*** Applied Machine Learning Fundamentals *** Probability Density Estimation (PDE)

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SAP SE

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Lecture Overview

Unit I	Machine Learning Introduction
Unit II	Mathematical Foundations
Unit III	Bayesian Decision Theory
Unit IV	**Probability Density Estimation**
Unit V	Regression
Unit VI	Classification I
Unit VII	Evaluation
Unit VIII	Classification II
Unit IX	Clustering
Unit X	Dimensionality Reduction

Agenda October 31, 2019

Section:

Introduction

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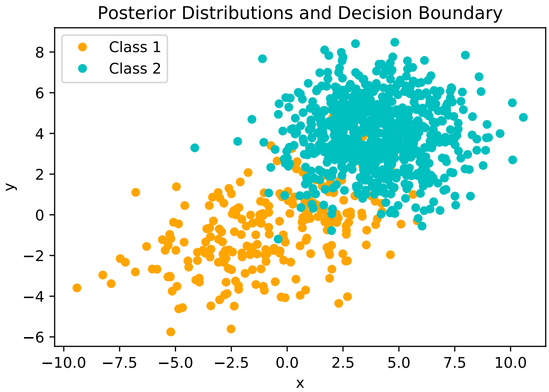
Probability Density Estimation (PDE)

- We have learned about Bayes' optimal classifiers which classify data based on the probability distribution $p(\boldsymbol{x}|\mathcal{C}_k) \cdot p(\mathcal{C}_k)$
- Naïve Bayes is an instance of PDE for **discrete data**
- **How to get these probabilities in the continuous case?**
    - The prior $p(\mathcal{C}_k)$ is still easy to compute
    - The estimation of class conditional probabilities $p(\boldsymbol{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)$ is more complicated
    - Assume labeled data; estimate the density separately for each class $\mathcal{C}_k$
- NB: For ease of notation: $p(x) \equiv p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)$

Training Data Example



Overview of the Methods for PDE

1. **Parametric models** (maximum likelihood estimation)
   - Assume a fixed parametric form (e. g. a Gaussian distribution)
   - Estimate the parameters such that the model fits the data best
2. **Non-parametric models**
   - Often we do not know the functional form of the density
   - Estimate probability directly from the data without an explicit model
3. **Mixture models**
   - Combination of ❶ and ❷
   - EM algorithm

Section:

Parametric Models

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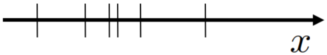
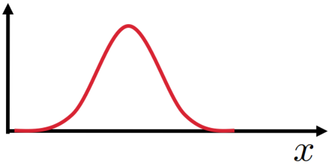
General Approach

- Given some (continuous) training data $\boldsymbol{X} = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{n}$ (where all $x^{(i)}$ belong to the same class):



- Estimate $p(x)$ using a fixed parametric form:



Example: Gaussian Distribution

- One common case is the **Gaussian distribution**:

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

- Notation for parametric models:
  - $p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta})$
  - In the case of a Gaussian: $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$

$\mu \mathrel{\widehat{=}}$ mean
$\sigma^2 \mathrel{\widehat{=}}$ variance

Learning the Parameters

- Learning = Estimation of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ given the data $\boldsymbol{X}$
- **Likelihood** of the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$:
  - Is defined as the probability that $\boldsymbol{X}$ was generated by a probability density function (pdf) with parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \tag{2}$$

  - We want to **maximize** the likelihood

$\Rightarrow$ **Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)**

A fundamental Assumption

- How to compute $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$?
- The data is assumed to be i. i. d. (independent and identically distributed):
  - Two random variables x_1 and x_2 are independent if

$$P(x_1 \leqslant \alpha, x_2 \leqslant \beta) = P(x_1 \leqslant \alpha) \cdot P(x_2 \leqslant \beta) \qquad \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3}$$

  - Two random variables x_1 and x_2 are identically distributed if

$$P(x_1 \leqslant \alpha) = P(x_2 \leqslant \alpha) \qquad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \tag{4}$$

Computation of the Likelihood

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

$$= p(x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots, x^{(n)}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

data is independent:

$$= p(x^{(1)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \cdot p(x^{(2)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \cdot \ldots \cdot p(x^{(n)}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

data is identically distributed:

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \tag{5}$$

What is the problem here?

Computation of the Likelihood (Ctd.)

- **Problem:** Large n might cause arithmetic underflows! **(why?)**
- Transform the likelihood using the logarithm $\Rightarrow$ log-likelihood

Why is this an allowed transformation?

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{LL}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \log \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \log \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

$\log \prod = \sum \log$

Maximum Likelihood of a Gaussian

- $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$

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

- Find μ_{ml} and σ^2_{ml} which maximize the log-likelihood:

$$\mu_{ml}, \sigma^2_{ml} = \arg\max_{\mu, \sigma^2} \mathcal{L}\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Maximum Likelihood of a Gaussian (Ctd.)

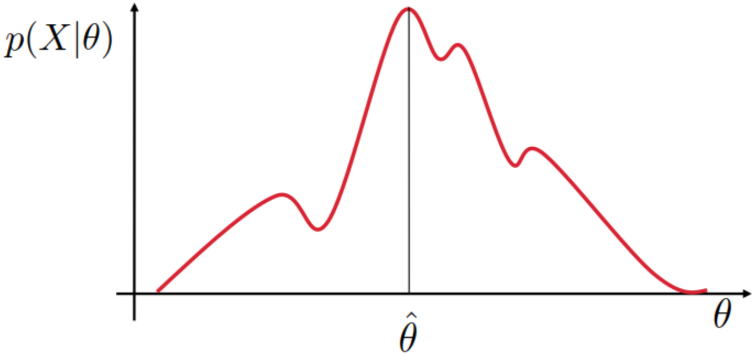
- Compute the partial derivatives with respect to the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Derivative w. r. t. μ:

$$\nabla_{\mu}\mathcal{LL}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \nabla_{\mu}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\log\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\exp\left\{-\frac{(x^{(i)}-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\} = \sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{x^{(i)}-\mu}{\sigma^2}$$

- Set derivative to zero and solve:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n}x^{(i)}-\mu \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \Leftrightarrow n\cdot\mu = \sum_{i=1}^{n}x^{(i)} \Leftrightarrow \mu = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}x^{(i)}$$

Maximization of the Likelihood



We can classify!

Looks familiar?

- Maximum likelihood parameters:

$$\mu_{ml} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{(i)} \qquad \sigma_{ml}^2 = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x^{(i)} - \mu_{ml})^2$$

- Now we can use Bayes' rule to predict class labels
    - We have the priors...
    - ...and the class conditionals
- Also, the **decision boundary** can be computed

Multivariate Case

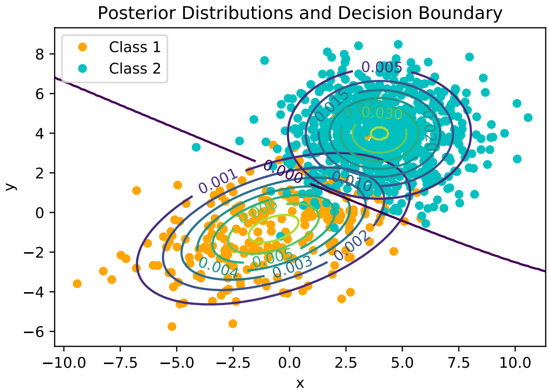
- The solution above is for 1-D data, what if we have more dimensions?
- **Multivariate Gaussian distribution**:

$$\mathcal{N}_D(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^\intercal \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right\} \tag{7}$$

- Luckily, the derivations don't change:

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ml} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)} \qquad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ml} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ml})(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}-\boldsymbol{\mu}_{ml})^\intercal \tag{8}$$

MLE for the Example Data Set



Section:

Non-parametric Models

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Disadvantages of parametric Models

- Until now we used a fixed parametric form (e. g. a Gaussian) which is governed by a small amount of parameters
- This assumption may be wrong:
  - Another distribution (exponential, gamma, ...) may fit better
  - A suitable 'text-book distribution' may not exist

We don't want to make any assumptions about the underlying distribution!

Non-parametric Approaches

1. **Histograms** (Binning)
2. **Kernel density estimation** (KDE)
3. **Nearest neighbors** (kNN)

Histograms

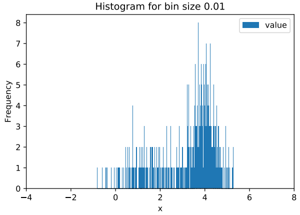
- Histograms partition the data $\boldsymbol{X} = \{\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^{n}$ into distinct **bins** of volume v_j...
- ...and subsequently count the number of instances k_j falling into the j-th bin
- Approximate the probability $p(\boldsymbol{x})$ by:

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) \approx \frac{k_j}{n \cdot v_j} \qquad \text{for } \boldsymbol{x} \text{ in bin } j \tag{9}$$

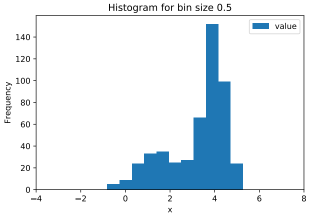
- The sum of all probabilities equals 1: $\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{k_j}{n \cdot v_j} = 1$
- v_j is a **hyper-parameter** (usually, all bins have equal size)

Histograms (Ctd.)

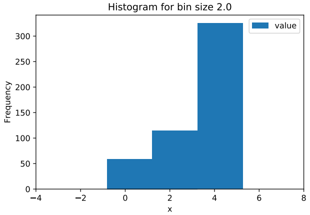
Too narrow



About right

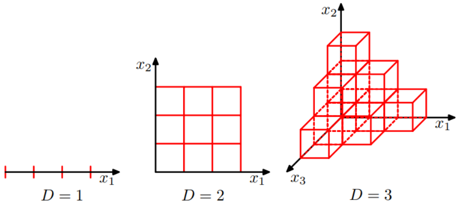


Too wide



Drawbacks of Histograms

- Histograms are mostly unsuited for many applications
- **Drawbacks:**
  1. **Discontinuities** due to bin edges
  2. Number of bins **explodes** with growing number of dimensions D



The latter issue is known as the curse of dimensionality

An alternative Approach

- Don't use a fixed number of pre-determined bins
- Instead, employ a **sliding window** approach by centering a region $\mathcal{R}$ (bin) around the data point of interest $\boldsymbol{x}$

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) \approx \frac{k}{n \cdot v} \tag{10}$$

- This gives rise to two different techniques:
  1. **Kernel density estimation** (Fix v and determine k)
  2. **k-nearest neighbors** (Fix k and determine v)

Kernel Density Estimation: Parzen Window

- $\mathcal{R}$ is a D-dimensional **hyper-cube** of edge length h centered on $\boldsymbol{x}$
- Determine if a data point falls into region $\mathcal{R}$:

$$H(\boldsymbol{u}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u_d| \leqslant h/2, d = 1, 2, \dots, D \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

- The total number of data points falling into region $\mathcal{R}$ is given by:

$$k(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}) \tag{12}$$

Kernel Density Estimation: Parzen Window (Ctd.)

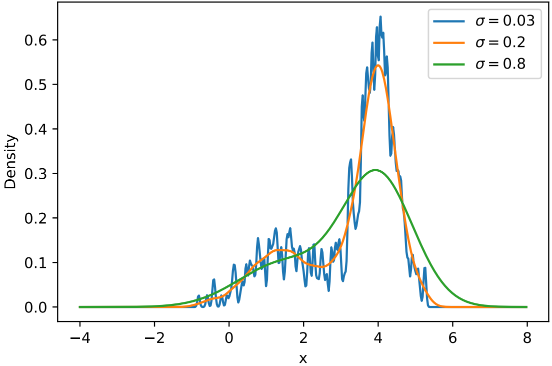
- The volume v is simple to compute:

$$v = \int H(\boldsymbol{u})\,\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{u} = h^D \tag{13}$$

- Putting it all together we get:

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) \approx \frac{k(\boldsymbol{x})}{n \cdot v} = \frac{1}{n \cdot h^D} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}) \tag{14}$$

Kernel Density Estimation: Parzen Window (Ctd.)



k-Nearest Neighbors

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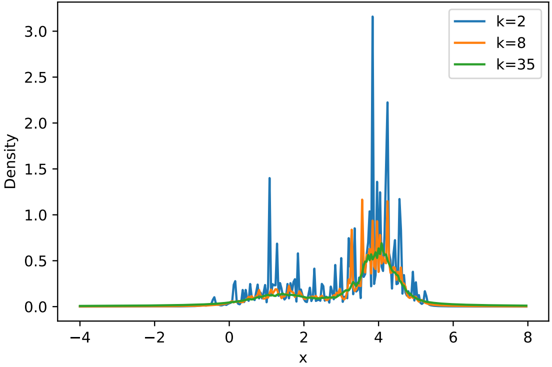
k-Nearest Neighbors (Ctd.)



Section:

Mixture Models

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Section:

Wrap-Up

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Summary

Self-Test Questions

What's next...?

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Recommended Literature and further Reading

Thank you very much for the attention!

Topic: *** Applied Machine Learning Fundamentals *** Probability Density Estimation (PDE)
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Do you have any questions?