Machine Learning

MIRI Master

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LECTURE 4: Theoretical issues (II): classification

Introduction: Bayes' formula

Thomas Bayes: XVIII-century priest. His works on the celebrated formula were found upon his death

Discrete random variables. Let A a discrete r.v. with pmf P_A . We use the shorthand notation P(a) to mean $P_A(A=a)$. Similarly we write P(b|a) to mean $P_{B|A}(B=b|A=a)$, etc, where

$$P(b|a) = \frac{P(b,a)}{P(a)}, \ P(a) > 0$$

(prior, joint and conditional probabilities)

Introduction: Bayes' formula

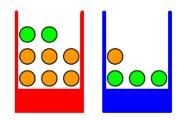
Let $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}, \{b_1, \ldots, b_m\}$ be the possible values that A, B can take. Then, for any $a \in \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$:

$$P(a) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P(a, b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P(a|b_i)P(b_i)$$

Since P(a,b) = P(b,a), it follows that, for any a_k, b_j :

$$P(b_j|a_k) = \frac{P(a_k|b_j)P(b_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} P(a_k|b_i)P(b_i)}, \quad \text{with } \sum_{j=1}^{m} P(b_j|a_k) = 1$$

(posterior probabilities)



Example 1 The red box contains 6 oranges and 2 apples, the blue box contains 1 orange and 3 apples. Suppose we pick the red box 40 % of the time and the blue box 60 % of the time.

- 1. What is the overall probability that we pick an apple?
- 2. Given that we have chosen an orange, what is the probability that the box we chose was the blue one?

(from Bishop's Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning book)

Let us introduce random variables B for box and F for fruit:

- B = r (for red) and B = b (for blue)
- F = o (for orange) and F = a (for apple)

The **prior** probabilities of selecting the red or blue boxes are

$$P(B=r) = \frac{4}{10}$$
 $P(B=b) = \frac{6}{10}$

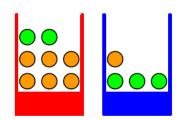
Now for the **conditional** probabilities:

$$P(F = a|B = r) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(F = o|B = r) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$P(F = a|B = b) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$P(F=o|B=b) = \frac{1}{4}$$



What is the overall (unconditional) probability that we pick an apple?

$$P(F = a) = P(F = a|B = r)P(B = r) + P(F = a|B = b)P(B = b)$$
$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{4}{10} + \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{6}{10} = \frac{11}{20}$$

Therefore $P(F = o) = 1 - \frac{11}{20} = \frac{9}{20}$.

Although there are more oranges in total, picking an apple is more likely!

Given that we have chosen an orange, what is the **posterior** probability that the box we chose was the blue one?

$$P(B = b|F = o) = \frac{P(F = o|B = b)P(B = b)}{P(F = o)} = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{6}{10} \cdot \frac{20}{9} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(B=r|F=o) = \frac{P(F=o|B=r)P(B=r)}{P(F=o)} = \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{4}{10} \cdot \frac{20}{9} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Note that P(B = b|F = o) + P(B = r|F = o) = 1, as they should, because conditional distributions are distributions.

Introduction: Bayes' formula

Continuous random variables. Let X,Y two continuous r.v. with pdfs p_X,p_Y and joint density p_{XY} . We use the shorthand notation p(x) to mean $p_X(X=x)$, etc.

$$p(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x, y) dy;$$
 $p(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x, y) dx$

Therefore:

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x|y)p(y) \, dy}$$
, with $\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(y|x) \, dy = 1$

Introduction: Bayes' formula

Mixed random variables. Suppose X is a continuous r.v. and Y is a discrete r.v. with values in $\{y_1, \ldots, y_m\}$.

In this case, $p(\cdot|y_i)$ is a continuous r.v. and $P(\cdot|x)$ is a discrete r.v. Moreover,

$$P(y_j|x) = \frac{p(x|y_j)P(y_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} p(x|y_i)P(y_i)}, \quad \text{with } \sum_{j=1}^{m} P(y_j|x) = 1$$

Decision rules

We are interested in determining the class or category of objects of nature according to Ω , a discrete r.v. with values $\{\omega_1, \omega_2\}$ that represent the two possible classes.

The prior probabilities are $P(\omega_1), P(\omega_2)$. How should we classify objects?

rule 1:

if
$$P(\omega_1) > P(\omega_2)$$
 then class of object is ω_1 else is ω_2

This rule classifies all objects into the same class; therefore it makes errors!

$$P_{e}(\text{rule1}) = \min\{P(\omega_1), P(\omega_2)\}$$

useful only if $P(\omega_1) \ll P(\omega_2)$ or $P(\omega_1) \gg P(\omega_2)$.

Decision rules

- Suppose now that X is a discrete r.v. taking values in $\{x_1, \ldots, x_d\}$ that measures a **feature** of objects
- Now $P(\omega_i|x) = P(x|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)/P(x)$ is the **posterior** probability that an object with measured feature x belongs to class $P(\omega_i)$, i = 1, 2
- Moreover $P(x) = P(x|\omega_1)P(\omega_1) + P(x|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)$

Upon observing x, the Bayes formula converts **prior** class probabilities $P(\omega_i)$ into **posterior** probabilities $P(\omega_i|x)$. How should we classify objects now?

rule 2:

if $P(\omega_1|x) > P(\omega_2|x)$ then class of object is ω_1 else class is ω_2

$$P_{e}(\text{rule2}) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \min\{P(\omega_1|x_i), P(\omega_2|x_i)\}P(x_i)$$

(this rule is known as the **Bayes rule** or the **Bayes classifier**)

Decision rules

Lemma. For all $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, $\min(a, b) + \min(c, d) \leq \min(a + c, b + d)$ **Proposition 1** $P_e(\text{rule2}) \leq P_e(\text{rule1})$

Proof.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{d} \min\{P(\omega_1|x_i), P(\omega_2|x_i)\}P(x_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \min\{P(x_i)P(\omega_1|x_i), P(x_i)P(\omega_2|x_i)\}$$
(Bayes formula)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{d} \min\{P(x_i|\omega_1)P(\omega_1), P(x_i|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)\}$$
 (iterated lemma)

$$\leq \min\{\sum_{i=1}^d P(x_i|\omega_1)P(\omega_1), \sum_{i=1}^d P(x_i|\omega_2)P(\omega_2)\}$$

=
$$\min\{P(\omega_1)\sum_{i=1}^d P(x_i|\omega_1), P(\omega_2)\sum_{i=1}^d P(x_i|\omega_2)\}$$

=
$$\min\{P(\omega_1), P(\omega_2)\}$$

The probabilities of error are equal only if $P(x_i|\omega_1) = P(x_i|\omega_2)$ for all i.

Example 2 We have a **conveyor belt** carrying two classes of pills, suitable for two different diseases (ω_1 and ω_2). These pills go in two colors {yellow, white}.

$$P(\omega_1) = \frac{1}{3}, P(\omega_2) = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$P(yellow|\omega_1) = \frac{1}{5}, P(white|\omega_1) = \frac{4}{5};$$

$$P(yellow|\omega_2) = \frac{2}{3}, P(white|\omega_2) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(yellow) = P(\omega_1)P(yellow|\omega_1) + P(\omega_1)P(yellow|\omega_1) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{5} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{23}{45}$$

$$P(white) = P(\omega_1)P(white|\omega_1) + P(\omega_2)P(white|\omega_2) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{5} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{22}{45}$$

$$P(\omega_1|yellow) = \frac{P(yellow|\omega_1)P(\omega_1)}{P(yellow)} = \left(\frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}\right) / \frac{23}{45} = \frac{3}{23}; \qquad P(\omega_2|yellow) = 1 - P(\omega_1|yellow) = \frac{20}{23}$$

$$P(\omega_1|white) = \frac{P(white|\omega_1)P(\omega_1)}{P(white)} = (\frac{4}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{3}) / \frac{22}{45} = \frac{6}{11};$$
 $P(\omega_2|white) = 1 - P(\omega_1|white) = \frac{5}{11}$

$$\implies P_{\rm e} = \frac{23}{45} \cdot \frac{3}{23} + \frac{22}{45} \cdot \frac{5}{11} = \frac{13}{45} < \frac{1}{3} = \min\left\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right\}$$

Continuous variables

The next step is to consider a r.v. X with pdf p(x) that measures a *continuous* feature of the objects. Let \mathcal{P} be the support of p, i.e. $\mathcal{P} = \{x \in \mathbb{R} | p(x) > 0\}$.

In this setting, $p(x|\omega_i)$, i=1,2 are the conditional densities of x for every class.

Proposition 2 $P_{e}(\text{rule2}) \leq P_{e}(\text{rule1})$

Proof.

= mín{ $P(\omega_1), P(\omega_2)$ }

$$\begin{split} &\int_{\mathcal{P}} \min\{P(\omega_{1}|x), P(\omega_{2}|x)\}p(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{P}} \min\{p(x)P(\omega_{1}|x), p(x)P(\omega_{2}|x)\} \, dx \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{P}} \min\{p(x|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}), p(x|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2})\} \, dx \end{split} \qquad \qquad \text{(Bayes formula)} \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{P}} \min\{p(x|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}), p(x|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2})\} \, dx \qquad \qquad \text{(standard result for integrals)} \\ &\leq \min\{\int_{\mathcal{P}} p(x|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}) \, dx, \int_{\mathcal{P}} p(x|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2}) \, dx\} \end{split}$$

The probabilities of error are equal only if $p(\cdot|\omega_1) = p(\cdot|\omega_2)$.

 $= \min\{P(\omega_1) \int_{\mathcal{P}} p(x|\omega_1) dx, P(\omega_2) \int_{\mathcal{P}} p(x|\omega_2) dx\}$

Example 3 We have a **conveyor belt** carrying two classes of pills, suitable for two different diseases (ω_1 and ω_2). This time the pills go in two colors, shaded in [0,2], with probabilities:

$$P(\omega_1) = \frac{1}{3}, P(\omega_2) = \frac{2}{3}, \ p(x|\omega_1) = \frac{2-x}{2}, \ p(x|\omega_2) = \frac{x}{2}.$$

$$p(x) = P(\omega_1)p(x|\omega_1) + P(\omega_2)p(x|\omega_2) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2-x}{2} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{x}{2} = \frac{2+x}{6}$$

$$P(\omega_1|x) = \frac{p(x|\omega_1)P(\omega_1)}{p(x)} = \left(\frac{2-x}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3}\right) / \frac{2+x}{6} = \frac{2-x}{2+x}; \qquad P(\omega_2|x) = 1 - P(\omega_1|x) = 1 - \frac{2-x}{2+x} = \frac{2x}{2+x}$$

$$\implies P_{e} = P(\omega_{2}) \int_{0}^{2/3} p(x|\omega_{2}) dx + P(\omega_{1}) \int_{2/3}^{2} p(x|\omega_{1}) dx = \frac{2}{9} < \frac{1}{3} = \min\left\{\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right\}$$

$$\left(\frac{2}{3} \text{ is the solution of } \frac{2-x}{2+x} = \frac{2x}{2+x}\right)$$

The Bayes classifier

The Bayes classifier can be extended in two ways:

- 1. Consider a vector $X = (X_1, \dots, X_d)^T$ of continuous r.v. with pdf $p(x) = p(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ that measures d continuous features
- 2. Consider a finite number of classes Ω , a discrete r.v. with values $\omega_1, \ldots, \omega_K$, that represent the possible classes $(K \ge 2)$

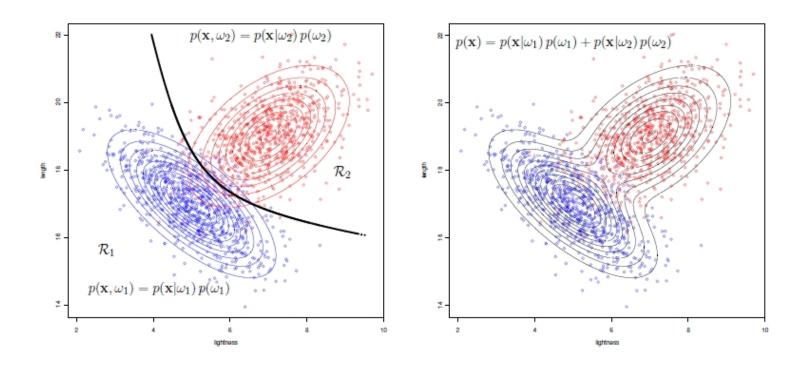
Therefore we have new probabilities $p(x|\omega_i), P(\omega_i|x), 1 \leq i \leq K$.

The new Bayes rule says:

the class
$$\hat{w}(x)$$
 of object x is ω_k when $k = \argmax_{i=1,\dots,K} P(\omega_i|x)$

The sets $\mathcal{R}_k = \{x/\hat{w}(x) = k\}$ are called **regions** (and depend on the specific classifier)

The fish factory



The Bayes rule says:

if
$$P(\omega_1|x) > P(\omega_2|x)$$
 then $\hat{w}(x) = \omega_1$ else $\hat{w}(x) = \omega_2$

Illustration of the optimal classifier (two-class case)

Let us assume a classifier with regions $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2$:

$$P_{e} = P(x \in \mathcal{R}_{2}, \omega_{1}) + P(x \in \mathcal{R}_{1}, \omega_{2})$$

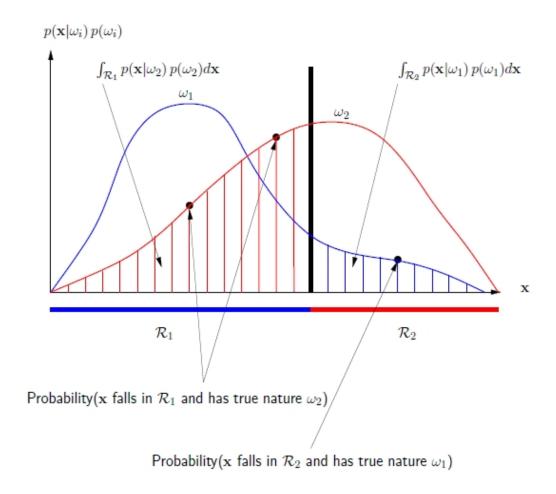
$$= P(x \in \mathcal{R}_{2}|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}) + P(x \in \mathcal{R}_{1}|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2})$$

$$= \int_{\mathcal{R}_{2}} p(x|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}) dx + \int_{\mathcal{R}_{1}} p(x|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2}) dx$$

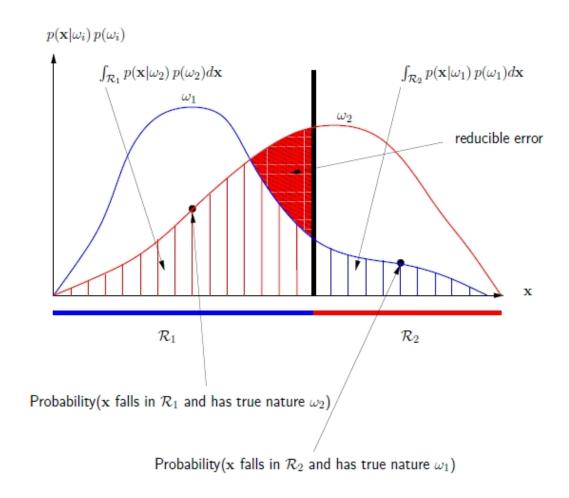
$$\geq \int_{\mathcal{P}} \min \left\{ p(x|\omega_{1})P(\omega_{1}), p(x|\omega_{2})P(\omega_{2}) \right\} dx$$

$$= P_{e}(\text{Bayes})$$

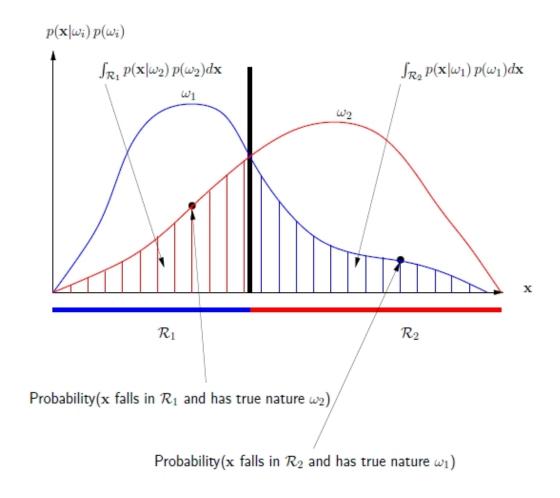
Graphical illustration



Graphical illustration



Graphical illustration



The Bayes classifier

The Bayes classifier can also have a **rejection class** (illustrated here for two classes); fix $\epsilon \in (0,1)$:

if
$$P(\omega_1|x) - P(\omega_2|x) > \epsilon$$
 then class of object is ω_1

else if $P(\omega_2|x) - P(\omega_1|x) > \epsilon$ then class of object is ω_2

else do not classify

For every feature vector x we take one of three possible **actions**.

The Bayes classifier

Consider a finite set of actions $A = \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\}$. For each $a_i \in A$, denote by $l(a_i|\omega_j)$ the *loss* for choosing a_i when x is known to be in ω_j .

(note this is a simplified setting in which the loss does not depend on x)

Example 4 Let m = K + 1 and let a_i stand for "classify x into class ω_i " for $1 \le i \le K$; let a_{K+1} stand for "do not classify x". A possible set of losses is:

$$\begin{cases} l(a_i|\omega_j) = 1 & \text{for } 1 \leq i, j \leq K, i \neq j \\ l(a_i|\omega_i) = 0 & \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq K \\ l(a_{K+1}|\omega_j) = \frac{1}{2} & \text{for } 1 \leq j \leq K \end{cases}$$

... which suggests that a decision not to classify is less costly than a misclassification

The notion of risk

For a given feature vector x, define the **conditional risk** of an action as:

$$r(a_i|x) := \sum_{j=1}^{K} l(a_i|\omega_j)P(\omega_j|x)$$

A decision rule is any function $a: \mathcal{P} \in \mathbb{R}^n \to A$ that assigns an action a(x) to every x s.t. p(x) > 0. Define the **total risk** of a decision rule as:

$$R(a) := \int_{\mathcal{P}} r(a(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

The notion of risk

We are interested in the decision rule that minimizes the total risk. Consider the rule

$$\hat{a}(x) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{1 \leq j \leq m} r(a_j | x)$$

(you may recognize it as the Bayes rule!)

Given that this rule minimizes the argument of the integral for every possible x, it follows that the Bayes rule has the lowest possible risk.

The value of $R(\hat{a})$ is called the **Bayes risk**.

The notion of risk

Example 5 Yet again the conveyor belt carrying two classes of pills that go in two shaded colors (yellow, white), i.e. a scalar feature $x \in [0,2]$, with probabilities:

$$P(\omega_1) = \frac{2}{3}, P(\omega_2) = \frac{1}{3}, \ p(x|\omega_1) = \frac{2-x}{2}, p(x|\omega_2) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

and three possible actions:

$$a_1$$
— classify as ω_1 , a_2 — classify as ω_2 , a_3 — do not classify

Let the loss matrix $l_{ij} \equiv l(a_i|\omega_j)$ be:

	ω_1	ω_2
a_1	0	1
a_2	1	0
a_3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$

- 1. Compute the optimal decision rule and its associated risk
- 2. Give the probability that an object is not classified

The notion of risk

We have

$$p(x) = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2-x}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5-2x}{6}$$

$$P(\omega_1|x) = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2-x}{2} / \frac{5-2x}{6} = \frac{4-2x}{5-2x}; \qquad P(\omega_2|x) = 1 - P(\omega_1|x) = 1 - \frac{4-2x}{5-2x} = \frac{1}{5-2x}$$

The conditional risks are:

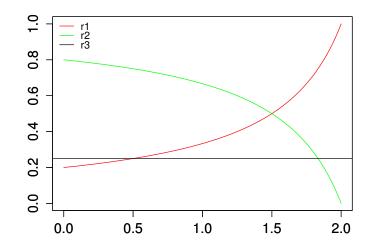
$$r_1(x) \equiv r(a_1|x) = 0 \cdot P(\omega_1|x) + 1 \cdot P(\omega_2|x) = \frac{1}{5-2x}$$

$$r_2(x) \equiv r(a_2|x) = 1 \cdot P(\omega_1|x) + 0 \cdot P(\omega_2|x) = \frac{4-2x}{5-2x}$$

$$r_3(x) \equiv r(a_3|x) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot P(\omega_1|x) + \frac{1}{4} \cdot P(\omega_2|x) = \frac{1}{4}$$

Now the Bayes rule chooses for each x the action with minimum conditional risk.

The notion of risk



 $0 \le x \le \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow$ take action $a_1 \Rightarrow$ choose ω_1

 $\frac{1}{2} \le x \le \frac{11}{16} \Rightarrow$ take action $a_3 \Rightarrow$ do not classify

 $\frac{11}{16} \le x \le 2 \Rightarrow \text{ take action } a_2 \Rightarrow \text{ choose } \omega_2$

The notion of risk

■ The total Bayes risk is:

$$R = \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} r_1(x)p(x) dx + \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{11}{16}} r_3(x)p(x) dx + \int_{\frac{11}{16}}^2 r_2(x)p(x) dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{12} + \frac{4}{27} + \frac{1}{216} = \frac{1377}{5832} \approx 0,236$$

■ The probability that an object is *not* classified is:

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{11}{16}} \frac{5 - 2x}{6} \, dx = \frac{59}{108} \approx 0,546$$

The likelihood-ratio test (LRT)

Consider the simple two-class case: a_1 - classify as ω_1 , a_2 - classify as ω_2 .

Given a feature vector x, we take action a_1 when $r(a_1|x) < r(a_2|x)$:

$$l_{11}P(\omega_1|x) + l_{12}P(\omega_2|x) < l_{21}P(\omega_1|x) + l_{22}P(\omega_2|x)$$

For $x \in \mathcal{P}$, applying Bayes' formula and grouping terms:

$$(l_{21}-l_{11})P(\omega_1)p(x|\omega_1) > (l_{12}-l_{22})P(\omega_2)p(x|\omega_2)$$

Assuming (rather naturally) that $l_{21} > l_{11}$ and that $l_{12} > l_{22}$, then:

$$\Lambda(x) = \frac{p(x|\omega_1)}{p(x|\omega_2)}; \quad \lambda = \frac{(l_{12} - l_{22})P(\omega_2)}{(l_{21} - l_{11})P(\omega_1)}$$

The test $\Lambda(x) > \lambda$ (choose a_1) or $\Lambda(x) < \lambda$ (choose a_2) is called the **LRT**.

0/1 losses

In many applications the 0/1 loss is used (usually in absence of more precise information):

$$l_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ 1 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Consider K classes and actions a_i- classify ${\boldsymbol x}$ into $\omega_i.$ Then:

$$r(a_i|x) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} l_{ij} P(\omega_j|x) = \sum_{j=1, i \neq j}^{K} P(\omega_j|x) = 1 - P(\omega_i|x)$$

Discriminant functions

- lacktriangle Functions of the form $g_k:\mathcal{P}\to\mathbb{R}$ are a useful tool to build an abstract classifier
- An object x is assigned to class ω_i when $g_i(x)$ is the highest among the values $g_1(x), \ldots, g_K(x)$. Examples:
 - $g_k(x) = P(\omega_k|x)$
 - $g_k(\mathbf{x}) = P(\omega_k)p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_k)$
 - $\bullet \ g_k(x) = -r(a_k|x)$
- If g_k is a discriminant function, then so is $h \circ g_k$, for any strictly monotonic function h.
- For two classes, we can use a single discriminant function, called a **dichotomizer**:
 - 1. define $g(x) := g_1(x) g_2(x)$
 - 2. assign x to class ω_1 if g(x)>0 and to class ω_2 if g(x)<0

The Gaussian Distribution

A continuous r.v. X is normally distributed when its pdf is:

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

where μ is the *mean* and σ^2 is the *variance*:

$$\blacksquare \mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x p(x) \, dx = \mu$$

•
$$\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \int_{\mathbb{R}} (x - \mu)^2 p(x) \, dx = \sigma^2$$

The Gaussian Distribution

A normally distributed d-variate random vector $X = (X_1, \dots, X_d)^T$ has pdf:

$$p(x) = rac{1}{(2\pi)^{rac{d}{2}}|\Sigma|^{rac{1}{2}}} \exp\left\{-rac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)
ight\}$$

where μ is the **mean vector** and $\Sigma_{d\times d}=(\sigma_{ij}^2)$ is the real symmetric and positive definite (p.d.) **covariance matrix**.

- \blacksquare $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{E}[(X \mu)(X \mu)^T] = \Sigma$.
- CoVar $[X_i, X_j] = \sigma_{ij}^2$ and Var $[X_i] = \sigma_{ii}^2$

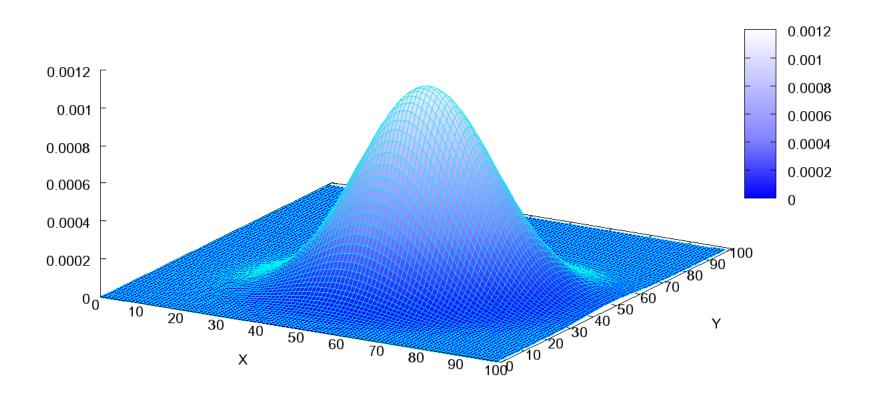
if $X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma)$, then X_i, X_j are statistically independent \iff CoVar $[X_i, X_j] = 0$

(in general, only the left-to-right implication holds)

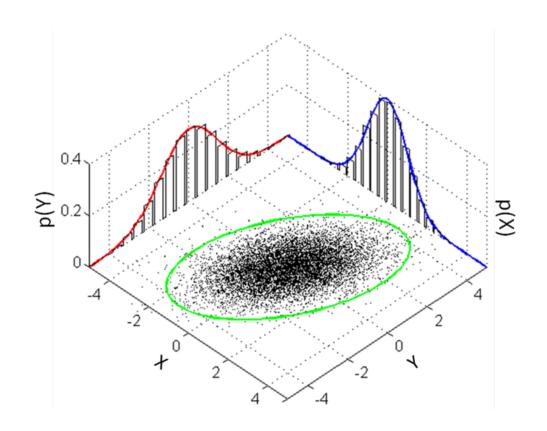
Notation: It is convenient to write $p(x) = N(x; \mu, \Sigma)$ or $X \sim N(x; \mu, \Sigma)$

The Gaussian Distribution

Multivariate Normal Distribution

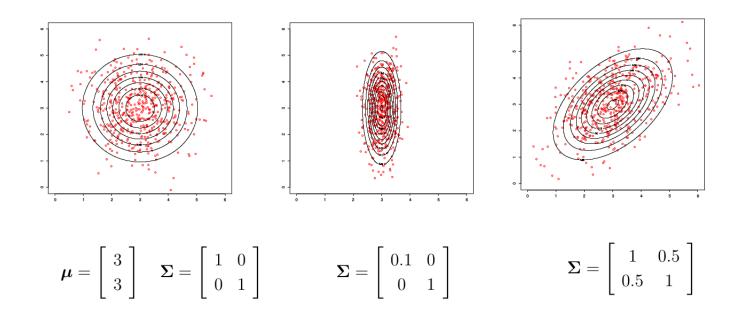


The Gaussian Distribution



Observations from a bivariate (d=2) normal distribution, a contour ellipsoid, the two marginal distributions, and their histograms (images from the Wikipedia)

The Gaussian Distribution



- The surfaces of equal probability $d(x, \mu) = ct$ are hyperellipsoids
- The principal directions or components (PC) of the hyperellipsoids are given by the **eigenvectors** u_i of Σ , which satisfy $\Sigma u_i = \lambda_i u_i, \lambda_i > 0$
- The lengths of the hyperellipsoids along these axes are proportional to $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$, the singular values associated with u_i

The Gaussian Distribution

- The quantity $d(x,\mu) = \sqrt{(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}$ is called the Mahalanobis distance
- What is behind the choice of a multivariate Gaussian for a class?
 - ---- examples from the class are noisy versions of a *prototype*:
 - Prototype: modeled by the mean vector
 - Noise: modeled by the covariance matrix
- Very important: the number of parameters is $\frac{d(d+1)}{2} + d$

Properties of the Gaussian Distribution

■ Simplified forms: if the X_i are statistically independent, then $p(x) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(x_i)$, Σ is diagonal and the PCs are axis-aligned

(marginal densities [integrating out some variables] and conditional densities [setting some variables to fixed values] are also normal)

- Analytical properties, e.g. any moment $\mathbb{E}[X^p]$ can be expressed as a function of μ and Σ
- Central limit theorem, the mean of d i.i.d. random variables tends to a normal distribution, in the limit of infinite d
- Linear transformation invariance, the distribution of a linear transformation of the coordinate system remains normal

Machine Learning

Syllabus

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