

18794 Pattern Recognition Theory

Prof. Marios Savvides

HMW-Alexander

November 10, 2016

Contents

1	Introduction	2
2	Decision Theory	2
2.1	Terms	2
2.2	Bayes Rule	2
2.3	Minimum Probability of Error	2
2.4	Likelihood Ratio	3
2.4.1	Likelihood as Gaussian distribution	3
3	Parametric & Non-Parametric Density Estimation	4
3.1	ML Estimation (MLE)	5
3.1.1	E.g. Univariate Gaussian	5
3.1.2	E.g. Multivariate Gaussian	6
3.2	Bayesian Estimation (BE)	7
3.2.1	E.g. Univariate Gaussian	8
3.2.2	E.g. Multivariate Gaussian	8
4	Principle Component Analysis (PCA)	8

1 Introduction

[Back to Top](#)

2 Decision Theory

2.1 Terms

- Feature Space:
 - **Feature**: a distinctive characteristic or quality of the object
 - **Feature vector**: combine more than one feature as a vector
 - **Feature space**: The space defined by the feature vectors
- Classifiers:
 - **Decision regions**: a classifier partitions the feature space into class-corresponding decision regions.
 - **Decision boundaries**: the borders between the decision regions.

2.2 Bayes Rule

$$P(w_i|x) = \frac{P(x, w_i)}{P(x)} = \frac{P(x|w_i)P(w_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^C P(x|w_k)P(w_k)} \quad (1)$$

- **Posterior Probability** $P(w_i|x)$: the conditional probability of correct class being w_i given that feature value x has been observed.
- **Evidence** $P(x)$: the total probability of observing the feature value of x .
- **Likelihood** $P(x|w_i)$: the conditional probability of observing a feature value of x given that the correct class is w_i .
- **Prior Probability** $P(w_i)$: the probability of class w_i , $\sum_{k=1}^C P(w_k) = 1$.
- **Bayes Classifiers** decide on the class that has the **largest posterior probability** ($\max_{w_i} P(w_i|x)$). They are statistically the best classifiers i.e. they are minimum error classifiers (optimal).

2.3 Minimum Probability of Error

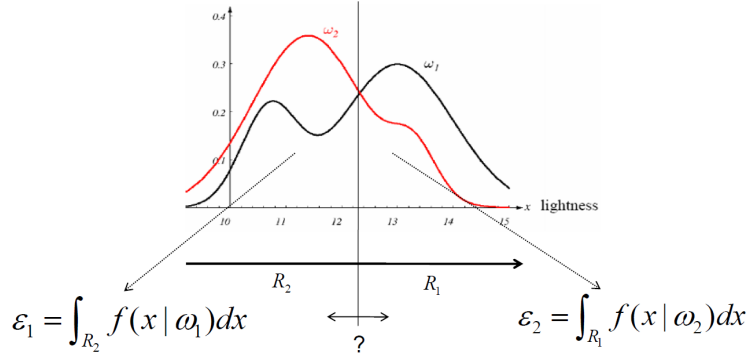
- $\epsilon = P(\text{error}|\text{class})$: probability of assigning x to the wrong class w .
- $P_e = \sum_{k=1}^C P(w_k)\epsilon_k$: total probability of error.

For the two class case shown above, we want to minimize P_e as below:

$$\begin{aligned} P_e &= P(w_1)\epsilon_1 + P(w_2)\epsilon_2 \\ &= P(w_1) \int_{R_2} f(x|w_1)dx + P(w_2) \int_{R_1} f(x|w_2)dx \\ &= P(w_1)(1 - \int_{R_1} f(x|w_1)dx) + P(w_2) \int_{R_1} f(x|w_2)dx \\ &= P(w_1) + \int_{R_1} (P(w_2)f(x|w_2) - P(w_1)f(x|w_1))dx \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

To minimize P_e , we want $P(w_2)f(x|w_2) - P(w_1)f(x|w_1)$ to be always negative (< 0) in the region R_1 :

$$\begin{aligned} P(w_1)f(x|w_1) - P(w_2)f(x|w_2) &> 0 \Rightarrow w_1 \\ P(w_1)f(x|w_1) - P(w_2)f(x|w_2) &< 0 \Rightarrow w_2 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$



2.4 Likelihood Ratio

- **Likelihood ratio:** $l(x) = \frac{f(x|w_1)}{f(x|w_2)}$
- **Log likelihood ratio:** $\ln(l(x)) = \ln\left(\frac{f(x|w_1)}{f(x|w_2)}\right) = \ln(f(x|w_1)) - \ln(f(x|w_2))$
- **Ratio of a priori probabilities:** $T = \frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}$
- **Log ratio of a priori probabilities:** $\ln(T) = \ln\left(\frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}\right) = \ln(P(w_2)) - \ln(P(w_1))$

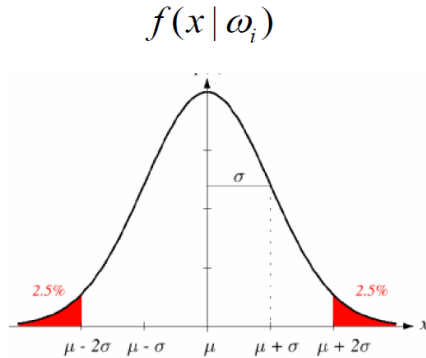
$$\begin{aligned} \ln(l(x)) = \ln\left(\frac{f(x|w_1)}{f(x|w_2)}\right) &> \ln\left(\frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}\right) = \ln(T) \Rightarrow w_1 \\ \ln(l(x)) = \ln\left(\frac{f(x|w_1)}{f(x|w_2)}\right) &< \ln\left(\frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}\right) = \ln(T) \Rightarrow w_2 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

2.4.1 Likelihood as Gaussian distribution

Assume likelihood $f(x|w_i)$ are Gaussian distributions with mean μ_i and variance σ_i^2 .

$$f(x|w_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_i^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right) \quad (5)$$

The log likelihood ratio:



$$\begin{aligned} \ln(l(x)) &= \ln\left(\frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2}\right)}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2}\right)}\right) \\ &= \ln\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\right) + \frac{(x-\mu_2)^2}{2\sigma_2^2} - \frac{(x-\mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

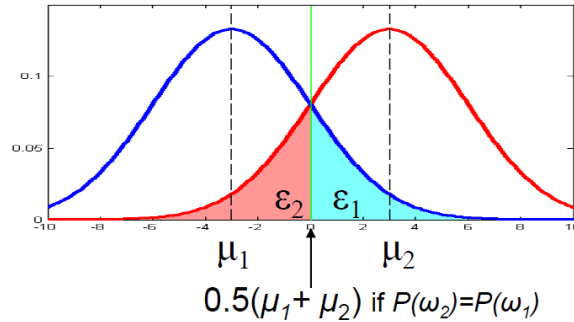
Case: $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2 = \sigma$

$$\ln(l(x)) = \frac{2x(\mu_1 - \mu_2) - (\mu_1^2 - \mu_2^2)}{2\sigma^2} \quad (7)$$

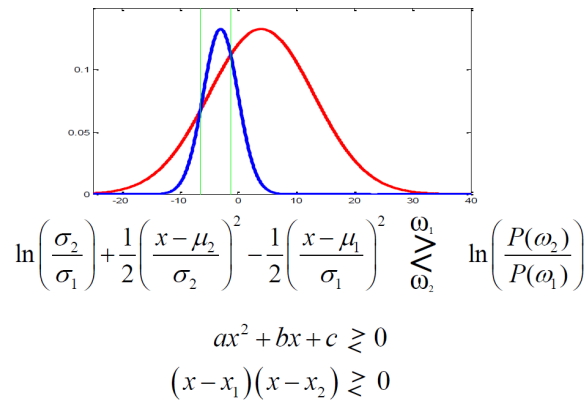
$$\begin{aligned} x(\mu_1 - \mu_2) - \frac{\mu_1^2 - \mu_2^2}{2} &> \sigma^2 \ln\left(\frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}\right) \Rightarrow w_1 \\ x(\mu_1 - \mu_2) - \frac{\mu_1^2 - \mu_2^2}{2} &< \sigma^2 \ln\left(\frac{P(w_2)}{P(w_1)}\right) \Rightarrow w_2 \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

If $P(w_1) = P(w_2)$

$$x = \frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2} \quad (9)$$



Case: $\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$



[Back to Top](#)

3 Parametric & Non-Parametric Density Estimation

Learning & Classification

- Supervised:

- Bayes Density:

- * Parametric: assumes a particular form of a PDF (e.g. Gaussian) is known \rightarrow determine the parameters (e.g. mean and variance)

- Maximum Likelihood ($f(x|w_i)$) Estimation (MLE)
- Maximum A Posteriori (Bayesian $p(w_i|x)$) Estimation (MAPE)
- * Non-Parametric: no assumption about the density
 - Parzen Windows
 - Kernel Density Estimation
 - K-Nearest Neighbor Rule
- Discriminant Analysis:
 - * Linear
 - * Non-Linear
- Unsupervised:
 - Clustering

3.1 ML Estimation (MLE)

Steps:

- Assume $P(x|w)$ has a known parametric form uniquely determined by the parameter vector θ
- The parameters are assumed to be fixed (i.e. non random) but unknown
- Suppose we have a dataset D with the samples in D having been drawn **independently** according to the probability law $P(x|w)$
- The MLE is the value of θ that best explains the data and once we know this value, we know $P(x|w)$

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \{P(D|\theta)\} = \arg \max_{\theta} \left\{ \prod_{k=1}^N P(x_k|\theta) \right\} = \arg \max_{\theta} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^N \log(P(x_k|\theta)) \right\} \quad (10)$$

Choose the value of θ that is the most likely to give rise to the data we observe.

Method:

- Assume $\theta = [\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p]^T$
- Assume gradient operator $\nabla_{\theta} = [\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_p}]^T$
- Assume the log-likelihood of the objective function $l(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^N \log(P(x_k|\theta))$
- Therefore: $\nabla_{\theta} l(\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^N \nabla_{\theta} \log(P(x_k|\theta)) = 0$

3.1.1 E.g. Univariate Gaussian

$$P(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (11)$$

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 = \mu \\ \theta_2 = \sigma^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \log(P(x_k|\theta)) &= \log\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\theta_2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_k-\theta_1)^2}{2\theta_2}\right)\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\theta_2) - \frac{(x_k-\theta_1)^2}{2\theta_2} \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} \log(P(x_k|\theta)) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{x_k - \theta_1}{\theta_2} \\ -\frac{1}{2\theta_2} + \frac{(x_k - \theta_1)^2}{2\theta_2^2} \end{bmatrix} \\ \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\theta_2} (x_k - \theta_1) = 0 \\ -\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\theta_2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(x_k - \theta_1)^2}{\theta_2^2} = 0 \end{cases} &\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \\ \hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \hat{\mu})^2 \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

3.1.2 E.g. Multivariate Gaussian

$$P(x|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right) \quad (15)$$

Case: only the mean μ is unknown

$$\log(P(x_k|\mu)) = -\frac{1}{2} \log((2\pi)^d |\Sigma|) - \frac{1}{2} (x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} \log(P(x_k|\mu)) &= \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^n \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) = 0 &\Rightarrow \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Case: Neither the mean μ nor the covariance matrix Σ are known

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 & = & \mu \\ \theta_2 & = & \Sigma \end{bmatrix} \quad (18)$$

Convert the covariance matrix Σ

$$\begin{aligned} P(D|\Sigma) &= \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|\Sigma) \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\Sigma|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{((2\pi)^d |\Sigma|)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu)\right) \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

The property of matrix trace

- scalar $b^T B b = \text{trace}(b^T B b) = \text{trace}(B b b^T)$
- $\text{trace}(A + B) = \text{trace}(A) + \text{trace}(B)$
- $\text{trace}(C(A + B)) = \text{trace}(CA) + \text{trace}(CB)$
- $\text{trace}(A)$ is the sum of A 's eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) &= \sum_{k=1}^n \text{trace}((x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu)) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) (x_k - \mu)^T) \\ &= \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu) (x_k - \mu)^T) \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Assume

$$A = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu) (x_k - \mu)^T \quad (21)$$

and A is fixed.

Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x_k - \mu) = n \text{ trace}(\Sigma^{-1} A) \quad (22)$$

Therefore

$$P(D|\Sigma) = \frac{1}{((2\pi)^d |\Sigma|)^{n/2}} \exp(-\frac{n}{2} \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} A)) \quad (23)$$

Assume

$$B = \Sigma^{-1} A \quad (24)$$

and B's eigenvalues are $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_d$

The property of matrix determinant

- $\det(AB) = \det(A)\det(B)$
- $\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A)^{-1}$
- $\det(A)$ is the product of A 's eigenvalues

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} P(D|\Sigma) &= \frac{1}{((2\pi)^d |\Sigma|)^{n/2}} \exp(-\frac{n}{2} \text{trace}(\Sigma^{-1} A)) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{dn/2}} |\Sigma|^{-n/2} \exp(-\frac{n}{2} \text{trace}(B)) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{dn/2}} \left(\frac{|B|}{|A|}\right)^{n/2} \exp(-\frac{n}{2} \text{trace}(B)) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{dn/2}} |A|^{-n/2} (\prod_{i=1}^d \lambda_i)^{n/2} \exp(-\frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i) \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

$$\log(P(D|\Sigma)) = -\frac{dn}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2} \log(|A|) + \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \log(\lambda_i) - \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i \quad (26)$$

$$\frac{\partial(\log(P(x|\Sigma)))}{\partial \lambda_i} = \frac{n}{2\lambda_i} - \frac{n}{2} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_i = 1 \quad (27)$$

Therefore $B \sim I$, and $\Sigma^{-1} A = I \Rightarrow \hat{\Sigma} = A = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - \mu)(x_k - \mu)^T$.

3.2 Bayesian Estimation (BE)

Steps:

- The parameters are assumed to be random variables with some known priori distribution.
- Bayesian approach aims at estimating the posterior density $P(\theta|D)$
- The MAPE(Maximum A Posteriori Estimate) of θ is the value of θ that maximizes the posterior density $P(\theta|D)$.

Method:

- Estimate $P(x|D)$ from sample data, and assume it has a known parametric form. So $P(x|\theta)$ is completely known, but θ is random variable and has its own PDF.
- $P(x|D) = \int P(x, \theta|D) d\theta = \int P(x|\theta) P(\theta|D) d\theta$
- Posterior $P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$, where $P(D|\theta) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|\theta)$
- Since $P(D)$ is constant, therefore $\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)\}$

3.2.1 E.g. Univariate Gaussian

...

3.2.2 E.g. Multivariate Gaussian

...

[Back to Top](#)

4 Principle Component Analysis (PCA)

Purpose: get projection vectors ω that maximize the variance of the projected data.

$$\max_{\omega} (Var(\omega^T x)), \text{ where } \|\omega\| = 1 \quad (28)$$

Derivation: Assume the objective function

$$\begin{aligned} J(\omega) &= Var(\omega^T x) \\ &= E(\omega^T (x - \mu)(x - \mu)^T \omega) \\ &= \omega^T E((x - \mu)(x - \mu)^T) \omega \\ &= \omega^T \Sigma \omega \quad (\text{where } \|\omega\| = 1) \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

Then use Lagrangian optimization method to get the ω^*

$$\begin{aligned} L(\omega, \lambda) &= \omega^T \Sigma \omega - \lambda(\omega^T \omega - 1) \\ \frac{\partial L(\omega, \lambda)}{\partial \omega} &= 2\Sigma\omega - 2\lambda\omega = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \Sigma\omega &= \lambda\omega \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

To maximize $J(\omega)$, we need to maximize $\omega^T \Sigma \omega = \lambda \rightarrow \lambda_{max}$