

Exponential Distributions, Sufficient Statistics, and the Maximum Entropy Principle.

Most distributions can be expressed in exponential form:

$$P(d|\lambda) = \frac{1}{Z(\lambda)} e^{\lambda \cdot \phi(d)}$$

$\phi(\cdot)$ is the 'sufficient statistics'.

This can be derived from the maximum entropy principle:

ψ - derived from observation
see below

$$\text{maximize } - \sum_d P(d) \log P(d) + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda} \left(\sum_d P(d) \phi(d) - \psi \right)$$

"entropy" Lagrange multiplier expected stat = observed stat ψ

Differentiating w.r.t. $P(d)$ gives result.

The value of λ is chosen s.t. $\sum_d P(d) \phi(d) = \psi$.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Data: $\langle d^N : \mu = H_0 N \rangle$

$$P(\langle d^N \rangle | \lambda) = \prod_{\mu} P(d^{\mu} | \lambda)$$

assumes data is independently identically distributed (i.i.d)

MLE

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\lambda} &= \text{Arg max}_{\lambda} \{ -\log P(\langle d^N \rangle | \lambda) \} \\ &= \text{Arg max}_{\lambda} \left\{ N \log Z(\lambda) - \sum_{\mu=1}^N \lambda \cdot \phi(d^{\mu}) \right\} \\ &= \text{Arg max}_{\lambda} \left\{ \log Z(\lambda) - \lambda \psi \right\} \end{aligned}$$

where $\psi = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mu=1}^N \phi(d^{\mu})$

Let. $G(\lambda) = \log Z(\lambda) - \lambda \psi$.

remark.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \log Z(\lambda) = \frac{\sum_d \phi(d) e^{\lambda \cdot \phi(d)}}{\sum_d e^{\lambda \cdot \phi(d)}} = \sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda)$$

$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \lambda^2} \log Z(\lambda)$ is positive definite, hence

$\log Z(\lambda) - \lambda \psi$ is convex, unique minimum.

minimum occurs when $\frac{\partial G}{\partial \lambda} = 0$

implies

$$\sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda) = \psi$$

like maximum entropy

(2) Note: since $G[\lambda]$ is convex it may seem
easy to find its global minimum.

But (almost) all algorithms to find it will
require computing the gradient

→ eg. steepest descent

$$\lambda^{t+1} = \lambda^t - \epsilon \left(\sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda^t) + \Psi \right)$$

this requires computing the expectation $\sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda^t)$
which is difficult because computing the partition function
is very hard — except on trees.

Alternative algorithm

Generalized Iterative Scaling (GIS)

is a Discrete Iterative Algorithm (DIA).

~ simple modification of steepest descent, but guaranteed
to converge (without needing a step size ϵ).

$$\lambda^{t+1} = \lambda^t - \log \left(\sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda^t) \right) + \log \Psi$$

(Note: $\log$ is taken by components, e.g. $\log(a, p_2) = (\log a_1, \log a_2)$)

Note: we can always use MCMC to evaluate
 $\sum_d \phi(d) P(d|\lambda^t)$ → doesn't need to know $Z[\lambda]$.

Note: suppose we initialize $\lambda^0 = 0$
then $P(d|\lambda^0) = U(d)$ uniform distribution.

$$\lambda^1 = \log \Psi - \log \sum_d U(d) \phi(d)$$

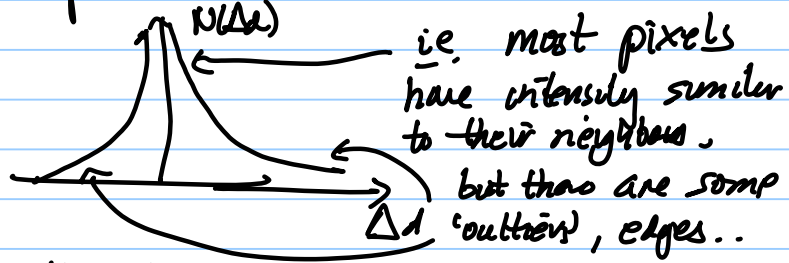
For some applications: (i) $\sum_d U(d) \phi(d)$ can be calculated
(ii) λ^1 is a good estimate
i.e. one iteration of GIS gives
a good approximation

What $\phi(\cdot)$'s to use?

Claim: we can obtain MRF models from stats $\phi(d)$
in particular,

we can derive the "weak smoothness"
model on MRF's from this approach.

(3) Claim: on most images the histogram of the difference operator $d_{i+1}-d_i$ takes the standard form



Note: this histogram is not Gaussian

A Gaussian would be too flat at $\Delta d = 0$ and fall away too quickly for large Δd ~ doesn't allow for outliers (Gaussians are not "robust").

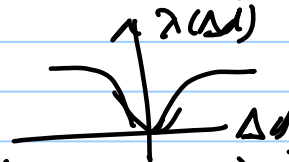
statistic $\phi(z:d) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta(d_{i+1}-d_i, z)$ histogram

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda \cdot \phi(d) &= \sum_z \lambda(z) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta(d_{i+1}-d_i, z) \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ \sum_z \lambda(z) \delta(d_{i+1}-d_i, z) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda(d_{i+1}-d_i) \end{aligned}$$

distribution $p(d|\lambda) = \frac{1}{Z(\lambda)} e^{-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda(d_{i+1}-d_i)}$

hence an MRF, with potentials $\lambda(\cdot)$ relating neighboring pixels.

How does 'weak smoothness' relate to the histogram above?



Answer → one iteration of GIS (previous page) is enough.

What other statistics can we use?

Claim: any 'derivative operator' $\sum_{i=1}^m A_i d_i$ st. $\sum_{i=1}^m A_i$ gives similar statistics (Geman)

Applying max entropy / exponential distribution will give MRFs with longer range interactions and higher order cliques.

Statistics can be combined $\lambda_1 \cdot \phi_1(d) + \lambda_2 \cdot \phi_2(d)$

$$p(d|\lambda_1, \lambda_2) = \frac{1}{Z(\lambda_1, \lambda_2)} e^{-\lambda_1 \phi_1(d) - \lambda_2 \phi_2(d)}$$

solve for λ_1, λ_2 as before

How to select between different combinations?

Model selection → prefer $p(d|\lambda_1, \lambda_2)$ to $p(d|\tilde{\lambda})$ if $p(d|\lambda_1, \lambda_2) > p(d|\tilde{\lambda})$ for some prior $p(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) p(\tilde{\lambda})$

Greedy search

or, better $\sum_{\lambda_1, \lambda_2} p(d|\lambda_1, \lambda_2) p(\lambda_1, \lambda_2) > \sum_{\tilde{\lambda}} p(d|\tilde{\lambda}) p(\tilde{\lambda})$

Zhu, Wu, Mumford, Della Pietra et al.

(4) Compare MLE to new machine learning alternatives.

First address simple regression problem

$$P(\omega | d) = \frac{e^{\omega \sum_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu} \phi_{\mu}(d)}}{Z(d, \lambda)}$$

$\omega \in \{+1\}$, implies $Z(d, \lambda) = e^{\sum_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu} \phi_{\mu}(d)} + e^{-\sum_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu} \phi_{\mu}(d)}$

Conditional distribution

Statisticians $\rightarrow$ treat this as a regression problem.

data $\{(w_i, d_i)\}$, maximize $\prod_i P(w_i | d_i)$

Note: regression was developed by Gauss around 1800 to predict the motion of a planetoid Ceres.

(regression can be applied to continuous & discrete variables).

leads to MLE problem.

$$\underset{\omega, \lambda}{\text{minimize}} \quad \sum_i \log Z(d_i, \lambda) - \sum_i w_i \lambda \cdot \phi(d_i)$$
$$\sum_i \log \{ e^{\lambda \cdot \phi(d_i)} + e^{-\lambda \cdot \phi(d_i)} \} - \lambda \cdot \sum_i w_i \phi(d_i).$$

Note $\rightarrow$ this computation is practical since $Z(d_i, \lambda)$ can be evaluated.

Note: (i) Statisticians usually work with regression models with a limited number of statistics $\phi_{\mu}(d)$.

(ii) Statisticians usually minimize the function by steepest descent methods $\rightarrow$ update all the parameters λ simultaneously.

Contrast with machine learning (AdaBoost)

Changes: (i) call the statistics 'weak classifiers' and require them to be binary-valued.

(ii) minimize a related cost function

$$C_{\text{Ada}}(\lambda) = \sum_i e^{w_i \sum_{\mu} \lambda_{\mu} \phi_{\mu}(d_i)} \rightarrow \text{bound the classification loss}$$

(iii) algorithm: initialize $\lambda_{\mu} = 0$, for

(often fixed) $\rightarrow$ coordinate descent. At each time step, pick the λ_{μ} which maximizes the decrease in cost.

(5) AdaBoost Algorithm

Initialize $\lambda_\mu = 0, \forall \mu$.

At time step t : $\{\lambda_\mu^t\}$

• For each μ , solve $\frac{\partial C_{\text{Ada}}(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda_\mu} = 0$ to solve for λ_μ

• Calculate $\hat{\mu} = \underset{\mu}{\text{ARG MIN}} C_{\text{Ada}}(\underline{\lambda}^t + \hat{\lambda}_\mu)$

• Set $\lambda_{\hat{\mu}}^{t+1} = \hat{\lambda}_{\hat{\mu}}^t$ $(\underline{\lambda}^t + \hat{\lambda}_\mu = (\lambda_1^t, \dots, \hat{\lambda}_\mu, \dots, \lambda_v^t))$
 $\lambda_v^{t+1} = \lambda_v^t$ for $v \neq \hat{\mu}$

Note: At time t , the algorithm either "selects" a new weak classifier $\phi_\mu()$ (sh. $\lambda_\mu^t = 0$) and assigns it a non-zero "weight" λ_μ^t , or it changes the weight of a weak classifier that has already been selected.

→ AdaBoost (ie, Machine Learning) puts much more emphasis on 'selection' → ie. you start with a dictionary of many weak classifiers $\{\phi_\mu(): \mu \in \Omega\}$ and only select and use a small number (but small may mean 100's or 1,000's).

→ AdaBoost (Machine Learning) emphasizes 'discrimination' rather than learning the conditional distribution $p(w|d)$
→ pays attention to data near the decision boundary and the margins.

→ arguably better than MLE if you have limited data
→ need to cross-validate to prevent over-learning.

→ The two algorithmic steps of AdaBoost

— ie. solve $\frac{\partial C_{\text{Ada}}}{\partial \lambda_\mu} = 0$, and $\hat{\mu} = \underset{\mu}{\text{ARG MIN}} C(\underline{\lambda}^t + \hat{\lambda}_\mu)$ —

have simple analytic solutions, because of the special form of C_{Ada} .

→ Note: Statisticians and Machine Learning researchers are different social communities.

(6) Comparison.

MLE:
log-likelihood

$$\min_{\underline{\lambda}} \left\{ \sum_i \log (e^{\underline{\lambda} \cdot \phi(d_i)} + e^{-\underline{\lambda} \cdot \phi(d_i)}) \right.$$
$$\left. \underline{\lambda} \cdot \sum_i w_i \phi(d_i) \right\}$$

AdaBoost:

$$\min_{\underline{\lambda}} \left\{ \sum_i e^{w_i \underline{\lambda} \cdot \phi(d_i)} \right\}$$

Max-Margin
~ SVM

$$\min_{\underline{\lambda}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|\underline{\lambda}\|^2 + C \sum_i \max\{0, 1 - w_i \underline{\lambda} \cdot \phi(d_i)\} \right\}$$

Also motivated by
machine learning
margin ideas.

'regularizer' 'hinge loss' ↙

Also, like AdaBoost, designed to enable
efficient learning algorithm.

Optimization Techniques:

- (1) steepest Descent / Discrete Iterative Algorithms.
- (2) Coordinate Descent (e.g. AdaBoost)
- (3) Online Learning.

→ select a sample x_i at random,
→ do iteration of steepest descent.

High level Points.

• The selection of features in GUSKEI
for AdaBoost than for learning MRF (Della Pietra et al.,
Zhu et al.)
Because AdaBoost only learn a distribution
on one variable w , AND AdaBoost uses a
simpler cost function.