STATISTICAL MODELS FOR HMM/ANN HYBRIDS

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Abstract

We present a theoretical investigation into the use of normalised artificial neural network (ANN) outputs in the context of hidden Markov models (HMMs). The work is motivated by the pursuit of a more theoretically rigorous understanding of the Kullback-Liebler (KL)-HMM. Two possible models are considered based respectively on the HMM states storing categorical distributions and Dirichlet distributions. Training and recognition algorithms are derived, and possible relationships with KL-HMM are briefly discussed.

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1 MLPs in ASR

1.1 The softmax

A common approach in multi-layer perceptron (MLP) based pattern recognition is to use a “softmax” (sometimes called multiple logistic) activation function at the output layer (Bridle, 1990). The softmax activation function results in an observation, \( o_t \), at time \( t \):

\[
o_t = (o_{t,1}, o_{t,2}, \ldots, o_{t,p})^T, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{p} o_{t,i} = 1, \quad o_{t,i} \geq 0.
\]  \hfill (1)

Notice that the output of softmax has the form of a categorical probability distribution, so it can be used in certain operations that are only well-defined if that is so. The outputs may be more-or-less useful estimates of posterior probabilities, depending on the way it is trained. Generally, however, the softmax is taken as an estimate of posterior probabilities. In particular, when incorporated into an HMM as an HMM/ANN hybrid, each state of the HMM is associated with a specific one of the labels represented by the output of the softmax (Bourlard and Morgan, 1994; Morgan and Bourlard, 1995a,b). It is conventional to compute a number to use as the HMM output likelihood for a specific state by dividing the appropriate output from the softmax by the prior probability for the class.

1.2 Tandem

In the tandem model of Hermansky et al. (2000), the softmax outputs are passed through a logarithm that allows them to be treated as Gaussian random variates. This form is then modelled using a normal HMM/GMM system.

Tandem is not a rigorous statistical model. However, it is known to perform very well in speech recognition, demonstrating that the softmax representation carries useful information.

1.3 KL-HMM

More recently, the Kullback-Leibler (KL) HMM was introduced by Aradilla et al. (2007); Aradilla Zapata (2008). In the KL-HMM, the output distribution of each state of the HMM is replaced by a multinomial distribution (constrained to be a categorical distribution) that can, in principle, emit any of the labels represented by the softmax. Rather than evaluating an output likelihood, a score is calculated being the KL divergence between the multinomial stored in the state, and the one represented by the softmax output.

In this report, we take the stance that the KL-HMM derives its performance from its ability to separate the state labels and the softmax labels, rather than the KL formulation. We derive two generative models that use broadly the same parameterisation, but have a different statistical interpretation.

One goal is to understand what generative statistical assumption could lead to the KL formulation, or something similar to it.
2 Categorical model

2.1 Model formulation

Assume that each HMM state, \( q_d, d \in \{1, 2, \ldots , D \} \), stores a categorical distribution; that is, a multinomial distribution where only one sample is drawn.

\[
p(\rho | \theta_d) = \theta_{d,\rho}, \quad \sum_{\rho = 1}^{P} \theta_{d,\rho} = 1. \tag{2}
\]

The softmax outputs can also be interpreted as categorical distributions,

\[
p(\rho | o_t) = o_{t,\rho}, \quad \sum_{\rho = 1}^{P} o_{t,\rho} = 1, \tag{3}
\]

but note that the softmax do not actually generate phones. Rather, they encode the belief that a phone was emitted by the state. Given the deterministic relationship between \( o_t \) and \( x_t \), the values \( o_{t,\rho} \) can be referred to as either \( p(\rho | x_t) \) or \( p(\rho | o_t) \). In either case, they have the form of posterior probabilities.

\( q^d \quad \text{Identifier for the state} \)
\( q_t \quad \text{State at time} \ t \)
\( q \quad \text{The state sequence} \ q_1, q_2, \ldots , q_T \)
\( \theta_d \quad \text{The categorical distribution on state} \ d \)
\( \alpha_d \quad \text{The hyperparameter of the Dirichlet prior for} \ \theta_d \)
\( \rho_t \quad \text{The class generated by the state at time} \ t \)
\( \rho \quad \text{The sequence of classes generated by the state sequence} \)
\( o_t \quad \text{The softmax output at time} \ t \)
\( O \quad \text{The set} (\text{matrix}) \text{of softmax outputs} \)
\( x_t \quad \text{The observed audio representation at time} \ t \)
\( X \quad \text{The set} (\text{matrix}) \text{of observed audio representations} \)
\( \omega \quad \text{The prior on the softmax outputs} \)

Table 1: Notation.

![Generative diagram in plate notation for categorical model before training. Arrows mean “influences”, rectangles are assumed fixed, circles are state variables. Shading means observable. The large box means “repeat T times”.

Figure 1: Generative diagram in plate notation for categorical model before training. Arrows mean “influences”, rectangles are assumed fixed, circles are state variables. Shading means observable. The large box means “repeat T times”.

Figure 1 shows the model in plate notation\(^1\). A Dirichlet prior can be assumed for \( \theta_d \):

\[
p(\theta_d | \alpha_d) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha_d)} \theta_{d,1}^{\alpha_{d,1} - 1} \theta_{d,2}^{\alpha_{d,2} - 1} \cdots \theta_{d,P}^{\alpha_{d,P} - 1}, \tag{4}
\]

where \( \alpha_{d,\rho} = 1 \) represents a flat prior.

\(^1\)http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plate_notation
The full joint distribution can be read off the inference diagram as:

\[
p (\theta_d, \rho, O) = p (\theta_d | \alpha_d) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (o_t | \rho_t, \omega)
\]

(5)

\[
= p (\theta_d | \alpha_d) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p (o_t | \omega) \frac{p (\rho_t | o_t)}{p (\rho_t | \omega)}
\]

(6)

\[
= p (\theta_d | \alpha_d) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p (o_t | \omega) \frac{1}{p (\rho_t | \omega)} p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (\rho_t | o_t),
\]

(7)

where

\[
p (\rho_t | \omega) = \int do_t \ p (o_t | \omega) p (\rho_t | o_t),
\]

(8)

and the integral is over the unit hypercube.

It is tempting to drop the term \( p (o_t | \omega) \) because it is observed. However, doing so would reduce the integral to simply \( p (\rho_t | o_t) \) which would then cancel. In fact, this is a reminder that \( o_t \) is simply an estimate of \( p (\rho_t | \theta_d) \), and has a distribution.

### 2.2 Priors

The prior term, \( p (\rho_t) \), is normally calculated directly from the data. However, in this framework it is more involved. Assume a Dirichlet prior:

\[
p (o_t | \omega) = \frac{1}{B(\omega_t)} \omega_{t,1}^{\omega_{t,1}-1} \omega_{t,2}^{\omega_{t,2}-1} \cdots \omega_{t,p}^{\omega_{t,p}-1}.
\]

(9)

Equation 8 then evaluates to a beta function with a single hyperparameter incremented by 1 that in turn cancels with the one in the Dirichlet:

\[
\int do_t \ p (o_t | \omega) p (\rho_t | o_t) = \int do_t \ \frac{1}{B(\omega_t)} \omega_{t,1}^{\omega_{t,1}-1} \omega_{t,2}^{\omega_{t,2}-1} \cdots \omega_{t,p}^{\omega_{t,p}-1}
\]

(10)

\[
= \frac{\Gamma(\omega_{t,1} + \omega_{t,2} + \cdots + \omega_{t,p})}{\Gamma(\omega_{t,1})} \frac{\Gamma(\omega_{t,1} + 1)}{\Gamma(\omega_{t,1} + \omega_{t,2} + \cdots + \omega_{t,p})}
\]

(11)

\[
p (\rho_t | \omega) = \frac{\omega_{t,\rho_t}}{\omega_{t,1} + \omega_{t,2} + \cdots + \omega_{t,p}}.
\]

(12)

As for the value of \( \omega \), we can attempt to come up with a maximum likelihood value:

\[
p (\omega | O) \propto \prod_{t=1}^{T} p (o_t | \omega)
\]

(13)

\[
= \prod_{t=1}^{T} \frac{1}{B(\omega)} \omega_{t,1}^{\omega_{t,1}} \omega_{t,2}^{\omega_{t,2}} \cdots \omega_{t,p}^{\omega_{t,p}}.
\]

(14)

Differentiating w.r.t. \( \omega \) and equating to zero has no closed form solution, even after logarithm. However, a solution is given in section 3.3.

It is possible, however, to make an informed approximation. Consider \( o_t \) being a generative (categorical) distribution generating labelled training data where the labels are the same as the classes produced by the softmax.

\[
p (o_t | l) = \frac{1}{p(l)} p (o_t) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p (l_t | o_t)
\]

(15)

\[
= \frac{1}{p(l)} \omega_{t,1}^{n_{t,1}} \omega_{t,2}^{n_{t,2}} \cdots \omega_{t,p}^{n_{t,p}}.
\]

(16)

where there are \( n_{\rho} \) frames of class \( \rho_t \) in the training data. So, we have a posterior of sorts on \( o_t \), and by inspection \( \omega_t \approx n_t \).
In practice, the Dirichlet of equation 9 with \( \omega_t = n_t \) represents very strong prior information (\( N \) is large). This will cause it to dominate any posterior calculation. It is possible (and usual) to reduce the effect of such a prior by scaling the counts; that is, write
\[
\omega_\rho = \frac{n_\rho}{N} \nu,
\]
where \( \nu \) is an arbitrary scale factor being a hypothetical number of samples that the prior is taken to represent. Notice that \( p(\rho_t | \omega) \) is unchanged by the re-parameterisation.

### 2.3 Parameter estimation

To train the model, a-priori we expect the solution to be similar to that for Gaussian mixture weights. We assume Viterbi training here, i.e., we don’t consider all state sequences. However, we need EM for the summation inside a product. The auxiliary function is

\[
Q(\theta_d', \theta_d) = \sum_\rho p(\rho | \theta_d, O) \log \left( p(\theta_d', \rho, O) \right),
\]

where the summation is over all possible combinations of sequence \( \rho \). Combining the auxiliary function with a Lagrange multiplier, \( \lambda \), to enforce a sum to one constraint and substituting in the full joint of equation 7,

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_d'_{1, \rho}} \left[ \sum_\rho p(\rho | \theta_d, O) \log \left( p(\theta_d', \rho, O) \right) \right] - \lambda \left( 1 - \sum_\rho \theta_d'_{1, \rho} \right) = 0 \tag{19}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_d'_{d, \rho}} \left[ \sum_\rho p(\rho | \theta_d, O) \left( \log p(\theta_d' | \alpha_d) + \sum_{t=1}^T \log p(\rho_t | \theta_d') + C \right) \right] - \lambda \left( 1 - \sum_\rho \theta_d'_{d, \rho} \right) = 0 \tag{20}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_d'_{d, \rho}} \left[ \sum_{p=1}^p \sum_\rho p(\rho | \theta_d, O) \left( \sum_{t=1}^T \log \theta_d'_{0, \rho} + C \right) \right] - \lambda \left( 1 - \sum_{p=1}^p \theta_d'_{d, \rho} \right) = 0 \tag{21}
\]

where the constant \( C \) represents the terms independent of \( \theta_d' \). Differentiating,

\[
\frac{\alpha_{d, \rho} - 1}{\theta_d'_{d, \rho}} + \sum_\rho p(\rho | \theta_d, O) \sum_{t: \rho_t = \rho} \frac{1}{\theta_d'_{d, \rho}} + \lambda = 0 \tag{22}
\]

\[
\frac{\alpha_{d, \rho} - 1}{\theta_d'_{d, \rho}} + \sum_\rho \frac{1}{\theta_d'_{d, \rho}} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{\rho_t = \rho} p(\rho_t | \theta_d, O_t) + \lambda = 0 \tag{23}
\]

\[
1 - \alpha_{d, \rho} - \sum_{t=1}^T p(\rho_t | \theta_d, O_t) = \lambda \theta_d'_{d, \rho}. \tag{24}
\]

Summing over \( \rho \) gets rid of \( \theta_d'_{d, \rho} \). So,

\[
\lambda = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^p \left( 1 - \alpha_{d, \rho} - \sum_{t=1}^T p(\rho_t | \theta_d, O_t) \right)}{p}, \tag{26}
\]

and

\[
\theta_d'_{d, \rho} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \left( 1 - \alpha_{d, \rho} - \sum_{t=1}^T p(\rho_t | \theta_d, O_t) \right). \tag{27}
\]

The expression for the latent class follows directly from the full joint:

\[
p(\rho_t | \theta_d, O_t) = \frac{1}{p(\theta_d, O_t)} p(\rho_t, \theta_d, O_t)
= \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | O)} p(\rho_t | \theta_d) p(\rho_t | O_t). \tag{28}
\]
Substituting,
\[
\theta'_{d,\rho} = \frac{1}{\sum_{\rho=1}^{p} \left( 1 - \alpha_{d,\rho} - \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} \theta_{d,\rho} o_{t,\rho} \right) \left( 1 - \alpha_{d,\rho} - \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} \theta_{d,\rho} o_{t,\rho} \right)}
\]
\[
= \frac{1}{\sum_{\rho=1}^{p} \left( \alpha_{d,\rho} - 1 + \frac{1}{p(\rho | \omega)} \theta_{d,\rho} \sum_{t=1}^{T} o_{t,\rho} \right)}.
\]

In principle, it is possible to set all \(\alpha_{d,\rho}\) equal. However, it does make sense to set it more like
\[
\alpha_{d,\rho} = \begin{cases} 
0.2 & \text{if } d = \rho, \\
0.1 & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

2.4 Model evaluation

In recognition (decoding), we are typically interested in maximising the probability of a state sequence, \(q_t\), given the parameters and observation. This expands via Bayes as the quantity
\[
q = \arg \max_q p(q | X); \quad p(q | X) \propto p(q) p(X | q).
\]

If \(q_t = d\), this can be written in terms of \(\theta_d\) and \(\alpha_d\), given the deterministic relationships above. The actual class, \(\rho_t\), that is emitted is not known and must be marginalised. Writing in terms of the full joint and substituting equation 7:
\[
p(X | q) = p(O | \theta_d) = \frac{p(O, \theta_d)}{p(\theta_d)}
\]
\[
= \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t | \omega) \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{p} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} p(\rho_t | \theta_d) p(\rho_t | o_t).
\]

Or, written as a logarithm over \(T\) frames, we have:
\[
\log p([o]_T | \theta_d) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log \left( p(o_t | \omega) \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{p} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} p(\rho_t | \theta_d) p(\rho_t | o_t) \right)
\]
\[
= \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p(o_t | \omega) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log \left( \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{p} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} p(\rho_t | \theta_d) p(\rho_t | o_t) \right).
\]

Notice that there is still a prior, \(p(o_t | \omega)\), on the softmax output (equivalently on the data, \(x_t\)). There are two interesting things:

1. It is independent of the state sequence, so can be ignored in a maximisation.
2. It is actually the same term in the denominator of equation 33. In this sense it just cancels, and the proportionality symbol of equation 33 becomes equality:
\[
p(q | X) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{p} \frac{1}{p(\rho_t | \omega)} p(\rho_t | \theta_d) p(\rho_t | o_t).
\]

2.5 Corollaries

2.5.1 Relationship with conventional hybrids

Notice that when the state does not store a distribution, only a label, we have \(\rho_t = q_t\) and \(p(\rho_t | \theta_{q_t}) = 1\). Hence,
\[
\prod_{t=1}^{T} p(x_t | q_t) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \frac{p(q_t | o_t)}{p(q_t | \omega)},
\]

\[\text{(39)}\]
which is the usual hybrid HMM/ANN expression.

2.5.2 Relationship with scalar product

Writing the core part of equation 5 as

\[
p (o_t | \theta_d) = \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (o_t | \rho_t),
\]

(40)

the operative term is clearly a scalar product. This is nearly identical to the Posterior Scalar Product of Picart (2009).

It is also identical to the formulation of Rottland and Rigoll (2000), who simply treat the softmax outputs divided by the prior \( p (\rho_t) \) in the same manner as Gaussian outputs in a mixture.

2.5.3 Relationship with KL-HMM

Writing

\[
L = \log \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} \frac{1}{Q(\rho_t)} p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (\rho_t | o_t)
\]

(41)

\[
= \log \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} Q(\rho_t) p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (\rho_t | o_t) p (\rho_t | \omega)
\]

(42)

This holds for any arbitrary distribution \( Q(\rho_t) \). Now use Jensen’s inequality to give a lower bound

\[
L \geq \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} Q(\rho_t) \log \left( \frac{p (\rho_t | \theta_d) p (\rho_t | o_t)}{Q(\rho_t)} \right)
\]

(43)

\[
= \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} Q(\rho_t) \log \left( \frac{p (\rho_t | \theta_d)}{Q(\rho_t)} \right) + \sum_{\rho_t=1}^{P} Q(\rho_t) \log \frac{p (\rho_t | o_t)}{p (\rho_t | \omega)}.
\]

(44)

If we set \( Q(\rho_t) = p (\rho_t | o_t) \), this is very close to the (symmetric) KL divergence. Certainly the form is the same. The differences are that the terms before the logarithms are the same, and the final denominator is a prior. Nevertheless, the relationship is evident.
3 Dirichlet model

3.1 Model formulation

We seek a probability distribution that outputs observations of the same form as the softmax. Such a distribution is the Dirichlet distribution:

\[
p(x | \theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\theta_1 + \theta_2 + \cdots + \theta_P)}{\Gamma(\theta_1) \Gamma(\theta_2) \cdots \Gamma(\theta_P)} x_1^{\theta_1-1} x_2^{\theta_2-1} \cdots x_P^{\theta_P-1}, \tag{45}\]

\[
= \frac{1}{B(\theta)} \prod_{\rho=1}^{P} x_{\rho}^{\theta_{\rho}-1}, \quad \sum_{\rho=1}^{P} x_{\rho} = 1. \tag{46}\]

In this case, the softmax outputs are interpreted as normalised numbers. There is no probabilistic interpretation required. This is analogous to the Tandem interpretation. A slightly more involved model is the Dirichlet mixture of Chen et al. (2007), apparently duplicated by V. et al. (2011).

Figure 2: Generative diagram in plate notation for Dirichlet model before training. Arrows mean “influences”, rectangles are assumed fixed, circles are state variables. Shading means observable. The large box means “repeat T times”.

The full joint distribution follows directly from figure 2:

\[
p(\theta_d, O) = p(\theta_d | \alpha_d) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t | \theta_d). \tag{47}\]

3.2 Priors

The prior in this case is on the parameter of a Dirichlet distribution. There is not an obvious distribution to use in this case, so we proceed with

\[
p(\theta_d) \propto 1. \tag{48}\]

3.3 Parameter estimation

Say we have T observations;

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{d,\rho}} \log \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t | \theta) = T\Psi\left(\sum_{\rho} \theta_{d,\rho}\right) - T\Psi(\theta_{d,\rho}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log o_{t,\rho} = 0, \tag{49}\]

where \(\Psi(\cdot)\) is the digamma function. There is no closed form solution. The “normal” approach is to use Newton-Raphson iterations to solve this equation; this is detailed by Chen et al. (2007). The situation is also discussed by Wicker et al. (2008).

Another possibility is the EM-like solution given by Minka\(^2\), evaluated by Huang\(^3\) where he points out a lower bound on the gamma function

\[
\Gamma(x) \geq \Gamma(y) \exp([(x - y)\Psi(y)] \tag{50}\]

\(^3\)http://www.stanford.edu/~jhuang11/research/dirichlet/dirichlet.pdf
so
\[
\log \Gamma(x) \geq x\Psi(y) + \log \Gamma(y) - y\Psi(y) \quad (51)
\]
where equality holds for \( x = y \). This allows us to write
\[
\log \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t \mid \theta') \geq T \left( \sum_{p=1}^{P} \theta'_{d,p} \right) \Psi \left( \sum_{p=1}^{P} \theta_{d,p} \right) - T \sum_{p=1}^{P} \log \Gamma(\theta'_{d,p}) + \sum_{p=1}^{P} (\theta'_{d,p} - 1) \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log o_{t,p} + C
\]
so
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta'_{d,p}} \log \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t \mid \theta') = T\Psi \left( \sum_{p=1}^{P} \theta_{d,p} \right) - T\Psi(\theta'_{d,p}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log o_{t,p} = 0 \quad (53)
\]
\[
\Psi(\theta'_{d,p}) = \Psi \left( \sum_{p=1}^{P} \theta_{d,p} \right) + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log o_{t,p} \quad (54)
\]

One point here is that it is necessary to invert the \( \Psi \) function, but Minka shows that it can be done using Newton-Raphson.

### 3.4 Model evaluation

Given an observation set, \( O \), we can write the log-likelihood as
\[
\log \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(o_t \mid \theta) = T \log \left( \sum_{p=1}^{P} \theta_{d,p} \right) - T \sum_{p=1}^{P} \log \Gamma(\theta_{d,p}) + \sum_{p=1}^{P} (\theta_{d,p} - 1) \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log o_{t,p} \quad (55)
\]

### 3.5 Corollary

Writing the final term of equation 55 as
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{p=1}^{P} (\theta_{d,p} - 1) \log o_{t,p} \quad (56)
\]

it is clear that the accumulated value is a scalar product involving the parameter and the logarithm of the observation. So, it has information-theoretic overtones.
4 Conclusions

We have detailed two possible generative models with the same structure as the KL-HMM of Aradilla Zapata (2008):

1. A categorial model, in which HMM states are assumed to store a categorical distribution. Such a distribution emits phones.

2. A Dirichlet model, in which HMM states are assumed to store a Dirichlet distribution. Such a distribution emits vectors of the form in equation 1.

5 Acknowledgements

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A Kullback Leibler

There is some uncertainty over how to handle the asymmetry of the KL divergence. In fact, Kullback and Leibler (1951) defined the divergence to be symmetrical; they referred to the asymmetric versions as “mean information for discrimination” measures.

From Kullback and Leibler (1951), we have “the mean information for discrimination between $H_1$ and $H_2$ per observation from distribution $\mu_1$” is

$$ I(1:2) = I_{1:2}(X) = \int dx \ p(x | H_1) \log \frac{p(x | H_1)}{p(x | H_2)}, \quad (57) $$

where $H_1$ is the hypothesis that the data $x$ originated from distribution $\mu_1$. Kullback (1987) expresses a preference for the term $I(1:2)$ to be called “discrimination information” rather than “distance”. Then the “divergence between $\mu_1$ and $\mu_2$” is

$$ J(1, 2) = J_{12}(X) \quad (58) $$

$$ = I_{1:2}(X) + I_{2:1}(X) \quad (59) $$

$$ = \int dx \ (p(x | H_1) - p(x | H_2)) \log \frac{p(x | H_1)}{p(x | H_2)}. \quad (60) $$

So, clearly

$$ J(1, 2) = \int dx \ p(x | H_1) \log \frac{p(x | H_1)}{p(x | H_2)} + \int dx \ p(x | H_2) \log \frac{p(x | H_2)}{p(x | H_1)}. \quad (61) $$