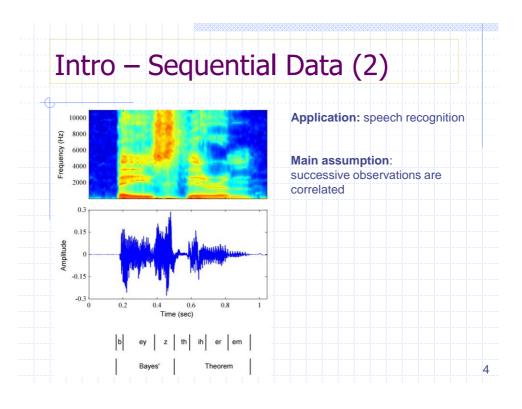


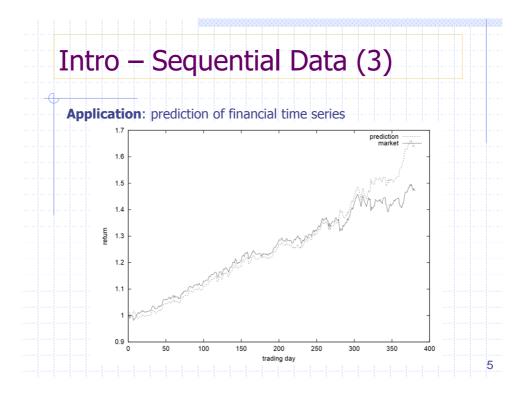
Intro – Sequential Data (1)

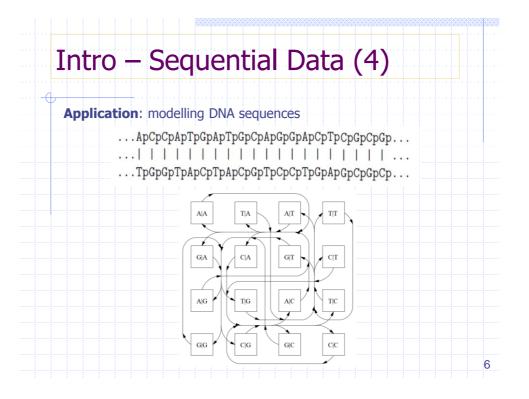
So far we have focused on sets of data points that were assumed to be **independent and identically distributed** (i.i.d.)

For many applications, the i.i.d. assumption is a bad one – such as when modelling **sequential data**

Sequential data often refer to **time series**, although they also cover other data types (e.g. DNA sequences, text)







Intro – Sequential Data (5)

General assumptions:

- Modelling the next value in a sequence given observations of previous values
- Recent observations are likely to be more informative than historical observations
- Stationarity (model does not change/evolve over time)

But it's impractical to make a future observation depend on all previous observations (model would be too complex!)

7

Markov Models (1)

The simplest way to model a sequence of observations is to treat them as independent:









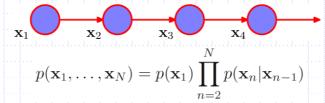
But this would fail to exploit the correlations between neighbouring observations – e.g. observing whether or not it rains today can help predicting if it will rain tomorrow.

We can relax the i.i.d. assumption by considering a Markov model:

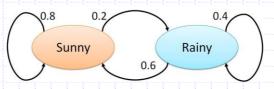
$$p(\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_{n-1})$$



If we assume that each current observation only depends on the most recent ("Markov assumption"), we obtain a **first-order**Markov chain:

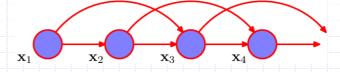


State transition diagram for a 2-state Markov chain:



Markov Models (3)

We can also define a **second-order Markov chain**:



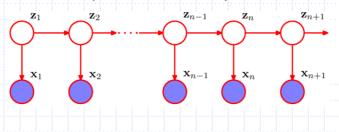
We can similarly consider extensions to an **M-th order Markov** chain...

...but there is a computational price for this increased flexibility. If we assume K states, then such a model would have ${\sf K}^{\sf M-1}({\sf K-1})$ parameters.

Hidden Markov Models (1)

We can however create a model for sequences not limited by the Markov assumption, using only a limited number of parameters.

This can be achieved by introducing **latent variables** – linking each observation with a hidden state (which might be of a different type or dimensionality than the observation).

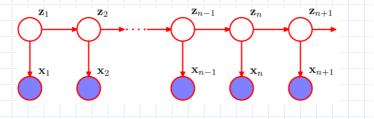


Hidden Markov Models (2)

The joint distribution for this model is given by:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N, \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_N) = p(\mathbf{z}_1) \left[\prod_{n=2}^N p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{z}_{n-1}) \right] \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

- If the latent variables are discrete, we obtain a Hidden Markov Model (HMM)
- If the latent variables are continuous, we obtain a **State Space Model (SSM)**



Hidden Markov Models (3)

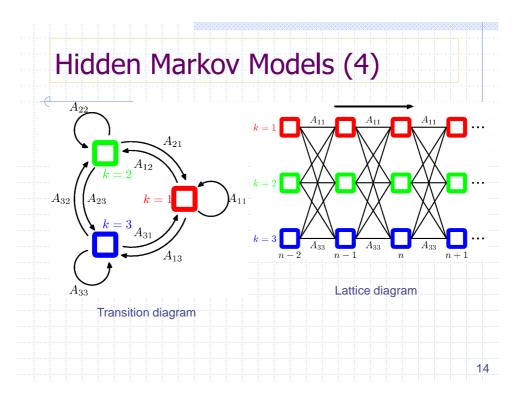
Elements of a HMM:

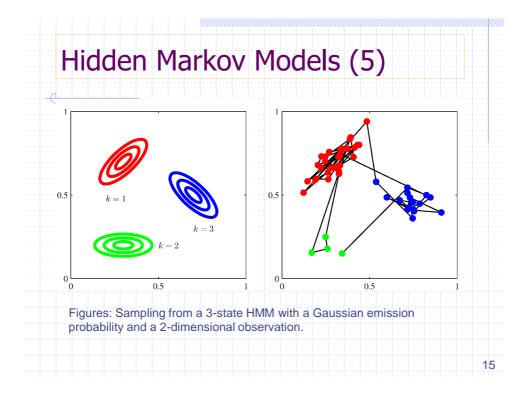
- 1. Transition probabilities A: $A_{jk} \equiv p(z_{nk} = 1 | z_{n-1,j} = 1)$
- 2. Prior probabilities: $\pi_k \equiv p(z_{1k} = 1)$
- 3. Emission/observation probabilities (from $p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n)$)

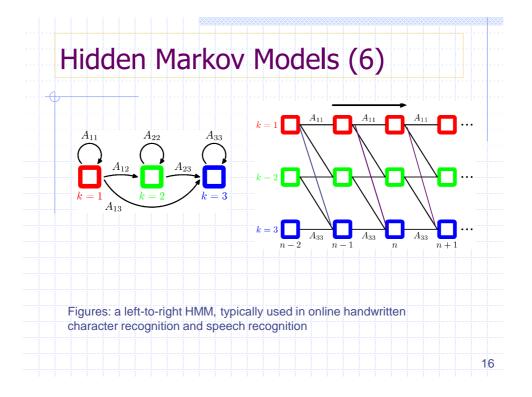
If the observations are **discrete**, the emission probabilities B are a conditional probability table: $p(\mathbf{x}_t = l | z_t = k, \theta) = B(k, l)$

If the observations are **continuous**, $p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n)$ can be modelled by a Gaussian: $p(\mathbf{x}_t|z_t=k,\theta)=\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_t|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k,\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$

(k is a state value index, e.g. z_{11} denotes the prior probability of latent variable z_1 assuming its first discrete value)







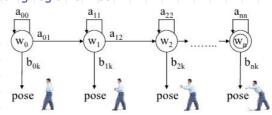
Hidden Markov Models (7)

HMM applications

Automatic speech recognition: x = features extracted from the speech signal, z = words being spoken

Activity recognition: x = features extracted from the video frames, z = class of activity the person is engaged (e.g. walking)

Part of speech tagging: x = words, z = part of speech (e.g. noun)
 Gene finding: x = DNA nucleotides (e.g. G), z = whether it is inside a gene-coding region or not.



17

Learning for HMMs (1)

Learning for HMMs:

How to estimate the parameters $\theta = (\pi, A, B)$ given observations

e.g. given a sequence of speech data, can we estimate transition and observation probabilities for words?

The most common approach is to use the EM algorithm - when applied to HMMs it is also called the **Baum-Welch algorithm**.

Expectation step:

$$\gamma(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}})$$
$$\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}})$$

Learning for HMMs (2)

$$\pi_k = \frac{\gamma(z_{1k})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \gamma(z_{1j})}$$

Maximization step:
$$\pi_k = \frac{\gamma(z_{1k})}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^K \gamma(z_{1j})} \qquad A_{jk} = \frac{\sum\limits_{n=2}^N \xi(z_{n-1,j},z_{nk})}{\sum\limits_{l=1}^K \sum\limits_{n=2}^N \xi(z_{n-1,j},z_{nl})}$$

Updating Gaussian emission densities:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk}) \mathbf{x}_{n}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk})} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k}) (\mathbf{x}_{n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{k})^{\mathrm{T}}}{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \gamma(z_{nk})}$$

Learning for HMMs (3)

But how to compute the posteriors in the expectation step?

$$\gamma(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}})
\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}})$$

There is an efficient procedure, in terms of O(K2N), called the forward-backward algorithm.

The hidden state posterior can be expressed as a product of a "forward probability" with a "backward probability":

$$\gamma(\mathbf{z}_n) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n) p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \mathbf{z}_n)}{p(\mathbf{X})} = \frac{\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n) \beta(\mathbf{z}_n)}{p(\mathbf{X})}$$

where

$$\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n) \equiv p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n) \quad \beta(\mathbf{z}_n) \equiv p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

Learning for HMMs (4)

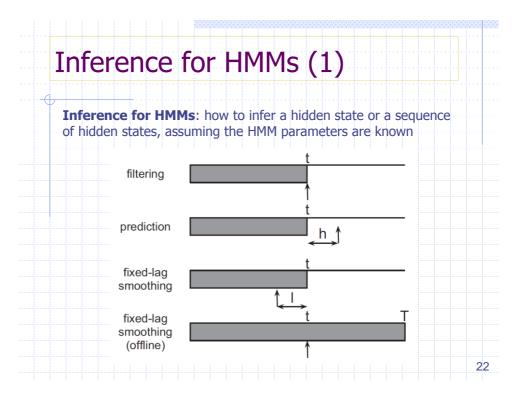
The forward and backward probabilities can be calculated recursively:

$$\alpha(\mathbf{z}_n) = p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n) \sum_{\mathbf{z}_{n-1}} \alpha(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}) p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{z}_{n-1})$$
$$\beta(\mathbf{z}_n) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}_{n+1}} \beta(\mathbf{z}_{n+1}) p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1} | \mathbf{z}_{n+1}) p(\mathbf{z}_{n+1} | \mathbf{z}_n)$$

And we can now update the posterior for the transitions:

$$\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = \frac{\alpha(\mathbf{z}_{n-1})p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n)p(\mathbf{z}_n|\mathbf{z}_{n-1})\beta(\mathbf{z}_n)}{p(\mathbf{X})}$$

...and this is how an HMM can be trained!



Inference for HMMs (2)

Prediction (for observations):

Let us assume that we have observed data $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ and we wish to predict the next observation, i.e. \mathbf{x}_{N+1}

This can be done using the forward probability:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{N+1}|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{X})} \sum_{\mathbf{z}_{N+1}} p(\mathbf{x}_{N+1}|\mathbf{z}_{N+1}) \sum_{\mathbf{z}_N} p(\mathbf{z}_{N+1}|\mathbf{z}_N) \alpha(\mathbf{z}_N)$$

(used frequently in financial forecasting)

23

Inference for HMMs (3)

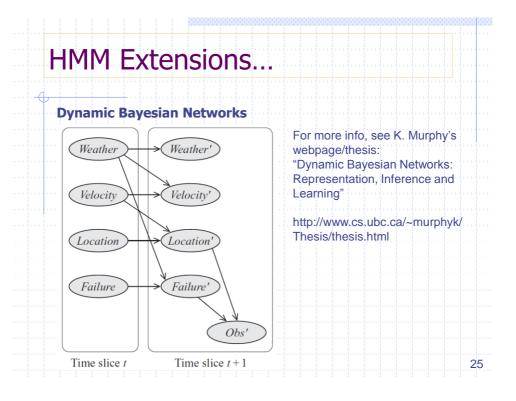
MAP estimation (Viterbi):

Let us assume that we have observed data $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ and we wish to estimate the most probable sequence of states:

$$\mathbf{z}^* = \arg\max_{\mathbf{z}_{1:T}} p(\mathbf{z}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_{1:T})$$

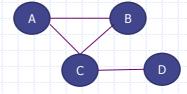
This problem can be solved efficiently using the **Viterbi** algorithm.

Note: the (jointly) most probable sequence of states is not necessarily the same as the sequence of (individually) most probable states



Conditional Random Fields Undirected graphical model (i.e. based on a Markov network rather than a Bayesian network)

Markov network (undirected and possibly cyclic)



Related to Hopfield networks and Restricted Boltzmann Machines...

State Space Models (1)

A **state space model (SSM)** is just like an HMM, except the hidden states are continuous.

An SSM can be written in the following generic form:

$$\mathbf{z}_t = g(\mathbf{u}_t, \mathbf{z}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_t)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = h(\mathbf{z}_t, \mathbf{u}_t, \boldsymbol{\delta}_t)$$

- z, is a hidden state
- u, is an optional input or control signal
- y, is the observation
- g is the transition model
- h is the observation/emission model
- ε, is the system noise
- δ_t is the observation noise

27

State Space Models (2)

An important special case of an SSM is where all the CPDs are Gaussian and the transition/observation models are linear functions. This is called a **linear dynamical system (LDS).**

Applications of SSMs:

- Object tracking
- Simultaneous localisation and mapping (SLAM) robotics

