

Spherical Gaussian

The distribution can be represented by a circle centered at mean μ with radius σ . We can generate points from the following spherical Gaussian Distribution, each with a likelihood of

P(x|μ,σ²) = N(x;μ,σ²I) = 1/(2πσ²)^(d/2) exp(-1/(2σ²)||x-μ||²)

The probability of generating points away from the mean μ decreases as they get further away regardless of direction.

Overall Objective Function

We try to find the best Gaussian that fits the data with the criterion of maximum likelihood (ML). The likelihood of the training data is calculated as follows

ℓ(Sn|μ,σ²) = ∏ p(x^(i)|μ,σ²) = ∑ log p(x^(i)|μ,σ²) = ∑ [-d/2 log(2πσ²) - 1/(2σ²)||x^(i)-μ||²] = -dn/2 log(2πσ²) - 1/(2σ²) ∑ ||x^(i)-μ||²

Deriving maximum likelihood estimator μ̂ and σ². Includes equations for partial derivatives and a boxed formula for μ̂ and σ².

Mixture of Gaussians

Assuming k clusters is optimal for describing the data. So how do we generate data points from the mixture? We first sample index i to see which cluster we should use. In other words, we sample i from a multinomial distribution governed by p1,...,pk, where ∑ pi = 1. Think of throwing a biased k-faced die. Larger pi means that we generate more points from that clusters. Once we know the cluster, we can sample x from the corresponding Gaussian. More precisely, (i ~ Multinomial(p1,...,pk) x ~ P(x|μ^(i),σ_i²))

For easier representation, we let θ specify all parameters for the mixture model θ = {μ^(1),...μ^(k),σ1²,...,σk²,p1,...pk} P(x|θ) = ∑ pi P(x|μ^(i),σ_i²)

where p1...pk specify the frequency of points we would expect to see in each cluster.

Labeled Case

If data points are already labeled (assigned to a single cluster), we could estimate the Gaussian models same as before, and even evaluate the cluster sizes based on the actual number of points.

Let δ(i|t) be an indicator that tells us whether x^(i) should be assigned to cluster i.

- δ(i|t) = 1, if x^(t) is assigned to i
- δ(i|t) = 0, otherwise

Maximum Likelihood Objective ∑n=1 [∑i=1k δ(i|t) log (pi · p(x^(i)|μ^(i),σ_i²))] = ∑i=1k [∑t=1n δ(i|t) log (pi · p(x^(t)|μ^(i),σ_i²))]

number of points assigned to cluster i: n̂i = ∑ δ(i|t) fraction of points in cluster i: p̂i = n̂i/n mean of points in cluster i: μ̂^(i) = 1/n ∑ δ(i|t)x^(t) mean squared spread in cluster i: σ̂²_i = 1/dn̂i ∑ δ(i|t)||x^(t) - μ̂^(i)||²

Unlabeled Case

Now δ(i|t) is not given, but we can apply the EM-algorithm to derive the respective δ(i|t).

Mixture models in 1-d and Expectation Maximization (EM). Includes diagrams of Gaussian distributions and a list of steps for the EM algorithm.

EM Algorithm Process

We need to first initialize the mixture parameters. For example, we could initialize the means μ^(1),...,μ^(k) as in the k-means algorithm, and set the variances σ_i² all equal to the overall data variances:

σ̂² = 1/dn ∑ ||x^(t) - μ̂||² Since we have no information about the cluster sizes, we will set pi = 1/k, i = 1,...,k. E-Step: Softly assign points to clusters according to the posterior probabilities p(i|t) = pi P(x|μ^(i),σ_i²) / ∑ pj P(x|μ^(j),σ_j²)

Here ∑i=1k p(i|t) = 1. These are exactly analogous to (but soft versions of) δ(i|t) in the labeled case. Each point x^(i) is assigned to cluster i with weight p(i|t). The larger this weight, the more strongly we require cluster i to generate this point in the M-step below.

- M-Step: Once we have p(i|t), we pretend that we were given these assignments (as softly labeled examples) and can use them to estimate the Gaussians separately, just as in the labeled case.

Diagrams showing the iterative process of the EM algorithm from initial state to after 5 iterations, with equations for effective number of points, fraction of points, weighted mean, and weighted mean squared spread.

We will then use these parameters in the E-step, and iterate. The two types of EM algorithm both come with a theoretical guarantee: they converge to a local maximum of the objective function, which is the joint log-likelihood of the observed data: p'(y|x) = lim t→∞ ∑v (p(x,y')^t) = 1 if y = arg max_y p(x,y) o.w. 0

The Generative Process

- 1. Set y0 = START (we always start from this START symbol) and let i = 1.
- 2. Generate tag yi from the conditional distribution p(yi|yi-1) where yi-1 already has a value (e.g., yi-1 = START when i = 1)
- 3. If yi = STOP, we terminate the process and return y0, y1,..., yi, x1,..., xi-1. Otherwise we generate xi from the emission distribution p(xi|yi).
- 4. Set i = i + 1, and return to step 2.

Computing Joint Likelihood of a HMM

To calculate the probabilities of the sequence of words (x0...xn) generated given the tags (y0...yn+1). We assumed strong independence between the variables such that p(y2|y1,y0) ≈ p(y2|y1). Expanding the joint probability terms individually, p(y0...yn+1) = ∏ p(yi + 1|yi) p(x1...xn|y0...yn + 1) = ∏ p(xj|yj) Hence, p(x1...xn,y0...yn+1) = ∏ p(yi + 1|yi) · ∏ p(xj|yj)

For simplicity, we rewrite the notation of individual transmission and emission probabilities. Transmission Probability au,v = count(u,v)/count(u) Emission Probability bu(o) = count(u→o)/count(u) Joint Probability = ∏ au,yj+1 · ∏ p(yi + 1|yi) ∏ buj(xj) = ∏ p(yi + 1|yi) ∏ p(xj|yj)

Supervised Learning Decoding

Finding most probable label sequence y given the word sequence x. Brute Force Enumeration: This method is not feasible once there are too many label sequences. Viterbi Algorithm: Since the HMM has a simple dependence structure, we can exploit this in a dynamic programming algorithm.

1. We initialize π(0, u) 2. For j = 0..n - 1, 1 if u = START π(j + 1, u) = max{π(j, v) · bu(xj+1) · au,u} 3. Finally, π(n + 1, STOP) = max{π(n, v) · au,STOP} Time complexity: O((n - 1)T² + T) = O(nT²)

- T is the number of nodes in each column, and we carry out n-1 operations for each column.
- Calculation for each node is O(T), and do it for n * t nodes so it is O(T²).
- O(T) calculation at start and stop nodes.

Space complexity: O(nT) Unsupervised Learning

We can use EM algorithms to learn model parameters in an unsupervised manner. Hard EM M-step: Parameter estimation using MLE with labeled data from the E-step: Transmission Probability au,v = count(u,v)/count(u) Emission Probability bu(o) = count(u→o)/count(u)

Soft EM For soft EM, we must evaluate a posterior probability over possible tag sequences, so we cannot use Viterbi algorithm. E-step: Re-assign the partial memberships for each x^(i). In this case we would like to calculate expected counts, added across sequences: A distribution over possible ys count(u, v) = ∑ni=1 ∑y p(y|x^(i))count(x^(i), y, u → v)

The sum is over an exponential number of possible hidden state sequences y. How do we calculate such terms efficiently? Suppose we could efficiently calculate marginal posterior probabilities p(yj = u, yj+1 = v|x; θ) = ∑y:yj=u,yj+1=v p(y|x; θ)

for any u, v ∈ 0,...,N + 1, j ∈ 1,...,n. These are the posterior probabilities that the state in position j was u and we transitioned into v at the next step. The probability is conditioned on the observed sequence x and the current setting of the model parameters θ. Now, under this assumption,

∑y p(y|x^(i); θ)Count(x^(i), y, u → v) = ∑n p(yj = u, yj+1 = v|x^(i); θ)

Inference

To compute the posterior possibilities efficiently for any u ∈ 1...N, j ∈ 1...n, p(yj = u|x; θ) = p(yj = u, x; θ) / p(x; θ) = p(x1, x2,..., xj-1, yj = u, xj, xj+1,..., xn; θ) / p(x1, x2,..., xn; θ)

The Forward-backward Algorithm For every state sequence y1, y2,..., yn there is • A path through the graph (shown in class on the whiteboard) that has the sequence of states START, (1, y1), ..., (n, yn), STOP • The path associated with state sequence y = y1,..., yn has score equal to p(x,y; θ).

Going Forward Going Backward • αu(j) = the sum of the scores of all paths from START • βu(j) = the sum of the scores of all paths from node u at j to STOP. Given an input sequence x1,..., xn for any u ∈ 1,...,N, j ∈ 1,...,n the forward and backward probability can be calculated recursively.

Bayesian Networks are Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAG) over the variables. • We usually generate the graph from x1 first, and each node xi has a Conditional Probability Distribution P(Xi | arg P(Xi)) • If there is a directed edge from x1 → x3, then x1 is a parent of x3. And once we know the parents, we can write the probability distribution over all the variables with chain rule as

P(X1 = x1,..., Xd = xd) = ∏i=1d P(Xi = xi | arg P(Xi)) Table with Relationship, Y is not given, Y is given, and Are X and Z dependent? columns.

Learning Bayesian networks where θi(xi|xpai) are the probability tables that we must estimate. Def: the co-parents of a node are the parents of its children. Def: the Markov Blanket of a node is the set containing the node's parents, children, and co-parents. Thm: a node is conditionally independent of every other node in the graph given its Markov blanket.

Markov Blanket Diagram: Def: the co-parents of a node are the parents of its children. Example: The Markov Blanket of X6 is {X5, X8, X9, X10}. Repeating the procedure for each setting of xpai, and for different variables, yields the maximum likelihood parameter estimates θi(xi|xpai), i = 1,...,d.

Reinforcement Learning Problem: f : S → A Transition Probability • S: Set of States • Moving from one state to another state is not definite • A: Set of Actions • T(s, a, s') = p(s'|s, a) Reward • Incentivize a target state to be reached / not reached. • Can be positive (reward) / negative (penalty) • R(s, a, s'): Generally • R(s') : if the system only requires the target state to be reached.

Markov Decision Process Utility (Long Term Reward) • Maximizing the rewards alone is not sufficient to incentivise the program to reach the final state that you want. The program may infinitely loop around a few states • Hence we apply a discount γ to long-term rewards. U([s0, s1,..., sN,..., sN+k]) = U([s0, s1,..., sN]) ∀k ≥ 1

Value Iteration Policy Rmin / 1 - γ = ∑t=0∞ γ^t Rmin ≤ U([s0, s1, s2,...]) ≤ ∑t=0∞ γ^t Rmax = Rmax / 1 - γ

We first define the following • π(s): a particular policy that specifies the action we should take in state s • Vπ(s): The value of state s under policy π • Qπ(s, a): The Q-value of state s and action a under policy π

and the optimal version of them • π*(s): a particular policy that specifies the action we should take in state s • V*(s): The value of state s under the optimal policy π* • Q*(s, a): The Q-value of state s and action a under policy π* Q*(s, a) = ∑s' T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + γV*(s')] π*(s) = arg max_a Q*(s, a)

The Value Iteration Algorithm • Start with V0*(s) = 0, for all s ∈ S • Given Vi*, calculate the values for all states s ∈ S (depth i + 1): Vi+1*(s) ← max_a ∑s' T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + γVi*(s')] • Repeat the above until convergence (until Vi+1(s) is nearly Vi(s) for all states)

The convergence of this algorithm is guaranteed. Consider a simple MDP with a single state and a single action. Vi+1 = R + γVi V* = R + γV* (Vi+1 - V*) = γ(Vi - V*) Thus, after each iteration, the difference between the estimate and the optimal value decreases by a factor γ < 1. Hence the value for V converges to V*. Once the values are computed, we can turn them into the optimal policy:

Q*(s, a) = ∑s' T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + γV*(s')] Q*(s, a) ← max_a ∑s' T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + γ max_a' Q*(s', a)] π*(s) = arg max_a Q*(s, a)

The Q-Value Iteration Algorithm • Start with Q0*(s, a) = 0 for all s ∈ S, a ∈ A. • Given Qi*(s, a), calculate the Q-values for all states (depth i + 1) and for all actions a: Qi+1*(s, a) ← ∑s' T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + γ max_a' Qi*(s', a)] • Repeat the above step until convergence.

This algorithm has the same convergence guarantees as its value iteration counterpart. As before, the optimal policy can be easily recovered from the Q-values as:

π*(s) = arg max_a Q*(s, a) Model-based learning T(s, a, s') = Count(s, a, s') / Count(s, a) R(s, a, s') = ∑t Rt(s, a, s') / Count(s, a, s')

Now, we will consider a set-up where neither reward no transitions are known a priori. Model-free Learning Q-learning Algorithm • Collect a sample: s, a, s' and R(s, a, s'). • Update Q-values, by incorporating the new sample into a running average over samples: Q(s, a) ← (1 - α)Q(s, a) + α [R(s, a, s') + γ max_a' Q(s', a')] = Q(s, a) + α [R(s, a, s') + γ max_a' Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)] In fact, it has the same convergence conditions as the gradient ascent algorithm. Exploration/Exploitation Trade-Off In the Q-learning algorithm, we haven't specified how to select an action for a new sample. One option is to do it fully randomly. While this exploration strategy has a potential to cover a wide spectrum of possible actions, most likely it will select plenty of suboptimal actions, and leads to a poor exploration of the relevant (high reward) part of the state space.