RWTH AACHEN UNIVERSITY

Machine Learning – Lecture 2

Probability Density Estimation

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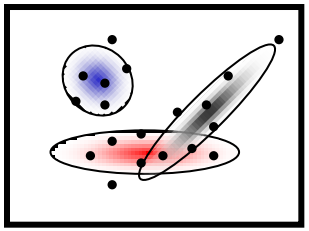
Many slides adapted from B. Schiele

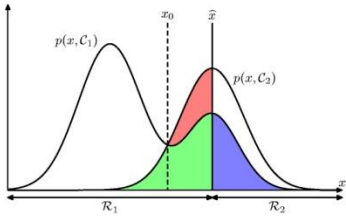
Announcements

- Course webpage
  - http://www.vision.rwth-aachen.de/teaching/
  - Slides will be made available on the webpage
- L2P electronic repository
  - Exercises and supplementary materials will be posted on the L2P
- Please subscribe to the lecture on the Campus system!
  - Important to get email announcements and L2P access!

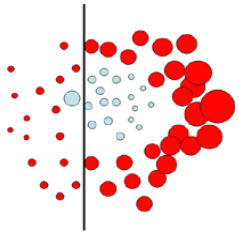
Course Outline

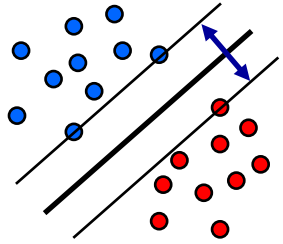
- Fundamentals (2 weeks)
  - Bayes Decision Theory
  - Probability Density Estimation

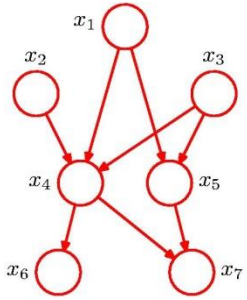




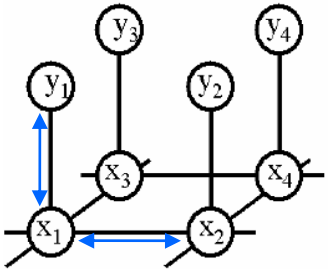
- Discriminative Approaches (5 weeks)
  - Linear Discriminant Functions
  - Support Vector Machines
  - Ensemble Methods & Boosting
  - Randomized Trees, Forests & Ferns







- Generative Models (4 weeks)
  - Bayesian Networks
  - Markov Random Fields

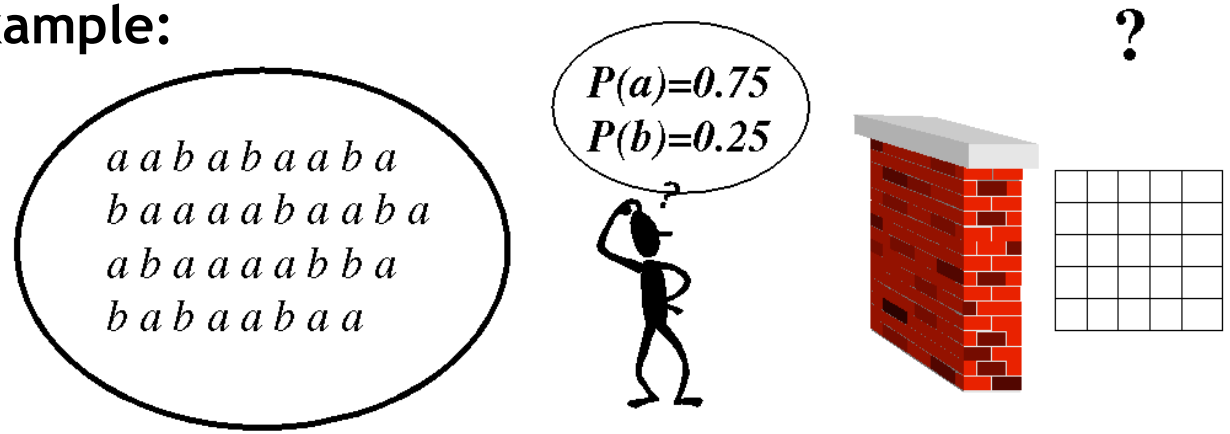


Topics of This Lecture

- **Recap: Bayes Decision Theory**
  - Basic concepts
  - Minimizing the misclassification rate
  - Minimizing the expected loss
  - Discriminant functions
- **Probability Density Estimation**
  - General concepts
  - Gaussian distribution
- **Parametric Methods**
  - Maximum Likelihood approach
  - Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability
  - Bayesian Learning

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

- **Concept 1: Priors (a priori probabilities)** $p(C_k)$
  - What we can tell about the probability *before seeing the data*.
  - Example:



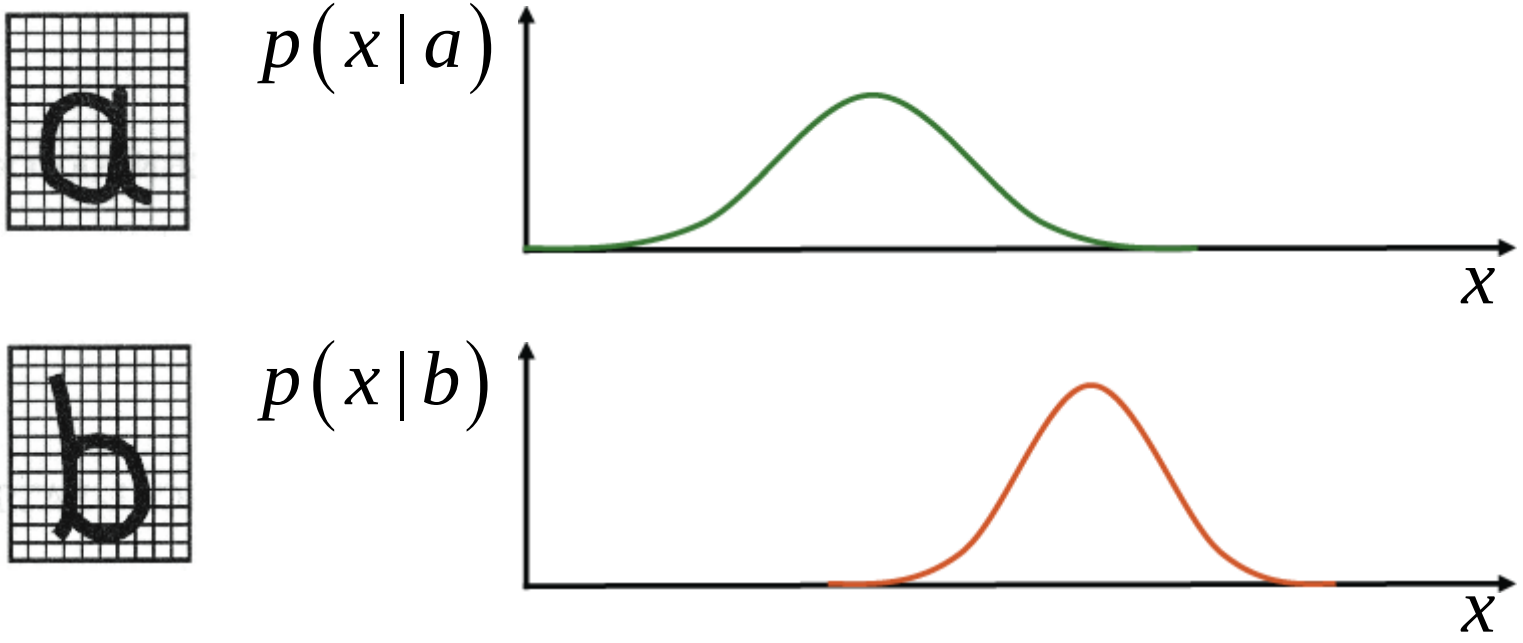
$$C_1 = a \qquad p(C_1) = 0.75$$

$$C_2 = b \qquad p(C_2) = 0.25$$

- **In general:** $\sum_k p(C_k) = 1$

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

- **Concept 2: Conditional probabilities** $p(x|C_k)$
  - Let x be a feature vector.
  - x measures/describes certain properties of the input.
    - E.g. number of black pixels, aspect ratio, …
  - $p(x|C_k)$ describes its likelihood for class C_k.



Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

- **Concept 3: Posterior probabilities** $p(C_k \mid x)$
  - We are typically interested in the *a posteriori* probability, i.e. the probability of class C_k given the measurement vector x.

- **Bayes' Theorem:**

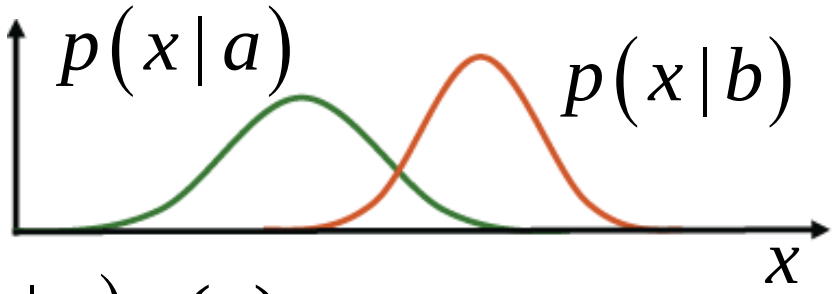
$$p(C_k \mid x) = \frac{p(x \mid C_k)\, p(C_k)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x \mid C_k)\, p(C_k)}{\sum_i p(x \mid C_i)\, p(C_i)}$$

- **Interpretation**

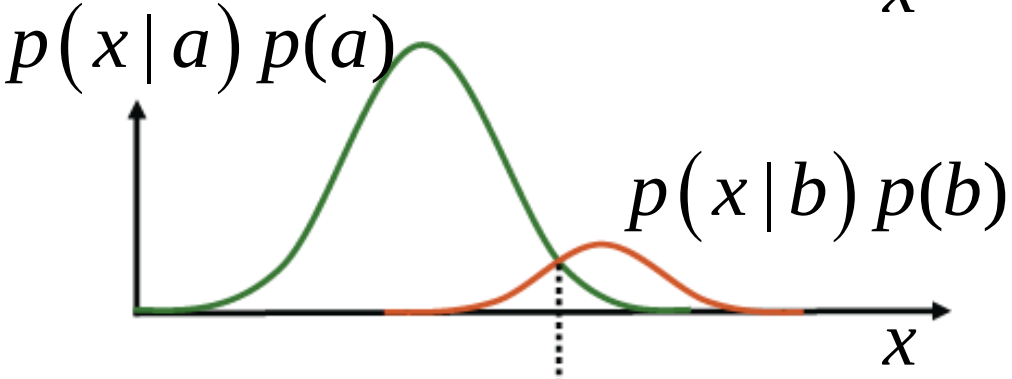
$$Posterior = \frac{Likelihood \times Prior}{Normalization\ Factor}$$

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory

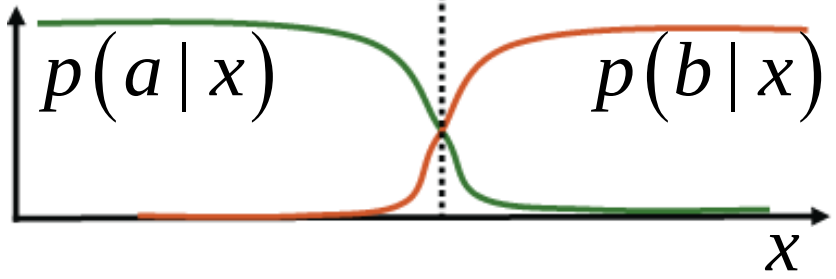


Likelihood



Likelihood $\times$ *Prior*

Decision boundary



$$Posterior = \frac{Likelihood \times Prior}{NormalizationFactor}$$

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory

- **Optimal decision rule**
  - Decide for C_1 if

$$p(\mathcal{C}_1|x) > p(\mathcal{C}_2|x)$$

  - This is equivalent to

$$p(x|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1) > p(x|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)$$

  - Which is again equivalent to (Likelihood-Ratio test)

$$\frac{p(x|\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(x|\mathcal{C}_2)} > \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{p(\mathcal{C}_1)}}_{\text{Decision threshold } \theta}$$

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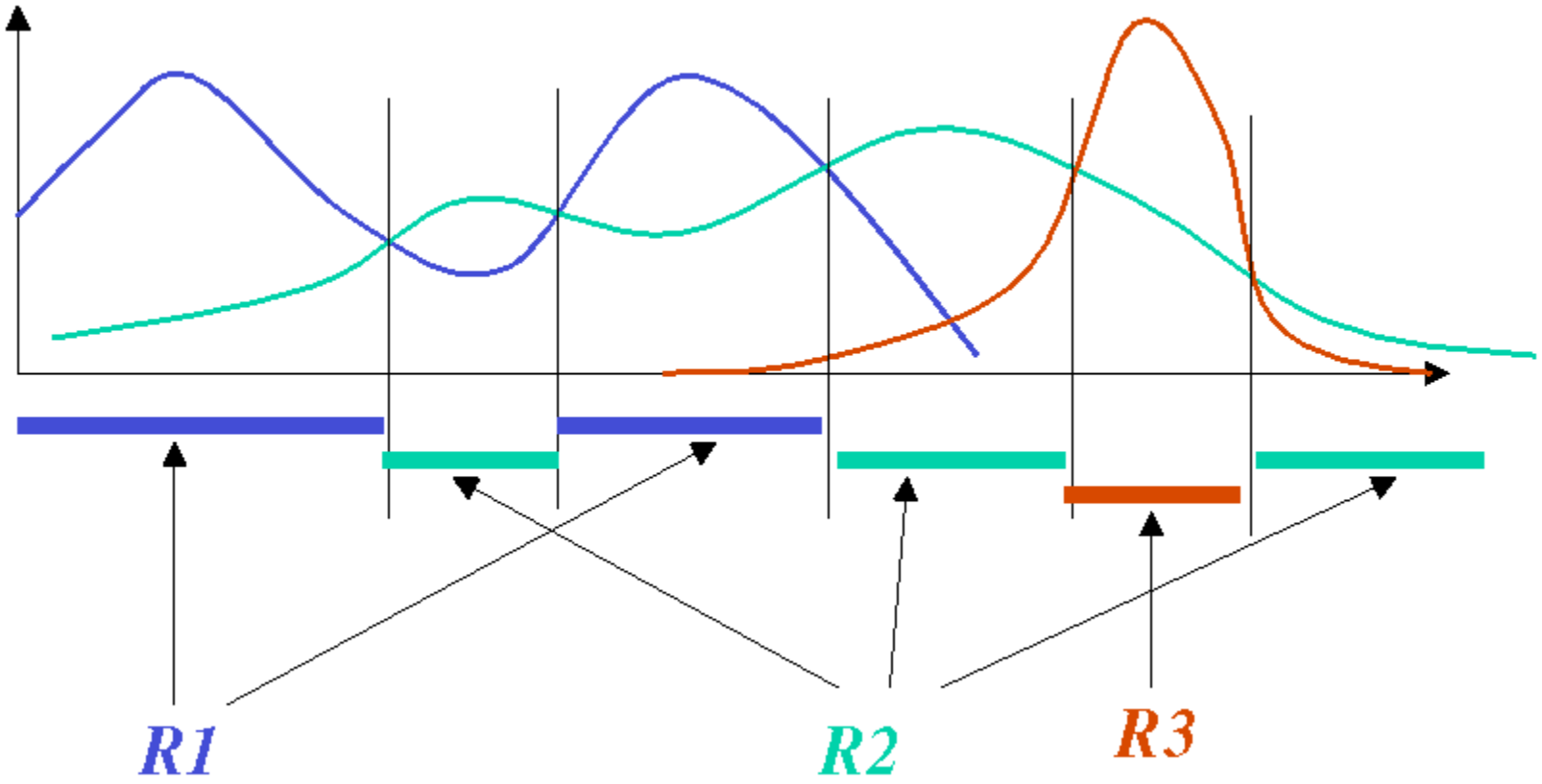
Bayes Decision Theory

- **Decision regions:** $\mathcal{R}_1$, $\mathcal{R}_2$, $\mathcal{R}_3$, …



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Recap: Minimizing the Expected Loss

- **Example:**
  - **2 Classes:** C_1, C_2
  - **2 Decision:** α_1, α_2
  - **Loss function:** $L(\alpha_j|\mathcal{C}_k) = L_{kj}$
  - **Expected loss (= risk R) for the two decisions:**

$$\mathbb{E}_{\alpha_1}[L] = R(\alpha_1|\mathbf{x}) = L_{11}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{21}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x})$$
$$\mathbb{E}_{\alpha_2}[L] = R(\alpha_2|\mathbf{x}) = L_{12}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{22}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x})$$

- **Goal: Decide such that expected loss is minimized**
  - **I.e. decide α_1 if** $R(\alpha_2|\mathbf{x}) > R(\alpha_1|\mathbf{x})$

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Recap: Minimizing the Expected Loss

$$
\begin{aligned}
R(\alpha_2|\mathbf{x}) &> R(\alpha_1|\mathbf{x}) \\
L_{12}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{22}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) &> L_{11}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{21}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) \\
(L_{12} - L_{11})p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) &> (L_{21} - L_{22})p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) \\
\frac{(L_{12} - L_{11})}{(L_{21} - L_{22})} &> \frac{p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)} \\
\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)} &> \frac{(L_{21} - L_{22})}{(L_{12} - L_{11})}\frac{p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{p(\mathcal{C}_1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\Rightarrow$ **Adapted decision rule taking into account the loss.**

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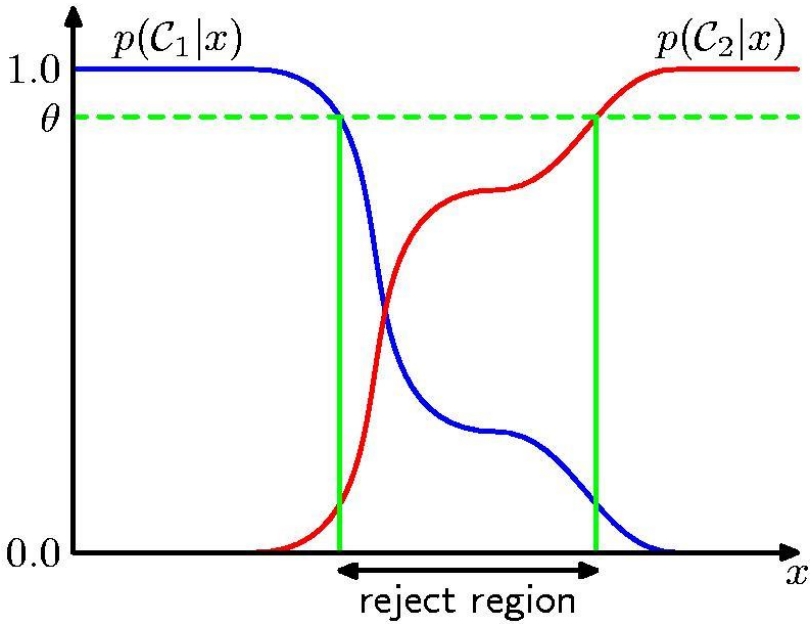
The Reject Option



- Classification errors arise from regions where the largest posterior probability $p(\mathcal{C}_k|\mathbf{x})$ is significantly less than 1.
  - These are the regions where we are relatively uncertain about class membership.
  - For some applications, it may be better to reject the automatic decision entirely in such a case and e.g. consult a human expert.

Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Discriminant Functions

- **Formulate classification in terms of comparisons**
  - **Discriminant functions**

$$y_1(x), \ldots, y_K(x)$$

  - **Classify x as class C_k if**

$$y_k(x) > y_j(x) \quad \forall j \neq k$$

- **Examples (Bayes Decision Theory)**

$$\begin{aligned} y_k(x) &= p(\mathcal{C}_k|x) \\ y_k(x) &= p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k) \\ y_k(x) &= \log p(x|\mathcal{C}_k) + \log p(\mathcal{C}_k) \end{aligned}$$

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Different Views on the Decision Problem

- $y_k(x) \propto p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k)$
  - First determine the class-conditional densities for each class individually and separately infer the prior class probabilities.
  - Then use Bayes' theorem to determine class membership.

  $\Rightarrow$ *Generative methods*

- $y_k(x) = p(\mathcal{C}_k|x)$
  - First solve the inference problem of determining the posterior class probabilities.
  - Then use decision theory to assign each new x to its class.

  $\Rightarrow$ *Discriminative methods*

- Alternative
  - Directly find a discriminant function $y_k(x)$ which maps each input x directly onto a class label.

Topics of This Lecture

- Bayes Decision Theory
  - Basic concepts
  - Minimizing the misclassification rate
  - Minimizing the expected loss
  - Discriminant functions
- **Probability Density Estimation**
  - **General concepts**
  - **Gaussian distribution**
- Parametric Methods
  - Maximum Likelihood approach
  - Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability
  - Bayesian Learning

Probability Density Estimation

- Up to now
  - Bayes optimal classification
  - Based on the probabilities $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k)$

- How can we estimate (=learn) those probability densities?
  - Supervised training case: data and class labels are known.
  - Estimate the probability density for each class $\mathcal{C}_k$ separately:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)$$

  - (For simplicity of notation, we will drop the class label $\mathcal{C}_k$ in the following.)

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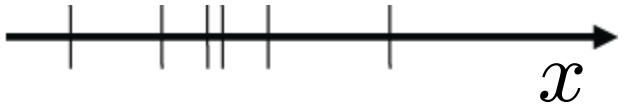
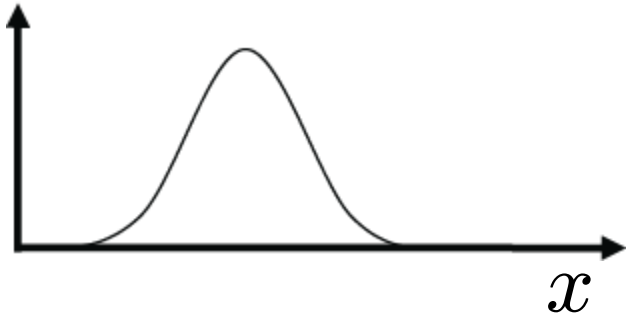
Probability Density Estimation

- **Data:** x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, …



- **Estimate:** $p(x)$



- **Methods**
  - **Parametric representations** (today)
  - **Non-parametric representations** (lecture 3)
  - **Mixture models** (lecture 4)

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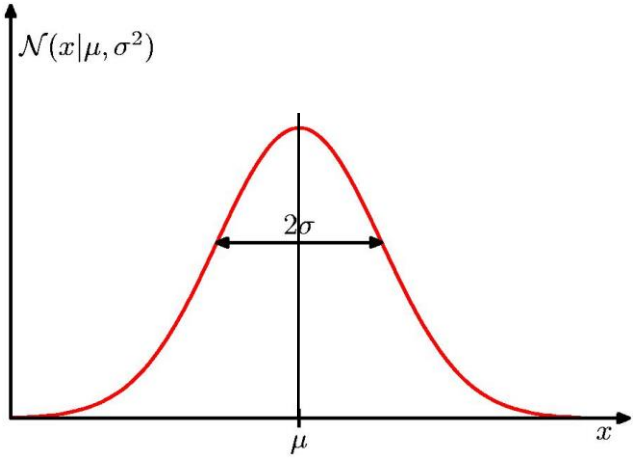
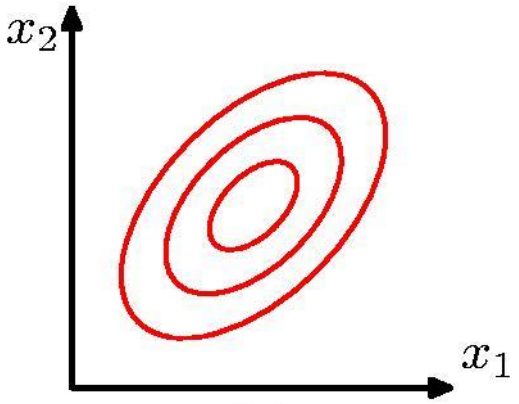
The Gaussian (or Normal) Distribution

- **One-dimensional case**
  - **Mean** μ
  - **Variance** σ^2

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}$$



- **Multi-dimensional case**
  - **Mean** $\boldsymbol{\mu}$
  - **Covariance** $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$



$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}}\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}$$

Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Gaussian Distribution – Properties

- Central Limit Theorem
  - "The distribution of the sum of N i.i.d. random variables becomes increasingly Gaussian as N grows."
  - In practice, the convergence to a Gaussian can be very rapid.
  - This makes the Gaussian interesting for many applications.

- Example: N uniform [0,1] random variables.

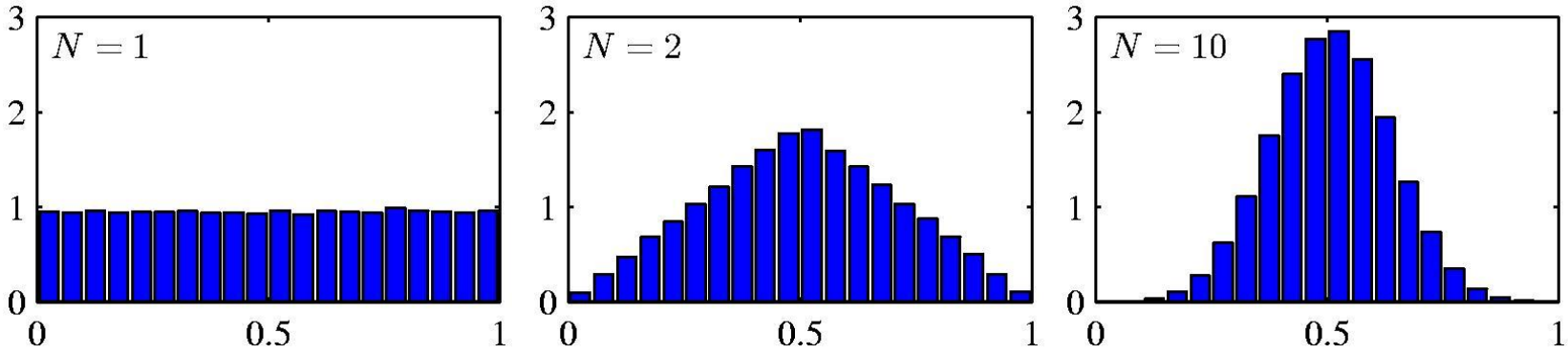
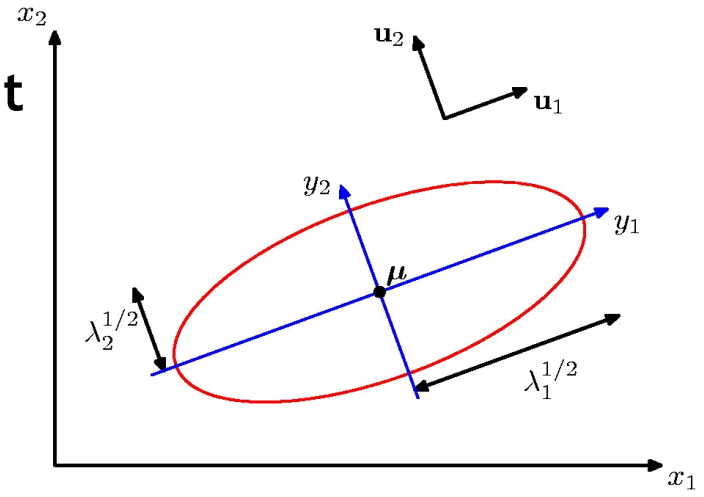


Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Gaussian Distribution - Properties

- **Quadratic Form**
  - $\mathcal{N}$ depends on $\mathbf{x}$ through the exponent
    $$\Delta^2 = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$
  - Here, Δ is often called the Mahalanobis distance from $\mathbf{x}$ to $\boldsymbol{\mu}$.



- **Shape of the Gaussian**
  - $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a real, symmetric matrix.
  - We can therefore decompose it into its eigenvectors
    $$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sum_{i=1}^{D} \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^{\mathrm{T}} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^{\mathrm{T}}$$
    and thus obtain $\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{D} \frac{y_i^2}{\lambda_i}$ with $y_i = \mathbf{u}_i^{\mathrm{T}} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$.

$\Rightarrow$ Constant density on ellipsoids with main directions along the eigenvectors $\mathbf{u}_i$ and scaling factors $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$.

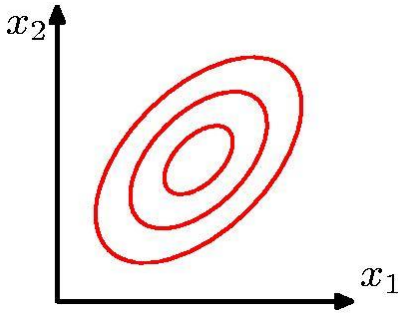
Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Gaussian Distribution - Properties

- Special cases
  - Full covariance matrix

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = [\sigma_{ij}]$$

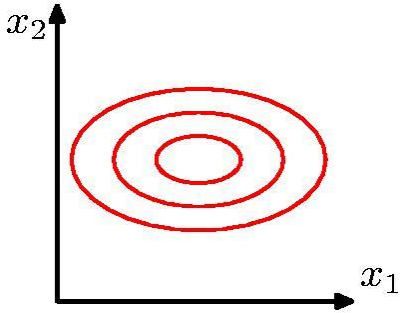
⇒ General ellipsoid shape



  - Diagonal covariance matrix

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = diag\{\sigma_i\}$$

⇒ Axis-aligned ellipsoid



  - Uniform variance

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}$$

⇒ Hypersphere

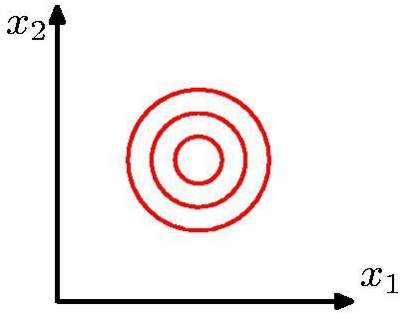


Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Gaussian Distribution – Properties

- The marginals of a Gaussian are again Gaussians:

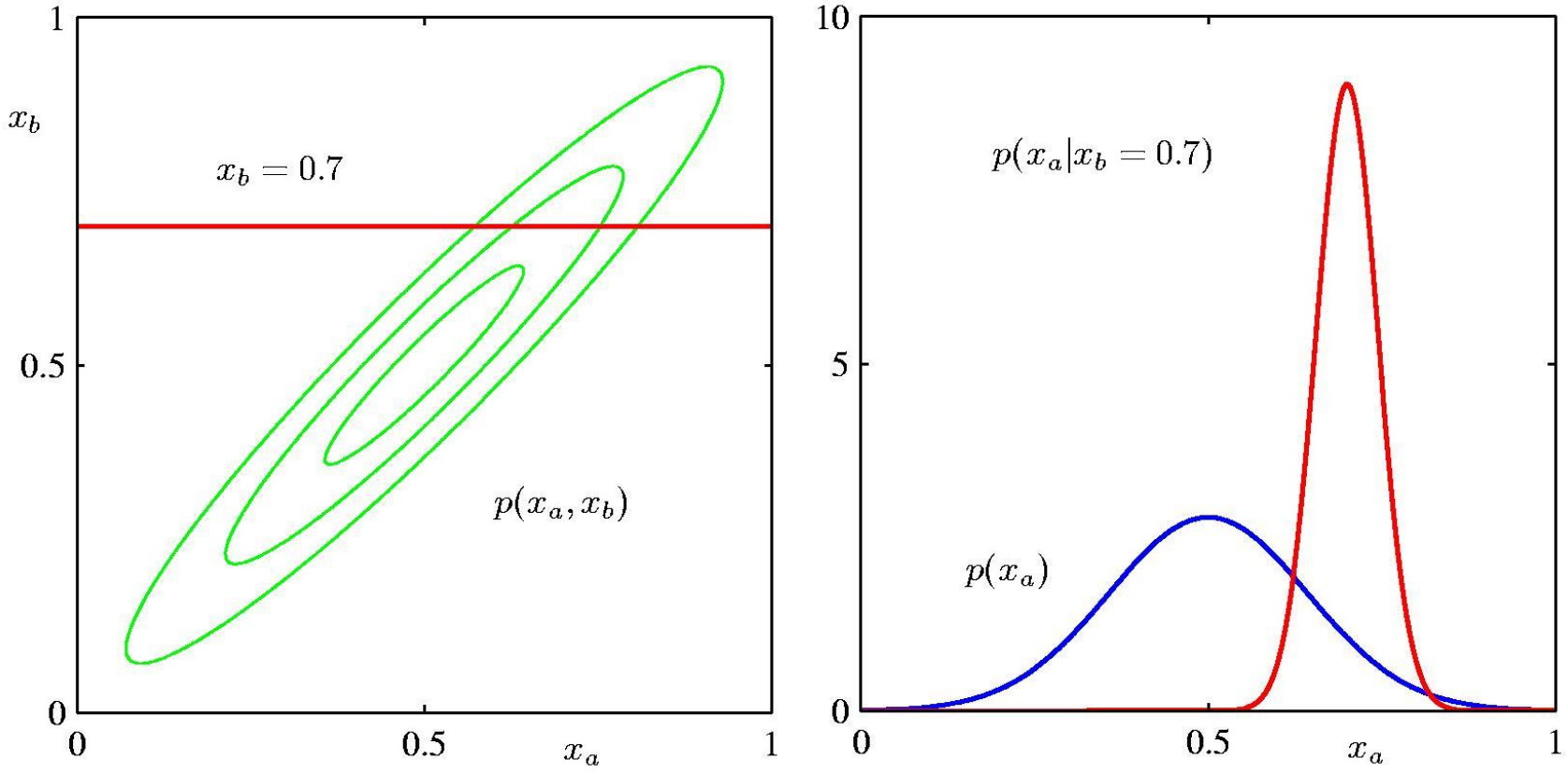


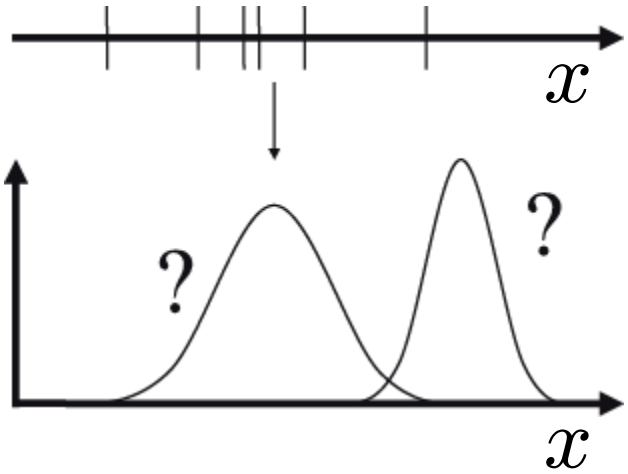
Image source: C.M. Bishop, 2006

Topics of This Lecture

- Bayes Decision Theory
  - Basic concepts
  - Minimizing the misclassification rate
  - Minimizing the expected loss
  - Discriminant functions
- Probability Density Estimation
  - General concepts
  - Gaussian distribution
- **Parametric Methods**
  - **Maximum Likelihood approach**
  - **Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability**
  - **Bayesian Learning**

Parametric Methods

- Given
  - Data $X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N\}$
  - Parametric form of the distribution with parameters θ
  - E.g. for Gaussian distrib.: $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$



- Learning
  - Estimation of the parameters θ

- Likelihood of θ
  - Probability that the data X have indeed been generated from a probability density with parameters θ

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta)$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Computation of the likelihood**
  - **Single data point:** $p(x_n|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}$
  - **Assumption: all data points are independent**

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|\theta)$$

  - **Log-likelihood**

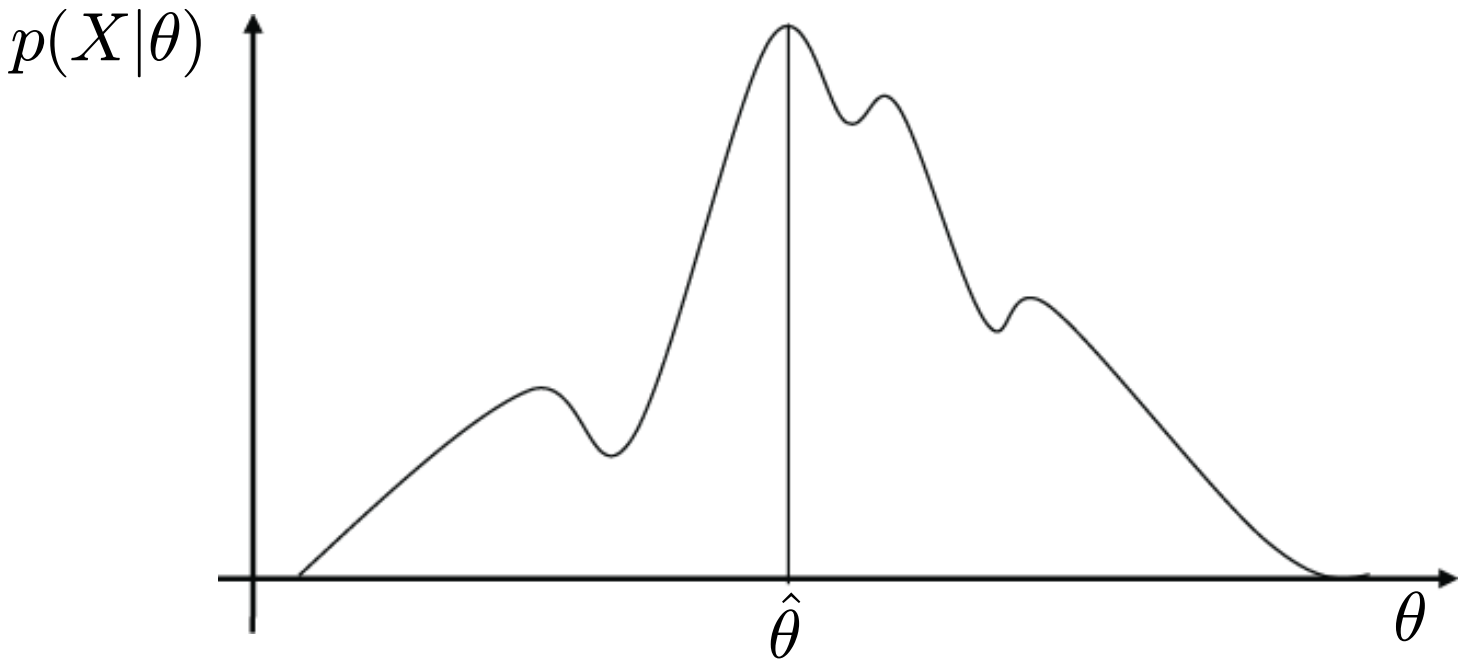
$$E(\theta) = -\ln L(\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(x_n|\theta)$$

  - **Estimation of the parameters θ (Learning)**
    - **Maximize the likelihood**
    - **Minimize the negative log-likelihood**

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Likelihood:** $L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|\theta)$
- **We want to obtain $\hat{\theta}$ such that $L(\hat{\theta})$ is maximized.**



Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Minimizing the log-likelihood**
  - How do we minimize a function?

  ⇒ Take the derivative and set it to zero.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}E(\theta) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\ln p(x_n|\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}p(x_n|\theta)}{p(x_n|\theta)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

- **Log-likelihood for Normal distribution (1D case)**

$$\begin{aligned} E(\theta) &= -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\ln p(x_n|\mu,\sigma) \\ &= -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\ln\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\exp\left\{-\frac{||x_n-\mu||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Minimizing the log-likelihood**

$$p(x_n|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{||x_n-\mu||^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial}{\partial\mu}E(\mu,\sigma) &= -\sum_{n=1}^{N}\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial\mu}p(x_n|\mu,\sigma)}{p(x_n|\mu,\sigma)} \\
&= -\sum_{n=1}^{N} -\frac{2(x_n-\mu)}{2\sigma^2} \\
&= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n-\mu) \\
&= \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\left(\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_n - N\mu\right)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial\mu}E(\mu,\sigma) \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_n$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- We thus obtain

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$$

"sample mean"

- In a similar fashion, we get

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

"sample variance"

- $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})$ is the **Maximum Likelihood estimate** for the parameters of a Gaussian distribution.
- This is a very important result.
- Unfortunately, it is wrong…

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- Or not wrong, but rather biased…
- Assume the samples $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N$ come from a true Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2
  - We can now compute the expectations of the ML estimates with respect to the data set values. It can be shown that

$$\mathbb{E}(\mu_{\mathrm{ML}}) = \mu$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\sigma^2_{\mathrm{ML}}) = \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right)\sigma^2$$

  $\Rightarrow$ The ML estimate will underestimate the true variance.
- Corrected estimate:

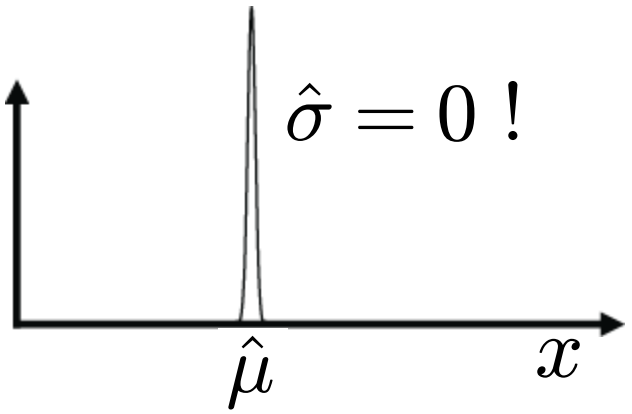
$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{N}{N-1}\sigma^2_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{n=1}^{N}(x_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

Maximum Likelihood - Limitations

- Maximum Likelihood has several significant limitations
  - It systematically underestimates the variance of the distribution!
  - E.g. consider the case

$$N = 1, X = \{x_1\}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Maximum-likelihood estimate:



  - We say ML *overfits to the observed data*.
  - We will still often use ML, but it is important to know about this effect.

Deeper Reason

- Maximum Likelihood is a Frequentist concept
  - In the Frequentist view, probabilities are the frequencies of random, repeatable events.
  - These frequencies are fixed, but can be estimated more precisely when more data is available.
- This is in contrast to the Bayesian interpretation
  - In the Bayesian view, probabilities quantify the uncertainty about certain states or events.
  - This uncertainty can be revised in the light of new evidence.
- Bayesians and Frequentists do not like each other too well…

Bayesian vs. Frequentist View

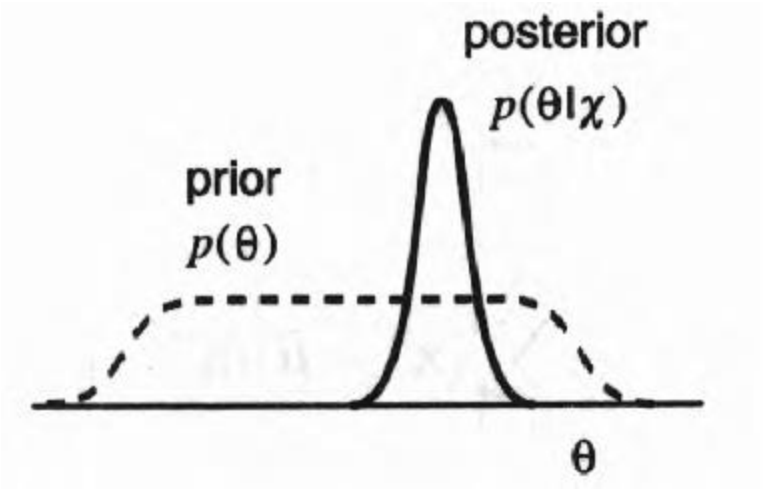
- To see the difference…
  - Suppose we want to estimate the uncertainty whether the Arctic ice cap will have disappeared by the end of the century.
  - This question makes no sense in a Frequentist view, since the event cannot be repeated numerous times.
  - In the Bayesian view, we generally have a prior, e.g. from calculations how fast the polar ice is melting.
  - If we now get fresh evidence, e.g. from a new satellite, we may revise our opinion and update the uncertainty from the prior.

$$Posterior \propto Likelihood \times Prior$$

  - This generally allows to get better uncertainty estimates for many situations.
- Main Frequentist criticism
  - The prior has to come from somewhere and if it is wrong, the result will be worse.

Bayesian Approach to Parameter Learning

- Conceptual shift
  - Maximum Likelihood views the true parameter vector θ to be unknown, but fixed.
  - In Bayesian learning, we consider θ to be a random variable.
- This allows us to use knowledge about the parameters θ
  - i.e. to use a prior for θ
  - Training data then converts this prior distribution on θ into a posterior probability density.



  - The prior thus encodes knowledge we have about the type of distribution we expect to see for θ.

Bayesian Learning Approach

- **Bayesian view:**
  - Consider the parameter vector θ as a random variable.
  - When estimating the parameters, what we compute is

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x,\theta|X)d\theta$$

Assumption: given θ, this doesn't depend on X anymore

$$p(x,\theta|X) = p(x|\theta,\cancel{X})p(\theta|X)$$

$$p(x|X) = \int \underbrace{p(x|\theta)}p(\theta|X)d\theta$$

This is entirely determined by the parameter θ (i.e. by the parametric form of the pdf).

Bayesian Learning Approach

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta$$

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)} = \frac{p(\theta)}{p(X)}L(\theta)$$

$$p(X) = \int p(X|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta = \int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$$

- **Inserting this above, we obtain**

$$p(x|X) = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)}d\theta = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}d\theta$$

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Bayesian Learning Approach

- Discussion

Likelihood of the parametric form θ given the data set X.

Estimate for x based on parametric form θ

Prior for the parameters θ

$$p(x|X) = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\underbrace{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}_{\text{Normalization}}} d\theta$$

Normalization: integrate over all possible values of θ

  - If we now plug in a (suitable) prior $p(\theta)$, we can estimate $p(x|X)$ from the data set X.

Bayesian Density Estimation

- **Discussion**

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}d\theta$$

  - The probability $p(\theta|X)$ makes the dependency of the estimate on the data explicit.
  - If $p(\theta|X)$ is very small everywhere, but is large for one $\hat{\theta}$, then

$$p(x|X) \approx p(x|\hat{\theta})$$

  $\Rightarrow$ The more uncertain we are about θ, the more we average over all parameter values.

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Bayesian Density Estimation

- **Problem**
  - In the general case, the integration over θ is not possible (or only possible stochastically).

- **Example where an analytical solution is possible**
  - Normal distribution for the data, σ^2 assumed known and fixed.
  - Estimate the distribution of the mean:

$$p(\mu|X) = \frac{p(X|\mu)p(\mu)}{p(X)}$$

  - Prior: We assume a Gaussian prior over μ,

$$p(\mu) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mu|\mu_0, \sigma_0^2\right).$$

Slide credit: Bernt Schiele

Bayesian Learning Approach

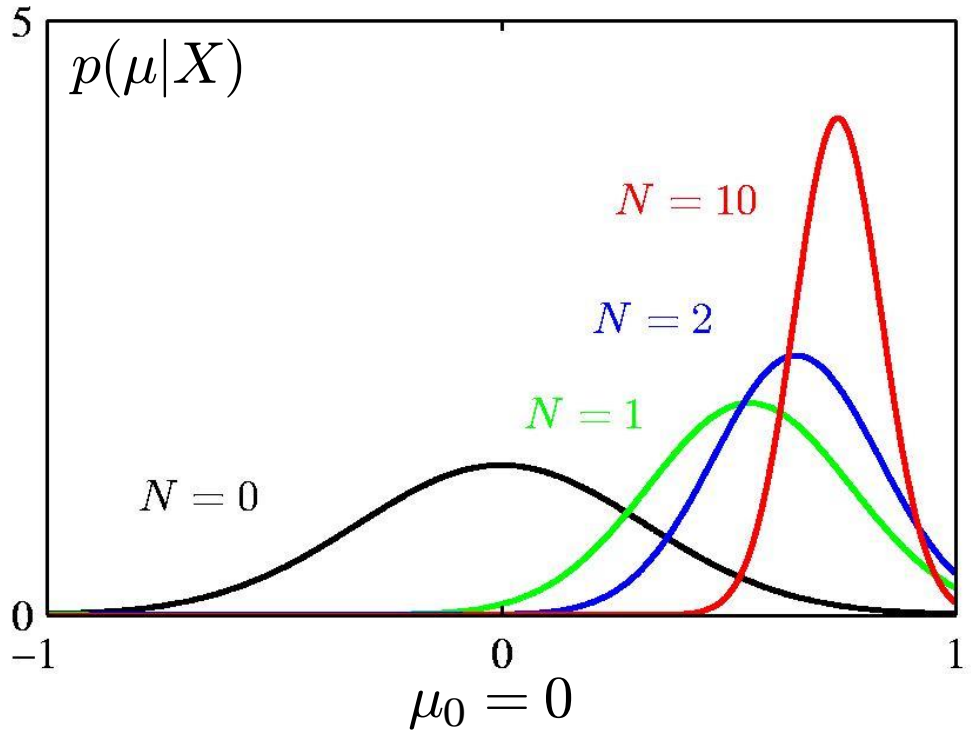
- **Sample mean:** $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$
- **Bayes estimate:**

$$\mu_N = \frac{\sigma^2 \mu_0 + N\sigma_0^2 \bar{x}}{\sigma^2 + N\sigma_0^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2}$$

- **Note:**

	$N = 0$	$N \to \infty$
μ_N	μ_0	μ_{ML}
σ_N^2	σ_0^2	0



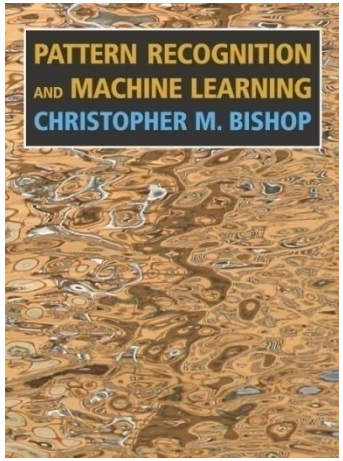
Summary: ML vs. Bayesian Learning

- **Maximum Likelihood**
  - Simple approach, often analytically possible.
  - Problem: estimation is biased, tends to overfit to the data.
    $\Rightarrow$ Often needs some correction or regularization.
  - But:
    - Approximation gets accurate for $N \rightarrow \infty$.
- **Bayesian Learning**
  - General approach, avoids the estimation bias through a prior.
  - Problems:
    - Need to choose a suitable prior (not always obvious).
    - Integral over θ often not analytically feasible anymore.
  - But:
    - Efficient stochastic sampling techniques available (see Adv. ML).

(In this lecture, we'll use both concepts wherever appropriate)

References and Further Reading

- More information in Bishop's book
  - Gaussian distribution and ML: Ch. 1.2.4 and 2.3.1-2.3.4.
  - Bayesian Learning: Ch. 1.2.3 and 2.3.6.
  - Nonparametric methods: Ch. 2.5.
- Additional information can be found in Duda & Hart
  - ML estimation: Ch. 3.2
  - Bayesian Learning: Ch. 3.3-3.5
  - Nonparametric methods: Ch. 4.1-4.5



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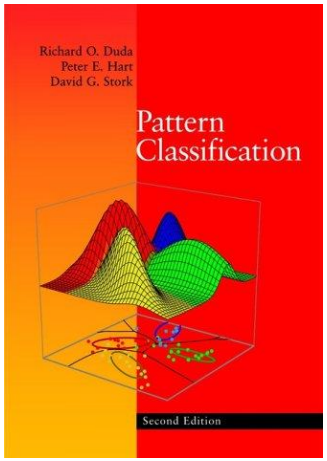

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