

Hidden variable models



Reminders/Comments

- Your linear kernel on SUSY should perform ok
- The linear kernel is a dot product between input and center
 - Any confusion about centers?
- Issues?



Optimization approach

Algorithm 2: Batch Gradient Descent(Err, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) 1: // A non-optimized, basic implementation of batch gradient descent 2: $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \text{random vector in } \mathbb{R}^d$ 3: $\text{err} \leftarrow \infty$ 4: $\text{tolerance} \leftarrow 10e^{-4}$ 5: $\mathbf{while} | \text{Err}(\mathbf{w}) - \text{err} | > \text{tolerance do}$ 6: $\text{err} \leftarrow \text{Err}(\mathbf{w})$ 7: $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \nabla \text{Err}(\mathbf{w})$ \Rightarrow for linear regression, $\nabla \text{Err}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^{\top} (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y})$ 8: // The step-size η could be chosen by line-search 9: $\eta \leftarrow \text{line search}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{g}, \text{Err})$ 10: $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \eta \mathbf{g}$

What happens if you just do 10 iterations?

11: return w

 What happens if you just pick a fixed step-size, instead of using a better mechanism to pick the step-size?



Step-size approaches

- If you did the second-order update for logistic regression, you are already picking a fantastic step-size
- If you did standard batch (first-order) gradient descent, then you should use line search
- If you did stochastic gradient descent, you may have to fiddle a bit more, but likely should pick a smaller step-size and do more iterations (say at least 100x more iterations)

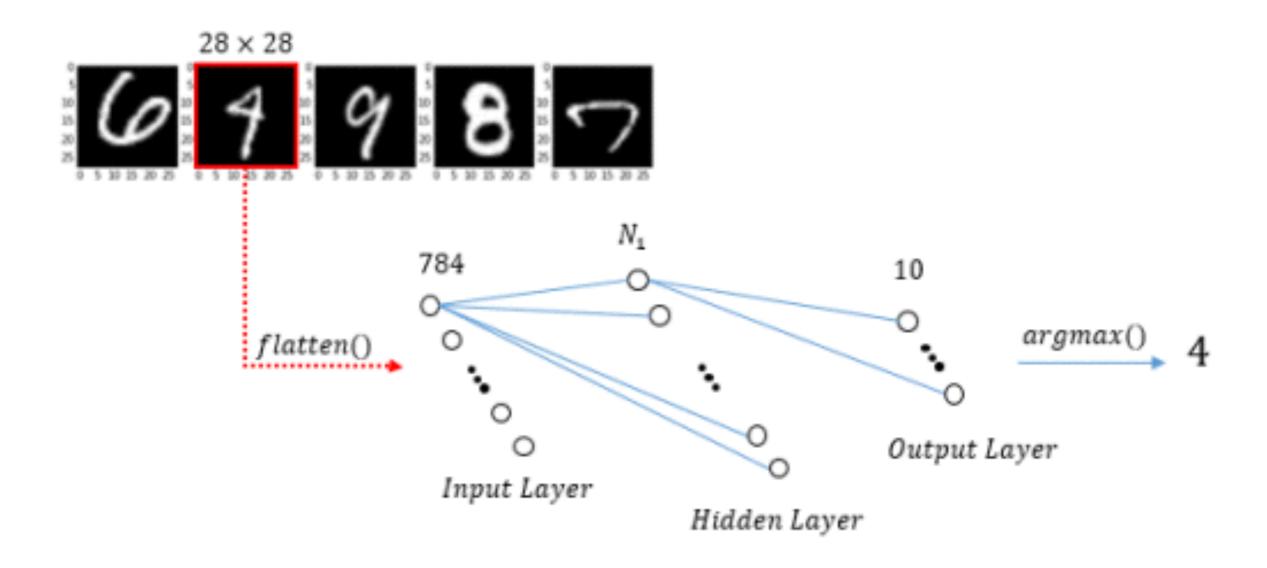


Optimization Questions

- If you initialize logistic regression randomly (entries in w samples from a normal Gaussian) and run gradient descent to within a tolerance of 10^-4, will it converge to the same solution across two runs on the same data?
- How about for an NN?
- What if you initialize NN with same random initialization, and use same order of data, will it converge to the same solution?
- Does each step of gradient descent decrease the objective?
- How about stochastic gradient descent?



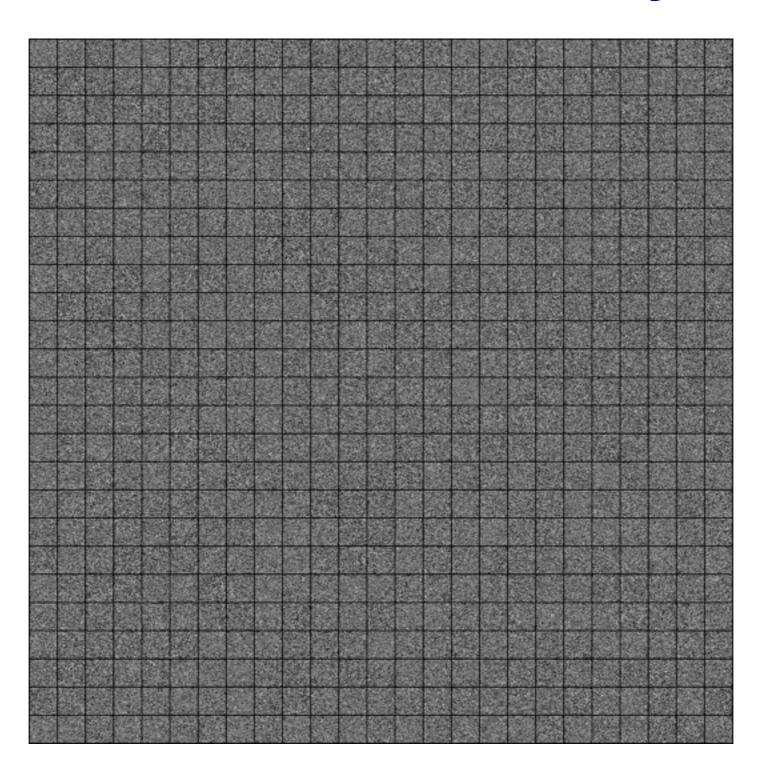
Example of using an NN for digit recognition (MNIST)



^{*}image from: https://guillaumebrg.wordpress.com/2016/01/21/first-assignment-mlp-implementation-applied-to-digits-recognition-mnist-database/



Learned hidden layer



Weights initialized randomly



Multi-variate output

- Can predict more than one value
- All the deltas for each of the output node is just then propagated back to the previous hidden layer
- Hidden layer adjusted based on delta for all output nodes, so representation that is learned is based on all outputs
- For MNIST, 10 outputs node, where node i = {0, ..., 9}
 corresponds to the binary prediction "Is it digit i or not?"
- To predict the digit, pick p(y = i | x) that is largest
 - e.g., output for digits [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9] is
 [0.8, 0.05, 0.1, 0.06, 0.15, 0.2, 0.1, 0.01, 0.85, 0.6]



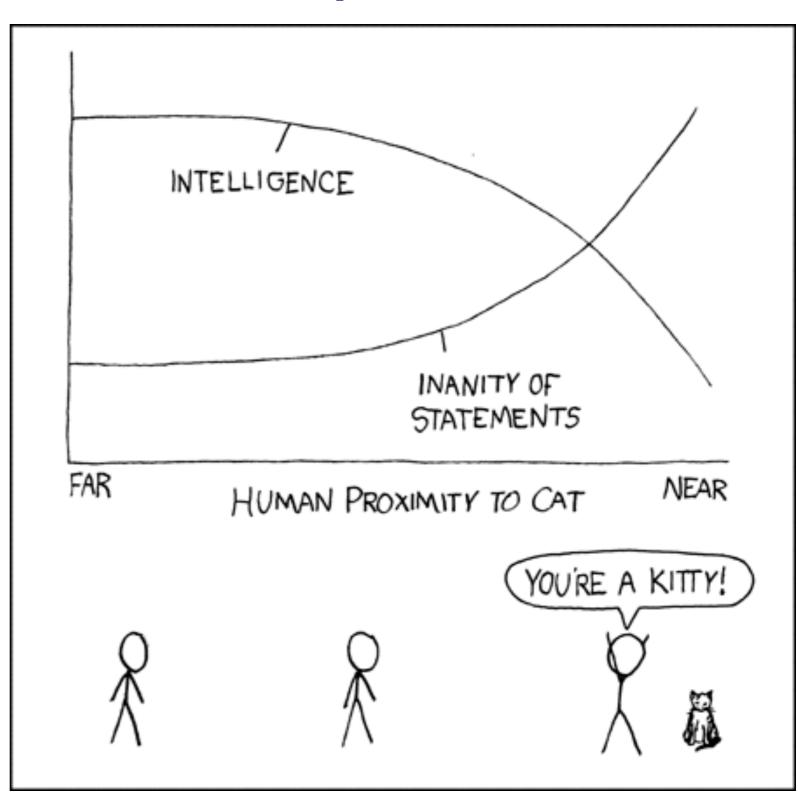
Hidden variables

- Different from missing variables, in the sense that we *could* have observed the missing information
 - e.g., if the person had just filled in the box on the form
- Hidden variables are never observed; rather they are useful for model description
 - e.g., hidden, latent representation
 - e.g., hidden state that drives dynamics
- Hidden variables make specification of distribution simpler
 - $p(x \mid D) = \inf_h p(x \mid D, h) p(h)$
 - p(x | D, h) is often much simpler to specify



Intuitive example

- Underlying "state" influencing what we observe; partial observability makes what we observe difficult to interpret
- Imagine we can never see that a kitten is present; but it clearly helps to explain the data





Hidden variable models

- Probabilistic PCA and factor analysis
 - common in psychology
- Mixture models
- Hidden Markov Models
 - commonly used for NLP and modeling dynamical systems

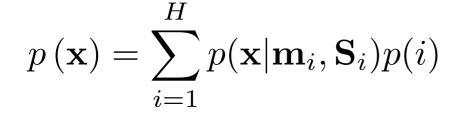


Gaussian mixture model

A D dimensional Gaussian distribution for a continuous variable ${\bf x}$ is

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{S}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\mathbf{S})}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})\right\}$$

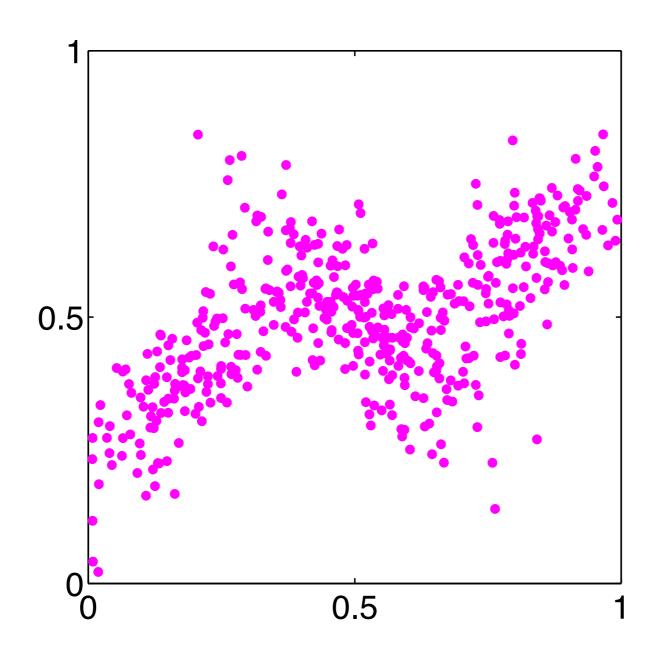
where ${\bf m}$ is the mean and ${\bf S}$ is the covariance matrix. A mixture of Gaussians is then



where p(i) is the mixture weight for component i.

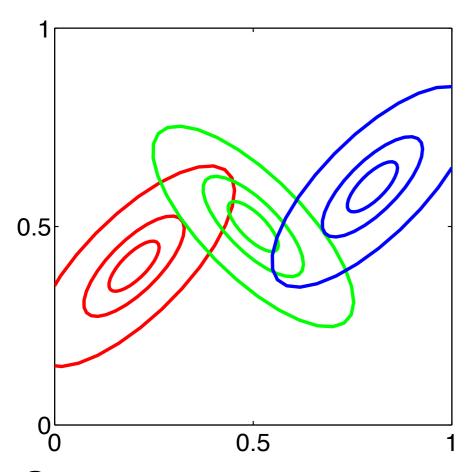


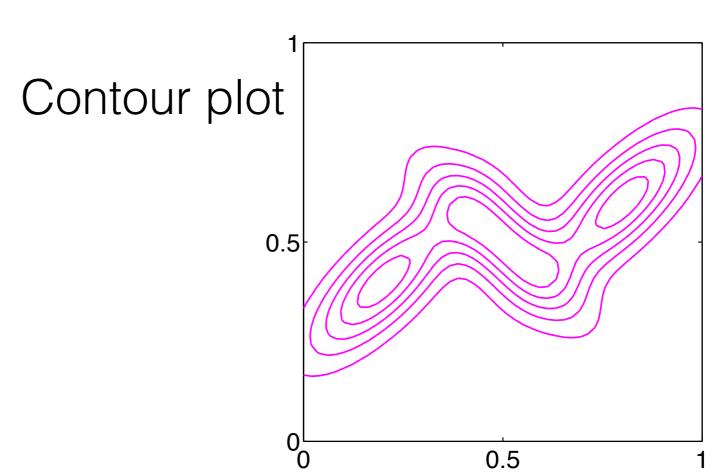
Example of 2-d data



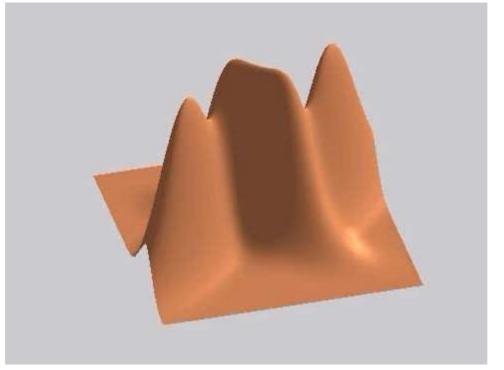


Mixture of 3 Gaussians





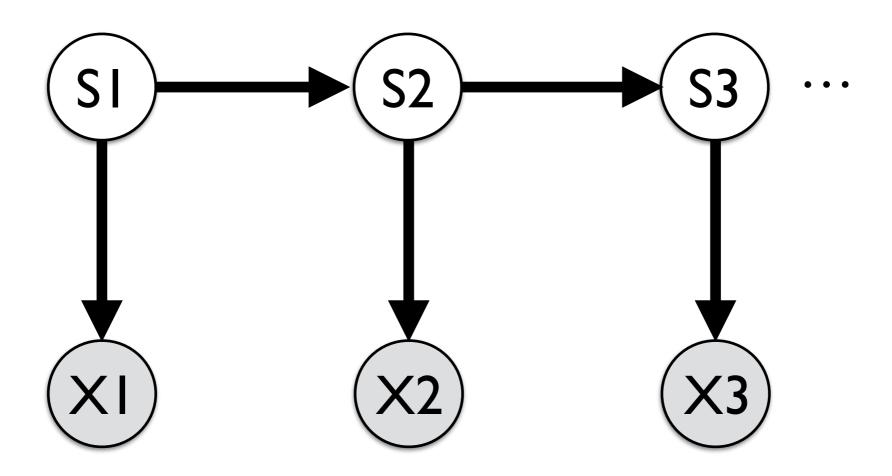
3 contours



Surface plot



Hidden Markov Model



The observations are x1, x2, x3
Temporally related
Dynamics driven by hidden state



Closed-form solutions

- For some hidden variable models, have a closed form solution
 - probabilistic PCA and factor analysis
- For others, no closed form solution, still want to maximize likelihood of the data
 - · e.g., mixture models

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{S}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\mathbf{S})}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})\right\}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{H} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{m}_i, \mathbf{S}_i)p(i) \qquad \log p(\mathbf{x})?$$



Expectation-maximization

- We can use an expectation-maximization approach instead to incrementally compute the solution (rather than a closed form)
- Similar to alternating descent approach taken for RFMs
- Enables logarithm and sum over hidden variables to be swapped, by minimizing instead a lower bound

$$\log p(\theta|\mathbf{x}) \ge \mathbb{E}[\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}|\theta) - \log p(\mathbf{h})]$$

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}, \theta) + \log p(\mathbf{h}|\theta)$$

If expectation w.r.t. $p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{x},\theta)$ then equal, rather than \geq



Expectation-maximization

- 1. Approximate $p(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{x}, \theta)$
- 2. Optimize theta for

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{h}, \theta) + \log p(\mathbf{h}|\theta)$$

e.g. mixture model

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{S}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\mathbf{S})}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m})\right\}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{H} p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{m}_i, \mathbf{S}_i)p(i)$$

$$\log p(\mathbf{x}|h=i) \text{ simple}$$

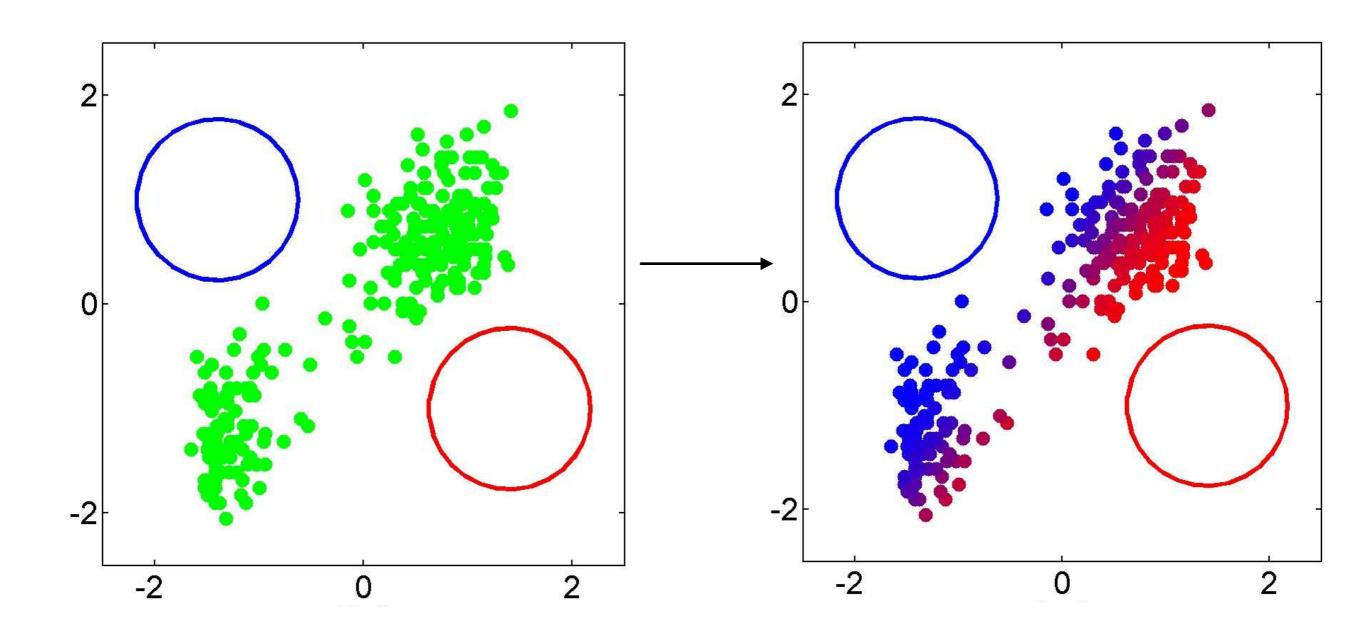


EM algorithm for mixtures

- Procedure: initialize parameters to some initial guess/random
- Alternate between:
 - E-step: fix parameter, approximate p(h l x, theta)
 - M-step: fix p(h | x, theta) obtaining maximum likelihood parameters for means, covariances and weights on each distribution
- Each cycle guaranteed not to decrease likelihood, converge to a local minimum

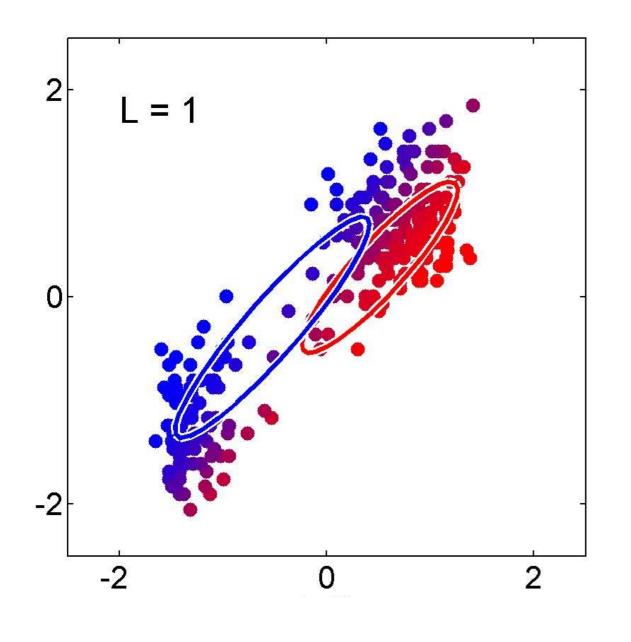


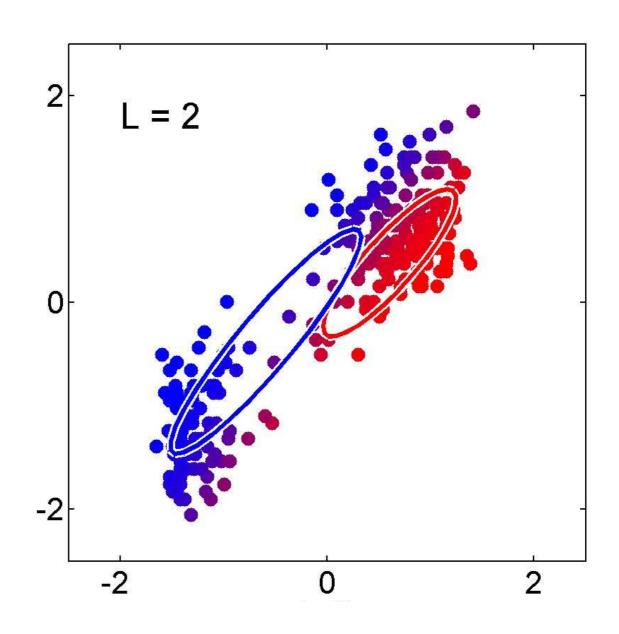
Simulation of EM for mixtures





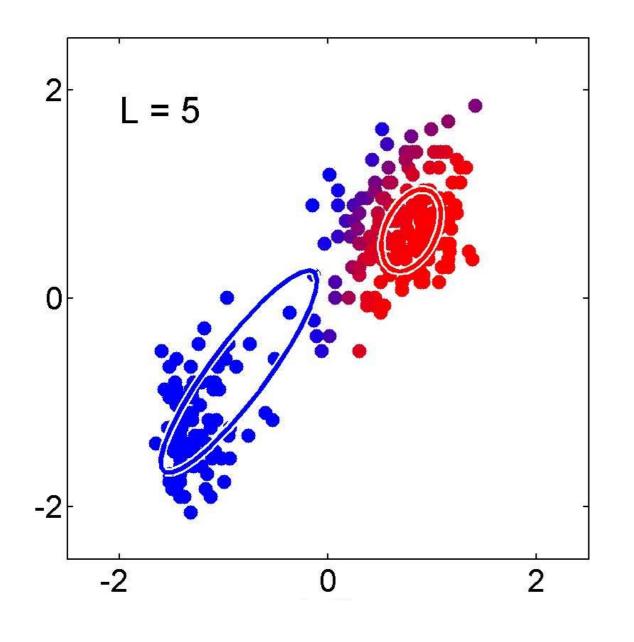
Simulation of EM for mixtures

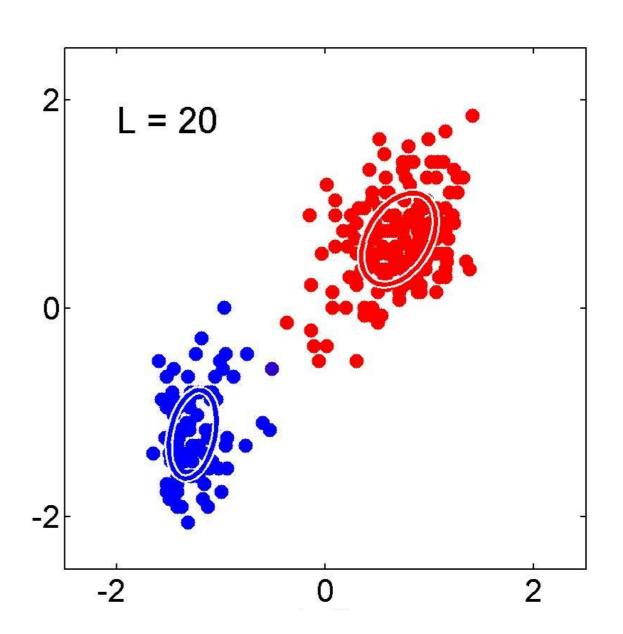






Simulation of EM for mixtures







Question

- Are the nodes in hidden layer in a neural network considered to be hidden variables?
- In k-means clustering, the hidden variables are the cluster centers —never get to observe cluster centers
- Many models extracting structure use hidden variables, but do not use explicit distributions
- Key difference: explicitly maintaining a distribution over hidden variables (as in mixture-models) versus simply picking best hidden variables (as we usually do in NNs, though there are probabilistic NN models)



Why would we keep a distribution over values?

- For mixture models, incorporates a belief or uncertainty about which group you might be in
- If you just pick the most likely group, you throw away uncertainty information
- This is true for other models we have looked at: can keep a distribution over our parameters, rather than just picking the best



Bayesian learning

- Goal is to keep distribution over parameters
 - p(w | D) rather than w*
- Frequentist approach: find the most likely ("best") parameters
 - this is what we have been doing so far with ML and MAP
- Still use Bayes rule to compute posterior p(w | Data), but now not taking argmax p(w | Data), but rather keeping distribution
- Key difference: can no longer ignore p(Data)

$$p(w|\text{Data}) = \frac{p(\text{Data}|w)p(w)}{p(\text{Data})}$$



Efficiently obtaining posterior

- Assume that p(x I theta) is Gaussian
- If we carefully select prior p(theta), then we get a nice known form for p(theta | x)
 - this is called a conjugate prior
 - e.g., Gaussian p(x I theta) and Gaussian p(theta) result in a Gaussian distribution p(theta I Data) with closed form mean, covariance
- If we do not carefully select p(theta), then we have to try to compute the integral of p(Data) numerically
 - and things start to get messy



Bayesian linear regression

- The likelihood is a normal distribution, with unknown mean and known variance (i.e., given hyper-parameter)
- The conjugate prior for that likelihood is the Gaussian with hyper-parameters mean and variance
- To simplify, assume $w\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_w=0,\sigma_w^2)$ and let $\alpha=\frac{1}{\sigma_{\rm w}^2}$ then the posterior hyperparameters are

$$\mathbf{S} = \left(\alpha \mathbf{I} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}^n) \boldsymbol{\phi}^T(\mathbf{x}^n)\right)^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{S} \sum_{n=1}^{N} y^n \phi(\mathbf{x}^n)$$



Relation to linear regression

m is the solution to the Gaussian regularized linear regression problem, with regularization weight alpha

$$\mathbf{S} = \left(\alpha \mathbf{I} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(\mathbf{x}^n) \phi^T(\mathbf{x}^n)\right)^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{S} \sum_{n=1}^{N} y^n \phi(\mathbf{x}^n)$$

The mean prediction for an input \mathbf{x} is then given by

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \int f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w} | \mathcal{D}, \Gamma) d\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{m}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}).$$