

Machine Learning - Lecture 2

Probability Density Estimation

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Bastian Leibe

RWTH Aachen

<http://www.vision.rwth-aachen.de>

leibe@vision.rwth-aachen.de

Many slides adapted from B. Schiele

Announcements

- **Course webpage**
 - <http://www.vision.rwth-aachen.de/teaching/>
 - Slides will be made available on the webpage
- **L2P electronic repository**
 - Exercises and supplementary materials will be posted on the L2P
- **Please subscribe to the lecture on the Campus system!**
 - Important to get email announcements and L2P access!

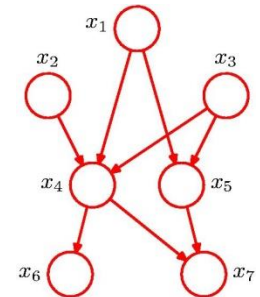
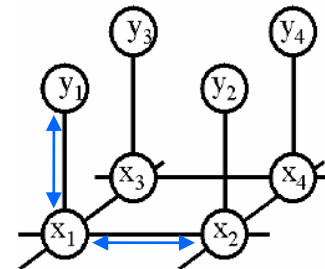
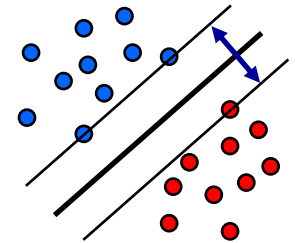
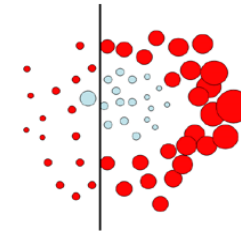
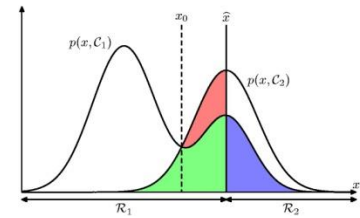
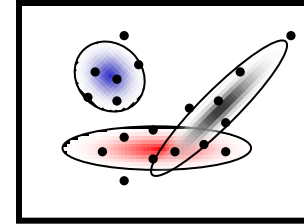
Announcements

- **Exercise sheet 1 is now available on L2P**
 - Bayes decision theory
 - Maximum Likelihood
 - Kernel density estimation / k-NN

⇒ *Submit your results to Ishrat/Michael until evening of 29.04.*
- **Work in teams (of up to 3 people) is encouraged**
 - Who is not part of an exercise team yet?

Course Outline

- **Fundamentals (2 weeks)**
 - Bayes Decision Theory
 - Probability Density Estimation
- **Discriminative Approaches (5 weeks)**
 - Linear Discriminant Functions
 - Support Vector Machines
 - Ensemble Methods & Boosting
 - Randomized Trees, Forests & Ferns
- **Generative Models (4 weeks)**
 - Bayesian Networks
 - Markov Random Fields



Topics of This Lecture

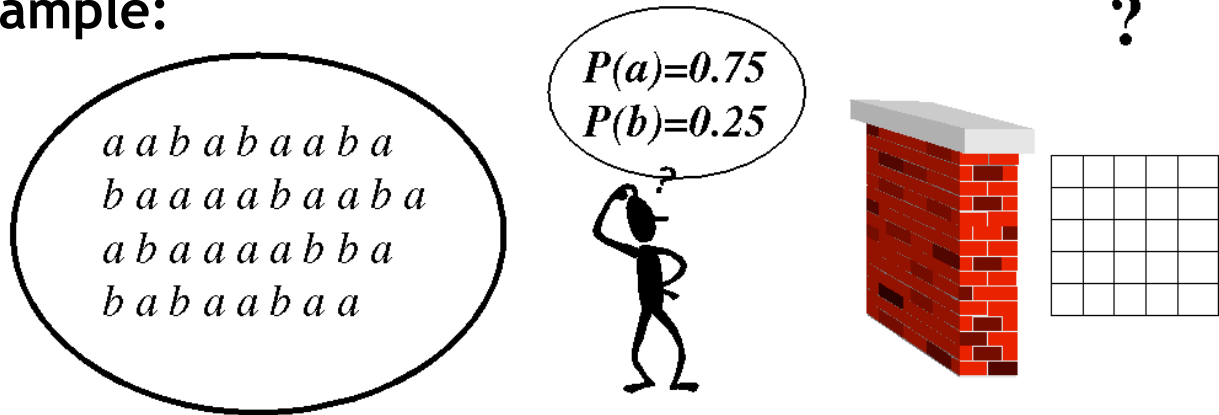
- **Bayes Decision Theory**
 - Basic concepts
 - Minimizing the misclassification rate
 - Minimizing the expected loss
 - Discriminant functions
- **Probability Density Estimation**
 - General concepts
 - Gaussian distribution
- **Parametric Methods**
 - Maximum Likelihood approach
 - Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability
 - Bayesian Learning

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

- Concept 1: **Priors** (a priori probabilities)

$$p(C_k)$$

- What we can tell about the probability *before seeing the data*.
- Example:



$$C_1 = a$$

$$p(C_1) = 0.75$$

$$C_2 = b$$

$$p(C_2) = 0.25$$

- In general: $\sum_k p(C_k) = 1$

Recap: Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

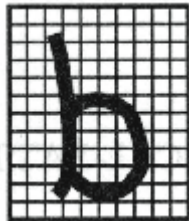
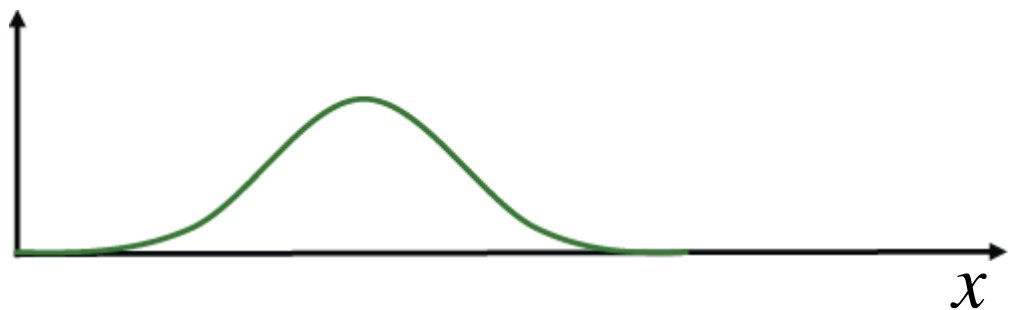
- **Concept 2: Conditional probabilities**

$$p(x | C_k)$$

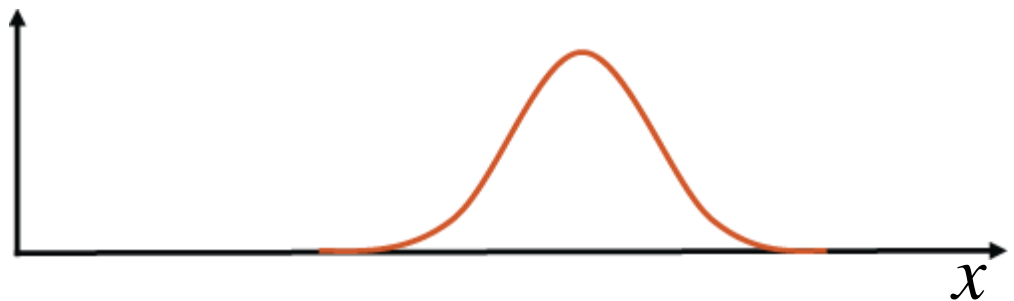
- Let x be a feature vector.
- x measures/describes certain properties of the input.
 - E.g. number of black pixels, aspect ratio, ...
- $p(x|C_k)$ describes its **likelihood** for class C_k .



$$p(x | a)$$



$$p(x | b)$$



Bayes Decision Theory Concepts

- Concept 3: **Posterior probabilities**

$$p(C_k | x)$$

- We are typically interested in the *a posteriori* probability, i.e. the probability of class C_k given the measurement vector x .

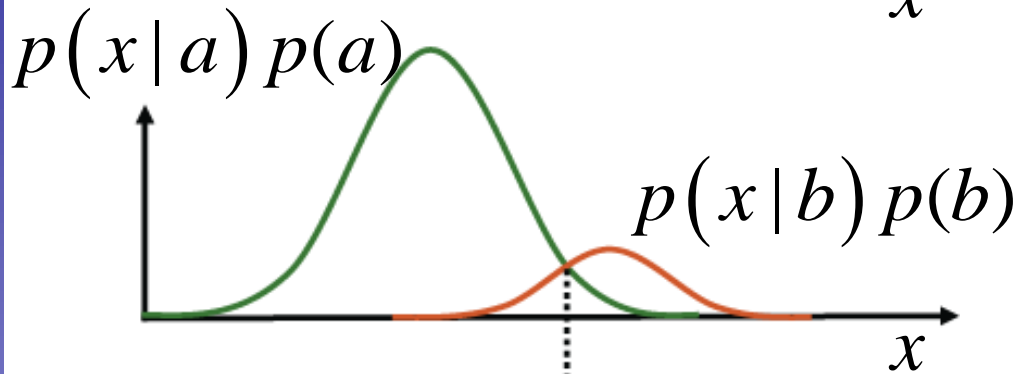
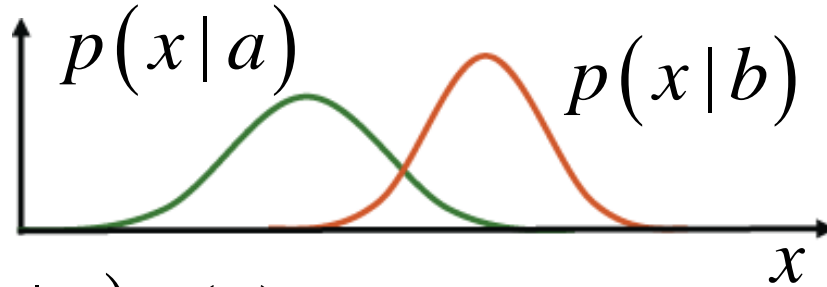
- Bayes' Theorem:

$$p(C_k | x) = \frac{p(x | C_k) p(C_k)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | C_k) p(C_k)}{\sum_i p(x | C_i) p(C_i)}$$

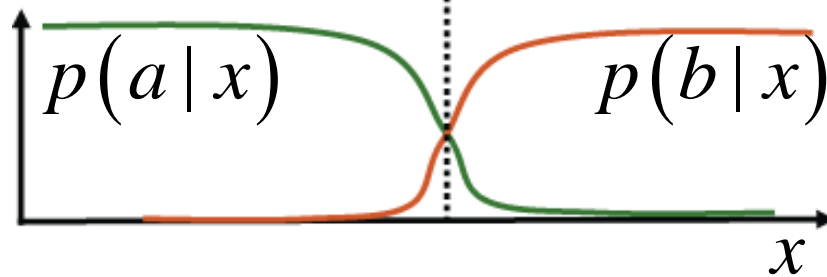
- Interpretation

$$\textit{Posterior} = \frac{\textit{Likelihood} \times \textit{Prior}}{\textit{Normalization Factor}}$$

Bayes Decision Theory



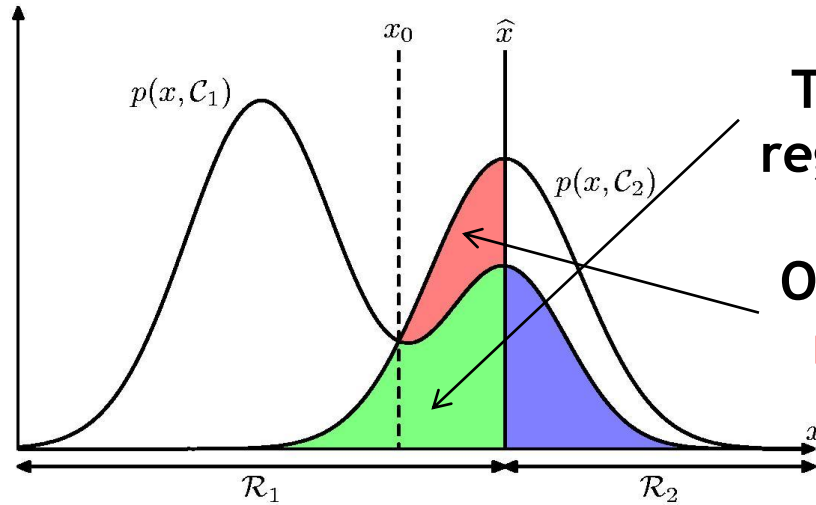
Decision boundary



$$\text{Posterior} = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \times \text{Prior}}{\text{NormalizationFactor}}$$

Bayesian Decision Theory

- Goal: **Minimize the probability of a misclassification**



The **green** and **blue** regions stay constant.

Only the size of the **red** region varies!

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(\text{mistake}) &= p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_1, C_2) + p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_2, C_1) \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(\mathbf{x}, C_2) d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(\mathbf{x}, C_1) d\mathbf{x}. \\
 &= \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(C_2|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(C_1|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x}
 \end{aligned}$$

Bayes Decision Theory

- Optimal decision rule

- Decide for \mathcal{C}_1 if

$$p(\mathcal{C}_1|x) > p(\mathcal{C}_2|x)$$

- This is equivalent to

$$p(x|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1) > p(x|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)$$

- Which is again equivalent to (**Likelihood-Ratio test**)

$$\frac{p(x|\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(x|\mathcal{C}_2)} > \underbrace{\frac{p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{p(\mathcal{C}_1)}}_{\text{Decision threshold } \theta}$$

Decision threshold θ

Generalization to More Than 2 Classes

- Decide for class k whenever it has the greatest posterior probability of all classes:

$$p(\mathcal{C}_k|x) > p(\mathcal{C}_j|x) \quad \forall j \neq k$$

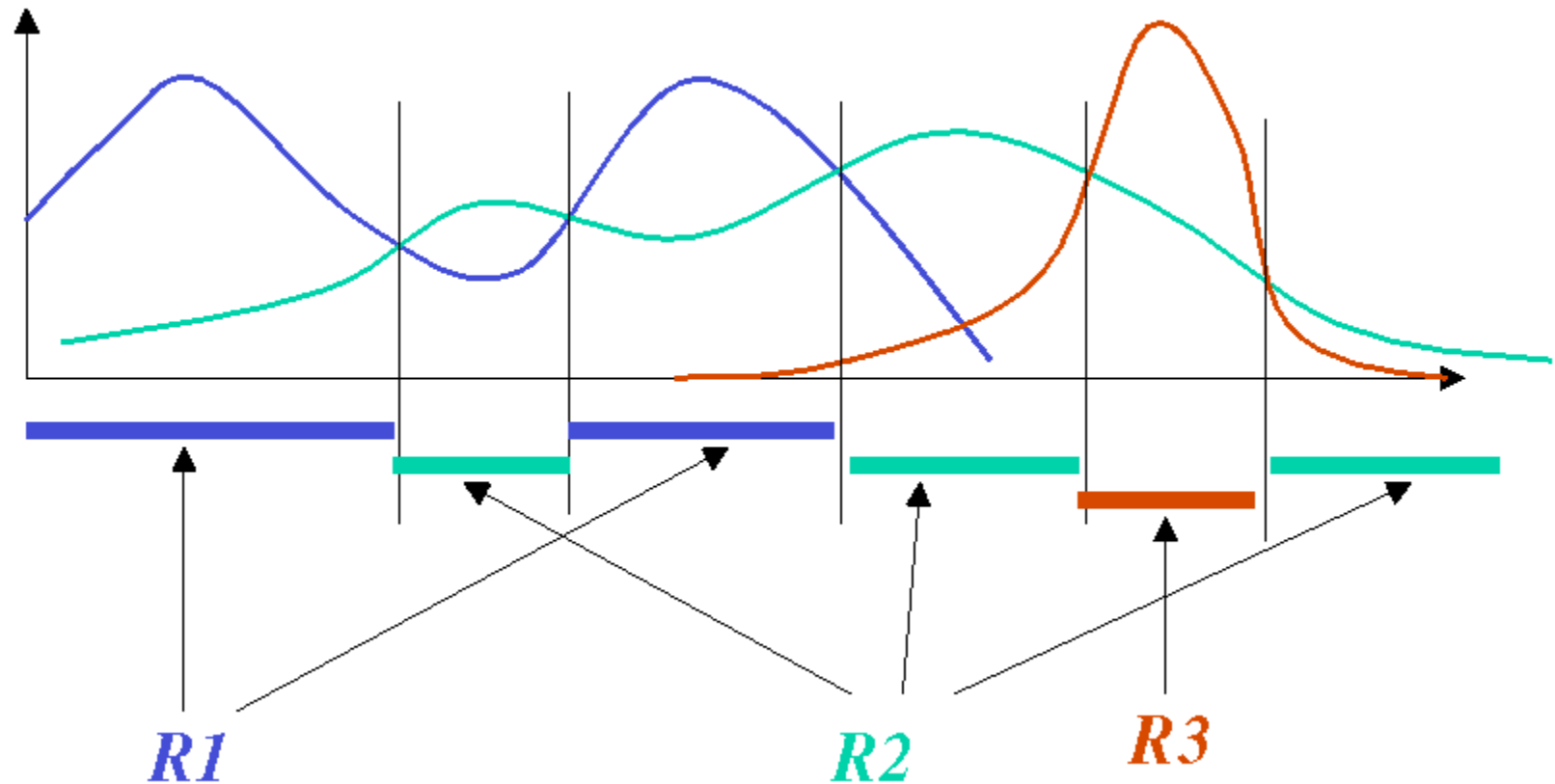
$$p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k) > p(x|\mathcal{C}_j)p(\mathcal{C}_j) \quad \forall j \neq k$$

- **Likelihood-ratio test**

$$\frac{p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)}{p(x|\mathcal{C}_j)} > \frac{p(\mathcal{C}_j)}{p(\mathcal{C}_k)} \quad \forall j \neq k$$

Bayes Decision Theory

- Decision regions: $\mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{R}_2, \mathcal{R}_3, \dots$



Classifying with Loss Functions

- Generalization to decisions with a **loss function**
 - Differentiate between the possible decisions and the possible true classes.
 - Example: medical diagnosis
 - Decisions: diagnosis is *sick* or *healthy*
(or: *further examination necessary*)
 - Classes: patient is *sick* or *healthy*
 - The cost may be asymmetric:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{loss}(\text{decision} = \text{healthy} | \text{patient} = \text{sick}) &>> \\ \text{loss}(\text{decision} = \text{sick} | \text{patient} = \text{healthy}) \end{aligned}$$

Classifying with Loss Functions

- In general, we can formalize this by introducing a loss matrix L_{kj}

$L_{kj} = \text{loss for decision } C_j \text{ if truth is } C_k.$

- Example: cancer diagnosis

$$L_{\text{cancer diagnosis}} = \begin{array}{c} \text{Truth} \\ \text{cancer} \\ \text{normal} \end{array} \begin{array}{cc} \text{Decision} \\ \text{cancer} & \text{normal} \\ \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1000 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array} \right) \end{array}$$

Classifying with Loss Functions

- Loss functions may be different for different actors.

➤ Example:

$$L_{stocktrader}(subprime) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} \text{"invest"} & \text{"don't} \\ & \text{invest"} \end{matrix} \\ \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2}C_{gain} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



$$L_{bank}(subprime) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} -\frac{1}{2}C_{gain} & 0 \\ \text{skull and crossbones} & 0 \end{matrix} \end{matrix}$$



⇒ Different loss functions may lead to different Bayes optimal strategies.

Minimizing the Expected Loss

- Optimal solution is the one that minimizes the loss.
 - But: loss function depends on the true class, which is unknown.
- Solution: **Minimize the expected loss**

$$\mathbb{E}[L] = \sum_k \sum_j \int_{\mathcal{R}_j} L_{kj} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_k) d\mathbf{x}$$

- This can be done by choosing the regions \mathcal{R}_j such that

$$\mathbb{E}[L] = \sum_k L_{kj} p(\mathcal{C}_k | \mathbf{x})$$

which is easy to do once we know the posterior class probabilities $p(\mathcal{C}_k | \mathbf{x})$.

Minimizing the Expected Loss

- **Example:**

- **2 Classes:** C_1, C_2
- **2 Decision:** α_1, α_2
- **Loss function:** $L(\alpha_j | C_k) = L_{kj}$

- **Expected loss (= risk R) for the two decisions:**

$$\mathbb{E}_{\alpha_1}[L] = R(\alpha_1 | \mathbf{x}) = L_{11}p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) + L_{21}p(C_2 | \mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\alpha_2}[L] = R(\alpha_2 | \mathbf{x}) = L_{12}p(C_1 | \mathbf{x}) + L_{22}p(C_2 | \mathbf{x})$$

- **Goal: Decide such that expected loss is minimized**

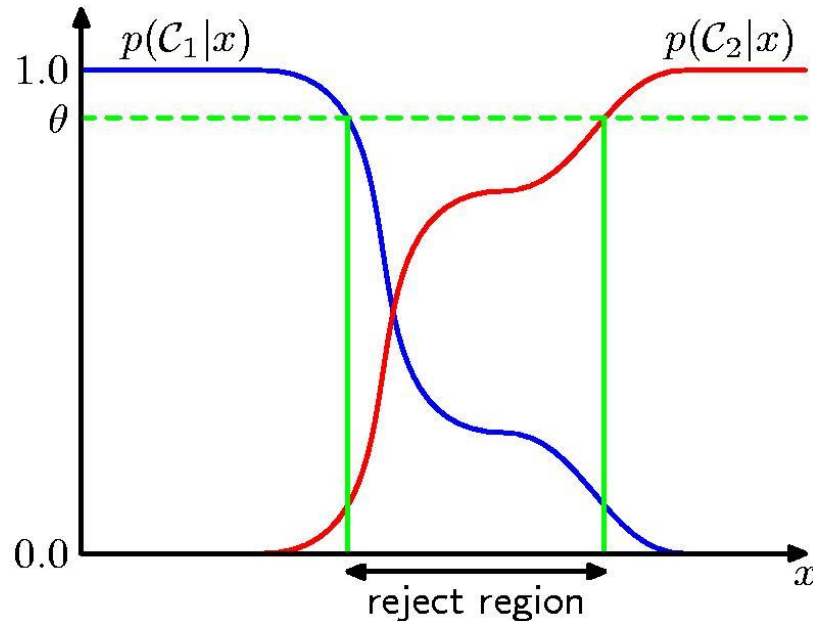
- **I.e. decide α_1 if $R(\alpha_2 | \mathbf{x}) > R(\alpha_1 | \mathbf{x})$**

Minimizing the Expected Loss

$$\begin{aligned}R(\alpha_2|\mathbf{x}) &> R(\alpha_1|\mathbf{x}) \\L_{12}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{22}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) &> L_{11}p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) + L_{21}p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) \\(L_{12} - L_{11})p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) &> (L_{21} - L_{22})p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x}) \\\frac{(L_{12} - L_{11})}{(L_{21} - L_{22})} &> \frac{p(\mathcal{C}_2|\mathbf{x})}{p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)} \\\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)} &> \frac{(L_{21} - L_{22}) p(\mathcal{C}_2)}{(L_{12} - L_{11}) p(\mathcal{C}_1)}\end{aligned}$$

⇒ Adapted decision rule taking into account the loss.

The Reject Option



- **Classification errors arise from regions where the largest posterior probability $p(\mathcal{C}_k | \mathbf{x})$ is significantly less than 1.**
 - These are the regions where we are relatively uncertain about class membership.
 - For some applications, it may be better to reject the automatic decision entirely in such a case and e.g. consult a human expert.

Discriminant Functions

- Formulate classification in terms of comparisons

- Discriminant functions

$$y_1(x), \dots, y_K(x)$$

- Classify x as class C_k if

$$y_k(x) > y_j(x) \quad \forall j \neq k$$

- Examples (Bayes Decision Theory)

$$y_k(x) = p(C_k|x)$$

$$y_k(x) = p(x|C_k)p(C_k)$$

$$y_k(x) = \log p(x|C_k) + \log p(C_k)$$

Different Views on the Decision Problem

- $y_k(x) \propto p(x|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k)$
 - First determine the class-conditional densities for each class individually and separately infer the prior class probabilities.
 - Then use Bayes' theorem to determine class membership.

⇒ *Generative methods*
- $y_k(x) = p(\mathcal{C}_k|x)$
 - First solve the inference problem of determining the posterior class probabilities.
 - Then use decision theory to assign each new x to its class.

⇒ *Discriminative methods*
- **Alternative**
 - Directly find a discriminant function $y_k(x)$ which maps each input x directly onto a class label.

Topics of This Lecture

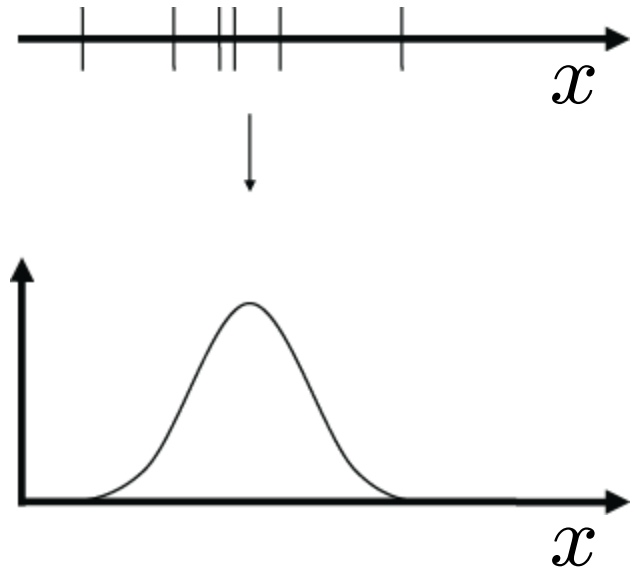
- Bayes Decision Theory
 - Basic concepts
 - Minimizing the misclassification rate
 - Minimizing the expected loss
 - Discriminant functions
- **Probability Density Estimation**
 - **General concepts**
 - **Gaussian distribution**
- Parametric Methods
 - Maximum Likelihood approach
 - Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability
 - Bayesian Learning

Probability Density Estimation

- Up to now
 - Bayes optimal classification
 - Based on the probabilities $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)p(\mathcal{C}_k)$
- How can we estimate (=learn) those probability densities?
 - Supervised training case: data and class labels are known.
 - Estimate the probability density for each class \mathcal{C}_k separately:
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_k)$$
 - (For simplicity of notation, we will drop the class label \mathcal{C}_k in the following.)

Probability Density Estimation

- **Data:** $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots$
- **Estimate:** $p(x)$
- **Methods**
 - Parametric representations
 - Non-parametric representations
 - Mixture models (next lecture)

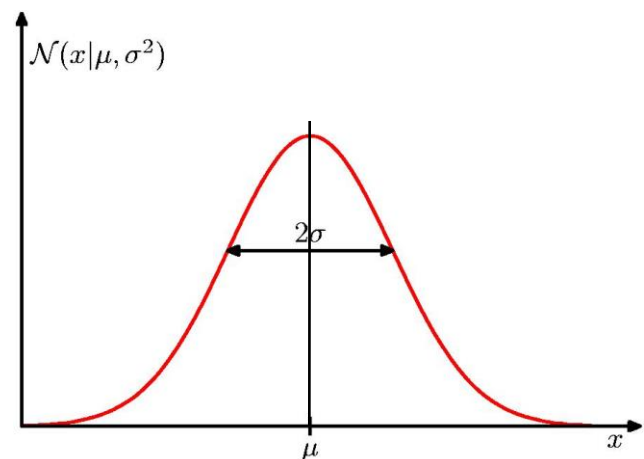


The Gaussian (or Normal) Distribution

- One-dimensional case

- Mean μ
- Variance σ^2

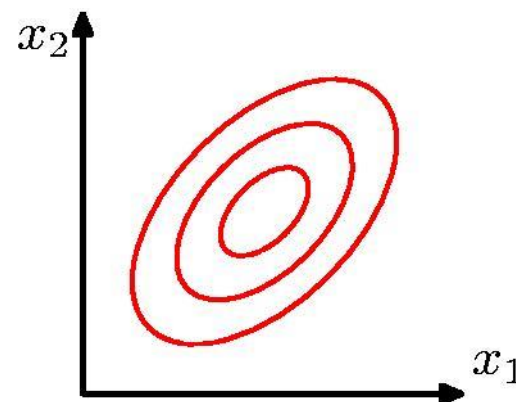
$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$



- Multi-dimensional case

- Mean μ
- Covariance Σ

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu) \right\}$$

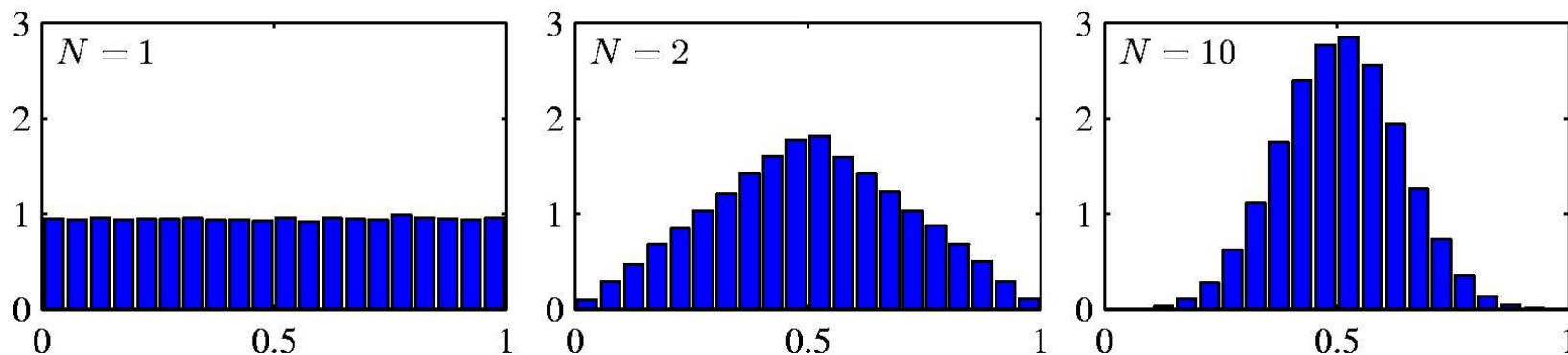


Gaussian Distribution - Properties

- Central Limit Theorem

- “The distribution of the sum of N i.i.d. random variables becomes increasingly Gaussian as N grows.”
- In practice, the convergence to a Gaussian can be very rapid.
- This makes the Gaussian interesting for many applications.

- Example: N uniform $[0, 1]$ random variables.



Gaussian Distribution - Properties

• Quadratic Form

- \mathcal{N} depends on \mathbf{x} through the exponent

$$\Delta^2 = (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

- Here, Δ is often called the **Mahalanobis distance** from $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ to \mathbf{x} .

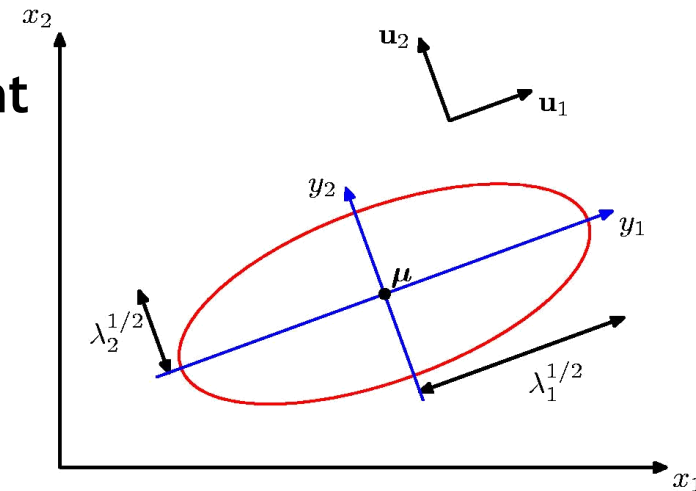
• Shape of the Gaussian

- $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a real, symmetric matrix.
- We can therefore decompose it into its eigenvectors

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \sum_{i=1}^D \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^D \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T$$

and thus obtain $\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^D \frac{y_i^2}{\lambda_i}$ with $y_i = \mathbf{u}_i^T (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$.

⇒ **Constant density on ellipsoids** with main directions along the eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i and scaling factors $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$.



Gaussian Distribution - Properties

- Special cases

- Full covariance matrix

$$\Sigma = [\sigma_{ij}]$$

⇒ General ellipsoid shape

- Diagonal covariance matrix

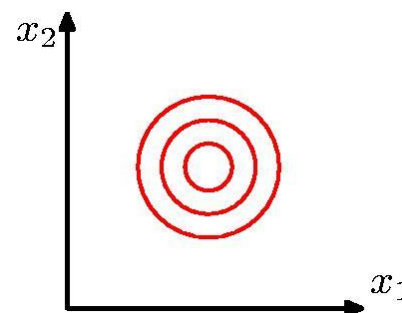
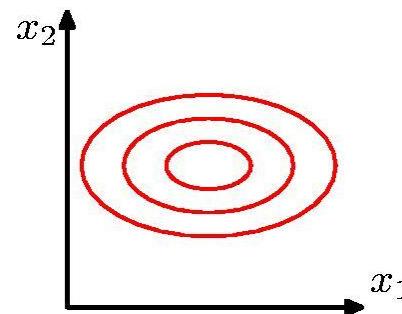
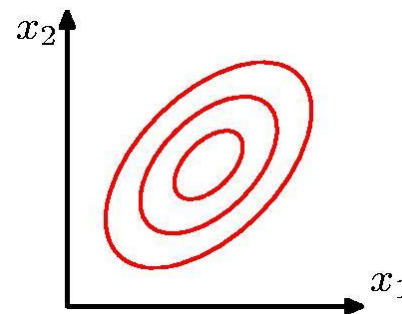
$$\Sigma = \text{diag}\{\sigma_i\}$$

⇒ Axis-aligned ellipsoid

- Uniform variance

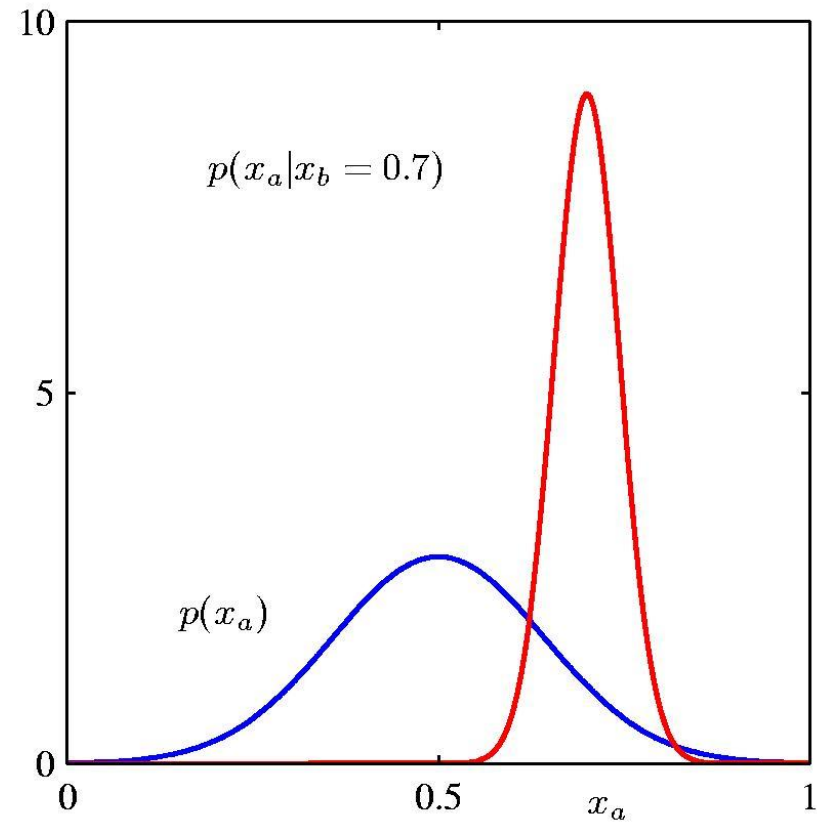
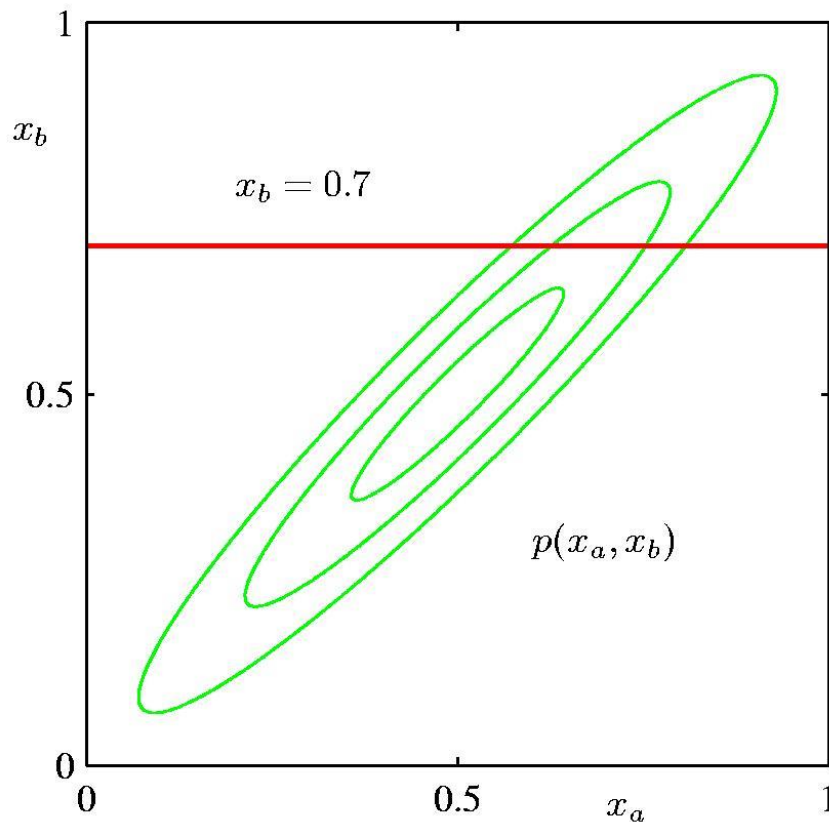
$$\Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$$

⇒ Hypersphere



Gaussian Distribution - Properties

- The marginals of a Gaussian are again Gaussians:



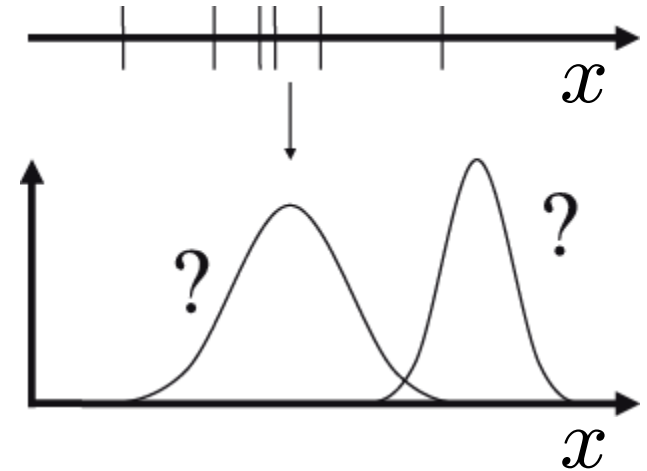
Topics of This Lecture

- Bayes Decision Theory
 - Basic concepts
 - Minimizing the misclassification rate
 - Minimizing the expected loss
 - Discriminant functions
- Probability Density Estimation
 - General concepts
 - Gaussian distribution
- **Parametric Methods**
 - **Maximum Likelihood approach**
 - **Bayesian vs. Frequentist views on probability**
 - **Bayesian Learning**

Parametric Methods

- **Given**

- Data $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$
- Parametric form of the distribution with parameters θ
- E.g. for Gaussian distrib.: $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$



- **Learning**

- Estimation of the parameters θ

- **Likelihood of θ**

- Probability that the data X have indeed been generated from a probability density with parameters θ

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta)$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Computation of the likelihood**

- **Single data point:** $p(x_n|\theta)$
- **Assumption:** all data points are independent

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(x_n|\theta)$$

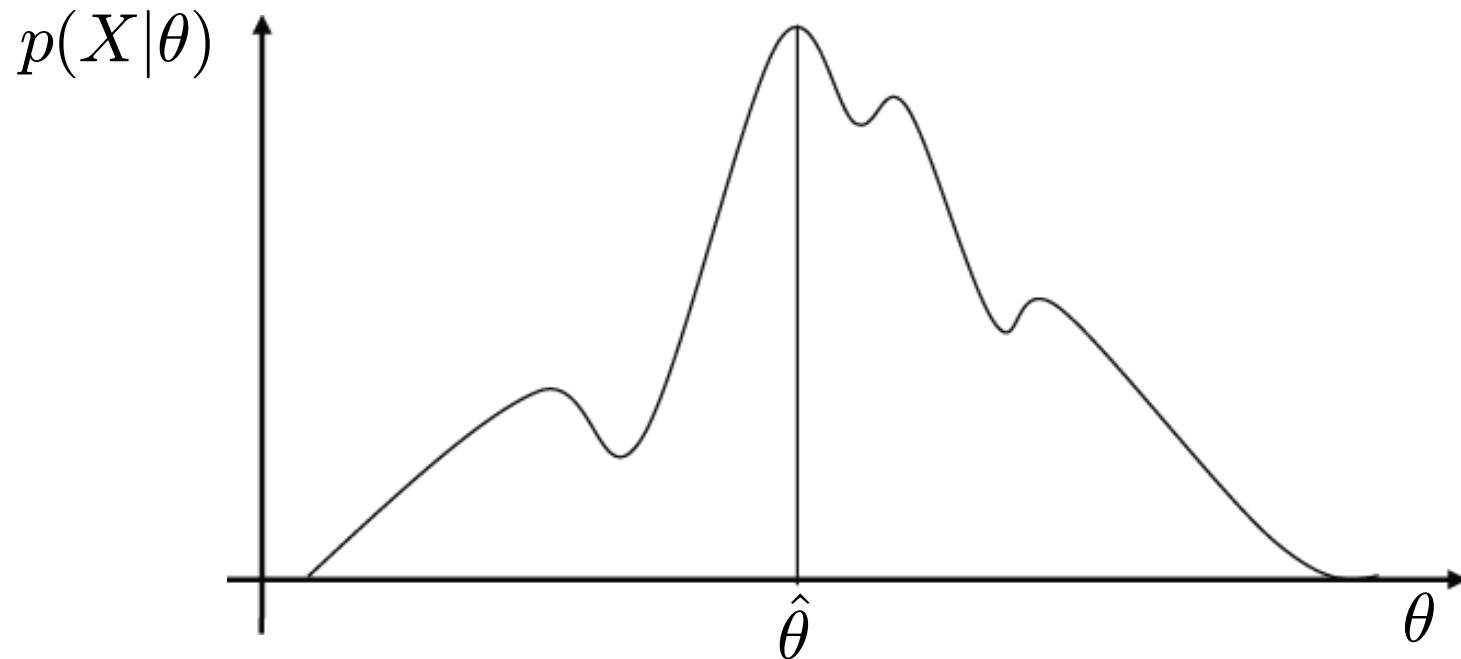
- **Log-likelihood**

$$E(\theta) = -\ln L(\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^N \ln p(x_n|\theta)$$

- **Estimation of the parameters θ (Learning)**
 - Maximize the likelihood
 - Minimize the negative log-likelihood

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Likelihood:** $L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(x_n|\theta)$
- We want to obtain $\hat{\theta}$ such that $L(\hat{\theta})$ is maximized.



Maximum Likelihood Approach

- **Minimizing the log-likelihood**

- How do we minimize a function?

- ⇒ Take the derivative and set it to zero.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} E(\theta) = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \ln p(x_n | \theta) = - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(x_n | \theta)}{p(x_n | \theta)} \stackrel{!}{=} 0$$

- **Log-likelihood for Normal distribution (1D case)**

$$\begin{aligned} E(\theta) &= - \sum_{n=1}^N \ln p(x_n | \mu, \sigma) \\ &= - \sum_{n=1}^N \ln \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp \left\{ - \frac{\|x_n - \mu\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- Minimizing the log-likelihood

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} E(\mu, \sigma) = - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} p(x_n | \mu, \sigma)}{p(x_n | \mu, \sigma)}$$

$$= - \sum_{n=1}^N - \frac{2(x_n - \mu)}{2\sigma^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \mu)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left(\sum_{n=1}^N x_n - N\mu \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} E(\mu, \sigma) \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$$

$$p(x_n | \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{\|x_n - \mu\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- We thus obtain

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$$

“sample mean”

- In a similar fashion, we get

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

“sample variance”

- $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})$ is the **Maximum Likelihood estimate** for the parameters of a Gaussian distribution.
- This is a very important result.
- Unfortunately, it is wrong...

Maximum Likelihood Approach

- Or not wrong, but rather **biased**...
- Assume the samples x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N come from a true Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2
 - We can now compute the expectations of the ML estimates with respect to the data set values. It can be shown that

$$\mathbb{E}(\mu_{\text{ML}}) = \mu$$
$$\mathbb{E}(\sigma_{\text{ML}}^2) = \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right) \sigma^2$$

⇒ The ML estimate will underestimate the true variance.

- **Corrected estimate:**

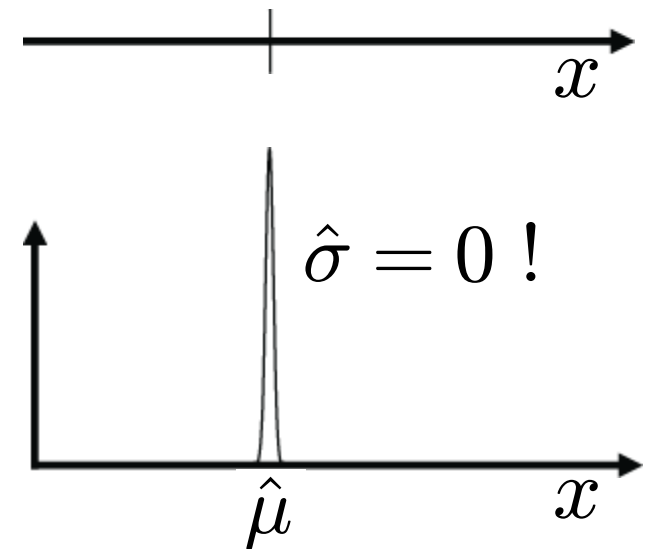
$$\tilde{\sigma}^2 = \frac{N}{N-1} \sigma_{\text{ML}}^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \hat{\mu})^2$$

Maximum Likelihood - Limitations

- Maximum Likelihood has several significant limitations
 - It systematically underestimates the variance of the distribution!
 - E.g. consider the case

$$N = 1, X = \{x_1\}$$

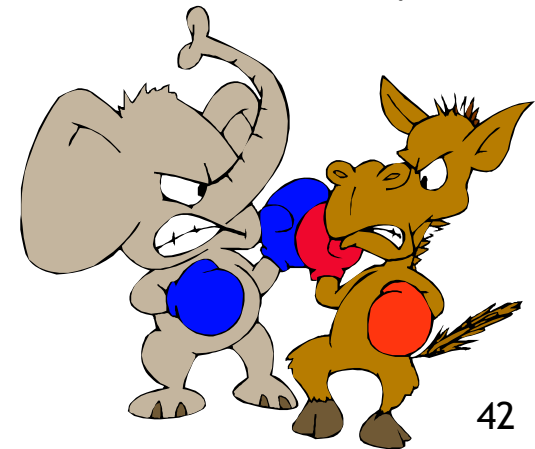
⇒ Maximum-likelihood estimate:



- We say *ML overfits to the observed data*.
- We will still often use ML, but it is important to know about this effect.

Deeper Reason

- **Maximum Likelihood is a Frequentist concept**
 - In the **Frequentist view**, probabilities are the frequencies of random, repeatable events.
 - These frequencies are fixed, but can be estimated more precisely when more data is available.
- **This is in contrast to the Bayesian interpretation**
 - In the **Bayesian view**, probabilities quantify the uncertainty about certain states or events.
 - This uncertainty can be revised in the light of new evidence.
- **Bayesians and Frequentists do not like each other too well...**



Bayesian vs. Frequentist View

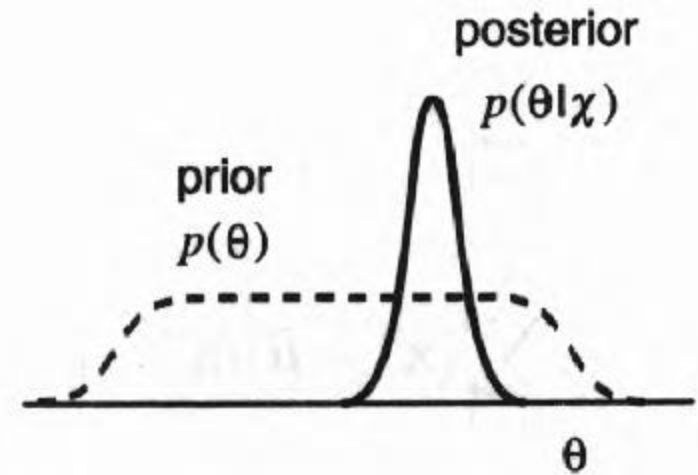
- To see the difference...
 - Suppose we want to estimate the uncertainty whether the Arctic ice cap will have disappeared by the end of the century.
 - This question makes no sense in a Frequentist view, since the event cannot be repeated numerous times.
 - In the Bayesian view, we generally have a prior, e.g. from calculations how fast the polar ice is melting.
 - If we now get fresh evidence, e.g. from a new satellite, we may revise our opinion and update the uncertainty from the prior.

$$\textit{Posterior} \propto \textit{Likelihood} \times \textit{Prior}$$

- This generally allows to get better uncertainty estimates for many situations.
- Main Frequentist criticism
 - The prior has to come from somewhere and if it is wrong, the result will be worse.

Bayesian Approach to Parameter Learning

- **Conceptual shift**
 - Maximum Likelihood views the true parameter vector θ to be unknown, but fixed.
 - In Bayesian learning, we consider θ to be a random variable.
- This allows us to use knowledge about the parameters θ
 - i.e. to use a prior for θ
 - Training data then converts this prior distribution on θ into a posterior probability density.
- The prior thus encodes knowledge we have about the type of distribution we expect to see for θ .



Bayesian Learning Approach

- Bayesian view:

- Consider the parameter vector θ as a random variable.
- When estimating the parameters, what we compute is

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x, \theta|X) d\theta$$

Assumption: given θ , this doesn't depend on X anymore

$$p(x, \theta|X) = p(x|\theta, \cancel{X})p(\theta|X)$$

$$p(x|X) = \int \underbrace{p(x|\theta)} p(\theta|X) d\theta$$

This is entirely determined by the parameter θ (i.e. by the parametric form of the pdf).

Bayesian Learning Approach

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta$$

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)} = \frac{p(\theta)}{p(X)}L(\theta)$$

$$p(X) = \int p(X|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta = \int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$$

- **Inserting this above, we obtain**

$$p(x|X) = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)}d\theta = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}d\theta$$

Bayesian Learning Approach

- Discussion

Likelihood of the parametric form θ given the data set X .

Estimate for x based on parametric form θ

Prior for the parameters θ

$$p(x|X) = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta} d\theta$$

Normalization: integrate over all possible values of θ

- If we now plug in a (suitable) prior $p(\theta)$, we can estimate $p(x|X)$ from the data set X .

Bayesian Density Estimation

- Discussion

$$p(x|X) = \int p(x|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta = \int \frac{p(x|\theta)L(\theta)p(\theta)}{\int L(\theta)p(\theta)d\theta}d\theta$$

- The probability $p(\theta|X)$ makes the dependency of the estimate on the data explicit.
- If $p(\theta|X)$ is very small everywhere, but is large for one $\hat{\theta}$, then

$$p(x|X) \approx p(x|\hat{\theta})$$

⇒ The more uncertain we are about θ , the more we average over all parameter values.

Bayesian Density Estimation

- **Problem**

- In the general case, the integration over θ is not possible (or only possible stochastically).

- **Example where an analytical solution is possible**

- Normal distribution for the data, σ^2 assumed known and fixed.
- Estimate the distribution of the mean:

$$p(\mu|X) = \frac{p(X|\mu)p(\mu)}{p(X)}$$

- **Prior:** We assume a Gaussian prior over μ ,

$$p(\mu) = \mathcal{N}(\mu|\mu_0, \sigma_0^2).$$

Bayesian Learning Approach

- **Sample mean:** $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$

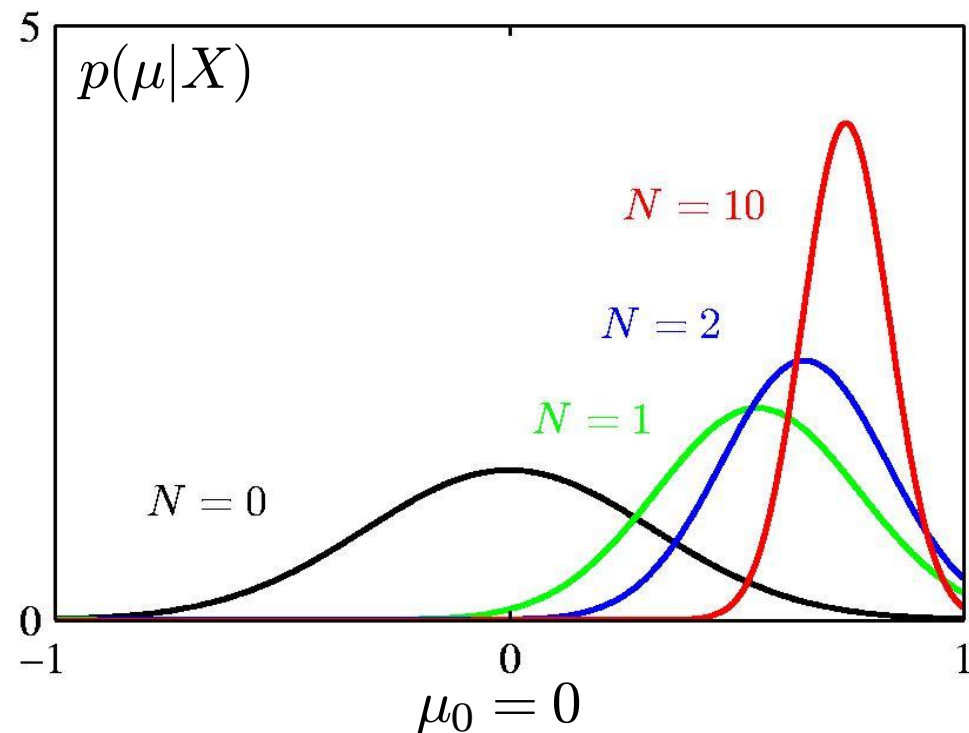
- **Bayes estimate:**

$$\mu_N = \frac{\sigma^2 \mu_0 + N \sigma_0^2 \bar{x}}{\sigma^2 + N \sigma_0^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2}$$

- **Note:**

	$N = 0$	$N \rightarrow \infty$
μ_N	μ_0	μ_{ML}
σ_N^2	σ_0^2	0



Summary: ML vs. Bayesian Learning

- **Maximum Likelihood**

- Simple approach, often analytically possible.
- Problem: estimation is biased, tends to overfit to the data.
 - ⇒ Often needs some correction or regularization.
- But:
 - Approximation gets accurate for $N \rightarrow \infty$.

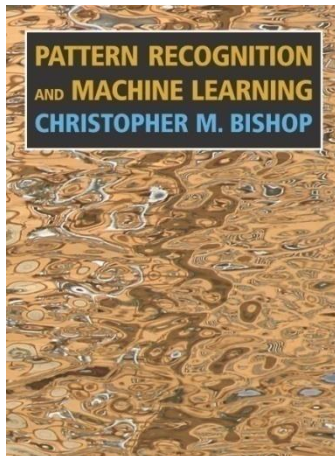
- **Bayesian Learning**

- General approach, avoids the estimation bias through a prior.
- Problems:
 - Need to choose a suitable prior (not always obvious).
 - Integral over θ often not analytically feasible anymore.
- But:
 - Efficient stochastic sampling techniques available (see Lecture 15).

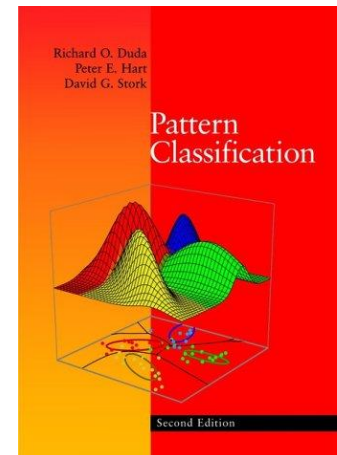
(In this lecture, we'll use both concepts wherever appropriate)

References and Further Reading

- **More information in Bishop's book**
 - Gaussian distribution and ML: Ch. 1.2.4 and 2.3.1-2.3.4.
 - Bayesian Learning: Ch. 1.2.3 and 2.3.6.
 - Nonparametric methods: Ch. 2.5.
- **Additional information can be found in Duda & Hart**
 - ML estimation: Ch. 3.2
 - Bayesian Learning: Ch. 3.3-3.5
 - Nonparametric methods: Ch. 4.1-4.5



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2nd Ed., Wiley-Interscience, 2000

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