Parametric Models Part III: Hidden Markov Models

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CS 551, Fall 2012



Discrete Markov Processes (Markov Chains)

- The goal is to make a sequence of decisions where a particular decision may be influenced by earlier decisions.
- ► Consider a system that can be described at any time as being in one of a set of N distinct states w₁, w₂,..., w_N.
- Let w(t) denote the actual state at time t where t = 1, 2, ...
- The probability of the system being in state w(t) is $P(w(t)|w(t-1), \ldots, w(1)).$



First-Order Markov Models

► We assume that the state w(t) is conditionally independent of the previous states given the predecessor state w(t - 1), i.e.,

$$P(w(t)|w(t-1),\ldots,w(1)) = P(w(t)|w(t-1)).$$

► We also assume that the Markov Chain defined by P(w(t)|w(t - 1)) is time homogeneous (independent of the time t).



► A particular *sequence of states* of length *T* is denoted by

$$\mathcal{W}^T = \{w(1), w(2), \dots, w(T)\}.$$

The model for the production of any sequence is described by the *transition probabilities*

$$a_{ij} = P(w(t) = w_j | w(t-1) = w_i)$$

where $i, j \in \{1, ..., N\}$, $a_{ij} \ge 0$, and $\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{ij} = 1, \forall i$.



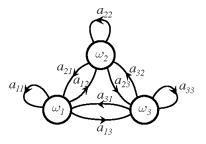
- ► There is no requirement that the transition probabilities are symmetric (a_{ij} ≠ a_{ji}, in general).
- ► Also, a particular state may be visited in succession (a_{ii} ≠ 0, in general) and not every state need to be visited.
- This process is called an observable Markov model because the output of the process is the set of states at each instant of time, where each state corresponds to a physical (observable) event.



First-Order Markov Model Examples

- Consider the following 3-state first-order Markov model of the weather in Ankara:
 - ► w₁: rain/snow
 - ► w₂: cloudy
 - ► w₃: sunny

$$\Theta = \{a_{ij}\} \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 0.4 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix}$$





First-Order Markov Model Examples

► We can use this model to answer the following: Starting with sunny weather on day 1, what is the probability that the weather for the next seven days will be "sunny-sunny-rainy-rainy-sunnycloudy-sunny" (W⁸ = {w₃, w₃, w₃, w₁, w₁, w₃, w₂, w₃})?

Solution:

 $P(\mathcal{W}^8|\Theta) = P(w_3, w_3, w_3, w_1, w_1, w_3, w_2, w_3)$

 $= P(w_3)P(w_3|w_3)P(w_3|w_3)P(w_1|w_3)$

 $P(w_1|w_1)P(w_3|w_1)P(w_2|w_3)P(w_3|w_2)$

 $= P(w_3) a_{33} a_{33} a_{31} a_{11} a_{13} a_{32} a_{23}$

 $=1\times0.8\times0.8\times0.1\times0.4\times0.3\times0.1\times0.2$

$$= 1.536 \times 10^{-4}$$





First-Order Markov Model Examples

- Consider another question: Given that the model is in a known state, what is the probability that it stays in that state for exactly d days?
- Solution:

$$\mathcal{W}^{d+1} = \{w(1) = w_i, w(2) = w_i, \dots, w(d) = w_i, w(d+1) = w_j \neq w_i\}$$
$$P(\mathcal{W}^{d+1} | \Theta, w(1) = w_i) = (a_{ii})^{d-1} (1 - a_{ii})$$
$$E[d|w_i] = \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} d(a_{ii})^{d-1} (1 - a_{ii}) = \frac{1}{1 - a_{ii}}$$

For example, the expected number of consecutive days of sunny weather is 5, cloudy weather is 2.5, rainy weather is 1.67.



- We can extend this model to the case where the observation (output) of the system is a probabilistic function of the state.
- The resulting model, called a *Hidden Markov Model (HMM)*, has an underlying stochastic process that is not observable (it is hidden), but can only be observed through another set of stochastic processes that produce a sequence of observations.



- ► We denote the observation at time t as v(t) and the probability of producing that observation in state w(t) as P(v(t)|w(t)).
- There are many possible state-conditioned observation distributions.
- When the observations are discrete, the distributions

$$b_{jk} = P(v(t) = v_k | w(t) = w_j)$$

are probability mass functions where $j \in \{1, ..., N\}$, $k \in \{1, ..., M\}$, $b_{jk} \ge 0$, and $\sum_{k=1}^{M} b_{jk} = 1, \forall j$.



When the observations are continuous, the distributions are typically specified using a parametric model family where the most common family is the Gaussian mixture

$$b_j(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{M_j} \alpha_{jk} \, p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_{jk}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{jk})$$

where $\alpha_{jk} \ge 0$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{M_j} \alpha_{jk} = 1, \forall j$.

We will restrict ourselves to discrete observations where a particular sequence of visible states of length T is denoted by

$$\mathcal{V}^T = \{v(1), v(2), \dots, v(T)\}.$$

An HMM is characterized by:

- ▶ N, the number of hidden states
- ► *M*, the number of distinct observation symbols per state
- $\{a_{ij}\}$, the state transition probability distribution
- $\{b_{jk}\}$, the observation symbol probability distribution
- $\{\pi_i = P(w(1) = w_i)\}$, the initial state distribution
- Θ = ({a_{ij}}, {b_{jk}}, {π_i}), the complete parameter set of the model
 model



First-Order HMM Examples

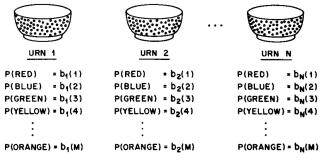
Consider the "urn and ball" example (Rabiner, 1989):

- There are N large urns in the room.
- ► Within each urn, there are a large number of colored balls where the number of distinct colors is *M*.
- An initial urn is chosen according to some random process, and a ball is chosen at random from it.
- The ball's color is recorded as the observation and it is put back to the urn.
- A new urn is selected according to the random selection process associated with the current urn and the ball selection process is repeated.



First-Order HMM Examples

- The simplest HMM that corresponds to the urn and ball selection process is the one where
 - each state corresponds to a specific urn,
 - a ball color probability is defined for each state.



O = {GREEN, GREEN, BLUE, RED, YELLOW, RED,, BLUE }



- ► Let's extend the weather example.
 - Assume that you have a friend who lives in İstanbul and you talk daily about what each of you did that day.
 - Your friend has a list of activities that she/he does every day (such as playing sports, shopping, studying) and the choice of what to do is determined exclusively by the weather on a given day.
 - Assume that İstanbul has a weather state distribution similar to the one in the previous example.
 - You have no information about the weather where your friend lives, but you try to guess what it must have been like according to the activity your friend did.



First-Order HMM Examples

- This process can be modeled using an HMM where the state of the weather is the hidden variable, and the activity your friend did is the observation.
- Given the model and the activity of your friend, you can make a guess about the weather in Istanbul that day.
- For example, if your friend says that she/he played sports on the first day, went shopping on the second day, and studied on the third day of the week, you can answer questions such as:
 - What is the overall probability of this sequence of observations?
 - What is the most likely weather sequence that would explain these observations?

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Applications of HMMs

- Speech recognition
- Optical character recognition
- Natural language processing (e.g., text summarization)
- Bioinformatics (e.g., protein sequence modeling)
- Image time series (e.g., change detection)
- Video analysis (e.g., story segmentation, motion tracking)
- Robot planning (e.g., navigation)
- Economics and finance (e.g., time series, customer decisions)



Three Fundamental Problems for HMMs

- Evaluation problem: Given the model, compute the probability that a particular output sequence was produced by that model (solved by the forward algorithm).
- Decoding problem: Given the model, find the most likely sequence of hidden states which could have generated a given output sequence (solved by the Viterbi algorithm).
- Learning problem: Given a set of output sequences, find the most likely set of state transition and output probabilities (solved by the Baum-Welch algorithm).



 A particular sequence of observations of length T is denoted by

$$\mathcal{V}^T = \{v(1), v(2), \dots, v(T)\}.$$

The probability of observing this sequence can be computed by enumerating every possible state sequence of length T as

$$\begin{split} P(\mathcal{V}^{T}|\boldsymbol{\Theta}) &= \sum_{\text{all } \mathcal{W}^{T}} P(\mathcal{V}^{T}, \mathcal{W}^{T}|\boldsymbol{\Theta}) \\ &= \sum_{\text{all } \mathcal{W}^{T}} P(\mathcal{V}^{T}|\mathcal{W}^{T}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}) P(\mathcal{W}^{T}|\boldsymbol{\Theta}). \end{split}$$



 \blacktriangleright This summation includes N^T terms in the form

$$P(\mathcal{V}^T | \mathcal{W}^T) P(\mathcal{W}^T) = \left(\prod_{t=1}^T P(v(t) | w(t))\right) \left(\prod_{t=1}^T P(w(t) | w(t-1))\right)$$
$$= \prod_{t=1}^T P(v(t) | w(t)) P(w(t) | w(t-1))$$

where P(w(t)|w(t-1)) for t = 1 is P(w(1)).

- It is unfeasible with computational complexity $O(N^T T)$.
- ► However, a computationally simpler algorithm called the forward algorithm computes P(V^T|Θ) recursively.



Define α_j(t) as the probability that the HMM is in state w_j at time t having generated the first t observations in V^T

$$\alpha_j(t) = P(v(1), v(2), \dots, v(t), w(t) = w_j | \boldsymbol{\Theta}).$$

• $\alpha_j(t), j = 1, \dots, N$ can be computed as

$$\alpha_j(t) = \begin{cases} \pi_j b_{jv(1)} & t = 1\\ \left(\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i (t-1) a_{ij}\right) b_{jv(t)} & t = 2, \dots, T. \end{cases}$$

• Then,
$$P(\mathcal{V}^T|\Theta) = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j(T)$$
.



Similarly, we can define a *backward algorithm* where

$$\beta_i(t) = P(v(t+1), v(t+2), \dots, v(T)|w(t) = w_i, \boldsymbol{\Theta})$$

is the probability that the HMM will generate the observations from t + 1 to T in \mathcal{V}^T given that it is in state w_i at time t.

• $\beta_i(t), i = 1, \dots, N$ can be computed as

$$\beta_i(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t = T\\ \sum_{j=1}^N \beta_j(t+1)a_{ij}b_{jv(t+1)} & t = T-1, \dots, 1. \end{cases}$$

• Then, $P(\mathcal{V}^T | \Theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i(1) \pi_i b_{iv(1)}$.



- The computations of both $\alpha_j(t)$ and $\beta_i(t)$ have complexity $O(N^2T)$.
- For classification, we can compute the posterior probabilities

$$P(\boldsymbol{\Theta}|\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}^T) = \frac{P(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}^T|\boldsymbol{\Theta})P(\boldsymbol{\Theta})}{P(\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}^T)}$$

where $P(\Theta)$ is the prior for a particular class, and $P(\mathcal{V}^T|\Theta)$ is computed using the forward algorithm with the HMM for that class.

Then, we can select the class with the highest posterior.



HMM Decoding Problem

- Given a sequence of observations V^T, we would like to find the most probable sequence of hidden states.
- One possible solution is to enumerate every possible hidden state sequence and calculate the probability of the observed sequence with O(N^TT) complexity.
- We can also define the problem of finding the optimal state sequence as finding the one that includes the states that are individually most likely.
- This also corresponds to maximizing the expected number of correct individual states.



HMM Decoding Problem

▶ Define *γ_i(t)* as the probability that the HMM is in state *w_i* at time *t* given the observation sequence *V^T*

$$\gamma_i(t) = P(w(t) = w_i | \mathcal{V}^T, \boldsymbol{\Theta})$$
$$= \frac{\alpha_i(t)\beta_i(t)}{P(\mathcal{V}^T | \boldsymbol{\Theta})} = \frac{\alpha_i(t)\beta_i(t)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_j(t)\beta_j(t)}$$

where $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \gamma_i(t) = 1$.

► Then, the individually most likely state w(t) at time t becomes

$$w(t) = w_{i'}$$
 where $i' = \arg \max_{i=1,\dots,N} \gamma_i(t)$.



HMM Decoding Problem

- One problem is that the resulting sequence may not be consistent with the underlying model because it may include transitions with zero probability (a_{ij} = 0 for some i and j).
- ► One possible solution is the Viterbi algorithm that finds the single best state sequence W^T by maximizing P(W^T|V^T, Θ) (or equivalently P(W^T, V^T|Θ)).
- This algorithm recursively computes the state sequence with the highest probability at time t and keeps track of the states that form the sequence with the highest probability at time T (see Rabiner (1989) for details).



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- ► The goal is to determine the model parameters {*a_{ij}*}, {*b_{jk}*} and {*π_i*} from a collection of training samples.
- ► Define \$\xi_{ij}(t)\$ as the probability that the HMM is in state \$w_i\$ at time \$t 1\$ and state \$w_j\$ at time \$t\$ given the observation sequence \$\mathcal{V}^T\$

$$i_{j}(t) = P(w(t-1) = w_{i}, w(t) = w_{j} | \mathcal{V}^{T}, \Theta)$$

= $\frac{\alpha_{i}(t-1) a_{ij} b_{jv(t)} \beta_{j}(t)}{P(\mathcal{V}^{T} | \Theta)}$
= $\frac{\alpha_{i}(t-1) a_{ij} b_{jv(t)} \beta_{j}(t)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{i}(t-1) a_{ij} b_{jv(t)} \beta_{j}(t)}.$



► \(\gamma_i(t)\) defined in the decoding problem and \(\xi_{ij}(t)\) defined here can be related as

$$\gamma_i(t-1) = \sum_{j=1}^N \xi_{ij}(t).$$

► Then, â_{ij}, the estimate of the probability of a transition from w_i at t - 1 to w_j at t, can be computed as

 $\hat{a}_{ij} = \frac{\text{expected number of transitions from } w_i \text{ to } w_j}{\text{expected total number of transitions away from } w_i}$ $= \frac{\sum_{t=2}^{T} \xi_{ij}(t)}{\sum_{t=2}^{T} \gamma_i(t-1)}.$



 Similarly, b_{jk}, the estimate of the probability of observing the symbol v_k while in state w_j, can be computed as

 $\hat{b}_{jk} = \frac{\text{expected number of times observing symbol } v_k \text{ in state } w_j}{\text{expected total number of times in } w_j}$

$$=\frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T}\delta_{v(t),v_k}\gamma_j(t)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T}\gamma_j(t)}$$

where $\delta_{v(t),v_k}$ is the Kronecker delta which is 1 only when $v(t) = v_k$.

Finally, π̂_i, the estimate for the initial state distribution, can be computed as π̂_i = γ_i(1) which is the expected number of times in state w_i at time t = 1.



- These are called the Baum-Welch equations (also called the EM estimates for HMMs or the forward-backward algorithm) that can be computed iteratively until some convergence criterion is met (e.g., sufficiently small changes in the estimated values in subsequent iterations).
- See (Bilmes, 1998) for the estimates b_j(x) when the observations are continuous and their distributions are modeled using Gaussian mixtures.

