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Univariate Data

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Multivariate Parameters - I

► Mean vector:

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_d)^T$$

ightharpoonup Covariance of x_i and x_i :

$$\sigma_{ij} = \mathsf{Cov}(x_i, x_j) = \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)] = \mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] - \mu_i \mu_j$$

Typically the features are correlated, or else there will not be a need for multivariate analysis.

- ▶ The x_i and x_j are called uncorrelated if $\sigma_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[x_i x_j] \mu_i \mu_j = 0$.
- ► The covariance between two random variables measures the degree to which they are (linearly) related.
- \triangleright Variance of x_i :

$$\sigma_i^2 = \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_i)^2]$$

Note that:

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$$
 $\sigma_{ii} = \sigma_i^2$

Multivariate Parameters - II

Covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} \equiv \mathsf{Cov}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T] - \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^T = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \sigma_{12} & \cdots & \sigma_{1d} \\ \sigma_{21} & \sigma_2^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{2d} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ \sigma_{d1} & \sigma_{d2} & \cdots & \sigma_d^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Correlation between x_i and x_j:

$$\rho_{ij} \equiv \mathsf{Corr}(x_i, x_j) = \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{\sigma_i \sigma_j}$$

The correlation (a.k.a. Pearson correlation coefficient) between x_i and x_j is in [-1, +1], making it easier to interpret than the covariance.

- $-\rho_{ij} \neq 0$: two variables x_i and x_j are related in a linear way
- Dependence vs. correlation:

$$x_i$$
 and x_j are independent $\Rightarrow \sigma_{ij} = \rho_{ij} = 0$

Parameter Estimation

► Sample mean:

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^{t}$$

► Sample covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{S} = [s_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^d = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^N (\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m})^T$$

where $s_{ii} = s_i^2$

► Sample correlation matrix:

$$\mathbf{R} = [r_{ij}]_{i,j=1}^d$$
 where $r_{ij} = \frac{s_{ij}}{s_i s_i}$

Estimation of Missing Values

- What to do if the values of certain variables in some instances are missing?
- Discarding the instances: not a good idea if the sample is small and since the non-missing entries do contain information.
- Imputation: filling in the missing entries
 - Mean imputation: using the most likely value (e.g., mean or mode)
 - Imputation by regression: predicting the missing values based on the regression approach
 - Matrix factorization: using low-rank matrices as factors for matrix completion.

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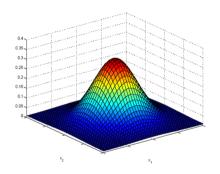
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Multivariate Normal Distribution - I



$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right]$$

Multivariate Normal Distribution - II

- ► Multivariate generalization of univariate normal distribution.
- ▶ Multivariate normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ with $d \times 1$ mean vector μ and $d \times d$ covariance matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}$.
- Probability density function:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right]$$

► Log likelihood:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mid \mathcal{X}) = -\frac{Nd}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{N}{2} \log|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

► Given sample $\mathcal{X} = \{x^t\}_{t=1}^N$, ML estimates:

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}^{t}$$
 $\mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m}) (\mathbf{x}^{t} - \mathbf{m})^{T}$

Multivariate Normal Distribution - III

Mahalanobis distance measures the distance from \mathbf{x} to $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ in terms of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ (normalized for differences in variance and covariance):

$$(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

 $(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = c^2$ is the *d*-dimensional hyperellipsoid centered at $\boldsymbol{\mu}$. Its shape and orientation are defined by $\mathbf{\Sigma}$.



Euclidean distance is a special case of Mahalanobis distance when $\Sigma = s^2 \mathbf{I}$; the hyperellipsoid degenerates into a hypersphere.

Bivariate Normal Distribution - I

- ▶ Multivariate normal distribution with d = 2.
- Covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = \left[egin{array}{ccc} \sigma_1^2 &
ho\sigma_1\sigma_2 \
ho\sigma_2\sigma_1 & \sigma_2^2 \end{array}
ight]$$

Joint density:

$$p(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2\sqrt{1-\rho^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2(1-\rho^2)}(z_1^2 - 2\rho z_1 z_2 + z_2^2)\right]$$

where

$$z_i = \frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}$$
 (z-normalization)

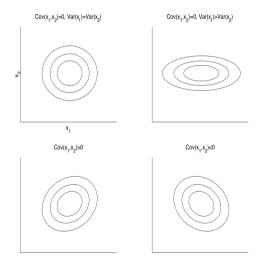
Bivariate Normal Distribution - II

▶ for $|\rho|$ < 1, the equation of an ellipse

$$z_1^2 - 2\rho z_1 z_2 + z_2^2 = c^2$$

- $-\,$ if $\rho>$ 0, the major axis of the ellipse has a positive slope
- if ρ < 0, the major axis of the ellipse has a negative slope
- If $\rho=0$, the two variables are independent, the cross-term disappears, and we get a product of two univariate densities.
- If $\rho=\pm 1$, the two variables are linearly related, the observations are effectively one-dimensional, and one of the two variables can be disposed of.

Isoprobability Contour Plot of Bivariate Normal



Independent Inputs

▶ If x_i are independent, the off-diagonal entries σ_{ij} , $i \neq j$ of Σ are 0. The joint density becomes:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p_i(x_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} \prod_{i=1}^{d} \sigma_i} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \left(\frac{x_i - \mu_i}{\sigma_i}\right)^2\right]$$

Mahalanobis distance reduces to weighted Euclidean distance (with weightings $1/\sigma_i$).

▶ It further reduces to Euclidean distance if all variances σ_i^2 are equal.

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Parametric Classification

 \blacktriangleright In Bayes' decision rule for classification, the discriminant function for of class C_i is

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i)P(C_i)$$
 or $\log[p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i)P(C_i)]$

▶ Class-conditional densities $p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\mu_i, \Sigma_i)$:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\mathbf{\Sigma}_i|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^T \mathbf{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)\right]$$

► Discriminant functions:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) + \log P(C_i)$$

$$= -\frac{d}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{\Sigma}_i| - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^T \mathbf{\Sigma}_i^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) + \log P(C_i)$$

Estimation of Parameters

- ▶ Given a training sample for $K \ge 2$ classes, $\mathcal{X} = \{(\mathbf{x}^t, \mathbf{r}^t)\}_{t=1}^N$, where $r_i^t = 1$ if $\mathbf{x}^t \in C_i$ and 0 otherwise, parameters can be estimated separately for each class.
- Parameter estimates:

$$\hat{P}(C_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t} r_i^t$$

$$\mathbf{m}_i = \frac{\sum_{t} r_i^t \mathbf{x}^t}{\sum_{t} r_i^t}$$

$$\mathbf{S}_i = \frac{\sum_{t} r_i^t (\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}_i) (\mathbf{x}^t - \mathbf{m}_i)^T}{\sum_{t} r_i^t}$$

Quadratic Discriminant Functions - I

➤ The parameter estimates are then plugged into the discriminant functions:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2}\log|\mathbf{S}_i| - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i)^T \mathbf{S}_i^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i) + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2}\log|\mathbf{S}_i| - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{S}_i^{-1} \mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{S}_i^{-1} \mathbf{m}_i + \mathbf{m}_i^T \mathbf{S}_i^{-1} \mathbf{m}_i) + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{W}_i \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}$$

where

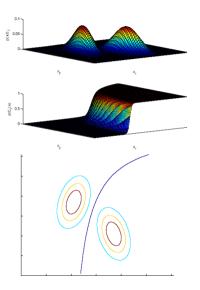
$$\mathbf{W}_{i} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{S}_{i}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{i} = \mathbf{S}_{i}^{-1}\mathbf{m}_{i}$$

$$w_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{m}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{S}_{i}^{-1}\mathbf{m}_{i} - \frac{1}{2}\log|\mathbf{S}_{i}| + \log\hat{P}(C_{i})$$

- ► The discriminant functions are concave and quadratic.
- ► The decision surface between two categories are hyperquadrics.

Quadratic Discriminant Functions - II



Quadratic Discriminant Functions - III

- The number of parameters to be estimated are Kd for the means and Kd(d+1)/2 for the covariance matrices.
- ▶ When d is large and samples are small, the estimation is not reliable.
- ► For the estimates to be reliable on small samples,
 - one may want to decrease dimensionality, d, by redesigning the feature extractor and select a subset of the features or somehow combine existing features.
 - another possibility is to pool the data and estimate a common covariance matrix for all classes.

▶ If the covariance for different class is different, we call it heteroscedasticity.

Equal Covariance Matrix S - I

Shared common sample covariance matrix (i.e., homoscedasticity):

$$\mathbf{S} = \sum_{i} \hat{P}(C_{i})\mathbf{S}_{i}$$

Discriminant functions are linear:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i)^T \mathbf{S}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i) + \log \hat{P}(C_i) + \text{const.}$$

Ignoring terms that are the same for all classes

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0}$$

with

$$\mathbf{w}_i = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{m}_i$$

$$w_{i0} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{m}_i^T \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{m}_i + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

▶ The number of parameters is Kd for the means and d(d+1)/2 for the shared covariance matrix.

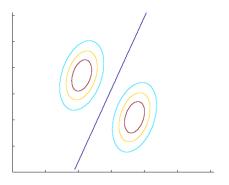
Equal Covariance Matrix S - II

- The decision surfaces for a linear discriminant classifiers are hyperplanes defined by the linear equations $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = g_i(\mathbf{x})$.
 - The equation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} &(\mathbf{w}_i - \mathbf{w}_j)^T \mathbf{x} + w_{i0} - w_{j0} = 0 \\ &\mathbf{w}^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) = 0 \\ &\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{m}_i - \mathbf{m}_j) \\ &\mathbf{x}_0 = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{m}_i + \mathbf{m}_j) - \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{m}_i - \mathbf{m}_j)\|^2} \log \frac{\hat{P}(C_i)}{\hat{P}(C_i)} \mathbf{S}^{-1} (\mathbf{m}_i - \mathbf{m}_j) \end{aligned}$$

- These equations define a hyperplane through point \mathbf{x}_0 with a normal vector \mathbf{w} .
- If the priors are equal, the optimal decision rule is to assign input to the class whose mean's Mahalanobis distance to the input is the smallest.
- Unequal priors shift the boundary toward the less likely class.

Equal Covariance Matrix S - III



Decision regions of such a linear classifier are convex.

Equal and Diagonal S - I

- ▶ Naive Bayes' classifier: if the variables are independent, ∑ becomes a diagonal matrix.
- Class-conditional densities:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \prod_j p(x_j \mid C_i)$$

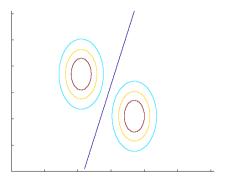
where $p(x_i \mid C_i)$ are univariate Gaussian distributions.

Discriminant functions:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -rac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^d \left(rac{x_j-m_{ij}}{s_j}
ight)^2 + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

- Classification based on weighted Euclidean distance.
- ightharpoonup The number of parameters is Kd for the means and d for the variances.

Equal and Diagonal S - II



Equal and Diagonal S with Equal Variances - I

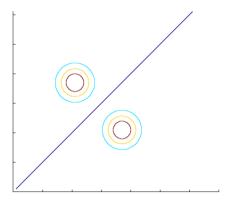
- ▶ If we assume further that all variances are equal, i.e., $\Sigma = s^2 I$, weighted Euclidean distance reduces to Euclidean distance.
- Discriminant functions:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2s^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{m}_i\|^2 + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$$

= $-\frac{1}{2s^2} \sum_{j=1}^d (x_j - m_{ij})^2 + \log \hat{P}(C_i)$

- Discriminant functions are linear.
- ▶ The number of parameters in this case is Kd for the means and 1 for s^2 .
- ▶ If the priors are equal, we have $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{m}_i\|^2$
 - nearest mean classifier: it assigns the input to the class of the nearest mean
 - template matching procedure: each mean acts as a prototype/template for the class.

Equal and Diagonal S with Equal Variances - II

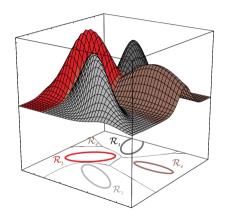


Tuning Model Complexity

Assumption	Covariance matrix	No. of parameters
Shared, hyperspherical	$S_i = S = s^2 I$	1
Shared, axis-aligned	$\mathbf{S}_i = \mathbf{S}$, with $s_{ij} = 0$	d
Shared, hyperellipsoidal	$S_i = S$	d(d+1)/2
Different, hyperellipsoidal	S_i	Kd(d+1)/2

- ► Complexity increases (i.e., less restricted **S**)
 - ⇒ bias decreases and variance increases
- ▶ Regularization: uses strong bias to control model complexity.

General Case for Multiple Classes



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Discrete Features: Bernoulli

▶ Bernoulli (or binary) variables x_j :

$$p_{ij} \equiv p(x_j = 1 \mid C_i)$$

▶ If x_i 's are independent given C_i (i.e, naive Bayes'):

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \prod_{j=1}^d p_{ij}^{x_j} (1 - p_{ij})^{1-x_j}$$

giving linear discriminant functions:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) + \log P(C_i)$$

$$= \sum_i \left[x_j \log p_{ij} + (1 - x_j) \log(1 - p_{ij}) \right] + \log P(C_i)$$

▶ Given sample $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t\}_{t=1}^N$, the maximum likelihood estimators:

$$\hat{p}_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{t} x_j^t r_i^t}{\sum_{t} r_i^t}$$

Discrete Features: Generalized Bernoulli

- ▶ Generalized Bernoulli (or multinomial) variables $x_j \in \{v_1, \dots, v_{n_i}\}$
- Indicator variables:

$$z_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_j = v_k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Define

$$p_{ijk} \equiv p(z_{jk} = 1 \mid C_i) = p(x_j = v_k \mid C_i)$$

▶ If x_i 's are independent:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \mid C_i) = \prod_{j=1}^d \prod_{k=1}^{n_j} p_{ijk}^{z_{jk}}$$

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \sum_k z_{jk} \log p_{ijk} + \log P(C_i)$$

• Given sample $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbf{x}^t\}_{t=1}^N$, the maximum likelihood estimators:

$$\hat{p}_{ijk} = \frac{\sum_{t} z_{jk}^{t} r_{i}^{t}}{\sum_{t} r_{i}^{t}}$$

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Multivariate Linear Regression

Multivariate linear regression:

$$r = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon$$

where $f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \text{estimator } g(\mathbf{x} \mid w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_d x_d$.

- ▶ In some literature (especially statistical literature), this is called multiple linear regression; statisticians use the term multivariate when there are multiple outputs.
- ► Given $\mathcal{X} = \{(\mathbf{x}^t, r^t)\}_{t=1}^N$, error function:

$$E(w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d \mid \mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_t (r^t - w_0 - w_1 x_1^t - \dots - w_d x_d^t)^2$$

Maximizing the Gaussian likelihood is equivalent to minimizing the sum of squared errors.

Normal Equations

► Taking the derivative with respect to the parameters, we get the normal equations for multivariate linear regression:

$$\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{r}$$

where

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1^1 & x_2^1 & \cdots & x_d^1 \\ 1 & x_1^2 & x_2^2 & \cdots & x_d^2 \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 1 & x_1^N & x_2^N & \cdots & x_d^N \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d)^T$$

$$\mathbf{r} = (r^1, r^2, \dots, r^N)^T$$

 \triangleright Estimated parameters (assuming that $\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}$ is invertible):

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{r}$$

Multivariate Polynomial Regression

Define new higher-order variables, e.g.

$$z_1 = x_1, \ z_2 = x_2 \ z_3 = (x_1)^2, \ z_4 = (x_2)^2, \ z_5 = x_1 x_2$$

- ► Apply multivariate linear regression in the new **z** space.
- Actually using higher-order terms of inputs as additional inputs is only one possibility; we can define any nonlinear function of the original inputs using basis functions, like $z = \sin(x)$.
- This idea of generalizing the linear model is frequently used in later course.