## **Machine Learning**

## Bayesian Parameter Estimation and Maximum Likelihood Estimation

# Indian Institute of Information Technology Sri City, Chittoor



## Today's Agenda

- Classifiers, Discriminant Functions and Decision Surfaces
  - Multi category case
  - Two category case
- The Normal Density
  - Univariate
  - Multivariate
- Discriminant Functions for the Normal Density

### 1. The Multi-Category Case:

Consider representing a classifier as in terms of a set of discriminant functions  $g_i(x)$ , i = 1, ..., c.

The classifier is said to assign a feature vector x to class  $\omega_i$  if:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) > g_j(\mathbf{x})$$
 for all  $j \neq i$ .

Hence, the classifier can be viewed as a network or machine that computes c discriminant functions and selects the category corresponding to the largest discriminant.

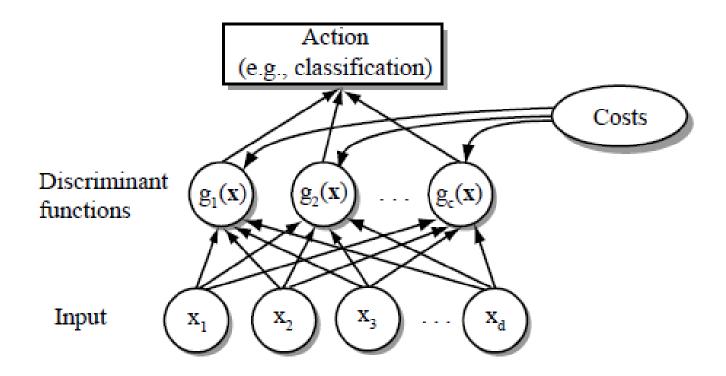


Figure: The functional structure of a general statistical pattern classifier which includes d inputs and c discriminant functions  $gi(\mathbf{x})$ . A subsequent step determines which of the discriminant values is the maximum, and categorizes the input pattern accordingly.

- A Bayes classifier is easily and naturally represented in this way. For the general case with risks, we can let  $g_i(x) = -R(\alpha_i|x)$ , since the maximum discriminant function will then correspond to the minimum conditional risk.
- For the minimum error-rate case, we can simplify things further by taking  $g_i(x) = P(\omega_i|x)$ , so that the maximum discriminant function corresponds to the maximum posterior probability.

 In particular, for minimum-error-rate classification, any of the following choices gives identical classification results, but some can be much simpler to understand or to compute than others:

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^{c} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)}$$
(25)

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)P(\omega_i) \tag{26}$$

$$q_i(\mathbf{x}) = \ln p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) + \ln P(\omega_i),$$
 (27)

Where In denotes natural logarithm.

Even though the discriminant functions can be written in a variety of forms, the decision rules are equivalent.

## **Decision Boundary**

- The effect of any decision rule is to divide the feature space into c decision regions, R1,...,R decision c.
- If  $g_i(\mathbf{x}) > g_j(\mathbf{x})$  for all j = i, then  $\mathbf{x}$  is in region  $R_i$ , and the decision rule calls for us to assign  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\omega_i$ .
- The regions are separated by decision boundaries, surfaces in feature space where ties occur among the largest discriminant functions.

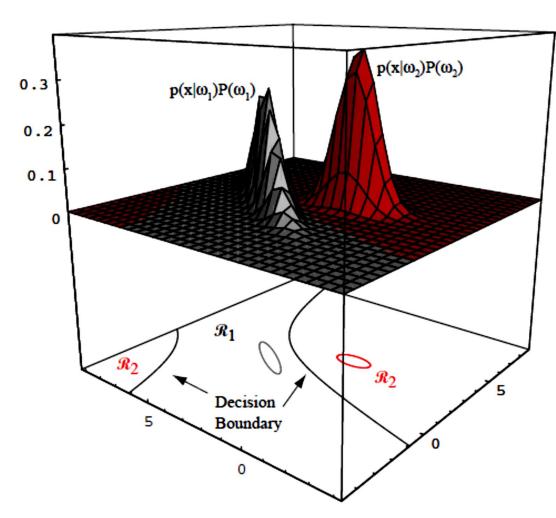


Figure 2.6: In this two-dimensional two-category classifier, the probability densities are Gaussian (with 1/e ellipses shown), the decision boundary consists of two hyperbolas, and thus the decision region R2 is not simply connected.

### 1. The two-Category Case:

- The two-category case is just a special instance of the multicategory case.
- Indeed, a classifier that places a pattern in one of only two categories has a special name — a dichotomizer.
- Instead of using two discriminant functions  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  and assigning x to  $\omega_1$  if  $g_1 > g_2$ , it is more common to define a single discriminant function,

$$g(\mathbf{x}) \equiv g_1(\mathbf{x}) - g_2(\mathbf{x}),$$

Decision rule: Decide  $\omega_1$  if g(x) > 0; otherwise decide  $\omega_2$ .

- Thus, a dichotomizer can be viewed as a machine that computes a single discriminant function g(x), and classifies x according to the algebraic sign of the result..
- minimum-error-rate discriminant function can be written as:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_1 | \mathbf{x}) - P(\omega_2 | \mathbf{x}) \tag{29}$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} + \ln \frac{P(\omega_1)}{P(\omega_2)}.$$
 (30)

A classifier for more than two categories is called a polychotomizer.

## The Normal Density

- How the decision of a Bayes classifier is determined?
- Expectation (E): Expected value of a scalar function f(x), defined expectation for some density p(x):

$$\mathcal{E}[f(x)] \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)p(x)dx.$$

• If we have samples in a set *D* from a discrete distribution, we must sum over all samples as

$$\mathcal{E}[f(x)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{D}} f(x) P(x),$$

Where P(x) is the probability mass at x.

#### For recap:

H. Pishro-Nik, "Introduction to probability, statistics, and random processes", available at <a href="https://www.probabilitycourse.com">https://www.probabilitycourse.com</a>, Kappa Research LLC, 2014.

## The Normal Density

### 1. Univariate Density

We begin with the continuous univariate normal or Gaussian density,

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

The expected value of x (an average, here taken over the feature space) is,

$$\mu \equiv \mathcal{E}[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(x) dx,$$

and where the expected squared deviation or variance is

$$\sigma^2 \equiv \mathcal{E}[(x-\mu)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 p(x) \ dx.$$

- The univariate normal density is completely specified by two parameters: its mean mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- $p(x) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  to say that x is distributed normally with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$

## The Normal Density

### **Univariate Density:**

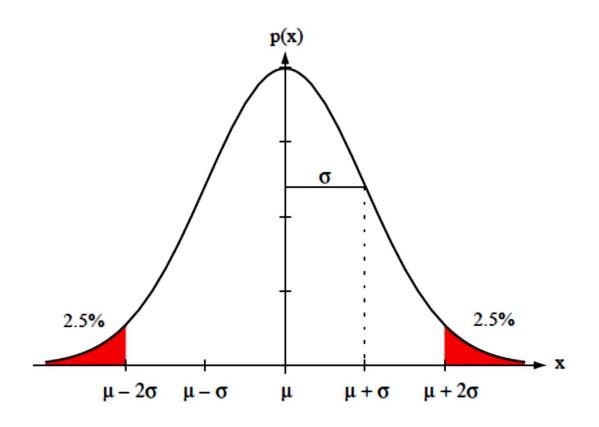


Figure 2.7: A univariate normal distribution has roughly 95% of its area in the range  $|x - \mu| \le 2\sigma$ , as shown. The peak of the distribution has value  $p(\mu) = 1/\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}$ .

- **Entropy:** The entropy is a non-negative quantity that describes the fundamental uncertainty in the values of points selected randomly from a distribution.
- Entropy of a distribution is given by,

$$H(p(x)) = -\int p(x) \ln p(x) dx$$

- Entropy is measured in nats.
- It can be shown that the normal distribution has the maximum entropy of all distributions having a given mean and variance.
- **Central Limit Theorem:** The aggregate effect of a large number of small, independent random disturbances will lead to a Gaussian distribution.

### 2. Multivariate Density:

- Multivariate normal distribution or multivariate Gaussian distribution, is a generalization of the one-dimensional (univariate) normal distribution to higher dimensions.
- The general multivariate normal density in d dimensions is written as,

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^t \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right], \tag{37}$$

where x is a d-component column vector,  $\mu$  is the d-component mean vector,  $\Sigma$  is the d-by-d covariance matrix,  $|\Sigma|$  and  $\Sigma^{-1}$  are its determinant and inverse, respectively, covariance and  $(x - \mu)^t$  is the transpose of  $x - \mu$ .

• The eqn. 37 can represented as  $p(x) \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

### 2. Multivariate Density:

 The expected value of x (an average, here taken over the feature space) is,

$$\mu \equiv \mathcal{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \int \mathbf{x} p(\mathbf{x}) \ d\mathbf{x}$$

variance is,

$$\Sigma \equiv \mathcal{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^t] = \int (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^t p(\mathbf{x}) \ d\mathbf{x},$$

where the expected value of a vector or a matrix is found by taking the expected values of its components.

• In other words, if  $x^i$  is the  $i^{th}$  component of x,  $\mu_i$  the  $i^{th}$  component of  $\mu$ , and  $\sigma_{ii}$  the  $ij^{th}$  component of  $\Sigma$ , then

$$\mu_i = \mathcal{E}[x_i]$$

$$\sigma_{ij} = \mathcal{E}[(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)].$$

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## Discriminant Functions for the Normal Density

We saw that the minimum-error-rate classification can be achieved by use of the discriminant functions

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = \ln p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) + \ln P(\omega_i).$$

This expression can be readily evaluated if the densities  $p(x|\omega_i)$  are multivariate normal, i.e., if  $p(x|\omega_i) \sim N(\mu i, \Sigma_i)$ .

$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i)^t \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_i) - \frac{d}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_i| + \ln P(\omega_i).$$