

Machine Learning and Pervasive Computing

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Overview and Structure

- 22.10.2014 Organisation
- 22.10.3014 Introduction (Def.: Machine learning, Supervised/Unsupervised, Examples)
- 29.10.2014 Machine Learning Basics (Toolchain, Features, Metrics, Rule-based)
- 05.11.2014** A simple Supervised learning algorithm
- 12.11.2014 Excursion: Avoiding local optima with random search
- 19.11.2014 –
- 26.11.2014** Bayesian learner
- 03.12.2014 –
- 10.12.2014 Decision tree learner
- 17.12.2014** k-nearest neighbour
- 07.01.2015 Support Vector Machines
- 14.01.2015** Artificial Neural networks and Self Organizing Maps
- 21.01.2015 Hidden Markov models and Conditional random fields
- 28.01.2015** High dimensional data, Unsupervised learning
- 04.02.2015 Anomaly detection, Online learning, Recom. systems

Outline

Introduction

Naïve Bayes

Bayesian Networks

Bayesian decision theory

With probability theory, the probability of events can be estimated by repeatedly generating events and counting their occurrences

When, however, an event only very seldom occurs or is hard to generate, other methods are required

Example:

Probability that the Arctic ice cap will have disappeared by the end of this century

In such cases, we would like to model uncertainty

In fact, it is possible to **represent uncertainty by probability**

Conditional probability

Conditional probability

The conditional probability of two events χ_1 and χ_2 with $P(\chi_2) > 0$ is denoted by $P(\chi_1|\chi_2)$ and is calculated by

$$P(\chi_1|\chi_2) = \frac{P(\chi_1 \cap \chi_2)}{P(\chi_2)}$$

$P(\chi_1|\chi_2)$ describes the probability that event χ_1 occurs in the presence of event χ_2 .

Bayesian decision theory

With the notion of conditional probability we can express the effect of observed data $\vec{a} = a_1, \dots, a_N$ on a probability distribution of \vec{b} : $P(\vec{b})$.

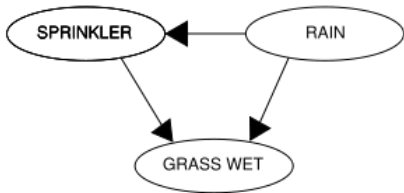
Thomas Bayes described a way to evaluate the uncertainty of \vec{b} after observing \vec{a}

$$P(\vec{b}|\vec{a}) = \frac{P(\vec{a}|\vec{b})P(\vec{b})}{P(\vec{a})}$$

$P(\vec{a}|\vec{b})$ expresses how probable a value for \vec{a} is given a fixed choice of \vec{b}

Example

		SPRINKLER	
RAIN		T	F
F		0.4	0.6
T		0.01	0.99



		RAIN	
		T	F
		0.2	0.8

		GRASS WET	
SPRINKLER	RAIN	T	F
F	F	0.0	1.0
F	T	0.8	0.2
T	F	0.9	0.1
T	T	0.99	0.01

Bayesian curve fitting

In the classification problems considered before, we were given \vec{x} and \vec{y} together with a new sample x_{M+1}

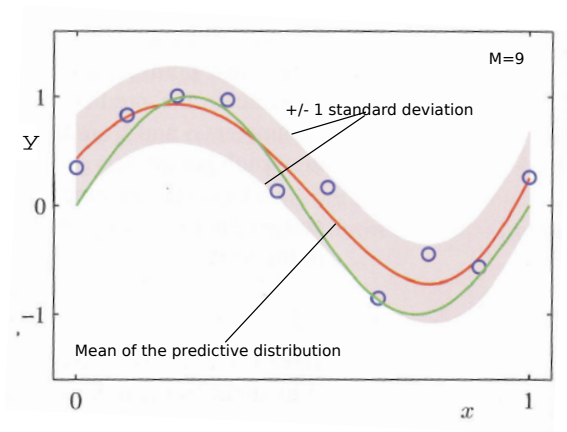
The task is to find a good estimation of the value y_{M+1}

This means that we want to evaluate the predictive distribution

$$p(y_{M+1}|x_{M+1}, \vec{x}, \vec{y})$$

To account for measurement inaccuracies, typically a probability distribution (e.g. Gauss) is underlying the sample vector \vec{x}

Bayesian curve fitting



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Naïve Bayes classification

	WiFi		Accelerometer			Audio			Light			At work	
	yes	no	yes	no		yes	no		yes	no	yes	no	
<3 APs	3	7	walking	4	8	quiet	8	5	outdoor	4	7	16	14
[3, 5]	5	5	standing	1	4	medium	6	3	indoor	12	7		
>5 APs	8	2	sitting	11	2	loud	2	6					

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WiFi	Accelerometer	Audio	Light	At work
4 APs	sitting	medium	indoors	???

Likelihood of YES:

Likelihood of NO:

Naïve Bayes classification

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Likelihood of YES: $\frac{5}{16} \cdot \frac{11}{16} \cdot \frac{6}{16} \cdot \frac{12}{16} \cdot \frac{16}{30} = 0.032$

Likelihood of NO: $\frac{5}{14} \cdot \frac{2}{14} \cdot \frac{3}{14} \cdot \frac{7}{14} \cdot \frac{14}{30} = 0.0026$

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Probability of YES: $\frac{0.032}{0.032+0.0026} \approx 0.925$

Probability of NO: $\frac{0.0026}{0.0026+0.032} \approx 0.075$

Naïve Bayes classificaiton

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This is due to bayes rule:

$$\mathcal{P}[\text{Hypothesis}|\text{Evidence}] = \frac{\mathcal{P}[\text{Evidence}|\text{Hypothesis}]\mathcal{P}[\text{Hypothesis}]}{\mathcal{P}[\text{Evidence}]}$$

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$$\mathcal{P}[\text{work}|\text{Evidence}] = \frac{\mathcal{P}[E_1|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[E_2|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[E_3|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[E_4|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[\text{work} = \text{YES}]}{\mathcal{P}[\text{Evidence}]}$$

$$\mathcal{P}[\text{work}|E] = \frac{\mathcal{P}[5 \text{ APs}|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[\text{sitting}|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[\text{medium}|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[\text{indoors}|\text{work}]\mathcal{P}[\text{work}]}{\mathcal{P}[\text{Evidence}]}$$

Naïve Bayes classification

The name Naïve Bayes stems from the fact that

- 1 the method is based on Bayes' rule
- 2 it naïvely assumes independence among events

Note that it is only valid to multiply probabilities given the class when the events are independent.

Naïve Bayes classification

The name Naïve Bayes stems from the fact that

- 1 the method is based on Bayes' rule
- 2 it naïvely assumes independence among events

Note that it is only valid to multiply probabilities given the class when the events are independent.

However, even though the latter assumption is unrealistic in real settings, the performance of Naïve Bayes on real data is good.

Naïve Bayes classification

Be careful with impossible events!

In the case that an attribute value does not occur in the training set in conjunction with every class value:

Assume: Walking always associated with 'NO'
($\rightarrow \mathcal{P}[\text{walking}|\text{yes}] = 0$)

Then: $\mathcal{P}[\text{yes}|E] = 0$

Naïve Bayes classification

Solution (Laplace estimator)

Add small constant $\frac{\mu}{n}$ to all numerators and compensate by adding μ to each of the n denominators:

$$\rightarrow \frac{5 + \frac{\mu}{4}}{16 + \mu} \cdot \frac{11 + \frac{\mu}{4}}{16 + \mu} \cdot \frac{5}{16} \cdot \frac{11}{16} \cdot \frac{6}{16} \cdot \frac{12}{16}$$

In practice, these small modifications make little difference given that there are sufficient training examples.

Naïve Bayes classification

Example (Laplace estimator)

Add 1 to all numerators and compensate by adding 4 to each of the 4 denominators:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{5}{16} \cdot \frac{11}{16} \cdot \frac{6}{16} \cdot \frac{12}{16} \\ \rightarrow & \frac{6}{20} \cdot \frac{12}{20} \cdot \frac{7}{20} \cdot \frac{16}{20} \end{aligned}$$

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Naïve Bayes classification


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Likelihood of YES: $\frac{6}{20} \cdot \frac{12}{20} \cdot \frac{7}{20} \cdot \frac{16}{20} \cdot \frac{16}{30} = 0.022$

Likelihood of NO: $\frac{6}{18} \cdot \frac{3}{18} \cdot \frac{4}{18} \cdot \frac{8}{18} \cdot \frac{14}{30} = 0.0026$

In practice, these small modifications make little difference given 

Naïve Bayes classification

Example (Laplace estimator)

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$$\rightarrow \frac{6}{20} \cdot \frac{12}{20} \cdot \frac{7}{20} \cdot \frac{16}{20}$$

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Likelihood of NO: $\frac{6}{18} \cdot \frac{3}{18} \cdot \frac{4}{18} \cdot \frac{8}{18} \cdot \frac{14}{30} = 0.0026$

Probability of YES: $\frac{0.022}{0.022+0.0026} \approx 0.894$

Probability of NO: $\frac{0.0026}{0.0026+0.022} \approx 0.105$

In practice, these small modifications make little difference given   

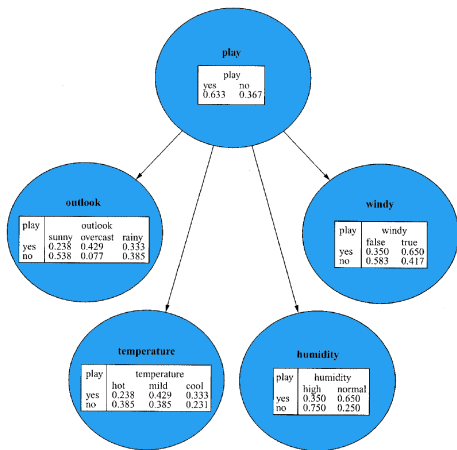
Outline

Introduction

Naïve Bayes

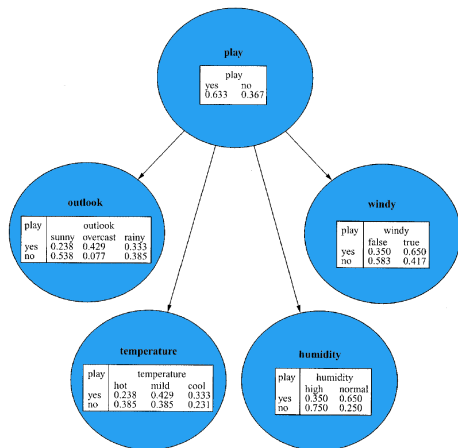
Bayesian Networks

Bayesian Networks



Bayesian Networks

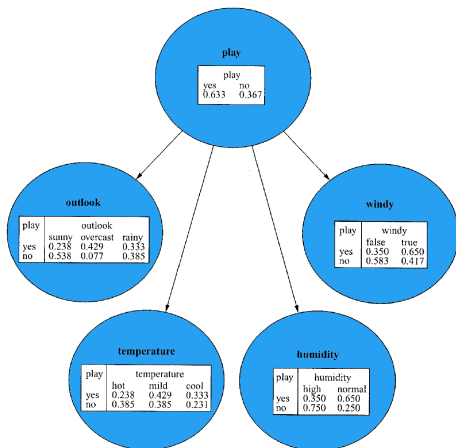
Concise and theoretically well founded way of representing probability distributions in a graphical manner



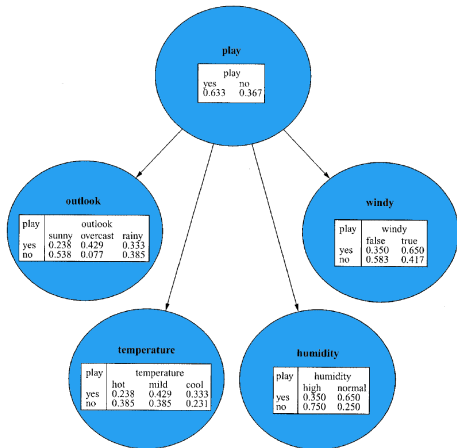
Bayesian Networks

Concise and theoretically well founded way of representing probability distributions in a graphical manner

Directed acyclic Graph with one vertex for each feature or class

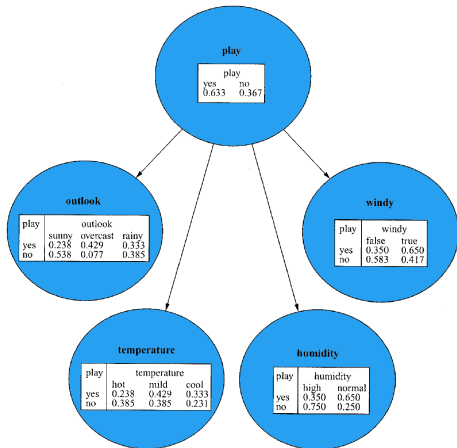


Left side of the distribution table in each node contains a column for every ingoing edge from a parent node

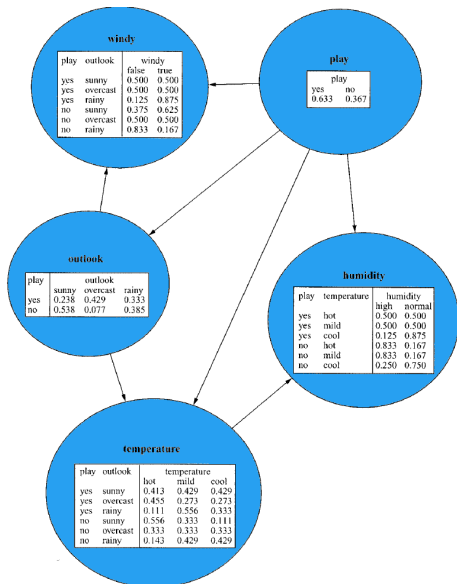


Left side of the distribution table in each node contains a column for every ingoing edge from a parent node

Each row defines a probability distribution over the values of a node's attribute

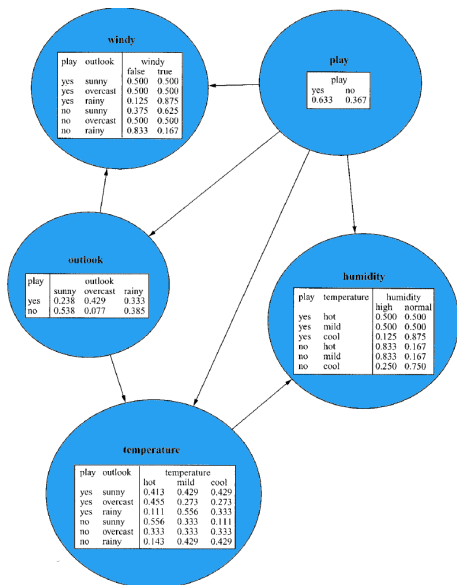


Prediction of class probabilities

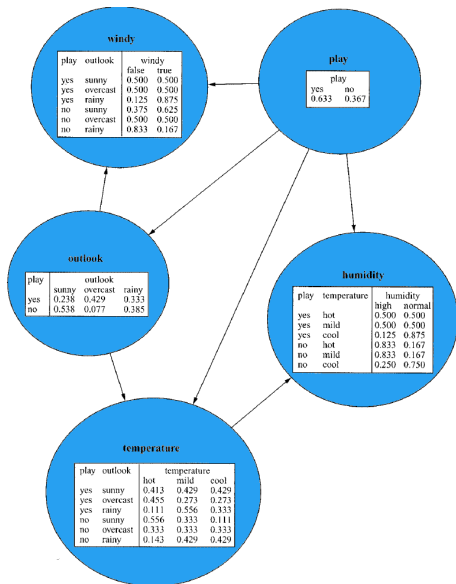


Prediction of class probabilities

For a particular sample, multiply all corresponding probabilities

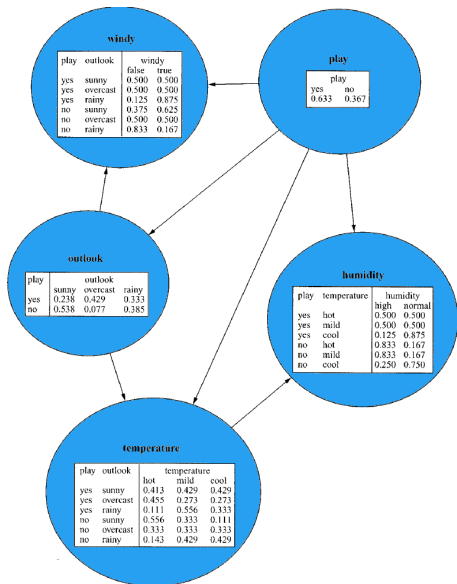


Example



Example

outlook rainy
 temperature cool
 humidity high
 windy true



Example

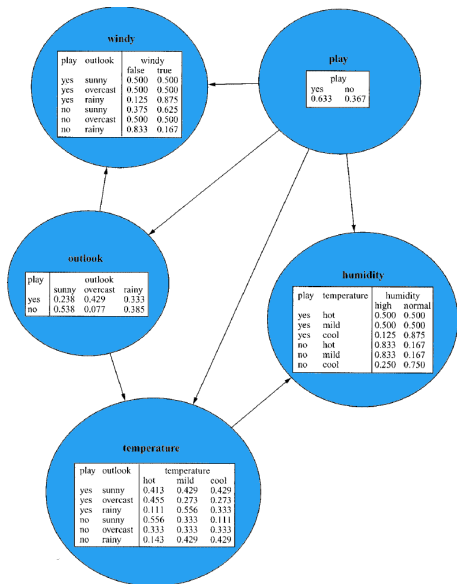
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$$\begin{aligned} \text{play} = \text{no} &= 0.367 \cdot 0.167 \cdot \\ &0.385 \cdot 0.25 \cdot \\ &0.429 = 0.0025 \end{aligned}$$



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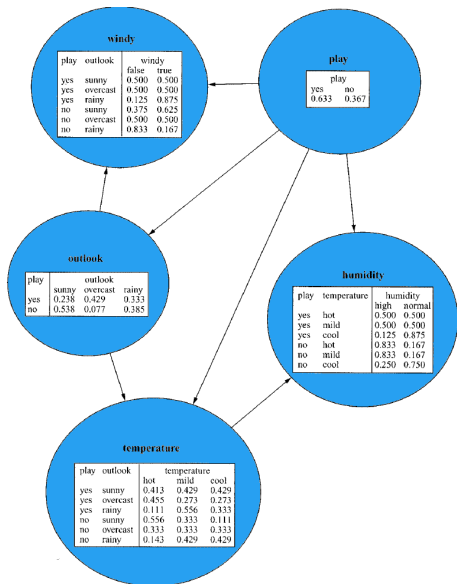
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$$\text{play} = \text{yes} = 0.0077$$



Example

$$\text{play} = \text{no} \quad 0.367 \cdot 0.167 \cdot 0.385 \cdot 0.25 \cdot 0.429 = 0.0025$$

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Example

$$\text{play} = \text{no} \quad 0.367 \cdot 0.167 \cdot 0.385 \cdot 0.25 \cdot 0.429 = 0.0025$$

$$\text{play} = \text{yes} = 0.0077$$

$$\mathcal{P}[\text{play} = \text{no}] = \frac{0.0025}{0.367+0.167+0.385+0.25+0.429} = 0.245$$

Example

$$\text{play} = \text{no} \quad 0.367 \cdot 0.167 \cdot 0.385 \cdot 0.25 \cdot 0.429 = 0.0025$$

$$\text{play} = \text{yes} = 0.0077$$

$$\mathcal{P}[\text{play} = \text{no}] = \frac{0.0025}{0.367+0.167+0.385+0.25+0.429} = 0.245$$

$$\mathcal{P}[\text{play} = \text{yes}] = \frac{0.0077}{0.875+0.333+0.111+0.5+0.633} = 0.755$$

Example

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Remark Multiplication of all probabilities is valid due to conditional independence: Multiplication is valid provided that each node is independent from parents

Conditional independence

Multiplication follows result of chain rule in probability theory (joint probability of m variables can be decomposed into its product):

$$\mathcal{P}[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}[a_i | a_{i-1}, \dots, a_1]$$

Since the Bayesian network is an acyclic graph, nodes can be ordered to give all ancestors of a node a_i indices smaller than i .
Then, due to conditional independence:

$$\mathcal{P}[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}[a_i | a_{i-1}, \dots, a_1] = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}[a_i | a_i \text{'s parents}]$$

Learning Bayesian Networks

In order to learn/train a Bayesian network we require

- 1 A function to evaluate a given network
- 2 A method to search through the space of possible networks

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Probability assigned to given instance is multiplied over all instances.

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To avoid very small numbers, the log likelihood is computed:
Log likelihood sum of the logarithms of the probabilities

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Search through the space of possible networks

Vertices are predefined by features and classes

Network structure is learned by a search over the space spanned by all possible edges

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Solution 1 Adding a penalty for the complexity of the network

Solution 2 Use cross-validation to estimate the goodness of a fit

Popular methods to evaluate the quality of a network

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

$$\text{AIC score} = -(\text{Log likelihood}) + K$$

- K Number of independent estimates in all probability tables
- N Number of instances in the data

Popular methods to evaluate the quality of a network

Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

$$\text{AIC score} = -(\text{Log likelihood}) + K$$

MDL metric

$$\text{MDL score} = -(\text{Log likelihood}) + \frac{K}{2} \log N$$

- K Number of independent estimates in all probability tables
- N Number of instances in the data

Algorithms to learn Bayesian networks

A simple and fast algorithm to learn Bayesian networks is called the K2 algorithm

K2 algorithm

Init: Given ordering of the features (vertices)

Iteratively: Process each node in turn by greedily adding edges from previously processed nodes

In each step: Add the edge that maximizes the network's score

Until: no further improvement → turn to the next node

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Multistarts: Solution reached dependent on initial ordering

Data structures for fast learning

Learning Bayesian networks involves a lot of counting

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In order to avoid redundant computations,
all-dimensions (AD) trees might be employed

Data structures for fast learning

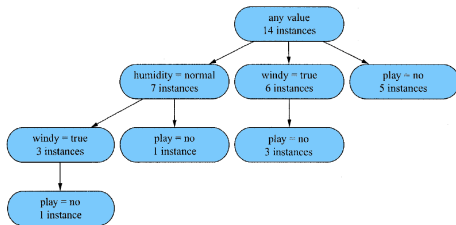
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all-dimensions (AD) trees might be employed

Creation of such tree for each node in the Bayes network

Humidity	Windy	Play	Count
high	true	yes	1
high	true	no	2
high	false	yes	2
high	false	no	2
normal	true	yes	2
normal	true	no	1
normal	false	yes	4
normal	false	no	0

(a)



(b)

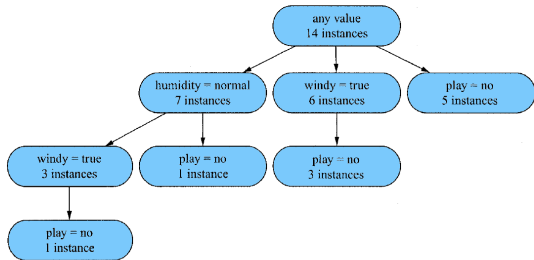
Data structures for fast learning

All possible combinations can be directly read from the tree

→ Node count is low since some information is implicit

Humidity	Windy	Play	Count
high	true	yes	1
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high	false	no	2
normal	true	yes	2
normal	true	no	1
normal	false	yes	4
normal	false	no	0

(a)



(b)

Data structures for fast learning

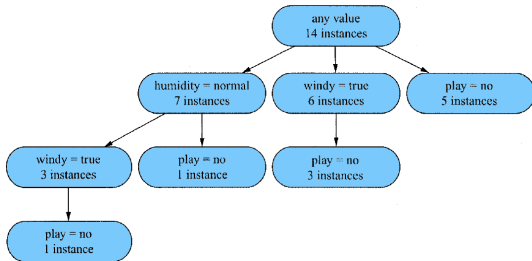
Example

Humidity normal

Windy true

Play yes

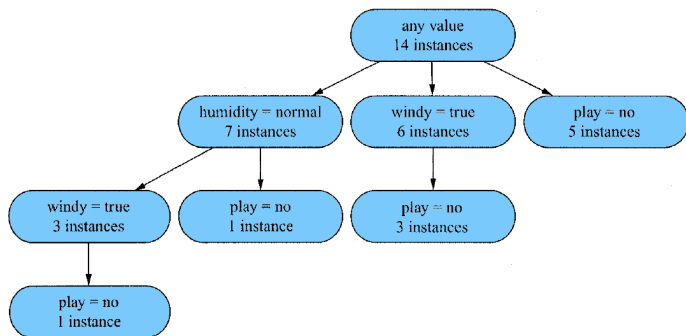
(No node in the tree but one occurrence of [normal-true-no])



Data structures for fast learning

AD trees pay off only if the data contains many instances (e.g. thousands)

Therefore, usually a cutoff parameter k is employed that specifies whether or not an AD tree is created for a specific node



Outline

Introduction

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Questions?

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Literature

- C.M. Bishop: Pattern recognition and machine learning, Springer, 2007.
- R.O. Duda, P.E. Hart, D.G. Stork: Pattern Classification, Wiley, 2001.

