Statistics and Machine Learning using belief functions Lecture 4 – Estimation from Uncertain Data

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Beijing University of Technology May 2017

Outline



Introduction

- Motivations
- Examples
- Evidential EM algorithm
 Evidential Likelihood
 - E²M algorithm
- Partially supervised classification
 Linear discriminant analysis
 - Logistic regression
 - Results

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Uncertain data

- Uncertain data arise in many applications (but it is usually neglected).
- Uncertainty may be due to:
 - Limitations of the underlying measuring equipment (unreliable sensors, indirect measurements), e.g.: biological sensor for toxicity measurement in water.
 - Use of imputation, interpolation or extrapolation techniques, e.g.: clustering of moving objects whose position is measured asynchronously by a sensor network,
 - Partial or uncertain responses in surveys or subjective data annotation, e.g.: sensory analysis experiments, data labeling by experts, etc.
- How to carry out statistical analysis of uncertain data?

Introductory example

- Let us consider a population in which some disease is present in proportion θ.
- *n* patients have been selected at random from that population. Let $x_i = 1$ if patient *i* has the disease, $x_i = 0$ otherwise. Each x_i is a realization of $X_i \sim \mathcal{B}(\theta)$.
- We assume that the x_i's are not observed directly. For each patient i, a physician gives a degree of plausibility pl_i(1) that patient i has the disease and a degree of plausibility pl_i(0) that patient i does not have the disease.
- The observations are uncertain data of the form pl_1, \ldots, pl_n .
- How to estimate θ ?

Aleatory vs. epistemic uncertainty

In the previous example, uncertainty has two distinct origins:

- Before a patient has been drawn at random from the population, uncertainty is due to the variability of the variable of interest in the population. This is aleatory uncertainty.
- After the random experiment has been performed, uncertainty is due to lack of knowledge of the state of each particular patient. This is epistemic uncertainty.
- Epistemic uncertainty can be reduced by carrying out further investigations. Aleatory uncertainty cannot.

Approach

- In this lecture, we will consider statistical estimation problems in which both kinds of uncertainty are present: it will be assumed that each data item x
 - has been generated at random from a population (aleatory uncertainty), but
 - it is ill-known because of imperfect measurement or perception (epistemic uncertainty).
- The proposed model treats these two kinds of uncertainty separately:
 - Aleatory uncertainty will be represented by a parametric statistical model;
 - Epistemic uncertainty will be represented using belief functions.
- Application: partially supervised learning.

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Facial expressions





surprise



sadness



disgust



anger



fear



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Recognition of facial expressions

- To achieve good performances in such tasks (object classification in images or videos), we need a large number of labeled images.
- However, ground truth is usually not available or difficult to determine with high precision and reliability: it is necessary to have the images subjectively annotated (labeled) by humans.
- How to account for uncertainty in such subjective annotations?
- Experiment:
 - Images were labeled by 5 subjects;
 - For each image, subjects were asked to give a degree of plausibility for each of the 6 basic expressions.

Example 1



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Example 2



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Example 3



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Detection of K-complexes in EEG signals

- K-complexes: EEG waveforms that occur during stage 2 of non-rapid eye movement sleep . May aid sleep-based memory consolidation.
- Goal: build a system that automatically detects K-complexes in EEG data.
- We need a learning set of EEG signals labeled as positive and negative instances.
- Problem: no ground truth!
- Solution: label data by experts.

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K-complex dataset



Each learning instance is composed of a feature vector and an uncertain class label.

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Partially supervised learning

• Complete data: $\mathbf{x} = \{(\mathbf{w}_i, z_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ with

- **w**_i: feature vector for image *i* (pixel gray levels)
- *z_i*: class of image *i* (one the six expressions).
- The feature vectors **w**_i are perfectly observed but class labels are only partially known through subjective evaluations.
- Observed data:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ps} = \{(\boldsymbol{w}_i, m_i)\}_{i=1}^n,$$

where m_i is a mass function representing partial information about the class of object *i*.

• How to learn a decision rule from such data?

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General approach

- **)** Postulate a parametric statistical model $p_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ for the complete data;
- Represent epistemic data uncertainty using belief functions (observed data);
- Sestimate θ by minimizing the conflict between the model and the observed data using an extension of the EM algorithm: the evidential EM (E²M) algorithm.

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Model

- Let X be a (discrete) random vector taking values in Ω_X, with probability mass function p_X(·; θ) depending on an unknown parameter θ ∈ Θ.
- Let **x** be a realization of **X** (complete data).
- We assume that \mathbf{x} is only partially observed, and partial knowledge of \mathbf{x} is described by a mass function m on $\Omega_{\mathbf{x}}$ ("observed" data).
- Problem: estimate θ .

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Likelihood function (reminder)

Given a parametric model *p_X*(·; θ) and an observation *x*, the likelihood function is the mapping from Θ to [0, 1] defined as

$$\boldsymbol{ heta}
ightarrow \boldsymbol{L}(\boldsymbol{ heta}; \boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{p}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{ heta}).$$

- It measures the "likelihood" or plausibility of each possible value of the parameter, after the data has been observed.
- If we observe that $\mathbf{x} \in A$, then the likelihood function is:

$$L(\theta; A) = \mathbb{P}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(A; \theta) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in A} p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta).$$

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Evidential Likelihood function

Definition



- Assume that *m* has focal sets A_1, \ldots, A_r .
- If we knew that *x* ∈ *A_i*, the likelihood would be

$$L(\theta; A_i) = \mathbb{P}_{\boldsymbol{X}}(A_i; \theta) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in A_i} p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta).$$

• Taking the expectation with respect to *m*:

$$L(\theta; m) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} m(A_i) L(\theta; A_i)$$

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Interpretation

We have

$$L(\theta; m) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} m(A_i) \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in A_i} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$$

=
$$\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_{\mathbf{X}}} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta) \sum_{A_i \ni \mathbf{x}} m(A_i)$$

=
$$\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \Omega_{\mathbf{X}}} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}; \theta) pl(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \kappa,$$

where κ is the degree of conflict between $p_{\mathbf{X}}(\cdot; \theta)$ and m.

 Consequently, maximizing L(θ; m) with respect to θ amounts to minimizing the conflict between the parametric model and the uncertain observations

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Case of fuzzy data

• We can also write $L(\theta; m)$ as:

$$L(\theta; m) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega_{\boldsymbol{X}}} p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta) pl(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \left[pl(\boldsymbol{X}) \right]$$

- If *m* is consonant, *pl* may be interpreted as the membership function of a fuzzy subset of Ω_X: it can be seen as fuzzy data.
- $L(\theta; m)$ is then the probability of the fuzzy data, according to the definition given by Zadeh (1968).

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Independence assumptions

- Let us assume that $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{np}$, where each \mathbf{x}_i is a realization from a *p*-dimensional random vector \mathbf{X}_i .
- Independence assumptions:
 - **Stochastic independence of** X_1, \ldots, X_n :

$$p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{\boldsymbol{X}_i}(\boldsymbol{x}_i;\boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad \forall \boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{x}_n) \in \Omega_{\boldsymbol{X}}$$

2 Cognitive independence of x_1, \ldots, x_n with respect to *m*:

$$pl(\boldsymbol{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} pl_i(\boldsymbol{x}_i), \quad \forall \boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_n) \in \Omega_{\boldsymbol{X}}.$$

• Under these assumptions:

$$\log L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{m}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[\boldsymbol{p} l_i(\boldsymbol{X}_i) \right].$$

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E²M algorithm

Evidential EM algorithm

 The evidential log-likelihood function log L(θ; m) can be maximized using an iterative algorithm composed of two steps:

E-step: Compute the expectation of log $L(\theta; \mathbf{X})$ with respect to $m \oplus p_{\mathbf{X}}(\cdot; \theta^{(q)})$:

$$Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)}) = \frac{\sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega_X} \log(L(\theta; \boldsymbol{x})) p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta^{(q)}) pl(\boldsymbol{x})}{\sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega_X} p_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta^{(q)}) pl(\boldsymbol{x})}.$$

M-step: Maximize $Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)})$ with respect to θ .

 E- and M-steps are iterated until the increase of log L(θ; m) becomes smaller than some threshold.

Properties

- When *m* is categorical: m(A) = 1 for some $A \subseteq Ω$, then the previous algorithm reduces to the EM algorithm \rightarrow evidential EM (E²M) algorithm.
- Onotonicity: any sequence $L(\theta^{(q)}; m)$ for $q = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ of evidential likelihood values obtained using the E²M algorithm is non decreasing, i.e., it verifies

$$L(\theta^{(q+1)}; m) \geq L(\theta^{(q)}; m), \quad \forall q.$$

The algorithm only uses the contour function *pl*, which drastically reduces the complexity of calculations.

Example: uncertain Bernoulli sample

Model and data

- Let us assume that the complete data $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a realization from an i.i.d. sample X_1, \dots, X_n from $\mathcal{B}(\theta)$ with $\theta \in [0, 1]$.
- We only have partial information about the x_i 's in the form: pl_1, \ldots, pl_n , where $pl_i(x)$ is the plausibility that $x_i = x, x \in \{0, 1\}$.
- Under the cognitive independence assumption:

$$\log L(\theta; pl_1, \dots, pl_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \left[pl_i(X_i) \right]$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left[(1-\theta) pl_i(0) + \theta pl_i(1) \right]$$

E- and M-steps

Complete data log-likelihood:

$$\log L(\theta, \mathbf{x}) = n \log(1-\theta) + \log \left(\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}\right) \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i.$$

E-step: compute

$$\mathcal{Q}(heta, heta^{(q)}) = n\log(1- heta) + \log\left(rac{ heta}{1- heta}
ight) \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i^{(q)}, ext{ with }$$

$$\xi_i^{(q)} = \mathbb{E}_{ heta^{(q)}}\left[X_i| oldsymbol{p} l_i
ight] = rac{ heta^{(q)} oldsymbol{p} l_i(1)}{(1- heta^{(q)}) oldsymbol{p} l_i(0) + heta^{(q)} oldsymbol{p} l_i(1)}.$$

M-step:

$$\theta^{(q+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i^{(q)}.$$

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Belief Functions Seminar

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Numerical example



$\alpha = 0.5$						
q	$\theta^{(q)}$	$L(\theta^{(q)}; pl)$				
0	0.3000	6.6150				
1	0.5500	16.8455				
2	0.5917	17.2676				
3	0.5986	17.2797				
4	0.5998	17.2800				
5	0.6000	17.2800				

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 $\hat{\theta} = 0.6$

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Classification

- We consider a population of objects partitioned in *g* classes.
- Each object is described by *d* continuous features $W = (W^1, ..., W^d)$ and a class variable *Z*.
- The goal of classification is to learn a decision rule that classifies any object from its feature vector, based on a learning set.

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Partially supervised learning

• Classically, different learning tasks are considered:

Supervised learning: $\mathcal{L}_{s} = \{(\mathbf{w}_{i}, z_{i})\}_{i=1}^{n};$ Unsupervised learning: $\mathcal{L}_{ns} = \{\mathbf{w}_{i}\}_{i=1}^{n};$ Semi-supervised learning: $\mathcal{L}_{ss} = \{(\mathbf{w}_{i}, z_{i})\}_{i=1}^{n_{s}} \cup \{\mathbf{w}_{i}\}_{i=n_{s}}^{n}$

• Here, we consider partially supervised learning:

$$\mathcal{L}_{ps} = \{(\boldsymbol{w}_i, m_i)\}_{i=1}^n,$$

where m_i is a mass function representing partial information about the class of object *i*.

- This problem can be solved using the E²M algorithm using a suitable parametric model.
- In this lecture, I will present two models:
 - Linear discriminant analysis
 - 2 Logistic regression

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Outline

Introduction

- Motivations
- Examples
- Evidential EM algorithmEvidential Likelihood
 - E²M algorithm



Partially supervised classificationLinear discriminant analysisLogistic regression

Results

Model

- Generative model:
 - Complete data: $\mathbf{x} = \{(\mathbf{w}_i, z_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, assumed to be a realization of an iid random sample $\mathbf{X} = \{(\mathbf{W}_i, Z_i)\}_{i=1}^n$;
 - Given Z_i = k, W_i is multivariate normal with mean μ_k and common variance matrix Σ.
 - The proportion of class k in the population is π_k .
 - Parameter vector: $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \left(\{\pi_k\}_{k=1}^g, \{\boldsymbol{\mu}_k\}_{k=1}^g, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \right).$
- The Bayes rule is approximated by assigning each object to the class *k** that maximizes the estimated posterior probability

$$\rho(Z = k | \boldsymbol{w}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \frac{\phi(\boldsymbol{w}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_k, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \widehat{\pi}_k}{\sum_{\ell} \phi(\boldsymbol{w}; \widehat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{\ell}, \widehat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}) \widehat{\pi}_{\ell}},$$

where $\hat{\theta}$ is the MLE of θ .

Complete-data likelihood

The complete-data likelihood is

$$c(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(w_i | Z_i = z_i) p(z_i)$$
(1a)
= $\prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{g} \phi(w_i; \mu_k, \Sigma)^{z_{ik}} \pi_k^{z_{ik}},$ (1b)

where $\phi(\cdot; \mu_k, \Sigma)$ is the multivariate normal density,

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$$\phi(\mathbf{w};\mu_k,\Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w}-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{w}-\mu)\right\},\,$$

and z_{ik} is a binary class indicator variable, such that $z_{ik} = 1$ if $z_i = k$ and $z_{ik} = 0$ otherwise.

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Observed-data likelihood

• Under the assumption of cognitive independence, the contour function on Ω_X is $pl(x) = \prod_{i=1}^n pl_i(x_i)$, with

$$pl_i(x_i) = egin{cases} pl_{ik} & ext{if } x_i = (w_i, k) ext{ for some } k = 1, \dots, g \\ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

• The evidential likelihood is thus

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{g} \rho I_{ik} \phi(\mathbf{w}_i; \mu_k, \Sigma) \pi_k.$$
(2)

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Special cases

• When there is no uncertainty, i.e., when $pl_{ik} = z_{ik}$ for all (i, k), we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{g} pl_{ik}\phi(\mathbf{w}_{i};\mu_{k},\Sigma)\pi_{k} = \prod_{k=1}^{g} \phi(\mathbf{w}_{i};\mu_{k},\Sigma)^{pl_{ik}}\pi_{k}^{pl_{ik}},$$

and the evidential likelihood (2) becomes identical to the complete-data likelihood (1b).

• When uncertainty is maximal, i.e., class labels are completely unknown, then $p_{ik} = 1$ for all (i, k), and the evidential likelihood (2) becomes

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{g} \phi(\mathbf{w}_{i}; \mu_{k}, \Sigma) \pi_{k},$$

which is the likelihood function corresponding to the unsupervised case.

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E²M algorithm: E-step

In the E-step of the E²M algorithm for this model, we compute the expectation of the complete-data log-likelihood

$$\ell_{c}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} z_{ik} \left[\log \phi(\mathbf{w}_{i}; \mu_{k}, \Sigma) + \log \pi_{k} \right]$$

with respect to the combined probability mass function

$$p_X(x|pl;\theta^{(q)}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|pl_i;\theta^{(q)}),$$

with

$$p(x_i|pl_i; \theta^{(q)}) = \begin{cases} \frac{pl_{ik}\pi_k^{(q)}\phi(w_i; \mu_k^{(q)}, \Sigma^{(q)})}{\sum_{\ell} pl_{i\ell}\pi_\ell^{(q)}\phi(w_i; \mu_\ell^{(q)}, \Sigma^{(q)})} & \text{if } x_i = (w_i, k) \text{ for some } k\\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

E²M algorithm: E-step (continued)

We get

$$Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{g} t_{ik}^{(q)} \left[\log \phi(w_i; \mu_k, \Sigma) \pi_k + \log \pi_k \right],$$
(3)

with

$$t_{ik}^{(q)} = \mathbb{E}(Z_{ik}|pl;\theta^{(q)}) = \frac{pl_{ik}\pi_k^{(q)}\phi(w_i;\mu_k^{(q)},\Sigma^{(q)})}{\sum_{\ell} pl_{i\ell}\pi_{\ell}^{(q)}\phi(w_i;\mu_{\ell}^{(q)},\Sigma^{(q)})}.$$
(4)

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E²M algorithm: M-step

• The parameter values maximizing $Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)})$ can be readily obtained as

$$\pi_k^{(q+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik}^{(q)}, \qquad \mu_k^{(q+1)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik}^{(q)} \boldsymbol{w}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik}^{(q)}}.$$
$$\Sigma^{(q+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,k} t_{ik}^{(q)} (\boldsymbol{w}_i - \mu_k^{(q+1)}) (\boldsymbol{w}_i - \mu_k^{(q+1)})^T$$

• The complexity is the same as that of the EM algorithm with unsupervised data and precise attributes.

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Model

 In contrast with LDA, LR starts with a model of the conditional distribution of Z given W = w. The conditional probabilities are

$$p_{k}(w;\theta) = \frac{\exp(\beta_{k}^{T}\widetilde{w})}{1 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{g-1} \exp(\beta_{\ell}^{T}\widetilde{w})}, \quad k = 1, \dots, g-1$$
(5a)
$$p_{g}(w;\theta) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{g-1} \exp(\beta_{\ell}^{T}\widetilde{w})},$$
(5b)

where $p_k(w; \theta) = \mathbb{P}(Z = k | W = w; \theta)$, β_k is a p + 1-dimensional vector of coefficients, $\theta = (\beta_1^T, \dots, \beta_{g-1}^T)^T$ is the vector of all parameters in the model, and $\tilde{w} = (1, w^T)^T$ is an extended input vector.

Logistic regression maximizes the conditional likelihood

$$L_c(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}(Z_i = z_i | w_i; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^g p_k(w; \theta)^{z_{ik}},$$
(6)

with $p_k(w; \theta)$ equal to (5).

Evidential likelihood

Under the cognitive independence assumption, the evidential likelihood is

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{g} \rho I_{ik} p_k(w_i; \theta).$$
(7)

- We can easily check that $L(\theta) = L_c(\theta)$ whenever $pl_{ik} = z_{ik}$ for all (i, k), i.e., when there is no label uncertainty.
- On the other hand, in case of maximal uncertainty, i.e., when pl_{ik} = 1 for all (i, k), we have L(θ) = 1 for all θ, and the model parameters can no longer be estimated.

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E²M algorithm: E-step

 In the E-step, we compute the expectation of the complete-data log-likelihood with respect to the combined probability mass function

$$p_Z(z|pl;\theta^{(q)}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_{Z_i}(z_i|pl_i;\theta^{(q)}),$$

with

$$p_{Z_i}(k|pl_i;\theta^{(q)}) = \frac{pl_{ik}p_k(w_i;\theta^{(q)})}{\sum_\ell pl_i\rho_\ell(w_i;\theta^{(q)})}, \quad k = 1,\ldots,g.$$

We get

$$Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{g-1} t_{ik}^{(q)} \beta_k^T \widetilde{w}_i - \log \left(1 + \sum_{k=1}^{g-1} \beta_k^T \widetilde{w}_i \right) \right\},$$
(8)

with

$$t_{ik}^{(q)} = \mathbb{E}(Z_{ik}|\boldsymbol{p}l;\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(q)}) = \frac{\boldsymbol{p}l_{ik}\boldsymbol{p}_k(\boldsymbol{w}_i;\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(q)})}{\sum_{\ell}\boldsymbol{p}l_{\ell\ell}\boldsymbol{p}_\ell(\boldsymbol{w}_i;\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(q)})}.$$
(9)

E²M algorithm: M-step

- The maximization of (8) cannot be performed in one step and requires an iterative optimization procedure, such as the Newton-Raphson algorithm.
- It is actually not necessary to maximize function $Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)})$: we may simply make a step uphill, i.e., find some new estimate $\theta^{(q+1)}$ such that $Q(\theta^{(q+1)}, \theta^{(q)}) > Q(\theta^{(q)}, \theta^{(q)})$. Such a procedure is classically called a *Generalized EM algorithm*.
- An uphill step starting from the previous estimate θ^(q) can be made by carrying out one iteration of the Newton-Raphson algorithm with line search, i.e., by using the following update rule,

$$\theta^{(q+1)} = \theta^{(q)} - \eta \left[\frac{\partial^2 Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)})}{\partial \theta \partial \theta^T} \right]_{\theta = \theta^{(q)}}^{-1} \left. \frac{\partial Q(\theta, \theta^{(q)})}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta = \theta^{(q)}},$$

where η is the step size.

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Results

Outline

- Examples
- Evidential Likelihood
 - E²M algorithm

Partially supervised classification 3

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- Logistic regression
- Results

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Sleep data

- 1178 EEG signals encoded as 64-dimensional patterns.
- Each example (positive or negative) was then assigned a soft label consisting of a Bayesian mass function *m_i* such that

$$m_i(\{1\}) = k_i/5, \quad m_i(\{0\}) = 1 - k_i/5,$$
 (10)

where 1 and 0 represent, respectively, the positive (*K*-complex) and negative (delta wave) class, and k_i denotes the number of experts who classified the pattern as positive.

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Methodology

- Both LR and LDA were applied to these data. To reduce the input dimension, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was first used as a preprocessing step, and the number of components was varied between 1 and 20.
- The LR and LDA classifiers were trained using three different sets of labels:
 - Soft labels (10), taking into account the proportion of experts in favor of each class;
 - Orisp labels, corresponding to the majority decision;
 - Semi-supervised labels": instances classified as positive by two or three experts were considered as ambiguous and were labeled by the vacuous mass function *m*_?; the other instances were labeled unambiguously according to the majority class.
- We used 10-fold cross-validation, repeated 10 times with different random partitions. The mean cross-validation error rates with corresponding 95% confidence intervals are represented as functions of the number of principal components in the following figures.

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Results: logistic regression



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Results: LDA



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Results: comparison



Image: A matrix

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Expression recognition problem Experimental settings

- 216 images of 60 × 70 pixels, 36 in each class.
- One half for training, the rest for testing.
- A reduced number of features was extracted using Principal component analysis (PCA).
- Each training image was labeled by 5 subjects who gave degrees of plausibility for each image and each class.
- The plausibilities were combined using Dempster's rule (after some discounting to avoid total conflict).

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Combined labels

Example 1



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Combined labels

Example 2



Combined labels

Example 3



Results



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Results Example 1



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Results Example 2



Results Example 3



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