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

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SAPSE

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Find all slides on GitHub

Lecture Overview

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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



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Section: Introduction



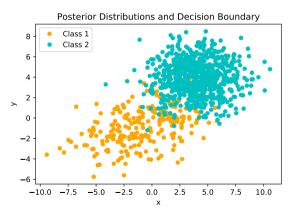
Probability Density Estimation (PDE)

- We have learned about Bayes' optimal classifiers which classify data based on the probability distribution $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k) \cdot p(\mathcal{C}_k)$
- 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 $p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)$ is more complicated
 - Assume labeled data; estimate the density separately for each class \mathcal{C}_k
- NB: For ease of notation: $p(x) \equiv p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)$



Wrap-Up

Training Data Example



Overview of the Methods for PDE

- 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
- Non-parametric models
 - Often we do not know the functional form of the density
 - Estimate probability directly from the data without an explicit model
- Mixture models
 - Combination of ① and ②
 - EM algorithm



Section: Parametric Models

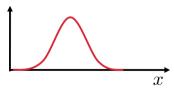


General Approach

• Given some (continuous) training data $X = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^n$ (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:

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

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

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

Learning the Parameters

- Learning = Estimation of the parameters θ given the data X
- Likelihood of the parameters θ :
 - Is defined as the probability that X was generated by a probability density function (pdf) with parameters θ

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

- We want to maximize the likelihood
- ⇒ 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

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

• Two random variables x_1 and x_2 are identically distributed, if

$$P(x_1 \leqslant \alpha) = P(x_2 \leqslant \alpha) \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$
 (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:

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

What is the problem here?

(5)



Computation of the Likelihood (Ctd.)

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

$$\mathcal{LL}(m{ heta}) = \log \mathcal{L}(m{ heta})$$

$$= \log \prod_{i=1}^n p(x^{(i)}|m{ heta})$$

$$\log \Pi = \Sigma \log$$

Why is this an allowed transformation?

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \tag{6}$$

Maximum Likelihood of a Gaussian

• $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma^2\}$

$$\mathcal{LL}(\{\mu, \sigma^2\}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)}|\mu, \sigma^2)$$
 (7)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$
 (8)

• Find μ_{ml} and σ_{ml}^2 which maximize the log-likelihood:

$$\mu_{\textit{ml}}, \, \sigma^2_{\textit{ml}} = \argmax_{\mu, \, \sigma^2} \mathcal{LL}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$



Maximum Likelihood of a Gaussian (Ctd.)

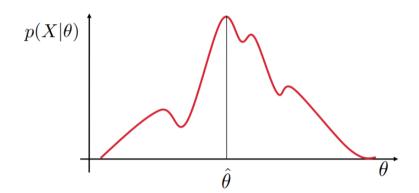
- ullet Compute the partial derivatives with respect to the parameters $oldsymbol{ heta}$
- Derivative w. r. t. μ:

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

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!

• Maximum likelihood parameters:

Looks familiar?

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

- 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:

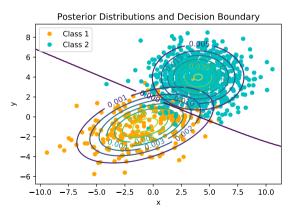
$$\mathcal{N}_{D}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{D}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right\}$$
(9)

• Luckily, the derivations don't change:

$$\mu_{ml} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \qquad \Sigma_{ml} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mu_{ml}) (\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mu_{ml})^{\mathsf{T}}$$
 (10)



MLE for the Example Data Set



Section: Non-parametric Models





Introduction Parametric Models Non-parametric Models Mixture Models Wrap-Up Motivation
Non-parametric Approache
Histograms
Kernel Density Estimation
k-Nearest Neighbors

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

- Histograms (Binning)
- Kernel density estimation (KDE)
- Nearest neighbors (kNN)

Histograms

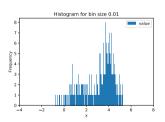
- Histograms partition the data $X = \{x^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^n$ into distinct **bins** of volume v_j ...
- ...and subsequently count the number of instances k_j falling into the j-th bin
- Approximate the probability p(x) by:

$$p(x) \approx \frac{k_j}{n \cdot v_j} \quad \text{for } x \text{ in bin } j$$
 (11)

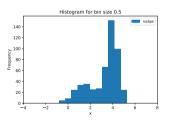
- The sum of all probabilities equals 1: $\sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{k_j}{n \cdot v_j} = 1$
- v_i is a hyper-parameter (usually all bins have equal size)

Histograms (Ctd.)

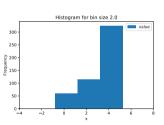
Too narrow



About right

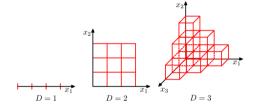


Too wide



Drawbacks of Histograms

- Histograms are mostly unsuited for many applications
- Drawbacks:
 - 1 Discontinuities due to bin edges
 - 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 x

$$p(x) \approx \frac{k}{n \cdot v} \tag{12}$$

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





Kernel Density Estimation: Parzen Window

- \Re is a D-dimensional hyper-cube of edge length h centered on x
- Determine if a data point falls into region \Re :

$$H(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u_d| \leqslant \frac{h}{2}, d = 1, 2, \dots, D \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (13)

• The total number of data points falling into region \Re is given by:

$$k(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(x - x^{(i)})$$
 (14)





Kernel Density Estimation: Parzen Window (Ctd.)

• The volume *v* is simple to compute:

$$v = \int H(\mathbf{u}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{u} = h^D \tag{15}$$

Putting it all together we get:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{k(\mathbf{x})}{n \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{n \cdot h^D} \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$
 (16)

Problem: There are still discontinuities



Kernel Density Estimation: Gaussian Kernel

$$H(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{\left(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}\right)^D} \exp\left\{-\frac{\|\mathbf{u}\|^2}{2h^2}\right\}$$
 (17)

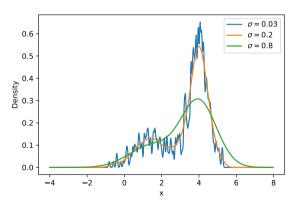
$$v = \int H(\mathbf{u}) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{u} = 1 \tag{18}$$

$$k(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} H(x - x^{(i)})$$
(19)

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{k(\mathbf{x})}{n \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{n \cdot \left(\sqrt{2\pi h^2}\right)^D} \sum_{i=1}^n \exp\left\{-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(i)}\|^2}{2h^2}\right\}$$
(20)



Kernel Density Estimation: Gaussian Kernel (Ctd.)



k-Nearest Neighbors

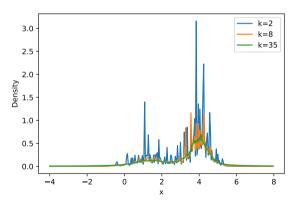
Different strategy:

• Fix k and increase the volume, until k data points fall into region \Re

$$p(x) \approx \frac{k}{n \cdot v(x)} \tag{21}$$

- Usually, kernel density estimation gives better results!
- We will also look at k-Nearest Neighbors as a classification method later!

k-Nearest Neighbors (Ctd.)



Section: Mixture Models



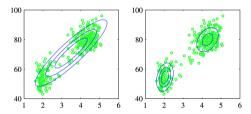
Why do we need Mixture Models?

- Parametric models have low memory footprint, are quick at runtime and often have nice analytic properties
- Non-parametric models make fewer assumptions about the data, but are slower and have a high memory footprint
- We can combine different models in a mixture model!

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{M} p(x|j)p(j)$$
(22)

Why do we need Mixture Models? (Ctd.)

A single parametric model might fail to capture the structure of the data set
 Solution: Use more components



 Mixture distributions (e.g. combination of Gaussians) can approximate almost any continuous density to arbitrary accuracy (given a sufficient number of Gaussians is used)



Mixture of Gaussians (MoG)

$$p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} p(x|j)p(j) \qquad \text{probability of data given comp. } j \times \text{probability of comp. } j \quad (23)$$

$$p(x|j) = \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_j, \sigma_j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_j^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(x-\mu_j)^2}{2\sigma_j^2}\right\}$$
(24)

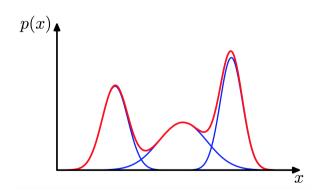
$$p(j)=\pi_j \qquad ext{with} \qquad 0\leqslant \pi_j\leqslant 1 \qquad ext{and} \qquad \sum_{j=1}^M \pi_j = 1$$

Remarks:

- The mixture density integrates to 1: $\int p(x) dx = 1$
- The mixture parameters are: $\theta = \{\mu_1, \sigma_1, \pi_1, \dots, \mu_M, \sigma_M, \pi_M\}$



Mixture of Gaussians (Ctd.)



The mixture of Gaussians (red) is obtained by summing over individual Gaussians (blue)

Maximum Likelihood Estimation for MoG

- We have defined our Gaussian mixture model: $p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{M} p(x|j)p(j)$
- Maximize the **log-likelihood** to estimate the parameters θ :

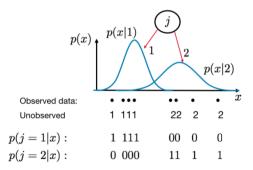
$$\mathcal{LL} = \log \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(x^{(i)}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
 (26)

$$\nabla_{\mu_{j}} \mathcal{L} \mathcal{L} \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \qquad \mu_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p(j|x^{(i)}) x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p(j|x^{(i)})}$$
(27)

Do you see the issue? ⇒ Circular dependency, no analytical solution!

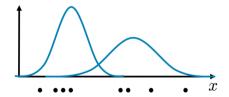
Expectation Maximization (EM)

Different strategy: We have observed data (without labels) $x^{(i)}$ and unobserved / hidden / latent variables j|x



Expectation Maximization (Ctd.)

- Suppose we knew the observed and the unobserved data set:
 We could compute the maximum likelihood solution of all components
- Suppose we knew the distributions:
 We could infer the labels for the unobserved data



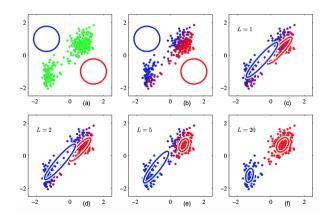
We have neither! ⇒ Chicken-Egg-Problem!

Expectation Maximization: General Procedure

- So, how can we estimate the mixture parameters?
- EM algorithm:
 - Start with an initial guess for the parameters
 - **2** E-step: Assign each data point $x^{(i)}$ to a component and compute $p(j|x^{(i)})$:
 - Hard assignment: Each data point is assigned to exactly one component
 - Soft assignment: Use soft probabilities instead
 - **3** M-step: Update the parameters based on the assignments
 - 4 If not converged: Go to ❷



Expectation Maximization: General Procedure (Ctd.)





Expectation Maximization for MoG

EM for Gaussian Mixture Models:

- Initialize μ_i , σ_i , π_i and evaluate the initial log-likelihood
- While stop-condition is not met
 - E-step: Compute the posterior distribution (a. k. a. responsibility α) for each mixture component and all data points

$$\alpha_{ij} = p(j|x^{(i)}) = \frac{\pi_j \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)}|\mu_j, \sigma_j)}{\sum_{k=1}^{M} \pi_k \mathcal{N}(x^{(i)}|\mu_k, \sigma_k)}$$
(28)

- M-step: Compute new parameters using the responsibilities (cf. next slide)
- Iterate until converged





M-Step in Detail

• Update means:

$$\mu_j^{(new)} = \frac{1}{n_j} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ij} x^{(i)} \quad \text{with} \quad n_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ij}$$
(29)

Update variance:

$$(\sigma_j^{(new)})^2 = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_{ij} (x^{(i)} - \mu_j^{(new)})^2$$
 (30)

• Update π_j : $\pi_i^{(new)} = \frac{n_j}{n}$



Expectation Maximization: General Remarks

- EM is a general framework and not limited to mixture models
- We can use EM for performing maximum likelihood estimation, even when the data is incomplete (missing features)
- The log-likelihood is guaranteed to improve or stay the same in every EM iteration

 Convergence guarantee!
- Visualizations of EM for Gaussian mixture models:
 - EM density estimation animation
 - 2-dimensional EM animation



Expectation Maximization: Some Recommendations

- How do we initialize the parameters for EM?
 - EM depends on a good initialization of the parameters, a poor initialization can lead to bad local optima
 - We can use k-means to get an initial clustering
- How many mixture components do we need?
 - Use M which maximizes the Bayesian information criterion (BIC):

$$\log p(X|\theta_{ML}) - \frac{1}{2}K\log N \tag{31}$$

- K: Number of parameters
- N: Number of data points

Section: Wrap-Up



Summary

- We can use parametric, non-parametric and mixture models to estimate the density
- This allows us to estimate the probabilities needed by e.g. a naïve Bayes model to work with **continuous features**
- Parametric models assume a certain parametric form, e.g. a Gaussian
- MLE allows us to determine the parameters based on our dataset
- Non-parametric models directly use the data points themselves
- Use the EM algorithm to optimize the parameters of mixture models

Introduction
Parametric Models
Non-parametric Models
Mixture Models
Wrap-Up

Summary
Self-Test Questions
Lecture Outlook
Recommended Literature and further Reading
Meme of the Day

Self-Test Questions

- 1 What is maximum likelihood estimation? How can you get the maximum likelihood estimate for a Gaussian distribution?
- 2 What does the term 'non-parametric' mean? How many parameters does such a model have?
- 3 What distinguishes kernel density estimation and k-nearest neighbors?
- 4 Why can't we use a simple maximum likelihood estimate for mixture models?
- **5** What happens in the E and M steps in the EM algorithm?



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What's next...?

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Recommended Literature and further Reading



[1] Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning

Christopher Bishop. Springer. 2006.

- → Link, cf. chapters 1.2.4 'The Gaussian Distribution',
- 2.5 'Non-Parametric Methods' and 9.2 'Mixtures of Gaussians'

Meme of the Day



Thank you very much for the attention!

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

Term: Winter term 2019/2020

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Do you have any questions?