

# non-parametric methods

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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Parametric models
  - Maximum likelihood
- 3 Non-parametric models
  - KDE models
  - KNN models
- 4 Conclusion

# Introduction

- Bayes is an optimal classifier (if several assumptions are true) which provides analytical solutions if  $P(\omega_i)$  and  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  can be formalized.
- In this framework, learn  $P(\omega_i)$  and  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  is a essential operation.
- We suppose that an annotated dataset is available (feature vector and associated class)
- The aim of the learning step is to estimate both the prior  $P(\omega_i)$  and the likelihood  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  from a training dataset.
- Several methods exist to do that.

- Parametric methods:
  - $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  is modelled by a parametric function  $f_i(\mathbf{x}; \theta_i)$  if a parameter vector  $\theta_i$ . (example: Gaussian function)
  - Learning consists of estimating the parameter vector  $\theta_i$  from a training dataset.
- Non parametric methods:
  - In this case, the pdf. is modelled directly from the training step:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) = f(\mathbf{x}, \text{samples})$$

- We assume that the parametric model (not parameters) of pdf  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  known :
  - normal law,
  - Gamma law,
  - ...
- Several solutions exist to estimate the unknowns parameter vector  $\theta_i$ :
  - Maximum likelihood,
  - Bayesian estimation,
  - ...

- **Rq** : Here, only the maximum likelihood method is presented ( and for supervised learning).

# Maximum likelihood

- Given  $\mathcal{E}_\infty, \mathcal{E}_\in, \mathcal{E}_J$ ,  $c$  sets of samples that represents the  $c$  classes. We assume that
  - the samples are independent
  - sets are representative from  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$
- **Hypothesis:** The parametric shape of  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  is known, and determined by a parameter vector  $\theta_i$ .
- Example:  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  can be approximated by a normal distribution  $N(\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i)$ . In this case:  $\theta_i = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i\}$ .
- If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$\theta_i = \{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_d, \sigma_{22}, \sigma_{23}, \dots, \sigma_{2d}, \sigma_{33}, \sigma_{34}, \dots, \sigma_{3d}, \dots, \sigma_{dd}\}$$

- **Notation:**  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i; \theta_i)$  stands for  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  depends on  $\theta_i$
- **Goal:** Estimating the parameter vector  $\theta_i$
- since the classes are independent, it is possible to have a separate study for each class:

$$\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \mathbf{X}_3, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n\}$$

- The probability to draw  $\mathcal{E}$ , given a class follows a random law defined by the parameter vector  $\theta$ ):

$$p(\mathcal{E}, \theta) = \prod_{k=1}^n p(\mathbf{X}_k | \theta)$$

- We find the an estimation of  $\theta$ , defined  $\hat{\theta}$ , which maximizes  $p(\mathcal{E}, \theta)$

- si  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p\}$  :

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_p} \end{pmatrix}$$

- We define the expression  $l(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \log[p(\mathcal{E}|\boldsymbol{\theta})]$  :

$$l(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{k=1}^n \log[p(\mathbf{X}_k|\boldsymbol{\theta})]$$

- Then,

$$\nabla_{\theta} l = \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{k=1}^n \log[P(\mathbf{X}_k|\theta)]$$

- $p(\mathcal{E}|\theta)$  will be maximum if:

$$\nabla_{\theta} l = \mathbf{0}$$

# Non parametric models

- Parametric model  $\rightarrow$  we need to fix the analytic model  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  :
  - Most of models are unimodal (except.: mixture of Gaussian)
  - Strong assumption (if not verified, some results can be wrong)
- Parametric models deal directly with samples and their spatial repartition.  
Les méthodes non paramétriques prennent en compte les échantillons et leur répartition spatiale dans l'espace des paramètres.
- la conséquence est une estimation de  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  plus proche de la réalité

## The global framework

- Estimation of  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  or  $p(\omega_i|\mathbf{x})$
- Given  $\mathcal{D}$  a domain of the features space ( $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbf{R}^d$ ) which can be considered as a neighbourhood of the feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$  for which we want to estimate  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$ .
- Hypothesis:  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) \approx \text{const.}$  on  $\mathcal{D}$
- then:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} p(\mathbf{x}'|\omega_i) d\mathbf{x}' \approx p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) \int_{\mathcal{D}} d\mathbf{x}'$$

# Non Parametric Models

- If  $V(\mathcal{D})$  is the hyper-volume of  $\mathcal{D}$  :

$$p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}) \approx p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)V(\mathcal{D})$$

- then:

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) \approx \frac{p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D})}{V(\mathcal{D})}$$

- If  $t$  samples, on  $n$  total ones belong in the domain  $\mathcal{D}$ , then:

$$p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}) \approx \frac{t}{n}$$

# Non Parametric Models

- and:  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) \approx \frac{\frac{t}{n}}{V(\mathcal{D})}$
- Given  $\mathbf{x}_0$  a feature and  $D(\mathbf{x}_0)$  a domain around the feature  $\mathbf{x}_0$ ; we want to build an estimator  $\hat{P}(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega)$ . So,

$$\hat{P}(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega) \approx \frac{\frac{t}{n}}{V(D(\mathbf{x}_0))}$$

- Good estimator  $\rightarrow$  converging estimator:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{P}(\mathbf{x}_0 | \omega) = P(\mathbf{x}_0 | \omega)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{t}{n}}{V(\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0))} = P(\mathbf{x}_0 | \omega)$$

- The estimator smooths the probability on the neighbourhood of  $\mathbf{x}_0$
- The lower  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is, the better the estimator is (closer to the true value)

# Non Parametric Models

- If  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is too small, many domains won't have any sample, resulting to  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) = 0$ .
- It is necessary to link the number of samples to the size of the domain. ( $n$  and  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0)$ , will follow the notation  $\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$ ) :

$$\hat{P}(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega) = \frac{\frac{t_n}{n}}{V_n(\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0))}$$

# Non Parametric Models

There are 3 necessary conditions for a converging estimator:

$$\hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega) \rightarrow p(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega) \text{ si :}$$

- 1  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} V(\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)) = 0$
- 2  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = +\infty$
- 3  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t_n}{n} = 0$

# Non Parametric Models

There are two main categories of non parametric models:

- 1 link  $V(\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0))$  to  $n$  : this is kernel based models (Kernel Density Estimation also called Parzen windows)
- 2 link  $t_n$  according to  $n$  adjusting the domain  $V(\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0))$  until  $k$  samples belong to it: this is the  $k$  nearest neighbours models

also called Parzen Windows

- Main idea: working with the domain function  $\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$
- example with a hypercube of side  $h_n$  :

$$V(\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)) = (h_n)^d$$

- the features dimension is  $\mathbf{R}^d$
- We define a function  $\varphi(\mathbf{u})$ , equal to 1 inside the unit and centered on the origin hypercube:

$$\begin{cases} \varphi(\mathbf{u}) = 1 \text{ si } |u_j| \leq 0.5 \ j = 1, \dots, d \\ \varphi(\mathbf{u}) = 0 \text{ sinon} \end{cases}$$

If  $\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is a hypercube of side  $h_n$ , then:

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0) \Leftrightarrow \varphi\left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}}{h_n}\right) = 1$$

The number of samples  $t_n$  that belongs to the domain  $\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is computed by the following equation:

$$t_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi \left( \frac{\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_i}{h_n} \right)$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_i$  is the sample  $i$ .

$$\hat{P}_n(\mathbf{x}_0|\omega) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{V(\mathcal{D}_n(\mathbf{x}_0))} \varphi \left( \frac{\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_i}{h_n} \right)$$

The function  $\varphi$  is called **kernel of the estimator**

- The kernel must be normalized:

$$\begin{cases} \varphi(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^d \\ \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} \varphi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 1 \end{cases}$$

- Samples of kernels
  - cubic kernel,
  - triangular kernel,
  - normal kernel,
  - exponential kernel,
  - ...

Knn models are widely used

- Main idea: fit the domain size according to the neighbourhood of  $\mathbf{x}_0$
- A fix number  $t_n$  must belongs to the domain (it ensures that we cannot have 0 samples into the domain resulting to non-zeros value for  $\hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$  )
- Given  $\mathcal{D}_r(\mathbf{x}_0)$  a unit-volume and  $\mathbf{x}_0$  centered domain:

$$V[\mathcal{D}_r(\mathbf{x}_0)] = 1$$

- Given  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0, \alpha)$  the homothetic domain of  $\mathcal{D}_r(\mathbf{x}_0)$  centered on  $\mathbf{x}_0$  with the ratio  $\alpha$ .

- Then :

$$V[\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0, \alpha)] = \alpha^d$$

- The KNN model consists of increasing  $\alpha$  until  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0, \alpha)$  includes  $t_n$  samples.
- The probability density function estimator is computed by the following function:

$$\hat{p}_n(\mathbf{x}_0) = \frac{\frac{t_n}{n}}{V[\mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}_0, \alpha)]}$$

- This estimator converges toward the true value of  $p_n(\mathbf{x}_0)$  if:

$$t_n = t_0 * \sqrt{n} \text{ ou } t_n = t_0 * \log n$$

- with  $t_0$  : a parameter (to adjust)

# KNN models for posterior estimation

- In non-parametric models used for classification into a Bayesian framework, the goal is to estimate the posterior distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)$  from the samples.
- Samples encodes:
  - Prior probabilities  $P(\omega_j)$ ,
  - likelihoods.
- **Demonstration:**
- Given  $n$  samples drawing from the classes.  $K_j$  samples are drawn from the class  $\omega_j$ . So:

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^c K_i$$

# Posterior distribution estimation

- Given  $V$ , a volume around  $\mathbf{x}$ , and  $k$  samples which belong to this volume with  $k_i$  samples associated to the class  $\omega_i$ . We can write:

$$P(\omega_i) = \frac{K_i}{n}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i) = \frac{\frac{k_i}{K_i}}{V}$$

So:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i).P(\omega_i) = \frac{\frac{k_i}{n}}{V}$$

# Estimation of posterior distribution

- Let apply the Bayes rule:

$$p(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i).P(\omega_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^c p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)} \approx \frac{\frac{k_i}{n}}{\sum_{j=1}^c \frac{k_j}{n}}$$

- Finally, the posterior probability is estimated by the ratio between the number of samples associated to the class  $\omega_i$  by the number of samples into the volume.

$$p(\omega_i|\mathbf{x}) \approx \frac{k_i}{k}$$

# Classification rule based on samples

- Bayesian models assume the estimation of the likelihood  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_i)$  follow by the Bayes rule.
- Using KNN, it is possible to define decision rules from the samples:
  - Decision rule of the nearest neighbour,
  - Decision rule of the  $k$  nearest neighbours.

# Decision rule of the nearest neighbour

- This method assumes that a distance measure between the features is possible and can be defined.
- The unknown feature is then classified with the same class than the nearest feature.

# Decision rule of the $k$ nearest neighbours

- Just an extension of the the nearest neighbour decision rule,
- Given an unknown feature  $\mathbf{x}$ :
- Given a distance measure between  $\mathbf{x}$  and all the samples of a supervised dataset,
- We sort feature according to their distances to  $\mathbf{x}$  and keep only the  $q$  samples associated to the  $q$  smallest distances.
- $\mathbf{x}$  is associated to the majority class inside the subset build by the  $q$  selected samples

# Conclusion

- KDE is a very useful way to estimate probability density functions.
- KNN is very popular for simple classification problems.
- Both models are  $O(N^2)$  and complexity must be handled for huge datasets (eg: kd-trees or fast sort methods)