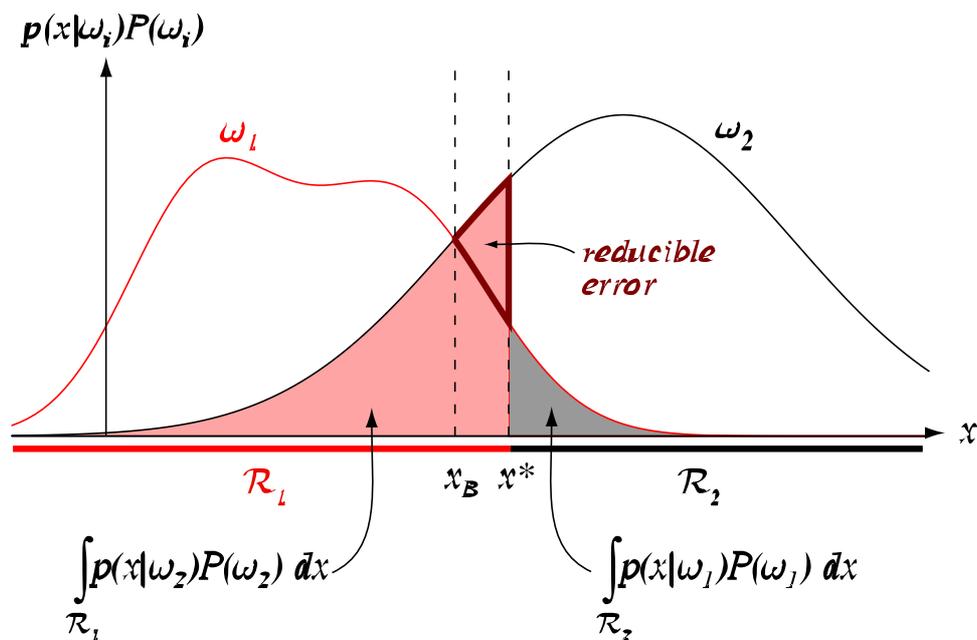


University of Cambridge  
Engineering Part IIB

Module 4F10: Statistical Pattern  
Processing

Handout 1: Introduction & Decision  
Rules



Mark Gales  
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Michaelmas 2013

# Syllabus

## 1. Introduction & Bayes' Decision Theory (1L)

- Statistical pattern processing
- Bayesian decision theory
- Classification cost & ROC curves

## 2. Multivariate Gaussians & Decision Boundaries (1L)

- Decision boundaries for Multivariate Gaussians
- Maximum likelihood estimation

## 3. Gaussian Mixture Models (1L)

- Mixture models
- Parameter estimation
- EM for discrete random variables

## 4. Expectation Maximisation (1L)

- Latent variables both continuous and discrete
- Proof of EM

## 5. Mixture and Product of Experts (1L)

- Gating functions
- Mixtures versus Product of Experts
- Product of Gaussian experts

## 6. Restricted Boltzmann Machines (1L)

- RBM structure
- Contrastive divergence

## Syllabus (cont)

### 5. Linear Classifiers (1L)

- Single layer perceptron
- Perceptron learning algorithm

### 6. Multi-Layer Perceptrons (2L)

- Basic structure
- Gradient descent parameter optimisation
- Deep topologies and network initialisation

### 7. Support Vector Machines (2L)

- Maximum margin classifiers
- Training SVMs
- Kernel functions & Non-linear SVMs

### 9. Classification and Regression Trees (1L)

- Decision trees
- Query selection
- Multivariate decision trees

### 10. Non-Parametric Techniques (1L)

- Parzen windows
- Nearest neighbour rule
- K-nearest neighbours

### 11. Application: Speaker Verification/Identification (1L)

- Speaker recognition/verification task
- GMMs and MAP adaptation
- SVM-based verification

## Overview of Course

### Generative Models

Multivariate Gaussian  
Gaussian Mixture Model  
RBMs

### Discriminative Classifiers

#### Discriminative Functions

Perceptron Algorithm  
Support Vector Machine

#### Discriminative Models

Logistic Classification  
Multilayer Perceptron

### Non-Parametric

Decision Trees  
Parzen Windows  
Nearest Neighbour

### Training Criteria

Maximum Likelihood  
Expectation Maximisation  
Maximum Margin

## Course Structure

Total of 14L + 2 Examples Classes

Lecturer: Mark Gales

Web-Page: <http://mi.eng.cam.ac.uk/~mjfg/4F10/index.html>

Assessment by exam (1.5h): 3 questions from 5.

A number of books cover parts of the course material.

- C.M.Bishop, *Pattern Recognition and Neural Networks* OUP, 1995, CUED: NOF 55
- R.O.Duda, P.E.Hart & D.G. Stork *Pattern Classification*, Wiley, 2001, CUED: NOF 64
- D.J.C. Mackay, *Information Theory, Inference and Learning Algorithms*, CUP, 2004. CUED: NO 277
- C.M. Bishop, *Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning*, Springer 2006.

# Statistical Pattern Processing

In this world nothing can be said to be certain, except death and taxes.

- Benjamin Franklin

We make decisions under **uncertainty** all the time

- gambling (not recommended)
- weather forecasting (not very successfully)
- insurance (risk assessment)
- stock market

Need to formalise “intuitive decisions” mathematically

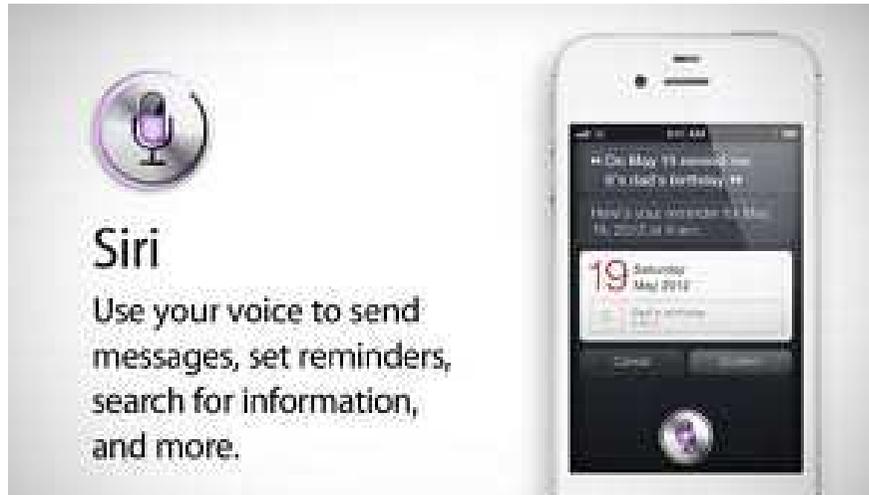
Basically, how to quantify and manipulate uncertainty.

This course will concentrate on **classification**, however **regression** and **clustering** will be briefly mentioned.

A range of **statistical approaches** to decision making will be examined:

- approaches can be trained (hence **Machine Learning**)
- wide range of applications, examples are ...

# Automatic Speech Recognition



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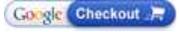
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## Marquer les rafales

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Les rafales de marque est un lecteur dans la technologie de l'information dans le [laboratoire d'intelligence de machine](#) (autrefois le groupe de vision et de robotique de la parole (SVR)) et un camarade de l'[université d'Emmanuel](#). Il est un membre du [groupe de recherche de la parole](#) ainsi que les [jeunes de Steve de](#) membres de personnel de corps enseignant, la [région boisée](#) et la [facture Byrne de Phil](#).

[Une brève biographie](#) est accessible en ligne.

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### Intérêts de recherches

- [Reconnaissance de la parole continue de grand vocabulaire](#)
- [Reconnaissance de la parole robuste](#)
- Adaptation d'orateur
- Étude de machine (en particulier choix modèle et méthodes grain-basées)
- Identification et vérification d'orateur

Une brève introduction à la [reconnaissance de la parole](#) est accessible en ligne. [dessus](#)

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### Projets de recherche

Projets en cours :

- [Bruit ASR robuste](#) ([Europe Ltd de recherches de Toshiba](#) placée)
- [Traitement averti d'environnement rapide et robuste](#) ([Europe Ltd de recherches de Toshiba](#) placée)
  - **NEW** [Position d'associé de recherches disponible](#)
- [AGILE](#) (projet placé par [GALE de DARPA](#))
- [Version 3 de HTK](#) - [HTK V3.4](#) et [exemples](#) sont disponibles.

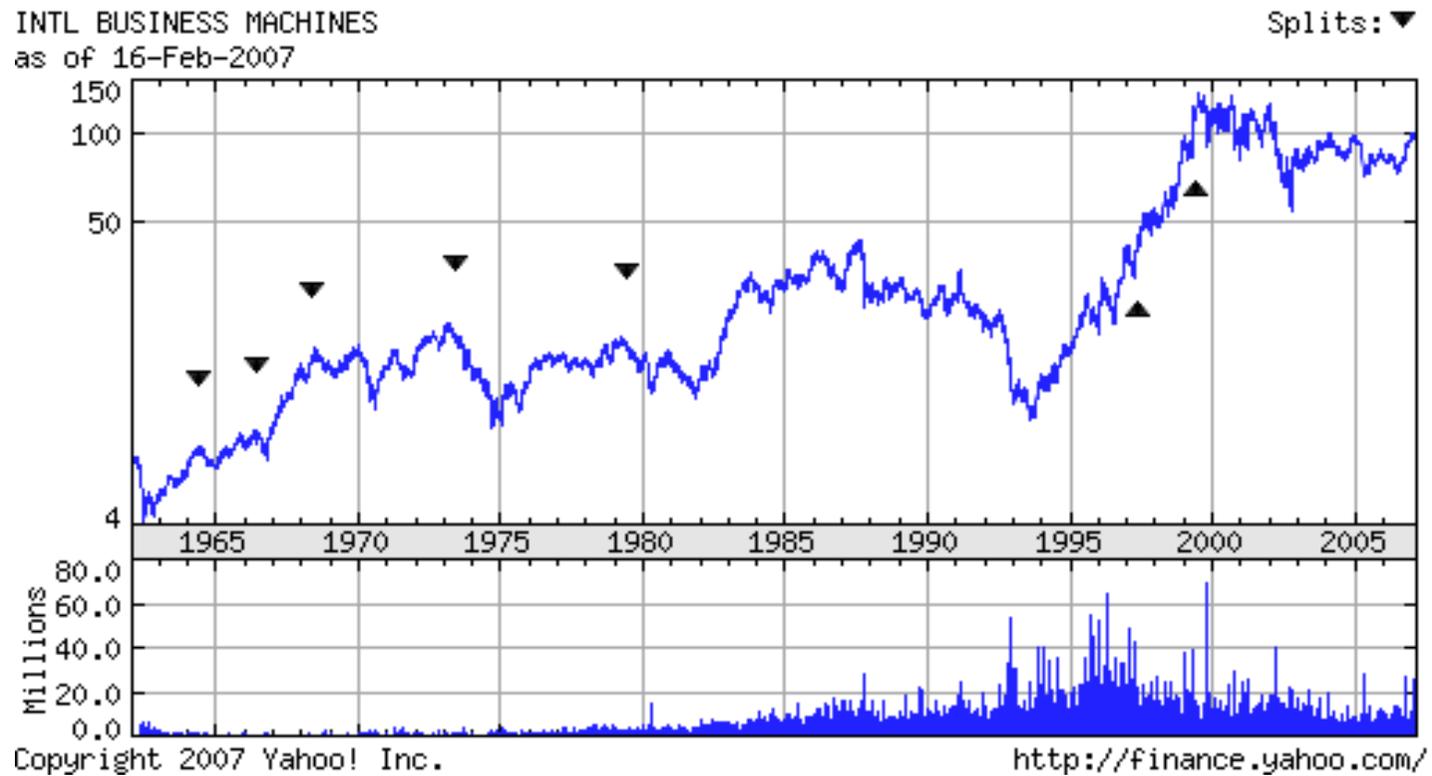
Projets récemment réalisés :

- [CoreTex](#) (améliorant la technologie de reconnaissance de la parole de noyau)
- [Transcription audio riche de HTK](#) (Projet placé par OREILLES de DARPA) - [pages Web locaux](#)

[dessus](#)

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# Stock Market Prediction



## What is Statistical Pattern Processing?

The main area of Statistical Pattern Processing discussed in this course is **classification** of **patterns** into different classes. These patterns can represent many different types of object (speech/images/text etc).

A key issue in all pattern recognition systems is **variability**. Patterns arise (often from natural sources) that contain variations.

Key issue:

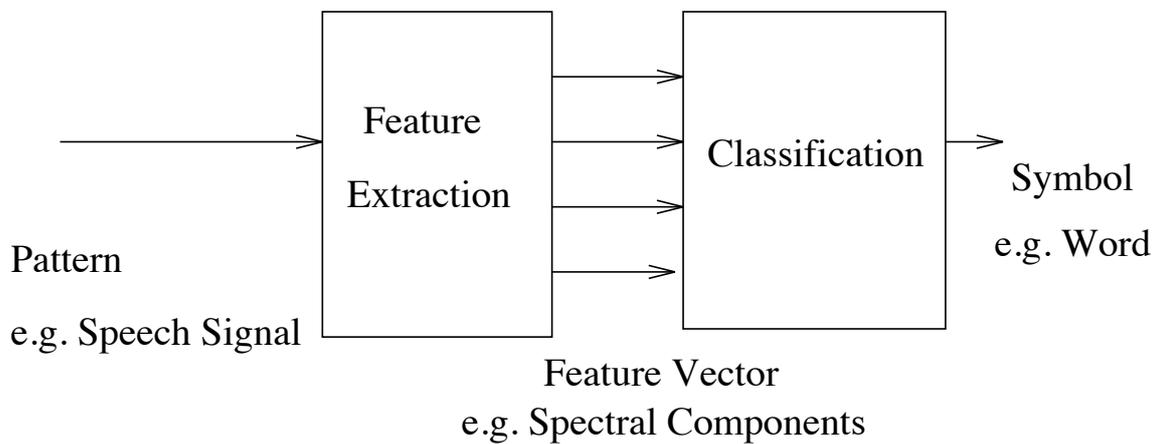
- are the variations **systematic** (and can be used to distinguish between classes)
- or are they **noise**

The variability of classes will be approached by using **probabilistic modelling** of pattern variations.

The standard model for pattern recognition divides the problem into two parts:

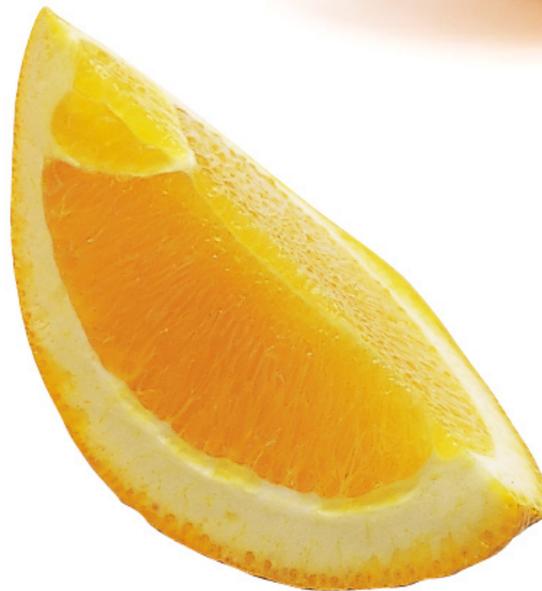
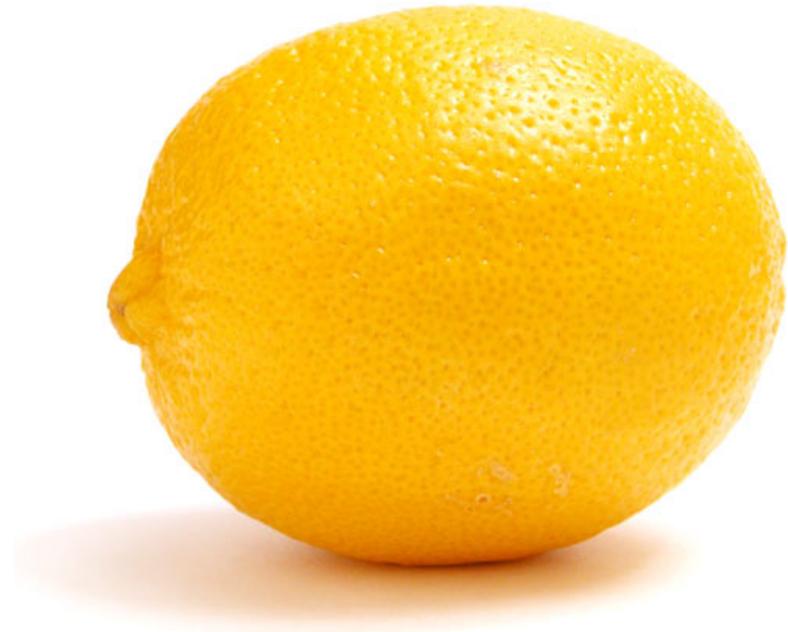
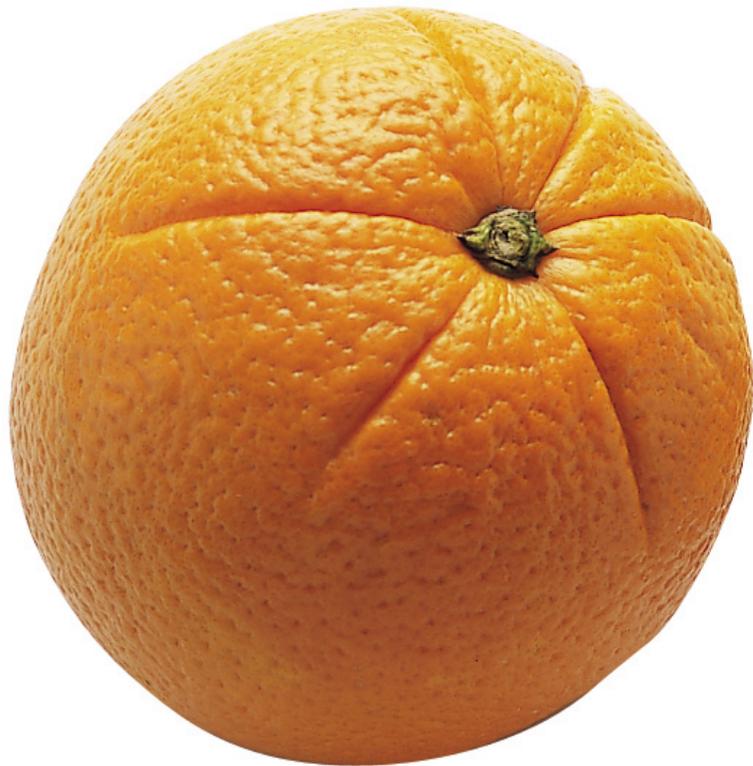
- feature extraction
- classification

## Basic Model

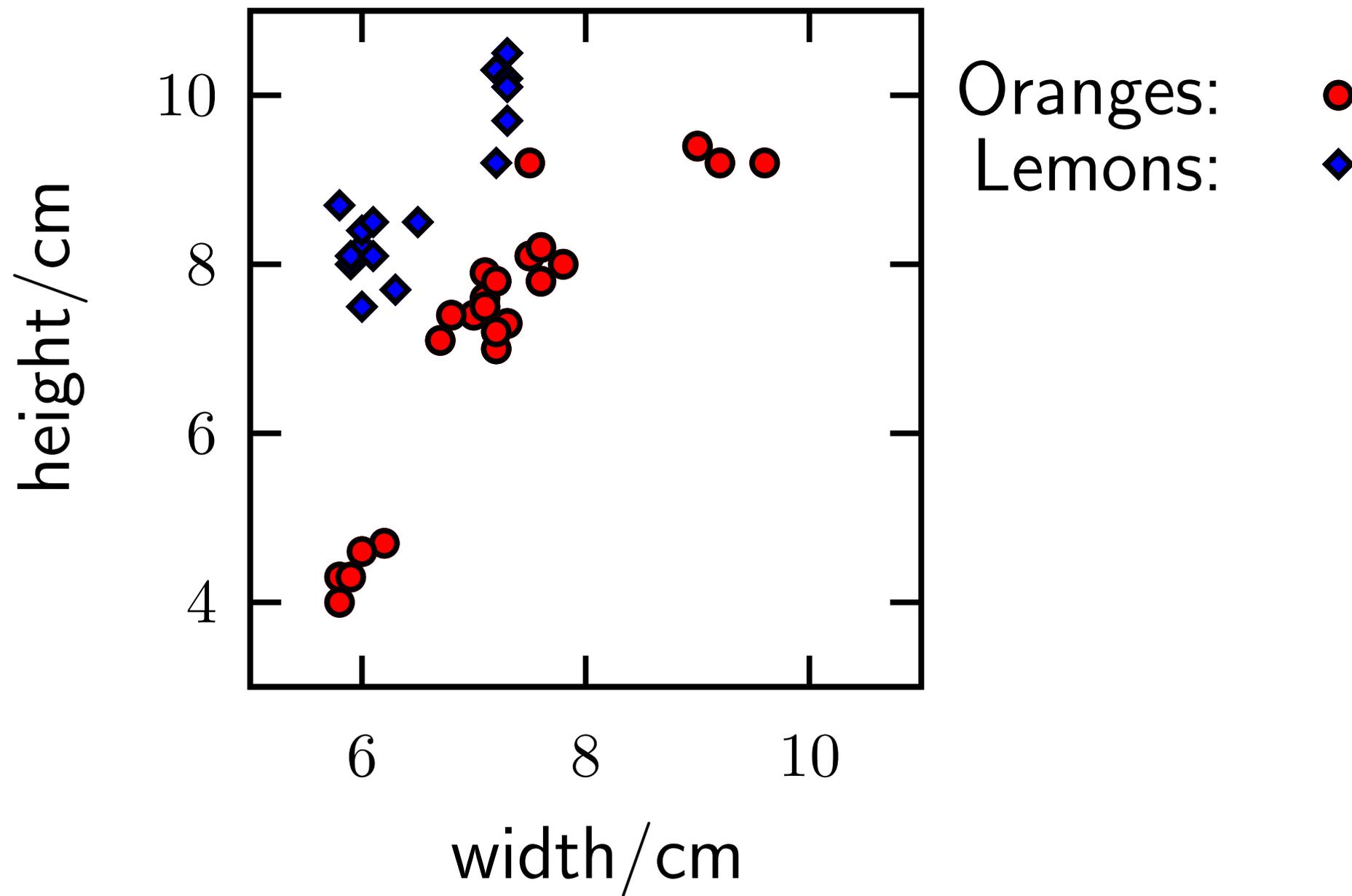


- Initial **feature extraction** produces a **vector** of features that contain all the information for subsequent processing (such as classification).
- Ideally, for classification, only the features that contain discriminatory information are used.
- Often features to measure are determined by an “expert”, although techniques exist for choosing suitable features.
- The classifier processes the vector of features and chooses a particular class.
- Normally the classifier is “trained” using a set of data for which there are labelled pairs of feature vectors / class identifiers available.

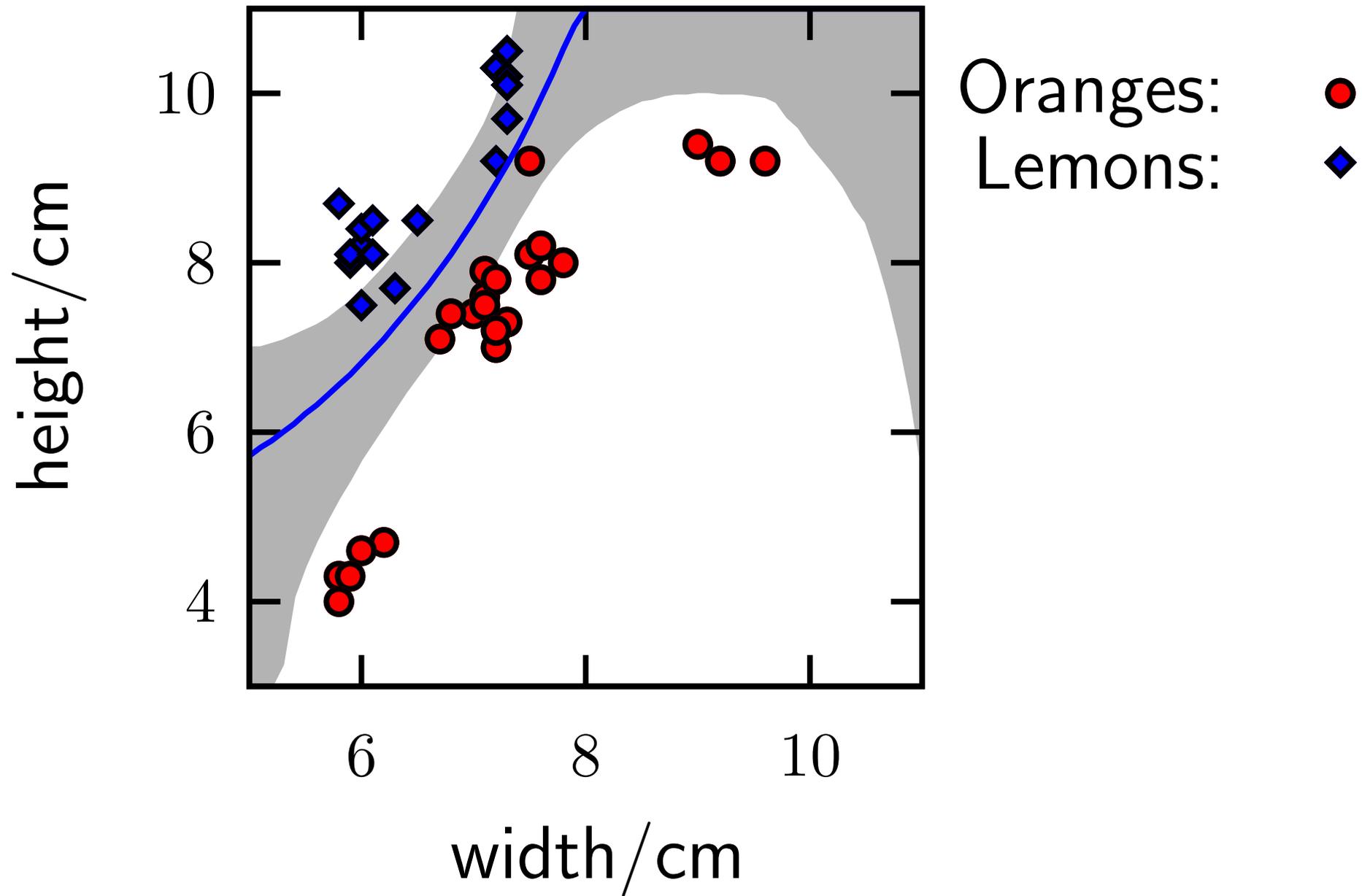
**Oranges and Lemons**  
**Thanks to Iain Murray**



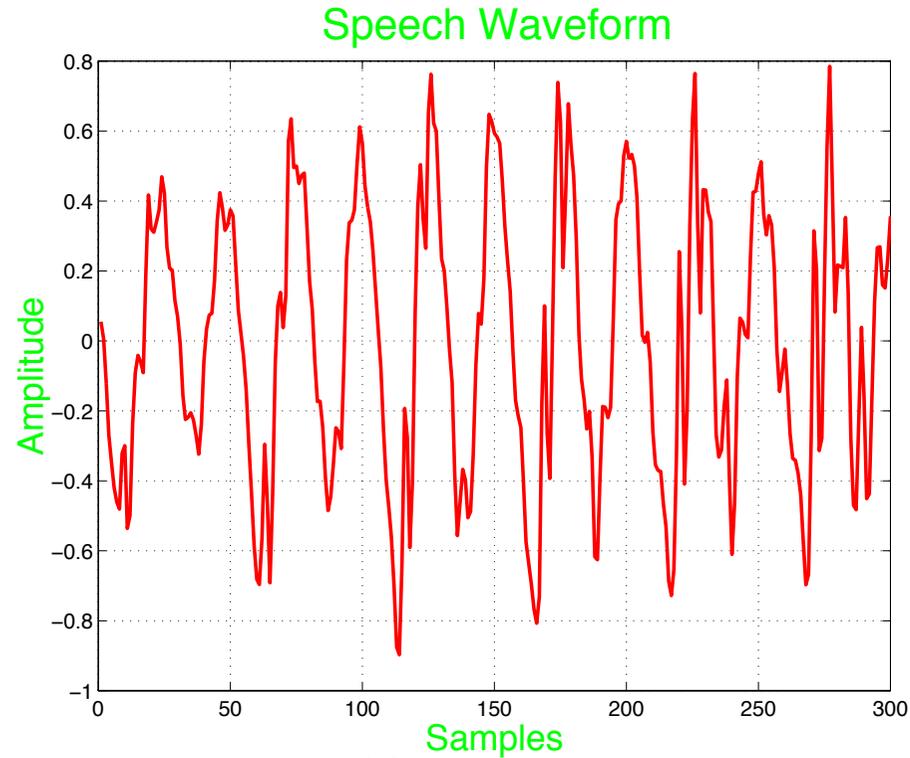
## A two-dimensional space



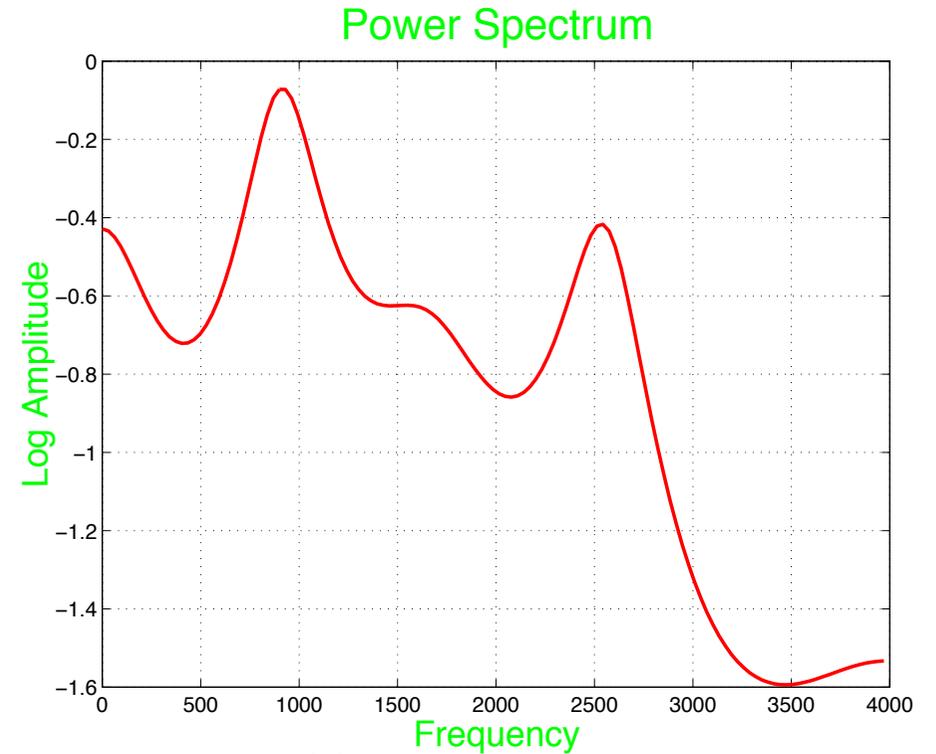
# Supervised learning



# Simple Speech Features



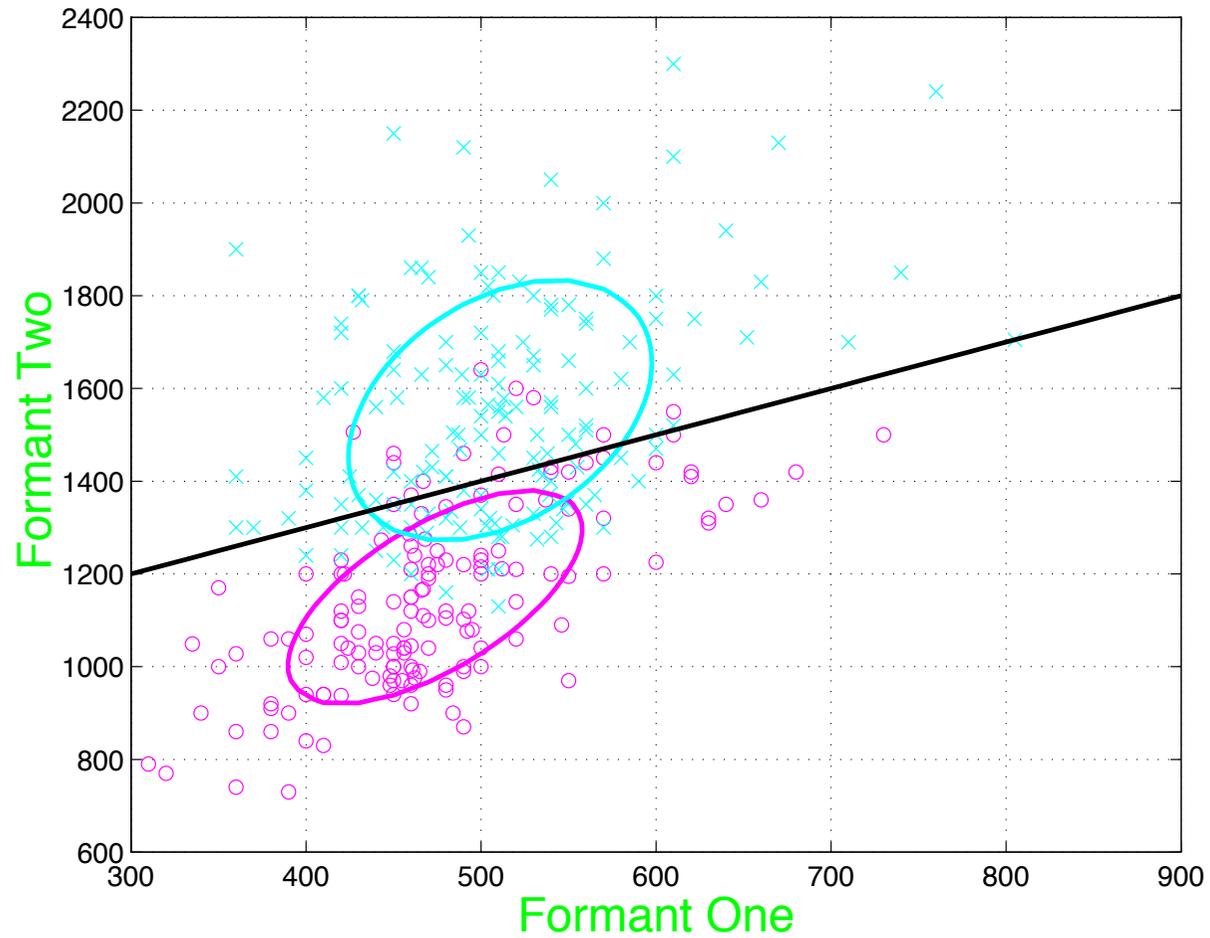
(a) Wavform



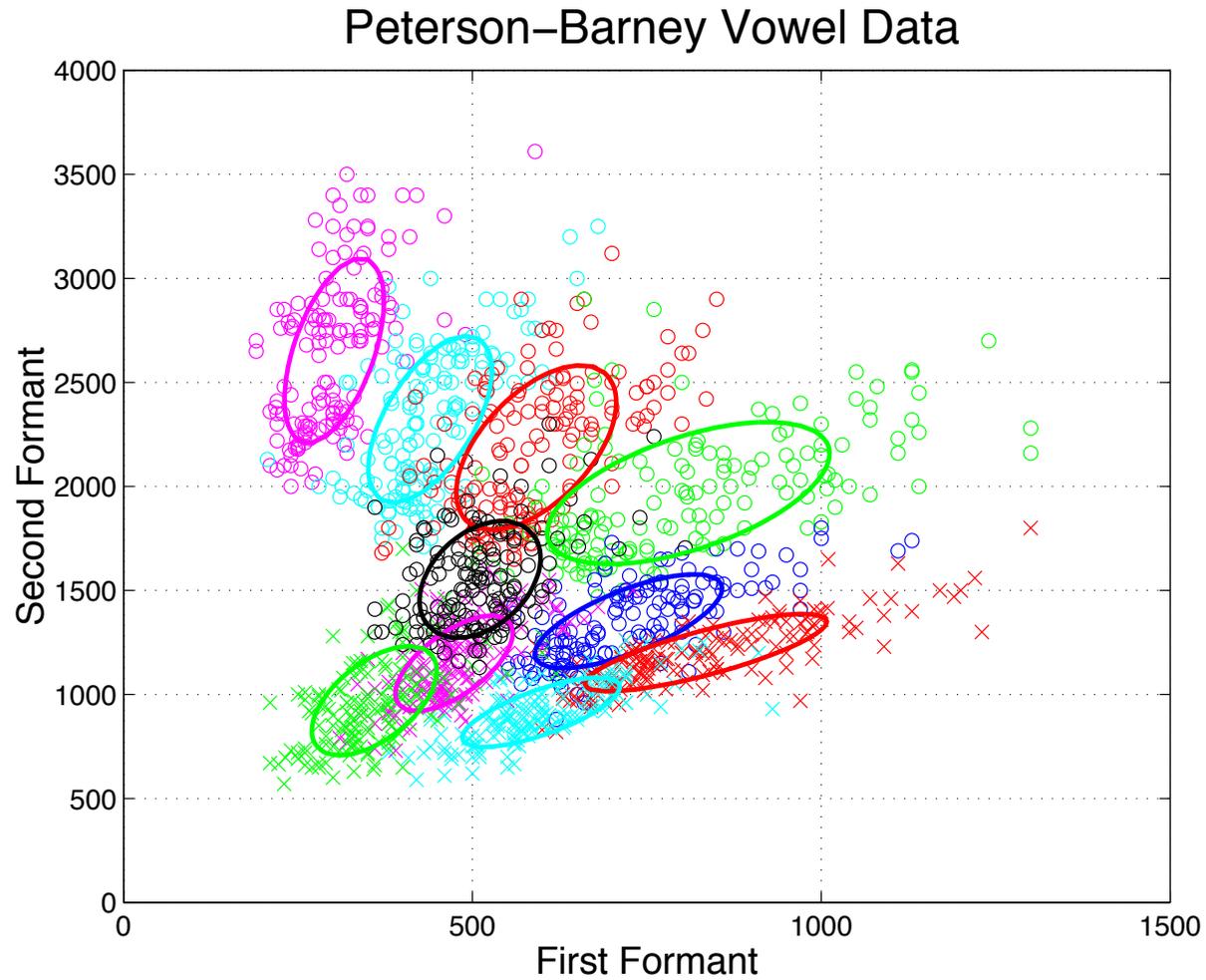
(b) Power Spectrum

# Simple Vowel Classifier

Linear Classifier



# Vowel Distributions Using Formants



## Some Basic Probability (Revision!!)

- Discrete random variable  $x$  takes one value from the set

$$\mathcal{X} = \omega_1, \dots, \omega_K$$

We can compute a set of probabilities

$$p_j = \Pr(x = \omega_j), \quad j = 1, \dots, K$$

We use a probability mass function  $P(x)$ , to describe the set of probabilities. The PMF satisfies

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x) = 1, \quad P(x) \geq 0$$

- Continuous random variable: scalar  $x$  or a vector  $\mathbf{x}$ . Described by its probability density function (PDF),  $p(x)$ . The PDF satisfies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1, \quad p(x) \geq 0$$

- For random variables  $x, y, z$  need

**conditional** distribution:  $p(x|y) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)}$

**joint** distribution  $p(x, y)$

**marginal** distribution  $p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y) dy$

**chain rule**  $p(x, y, z) = p(x|y, z) p(y|z) p(z)$

## Forms of Classifiers

General notation used in this course

- **Observations**: each observation consists of a  $d$ -dimensional feature vector,  $\mathbf{x}$ .
- **Classes** (labels): each observation will belong to a single class,  $\omega_1, \dots, \omega_K$

We need a classifier that given an observation,  $\mathbf{x}$ , correctly assigns it to a class,  $\omega$ .

Classifiers can be split into three broad classes. In the first two a mapping from observation to class can be inferred (the **decision rule**), the third directly estimates a mapping.

- **Generative models**: a model of the joint distribution of observations and classes is trained,  $p(\mathbf{x}, \omega)$ .
- **Discriminative models**: a model of the posterior distribution of the class given the observation is trained,  $P(\omega|\mathbf{x})$ .
- **Discriminant functions**: a mapping from an observation  $\mathbf{x}$  to a class  $\omega$  is directly trained. No posterior probability,  $P(\omega|\mathbf{x})$ , generated just the class label.

See Bishop for a discussion of the merits of these.

## Forms of training

Irrespective of the form of classifier the classifier will need to be trained. There are three basic forms of training:

- **Supervised learning:** for each of the observations,  $x$ , the correct class label,  $\omega$ , is available
- **Unsupervised learning:** only the observation,  $x$ , is available
- **Reinforcement learning:** a set of rewards are associated with actions for each observation

This course concentrates on **supervised learning**.

The **training data** occurs in pairs. For a 2-class, **binary**, problem the training data would be

$$(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$$

where

$$y_i = \begin{cases} \omega_1 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ generate by class 1} \\ \omega_2 & \text{if } \mathbf{x}_i \text{ generate by class 2} \end{cases}$$

The total number of samples from class 1 will be labelled  $n_1$  and for class 2  $n_2$ .

## Bayes' Decision Rule

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= \int P(\text{error}, \mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \int P(\text{error}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(\text{error}|\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) & \text{if we decide } \omega_2 \\ P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}) & \text{if we decide } \omega_1 \end{cases}$$

## Decision Rules

A “sensible” approach to design a decision rules for generative and discriminative models is to **minimises the probability of error**:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= \int P(\text{error}, \mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \int P(\text{error}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

For a two class problem, the conditional probability of error, (i.e. the error probability, given a value for the feature vector), can be written as

$$P(\text{error}|\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) & \text{if we decide } \omega_2 \\ P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}) & \text{if we decide } \omega_1 \end{cases}$$

A decision rule that can minimise this conditional probability of error averaged over all samples is required. This leads to **Bayes’ decision rule**, which for a two class problem is

$$\text{Decide} \begin{cases} \text{Class } \omega_1 & \text{if } P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}) > P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}); \\ \text{Class } \omega_2 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Applying Bayes’ decision rule to multi-classes yields

$$\text{Decide } \underset{\omega_j}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x})\}$$

## Generative Models

For generative models the joint distribution is estimated. For Bayes' decision rule the class posterior is required - this can be obtained using **Bayes' rule**

$$P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}, \omega_j)}{\sum_i p(\mathbf{x}, \omega_i)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Bayes' rule here computes the **posterior probability** of a particular class,  $P(\omega_j|\mathbf{x})$  using the

- **likelihood** of the data from the class conditional density  $p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)$ .
- **prior** probability of the class  $\omega_j$ ,  $P(\omega_j)$  - this is the probability of the class before any data is observed.

The denominator,  $p(\mathbf{x})$ , is sometimes termed the **evidence** and is the probability density of the data independent of class.

Bayes' Rule is sometimes remembered as

$$\text{posterior} \propto \text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}$$

## Why Generative Models?

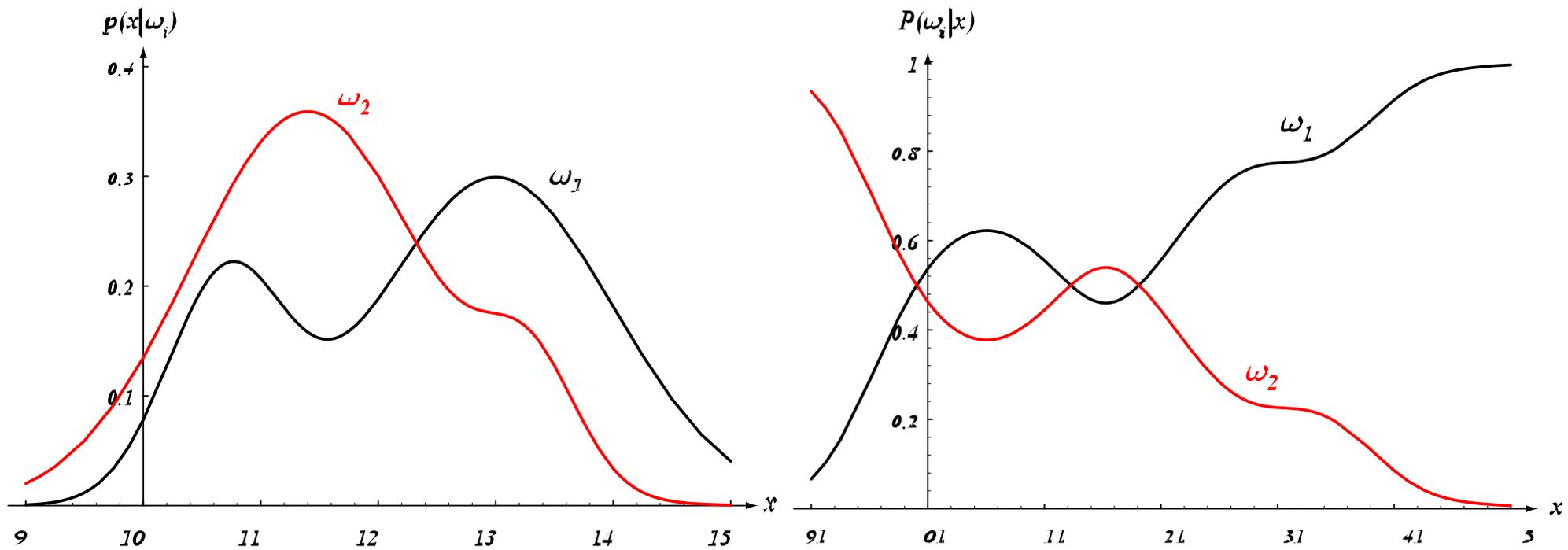
Modelling the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, \omega)$  is more complicated than estimating the posterior or a decision boundary.

**However** classification tasks such as speech recognition commonly use generative models!

### Why use generative models all?

- Prior distributions easy to interpret. Estimating the class priors is normally performed by simply taking ML estimate from the counts e.g.  $n_1/(n_1 + n_2)$ .
- Class-conditional PDF easy to interpret. For speech recognition we can extract the portions of speech associated with a particular word and find the “best” model for that segment.
- Parameters easy to interpret. For speech recognition easy to consider how to **adapt** the model parameters to a particular speaker.

# Example



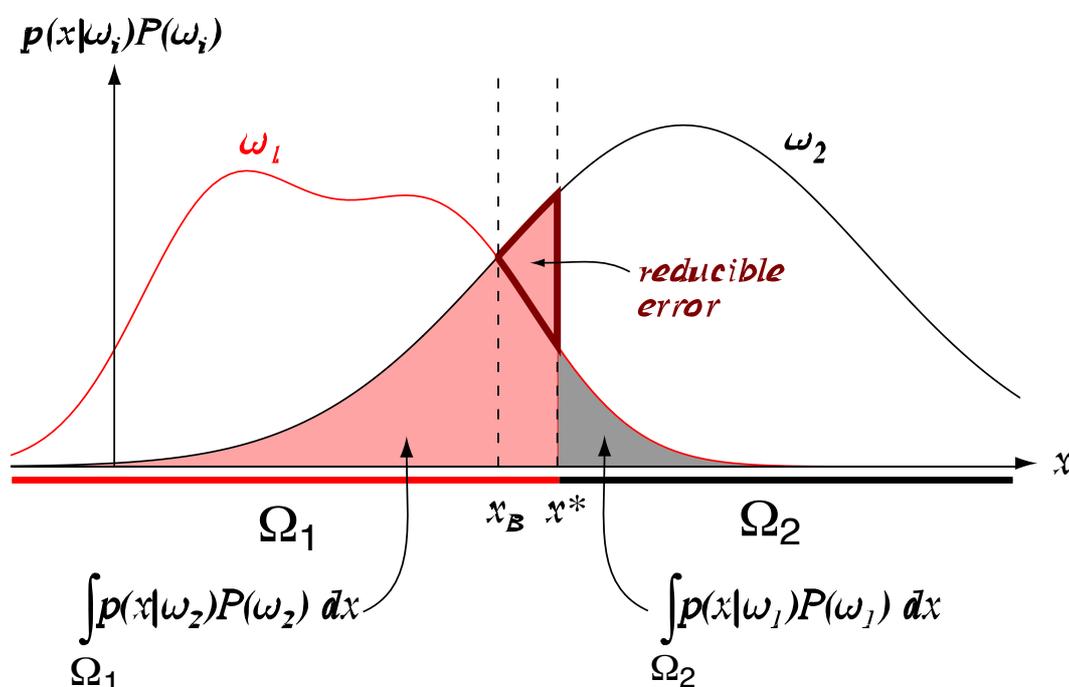
## Probability of Error

For a 2-class problem the decision rule will split the observation space into two regions

- $\Omega_1$ : observation classified as  $\omega_1$
- $\Omega_2$ : observation classified as  $\omega_2$

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_2, \omega_1) + P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_1, \omega_2) \\ &= P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_2 | \omega_1)P(\omega_1) + P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_1 | \omega_2)P(\omega_2) \\ &= \int_{\Omega_2} p(\mathbf{x} | \omega_1)P(\omega_1)d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega_1} p(\mathbf{x} | \omega_2)P(\omega_2)d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

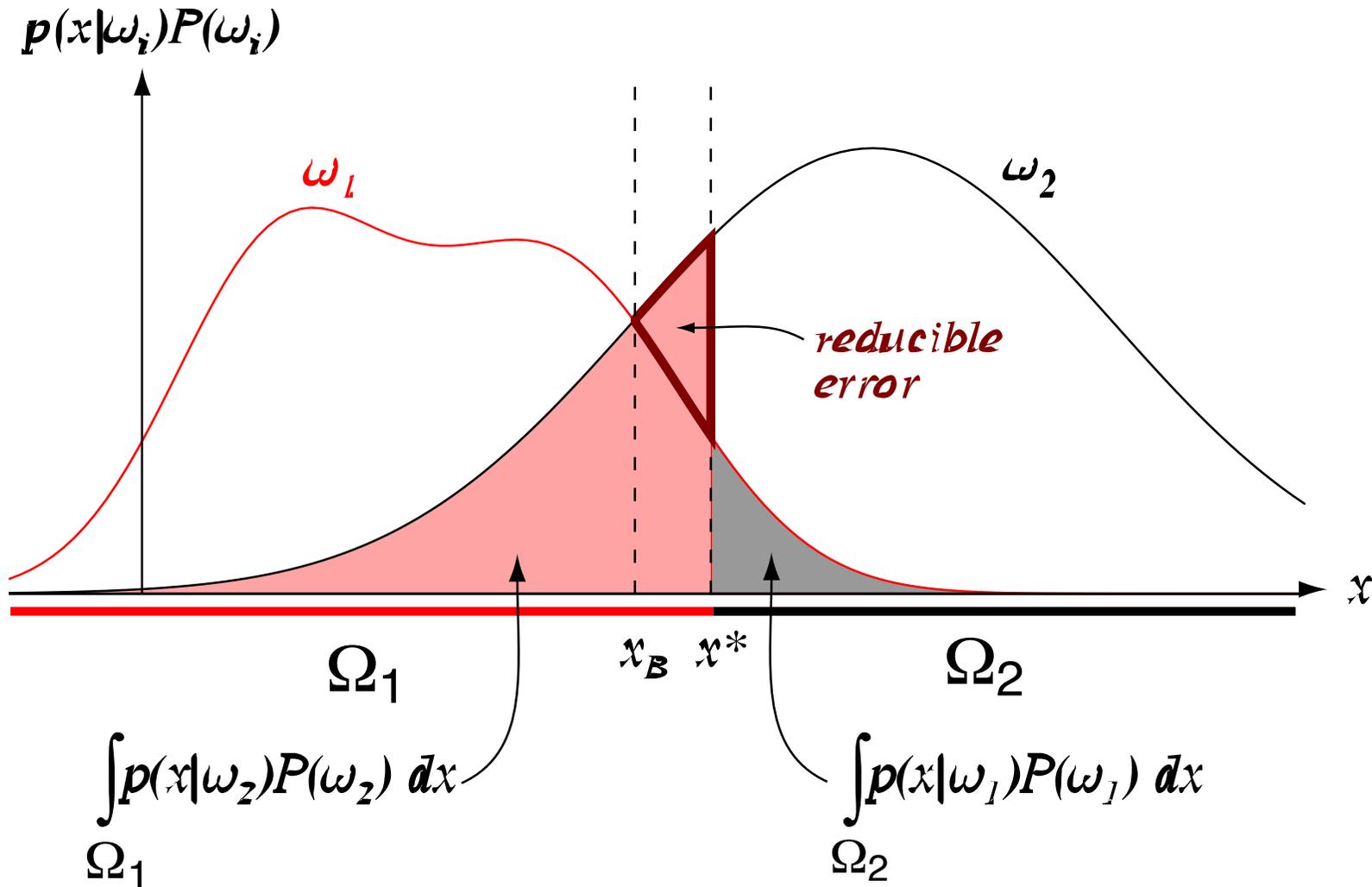
The error regions for a two-class problem are shown below (from DHS). The decision boundary  $x^*$  is set to  $x_B$  for minimum error.



## Probability of Error

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{error}) &= P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_2, \omega_1) + P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_1, \omega_2) \\ &= P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_2 | \omega_1)P(\omega_1) + P(\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_1 | \omega_2)P(\omega_2) \\ &= \int_{\Omega_2} p(\mathbf{x} | \omega_1)P(\omega_1)d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega_1} p(\mathbf{x} | \omega_2)P(\omega_2)d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

# Probability of Error



## Generative Model Decision Rule

For the two-class case the Bayes' minimum decision rule can be written as

$$\frac{P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x})}{P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x})} \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{>}} 1, \quad \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_2)} \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{>}} \frac{P(\omega_2)}{P(\omega_1)}$$

The first is the ratio of the posteriors, the second the ratio of the likelihoods compared to the ratio of the priors.

For multi-class problems, the posteriors of the  $K$  classes can be calculated

$$P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x}), P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x}), \dots, P(\omega_K|\mathbf{x})$$

and the largest selected, or use

$$\text{Decide } \underset{\omega_j}{\operatorname{argmax}} \{p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j)P(\omega_j)\}$$

since the RHS denominator of Bayes' rule is independent of class and this is a frequent statement of Bayes' decision rule for minimum error with generative models.

## Cost of Mis-Classification

So far the decision rule has aimed to minimise the average probability of classification error. Recall that for the two-class problem, the Bayes minimum average error decision rule can be written as:

$$\frac{P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x})}{P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x})} \underset{\omega_2}{\overset{\omega_1}{>}} 1$$

Sometimes, the **cost** (or **loss**) for misclassification is specified (or can be estimated) and different types of classification error may not have equal cost.

$C_{12}$  Cost of choosing  $\omega_1|\mathbf{x}$  from  $\omega_2$

$C_{21}$  Cost of choosing  $\omega_2|\mathbf{x}$  from  $\omega_1$

and  $C_{ii}$  is the cost of correct classification.

The aim now is to minimise the **Bayes' Risk** which is the expected value of the classification cost.

## Minimum Bayes' Risk

Again let the decision region associated with class  $\omega_j$  be denoted  $\Omega_j$ . Consider all the patterns that belong to class  $\omega_1$ . The expected cost (or risk) for these patterns  $\mathcal{R}_1$  is given by

$$\mathcal{R}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^2 C_{i1} \int_{\Omega_i} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_1) d\mathbf{x}$$

The overall cost  $\mathcal{R}$  is found as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{R} &= \sum_{j=1}^2 \mathcal{R}_j P(\omega_j) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^2 C_{ij} \int_{\Omega_i} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j) d\mathbf{x} P(\omega_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^2 \int_{\Omega_i} \sum_{j=1}^2 C_{ij} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j) P(\omega_j) d\mathbf{x} \end{aligned}$$

Minimise integrand at all points, choose  $\Omega_1$  so

$$\sum_{j=1}^2 C_{1j} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j) P(\omega_j) < \sum_{j=1}^2 C_{2j} p(\mathbf{x}|\omega_j) P(\omega_j)$$

In the case that  $C_{11} = C_{22} = 0$  we obtain

$$\frac{C_{21}P(\omega_1|\mathbf{x})}{C_{12}P(\omega_2|\mathbf{x})} \begin{matrix} \omega_1 \\ > \\ \omega_2 \end{matrix} 1$$

Note that decision rule to minimise the Bayes' Risk is the minimum error rule when  $C_{12} = C_{21} = 1$  and correct classification has zero cost.

## ROC curves

In some problems, such as in medical diagnostics, there is a “target” class that you want to separate from the rest of the population (*i.e.* it is a **detection** problem). Four types of outcomes can be identified (let class  $\omega_2$  be positive,  $\omega_1$  be negative)

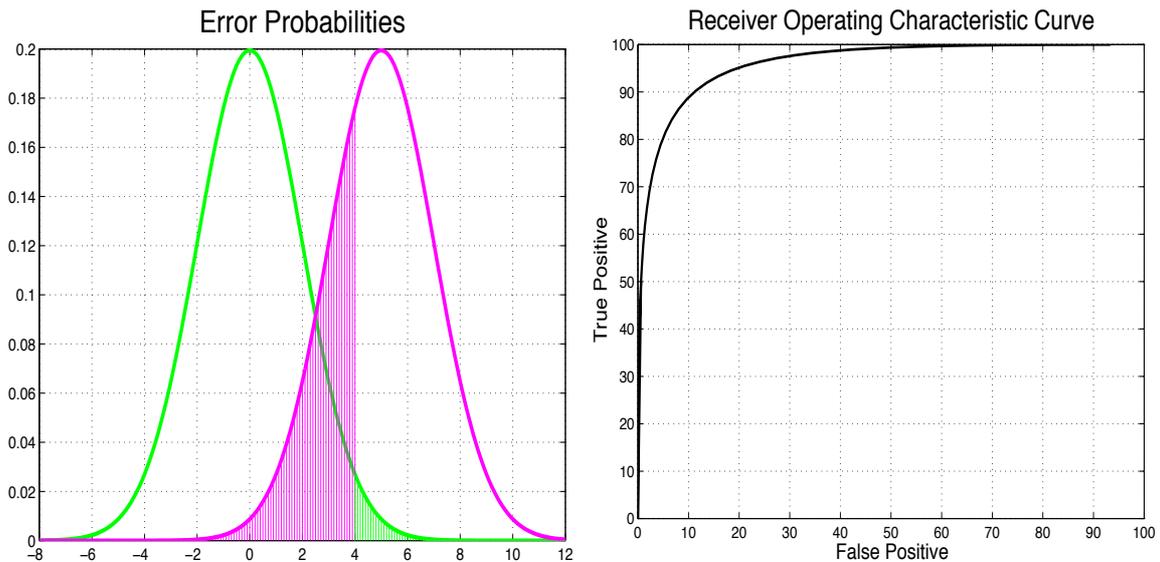
- True Positive (Hit)
- True Negative
- False Positive (False Alarm)
- False Negative

As the decision threshold is changed the ratio of True Positive to False Positive changes. This trade-off is often plotted in a **Receiver Operating Characteristic** or ROC curve.

The ROC curve is a plot of probability of true positive (hit) against probability of False Positive (false alarm). This allows a designer to see an overview of the characteristics of a system.

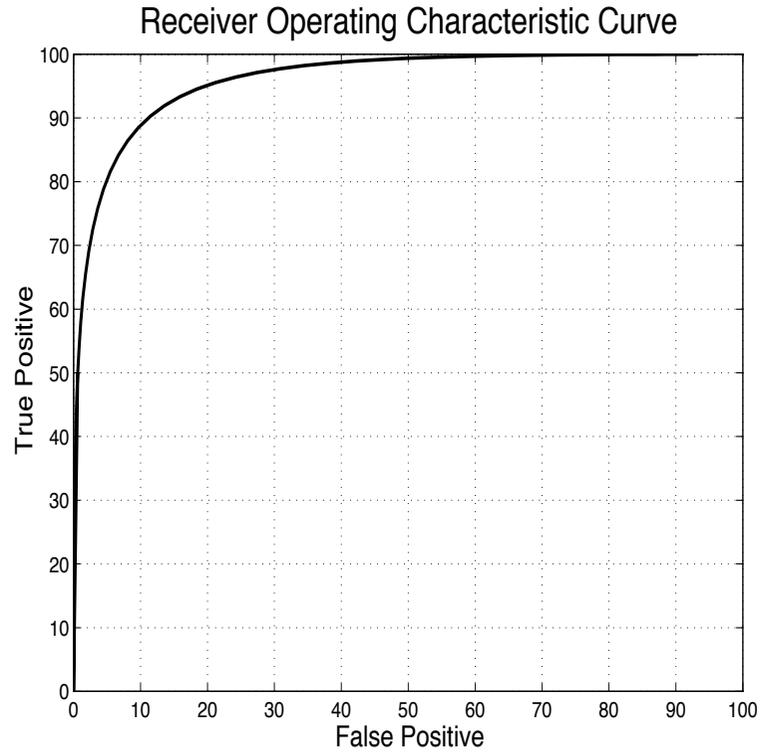
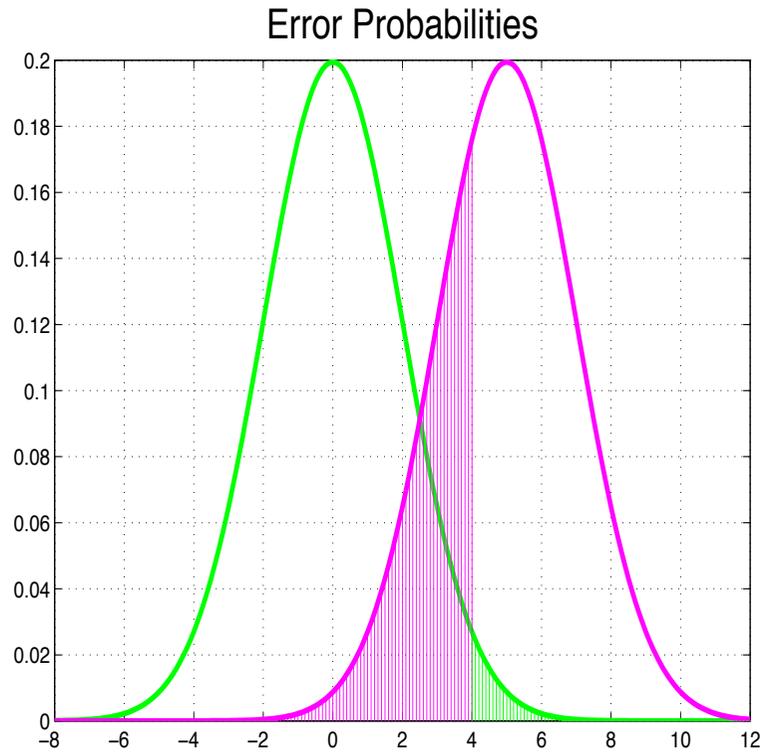
## ROC curves (Example)

Example 1-d data, equal variances and equal priors: the threshold for minimum error would be  $(\mu_1 + \mu_2)/2$ .



- **Left** are the plots of  $p(x|\omega_i)$  for classes  $\omega_2$  and  $\omega_1$ .
  - each value of  $x$  gives there is a probability for each outcome.
  - for  $x = 4$  the probabilities are shown
- **Right** is the associated ROC curve obtained by varying  $x$  (here % rather probability is given on the axis).
  - curves going into the top left corner are good
  - a straight line at 45 degrees is random

# Receiver Operator Curve



## Example - Monty Hall

A game show runs the following game

- There are 3 closed doors, behind two doors there are goats and behind one door there is a car. The positioning of the goats and car is random.
- The contestant picks a closed door.
- The game show host then opens one of the two remaining closed doors to reveal a goat.
- The contestant is now picks from the two remaining closed doors.
- The game show host opens the selected door and the contestant keeps the revealed prize.

**What strategy should be used?**

Note most people are assumed to prefer a car to a goat!