

*An Introduction to  
Statistical Machine Learning  
- Classical Models -*

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# Classical Models

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1. Parametric or Not?
2. Histograms
3. Problem: Curse of Dimensionality
4. K Nearest Neighbors
5. Parzen Windows
6. Maximum Likelihood Approach
7. Bayes Decision and Bayes Classifiers
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# Parametric or Not?

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- The space  $\mathcal{F}$  is often characterized to be **parametric** or not.
- **Parametric**: the space is very small, and characterized by a small number of parameters.
  - examples: a Gaussian distribution or a linear function
  - big prior on the solution
- **Non-Parametric**: the space is infinite, constrained only by the training data
  - examples: K nearest neighbors, Parzen Windows
  - small prior on the solution
- **Semi-Parametric**:
  - examples: most machine learning algorithms!
  - small prior on the solution, characterized by a large number of parameters

# Histograms

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- For classification or regression:  $z = (x, y)$
- Let  $x$  be a  $k$ -dimensional vector
- For each dimension  $d$ , divide the possible values  $x_d$  into  $m_d$  bins
- Total number of bins =  $\prod_{d=1}^k m_d$
- **Model**: compute average value (on the training set) of  $\hat{y}$  corresponding to each bin
- **Test**: given a new example  $x$ , select the corresponding bin and output the associated  $\hat{y}$
- Can be extended to **classification** and **density estimation**.
- Capacity controlled by the **total number of bins**.

# Histograms (Graphical View)

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- $x = \{x_1, x_2\}$
- estimated value of  $\hat{y}$ :

	$x_1 < 5$	$5 \leq x_1 < 7$	$7 \leq x_1$
$x_2 = \text{red}$	$\hat{y} = -3.2$	$\hat{y} = 1.5$	$\hat{y} = 3.2$
$x_2 = \text{blue}$	$\hat{y} = -3.2$	$\hat{y} = 0.1$	$\hat{y} = 0.37$

# Problem: The Curse of Dimensionality (1)

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- First view: **combinatorial explosion**
  - What happens when the number of input dimensions grows?
  - The number of bins grows **exponentially** faster!
  - Most bins will get **no representative** training example
  - How can we estimate a new example that is in one of those bins????
  - In fact, even the bins with some training examples are probably not correctly estimated...

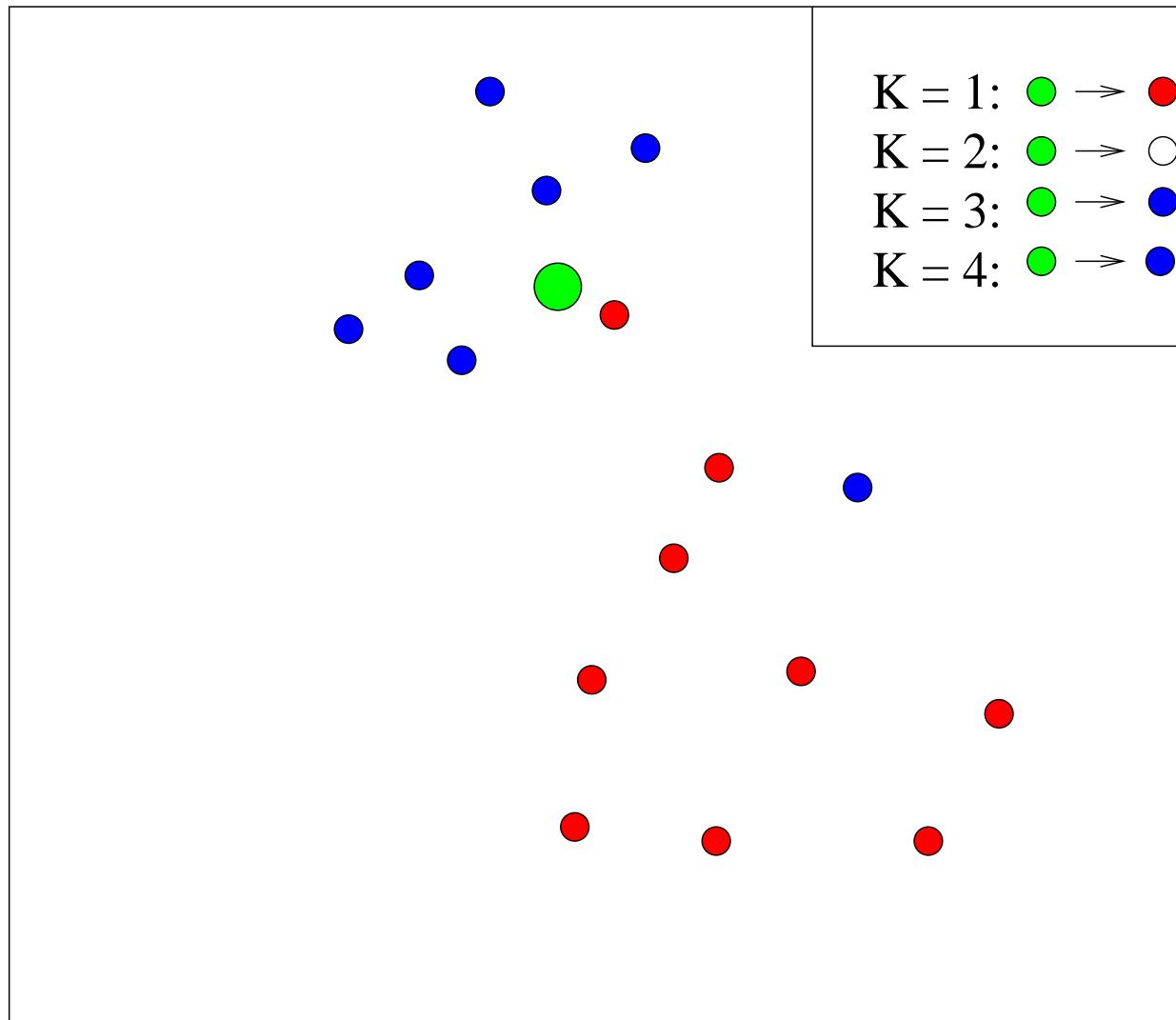
# K Nearest Neighbors

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- Very simple method, **no training necessary**
- Needed:
  - a training set  $D_n = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$  with  $z_i = (x_i, y_i)$
  - a distance function  $L(x_1, x_2)$ . For instance,  $(x_1 - x_2)^2$
  - a parameter  $K$
- For each test point  $x$ 
  - **select** in  $D_n$  the  $K$  examples that are nearest to  $x$  according to  $L(x, x_i)$  and keep their index (from  $D_n$ ) in  $\{s_1, \dots, s_K\}$
  - **decision:**
    - regression:  $\hat{y} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K y_{s_i}$
    - classification:  $\hat{y} = \text{sign} \left( \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K y_{s_i} \right)$
- Capacity controlled by  $K$ .

# K-NN (Graphical View)

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# KNN - Some Remarks

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- What does it mean to be **nearest** to an example?
- Often used metric: **Euclidean distance**

$$d = \sqrt{\sum_i (x_i - t_i)^2}$$

- For KNN,  $\sqrt{\cdot}$  is not necessary
- How to select  $K$  ???
- Reminder:  $K$  controls the **capacity**...
- Hence, we can use a **model selection** technique

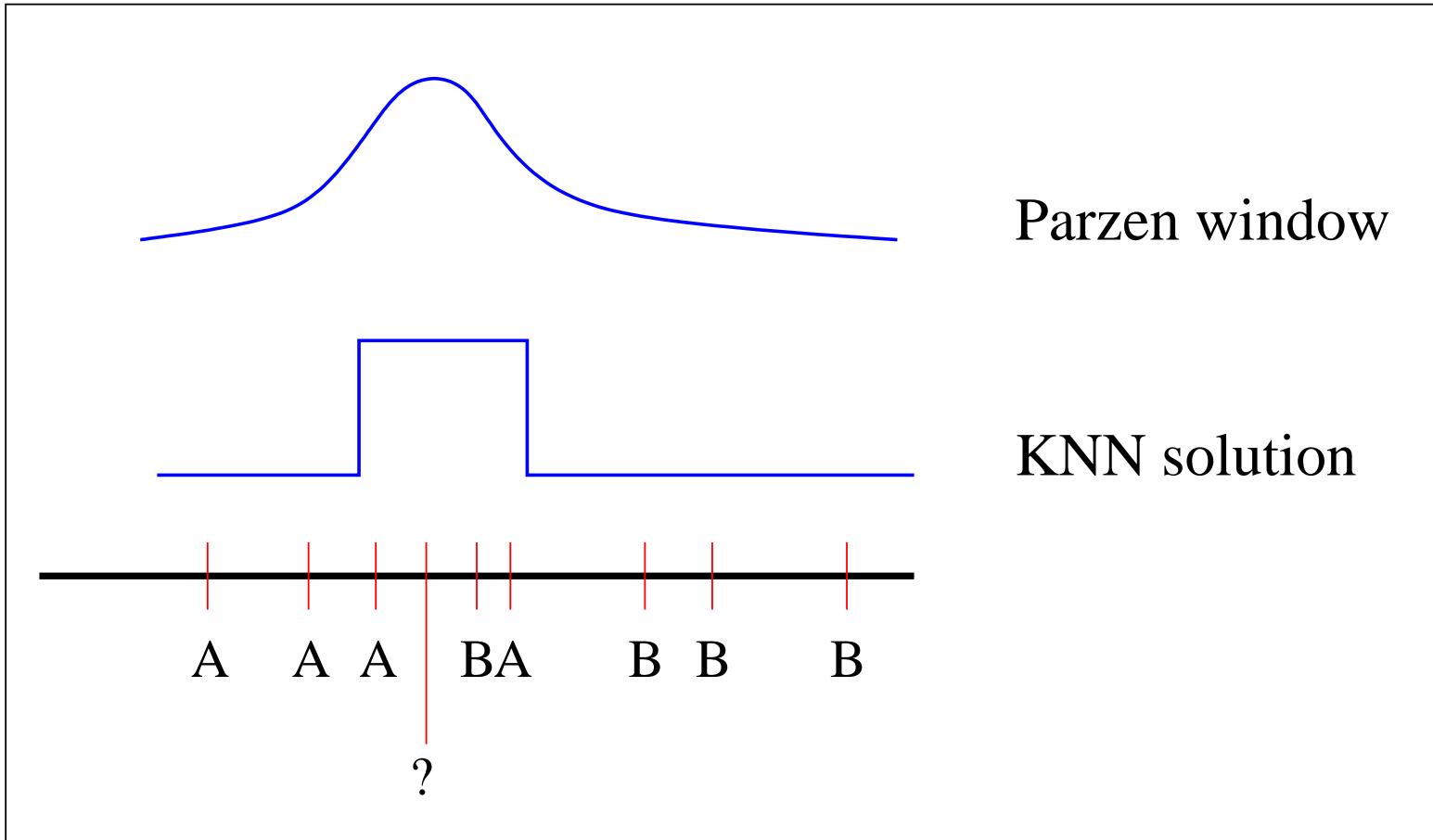
# Problem: The Curse of Dimensionality (2)

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- Second view: Euclidean distance
  - In high dimensional spaces, the Euclidean distance between any two random points **converges to the same value!**
  - Moreover, all points are at the boundary of the hypersphere containing the points.
  - Hence, all methods based on such distance are bound to work on small dimensions only.

# KNN versus Parzen Windows

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# Parzen Windows

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- Very simple method, **no training necessary**
- Needed:
  - a training set  $D_n = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$  with  $z_i = (x_i, y_i)$
  - a kernel function  $K(x_1, x_2)$ . For instance,  $\exp(-\frac{\|x_1 - x_2\|^2}{2\sigma^2})$
- For each test point  $x$  (or  $z$  for density estimate)
  - **decision:**
$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_i K(x, x_i)$$
  - regression:  $\hat{y} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i K(x, x_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K(x, x_i)}$
  - classification:  $\hat{y} = \text{sign}(\text{regression estimate})$
  - density estimate:  $\hat{p}(z) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} K(x, x_i)$
- Capacity controlled by  $\sigma$

# Maximum Likelihood for Density Estimation

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- Given a set of examples  $D_n = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$
- Objective: find a distribution  $p(Z)$  that **maximizes the likelihood** of future data
- Select a set of distributions  $p(Z|\theta)$  with parameters  $\theta$ .
- The likelihood of  $D_n$  (all examples are **iid**):

$$\mathcal{L}(D_n|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(z_i|\theta)$$

Hence we search for:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta^* &= \arg \max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1}^n p(z_i|\theta) \\ &= \arg \min_{\theta} - \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(z_i|\theta)\end{aligned}$$

# Maximum Likelihood for Gaussians

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- Family of one-dimensional Gaussians with  $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma\}$

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

- Maximum likelihood solution:

- $\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i$

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

# Bayes Decision

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- Classification:  $z = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, 1\}$
- Given: **true posterior distribution**  $P(Y|X = x)$
- It can be shown that the decision

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} P(Y = i|X = x)$$

is optimal in the sense that it **minimizes** the number of classification **errors**.

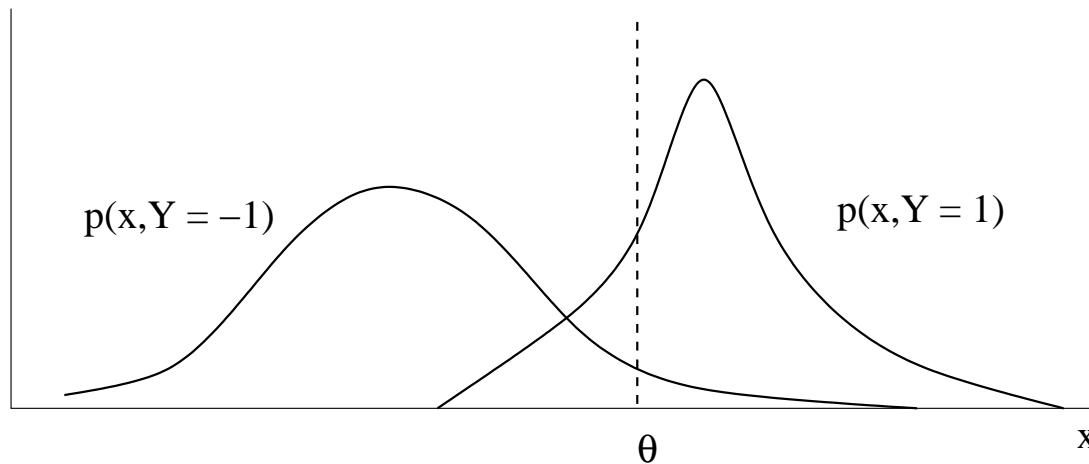
- This decision corresponds to the **class maximum a posteriori** (MAP) criterion

# Why Class MAP Minimizes Error?

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$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y} &= \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} P(Y = i | X = x) \\ &= \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} \frac{p(x | Y = i) \cdot P(Y = i)}{p(x)} \\ &= \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} p(x | Y = i) \cdot P(Y = i) \\ &= \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} p(x, Y = i)\end{aligned}$$

- Let us select a threshold for all our decisions  $x = \theta$ .



# Why Class MAP Minimizes Error?

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- The probabilities of error are

$$\begin{aligned} p(\text{error} | x > \theta, Y = -1) &= 1 - p(x > \theta, Y = -1) \\ &= \int_{x < \theta} p(x, Y = -1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\text{error} | x < \theta, Y = 1) &= 1 - p(x < \theta, Y = 1) \\ &= \int_{x > \theta} p(x, Y = 1) \end{aligned}$$

- Which  $\theta$  corresponds to the *break-even* point?

$$p(x > \theta, Y = -1) = p(x < \theta, Y = 1) \implies$$

$$p(x, Y = -1) = p(x, Y = 1)$$

# Bayes Classifiers

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- Goal: take the decision based on the MAP criterion:

$$\hat{y} = \arg \max_{i \in \{1, -1\}} p(x|Y = i) \cdot P(Y = i)$$

- Hence, you need to estimate:
  - the conditional density  $p(x|Y = i)$  for each class  $i$
  - the class prior  $P(Y = i)$  for each class  $i$
- Good: each class is estimated independently
- Bad: you learn unnecessary relations
- This technique is nevertheless often used in speech processing

# Clustering by K-Means

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- Given a set of examples  $D_n = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$
- Search for  $K$  prototypes  $\mu_k$  of disjoint subsets  $S_k$  of  $D_n$  in order to minimize

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j \in S_k} \sum_i (z_j^i - \mu_k^i)^2$$

where  $z_j^i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  coordinate of example  $z_j$ , and  $\mu_k$  is the mean of the examples in subset  $S_k$ :

$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{|S_k|} \sum_{j \in S_k} z_j$$

- We could also use another distance metric than Euclidean... (as long as it is a true distance!)

# Batch and Stochastic K-Means

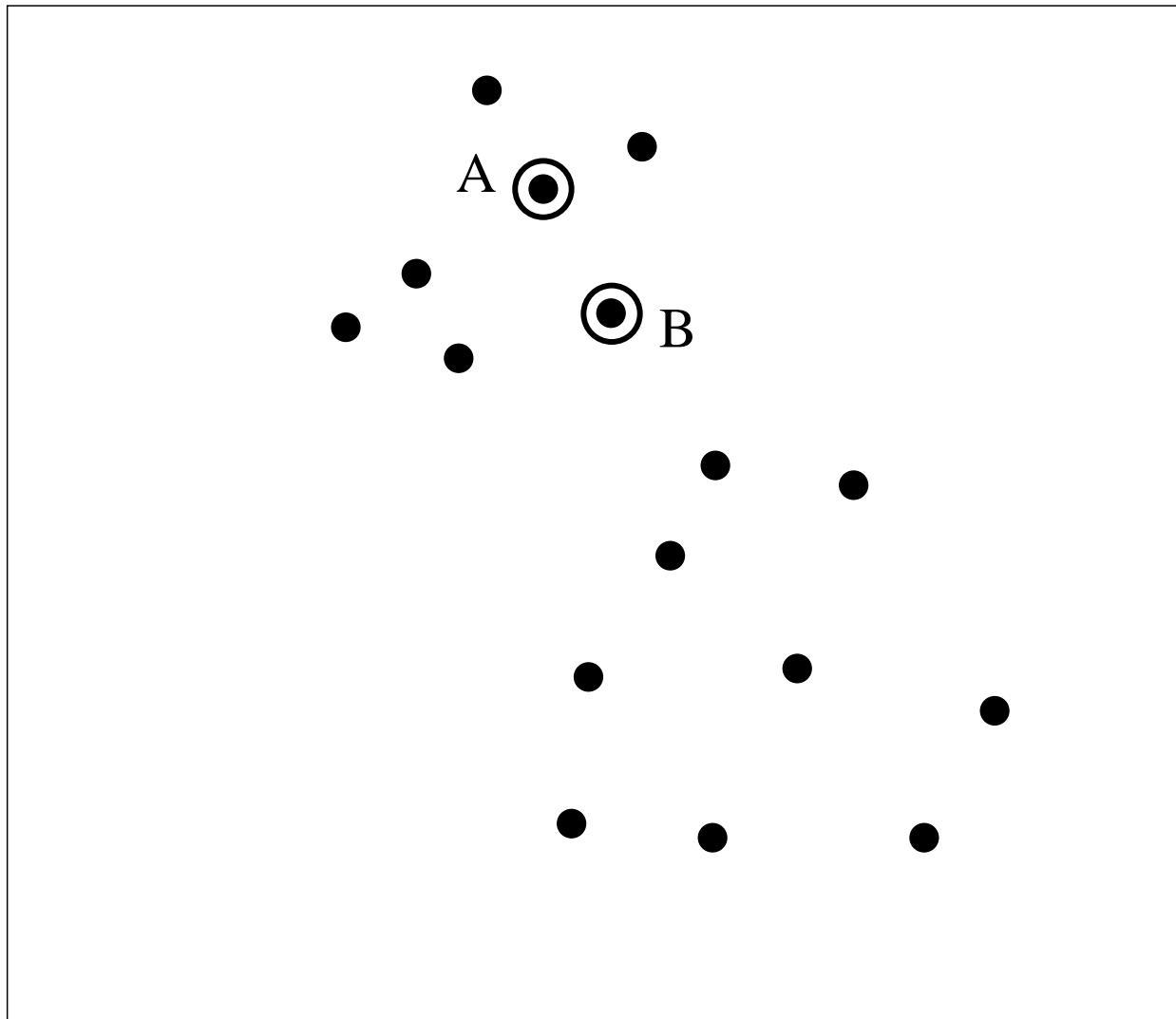
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- **Initialization:** select randomly  $K$  examples  $z_j$  in  $D_n$  as initial values of each  $\mu_k$
- At each **batch** iteration:
  - For each prototype  $\mu_k$ , put in the emptied set  $S_k$  the examples of  $D_n$  that are closer to  $\mu_k$  than to any other  $\mu_{j \neq k}$ .
  - Re-compute the value of each  $\mu_k$  as the average of the examples in  $S_k$ .
- The algorithm stops when no prototype moves anymore.
- It can be shown that the K-Means criterion will never increase.
- A **stochastic** version of K-Means can also be derived: given a small  $\eta$ , for each example  $z_j$  move the nearest  $\mu_k$  as follows:

$$\mu_k = \mu_k + \eta(z_j - \mu_k)$$

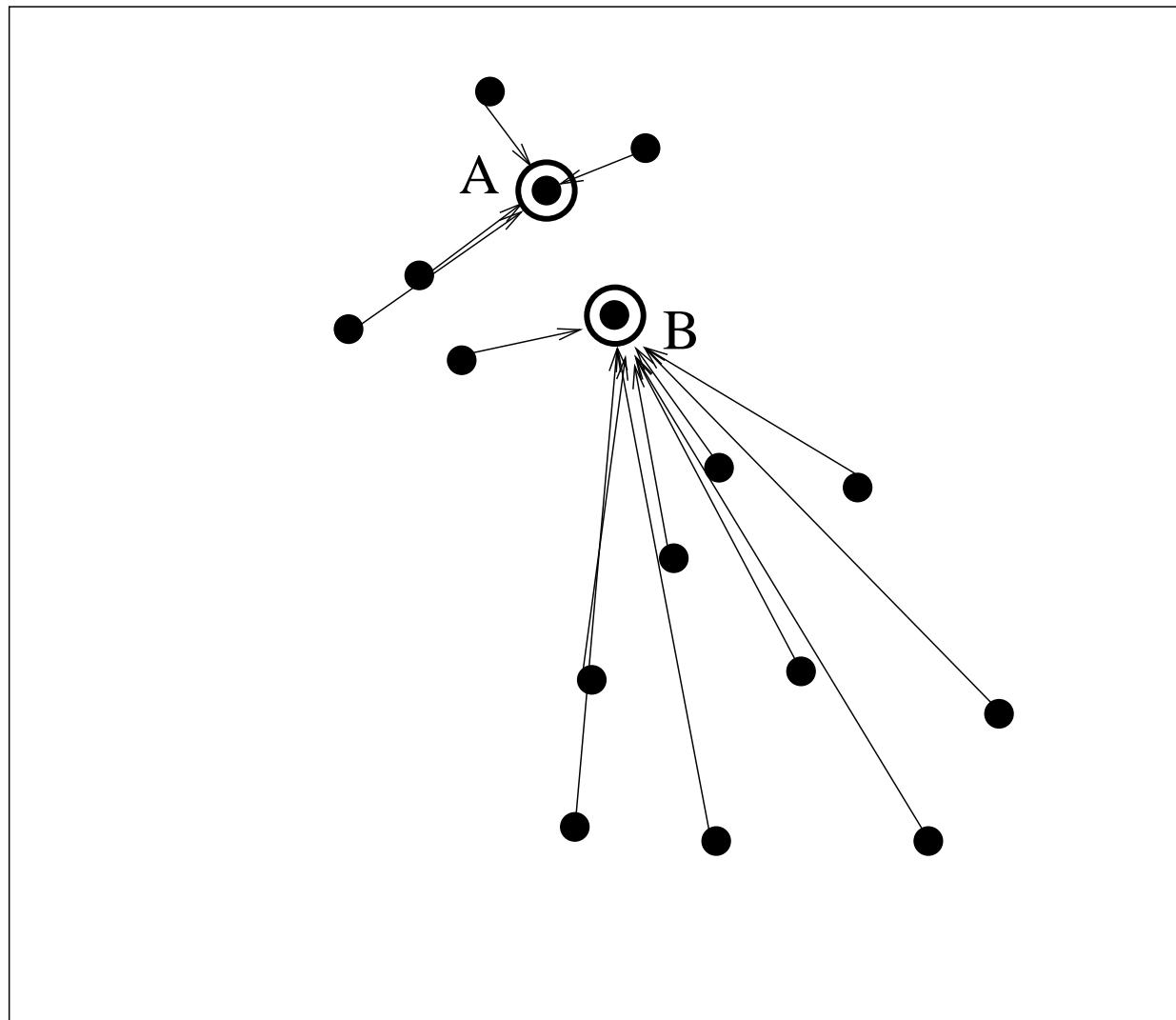
# K-Means (Graphical View 1)

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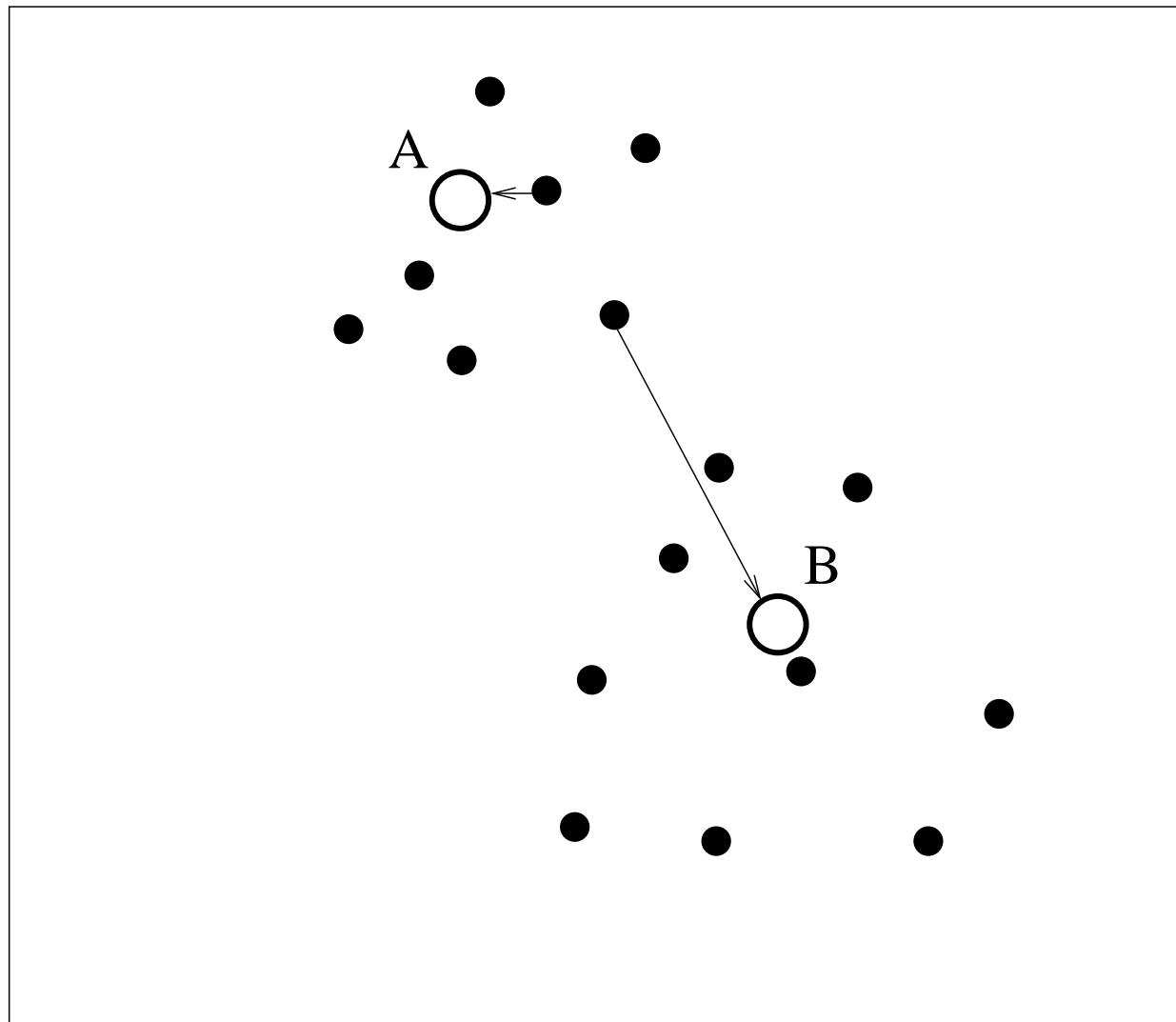
# K-Means (Graphical View 2)

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# K-Means (Graphical View 3)

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# K-Means - Some Remarks

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- As for KNN, we can change the metric
- For instance, we can normalize the data
- How to select  $K$  ???
- Reminder: as for KNN,  $K$  controls the **capacity**...
- Hence, we can use a **model selection** technique
- Note: K-Means is quite **sensitive to initialization**. Other heuristics exist, or you can retrain many times...
- Application: **feature extraction**  
represent each example  $z$  by the index of the closest prototype