HIDDEN MARKOV MODEL

References

- https://web.stanford.edu/~jurafsky/slp3/9.pdf
- http://www.robots.ox.ac.uk/~vgg/rg/papers/hmm. pdf

- What is a Markov chain
- A Markov chain is "a stochastic model describing a sequence of possible events in which the probability of each event depends only on the state attained in the previous event" – Wikipedia
- □ Think of a gambler: the possessed money can be viewed as a "state"
- The state changes over time

- Some notations
 - \square States: S_1, \dots, S_N
 - \blacksquare In each time instance ($t=1,\!2,\ldots,T$) a system changes to state q_t
- \square It is confusing about S_i and q_t
- Simple example
 - $S_1 = \text{hot}, S_2 = \text{cold} (N=2)$
 - $q_t \in \{\text{hot, cold}\}, T = 100$

For a special case of a first-order Markov chain,
 we have

$$P(q_t = S_j | q_{t-1} = S_k, q_{t-2} = S_m, q_{t-2} = S_n, ...)$$

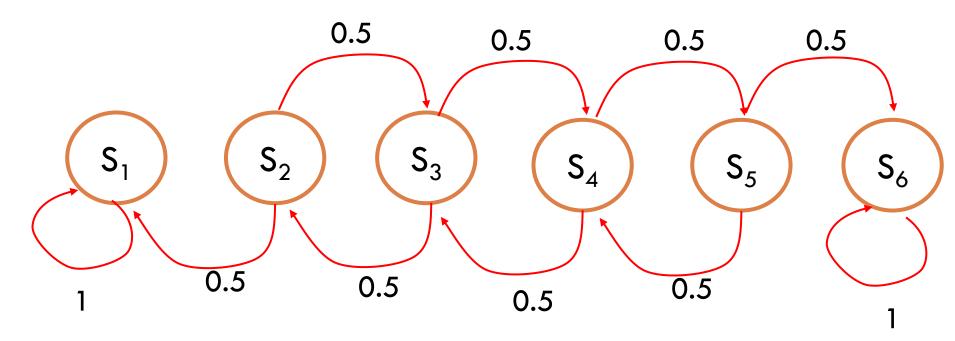
= $P(q_t = S_j | q_{t-1} = S_k)$

- lacksquare Probability from S_k to S_j is called state transition probability
- We further assume constant state transition probabilities (time independent)

- We use gambler's ruin problem as an example
 - A gambler has 3 dollars before playing
 - Play a fair game of coin flipping: Probability (win) = Probability (lose) = 0.5
 - Every bet is one dollar
 - Stop playing if he has 5 dollars in hand or if he has no money to play

- States = amount of money gambler has in hand
- How many states do we have
 - = \$ = 0, 1, ..., 5 (6 states)
- It is a first-order Markov chain because next state depends only on present state (but not the past history)
- Transition probability is time independent (fixed for every bet)

 \square We can draw a simple graph to illustrate the Markov chain ($S_j=j-1$ dollars in hand)

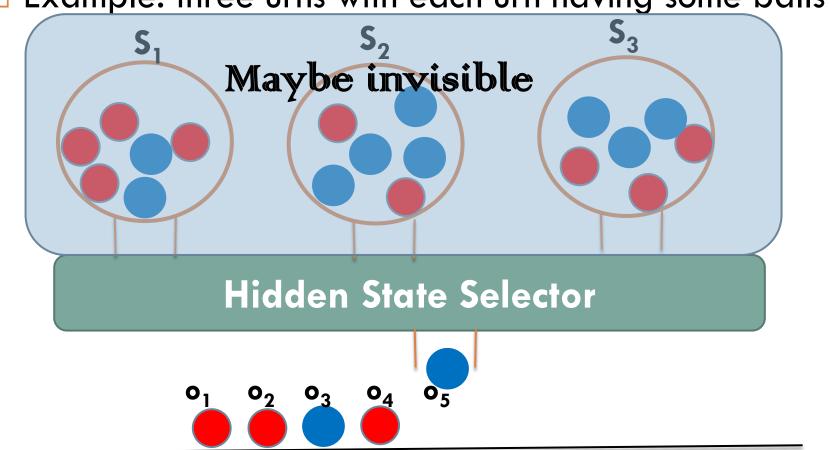


- □ From the figure we know $P(S_2|S_4) = 0$, but $P(S_5|S_4) = 0.5$
- \square Again, we confirm that the past history (how S_4 is arrived) does not affect the above conditional probability
- \square Exercise: Compute the probability the gambler will eventually broke (initially starting from S_4)

- □ FYI (For Your Information): If A has a dollars and B has b dollars to play the coin-tossing game till one side is broke, then $P(A \text{ win}) = \frac{a}{a+b}$
- It says if one has more money, he is more likely to survive (win) even if playing a "fair" game
- If you are interested in gambler's ruin problem, you can find lots of materials on Internet

- So, what is hidden Markov model (HMM)
- We are unable to observe "states"
 - We need to "guess" the number of states
- Each state will emit one observation symbol (over multiple possible symbols)
- Each state has different probability to emit one particular symbol
 - We may not know exact emission probabilities

Example: three urns with each urn having some balls



- A discrete hidden Markov model is characterized by the followings
 - N States $S = \{S_1, ..., S_N\}$ and M observations $V = \{v_1, ..., v_M\}$ (M = 2 in previous picture: red and blue)
 - State transition probability distribution A (matrix) with elements $P(q_{t+1} = S_i | q_t = S_i) = a_{ij}$
 - Observation symbol probability distribution B with elements $P(o_t = v_k | q_t = S_i) = b_{ik}$
 - lacksquare Initial state distribution $\pi = [\pi_1, \dots, \pi_N]$

- □ To simplify the matters, we sometimes use
 - $\square Q = q_1 \dots q_T$ (a sequence of states)
 - \blacksquare O= $o_1 \dots o_T$ (a sequence of observations, $o_k \in \{v_1, \dots, v_M\}$)

Three basic problems in HMM

- **Evaluation problem:** To find the probability of the observation sequence $0 = o_1 \dots o_T$ given the model $\lambda = (A, B, \pi)$
- Decoding problem: Given observation sequence $0=o_1\dots o_T$ and model $\lambda=(A,B,\pi)$, how do we choose a corresponding state sequence $Q=q_1\dots q_T$ which is optimal in some sense, i.e., best explains the observations

Three basic problems in HMM

- Training (learning) problem: Given the observation sequence $0=o_1\dots o_T$, how do we adjust the model parameters $\lambda=(A,B,\pi)$ to maximize $P(\lambda|O)$
- □ These problems are related to each other

- □ Previous picture with known A & B: O=RRBRB
- Brute force method: (enumerate all possibilities)

$$q_1 = S_1$$
, $q_2 = S_1$, $q_3 = S_1$, $q_4 = S_1$, $q_5 = S_1$
 $P_1 = \pi_1 \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{2}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{2}{6}\right)$

R

R

R

B

R

$$q_1 = S_1, q_2 = S_1, q_3 = S_1, q_4 = S_1, q_5 = S_2$$

$$P_2 = \pi_1 \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{2}{6}\right) a_{11} \left(\frac{4}{6}\right) a_{12} \left(\frac{4}{6}\right)$$

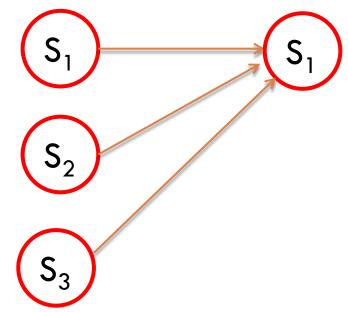
- Still many more possibilities not listed (how many?)
 - We need to add all of the possible probabilities
 - \blacksquare Computational burden is high (2 TN^T multiplicatoins)
- What can be done to reduce the computation
- \square Simplify the problem (T = 2) and $q_2 = S_1$
- □ We need to consider the followings: $q_1 = S_1$, $q_2 = S_1$, $q_1 = S_2$, $q_2 = S_1$, $q_1 = S_3$, $q_2 = S_1$

 \square Therefore, P =

$$\pi_1 b_{1R} a_{11} b_{1R} + \pi_2 b_{2R} a_{21} b_{1R} + \pi_3 b_{3R} a_{13} b_{1R}$$

$$= (\pi_1 b_{1R} a_{11} + \pi_2 b_{2R} a_{21} + \pi_3 b_{3R} a_{13}) b_{1R}$$

Graphical illustration



- □ Probability of $q_2 = S_1$ (@ t = 2) is solved by adding probabilities in t = 1
- □ Therefore, by adding probabilities for each state at time (t-1) multiplied with transition probabilities, we have the probability of one state at time t
- We can solve this problem efficiently by incrementally computing partial (probability) product terms

- The approach we used previously is called dynamic programming: a method for solving a complex problem by breaking it down into a collection of simpler subproblems, solving each of those subproblems just once, and storing their solutions to next use -- Wikipedia
- Therefore, saving computation time at the expense of using larger storage space

- Define forward variable $\alpha_j(t)$ as the probability of the partial observation sequence until time t with $q_t = S_j$
- □ Formal definition $\alpha_j(t) = P(o_1 ... o_t, q_t = S_j | \lambda)$
- □ Final probability is: $P(O|\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i(T)$
 - $\square \alpha_i(T)$ is path probability terminated to state i at t = T
 - Above equation is summing over all possible states at time t = T

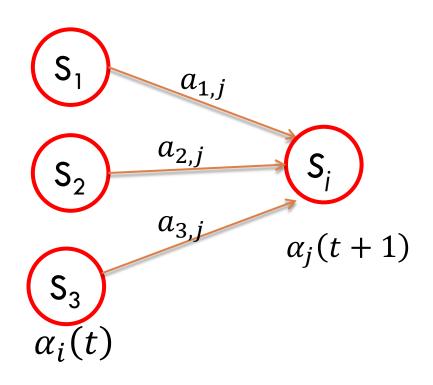
Forward algorithm:

- $\square \alpha_j(t=1) = \pi_j b_{jo_1}$
 - Recall b_{jo_1} is probability o_1 observed for S_j
 - o_1 = R in previous picture

$$\square \alpha_j(t+1) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_{i,j}\alpha_i(t)\right) b_{jo_{(t+1)}}$$

 \square Complexity: N^2T

$$\square$$
 Why $\alpha_j(t+1) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_{i,j}\alpha_i(t)\right)b_{j,o_{(t+1)}}$



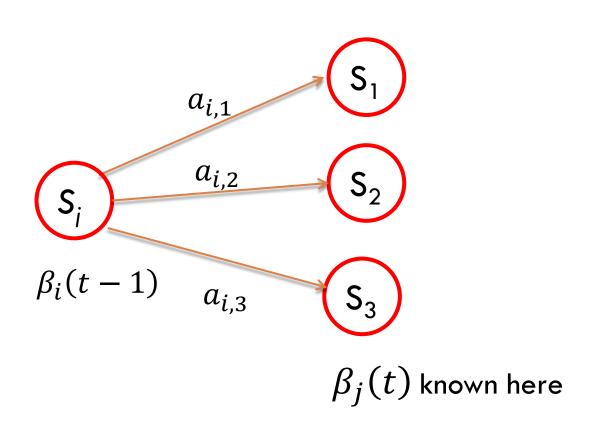
- Define backward variable $\beta_j(t)$ as the probability of the partial observation sequence from time (t+1) to the end (i.e., t = T) with $q_t = S_i$
- Formal definition

$$\beta_i(t) = P(o_{t+1}o_{t+2} \dots o_T | q_t = S_i, \lambda)$$

- Backward algorithm has the same complexity as forward algorithm
- For evaluation problem, either algorithm is OK

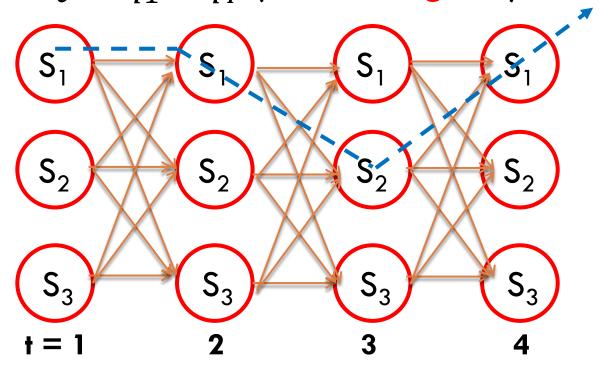
- Backward algorithm:
 - \square $\beta_i(T)=1$ (arbitrarily defined, as we do not have o_{T+1})
 - $\square \beta_i(t-1) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} b_{jo_t} \beta_j(t)$
- If either forward or backward is OK in evaluation problem, why bother to mention backward algorithm
- It will be used in training problem

□ Why
$$\beta_i(t-1) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij}b_{jo_t}\beta_j(t)$$



- \square Justification of $\beta_i(T)=1$
- \square At t = T = 5, we just need to consider emit probabilities
- \square Therefore, no need to worry about $\beta_i(\cdot)$ for t=5
- □ Numerical problem: $\beta_3(t=4) = a_{31}\left(\frac{2}{6}\right)$ $+a_{32}\left(\frac{4}{6}\right) + a_{33}\left(\frac{3}{6}\right)$

Given $\lambda = (A, B, \pi)$ and a sequence of observations $0 = o_1 \dots o_T$, find the most probable sequence of states $Q = q_1 \dots q_T$ (Trellis diagram)



- □ Formally, we define the problem as $\max P(Q|O,\lambda) = \max P(Q,O|\lambda)$
- Brute force method: Find all possible paths and compute probability for each path
 - Not possible because too many paths to evaluate
- Keep only the best path in each time step to reduce complexity -- again dynamic programming
- Also known as Viterbi decoder in communications

Consider a simple numerical example:

$$\pi = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

- \square At time t = 1, $o_1 = R$
- □ From previous picture, we have

$$P(o_1|S_1) = \frac{4}{6}, P(o_1|S_2) = \frac{2}{6}, P(o_1|S_3) = \frac{3}{6}$$

□ Assume $a_{11} = 0.5$, $a_{12} = 0.3$, $a_{13} = 0.2$. We know (2/9) * 0.5 is largest, so discard the other two paths

$$(4/6)^{*}(1/3) = S_{1} \qquad 0.5$$

$$(2/6)^{*}(1/3) = S_{2} \qquad 0.3$$

$$(2/6)^{*}(1/3) = S_{2} \qquad 0.2$$

$$(3/6)^{*}(1/3) = S_{3} \qquad \delta_{1}(t = 2) = 0$$

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$$(2/6)^{*}(1/3) = S_{3} \qquad \delta_{2}(t = 2)$$

Use math to formally write down the idea

$$\delta_j(t) = \max_{q_1, \dots, q_{t-1}} P(q_1 \dots q_t = S_j, o_1 \dots o_t | \lambda)$$

- Decoding algorithm
 - lacksquare Initial step: $\delta_j(t=1)=\pi_j b_{jo_1}$
- With backtracking (keeping the maximizing argument for each t and j) we find the optimal solution

Training problem

- \Box Given the observation sequence $0=o_1\dots o_T$, how do we adjust the model parameters $\lambda=(A,B,\pi)$ to maximize $P(\lambda|0)$
 - we need to provide the number of states (not a learnable parameter)
- We are only able to find local optimal solution (not global optimal)

Training problem

- The algorithm can iteratively update model parameters, but need initial estimation of parameters to begin with
- Training algorithm
 - Forward-backward (or Baum-Welch)
 - A special expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm
 - Iteratively train transition probability (A) and emission probability (B)

Training problem

- Ignore emission probability at this moment
- Max likelihood estimation for A is

$$a_{ij} = \frac{C(i \to j)}{\sum_{q \in Q} C(i \to q)} = \frac{\text{\# times } i \to j}{\text{\# times } i \to \text{any state}}$$

- But we cannot observe state transition directly (recall what HMM stands for)
- \square We use $\hat{a}_{ij} = \frac{\text{expected } \# \text{ transition } i \to j}{\text{expected } \# \text{ transition from } i}$

- □ Define $\xi_{ij}(t) = P(q_t = S_i, q_{t+1} = S_j | O, \lambda)$
 - Meaning: Prob from S_i at time t to S_j at time (t+1) for given observation
 - Will explain how to compute it later
- \Box Therefore, for a given time t $\hat{a}_{ij} = \frac{\xi_{ij}(t)}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_{in}(t)}$
- Summing over all time, we have

$$\hat{a}_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_{ij}(t)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_{in}(t)}$$

- We can also compute emission matrix
- $\square \ \hat{b}_{jk} = \frac{\text{expected \# of times in state } j \text{ and observing } o_k}{\text{expecte \# of times in state } j}$
- □ We know expecte # of times in state j is equal to expected # transition from j
- So, we can reuse previous equation, but summing to T instead of (T-1)

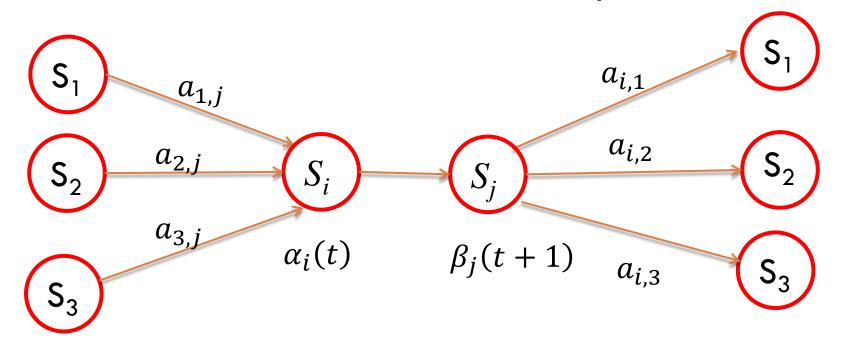
expecte # of times in state
$$j = \sum_{t=1}^{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_{in}(t)$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{b}_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_{jn}(t)\right) \ell(o_t == v_k)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi_{jn}(t)}$$
where $\ell(\exp) = \begin{cases} 1, \exp is \ true \\ 0, \exp is \ false \end{cases}$

 \square Sometimes, we define $\gamma_j(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \xi_{jn}(t)$ to simplify the expression

- \square How to find $\xi_{ij}(t)$
- \Box $\xi_{ij}(t) = \text{Prob. from } S_i \text{ at time } t \text{ to } S_j \text{ at time } (t+1)$



$$\text{Wek know } \xi_{ij}(t) = P(q_t = S_i, q_{t+1} = S_j | O, \lambda) = \frac{\alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}}{P(O|\lambda)}$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N}\sum_{j=1}^{N}\alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}}$$

Recall

$$\gamma_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \xi_{ij}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}$$

However,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i(t)\beta_j(t)$$

(Meaning: summing over all possible paths)

Therefore, we have the following equations for learning algorithm

Iterative training algorithm

$$\xi_{ij}(t) = \frac{\alpha_{i}(t)\beta_{j}(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jo_{t+1}}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N}\alpha_{n}(t)\beta_{n}(t)}$$

$$\gamma_{i}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N}\xi_{ij}(t)$$

$$\hat{a}_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\xi_{ij}(t)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\gamma_{i}}$$

$$\hat{\pi}_{i} = \gamma_{i}(1)$$

$$\hat{b}_{jk} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T}(\gamma_{j}(t)\ell(o_{t} = v_{k}))}{\sum_{t=1}^{T}\gamma_{i}}$$

Numerical example

- A good numerical example is available at
 http://cs.jhu.edu/~jason/papers/eisner.hmm.xls
- You may want to download and carefully study it
- One word of caution: the author of the excel file made a small mistake in the computation
- Check out what is wrong (exercise)

Continuous HMM

- Can extend discrete HMM to continuous HMM
- Each state emits a continuous value
- Emission probability is modeled by GMM
- Therefore, in continuous case: (one state HMM) = GMM
- This part is Important ... but do not have time to fully cover it

Using HMM

- To use HMM, we need to train one model per class data
- For example, to classify IRIS data, we need three models (individually trained) --- Note: it is only for explanation, not real case
- In reality, HMM is used only to deal with time-series data (data related to time)
- Example: previously we used HMM to classify audio segments with or without singing voices

Using HMM

- For classification, we feed the test sample to all trained HMM models
- The model provides highest likelihood (recall Viterbi decoder) is the winner
- The test sample is labeled as the class of the winner

Using continuous HMM

- Proper parameter initialization is very important
- Normalization sometimes is also very important
- How to determine the number of states and number of mixers also important
- Sometimes using canned programs may encounter error messages, such as "negative probability" or matrix not invertible (covariance, remember GMM?)
- Need to deal with these problems