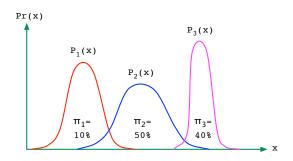
Classification with generative models II

DSE 210

The Bayes-optimal prediction



Labels $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$, density $\Pr(x) = \pi_1 P_1(x) + \dots + \pi_k P_k(x)$.

For any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and any label j,

$$\Pr(y = j | x) = \frac{\Pr(y = j) \Pr(x | y = j)}{\Pr(x)} = \frac{\pi_j P_j(x)}{\sum_{i=1}^k \pi_i P_i(x)}$$

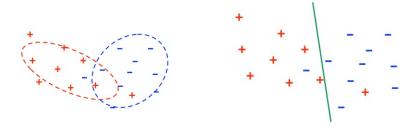
Bayes-optimal prediction: $h^*(x) = \arg \max_i \pi_i P_i(x)$.

Estimating the π_i is easy. Estimating the P_i is hard.

Classification with parametrized models

Classifiers with a fixed number of parameters can represent a limited set of functions. Learning a model is about picking a good approximation.

Typically the x's are points in p-dimensional Euclidean space, \mathbb{R}^p .



Two ways to classify:

- Generative: model the individual classes.
- Discriminative: model the decision boundary between the classes.

Estimating class-conditional distributions

Estimating an arbitrary distribution in \mathbb{R}^p :

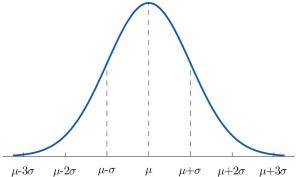
- Can be done, e.g. with kernel density estimation.
- But number of samples needed is exponential in p.

Instead: approximate each P_j with a simple, parametric distribution.

Some options:

- Product distributions.
 Assume coordinates are independent: naive Bayes.
- Multivariate Gaussians.
 Linear and quadratic discriminant analysis.
- More general graphical models.

The univariate Gaussian



The Gaussian $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ has mean μ , variance σ^2 , and density function

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

But what if we have two variables?

Bivariate distributions

Simplest option: treat each variable as independent.

Example: For a large collection of people, measure the two variables

$$H = \text{height}$$

$$W = weight$$

Independence would mean

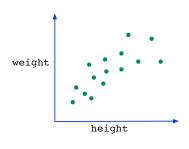
$$Pr(H = h, W = w) = Pr(H = h) Pr(W = w),$$

which would also imply $\mathbb{E}(HW) = \mathbb{E}(H)\mathbb{E}(W)$.

Is this an accurate approximation?

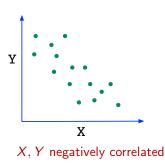
No: we'd expect height and weight to be positively correlated.

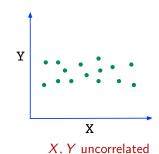
Types of correlation



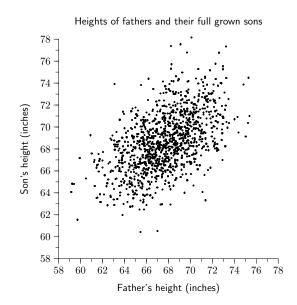
H, W positively correlated. This also implies

$$\mathbb{E}(HW) > \mathbb{E}(H)\mathbb{E}(W).$$



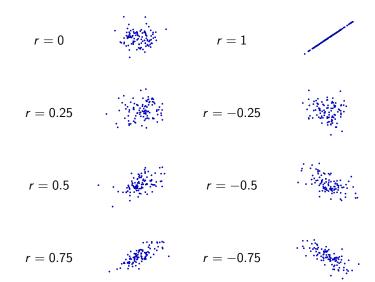


Pearson (1903): fathers and sons



How to quantify the degree of correlation?

Correlation pictures



Covariance and correlation: example 1

$$cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y$$
$$corr(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{std(X)std(Y)}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} x & y & \Pr(x,y) & & \mu_X = 0 \\ \hline -1 & -1 & 1/3 & & & \mu_Y = -1/3 \\ -1 & 1 & 1/6 & & & \text{var}(X) = 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1/3 & & & \text{var}(Y) = 8/9 \\ & & & & \text{cov}(X,Y) = 0 \\ & & & & \text{corr}(X,Y) = 0 \end{array}$$

In this case, X, Y are independent. Independent variables always have zero covariance and correlation.

Covariance and correlation

Suppose X has mean μ_X and Y has mean μ_Y .

Covariance

$$cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y$$

Maximized when X = Y, in which case it is var(X). In general, it is at most std(X)std(Y).

Correlation

$$corr(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{std(X)std(Y)}$$

This is always in the range [-1,1].

Covariance and correlation: example 2

$$cov(X, Y) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mu_X \mu_Y$$
$$corr(X, Y) = \frac{cov(X, Y)}{std(X)std(Y)}$$

In this case, X and Y are negatively correlated.

The bivariate (2-d) Gaussian

A distribution over $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, parametrized by:

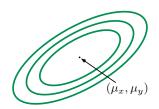
- Mean $(\mu_{\mathsf{x}}, \mu_{\mathsf{y}}) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
- Covariance matrix

$$\Sigma = \left[egin{array}{ccc} \Sigma_{xx} & \Sigma_{xy} \ \Sigma_{yx} & \Sigma_{yy} \end{array}
ight]$$

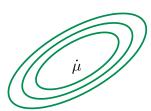
where $\Sigma_{xx} = \text{var}(X), \ \Sigma_{yy} = \text{var}(Y), \ \Sigma_{xy} = \Sigma_{yx} = \text{cov}(X, Y)$

Density
$$p(x,y) = \frac{1}{2\pi |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} x - \mu_x \\ y - \mu_y \end{bmatrix}^T \Sigma^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} x - \mu_x \\ y - \mu_y \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

The density is highest at the mean, and falls off in ellipsoidal contours.



The multivariate Gaussian



 $N(\mu, \Sigma)$: Gaussian in \mathbb{R}^p

- mean: $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^p$
- covariance: $p \times p$ matrix Σ

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

Let $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p)$ be a random draw from $N(\mu, \Sigma)$.

• μ is the vector of coordinate-wise means:

$$\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}X_1, \ \mu_2 = \mathbb{E}X_2, \ldots, \ \mu_p = \mathbb{E}X_p.$$

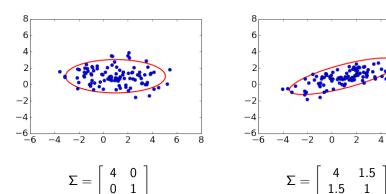
ullet is a matrix containing all pairwise covariances:

$$\Sigma_{ij} = \Sigma_{ji} = \text{cov}(X_i, X_j)$$
 if $i \neq j$
 $\Sigma_{ii} = \text{var}(X_i)$

• In matrix/vector form: $\mu = \mathbb{E}X$ and $\Sigma = \mathbb{E}(X - \mu)(X - \mu)^T$.

Bivariate Gaussian: examples

In either case, the mean is (1,1).



Special case: spherical Gaussian

The X_i are independent and all have the same variance σ^2 . Thus

$$\Sigma = \sigma^2 I_p = \operatorname{diag}(\sigma^2, \sigma^2, \dots, \sigma^2)$$

(off-diagonal elements zero, diagonal elements σ^2).

Each X_i is an independent univariate Gaussian $N(\mu_i, \sigma^2)$:

$$\Pr(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x_i - \mu_i)^2 / 2\sigma^2} \right) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} \sigma^p} \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - \mu\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right)$$

Density at a point depends only on its distance from μ :



ipecial case: diagonal Gaussian

The X_i are independent, with variances σ_i^2 . Thus

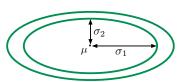
$$\Sigma = \mathsf{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_p^2)$$

(all off-diagonal elements zero).

Each X_i is an independent univariate Gaussian $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2}\sigma_1\cdots\sigma_p} \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^p \frac{(x_i-\mu_i)^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)$$

Contours of equal density are axisaligned ellipsoids centered at μ :



3inary classification with Gaussian generative model

Estimate class probabilities π_1, π_2 and fit a Gaussian to each class:

$$P_1 = N(\mu_1, \Sigma_1), P_2 = N(\mu_2, \Sigma_2)$$

E.g. If data points $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ are class 1:

$$\mu_1 = \frac{1}{m} \left(x^{(1)} + \dots + x^{(m)} \right) \text{ and } \Sigma_1 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} - \mu_1) (x^{(i)} - \mu_1)^T$$

Given a new point x, predict class 1 iff:

$$\pi_1 P_1(x) > \pi_2 P_2(x) \Leftrightarrow x^T M x + 2 w^T x \geq \theta,$$

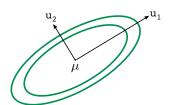
where:

$$M = \frac{1}{2} (\Sigma_2^{-1} - \Sigma_1^{-1})$$
$$w = \Sigma_1^{-1} \mu_1 - \Sigma_2^{-1} \mu_2$$

and θ is a constant depending on the various parameters.

 $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2$: **linear** decision boundary. Otherwise, **quadratic** boundary.

The general Gaussian $N(\mu, \Sigma)$ in \mathbb{R}^p



Eigendecomposition of Σ yields:

- Eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_p$
- Corresponding eigenvectors
 u₁,..., u_p

Recall density:
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{p/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\underbrace{(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}_{\text{What is this?}}\right)$$

If we write $S = \Sigma^{-1}$ then S is a $p \times p$ matrix and

$$(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu) = \sum_{i,j} S_{ij} (x_i - \mu_i) (x_j - \mu_j),$$

a quadratic function of x.

Linear decision boundary

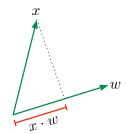
When $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Sigma$: choose class 1 iff

$$\times \cdot \underbrace{\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)}_{w} \geq \theta.$$

What does $x \cdot w$ (or equivalently $x^T w$, or $w^T x$) mean?

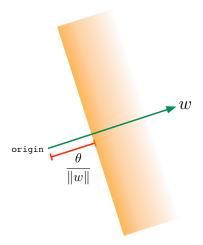
Algebraically:
$$x \cdot w = w \cdot x = x^T w = w^T x = \sum_{i=1}^{p} x_i w_i$$

Geometrically: Suppose w is a unit vector (that is, ||w|| = 1). Then $x \cdot w$ is the projection of vector x onto direction w.

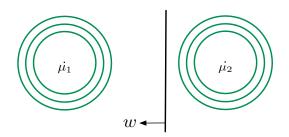


.inear decision boundary

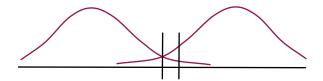
Let w be any vector in \mathbb{R}^p . What is meant by decision rule $w \cdot x \geq \theta$?



Example 2: Again spherical, but now $\pi_1 > \pi_2$.



One-d projection onto w:

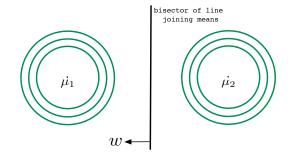


Common covariance: $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Sigma$

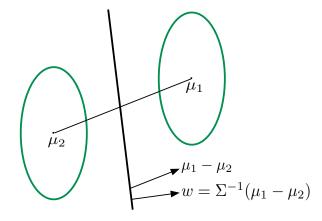
Linear decision boundary: choose class 1 iff

$$\times \underbrace{\Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1-\mu_2)}_{w} \geq \theta.$$

Example 1: Spherical Gaussians with $\Sigma = I_p$ and $\pi_1 = \pi_2$.



Example 3: Non-spherical.



Rule: $w \cdot x \ge \theta$

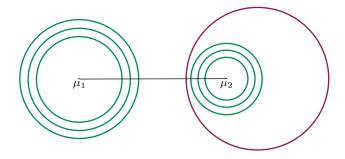
- w, θ dictated by probability model, assuming it is a perfect fit
- Common practice: choose w as above, but fit θ to minimize training/validation error

Different covariances: $\Sigma_1 \neq \Sigma_2$

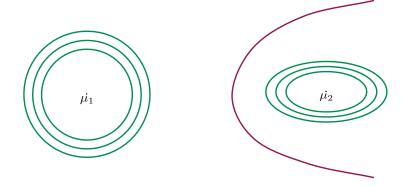
Quadratic boundary: choose class 1 iff $x^T M x + 2 w^T x \ge \theta$, where:

$$M = \frac{1}{2} (\Sigma_2^{-1} - \Sigma_1^{-1})$$
$$w = \Sigma_1^{-1} \mu_1 - \Sigma_2^{-1} \mu_2$$

Example 1: $\Sigma_1 = \sigma_1^2 \emph{I}_p$ and $\Sigma_2 = \sigma_2^2 \emph{I}_p$ with $\sigma_1 > \sigma_2$

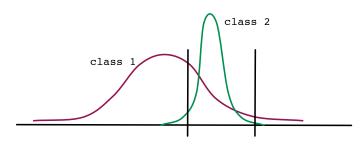


Example 3: A parabolic boundary.



Many other possibilities!

Example 2: Same thing in 1-d. $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$.



Multiclass discriminant analysis

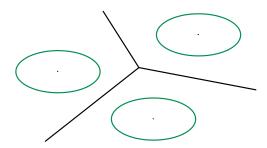
k classes: weights π_j , class-conditional distributions $P_j = N(\mu_j, \Sigma_j)$.

Each class has an associated quadratic function

$$f_j(x) = \log (\pi_j P_j(x))$$

To class a point x, pick arg $\max_i f_i(x)$.

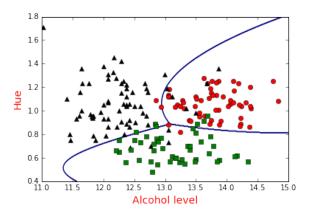
If $\Sigma_1 = \cdots = \Sigma_k$, the boundaries are **linear**.



Example: "wine" data set

Data from three wineries from the same region of Italy

- 13 attributes: hue, color intensity, flavanoids, ash content, ...
- 178 instances in all: split into 118 train, 60 test



Test error using multiclass discriminant analysis: 1/60

isher's linear discriminant

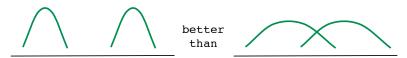
A framework for linear classification without Gaussian assumptions.

Use only first- and second-order statistics of the classes.

Class 1	Class 2
mean μ_1	mean μ_2
$cov\ \Sigma_1$	$cov \Sigma_2$
$\#$ pts n_1	# pts <i>n</i> ₂

A linear classifier projects all data onto a direction w. Choose w so that:

- Projected means are well-separated, i.e. $(w \cdot \mu_1 w \cdot \mu_2)^2$ is large.
- Projected within-class variance is small.



Example: MNIST



To each digit, fit:

- class probability π_i
- mean $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$
- covariance matrix $\Sigma_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784 \times 784}$

Problem: formula for normal density uses Σ_i^{-1} , which is singular.

- Need to **regularize/smooth**: $\Sigma_i \to \Sigma_i + \sigma^2 I$
- This is a good idea even without the singularity issue

How to choose c? With a validation set.

- Divide original training set into a training set and a validation set.
- Fit parameters π_j, μ_j, Σ_j to training set
- Choose the constant c that yields lowest error rate on validation set

Fisher LDA (linear discriminant analysis)

Two classes: means μ_1, μ_2 ; covariances Σ_1, Σ_2 ; sample sizes n_1, n_2 .

Project data onto direction (unit vector) w.

- Projected means: $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mu_1$ and $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mu_2$
- Projected variances: $w^T \Sigma_1 w$ and $w^T \Sigma_2 w$
- Average projected variance:

$$\frac{n_1(w^T\Sigma_1w)+n_2(w^T\Sigma_2w)}{n_1+n_2}=w^T\Sigma w,$$

where
$$\Sigma = (n_1\Sigma_1 + n_2\Sigma_2)/(n_1 + n_2)$$
.

Find w to maximize
$$J(w) = \frac{(w \cdot \mu_1 - w \cdot \mu_2)^2}{w^T \Sigma w}$$

Solution: $w \propto \Sigma^{-1}(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$. Look familiar?