

Estimation Maximization Algorithm with Applications

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Abstract

1 Introduction

2 Development and Derivations

2.1 Introduction of the Algorithm

In several stochastic systems, statisticians are tasked with the *latent variable problem*. In this problem, practitioners attempt to model random variables that are not explicitly observable. To overcome this problem, inferential statements are made about the latent variables by examining random variables and the data they generated that are linked to the variables of interest. This indirect line of inference is seen in several statistical models such as the hidden Markov model, mixture modeling, and mixed effect modeling in which all methods rely on the structure connecting the latent variable space with the observable data. This connection is the core foundation of the Estimation Maximization (EM) algorithm which we will now develop.

Formally, the EM algorithm creates a sequence of estimates $\{\theta^{(r)}\}_{r=0}^{\infty}$ that are guaranteed to converge to the MLE estimate, θ_{MLE} . For complete data situations (i.e. no latent variables or missing data), the algorithm is entirely derivative due to the arsenal of statistical techniques that already exist for maximum likelihood estimation. In the incomplete data situations (i.e. latent variables or missing), however, these techniques breakdown. One simple solution to this problem is to disregard the missing data and find the MLE on the incomplete dataset. This naive approach however is not desirable as it disregards the true structure of the underlying problem. In this case, EM algorithm proves very useful as it connects the desired incomplete data likelihood with the complete data likelihood in which we are quite comfortable handling. Specifically, for the incomplete data $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n)$ and the missing data $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$, then by the law of total probability we have the relationship

$$g(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \int f(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}|\theta) dx$$

where $g(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$ is the incomplete data density and $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta)$ is the complete data density both parametrized by θ . From here we can define the respective likelihoods as $L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) = g(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$ and $L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta)$.

The power of the EM algorithm is that it allows us to maximize the incomplete data likelihood $L(\theta|\mathbf{y})$ through our knowledge of $L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$. First, let $k(x)$ be some distribution over the missing data \mathbf{x} . Then by Jensen's Inequality we see that

$$\begin{aligned}
\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) &= \log \int L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) dx \\
&= \log \int k(x) \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{k(x)} dx \\
&\geq \int k(x) \log \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{k(x)} dx \\
&= \int k(x) \log L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) dx - \int k(x) \log k(x) dx \\
&= \mathbb{E}_{k(\mathbf{x})}[\log L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})] - \mathbb{E}_{k(\mathbf{x})}[\log k(\mathbf{x})]
\end{aligned}$$

From this we see that we can bound the incomplete data likelihood by the complete data likelihood minus some term¹ to account for the variability in our estimates of \mathbf{X} . But recall that Jensen's Inequality gives equality when the argument is constant with respect to $\mathbb{E}_{k(\mathbf{x})}(\cdot)$. Therefore we see that we can make this inequality an equality for $k(\mathbf{x}) \propto L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta)$. We now construct a distribution for the missing data \mathbf{x} that has this property.

$$k(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta)}{\int f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta) dx} = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}|\theta)}{g(\mathbf{y}|\theta)} = h(\mathbf{x}|\theta, \mathbf{y})$$

which is the conditional distribution of the missing data on the observed data. By construction the quantity $\frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{h(\mathbf{x}|\theta, \mathbf{y})} = g(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$ is constant with respect to \mathbf{x} . Therefore, we see that Jensen's Inequality gives us equality. Using this notation we have that

$$\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta} \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\log h(\mathbf{X}|\theta, \mathbf{y}) | \mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta} \right] \quad (1)$$

We can interpret this representation of the likelihood as a decomposition. That is the likelihood of the incomplete data can be written as the complete data likelihood with some reduction due to the stochasticity of the hidden variables in \mathbf{X} . Therefore, we see that maximum likelihood estimation is equivalent to maximizing this difference in expectation. As we will see in the next section, it is actually sufficient to maximize $\mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta} \right]$ and disregard the second term in equation (1) to ensure that $L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}) \geq L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y})$. With this piece of information, we can write the algorithm as follows.

1. Initialize $\theta^{(0)}$ to some randomly selected value.
2. Until convergence
 - (a) (**E Step**) Estimate $Q(\theta|\theta^{(r)}) := \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right]$
 - (b) (**M Step**) Set $\theta^{(r+1)} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} Q(\theta|\theta^{(r)})$

Having defined the machinery driving the EM algorithm, we now turn to the monotonicity of the likelihood function evaluated at $\theta^{(r)}$ and the convergence guarantees that follow.

2.2 Monotonicity of the EM Estimates

When analyzing the EM algorithm a natural first question is what is the behavior of the likelihood when evaluated at the constructed sequence $\{\theta^{(r)}\}_{r=0}^{\infty}$? As we will see, in the limit we have $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \theta^{(r)} = \hat{\theta}_{MLE}$ but understanding the behavior of $L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y})$ will also prove useful. Our next result shows exactly how this sequence behaves which helps imply the convergence of the EM algorithm.

¹Technically, this term is the *entropy* of the missing data distribution $k(\mathbf{x})$

Lemma 1. For densities $f(\cdot)$ and $g(\cdot)$ such that $f(x) > 0$ and $g(x) > 0$, we have

$$\int g(x) \log f(x) dx \leq \int g(x) \log g(x) dx$$

Proof. Recall by Jensen's inequality, that for a concave function $h(\cdot)$ we have

$$\mathbb{E}[h(x)] \leq h[\mathbb{E}(x)]$$

Now, since \log is a concave function, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \log \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) g(x) dx &= \mathbb{E}_{g(X)} \left[\log \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] \\ &\leq \log \left[\mathbb{E} \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) \right] \\ &= \log \left(\int \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} g(x) dx \right) \\ &= \log \left(\int f(x) dx \right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Using this with the property of logs, we arrive at our desired result.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \log \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) g(x) dx &\leq 0 \\ \int g(x) \log f(x) dx - \int g(x) \log g(x) dx &\leq 0 \\ \int g(x) \log f(x) dx &\leq \int g(x) \log g(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

□

Having this lemma, we are ready to give the monotonicity result.

Theorem 2. The sequence $\{\theta^{(r)}\}_{r=0}^{\infty}$ given by the EM algorithm satisfies

$$L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}) \geq L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y})$$

Proof. It suffices to show $\log L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}) \geq \log L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y})$. Recall by (1), with $\tilde{\theta} = \theta^{(r)}$ we can represent the log-likelihood as

$$\log L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\log h(\mathbf{X}|\theta^{(r)}, \mathbf{y}) | \mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right]$$

Recall that we defined $\theta^{(r+1)} := \arg \max_{\theta} \mathbb{E} [\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)}]$. Hence we immediately see that for any $\theta \in \Theta$

$$\mathbb{E} [\log L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta}] \geq \mathbb{E} [\log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta}]$$

Now considering right term in (1), we note by the Lemma

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} [\log h(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{y}, \theta) | \tilde{\theta}, \mathbf{y}] &= \int \log h(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{y}, \theta) h(\mathbf{X}|\tilde{\theta}, \mathbf{y}) dx \\ &\leq \int \log h(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta}) h(\mathbf{X}|\tilde{\theta}, \mathbf{y}) dx \\ &= \mathbb{E} [\log h(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{y}, \tilde{\theta}) | \tilde{\theta}, \mathbf{y}] \end{aligned}$$

Let $\tilde{\theta} = \theta^{(r)}$. Then, letting $\theta^{(r)} = \theta$ for the first inequality and letting $\theta = \theta^{(r+1)}$ in the second inequality, we arrive at our solution.

$$\begin{aligned} L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y}) &= \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta^{(r)}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\log h(\mathbf{X}|\theta^{(r)}, \mathbf{y})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] \\ &\leq \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\log h(\mathbf{X}|\theta^{(r)}, \mathbf{y})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] \\ &\leq \mathbb{E} \left[\log L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[\log h(\mathbf{X}|\theta^{(r+1)}, \mathbf{y})|\mathbf{y}, \theta^{(r)} \right] \\ &= L(\theta^{(r+1)}|\mathbf{y}) \end{aligned}$$

□

3 Comparison to Other Methods

3.1 Connection to Kullback–Leibler Divergence

The EM algorithm iteratively uses the connection between the complete data likelihood and the incomplete data likelihood to find optimal estimates of θ . Upon investigation of the way in which these likelihoods are related, we see there is a rich, information theoretic interpretation of the EM algorithm. In the derivation of (1) we used properties of Jensen’s inequality to arrive at a sharp bound on the incomplete data likelihood. However, if we consider the difference of the quantities given by Jensen’s, we recognize a familiar form. Consider the following difference.

$$\begin{aligned} \log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) - \int k(x) \log \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{k(x)} dx &= \int k(x) \log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) dx - \int k(x) \log \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{k(x)} dx \\ &= \int k(x) \log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) dx - \int k(x) \log \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{y})h(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}, \theta)}{k(x)} dx \\ &= \int k(x) \log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) dx - \int k(x) \log L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) dx - \int k(x) \log \frac{h(\mathbf{x})}{k(x)} dx \\ &= KL(k||h) \end{aligned}$$

From this derivation we see that from Jensen’s inequality, the information we lose is exactly the KL divergence of k from h , the conditional distribution of the missing data. This motivates the decomposition

$$L(\theta|\mathbf{y}) = \int k(x) \log \frac{L(\theta|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{k(x)} dx + KL(k||h) \quad (2)$$

Now notice that $KL(k||h) = 0$ if and only if $k \stackrel{a.s.}{=} h$. Therefore, when we set $k(x) = h(x|\theta, \mathbf{y})$ we are actually *minimizing the KL divergence*. Recall that Maximum Likelihood estimation can also be formulated as minimizing the KL divergence. Hence we can view the EM algorithm as a method to replace a single, difficult, maximum likelihood problem with a sequence of easier to maximum likelihood problems. Moreover, we see that each $\theta^{(r)}$ is a maximum likelihood estimate. Therefore, each estimate in the sequence inherits the properties of maximum likelihood estimates such as invariance. While EM was specifically constructed to solve a single maximum likelihood problem, the sequence of estimates it constructs even has desirable properties.

3.2 Variational Bayes

In several ways, Variational Bayes is the Bayesian equivalent to the Estimation Maximization algorithm. In a Bayesian setting, we do not fix the unknown parameters θ . Instead, the parameters to the model are random

variables and the data are fixed constants that inform our inference about the hidden variables. Therefore the Bayesian approach to the hidden variable problem includes both the parameters θ and the hidden variables \mathbf{X} as parameters to the model. In this framework we look to maximize the *marginal likelihood* of the data given by $\log f(\mathbf{y}) = \log \int f(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$ where $\mathbf{Z} = (\theta, \mathbf{X})$. As in the frequentist setting, this problem can be quite difficult. Instead Variational Bayes turns to maximizing simpler functions that serve as a lower bound on the marginal likelihood function. One can show using Jensen's inequality

$$\log f(\mathbf{y}) \geq \int k(\mathbf{Z}) \log \frac{f(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})}{k(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z}$$

Moreover, again we see that considering the difference between these two quantities gives rise the decomposition

$$\log f(\mathbf{y}) = \int k(\mathbf{z}) \log \frac{f(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y})}{k(\mathbf{z})} d\mathbf{z} + KL(k||h) \quad (3)$$

where $h(\cdot)$ is the true posterior distribution of \mathbf{Z} . Hence this maximization procedure is equivalent to minimizing the KL distance of the approximating distribution k and the true posterior distribution h . Recall that in the EM algorithm, the maximization step gave a single point estimate, $\theta^{(r)}$, which was equal to the missing data log likelihood at that point. The only difference in Variational Bayes is that we seek a *distribution*, k , that maximizes the lower bound or equivalently minimizes $KL(k||h)$. Therefore, if we let, $\tilde{k}(\mathbf{Z}) = \delta(\mathbf{Z} - \mathbf{Z}^*)$ be the point mass over the point \mathbf{Z}^* where the lower bound is equal to the marginal distribution, $\log f(\mathbf{y})$, our estimation procedure defines a sequence of estimates that are monotonically increasing to the mean mean of the true posterior distribution. But recall that this was exactly our approach in the EM algorithm. Therefore, we see that Variational Bayes reduces to the EM algorithm when we only consider Dirac Delta distributions in the maximization portion of the algorithm.

4 Applications

4.1 Exponential Family

4.2 Mixture Modeling

In several statistical applications, practitioners encounter data that is aggregated over multiple populations. In classification problems, statisticians attempt to partition their data into clusters that represent the latent population structure of the data. In this setting we consider the labels for each data point as *missing data* and use the EM algorithm to recover the latent subpopulation structure. Here we will consider the case where there are two subpopulations.

In order to formalize this problem, let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be densities and let p be the probability be an unknown probability. Then given a sample $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ from the mixture

$$\mathbf{X} \sim pf(x) + (1 - p)g(x)$$

an inferential task of interest is recovering the value of p from the sample \mathbf{X} . We anticipate that each X_i contains information about either $f(x)$ or $g(x)$ and p . But if we fail to attribute each X_i to its corresponding density, we will be inferring properties of p with an erroneous assumption from our sample. If we somehow knew the corresponding density for each X_i our estimation procedure would be straight forward. We will use EM to address this missing data problem.

Let $\mathbf{Z} = (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n)$ be the associated latent variable which determines which distribution X_i follows.

Formally, our model can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} Z_i &\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Bern}(p) \\ X_i|Z_i = 1 &\sim f(x) \\ X_i|Z_i = 0 &\sim g(x) \end{aligned}$$

Before we address the implementation of the EM algorithm, we will derive some distributions which will be helpful later on. Namely, we derive the full data distribution and the corresponding latent data distribution.

$$\begin{aligned} h(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}|p) &= h(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z}, p)h(\mathbf{Z}|p) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i)^{z_i} g(x_i)^{1-z_i} \prod_{i=1}^n p^{z_i} (1-p)^{1-z_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n [pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i} \\ h(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X}, p) &= \frac{h(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}|p)}{h(\mathbf{X}|p)} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n [pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i}}{\prod_{i=1}^n h(X_i|p)} = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{[pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i}}{pf(x_i) + (1-p)g(x_i)} \end{aligned}$$

Notice from this derivation we also see that $Z_i|\mathbf{x}, p$ is a binomial random variable with parameter $pf(x)/[pf(x) + (1-p)g(x)]$. Now we calculate the expected complete-data log likelihood (the **E** step) which we will show the sequence of estimates of p given by the EM algorithm.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\log L(p|\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{X})|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}] &= \mathbb{E} \left(\log \prod_{i=1}^n [pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i} \middle| \tilde{p}, \mathbf{X} \right) \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \log ([pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i}) \middle| \tilde{p}, \mathbf{X} \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left[\log ([pf(x_i)]^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i}) \middle| \tilde{p}, \mathbf{X} \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{z_i=0}^1 P(z_i|\tilde{p}, \mathbf{X}) \log [pf(x_i)^{z_i} [(1-p)g(x_i)]^{1-z_i}] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{z_i=0}^1 P(z_i|\tilde{p}, \mathbf{X}) [z_i \log(p) + z_i \log(f(x_i)) + (1-z_i) \log(1-p) + (1-z_i) \log(g(x_i))] \end{aligned}$$

Now, recall we look to maximize this quantity with respect to the parameter p , so any term that does not contain p we can remove from consideration. Therefore maximizing the above is equivalent to maximizing the following

$$\mathbb{E}[\log L(p|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})|\tilde{p}, \mathbf{X}] \propto \log(1-p) \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) + \log(p) \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) \quad (4)$$

Now maximizing (2) (the **M** step) with respect to p , we see

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial p} \log(1-p) \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) + \log(p) \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) &= 0 \\
-\frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) + \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) &= 0 \\
(1-p) \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) &= p \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) \\
\sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) &= p \left(\sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) + P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) \right) \\
\sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) &= p \left(\sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 0|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) + \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) \right) \\
\hat{p} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n P(z_i = 1|\mathbf{X}, \tilde{p}) \\
\hat{p} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\tilde{p}f(x_i)}{\tilde{p}f(x_i) + (1-\tilde{p})g(x_i)}
\end{aligned}$$

Now, letting $\tilde{p} = p^{(r)}$, we see that the sequence of estimates given by the EM algorithm can be written as

$$p^{(r+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{p^{(r)}f(x_i)}{p^{(r)}f(x_i) + (1-p^{(r)})g(x_i)}$$

4.3 Hidden Markov Model

5 Data Example

6 Conclusion