

What is the best criterion for making a decision?

Ideally, we would select the class for which the conditional probability is highest:

$$c^* = \underset{c}{\operatorname{argmax}} P((c = \hat{c}) | (\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}))$$

However, we can't estimate this probability directly from the training data. Hence, we consider:

$$c^* = \underset{c}{\operatorname{argmax}} P((\bar{x} = \hat{x}) | (c = \hat{c}))$$

By definition

$$P((c = \hat{c}) | (\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}})) = \frac{P((c = \hat{c}), (\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}))}{P(\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}})}$$

and

$$P((\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}) | (c = \hat{c})) = \frac{P((c = \hat{c}), (\hat{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}))}{P(c = \hat{c})}$$

from which we have

$$P((c = \hat{c}) | (\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}})) = \frac{P((\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}) | (c = \hat{c})) P(c = \hat{c})}{P(\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}})}$$

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Clearly, the choice of c that maximizes the right side also maximizes the left side. Therefore,

$$c^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{c} \left[ P((\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}) | (c = \hat{c})) \right]$$
$$= \operatorname{argmx}_{c} \left[ P((\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}) | (c = \hat{c})) P(c = \hat{c}) \right]$$

if the class probabilities are equal,

$$c^* = \operatorname{argmx}_{C} [P((\bar{x} = \hat{\bar{x}}) | (c = \hat{c}))]$$

A quantity *related* to the probability of an event which is used to make a decision about the occurrence of that event is often called a *likelihood measure*.

A decision rule that maximizes a likelihood is called a maximum likelihood decision.

In a case where the number of outcomes is not finite, we can use an analogous continuous distribution. It is common to assume a multivariate Gaussian distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{\bar{x}|c}(x_1, \dots, x_N | c) &= f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}} | \hat{c}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi |C_{\bar{x}|c}|}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\hat{\bar{x}} - \bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}|c})^T \underline{C}_{\bar{x}|c}^{-1}(\hat{\bar{x}} - \bar{\mu}_{\hat{\bar{x}}|c})\right\} \end{aligned}$$

We can elect to maximize the log,  $\ln[f_{\bar{x}|c}(\bar{x}|c)]$  rather than the likelihood (we refer to this as the log likelihood). This gives the decision rule:

$$c^{*} = \underset{c}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left[ \left( \hat{\bar{x}} - \bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}|c} \right)^{T} \underline{C}_{\bar{x}|c}^{-1} \left( \hat{\bar{x}} - \bar{\mu}_{\hat{\bar{x}}|c} \right) + \ln \left\{ \left| \underline{C}_{\bar{x}|c}^{-1} \right| \right\} \right]$$

(Note that the maximization became a minimization.)

We can define a distance measure based on this as:

$$d_{ml}(\bar{x},\bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}|c}) = (\hat{\bar{x}}-\bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}|c})^T \underline{C}_{\bar{x}|c}^{-1}(\hat{\bar{x}}-\bar{\mu}_{\hat{\bar{x}}|c}) + \ln\left\{\left|\underline{C}_{\bar{x}|c}^{-1}\right|\right\}$$

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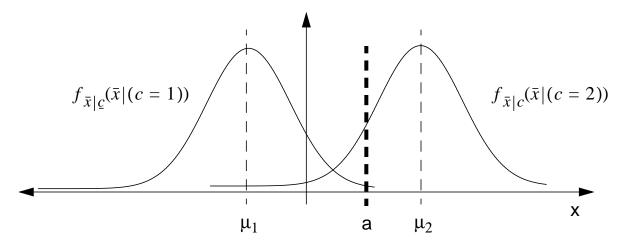
Note that the distance is conditioned on each class mean and covariance. This is why "generic" distance comparisons are a joke.

If the mean and covariance are the same across all classes, this expression simplifies to:

$$d_{M}(\bar{x},\bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}}|_{c}) = (\hat{\bar{x}}-\bar{\mu}_{\bar{x}}|_{c})^{T} \underline{C}_{\bar{x}}|_{c}^{-1} (\hat{\bar{x}}-\bar{\mu}_{\hat{\bar{x}}}|_{c})$$

This is frequently called the *Mahalanobis distance*. But this is nothing more than a weighted Euclidean distance.

This result has a relatively simple geometric interpretation for the case of a single random variable with classes of equal variances:



The decision rule involves setting a threshold:

$$a = \left(\frac{\mu_1 + \mu_2}{2}\right) + \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu_1 - \mu_2} \ln\left(\frac{P(c=2)}{P(c=1)}\right)$$

and,

if
$$x < a$$
 $x \in (c = 1)$ else $x \in (c = 2)$ 

If the variances are not equal, the threshold shifts towards the distribution with the smaller variance.

What is an example of an application where the classes are not equiprobable?



## **Probabilistic Distance Measures**

How do we compare two probability distributions to measure their overlap?

Probabilistic distance measures take the form:

$$J = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g\{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|\hat{c}), P(c=\hat{c}), \hat{c}=1, 2, ..., K\}d\hat{\bar{x}}$$

where

- 1. J is nonnegative
- 2. J attains a maximum when all classes are disjoint
- 3. J=0 when all classes are equiprobable

Two important examples of such measures are:

(1) Bhattacharyya distance:

$$J_B = -\ln\left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sqrt{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|1)f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|2)}d\hat{x}\right]$$

(2) Divergence

$$J_{D} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|1) - f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|2)] \ln \left[\frac{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|1)}{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|2)}\right] d\hat{\bar{x}}$$

Both reduce to a Mahalanobis-like distance for the case of Gaussian vectors with equal class covariances.

Such metrics will be important when we attempt to cluster feature vectors and acoustic models.



## Probabilistic Dependence Measures

A probabilistic dependence measure indicates how strongly a feature is associated with its class assignment. When features are independent of their class assignment, the class conditional pdf's are identical to the mixture pdf:

$$f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|\hat{c}) = f_{\bar{x}}(\hat{\bar{x}}) \qquad \forall c$$

When their is a strong dependence, the conditional distribution should be significantly different than the mixture. Such measures take the form:

$$J = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g\{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{x}|\hat{c}), f_{\bar{x}}(\hat{x}), P(c=\hat{c}), \hat{c}=1, 2, ..., K\}d\hat{x}$$

An example of such a measure is the average mutual information:

$$M_{avg}(c, \hat{\bar{x}}) = \sum_{c=1}^{K} P(c=\hat{c}) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \dots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|\hat{c}) \log \frac{f_{\bar{x}|c}(\hat{\bar{x}}|\hat{c})}{f_{\bar{x}}(\hat{\bar{x}})} d\hat{\bar{x}}$$

The discrete version of this is:

$$M_{avg}(c, \hat{\bar{x}}) = \sum_{c=1}^{K} P(c=\hat{c}) \sum_{i=1}^{L} P(\bar{x}=\bar{x}_{l}) \log_2 \frac{P(\bar{x}=\bar{x}_{l}|c=\hat{c})}{P(\bar{x}=\bar{x}_{l})}$$

Mutual information is closely related to entropy, as we shall see shortly.

Such distance measures can be used to cluster data and generate vector quantization codebooks. A simple and intuitive algorithms is known as the K-means algorithm:

Initialization: Choose K centroids

Recursion: 1. Assign all vectors to their nearest neighbor.

- 2. Recompute the centroids as the average of all vectors assigned to the same centroid.
- 3. Check the overall distortion. Return to step 1 if some distortion criterion is not met.

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