Mixtures of Product Components Versus Mixtures of Dependence Trees

Jiří Grim and Pavel Pudil

Abstract Mixtures of product components assume independence of variables given the index of the component. They can be efficiently estimated from data by means of EM algorithm and have some other useful properties. On the other hand, by considering mixtures of dependence trees, we can explicitly describe the statistical relationship between pairs of variables at the level of individual components and therefore approximation power of the resulting mixture may essentially increase. However, we have found in application to classification of numerals that both models perform comparably and the contribution of dependence-tree structures to the log-likelihood criterion decreases in the course of EM iterations. Thus the optimal estimate of dependence-tree mixture tends to reduce to a simple product mixture model.

Keywords Product mixtures · Mixtures of dependence trees · EM algorithm · NIST numerals

1 Introduction

In the last decades there is an increasing need of estimating multivariate and multimodal probability distributions from large data sets. Such databases are usually produced by information technologies in various areas like medicine, image processing, monitoring systems, communication networks and others. A typical feature of the arising "technical" data is a high dimensionality and a large number of measurements. The unknown underlying probability distributions or density functions are nearly always multimodal and cannot be assumed in a simple parametric form. For this reason, one of the most efficient possibilities is to approximate the unknown

J. Grim (✉)
Institute of Information Theory and Automation, Czech Academy of Sciences,
Prague, Czech Republic
e-mail: grim@utia.cas.cz

P. Pudil
Faculty of Management, Prague University of Economics Jindřichův Hradec,
Prague, Czech Republic

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multidimensional probability distributions by finite mixtures and, especially, by mixtures of components defined as products of univariate distributions [6, 8, 13, 17, 18, 23]. In case of discrete variables the product mixtures are universal approximators since any discrete distribution can be expressed as a product mixture [12]. Similarly, the Gaussian product mixtures approach the universality of non-parametric Parzen estimates with the increasing number of components. In addition, the mixtures of product components have some specific advantages, like easily available marginals and conditional distributions, a direct applicability to incomplete data and the possibility of structural optimization of multilayer probabilistic neural networks (PNN) [9, 10, 19, 21, 22].

Nevertheless, the simplicity of product components may become restrictive in some cases and therefore it could be advantageous to consider more complex mixture models. A natural choice is to use dependence-tree distributions [3] as components. By using the concept of dependence tree we can explicitly describe the statistical relationships between pairs of variables at the level of individual components and therefore the approximation "power" of the resulting mixture model should increase. We have shown [7] that mixtures of dependence-tree distributions can be optimized by EM algorithm in full generality. In the domain of probabilistic neural networks the mixtures of dependence trees could help to explain the role of dendritic branching in biological neurons [20].

In this paper we describe first the product mixture model (Sects. 2 and 3). In Sect. 4 we recall the concept of dependence-tree distribution in the framework of finite mixtures. In Sect. 5 we discuss different aspects of the two types of mixtures in a computational experiment—in application to recognition of numerals. The results are summarized in the conclusion.

1.1 Estimating Mixtures

Considering distribution mixtures, we approximate the unknown probability distributions by a linear combination of component distributions

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \sum_{m\in\mathcal{M}} w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m), \quad \mathcal{M} = \{1,\ldots,M\}, \tag{1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{w} = (w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_M), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_m = \{\theta_{m1}, \theta_{m2}, \ldots, \theta_{mN}\},$$

where $\boldsymbol{x} \in \boldsymbol{X}$ are discrete or real data vectors, $\boldsymbol{w}$ is the vector of probabilistic weights, $\mathcal{M}$ is the component index set and $F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m)$ are the component distributions with the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_m$.

Since the late 1960s the standard way to estimate mixtures is to use the EM algorithm [4–6, 24–26, 36, 38]. Formally, given a finite set $\mathcal{S}$ of independent observations of the underlying N-dimensional random vector

$$\mathcal{S} = \{\boldsymbol{x}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{x}^{(2)}, \dots\}, \quad \boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N) \in \boldsymbol{X}, \tag{2}$$

we maximize the log-likelihood function

$$L(\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \log \left[\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) \right] \tag{3}$$

by means of the following EM iteration equations ($m \in \mathcal{M}, n \in \mathcal{N}, \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{S}$):

$$q(m|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m)}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{M}} w_j F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)}, \quad w'_m = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} q(m|\boldsymbol{x}), \tag{4}$$

$$Q_m(\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{\sum_{y \in \mathcal{S}} q(m|\boldsymbol{y})} \log F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}'_m = \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_m} \left\{ Q_m(\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) \right\}. \tag{5}$$

Here the apostrophe denotes the new parameter values in each iteration. One can easily verify (cf. [6]) that the general iteration scheme (4) and (5) produces nondecreasing sequence of values of the maximized criterion (3). In view of the implicit relation (5) any new application of EM algorithm is reduced to the explicit solution of Eq. (5) for fixed conditional weights $q(m|\boldsymbol{x})$.

Considering product mixtures, we assume the product components

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \prod_{n \in \mathcal{N}} f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn}), \quad m \in \mathcal{M} \tag{6}$$

and therefore Eq. (5) can be specified for variables independently ($n \in \mathcal{N}$):

$$Q_{mn}(\theta_{mn}) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m |\mathcal{S}|} \log f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn}), \quad \theta'_{mn} = \arg\max_{\theta_{mn}} \left\{ Q_{mn}(\theta_{mn}) \right\}. \tag{7}$$

The mixtures of product components have some specific advantages as approximation tools. Recall that any marginal distribution of product mixtures is directly available by omitting superfluous terms in product components. Thus, in case of prediction, we can easily compute arbitrary conditional densities and for the same reason product mixtures can be estimated directly from incomplete data without estimating the missing values [18]. Product mixtures support a subspace modification for the sake of component-specific feature selection [10] and can be used for sequential pattern recognition by maximum conditional informativity [14]. Moreover, the product components simplify the EM iterations, support sequential version [11] and increase the numerical stability of EM algorithm.

2 Multivariate Bernoulli Mixtures

In case of binary data $x_n \in \{0, 1\}$ the product mixture model (1), (6) is known as multivariate Bernoulli mixture based on the univariate distributions

$$f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn}) = (\theta_{mn})^{x_n}(1-\theta_{mn})^{1-x_n}, \quad 0 \le \theta_{mn} \le 1, \tag{8}$$

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \prod_{n\in\mathcal{N}} (\theta_{mn})^{x_n}(1-\theta_{mn})^{1-x_n}, \quad m \in \mathcal{M}. \tag{9}$$

The conditional expectation criterion $Q_{mn}(\theta_{mn})$ can be expressed in the form

$$Q_{mn}(\theta_{mn}) = \sum_{\xi\in\mathcal{X}_n} \Big(\sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}} \delta(\xi, x_n) \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} \Big) \log f_n(\xi|\theta_{mn}),$$

and therefore there is a simple solution maximizing the weighted likelihood (7):

$$f_n(\xi|\theta_{mn}) = \sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}} \delta(\xi, x_n) \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta'_{mn} = \sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}} x_n \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|}. \tag{10}$$

We recall that the multivariate Bernoulli mixtures are not restrictive as an approximation tool since, for a large number of components, any distribution of a random binary vector can be expressed in the form (1), (9), (cf. [12]).

In case of multivariate Bernoulli mixtures we can easily derive the structural (subspace) modification [8, 10] by introducing binary structural parameters $\varphi_{mn} \in \{0, 1\}$ in the product components

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \prod_{n\in\mathcal{N}} f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn})^{\varphi_{mn}} f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n})^{1-\varphi_{mn}}, \quad m \in \mathcal{M}. \tag{11}$$

It can be seen that by setting $\varphi_{mn} = 0$ in the formula (11), we can substitute any component-specific univariate distribution $f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn})$ by the respective common background distribution $f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n})$. The structural component (9) can be rewritten in the form

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m, \boldsymbol{\phi}_m), \quad m \in \mathcal{M}, \tag{12}$$

where $F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ is a nonzero "background" probability distribution—usually defined as a fixed product of the unconditional univariate marginals

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) = \prod_{n\in\mathcal{N}} f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n}), \quad \theta_{0n} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}} x_n, \quad n \in \mathcal{N}.$$

In this way we obtain the subspace mixture model

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{\Theta},\boldsymbol{\Phi}) = F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)\sum_{m\in\mathcal{M}} w_m G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m), \tag{13}$$

where the component functions $G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m)$ include additional binary structural parameters $\varphi_{mn} \in \{0,1\}$:

$$G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m) = \prod_{n\in\mathcal{N}} \left[\frac{f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn})}{f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n})}\right]^{\varphi_{mn}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\phi}_m = (\varphi_{m1},\ldots,\varphi_{mN}). \tag{14}$$

Consequently, the component functions $G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m)$ may be defined on different subspaces. In other words, for each component we can "choose" the optimal subset of informative features. The complexity and "structure" of the finite mixture (13) can be controlled by means of the binary parameters φ_{mn} since the number of parameters is reduced whenever $\varphi_{mn} = 0$. Thus we can estimate product mixtures of high dimensionality while keeping the number of estimated parameters reasonably small.

The structural parameters φ_{mn} can be optimized by means of the EM algorithm in full generality (cf. [8, 10, 21]) by maximizing the corresponding log-likelihood criterion:

$$L = \frac{1}{|S|}\sum_{x\in S} \log\left[\sum_{m\in\mathcal{M}} w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m)\right].$$

In the following EM iteration equations the apostrophe denotes the new parameter values ($m \in \mathcal{M}, n \in \mathcal{N}$):

$$q(m|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{w_m G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m,\boldsymbol{\phi}_m)}{\sum_{j\in\mathcal{M}} w_j G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_j,\boldsymbol{\phi}_j)}, \qquad w_m' = \frac{1}{|S|}\sum_{x\in S} q(m|\boldsymbol{x}), \tag{15}$$

$$\theta_{mn}' = \sum_{x\in S} x_n \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w_m'|S|}, \qquad \gamma_{mn}' = \frac{1}{|S|}\sum_{x\in S} q(m|\boldsymbol{x}) \log\frac{f_n(x_n|\theta_{mn}')}{f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n})}. \tag{16}$$

Assuming a fixed number λ of component specific parameters we define the optimal subset of nonzero parameters φ_{mn}' by means of the λ highest values $\gamma_{mn}' > 0$. From the computational point of view it is more efficient to specify the structural parameters by simple thresholding

$$\varphi_{mn}' = \begin{cases} 1, \gamma_{mn}' > \tau \\ 0, \gamma_{mn}' \le \tau \end{cases}, \quad \left(\tau \approx \frac{\gamma_0}{MN}\sum_{m\in\mathcal{M}}\sum_{n\in\mathcal{N}} \gamma_{mn}'\right)$$

where the threshold τ is derived from the mean value of γ_{mn}' by a coefficient γ_0. The structural criterion γ_{mn}' can be rewritten in the form:

$$\gamma'_{mn} = w'_m \sum_{\xi=0}^{1} f_n(\xi|\theta'_{mn}) \log \frac{f_n(\xi|\theta'_{mn})}{f_n(\xi|\theta_{0n})} = w'_m I(f_n(\cdot|\theta'_{mn})||f_n(\cdot|\theta_{0n})). \tag{17}$$

In other words, the structural criterion γ'_{mn} can be expressed in terms of Kullback-Leibler information divergence $I(f_n(\cdot|\theta'_{mn})||f_n(\cdot|\theta_{0n}))$ [29] between the component-specific distribution $f_n(x_n|\theta'_{mn})$ and the corresponding univariate "background" distribution $f_n(x_n|\theta_{0n})$. Thus, only the most specific and informative distributions $f_n(x_n|\theta'_{mn})$ are included in the components.

It can be verified [10, 21] that, for a fixed λ, the iteration scheme (15)–(17) guarantees the monotonic property of the EM algorithm. Recently the subspace mixture model has been apparently independently proposed to control the Gaussian mixture model complexity [31] and to estimate Dirichlet mixtures [2].

The main motivation for the subspace mixture model (13) has been the statistically correct structural optimization of incompletely interconnected probabilistic neural networks [10, 13, 16, 21]. Note that the background probability distribution $F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0)$ can be reduced in the Bayes formula and therefore any decision-making may be confined to just the relevant variables. In particular, considering a finite set of classes $\omega \in \Omega$ with a priori probabilities $p(\omega)$ and denoting $\mathcal{M}_\omega$ the respective component index sets, we can express the corresponding class-conditional mixtures in the form:

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\omega, \boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}, \boldsymbol{\Phi}) = F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_0) \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}_\omega} w_m G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m, \boldsymbol{\phi}_m), \quad \omega \in \Omega. \tag{18}$$

In this way, the Bayes decision rule is expressed in terms of a weighted sum of component functions $G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m, \boldsymbol{\phi}_m)$ which can be defined on different subspaces:

$$\omega^* = d(\boldsymbol{x}) = \arg\max_{\omega \in \Omega} \{p(\omega|\boldsymbol{x})\} = \arg\max_{\omega \in \Omega} \{p(\omega) \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}_\omega} w_m G(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_m, \boldsymbol{\phi}_m)\}. \tag{19}$$

3 Mixtures of Dependence Trees

As mentioned earlier, the simplicity of product components may appear to be limiting in some cases and a natural way to generalize product mixtures is to use dependence-tree distributions as components [7, 32–34]. Of course, marginal distributions of the dependence-tree mixtures are not trivially available anymore and we lose some of the excellent properties of product mixtures, especially the unique possibility of structural optimization of probabilistic neural networks. Nevertheless, in some cases such properties may be unnecessary, while the increased complexity of components could become essential.

The idea of the dependence-tree distribution refers to the well known paper of Chow and Liu [3] who proposed approximation of multivariate discrete probability distribution $P^*(\boldsymbol{x})$ by the product distribution

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\pi,\beta) = f(x_{i_1}) \prod_{n=2}^{N} f(x_{i_n}|x_{j_n}), \quad j_n \in \{i_1,\dots,i_{n-1}\}. \tag{20}$$

Here $\pi = (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_N)$ is a suitable permutation of the index set $\mathcal{N}$ and β is the dependence structure

$$\beta = \{((i_2,j_2),\dots,(i_N,j_N))\}, \quad j_n \in \{i_1,..,i_{n-1}\}$$

which defines a spanning tree of the complete graph over the nodes $\{1,2,\dots,N\}$ because the edges β do not contain any loop. In this paper we use a simplified notation of marginal distributions whenever tolerable, e.g.,

$$f(x_n) = f_n(x_n), \quad f(x_n|x_k) = f_{n|k}(x_n|x_k).$$

The above approximation model (20) can be equivalently rewritten in the form

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \left[\prod_{n=1}^{N} f(x_n)\right] \left[\prod_{n=2}^{N} \frac{f(x_n,x_{k_n})}{f(x_n)f(x_{k_n})}\right], \tag{21}$$

because the first product is permutation-invariant and the second product can always be naturally ordered. Thus, in the last equation, the indices $(k_2,\dots,k_N)$ briefly describe the ordered edges (n,k_n) of the underlying spanning tree β and we can write

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\theta}) = f(x_1) \prod_{n=2}^{N} f(x_n|x_{k_n}), \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = (k_2,\dots,k_N), \ \boldsymbol{\theta} = \{f(x_n,x_{k_n})\}. \tag{22}$$

Here $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ describes the dependence structure and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ stands for the related set of two-dimensional marginals. Note that all univariate marginals uniquely follow from the bivariate ones.

The dependence-tree mixtures can be optimized by means of EM algorithm in full generality, as shown in the paper [7]. Later, the concept of dependence-tree mixtures has been reinvented in [32–34].

Considering binary variables $x_n \in \{0,1\}$ we denote by $P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\Theta})$ a mixture of dependence-tree distributions

$$P(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w},\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \sum_{m\in\mathcal{M}} w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m,\boldsymbol{\theta}_m), \quad \boldsymbol{x} \in \boldsymbol{X}, \tag{23}$$

$$F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = f(x_1|m) \prod_{n=2}^{N} f(x_n|x_{k_n}, m) \tag{24}$$

with the two-dimensional marginals $\boldsymbol{\theta}_m = \{f(x_n, x_{k_n}|m), n = 2, \ldots, N\}$, the underlying dependence structures $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$ and the weight vector $\boldsymbol{w}$:

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta} = \{\boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\theta}_M\}, \quad \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \{\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_2, \ldots, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_M\}, \quad \boldsymbol{w} = (w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_M).$$

The related log-likelihood function can be expressed by the formula

$$L(\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \log [\sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m)]. \tag{25}$$

In view of Eq. (5), the EM algorithm reduces the optimization problem to the iterative maximization of the following weighted log-likelihood criteria $Q_m, m \in \mathcal{M}$ with respect to $\boldsymbol{\theta}_m$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m) &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} \log F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m) \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} [\log f(x_1|m) + \sum_{n=2}^{N} \log f(x_n|x_{k_n}, m)]. \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

By using usual δ-function notation we can write

$$\begin{aligned} Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} [\sum_{\xi_1=0}^{1} \delta(\xi_1, x_1) \log f(\xi_1|m) \\ + \sum_{n=2}^{N} \sum_{\xi_n=0}^{1} \sum_{\xi_{k_n}=0}^{1} \delta(\xi_n, x_n) \delta(\xi_{k_n}, x_{k_n}) \log f(\xi_n|\xi_{k_n}, m)] \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

and further, using notation

$$\hat{f}(\xi_n|m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} \delta(\xi_n, x_n), \quad \hat{f}(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m|\mathcal{S}|} \delta(\xi_n, x_n) \delta(\xi_{k_n}, x_{k_n}),$$

we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m) = \sum_{\xi_1=0}^{1} \hat{f}(\xi_1|m) \log f(\xi_1|m) \\ + \sum_{n=2}^{N} \sum_{\xi_{k_n}=0}^{1} \hat{f}(\xi_{k_n}|m) \sum_{\xi_n=0}^{1} \frac{\hat{f}(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m)}{\hat{f}(\xi_{k_n}|m)} \log f(\xi_n|\xi_{k_n}, m). \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

For any fixed dependence structure $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$, the last expression is maximized by the two-dimensional marginals $\boldsymbol{\theta}'_m = \{f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m), n = 2, \ldots, N\}$:

$$f'(\xi_n|m) = \hat{f}(\xi_n|m), \;\; f'(\xi_n|\xi_{k_n}, m) = \frac{\hat{f}(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m)}{\hat{f}(\xi_{k_n}|m)}. \tag{29}$$

Making substitutions (29) in (28) we can express the weighted log-likelihood criterion $Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_m)$ just as a function of the dependence structure $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_m) = &\sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{\xi_n=0}^{1} f'(\xi_n|m) \log f'(\xi_n|m) \\ &+ \sum_{n=2}^{N} \sum_{\xi_n=0}^{1} \sum_{\xi_{k_n}=0}^{1} f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m) \log \frac{f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m)}{f'(\xi_n|m) f'(\xi_{k_n}|m)}. \end{aligned}$$

Here the last expression is the Shannon formula for mutual statistical information between the variables x_n, x_{k_n} [37], i.e. we can write

$$\mathcal{I}(f'_{n|m}, f'_{k_n|m}) = \sum_{\xi_n=0}^{1} \sum_{\xi_{k_n}=0}^{1} f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m) \log \frac{f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m)}{f'(\xi_n|m) f'(\xi_{k_n}|m)} \tag{30}$$

$$Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_m) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} -H(f'_{n|m}) + \sum_{n=2}^{N} \mathcal{I}(f'_{n|m}, f'_{k_n|m}).$$

In the last equation, the sum of entropies $H(\cdot)$ is structure-independent and therefore the weighted log-likelihood criterion $Q_m(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_m)$ is maximized by means of the second sum, in terms of the dependence structure $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$.

The resulting EM iteration equations for mixtures of dependence-tree distributions can be summarized as follows (cf. [7], Eqs. (4.17)–(4.20)):

$$q(m|\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{w_m F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m, \boldsymbol{\theta}_m)}{\sum_{j \in \mathcal{M}} w_j F(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}_j, \boldsymbol{\theta}_j)}, \quad w'_m = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} q(m|\boldsymbol{x}), \tag{31}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_m = \arg\max_{\alpha} \left\{ \sum_{n=2}^{N} \mathcal{I}(f'_{n|m}, f'_{k_n|m}) \right\}, \quad f'(\xi_n|m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m |\mathcal{S}|} \delta(\xi_n, x_n), \tag{32}$$

$$f'(\xi_n, \xi_{k_n}|m) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \frac{q(m|\boldsymbol{x})}{w'_m |\mathcal{S}|} \delta(\xi_n, x_n) \delta(\xi_{k_n}, x_{k_n}), \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots, N. \tag{33}$$

Thus the optimal dependence structure $\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_m$ can be found by constructing the maximum-weight spanning tree of the related complete graph with the edge weights $\mathcal{I}(f'_{n|m}, f'_{k|m})$ [3]. For this purpose we can use e.g. the algorithm of Kruskal [28] or Prim [35] (cf. Appendix for more details).

The concept of dependence-tree mixtures can be applied to continuous variables by using bivariate Gaussian densities (cf. [7, 15]).

4 Recognition of Numerals

In recent years we have repeatedly applied multivariate Bernoulli mixtures to recognition of hand-written numerals from the NIST benchmark database, with the aim to verify different decision-making aspects of probabilistic neural networks (cf. [13, 16]). In this paper we use the same data to compare performance of the product (Bernoulli) mixtures and mixtures of dependence trees. We assume that the underlying 45 binary (two class) subproblems may reveal even very subtle differences between the classifiers. Moreover, the relatively stable graphical structure of numerals should be advantageous from the point of view of dependence-tree mixtures.

The considered NIST Special Database 19 (SD19) contains about 400000 handwritten numerals in binary raster representation (about 40000 for each numeral). We normalized all digit patterns to a 32×32 binary raster to obtain 1024-dimensional binary data vectors. In order to guarantee the same statistical properties of the training- and test data sets, we have used the odd samples of each class for training and the even samples for testing. Also, to increase the variability of the binary patterns, we extended both the training- and test data sets four times by making three differently rotated variants of each pattern (by –4, –2 and +2°) with the resulting 80000 patterns for each class.

In order to make the classification test we estimated for all ten numerals the class-conditional distributions by using Bernoulli mixtures in the subspace modification (13) and also by using dependence-tree mixtures. Recall that we need 2048 parameters to define each component of the dependence-tree distribution (24). The marginal probabilities of dependence-tree components displayed in raster arrangement (cf. Fig. 1) correspond to the typical variants of the training numerals. Simultaneously, the figure shows the corresponding maximum-weight spanning tree $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_m$. Note that the superimposed optimal dependence structure naturally "reveals" how the numerals have been written because the "successive" raster points are strongly correlated.

For the sake of comparison we used the best solutions obtained in a series of experiments—both for the product mixtures and for the dependence-tree mixtures. The independent test patterns were classified by means of Bayes decision function (19). Each test numeral was classified by using mean Bayes probabilities obtained with the four differently rotated variants. Table 1 shows the classification error based on the product mixtures (18) as a function of model complexity. Number of para-

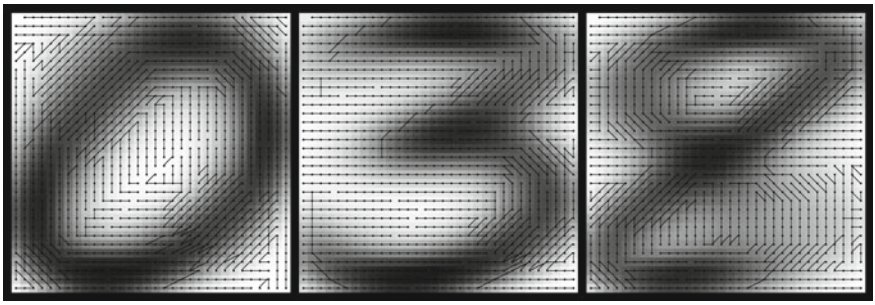

Fig. 1 Mixture of dependence trees for binary data—examples of marginal component probabilities in raster arrangement. Note that the superimposed optimal dependence structure (defined by maximum-weight spanning tree) reflects the way the respective numerals have been written

Table 1 Recognition of numerals from the NIST SD19 database by mixtures with different number of product components

Experiment no.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Components	10	100	299	858	1288	1370	1459	1571
Parameters	10240	89973	290442	696537	1131246	1247156	1274099	1462373
Classif. error in %	**11.93**	**4.28**	**2.93**	**2.40**	**1.95**	**1.91**	**1.86**	**1.84**

In the third row the number of parameters denotes the total number of component specific parameters θ_{mn}

meters in the third row denotes the total number of component-specific parameters θ_{mn} (for which $\phi_{mn} = 1$). Similar to Table 1 we can see in Table 3 the classification error as a function of model complexity, now represented by different numbers of dependence-tree components.

The detailed classification results for the best solutions are described by the error matrix in Table 2 (ten class-conditional mixtures with the total number of M=1571 product components including 1462373 parameters) and Table 4 (ten mixtures with total number of M = 400 dependence tree components including 819200 parameters). As it can be seen the global recognition accuracy (right lower corner) is comparable in both cases. Note that in both tables the detailed frequencies of false negative and false positive decisions are also comparable.

Roughly speaking, the dependence-tree mixtures achieve only slightly better recognition accuracy with a comparable number of parameters, but the most complex model (M = 500) already seems to overfit. Expectedly, the dependence tree mixtures needed much less components for the best performance but they have stronger tendency to overfitting. The best recognition accuracy in Table 1 (cf. col. VIII) well illustrates the power of the subspace product mixtures.

The most surprising result of the numerical experiments is the decreasing importance of the component dependence structure during the EM estimation process. We have noticed that in each class the cumulative weight of all dependence trees expressed by the weighted sum

Table 2 Classification error matrix obtained by means of multivariate Bernoulli mixtures (the total number of components M = 1571, number of parameters: 1462373)

Class	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	False n. (%)
0	19950	8	43	19	39	32	36	0	38	17	1.1
1	2	22162	30	4	35	7	18	56	32	6	0.9
2	32	37	19742	43	30	9	8	29	90	16	1.5
3	20	17	62	20021	4	137	2	28	210	55	2.6
4	11	6	19	1	19170	11	31	51	30	247	2.1
5	25	11	9	154	4	17925	39	6	96	34	2.1
6	63	10	17	6	23	140	19652	1	54	3	1.6
7	7	12	73	10	73	4	0	20497	22	249	2.1
8	22	25	53	97	30	100	11	11	19369	72	2.1
9	15	13	25	62	114	22	3	146	93	19274	2.5
False p. (%)	0.9	0.7	2.7	2.0	1.7	2.3	0.7	1.6	3.3	3.5	**1.84**

The last column contains the percentage of false negative decisions. The last row contains the total frequencies of false positive rates in percent of the respective class test patterns with the global error rate in bold

$$\Sigma' = \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}_\omega} w'_m \sum_{n=2}^{N} \mathcal{I}(f'_{n|m}, f'_{k_n|m}) \tag{34}$$

is decreasing in the course of EM iterations (cf. Fig. 2). In other words the optimal estimate of the dependence tree mixture tends to suppress the information contribution of the dependence structures in components, i.e. the component dependence trees tend to degenerate to simple products. Nevertheless, this observation is probably typical only for mixtures having a large number of components since a single product component is clearly more restrictive than a single dependence tree.

5 Conclusions

We compare the computational properties of mixtures of product components and mixtures of dependence trees in application to recognition of numerals from the NIST Special Database 19. For the sake of comparison we have used for each of the considered mixture models the best solution obtained in series of experiments. The detailed description of the classification performance (cf. Tables 2 and 4) shows that the recognition accuracy of both models is comparable. It appears that, in our case, the dependence structure of components does not improve the approximation power of the product mixture essentially and, moreover, the information contribution of the dependence structure decreases in the course of EM iterations as shown in Fig. 2. Thus, the optimal estimate of the dependence tree mixture tends to approach a simple product mixture model. However, this observation is probably related to large number of components only.

We assume that the dependence tree distribution is advantageous if we try to fit a small number of components to a complex data set. However, in case of a large number of multidimensional components the component functions are almost non-overlapping [17], the structural parameters tend to fit to small compact subsets of data and the structurally modified form of the components is less important. We can summarize the results of comparison as follows:

Table 3 Recognition of numerals from the NIST SD19 database by mixtures with different number of dependence trees

Experiment No.	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Components	10	40	100	150	200	300	400	500
Parameters	20480	81920	204800	307200	409600	614400	819200	1024000
Classif. error in %	**6.69**	**4.13**	**2.64**	**2.53**	**2.22**	**2.13**	**1.97**	**2.01**

For comparable number of parameters the dependence-tree mixtures achieve only slightly better recognition accuracy

Table 4 Classification error matrix obtained by means of dependence-tree mixtures (number of components M = 400, number of parameters: 819200)

Class	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	False n. (%)
0	19979	11	62	21	18	26	25	2	28	10	1.0
1	5	21981	78	13	74	1	20	155	21	4	1.7
2	22	15	19777	72	26	5	6	35	72	6	1.3
3	20	10	66	20169	1	120	1	20	122	27	1.9
4	12	16	13	4	19245	1	13	52	44	177	1.7
5	25	5	15	157	8	17874	45	9	129	36	2.3
6	100	19	38	25	43	90	19575	1	75	3	2.0
7	17	33	108	24	71	0	0	20367	28	299	2.8
8	18	30	47	167	27	55	22	17	19337	70	2.3
9	12	20	62	74	89	33	3	144	134	19196	2.9
False p. (%)	1.4	0.7	2.4	2.7	1.8	1.8	0.7	1.6	3.1	3.2	**1.97**

The last column contains percentage of false negative decisions. The last row contains false positive rates in percent of the respective class test patterns with the global error rate in bold

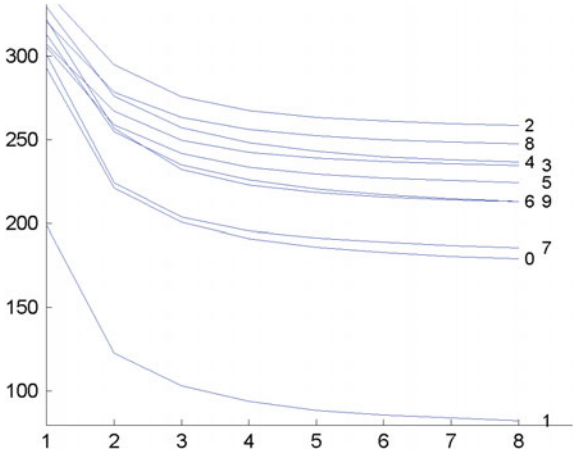

Fig. 2 The decreasing information contribution of the dependence structure to the estimated dependence-tree mixtures (the first eight iterations of the ten estimated class-conditional distributions). The EM algorithm tends to suppress the information contribution of the dependence structures to the optimal estimate

In Case of a Large Number of Components

- intuitively, the large number of components is the main source of the resulting approximation power
- dependence structure of components does not improve the approximation power of product mixtures essentially
- the total information contribution of the component dependence structures decreases in the course of EM iterations
- the optimal estimate of the dependence tree mixture tends to approach a simple product mixture model

In Case of a Small Number of Components

- a single dependence tree component is capable to describe the statistical relations between pairs variables
- consequently, the approximation power of a single dependence tree component is much higher than that of a product component
- information contribution of the dependence structure can increase in the course of EM iterations
- dependence structure of components can essentially improve the approximation quality

In this sense, the computational properties of dependence tree mixtures provide an additional argument to prefer the product mixture models in case of large multidimensional data sets. A large number of product components in the subspace modification (19) seems to outperform the advantage of the more complex dependence-tree distributions.

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Appendix: Maximum-Weight Spanning Tree

The algorithm of Kruskal (cf. [3, 28]) assumes ordering of all $N(N-1)/2$ edge weights in descending order. The maximum-weight spanning tree is then constructed sequentially, starting with the first two (heaviest) edges. The next edges are added sequentially in descending order if they do not form a cycle with the previously chosen edges. Multiple solutions are possible if several edge weights are equal, but they are ignored as having the same maximum weight. Obviously, in case of dependence-tree mixtures with many components, the application of the Kruskal algorithm may become prohibitive in high-dimensional spaces because of the repeated ordering of the edge-weights.

The algorithm of Prim [35] does not need any ordering of edge weights. Starting from any variable we choose the neighbor with the maximum edge weight. This first edge of the maximum-weight spanning tree is then sequentially extended by adding the maximum-weight neighbors of the currently chosen subtree. Again, any ties may be decided arbitrarily since we are not interested in multiple solutions.

Both Kruskal and Prim refer to an "obscure Czech paper" of Otakar Borůvka [1] from the year 1926 giving an alternative construction of the minimum-weight spanning tree and the corresponding proof of uniqueness. Moreover, the Prim's algorithm was developed in 1930 by Czech mathematician Vojtěch Jarník (cf. [27], in Czech). The algorithm of Prim can be summarized as follows (in C-code):

```
//  Maximum-weight spanning tree construction
//*************************************************************
//  spanning tree: {<2,A[2]>,...,<NN,A[NN]>}
//  NN........ number of nodes, N=1,2,...,NN
//  T[N]...... labels of the defined part of the spanning tree
//  E[N][K]... positive weight of the edge <N,K>
//  A[K]...... heaviest neighbor of K in the defined subtree
//  GE[K]..... greatest edge weight between K and defined subtree
//  K0........ the most heavy neighbor of the defined subtree
//  SUM....... total weight of the spanning tree
//*************************************************************
  for(N=1; N<=NN; N++) {GE[N]=-1;  T[N]=0;  A[N]=0;}
  N0=1; T[N0]=1; K0=0;       // initial values
  for(I=2; I<=NN; I++)  // spanning tree loop
  {  FMAX=-1E0;
     for(N=2; N<=NN; N++) if(T[N]<1)
     {  F=E[N0][N];
        if(F>GE[N]) {GE[N]=F; A[N]=N0;} else F=GE[N];
        if(F>FMAX)  {FMAX=F; K0=N;}
     }  //  end of N-loop
     N0=K0;  T[N0]=1;    SUM+=FMAX;
  }  // end of spanning tree construction
//*************************************************************
```

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