Density Estimation

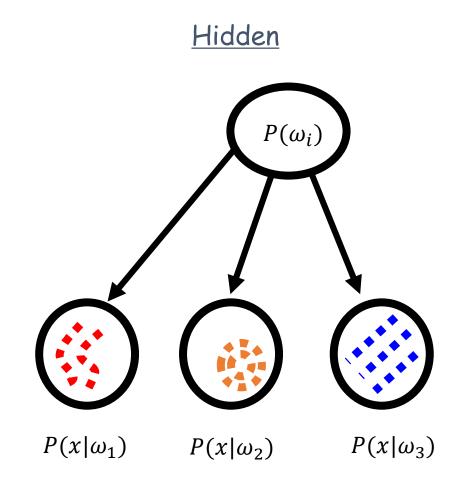
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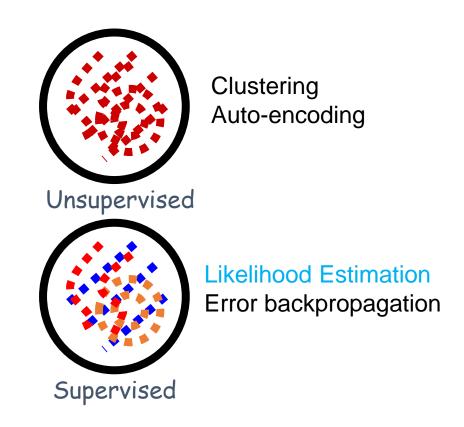
Outline

- Parametric Density Estimation
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Bayesian Learning
- Nonparametric Density Estimation
 - Histogram
 - *K_n* Nearest Neighbor Estimation
 - Parzen Window Estimation
 - Gaussian Mixture Estimation
 - Expectation-Maximization
 - Markov-Chain Monte Carlo

Learning From Observed Data



Observed



Parametric Learning

Assume specific parametric distributions with parameters:

$$p(x|\omega_i) \approx p(x|\theta_i), \theta_i \in \Theta \subset R^p$$

- Estimate parameters $\hat{\theta}(D)$ from training data D
- Replace true value of class-conditional density with approximation and apply the Bayesian framework for decision making.

Parametric Learning

 Suppose we can assume that the relevant (class-conditional) densities are of some parametric form. That is,

$$p(x|\omega) \approx p(x|\theta)$$
, where $\theta \in \Theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$

- Examples of parameterized densities:
 - Binomial: x has m 1's and (n-m) 0's $p(x|\theta) = \binom{n}{m} \theta^m (1-\theta)^{n-m}, \Theta = [0,1]$
 - Exponential: Each data point x is distributed according to

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta e^{-\theta x}, \Theta = (0, \infty)$$

Normal:

$$p(x|\theta) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

■Multinomial pmf : Ω = {
$$k_1$$
, ···, k_m | k_i = 0, 1, 2, ···, n }
$$p(k_1, \cdots, k_m) = \begin{cases} \frac{n!}{k_1! \cdots k_m!} p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_m^{k_m}, k_i = 0, 1, \cdots, n \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Parametric Learning

Bayesian Decision

$$arg \max_{i} p(\omega_{i}|x) \propto p(x|\omega_{i})p(\omega_{i})$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

$$arg \max_{\theta_i} p(D|\theta_i) \leftarrow p(x|\omega_i) \approx p(x|\theta_i), \theta_i \in \Theta \subset R^p$$

- Maximum A-Posteriori Estimation $\arg\max_{\theta_i} p(\theta_i|D), \theta_i = constant$
- Bayesian Learning (not Estimation)

Find $p(\theta_i|D)$, $\theta_i = random\ variable$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

The samples are i.i.d.

$$j^{th}$$
 class set $D_j = \{x_l | (x_l, \overline{\omega}_l) \in S_j\}, S_j \in S = \{(x_l, \overline{\omega}_l) | l = 1, ..., N\}$

The i.i.d. assumption implies that

$$p(D_j|\theta_j) = \prod_{x \in D_j} p(x|\theta_j)$$

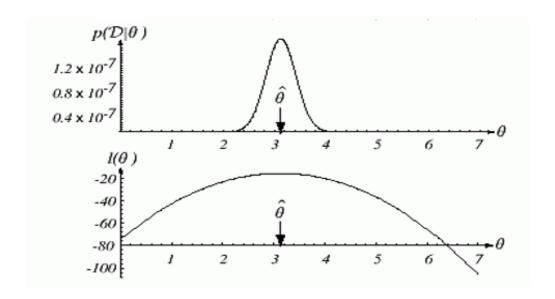
- Let D be a generic sample set of size n = |D|
- Log-likelihood function:

$$l(\theta; D) \equiv \ln p(D|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \ln p(x_k|\theta)$$

 The log-likelihood function is identical to the logarithm of the probability density (or mass) function, but is interpreted as a function of parameter θ

Log-Likelihood Illustration

• $p(D|\theta)$ is not convex, but $\ln p(D|\theta)$ is convex (quadratic) for normal dist.



$$p(D|\theta) = \prod_{x \in D} p(x|\theta)$$

$$l(\theta; D) \equiv \ln p(D|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \ln p(x_k|\theta)$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

The "most likely value" for MLE is given by

$$\widehat{\theta}(D) = \arg\max_{\theta \in \Theta} l(\theta; D)$$

Gradient function

$$\nabla_{\theta} l(\theta; D) = \left[\frac{\partial l(\theta; D)}{\partial \theta_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial l(\theta; D)}{\partial \theta_p} \right]$$

Necessary condition for MLE (if not on border of domain Θ)

$$\nabla_{\theta} l(\theta; D) = 0$$

Example of Maximum Likelihood

The Gaussian Case:

· Log-likelihood is

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

$$l(\mu, \Sigma; D) = \ln p(D|\mu, \Sigma) = \ln \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(x_k|\mu) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \ln p(x_k|\mu)$$

where

$$\ln p(x_k|\mu, \Sigma) = -\frac{1}{2}(x_k - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x_k - \mu) - \frac{d}{2}\ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\ln|\Sigma|$$

• For a sample point x_k , we have

$$\nabla_{\mu} \ln p(x_k | \mu, \Sigma) = \Sigma^{-1}(x_k - \mu)$$

• The maximum likelihood estimate for μ must satisfy

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \Sigma^{-1}(x_k - \mu) = 0 \to \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k$$
 (sample mean)

Example of Maximum Likelihood

The Gaussian Case:

Log-likelihood is

$$l(\mu, \Sigma; D) = \ln p(D|\mu, \Sigma) = \ln \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(x_k|\mu) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \ln p(x_k|\mu)$$
 where $\ln p(x_k|\mu, \Sigma) = -\frac{1}{2}(x_k - \mu)^t \Sigma^{-1}(x_k - \mu) - \frac{d}{2}\ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2}\ln|\Sigma|$

 $\nabla_{\Sigma} \ln|\Sigma| = \frac{1}{|\Sigma|} adj(\Sigma) = \Sigma^{-1}$

• For a sample point x_k , we have

$$\nabla_{\Sigma} \ln p(x_k|\mu,\Sigma) = \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-2} (x_k - \mu) (x_k - \mu)^t - \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-1} = 0$$

The maximum likelihood estimate for ∑ must satisfy

$$\widehat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k - \widehat{\mu})(x_k - \widehat{\mu})^t$$
 (sample covariance)

Example of Maximum Likelihood

The Gaussian case

 For the multivariate case, it is easy to show that the MLE estimates are given by

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_k,$$
 $\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k - \hat{\mu}) (x_k - \hat{\mu})^t$

The MLE for ∑ is biased

$$E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}(x_k-\hat{\mu})(x_k-\hat{\mu})^t\right] = \frac{n-1}{n}\sum \neq \sum$$

Unbiased estimate

$$\hat{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k - \hat{\mu}) (x_k - \hat{\mu})^t$$

$$E(\mathbf{e}^{T}\mathbf{e}) = Tr(\mathbf{I} - \mathbb{H})E(\mathbf{\epsilon}^{T}\mathbf{\epsilon}) = (n - p - 1)n\sigma^{2}$$

$$\rightarrow E(\mathbf{e}^{T}\mathbf{e}/(n - p - 1)) = n\sigma^{2}$$

$$E(\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^{T}) = Tr(\mathbf{I} - \mathbb{H})E(\mathbf{\epsilon}\mathbf{\epsilon}^{T}) = (n - p - 1)\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

$$\rightarrow E(\mathbf{e}\mathbf{e}^{T}/(n - p - 1)) = \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

- Univariate Normal Distribution
 - Let μ be the only unknown parameter

$$p(x|\mu) \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

• Goal: to find posterior $p(\mu|D)$ from $i.i.d.D = \{x_1, ..., x_n\}$, where

$$p(\mu|D) = \frac{p(D|\mu)p(\mu)}{\int p(D|\mu)p(\mu)d\mu}$$
$$= \alpha \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(x_k|\mu)p(\mu).$$

• conjugate prior probability for μ is given by

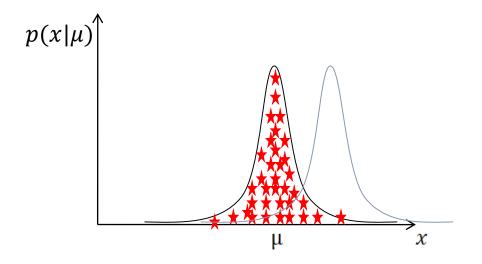
$$p(\mu) \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2) \rightarrow p(\mu|D) \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$$

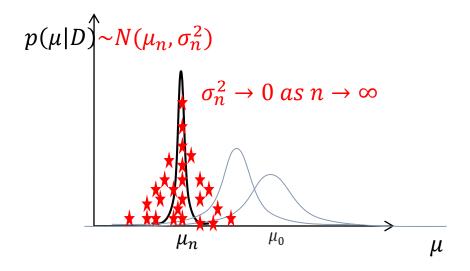
Maximum Likelihood vs Bayesian Learning

• Maximum likelihood estimation: find $\hat{\mu}(D)$ to maximize p(x|D)

$$p(x|D) \approx p(x|\hat{\mu}(D)), \hat{\mu}(D) = arg \max_{\mu} p(D|\mu)$$

• Bayesian learning: find $p(\theta|D)$.





- Univariate Normal Distribution
 - Computing the posterior distribution

$$p(\mu|D) = \alpha p(D|\mu)p(\mu)$$

$$p(\mu|D) = \alpha \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(x_k|\mu) p(\mu)$$

$$= \alpha' \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \left(\frac{(x_k - \mu)}{\sigma}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{(\mu - \mu_0)}{\sigma_0}\right)^2\right)\right]$$

$$= \alpha'' \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\left(\frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} \right) \mu^2 - 2 \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k + \frac{\mu_0}{\sigma_0^2} \right) \mu \right) \right]$$

• Since $p(\mu|D)$ should be Gaussian

$$p(\mu|D) \sim N(\mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$$

 $p(\mu) \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$

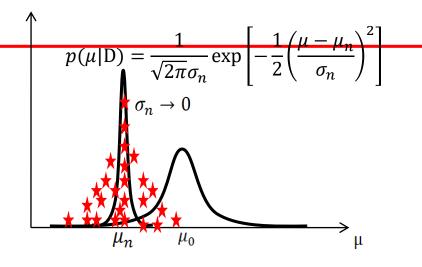
$$p(\mu|D) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_n} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(\mu-\mu_n)}{\sigma_n}\right)^2\right] = \alpha''' \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma_n^2}\mu^2 - \frac{\mu_n}{\sigma_n}\mu\right]$$

•
$$\mu_n = f(x_k, \mu_0, \sigma_0) = ?$$
, $\sigma_n = h(x_k, \mu_0, \sigma_0) = ?$

Univariate Normal Distribution

- Solution: $\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2}$, $\frac{\mu_n}{\sigma_n^2} = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \hat{\mu}_n + \frac{\mu_0}{\sigma_0^2}$ where $\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n x_k$ is the sample mean.
- Solving explicitly for μ_n and σ_n^2 we obtain

$$\sigma_n^2 = \frac{\sigma_0^2 \sigma^2}{n \sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}, \qquad \mu_n = \left(\frac{n \sigma_0^2}{n \sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}\right) \hat{\mu}_n + \frac{\sigma^2}{n \sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0$$



- μ_n represents our best guess for μ after observing n samples.
- σ_n^2 measures our uncertainty about this guess.
- σ_n^2 decreases monotonically with n

(approaching $\sigma_n^2 \to \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \to 0$ as n approaches infinity)

- Univariate Normal Distribution
 - Likelihood Estimation:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\omega}) \approx p(x|D) = \int p(x|\mu)p(\mu|D)d\mu$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma\sigma_n} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(x-\mu)}{\sigma}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(\mu-\mu_n)}{\sigma_n}\right)^2\right] d\mu$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma\sigma_n} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu_n)^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2}\right] \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma\sigma_n}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu_n)^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2}\right]$$

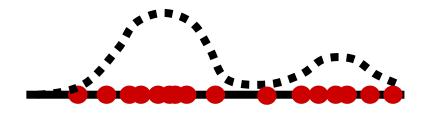
$$\xrightarrow{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}\right]$$

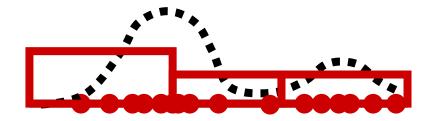
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Nonparametric Density Estimation

- The form of $p(x|\omega_i)$ to be estimated is not assumed.
- Naïve approach is Histogram









$$p = \int\limits_R p(\mathbf{x}')d\mathbf{x}' \to P_k = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \to E[k] = np \to \text{var}(k) = np(1-p)$$

$$E\left[\frac{k}{n}\right] = p,$$
 $\operatorname{var}\left[\frac{k}{n}\right] = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$ $p = \int_{R} p(\mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x}' \approx p(x)V \to p(x) = p/V \approx \frac{k/n}{V}$

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Three Conditions for Density Estimation

- Reducing the region by increasing the samples
- Let us take a growing sequence of samples $n = 1, 2, 3 \dots$
- We take regions R_n with reduced volumes $V_1 > V_2 > V_3 > \cdots$
- Let k_n be the number of samples falling in R_n
- Let $p_n(x)$ be the n^{th} estimate for p(x)
- If $p_n(x)$ is to converge to p(x), 3 conditions must be required:
 - $\lim_{n\to\infty}V_n=0\,,$ resolution as big as possible (for smoothing)
 - to preserve $\int p(x)dx = 1$
 - $\lim_{n\to\infty} k_n = \infty,$ $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{k_n}{n} = 0$ to guarantee convergence of $p(x) \approx p_n(x) = \frac{\kappa/n}{V}$ $n\rightarrow\infty$ n

$$\int \hat{p}(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)d\mathbf{x} = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{b_j} \frac{k_j}{n_i V} d\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^m k_j = 1$$



PARZEN WINDOW and KNN

- How to obtain the sequence R₁, R₂, ..?
- There are 2 common approaches of obtaining sequences of regions that satisfy the convergence conditions:
 - Specify k_n as some function of n, such as $k_n = \sqrt{n}$. Here the volume V_n is grown until it encloses k_n neighbors of x.
 - This is k_n —nearest-neighbor method.
 - Shrink an initial region by specifying the volume V_n as some function of n, such as $V_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$ and show that k_n and k_n/n behave properly i.e. $p_n(x)$ converges to p(x).
 - This is Parzen-window (or kernel) method.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} V_n = 0,$$

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} k_n = \infty,$$

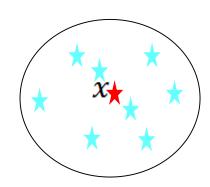
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{k_n}{n} = 0$$

K_n -Nearest-Neighbor Estimation

- To estimate p(x) from n training samples, we center a cell about x and let it grow until it captures k_n samples, where k_n is some specified function of n.
- These samples are the k_n nearest-neighbors of x.
- If the density is high near x, the cell will be relatively small good resolution.

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} V_n = 0 \text{ , } \lim_{n\to\infty} k_n = \infty \text{, } \lim_{n\to\infty} k_n/n = 0 \to p(\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{k_n/n}{V_n}$$

Let
$$k_n = \sqrt{n} \rightarrow V_n \approx 1/(\sqrt{n}p(x)) \rightarrow 0$$



PARZEN WINDOWS

- Assume that the region R_n is a d —dimensional hypercube.
- If h_n is the length of an edge of that hypercube $\mathcal{H}(x)$ centered at x, then its volume is given by

$$V_n = h_n^d$$



$$V_n = 1/\sqrt{n}$$

$$h_n = 1/\sqrt[d]{n} \to 0$$



Define the following window function:

$$\varphi(\mathbf{u}) = \begin{cases} 1 & |u_j| \le 1/2; & j = 1, ..., d \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

 $\varphi(\mathbf{u})$ defines a unit hypercube centered at the origin.

$$\varphi((\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)/h_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{H}(x) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\varphi((\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i)/h_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{H}(x) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \begin{cases} -1/2 \le (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x})/h_n \le 1/2 \to -h_n/2 \le \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x} \le h_n/2 \\ \to \mathbf{x} - h_n/2 \le \mathbf{x}_i \le \mathbf{x} + h_n/2 \end{cases}$$

The number of samples in this hypercube is given by:

$$k_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i}{h_n}\right) \to p_n \ (\mathbf{x}) = \frac{k_n}{nV_n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{V_n} \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i}{h_n}\right).$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} V_n = 0 , \lim_{n \to \infty} k_n = \infty, \lim_{n \to \infty} k_n/n = 0$$

$$: k_n = nV_n p_n(\mathbf{x}) = \sqrt{n} \ p_n(\mathbf{x}), \quad k_n/n = p_n(\mathbf{x})/\sqrt{n}$$

Gaussian Mixture Estimation

Parzen Window

$$p_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{V_n} \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_i}{h_n}\right)$$



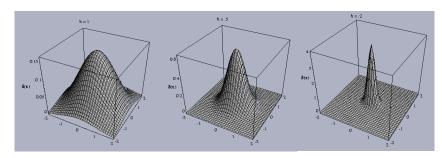
$$\varphi(\mathbf{u}) \ge 0$$
 and $\int \varphi(\mathbf{u}) \ d\mathbf{u} = 1$

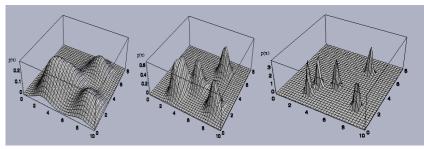


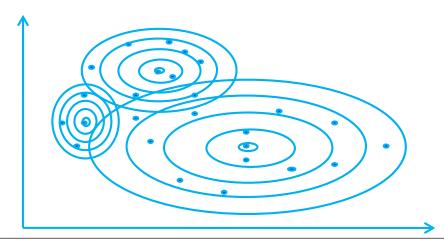
Gaussian Mixture

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x} - \mu_k}{\sigma_k}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) p(\theta_k|\theta)$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|k) p(k|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x},k|\theta)$$







Expectation-Maximization (EM)

EM aims to find parameter values that maximize likelihood,

$$L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \Sigma_k p(\mathbf{x}, k|\theta) = \Sigma_k L(\theta; \mathbf{x}, k)$$

where k is a latent variable.

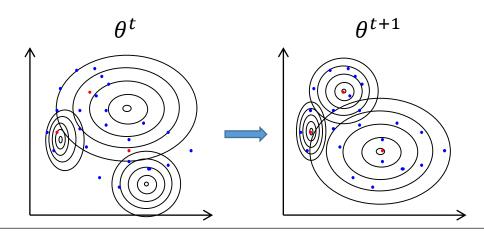
E-step: For given θ^t , **x**, find expectation of the likelihood on the conditional distribution of k.

$$Q(\theta | \theta^t) = E_{k|\mathbf{x},\theta^t}[\log L(\theta;\mathbf{x},k)] = \Sigma_k p(k|\mathbf{x},\theta^t) \log L(\theta;\mathbf{x},k)$$

■ **M-step:** Find θ^{t+1} maximizing Q.

$$\theta^{t+1} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q(\theta | \theta^t)$$

Repeat E-step and M-step.



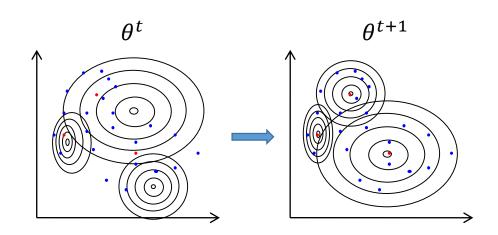
Expectation-Maximization (EM)

E-step

$$\begin{split} &Q(\theta|\theta^t) = E_{k|\mathbf{x},\theta^t}[\log L\left(\theta\,;\mathbf{x}\,,k\right)] = \Sigma_k p(k|\mathbf{x},\theta^t) \log L\left(\theta\,;\mathbf{x}\,,k\right) \\ &T_{k,m}^t := p(k|\mathbf{x} = x_m,\theta^t) = \frac{p(x_m \,|k_k^t,\Sigma_k^t)\tau_k^t}{\Sigma_k \,p(x_m \,;\mu_k^t,\Sigma_k^t)\tau_k^t}, \\ &p(x_m \,|\mu_k^t,\Sigma_k^t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}\sqrt{|\Sigma_k^t|}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_m - \mu_k^t)^T \Sigma_k^{t^{-1}}(x_m - \mu_k^t)}{2}\right) \\ &Q(\theta|\theta^t) = \sum_m \sum_k T_{k,m}^t \left(\log \tau_k - \frac{1}{2}\log|\Sigma_k| - \frac{1}{2}(x_m - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1}(x_m - \mu_k)\right) \end{split}$$

M-step

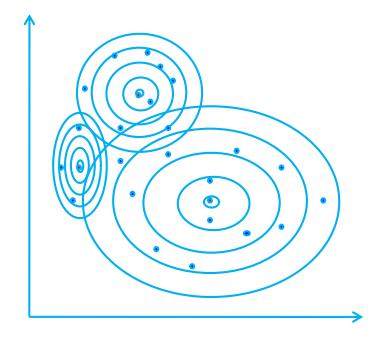
$$\begin{split} \tau_k^{t+1} &= \frac{\sum_m T_{k,m}^t}{\sum_k \sum_m T_{k,m}^t}, \\ \mu_k^{t+1} &= \frac{\sum_m T_{k,m}^t x_m}{\sum_k \sum_m T_{k,m}^t}, \\ \sum_k^{t+1} &= \frac{\sum_m T_{k,m}^t (x_m - \mu_k^{t+1}) (x_m - \mu_k^{t+1})^T}{\sum_k \sum_m T_{k,m}^t} \end{split}$$



Markov Chain Monte Carlo(MCMC)

- Monte Carlo : Sample from a distribution to estimate the distribution
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
- Applied to Clustering, Unsupervised Learning, Bayesian Inference
- Example: Estimation of Gaussian Mixture Model

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) p(\theta_k|\theta)$$



Monte Carlo Integration

- General problem: evaluating $\mathbb{E}_P[h(X)] = \int h(x)p(x)dx$ can be difficult. $(\int |h(x)|p(x)dx < \infty)$
- If we can draw samples $x^{(s)} \sim p(x)$, then we can estimate $\mathbb{E}_P[h(X)] \approx \overline{h}_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=1}^N h(x^{(s)})$.
- Monte Carlo integration is great if you can sample from the target distribution
 - But what if you can't sample from the target?
 - Importance sampling: Use of a simple distribution

Importance Sampling

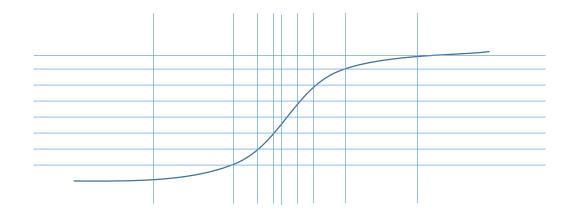
Idea of importance sampling:

Draw the sample from a proposal distribution $Q(\cdot)$ and re-weight by importance weights

$$\mathbb{E}_{P}[h(X)] = \int \frac{h(x)P(x)}{Q(x)} Q(x) dx = \mathbb{E}_{Q}\left[\frac{h(X)P(X)}{Q(X)}\right].$$

■ Hence, given an iid sample $x^{(s)}$ from Q, our estimator becomes

$$E_{Q}\left[\frac{h(X)P(X)}{Q(X)}\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=1}^{N} \frac{h(x^{(s)})P(x^{(s)})}{Q(x^{(s)})}$$



Limitations of Monte Carlo

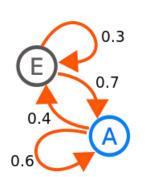
- Importance sampling
 - Do not work well if the proposal Q(x) is very different from target P(x)
 - Yet constructing a Q(x) similar to P(x) can be difficult \rightarrow Markov Chain
- Intuition: instead of a fixed proposal Q(x), what if we could use an adaptive proposal?
 - X_{t+1} depends only on X_t , not on $X_0, X_1, ..., X_{t-1}$
 - Markov Chain

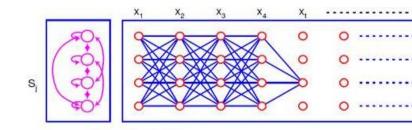
Markov Chains: Notation & Terminology

- Countable (finite) state space Ω (e.g. **N**)
- Sequence of random variables $\{X_t\}$ on Ω for t=0,1,2,...
- Definition : $\{X_t\}$ is a Markov Chain if

•
$$P(X_{t+1} = y \mid X_t = x_t, ..., X_0 = x_0) = P(X_{t+1} = y \mid X_t = x_t)$$

- Notation : $P(X_{t+1} = i | X_t = j) = p_{ii}$
- Random Works
- Example.



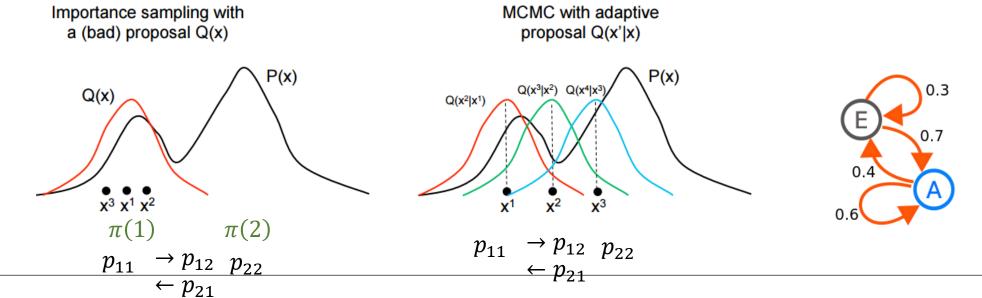


$$p_{AA} = P(X_{t+1} = A \mid X_t = A) = 0.6$$

 $p_{AE} = P(X_{t+1} = E \mid X_t = A) = 0.4$
 $p_{EA} = P(X_{t+1} = A \mid X_t = E) = 0.7$
 $p_{EE} = P(X_{t+1} = E \mid X_t = E) = 0.3$

Markov Chain Monte Carlo

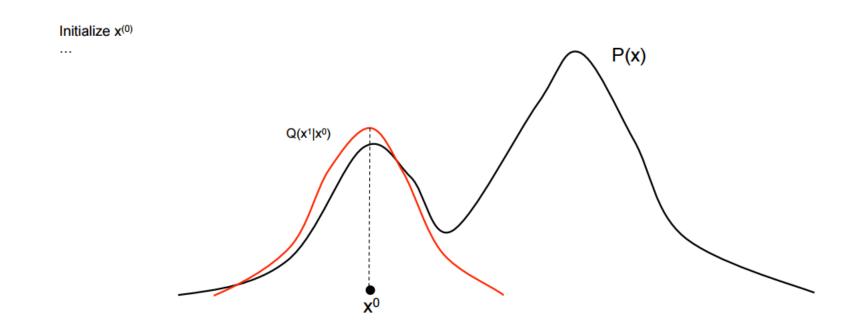
- MCMC algorithm feature adaptive proposals
 - Instead of Q(x'), they use Q(x'|x) where x' is the new state being sampled, and x is the previous sample
 - As x changes, Q(x'|x) can also change (as a function of x')
 - The acceptance probability is set to $A(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{P(x')/Q(x_i|x)}{P(x)/Q(x_i|x')}\right)$ importance
 - No matter where we start, after some time, we will be in any state j with probability $\sim \pi(j)$



Q(x'|x) = Q(x|x') for Gaussian Why?

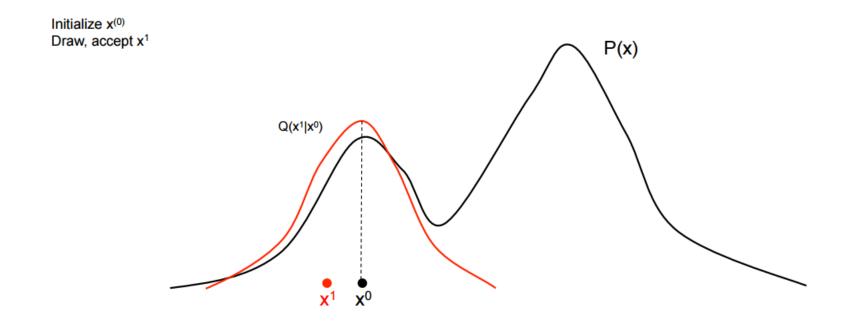
- Example:
 - Let Q(x'|x) be a Gaussian centered on x
 - We're trying to sample from a bimodal distribution P(x)

$$A(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{P(x')/Q(x'|x)}{P(x)/Q(x|x')}\right)$$



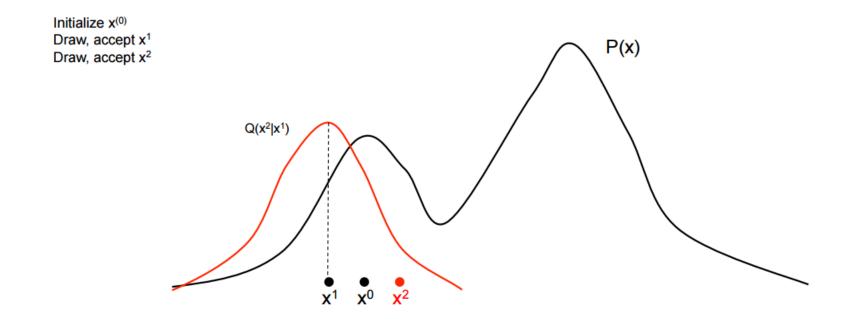
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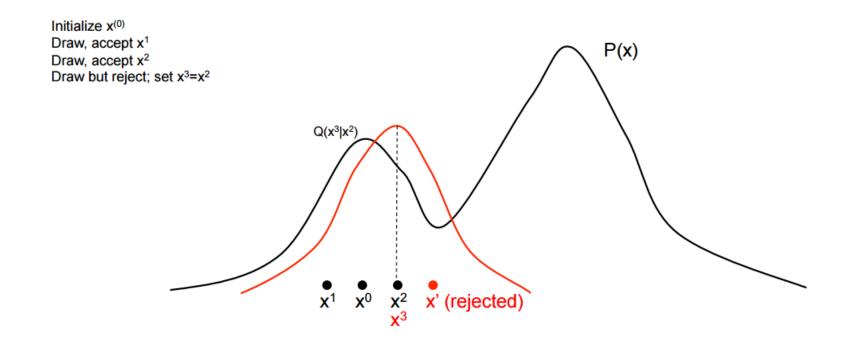
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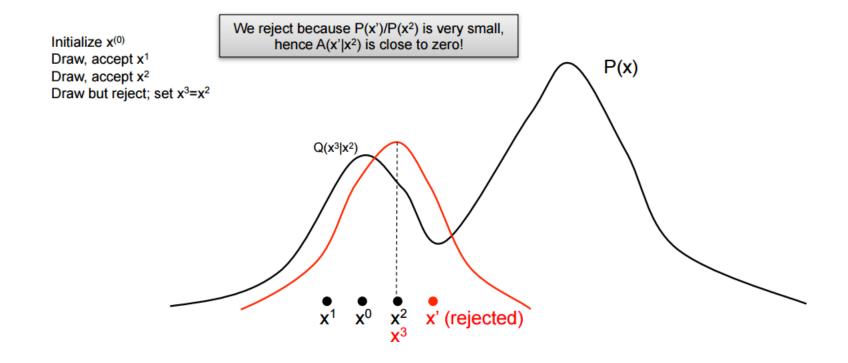
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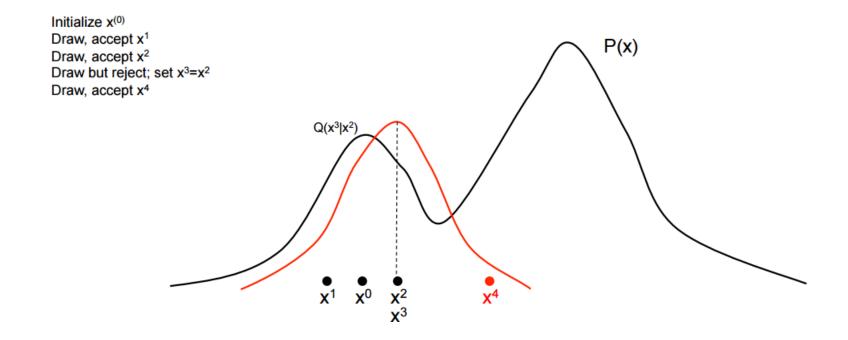
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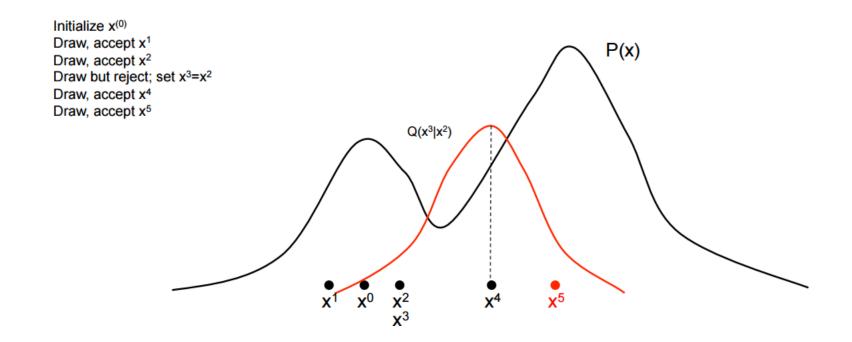
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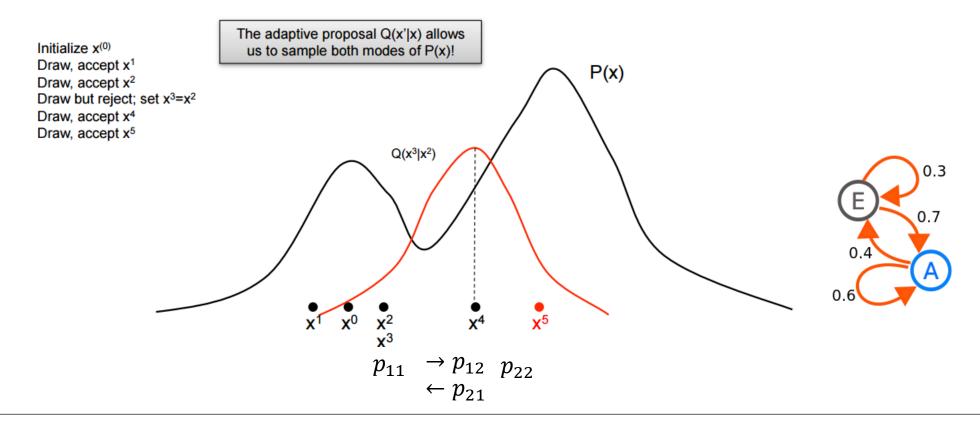
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 - Let Q(x'|x) be a Gaussian centered on x
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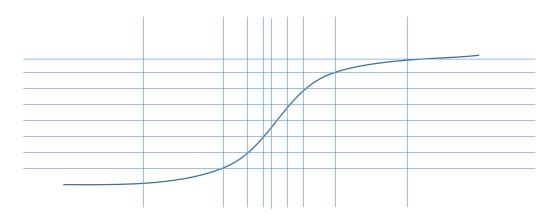
$$A(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{P(x')/Q(x'|x)}{P(x)/Q(x|x')}\right)$$



- Initialize starting state $x^{(0)}$,
- Burn-in: while samples have "not converged"
 - $x = x^{(t)}$
 - t = t + 1
 - Sample $x^* \sim Q(x^*|x)$ // draw from proposal
 - Sample $u \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1)$ // draw acceptance threshold
 - If $u < A(x^*|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{P(x^*)Q(x|x^*)}{P(x)Q(x^*|x)}\right)$, $x^{(t)} = x^*$ // transition
 - Else $x^{(t)} = x$ // stay in current state
 - Repeat until converging $(E_Q\left[\frac{h(X)P(X)}{Q(X)}\right] = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{s=1}^{N}\frac{h(x^{(s)})P(x^{(s)})}{Q(x^{(s)})})$

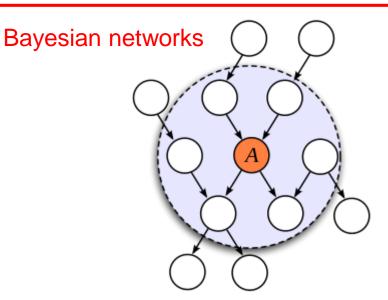
Gibbs Sampling

- Direct (unconditional) sampling
 - Hard to get rare events in high-dimensional spaces → Gibbs sampling
- Gibbs Sampling is an MCMC algorithm that is a special case of the MH algorithm
- Consider a factored state space
 - $x \in \Omega$ is a vector $x = (x_1, ..., x_m)$
 - Notation: $x_{-i} = \{x_1, ..., x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, ..., x_m\}$



Gibbs Sampling

- The GS algorithm:
 - 1. Suppose the graphical model contains variables x_1, \dots, x_n
 - 2. Initialize starting values for $x_1, ..., x_n$
 - 3. Do until convergence:
 - 1. Pick a component $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$
 - 2. Sample value of $z \sim P(x_i | x_{-i})$, and update $x_i \leftarrow z$



• When we update x_i , we immediately use its new value for sampling other variables x_j $P(x_i|x_{-i}) \text{ achieves the acceptance probability in MH algorithm.}$

$$A(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{P(x')/Q(x'|x)}{P(x)/Q(x|x')}\right)$$

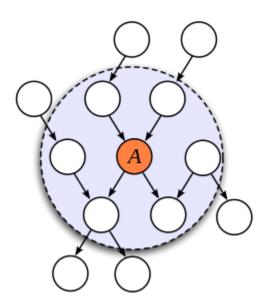
$$A(x'_{i}, x_{-i} | x_{i}, x_{-i}) = \min \left(1, \frac{P(x'_{i}, x_{-i}) / P(x'_{i}, x_{-i} | x_{i}, x_{-i})}{P(x_{i}, x_{-i}) / P(x'_{i}, x_{-i} | x'_{i}, x_{-i})} \right)$$

$$= \min \left(1, \frac{P(x'_{i}, x_{-i}) / P(x'_{i}, x_{-i})}{P(x_{i}, x_{-i}) / P(x_{i}, x_{-i})} \right)$$

$$\therefore x'_{i}, x_{i} \text{ are independent}$$

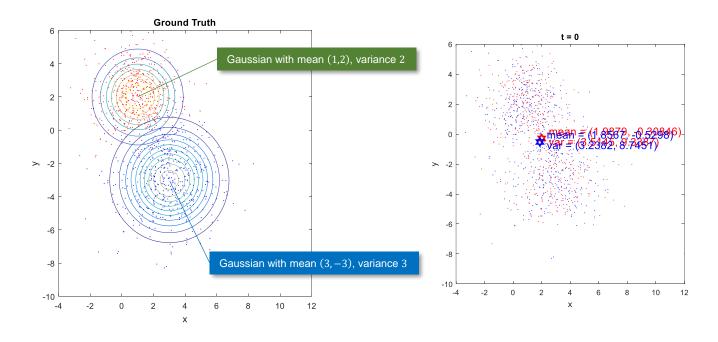
Markov Blankets

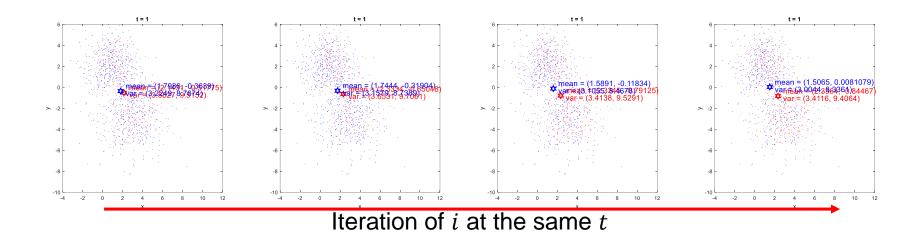
- The conditional $P(x_i|x_{-i})$ can be obtained using Markov Blanket
 - Let $MB(x_i)$ be the Markov Blanket of x_i , then $P(x_i \mid x_{-i}) = P(x_i \mid MB(x_i))$
- For a Bayesian Network, the Markov Blanket of x_i is the set containing its parents, children, and coparents



- Consider the GMM
 - The data x (position) are extracted from two Gaussian distribution
 - We do NOT know the class y of each data, and information of the Gaussian distribution
 - Initialize the class of each data at t = 0 to randomly

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k) p(\theta_k|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x}|k) p(k|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(\mathbf{x},k|\theta)$$





Sampling $P(y_i | x_{-i}, y_{-i})$ at t = 1, we compute:

$$P(y_i = 0 | x_{-i}, y_{-i}) \propto \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_{x_{-i}, 0}, \sigma_{x_{-i}, 0})$$

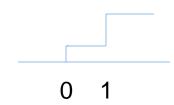
$$P(y_i = 1 | x_{-i}, y_{-i}) \propto \mathcal{N}(x_i | \mu_{x_{-i}, 1}, \sigma_{x_{-i}, 1})$$

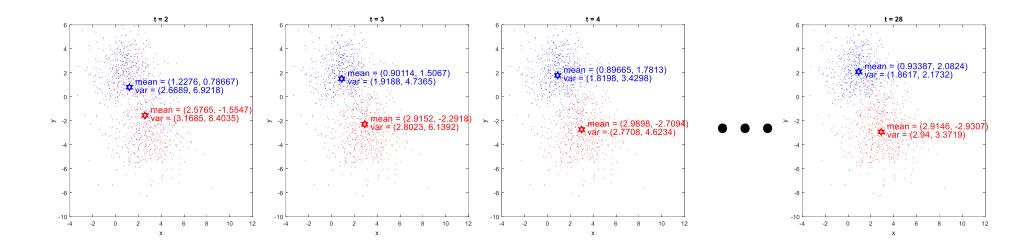
where

$$\mu_{x_{-i},K} = MEAN(X_{iK}), \sigma_{x_{-i},K} = VAR(X_{iK})$$

 $X_{iK} = \{x_j \mid x_j \in x_{-i}, y_j = K\}$

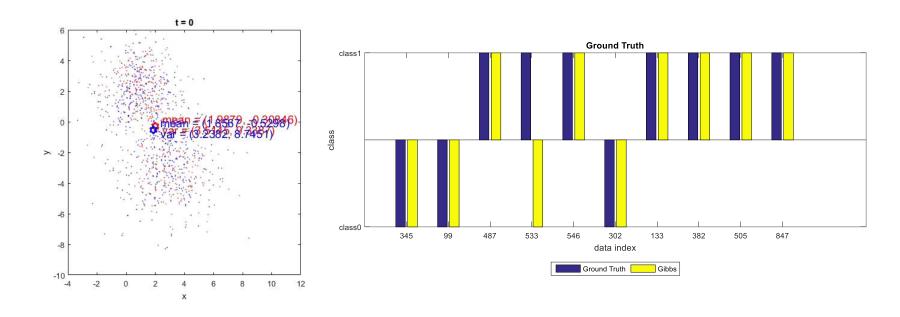
And update y_i with $P(y_i | x_{-i}, y_{-i})$ and repeat for all data





Now t = 2, and we repeat the procedure to sample new class of each data

And similarly for t = 3, 4, ...



- Data i's class can be chosen with tendency of y_i
 - The classes of the data can be oscillated after the sufficient sequences
 - We can assume the class of datum as more frequently selected class

• In the simulation, the final class is correct with the probability of 94.9% at t = 100

Bayesian networks: Traffic Pattern Analysis

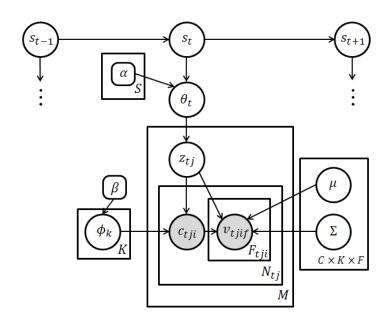
Surveillance in crowded scenes











J. Y. Choi

Bayesian networks (Topic Modelling)

Topic proportions and **Topics Documents** assignments gene 0.04 0.02 dna Seeking Life's Bare (Genetic) Necessities genetic 0.01 COLD SPRING HARBOR, NEW YORK- "are not all that far apart," especially in How many genes does an organism need to comparison to the 75,000 genes in the husurvive. Last week at the genome meeting here, two genome researchers with radically University in 5wes different approaches presented complemen-800 number. But coming up with a c tary views of the basic genes needed for life sus answer may be more than just a life 0.02 One research team, using computer analyevolve 0.01 ses to compare known genomes, concluded organism 0.01 that today's organisms can be sustained with sequenced. "It may be a way of organi; any newly sequenced genome," explains just 250 genes, and that the earliest life forms required a mere 128 genes. The Arcady Mushegian, a computational molecular biologist at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (*CBI) other researcher mapped genes

in Bethesda, Maryland, Comparing

Stripping down. Computer analysis yields an esti-

mate of the minimum modern and ancient genomes

in a simple parasite and estimated that for this organism.

800 genes are plenty to do the

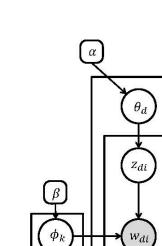
job-but that anything short

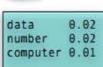
Although the numbers don't

match precisely, those predictions

* Genome Mapping and Sequenc-

of 100 wouldn't be enough.





neuron

nerve

0.04

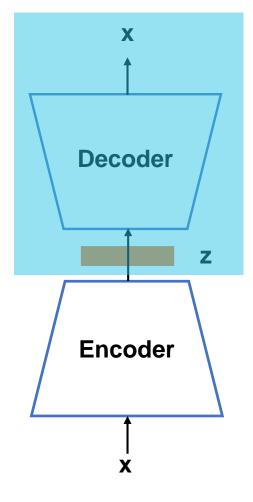
0.02

0.01

ing, Cold Spring Harbor, New York, May 8 to 12. SCIENCE • VOL. 272 • 24 MAY 1996 ...

J. Y. Choi

Variational Auto-encoder (VAE)





Reconstruction Loss

$$Loss = -logP_{\theta}(x|z) + D_{KL}(q_{\varphi}(z|x)||P_{\theta}(z))$$

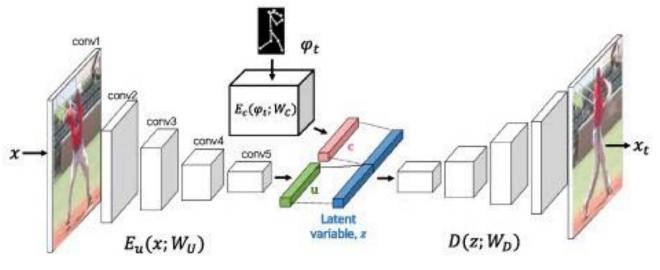
Variational Inference

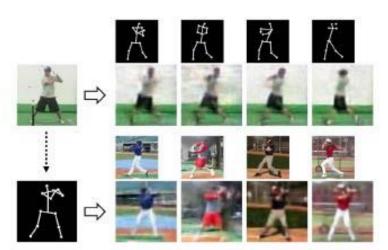
 $p_{\theta}(x|z)$: a multivariate Gaussian (real-valued data)

a Bernoulli (binary-valued data)



Pose Transformer





$$\mathcal{L}(\theta,\phi) = \mathcal{L}_{ref} + \mathcal{L}_{pose} + \mathcal{L}_{id}.$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{ref} = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k,\varphi_a^k)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_a^k|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k,\varphi_a^k) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right).$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{pose} = \mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k,\varphi_a^l)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_a^l|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k,\varphi_a^l) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right) + \lambda_u \cdot D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(u|x_a^l) \parallel q_{\phi}(u|x_a^k)\right).$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{id} = -\mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_b^{k'},\varphi_a^k)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_b^{k'}|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_b^{k'},\varphi_a^k) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right) + \lambda_c \cdot D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(c|\varphi_b^{k'}) \parallel q_{\phi}(c|\varphi_a^k)\right)$$

Loss Function for Pose Transformer

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) = \mathcal{L}_{ref} + \mathcal{L}_{pose} + \mathcal{L}_{id}.$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{ref} = -\mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k, \varphi_a^k)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_a^k|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k, \varphi_a^k) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right).$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{pose} = -\mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k, \varphi_a^l)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_a^l|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_a^k, \varphi_a^l) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right) + \lambda_u \cdot D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(u|x_a^l) \parallel q_{\phi}(u|x_a^k)\right).$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{id} = -\mathbb{E}_{q_{\phi}(z|x_b^{k'}, \varphi_a^k)}[\log p_{\theta}(x_b^{k'}|z)] + D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(z|x_b^{k'}, \varphi_a^k) \parallel p_{\theta}(z)\right) + \lambda_c \cdot D_{KL}\left(q_{\phi}(c|\varphi_b^{k'}) \parallel q_{\phi}(c|\varphi_a^k)\right)$$

Summary

- Parametric Density Estimation
 - Maximum Likelihood Estimation
 - Bayesian Learning
- Nonparametric Density Estimation
 - Histogram
 - *K_n* Nearest Neighbor Estimation
 - Parzen Window Estimation
 - Gaussian Mixture Estimation
 - Expectation-Maximization
 - Markov-Chain Monte Carlo