industry and Space	
May 8	Christian Eitzinger, PROFACTOR	Computational Engineering and Machine Learning for Robotic Inspection Systems	
May 15	Peter Stadelmeyer, RISC Software	Multidisziplinäre Strukturoptimierung aus Softwarearchitektursicht - Algorithmen und Technologielebenszyklen	
May 22	Robert Raschhofer, Fujitsu Austria	Die Entwicklung von Automotive Grade grafische User Interfaces	
Jun 5	Alexander Haas, Magna	The free lunch is really over: über (unerwartete) Probleme bei SW- Parallelisierungsprojekten in der Praxis	



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- 2 Basic Terms and Concepts
- 3 Principal Component Analysis
- 4 Independent Component Analysis
- 5 Factor Analysis
- 6 Scaling and Projection Methods
- 7 Clustering
- 8 Biclustering
- 9 Hidden Markov Models
- 10 Boltzmann Machines



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3 Principal Component Analysis

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- 3.2 Variance Maximization
- 3.3 Uniqueness
- 3.4 Properties of PCA
- 3.5 Examples
- 3.6 Kernel Principal Component Analysis
- 4 Independent Component Analysis
- 4.1 Identifiability and Uniqueness
- 4.2 Measuring Independence
- 4.3 Whitening and Rotation Algorithms
- 4.4 INFOMAX Algorithm
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- 4.6 FastICA Algorithm
- 4.7 ICA Extensions
- 4.8 ICA vs. PCA
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- 4.11 Kurtosis Maximization Results in Independent Components



5 Factor Analysis

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- 6.8 Self-Organizing Maps

7 Clustering

- 7.1 Mixture Models
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8 Biclustering

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- 9.5 Input Output Hidden Markov Models
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- 9.8 Tricks of the Trade
- 9.9 Profile Hidden Markov Models
- 10 Boltzmann Machines
- 10.1 The Boltzmann Machine
- 10.2 Learning in the Boltzmann Machine
- 10.3 The Restricted Boltzmann Machine

Literature



- •ML: Duda, Hart, Stork; Pattern Classification; Wiley & Sons, 2001
- •ML: C. M. Bishop; Neural Networks for Pattern Recognition, Oxford Univ. Press, 1995
- •ML: T. M. Mitchell; Machine Learning, Mc Graw Hill, 1997
- •Statistics: S. M. Kay; Fundamentals of Statistical Signal Processing, Prent. Hall, 1993
- •Belief Nets: M. I. Jordan; Learning in Graphical Models, MIT Press, 1998
- •Data Analysis: R. Peck, C. Olsen and J. L. Devore; Introduction to Statistics and Data
- Analysis, 3rd edition, ISBN: 9780495118732, Brooks/Cole, Belmont, USA, 2009
- •Statistical Data Analysis: B. Shahbaba; Biostatistics with R: An Introduction to
- Statistics Through Biological Data; Springer, series UseR!, New York, 2012
- •Statistical Data Analysis: C. T. Ekstrom and H. Sorensen; Introduction to Statistical
- Data Analysis for the Life Sciences; CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, USA, 2011
- •Clustering: L. Kaufman and P. J. Rousseeuw; Finding Groups in Data. An Introduction

to Cluster Analysis, Wiley, 1990



Chapter 1

Introduction



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- part of curriculum "master of science in bioinformatics"
- part of curriculum "computer science" (major CE, major int. sys.)
- Machine learning major research topic: Google, Microsoft, Amazon, Facebook, AltaVista, Zalando, and many more
- Applications: computer vision (image recognition), speech recognition, recommender systems, analysis of Big Data, information retrieval
- Mining the web: search engines, social networks, videos, music
- Machine learning applications in biology and medicine:
 - microarrays, sequencing
 - alternative splicing, nucleosome positions, gene regulation
 - single nucleotide polymorphisms / variants (SNPs, SNVs)
 - copy number variations (CNVs)
 - diseases: Alzheimer, Parkinson, cancer, multiples sclerosis, schizophrenia or alcohol dependence



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This course introduces **unsupervised** machine learning methods:

- output is not given
- objective: cumulative output on all samples

Objectives:

- information content,
- orthogonal
- statistical independence
- variation explained
- entropy
- likelihood: probability that model produces observed data
- distances between and within clusters

Used for analyze data:

- explore
- find structure
- visualize
- compress

Understand and explore the data and generate new knowledge



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concepts of unsupervised learning:

- maximum likelihood
- maximum a posteriori
- maximum entropy
- expectation maximization
- maximal variance
- independence
- non-Gaussianity
- sub- and super-Gaussian distributions
- sparse and population codes



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 Goal: select model with highest generalization performance, that is with the best performance on future data, from the model class

- model selection is training is learning
- model which best explains or approximates the training set
- remember: salmon vs. sea bass → the model which perfectly explains the training data had low generalization performance
- "overfitting": model is fitted (adapted) to special training characteristics
 - noisy measurements
 - outliers
 - labeling errors



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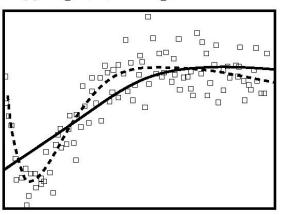
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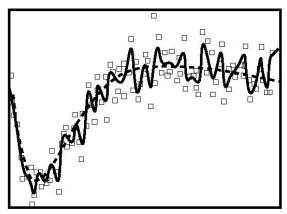
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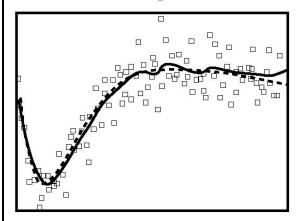
(a) large underfitting error



(b) large overfitting error



(c) best trade-off between overand underfitting error



- □ training examples (with noise)
- --- target curve without noise
- approximated curve



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Unsupervised Methods:

- principal component analysis
- independent component analysis
- factor analysis
- projection pursuit
- k-means clustering
- hierarchical clustering
- mixture models: Gaussian mixtures
- self-organizing maps
- kernel density estimation
- hidden Markov models
- Markov networks (Markov random fields)
- restricted Boltzmann machines
- neural network: auto-associators, unsupervised deep nets



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Projection methods:

- new representation of objects
- down-projection into lower-dimensional space: keeps the neighborhoods
- finding structure in the data

Generative models:

- build a model of the observed data
- match the observed data density



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 projection: representation of objects, down-project feature vectors , PCA: orthogonal maximal data variation components, ICA: statistically mutual independent components,

density estimation: density model of observed data

factor analysis: PCA with noise

clustering: extract clusters – regions data accumulation (typical data)

Goals of this course:

- how to chose appropriate methods from a given pool
- understand and evaluate the different approaches
- where to obtain and how to use them
- adapt and modify standard algorithms

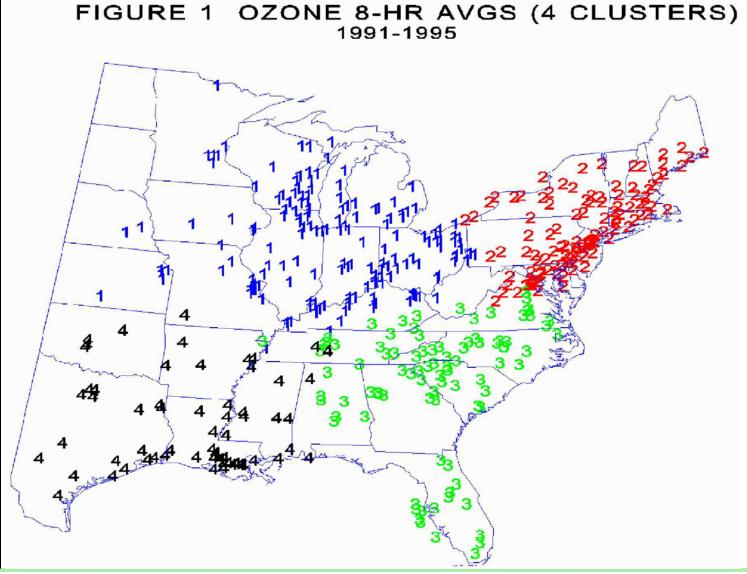


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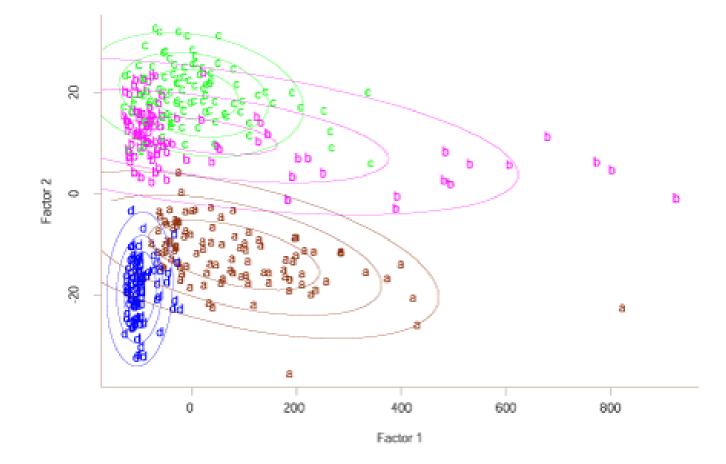


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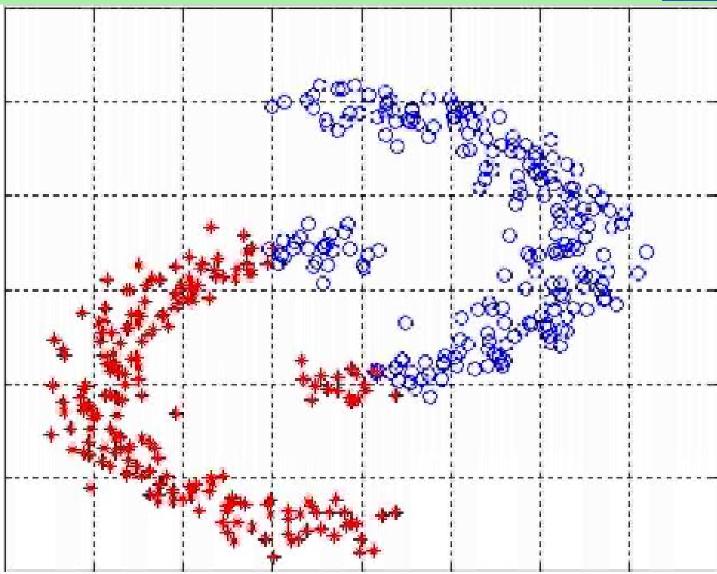
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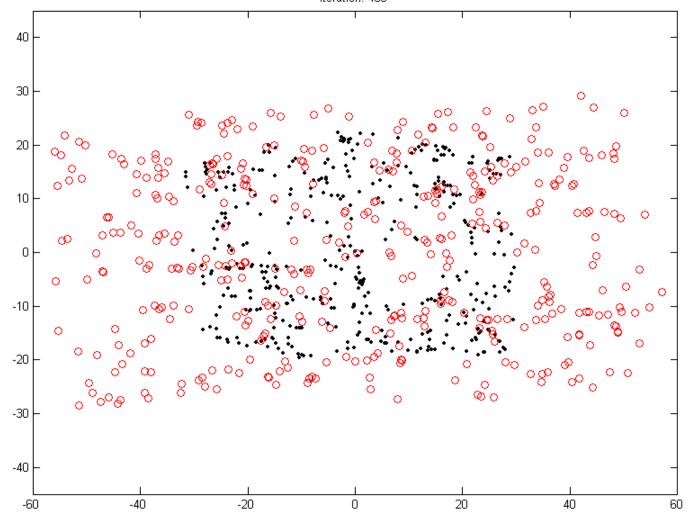


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Isomap: method for down-projecting data





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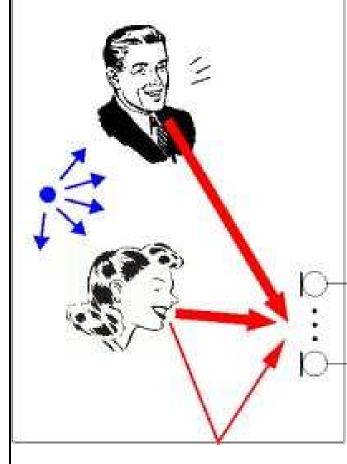
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Blind Source Separation Separated Source Signals



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Original:











Mixtures:











Demixed by ICA:













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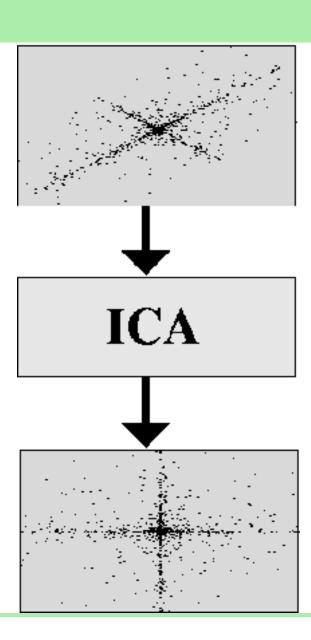
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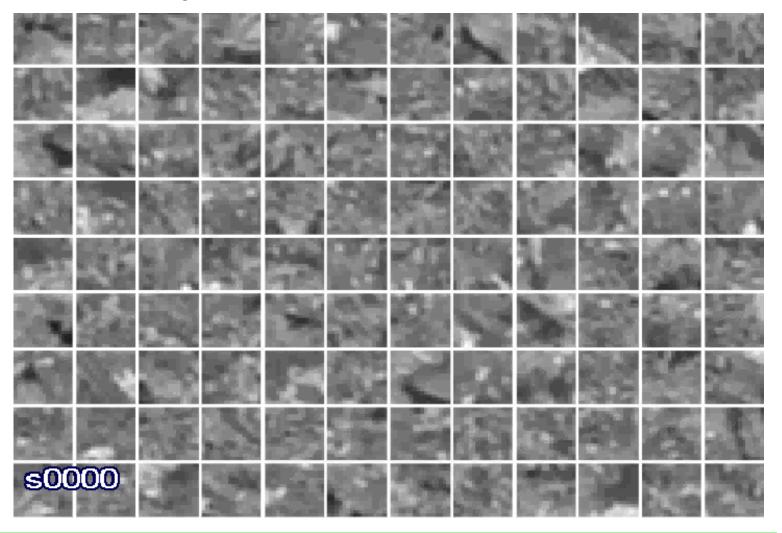


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ICA: on images



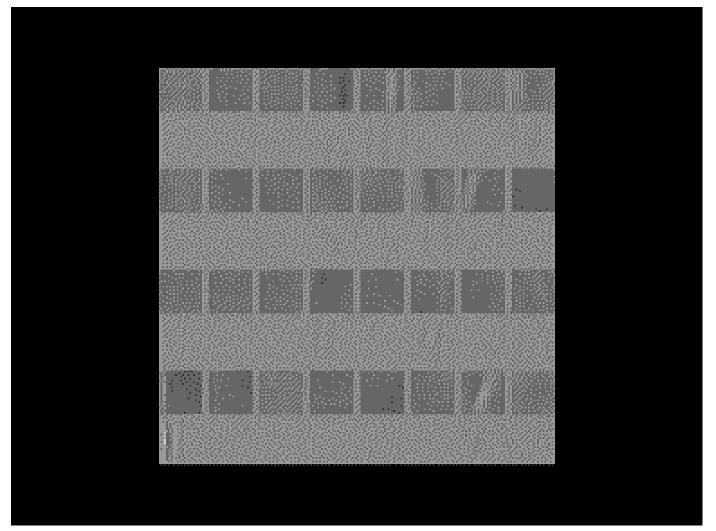


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ICA: on video components



Parametric vs. Non-Parametric Models



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important step in machine learning is to select a model class

parametric models:

- each parameter vector represents a model
- examples:
 - neural networks: parameter are synaptic weights
 - support vector machines
- learning: paths through the parameter space
- disadvantages:
 - different parameterizations of the same function
 - model complexity and class via the parameters

nonparametric models:

- model is locally constant / superimpositions
- Examples:
 - *k*-nearest-neighbor (*k* is hyperparameter not adjusted)
 - kernel density estimation
 - decision tree
- constant models (rules) must be a priori selected that is hyperparameters must be fixed (*k*, kernel width, splitting rules)

Generative vs. descriptive Models



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descriptive model:

- additional description or another representation of the data
- projection methods (PCA, ICA)

generative model:

- model should produce the distribution observed for the real world data points
- describing or representing random components which drive the process
- prior knowledge about the world or desired model
- predict new states of the data generation process (brain, cell)



Chapter 2

Basic Terms and Concepts



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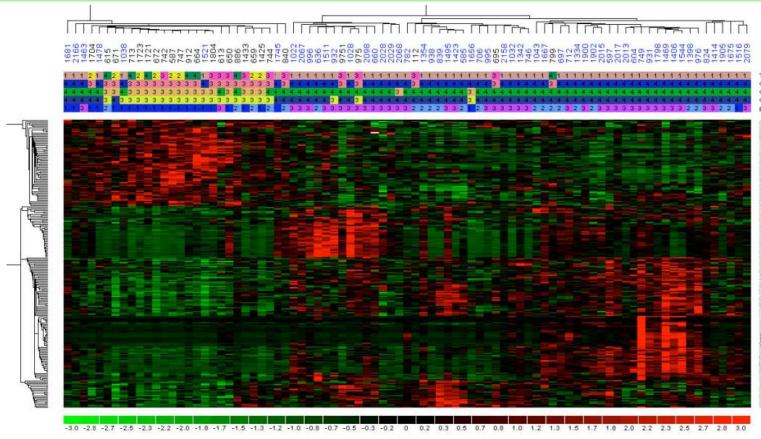
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Clustering of microarray data



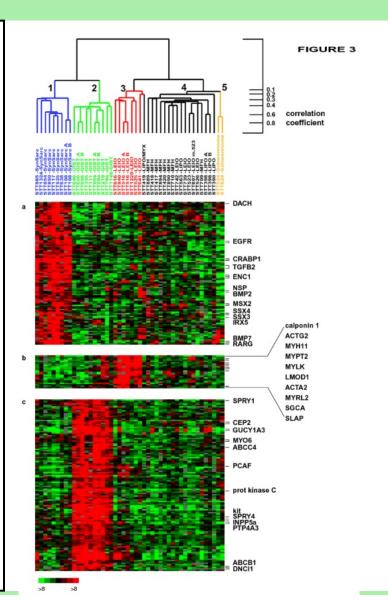
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Clustering of microarray data.

Representative portions of the tumor specific gene clusters. The spectrum of green to red spots represents the relative centered expression for each gene.

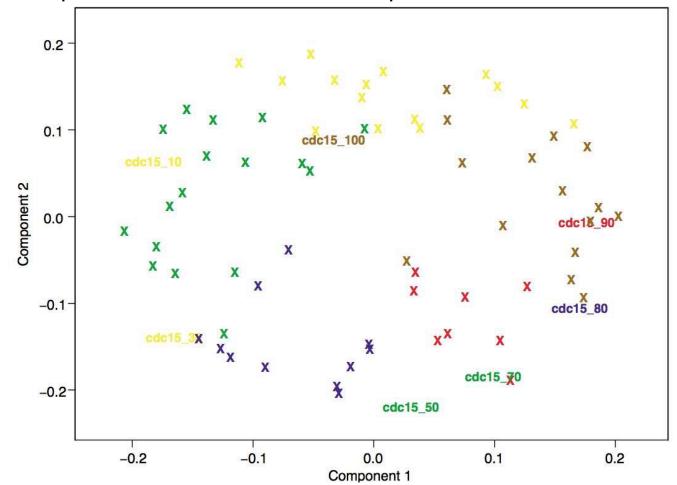
Correlation coefficient bar shown to the right side of the dendrogram indicates the degree of relatedness between branches of the dendrogram.



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unsupervised methods: visualize dependencies and clusters



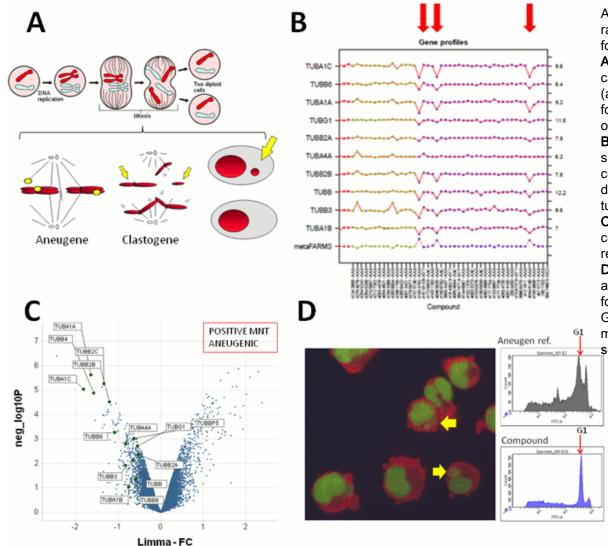
Spellmans cell-cycle data: first principal components



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Learning in



An example for a signature of a rare event (micronuclei formation).

A. Genotoxic compounds can cause chromosomal breaks (aneugene) or affect the formation of the mitotic spindle or microtubuli (clastogene).

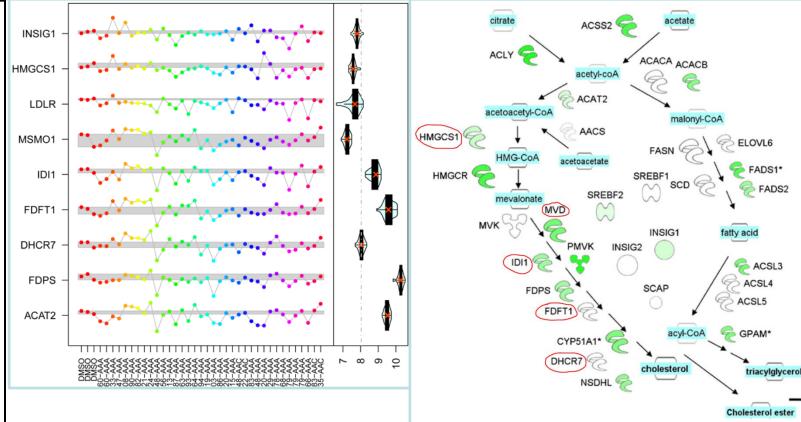
B. The gene expression signature of only three compounds (red arrows) show down-regulation of several tubulin-genes.

C. Volcano plot of one compound showing a downregulation of tubulin genes.

D. Microscopic and FACScan analysis confirmed micronuclei formation (yellow arrows) and G1-cell cycle arrest indicating microtubuli-based chromosome segregation.



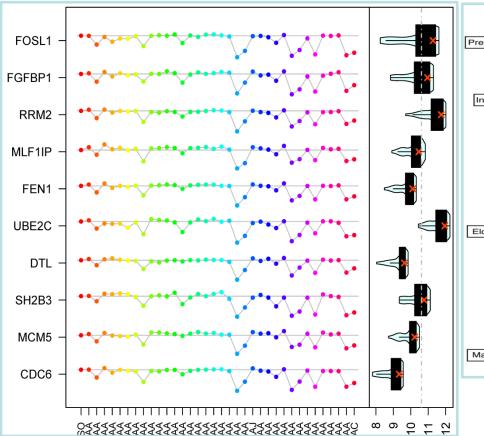
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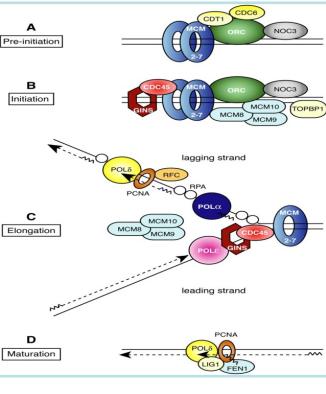


left panel: Biclustering results of gene expression data from a cell line where a compound was added that affects metabolic pathways. **right panel:** The genes HMGCS1, IDI1, FDFT1, DHCR7 of the bicluster code for proteins that belong to the SREBP cholesterol metabolism pathway. FABIA was capable to identify this bicluster of 9 genes activated by few compounds in a data set of tens of thousands of genes.



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left panel: Biclustering result of gene expression of a cancer cell line to which a compound has been added. **right panel**: The genes CDC6, MCM5, FEN1 are coding for proteins that participatie at DNA replication complex. The other bicluster genes code for proteins that initiate or are involved DNA replication (MLF1IP →chromosome segregation; RRM2 → DNA synthesis; DTL → regulation of DNA replication).

Unsupervised Learning Categories



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unsupervised categories:

- generative framework: density estimation, hidden Markov models and objectives are maximum likelihood, maximum a posteriori, expectation maximization
- recoding framework: projection methods, pca, ica and objectives are maximal variance, orthogonal, independence, maximum entropy

Projection Methods



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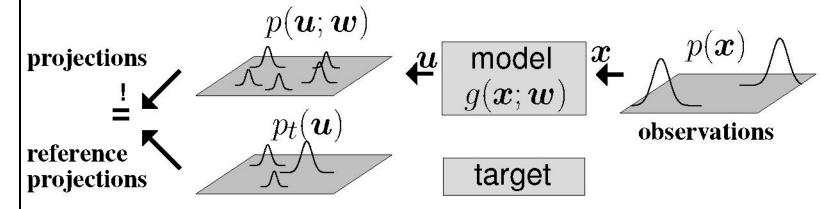
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projection methods project the data into a space with desired properties



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 Principal Component Analysis (PCA): projection to a low dimensional space under maximal information conservation

- Independent Component Analysis (ICA): projection into a space with statistically indpendent components (factorial code)
 - →often characteristics of a factorial distribution are optimized:
 - maximal entropy (given variance)
 - cummulants
 - →or prototype distributions should be matched:
 - product of special super-Gaussians

• Projection Pursuit: components are maximally non-Gaussian

Generative Models



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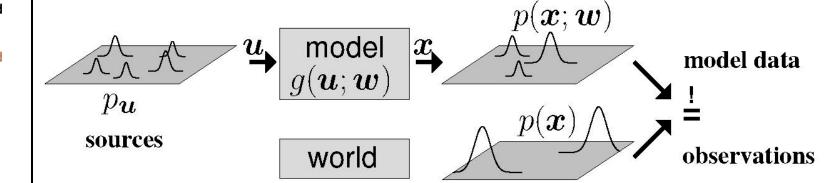
2.5 Expectation

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a generative model simulates the world and produces the same data



Generative Models



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- data generation process is probabilistic: underlying distribution
- generative model attempts at approximation this distribution
- loss function the distance between model output distribution and the distribution of the data generation process
- examples: factor analysis, latent variable models, Boltzmann machines, hidden Markov models

Parameter Estimation



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Parameter Estimation Generative models estimate the optimal parameter given a parametrized model class

Data are generated from a model of the class: find this model

- model class known
- task: estimate actual parameters
- loss: difference between true and estimated parameter
- evaluate estimator: expected loss

Mean Squared Error, Bias, and Variance



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Theoretical concepts of parameter estimation

$$ullet$$
 training data: $\{oldsymbol{x}\} \ = \ \left\{oldsymbol{x}^1,\ldots,oldsymbol{x}^l
ight\}$

simply
$$\boldsymbol{X} = \left(\boldsymbol{x}^1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}^l\right)^T$$
 (the matrix of training data)

- $oldsymbol{\cdot}$ true parameter vector: $oldsymbol{w}$
- estimate of $m{w}$: $\hat{m{w}}$

Mean Squared Error, Bias, and Variance



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• unbiased estimator: $\mathbf{E}_{oldsymbol{X}}\hat{oldsymbol{w}} = oldsymbol{w}$

on average (over training set) the true parameter is obtained

• bias: $b(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) = \mathbf{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{w}$

• variance:
$$var(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) = E_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - E_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - E_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})) \right)$$

• mean squared error (MSE, different to supervised loss):

$$\operatorname{mse}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) = \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{w})^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{w}) \right)$$

expected squared error between the estimated and true parameter

Objective: minimize MSE!

Mean Squared Error, Bias, and Variance



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$$\begin{array}{l} \boxed{\operatorname{mse}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})} = \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{w})^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \boldsymbol{w}) \right) = \\ \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left(((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})) + (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}))^T \\ ((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})) + (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}))) = \\ \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})) - \\ 2 (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}) + \\ (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w})^T (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}) = \\ \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}})) \right) + \\ (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w})^T (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}) = \\ \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}) = \\ \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \left((\hat{\boldsymbol{w}} - \operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}))^T (\operatorname{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}) - \boldsymbol{w}) = 0 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

Maximum Likelihood



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- One of the major objectives if learning generative models
- It has certain theoretical properties
- Theoretical concepts like efficient estimator or biased estimator are introduced
- Even supervised methods can be viewed as special case of maximum likelihood
- ML is asymptotically efficient and unbiased
- ML does everything right and this efficiently (enough data)

Maximum Likelihood Estimator



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2.5 Expectation Maximization 2.6 Maximum Entropy The likelihood $\mathcal L$ of the data set $\{m x\} = \{m x^1, \dots, m x^l\}$:

$$\mathcal{L}(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}) = p(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w})$$

probability of the model $p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w})$ to produce the data

iid (independent identical distributed) data:

$$\mathcal{L}(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}) = p(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} p(\boldsymbol{x}^{i}; \boldsymbol{w})$$

Negative log-likelihood:

$$-\ln \mathcal{L}(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{l} \ln p(\boldsymbol{x}^i; \boldsymbol{w})$$

Properties of Maximum Likelihood Estimator



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MLE:

- invariant under parameter change
- asymptotically unbiased and efficient → asymptotically optimal
- consistent for zero CRLB



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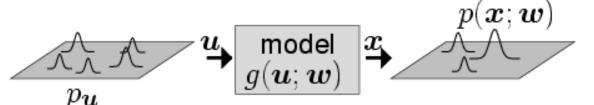
Likelihood Estimator 2.5 Expectation

2.5 Expectation Maximization 2.6 Maximum Entropy likelihood can be optimized by gradient descent methods

likelihood cannot be computed analytically:

- hidden states
- many-to-one output mapping
- non-linearities

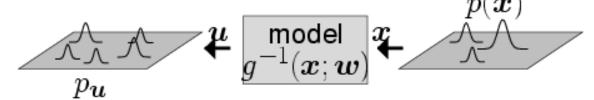
Generative Model



sources

observations

Likelihood



sources

observations

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \int_{U} p_{\boldsymbol{u}}(\boldsymbol{u}) \, \delta(\boldsymbol{x} = g(\boldsymbol{u}; \boldsymbol{w})) \, d\boldsymbol{u}$$



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- ullet hidden variables, latent variables, unobserved variables $oldsymbol{u}$
- ullet likelihood is determined by all u mapped to x



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Expectation Maximization (EM) algorithm:

- joint probability $p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}; \boldsymbol{w})$ is easier to compute than likelihood
- estimate $p(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w})$ by $Q(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \boldsymbol{x})$

$$\boxed{\ln \mathcal{L}(\{oldsymbol{x}\};oldsymbol{w})} = \ \ln p(\{oldsymbol{x}\};oldsymbol{w}) \ = \ \ln \int_U p(\{oldsymbol{x}\},oldsymbol{u};oldsymbol{w}) \ doldsymbol{u} \ =$$

$$\ln \int_U rac{Q(m{u} \mid \{m{x}\})}{Q(m{u} \mid \{m{x}\})} p(\{m{x}\}, m{u}; m{w}) \; dm{u} \; oxed{\geq} \;\;\;\;\;$$
 Jensen's inequality

$$\int_{U} Q(oldsymbol{u} \mid \{oldsymbol{x}\}) \, \ln rac{p(\{oldsymbol{x}\}, oldsymbol{u}; oldsymbol{w})}{Q(oldsymbol{u} \mid \{oldsymbol{x}\})} \, doldsymbol{u} \, = \, \int_{U} Q(oldsymbol{u} \mid \{oldsymbol{x}\}) \, \ln p(\{oldsymbol{x}\}, oldsymbol{u}; oldsymbol{w}) \, doldsymbol{u} \, - \, .$$

$$\int_{U} Q(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \{\boldsymbol{x}\}) \ln p(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}, \boldsymbol{u}; \boldsymbol{w}) d\boldsymbol{u} -$$

$$\int_{U} Q(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \{\boldsymbol{x}\}) \ln Q(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \{\boldsymbol{x}\}) d\boldsymbol{u} =$$

$$\mathcal{F}(Q,oldsymbol{w})$$

Expectation of log joint probability is easy for exponential family



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EM algorithm is an iteration between E-step and M-step:

$$Q_{k+1} = \arg \max_{Q} \mathcal{F}(Q, \boldsymbol{w}_k)$$

M-step:

$$\boldsymbol{w}_{k+1} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{w}} \mathcal{F}(Q_{k+1}, \boldsymbol{w})$$



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EM increases the lower bound in both steps

Beginning of the M-step:
$$\mathcal{F}(Q_{k+1}, m{w}_k) = \ln \mathcal{L}(\{m{x}\}; m{w}_k)$$

E-step does not change the parameters

$$\ln \mathcal{L}(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}_k) = \mathcal{F}(Q_{k+1}, \boldsymbol{w}_k) \leq \\ \mathcal{F}(Q_{k+1}, \boldsymbol{w}_{k+1}) \leq \mathcal{F}(Q_{k+2}, \boldsymbol{w}_{k+1}) = \ln \mathcal{L}(\{\boldsymbol{x}\}; \boldsymbol{w}_{k+1})$$

EM algorithm:

- hidden Markov models
- mixture of Gaussians
- factor analysis
- independent component analysis

Maximum Entropy



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Entropy

maximum entropy probability distribution:

- maximal entropy given a class of distributions
- minimal prior assumptions
- physical systems converge to maximal entropy configurations
- most likely observed solution
- connection: statistical mechanics and information theory

principle of maximum entropy first expounded by E.T. Jaynes in 1957

Maximum Entropy



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Entropy
$$H = -\sum_{k\geq 1} p_k \log p_k$$

$$p_k \log p_k = 0 \text{ for } p_k = 0$$

Examples:

- normal distribution: given mean and standard deviation
- uniform distribution: supported in the interval [a, b]
- exponential distribution: given mean in $[0, \infty]$

Maximum Entropy



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Entropy

Not all classes of distributions contain a maximum entropy distribution:

- arbitrarily large entropy: distributions with mean
- entropies of a class are bounded from above but not attained: distributions with mean zero, second moment one, and third moment one

Maximum Entropy Solution



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Constraints: $\sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) \ f_k(x_i) = F_k \qquad k=1,\ldots,m$ $\sum_{i=1}^n p(x_i) = 1$

Solution, the Gibbs distribution

$$p(x_i) = \frac{1}{Z(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)} \exp(\lambda_1 f_1(x_i) + \dots + \lambda_m f_m(x_i))$$

with partition function

$$Z(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m) = \sum_{i=1}^n \exp\left(\lambda_1 f_1(x_i) + \cdots + \lambda_m f_m(x_i)\right)$$

The Lagrange multipliers are determined by the equation system

$$F_k = \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda_k} \log Z(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m)$$