

LECTURE 8:

UNSUPERVISED LEARNING & EM ALGORITHM

October 31, 2006

- Certain variables q in our models may be *unobserved*, either at training time or at test time or both.
- If they are occasionally unobserved they are *missing data*. e.g. undefined inputs, missing class labels, erroneous target values
- In this case, we define a new cost function in which we *integrate out* the missing values at training or test time:

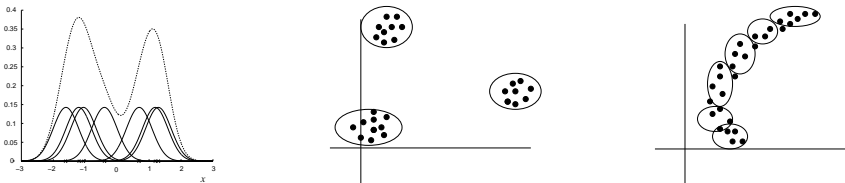
$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_{\text{complete}} \log p(\mathbf{x}^c, \mathbf{y}^c | \theta) + \sum_{\text{missing}} \log p(\mathbf{x}^m | \theta) \\ &= \sum_{\text{complete}} \log p(\mathbf{x}^c, \mathbf{y}^c | \theta) + \sum_{\text{missing}} \log \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}^m, \mathbf{y} | \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- Variables which are *always* unobserved are called *latent variables* or sometimes *hidden variables*.

- Remember that you can think of unsupervised learning as supervised learning in which all the outputs are *missing*:
 - Clustering == classification with missing labels.
 - Dimensionality reduction == regression with missing targets.
- Density estimation is actually very general and encompasses the two problems above and a whole lot more.
- Today, let's focus on the idea of missing (unobserved) variables...

- What should we do when a variable z is *always* unobserved? Depends on where it appears in our model. If we never condition on it when computing the probability of the variables we *do* observe, then we can just forget about it and integrate it out. e.g. given \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} fit the model $p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})$.
- But if z is conditioned on, we need to model it: e.g. given \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} fit the model $p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})p(\mathbf{z})$
- Latent variables may appear naturally, from the structure of the problem. But also, we may want to *intentionally* introduce latent variables to model complex dependencies between variables without looking at the dependencies between them directly.
- This can actually simplify the model, and the most common example of this is in *mixture modeling*.

- Mixture models are the most basic possible latent variable model, having only a single discrete latent variable z .
- Idea: allow different submodels (experts) to contribute to the (conditional) density model in different parts of the space.
- Divide and conquer: use simple parts to build complex models. (e.g. multimodal densities, or piecewise-linear regressions).



- In fully observed settings, the probability model is a product, thus the log likelihood is a sum where terms decouple.

$$\begin{aligned}\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{y}_n, \mathbf{x}_n | \theta) \\ &= \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{x}_n | \theta_x) + \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{y}_n | \mathbf{x}_n, \theta_y)\end{aligned}$$

- With latent variables, the probability already contains a sum, so the log likelihood has all parameters coupled together:

$$\begin{aligned}\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_n \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z} | \theta) \\ &= \sum_n \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z} | \theta_z) p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}, \theta_x)\end{aligned}$$

- Exactly like a class-conditional model but the class is unobserved and so we sum it out. What we get is a perfectly valid density:

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{x} | \theta) &= \sum_{k=1}^K p(z = k | \theta_z) p(\mathbf{x} | z = k, \theta_k) \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k p_k(\mathbf{x} | \theta_k)\end{aligned}$$

where the “mixing proportions” add to one: $\sum_k \alpha_k = 1$.

- We can use Bayes’ rule to compute the posterior probability of the mixture component given some data:

$$r_k(\mathbf{x}) = p(z = k | \mathbf{x}, \theta) = \frac{\alpha_k p_k(\mathbf{x} | \theta_k)}{\sum_j \alpha_j p_j(\mathbf{x} | \theta_j)}$$

these quantities are called *responsibilities*.

You’ve seen them many times before; now you know their names!

- Likelihood $\ell(\theta) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z} | \theta_z) p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}, \theta_x)$ couples parameters:
- We can treat this as a black box probability function and just try to optimize the likelihood as a function of θ . We did this many times before by taking gradients.
- Remember Mixtures of Experts...?
- However, sometimes taking advantage of the latent variable structure can make parameter estimation easier.
- Good news: today we will see the *EM algorithm* which allows us to treat learning with latent variables using fully observed tools.
- Basic trick: guess the values you don’t know.
Basic math: use convexity to lower bound the likelihood.

- We can learn mixture densities using gradient descent on the likelihood as usual. The gradients are quite interesting:

$$\begin{aligned}\ell(\theta) &= \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \log \sum_k \alpha_k p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} &= \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)} \sum_k \alpha_k \frac{\partial p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k)}{\partial \theta} \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \frac{1}{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)} p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) \frac{\partial \log p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k)}{\partial \theta} \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \frac{p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)} \frac{\partial \ell_k}{\partial \theta_k} = \sum_k \alpha_k r_k \frac{\partial \ell_k}{\partial \theta_k}\end{aligned}$$

- In other words, the gradient is the *responsibility weighted sum* of the individual log likelihood gradients. (cf. MOEs)

- We can learn mixtures of Gaussians using gradient descent. For example, the gradients of the means:

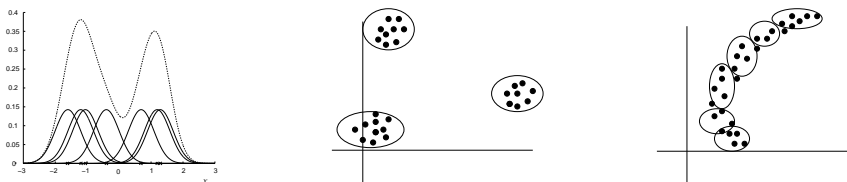
$$\begin{aligned}\ell(\theta) &= \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \log \sum_k \alpha_k p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} &= \sum_k \alpha_k r_k \frac{\partial \ell_k}{\partial \theta_k} = \sum_k \alpha_k r_k \frac{\partial \log p_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k)}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu_k} &= - \sum_k \alpha_k r_k \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu_k)\end{aligned}$$

- Gradients of covariance matrices are harder: require derivatives of log determinants and quadratic forms.
- Must ensure that mixing proportions α_k are positive and sum to unity and that covariance matrices are positive definite.

CLUSTERING EXAMPLE: GAUSSIAN MIXTURE MODELS 9

- Consider a mixture of K Gaussian components:

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) &= \sum_k \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \\ p(z = k|\mathbf{x}, \theta) &= \frac{\alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)}{\sum_j \alpha_j \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_j, \Sigma_j)} \\ \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_n \log \sum_k \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^n|\mu_k, \Sigma_k)\end{aligned}$$



- Density model: $p(x|\theta)$ is a familiarity signal.
Clustering: $p(z|\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ is the assignment rule, $-\ell(\theta)$ is the cost.

AN ASIDE: PARAMETER CONSTRAINTS

- If we want to use general optimizations (e.g. conjugate gradient) to learn latent variable models, we often have to make sure parameters respect certain constraints. (e.g. $\sum_k \alpha_k = 1$, Σ_k pos.definite).
- A good trick is to reparameterize these quantities in terms of unconstrained values. For mixing proportions, use the softmax:

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\exp(q_k)}{\sum_j \exp(q_j)}$$

- For covariance matrices, use the Cholesky decomposition:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma^{-1} &= A^\top A \\ |\Sigma|^{-1/2} &= \prod_i A_{ii}\end{aligned}$$

where A is upper diagonal with positive diagonal:

$$A_{ii} = \exp(r_i) > 0 \quad A_{ij} = a_{ij} \quad (j > i) \quad A_{ij} = 0 \quad (j < i)$$

- Mixtures of Experts are also called conditional mixtures. Exactly like a class-conditional classification model, except the class is unobserved and so we sum it out:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \sum_{k=1}^K p(z = k|\mathbf{x}, \theta_z)p(\mathbf{y}|z = k, \mathbf{x}, \theta_k) \\ = \sum_k \alpha_k(\mathbf{x}|\theta_z)p_k(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \theta_k)$$

where $\sum_k \alpha_k(\mathbf{x}) = 1 \quad \forall \mathbf{x}$.

- Harder: must learn $\alpha_k(\mathbf{x})$ (unless chose z independent of \mathbf{x}). The $\alpha_k(\mathbf{x})$ are exactly what we called the *gating function*.
- We can still use Bayes' rule to compute the posterior probability of the mixture component given some data:

$$p(z = k|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \theta) = \frac{\alpha_k(\mathbf{x})p_k(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \theta_k)}{\sum_j \alpha_j(\mathbf{x})p_j(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \theta_j)}$$

- What if instead of using the gradient to adjust MOE parameters, we just used the posterior weightings to “softly label” the data.
- Then we could solved a (weighted) least-squares problem for each expert and a (soft-target) logistic-regression problem for the gate.
- Both of these problems are convex (even with weighted data), so we can solve them exactly without needing to do any gradient descent.
- Then we could alternate: find the “optimum” parameters given the current posterior weightings and then recalculate the posteriors (weights) given the new parameters, and repeat.
- We will explore this idea today. It is called *Expectation Maximization* or EM, and is a form of bound optimization as opposed to gradient methods.

- With latent variables, the probability contains a sum, so the log likelihood has all parameters coupled together:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}|\theta_z)p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \theta_x)$$

(we can also consider continuous \mathbf{z} and replace \sum with \int)

- If the latent variables were observed, parameters would decouple again and learning would be easy:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) = \log p(\mathbf{z}|\theta_z) + \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}, \theta_x)$$

- One idea: ignore this fact, compute $\partial\ell/\partial\theta$, and do learning with a smart optimizer like conjugate gradient.
- Another idea: what if we use our current parameters to *guess* the values of the latent variables, and then do fully-observed learning? This back-and-forth trick might make optimization easier.

- Iterative algorithm with two linked steps:
 - **E-step:** fill in values of $\hat{\mathbf{z}}^t$ using $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t)$.
 - **M-step:** update parameters using $\theta^{t+1} \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax} \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}, \hat{\mathbf{z}}^t)$.
- E-step involves inference, which we need to do at runtime anyway. M-step is no harder than in fully observed case.
- We will prove that this procedure monotonically improves ℓ (or leaves it unchanged). Thus it always converges to a local optimum of the likelihood (as any optimizer should).
- Note: EM is an optimization strategy for objective functions that can be interpreted as likelihoods in the presence of missing data.
- EM is *not* a cost function such as “maximum-likelihood”. EM is *not* a model such as “mixture-of-Gaussians”.

- Observed variables \mathbf{x} , latent variables \mathbf{z} , parameters θ :

$$\ell_c(\theta; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)$$

is the *complete log likelihood*.

- Usually optimizing $\ell_c(\theta)$ given both \mathbf{z} and \mathbf{x} is straightforward. (e.g. class conditional Gaussian fitting, linear regression)
- With \mathbf{z} unobserved, we need the log of a marginal probability:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)$$

which is the *incomplete log likelihood*.

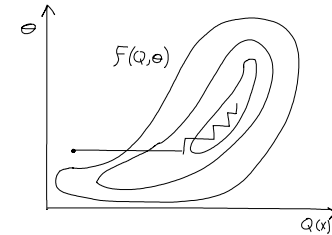
- For fixed data \mathbf{x} , define a functional called the *free energy*:

$$F(q, \theta) \equiv \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \leq \ell(\theta)$$

- The EM algorithm is coordinate-ascent on F :

E-step: $q^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmax}_q F(q, \theta^t)$

M-step: $\theta^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmax}_\theta F(q^{t+1}, \theta^t)$

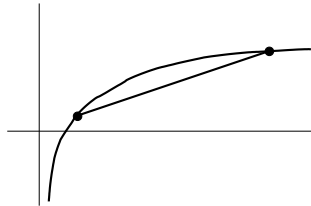


- For any distribution $q(\mathbf{z})$ define *expected complete log likelihood*:

$$\ell_q(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \langle \ell_c(\theta; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) \rangle_q \equiv \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)$$

- Amazing fact: $\ell(\theta) \geq \ell_q(\theta) + \mathcal{H}(q)$ because of concavity of log:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) &= \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) \\ &= \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) \\ &= \log \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \\ &\geq \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \end{aligned}$$



- Where the inequality is called *Jensen's inequality*. (It is only true for distributions: $\sum q(\mathbf{z}) = 1$; $q(\mathbf{z}) > 0$.)

- Note that the free energy breaks into two terms:

$$\begin{aligned} F(q, \theta) &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})} \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta) - \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \ell_q(\theta; \mathbf{x}) + \mathcal{H}(q) = \text{average energy} + \text{entropy} \end{aligned}$$

(this is where its name comes from)

- The first term is the expected complete log likelihood (energy) and the second term, which does not depend on θ , is the entropy.
- Thus, in the M-step, maximizing with respect to θ for fixed q we only need to consider the first term:

$$\theta^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmax}_\theta \ell_q(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{argmax}_\theta \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta)$$

- Claim: the optimum setting of q in the E-step is:

$$q^{t+1} = p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t)$$

- This is the posterior distribution over the latent variables given the data and the parameters. Often we need this at test time anyway (e.g. to perform classification).
- Proof (easy): this setting saturates the bound $\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \geq F(q, \theta)$

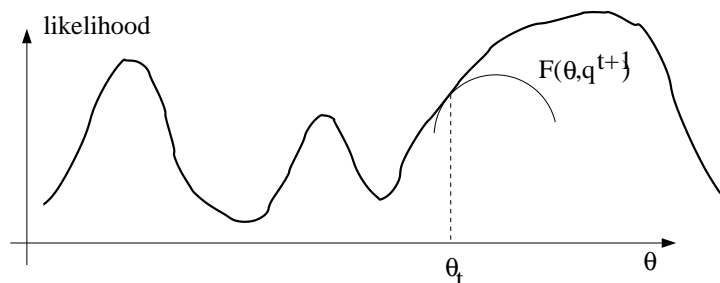
$$\begin{aligned} F(p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t), \theta^t) &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}|\theta^t)}{p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t)} \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t) \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta^t) \\ &= \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta^t) \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta^t) \\ &= \ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Can also show this result using variational calculus or the fact that $\ell(\theta) - F(q, \theta) = \text{KL}[q||p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}, \theta)]$

- Often you can easily compute $b_k = \log p(\mathbf{x}|z = k, \theta_k)$, but it will be very negative, say -10^6 or smaller.
- Now, to compute $\ell = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$ you need to compute $\log \sum_k e^{b_k}$.
- Careful! Do not compute this by doing $\log(\text{sum}(\exp(\mathbf{b})))$. You will get underflow and an incorrect answer.
- Instead do this:
 - Add a constant exponent B to all the values b_k such that the largest value comes close to the maximum exponent allowed by machine precision: $B = \text{MAXEXPONENT} - \log(K) - \max(\mathbf{b})$.
 - Compute $\log(\text{sum}(\exp(\mathbf{b}+B))) - B$.
- Example: if $\log p(x|z = 1) = -420$ and $\log p(x|z = 2) = -420$, what is $\log p(x) = \log [p(x|z = 1) + p(x|z = 2)]$?
Answer: $\log[2e^{-420}] = -420 + \log 2$.

EM CONSTRUCTS SEQUENTIAL CONVEX LOWER BOUNDS 21

- Consider the likelihood function and the function $F(q^{t+1}, \cdot)$.



EXAMPLE: MIXTURES OF GAUSSIANS

- Recall: a mixture of K Gaussians:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) &= \sum_k \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \\ \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_n \log \sum_k \alpha_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^n|\mu_k, \Sigma_k) \end{aligned}$$

- Learning with EM algorithm:

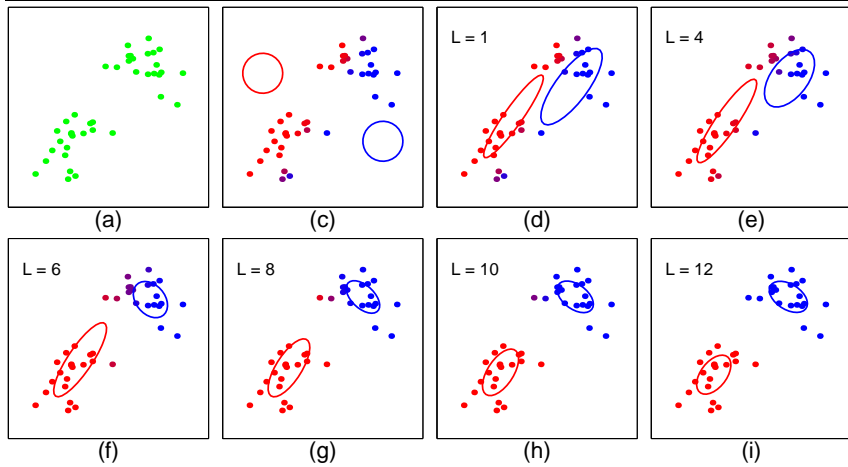
$$\text{E - step : } p_{kn}^t = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^n|\mu_k^t, \Sigma_k^t)$$

$$q_{kn}^{t+1} = p(z=k|\mathbf{x}^n, \theta^t) = \frac{\alpha_k^t p_{kn}^t}{\sum_j \alpha_j^t p_{jn}^t}$$

$$\text{M - step : } \mu_k^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1} \mathbf{x}^n}{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1}}$$

$$\Sigma_k^{t+1} = \frac{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1} (\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1})(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1})^\top}{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1}}$$

$$\alpha_k^{t+1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1}$$



- The EM algorithm for mixtures of Gaussians is just like a soft version of the K-means algorithm with fixed priors and covariance.
- Instead of “hard assignment” in the E-step, we do “soft assignment” based on the softmax of the squared distance from each point to each cluster.
- Each centre is then moved to the *weighted mean* of the data, with weights given by soft assignments. In K-means, the weights are 0 or 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{E-step: } \quad d_{kn}^t &= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^t)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^t) \\ q_{kn}^{t+1} &= \frac{\exp(-d_{kn}^t)}{\sum_j \exp(-d_{jn}^t)} = p(c_n^t = k | \mathbf{x}^n, \mu^t) \\ \text{M-step: } \quad \mu_k^{t+1} &= \frac{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1} \mathbf{x}^n}{\sum_n q_{kn}^{t+1}} \end{aligned}$$

- Expected complete log likelihood $\ell_q(\theta; \mathcal{D})$:

$$\sum_n \sum_k q_{kn} \left[\log \alpha_k - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1})^\top \Sigma_k^{-1}(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1}) - \frac{1}{2} \log |2\pi \Sigma_k| \right]$$

- For fixed q we can optimize the parameters:

$$\frac{\partial \ell_q}{\partial \mu_k} = \Sigma_k^{-1} \sum_n q_{kn} (\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k)$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell_q}{\partial \Sigma_k^{-1}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_n q_{kn} \left[\Sigma_k^\top - (\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1})(\mathbf{x}^n - \mu_k^{t+1})^\top \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell_q}{\partial \alpha_k} = \frac{1}{\alpha_k} \sum_n q_{kn} - \lambda \quad (\lambda = N)$$

- Fact: $\frac{\partial \log |A^{-1}|}{\partial A^{-1}} = A^\top$ and $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}}{\partial A} = \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^\top$

- A way of maximizing likelihood function for latent variable models. Finds ML parameters when the original (hard) problem can be broken up into two (easy) pieces:
 1. Estimate some “missing” or “unobserved” data from observed data and current parameters.
 2. Using this “complete” data, find the maximum likelihood parameter estimates.
- Alternate between filling in the latent variables using our best guess (posterior) and updating the parameters based on this guess:
 - E-step:** $q^{t+1} = p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}, \theta^t)$
 - M-step:** $\theta^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmax}_\theta \sum_{\mathbf{z}} q(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} | \theta)$
- In the M-step we optimize a lower bound on the likelihood. In the E-step we close the gap, making bound=likelihood.

- Some good things about EM:
 - no learning rate parameter
 - very fast for low dimensions
 - each iteration guaranteed to improve likelihood
 - adapts unused units rapidly
- Some bad things about EM:
 - can get stuck in local minima
 - both steps require considering *all* explanations of the data which is an exponential amount of work in the dimension of θ
- EM is typically used with mixture models, for example mixtures of Gaussians or mixtures of experts. The “missing” data are the labels showing which sub-model generated each datapoint.
Very common: also used to train HMMs, Boltzmann machines, ...

- Sparse EM:
 - Do not recompute exactly the posterior probability on each data point under all models, because it is almost zero.
 - Instead keep an “active list” which you update every once in a while.
- Generalized (Incomplete) EM: It might be hard to find the ML parameters in the M-step, even given the completed data. We can still make progress by doing an M-step that improves the likelihood a bit (e.g. gradient step).

- Of course, we can learn when there are missing (hidden) variables on some cases and not on others.
- In this case the cost function was:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{\text{complete}} \log p(\mathbf{x}^c, \mathbf{y}^c | \theta) + \sum_{\text{missing}} \log \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \log p(\mathbf{x}^m, \mathbf{y} | \theta)$$
- Now you can think of this in a new way: in the E-step we estimate the hidden variables on the incomplete cases only.
- The M-step optimizes the log likelihood on the complete data plus the expected likelihood on the incomplete data using the E-step.