

# Statistical learning with basic graphical models

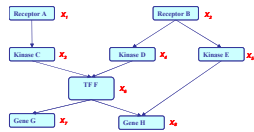
## Probabilistic Graphical Models (10-708)

Lecture 7, part II  
Oct 10, 2007



Eric Xing

Reading: J-Chap. 5,6,7 KF-Chap. 8, 15



## Announcements

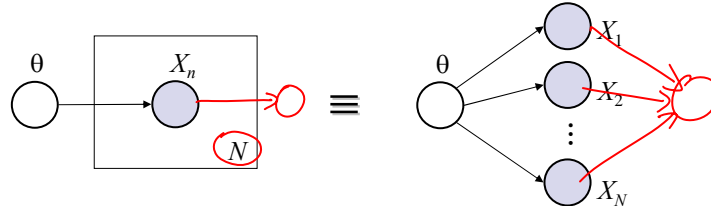


- Condensed set of slides used in this lecture
  - Expanded set posted on the class web site: please read it
  - Some topics may be elaborated in recitation: please do attend
- Project Descriptions due by 12:00am tonight
- Homework 2 out: due next Wednesday
- Feedback on Homeworks 1 and 2 at the end of the class
  - Difficulty?
  - Time?

## Before we start: A note on Plates notation



- A plate is a “macro” that allows subgraphs to be replicated



- We can represent this as a Bayes net with  $N$  nodes.
  - The rules of plates are simple: repeat every structure in a box a number of times given by the integer in the corner of the box (e.g.  $N$ ), updating the plate index variable (e.g.  $n$ ) as you go.
  - Duplicate every arrow going into the plate and every arrow leaving the plate by connecting the arrows to each copy of the structure.

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## Last time we discussed...




- One node GMs
  - Parameter estimation for the Bernoulli distribution
    - Frequentist: Maximum Likelihood
    - Bayesian: MAP, Posterior mean

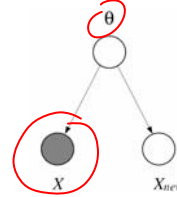
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## ML, MAP vs Full Bayesian estimation

- $\hat{\theta}_{MAP}$  is not Bayesian (even though it uses a prior) since it is a point estimate.
- Consider predicting the future. A sensible way is to combine predictions based on all possible values of  $\theta$ , weighted by their posterior probability, this is what a **Bayesian** will do:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_{new} | \mathbf{x}) &= \int p(x_{new}, \theta | \mathbf{x}) d\theta \\
 &= \int p(x_{new} | \theta, \mathbf{x}) p(\theta | \mathbf{x}) d\theta \\
 &= \int p(x_{new} | \theta) p(\theta | \mathbf{x}) d\theta
 \end{aligned}$$




- A **frequentist** will typically use a “plug-in” estimator such as ML/MAP:

$$p(x_{new} | \mathbf{x}) = p(x_{new} | \hat{\theta}_{ML}), \quad \text{or, } p(x_{new} | \mathbf{x}) = p(x_{new} | \hat{\theta}_{MAP})$$

- The Bayesian estimate will collapse to MAP for concentrated posterior

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## Frequentist vs. Bayesian

- This is a “theological” war.
- Advantages of Bayesian approach:
  - Mathematically elegant.
  - Works well when amount of data is much less than number of parameters
  - Easy to do incremental (sequential) learning.
  - Can be used for model selection (max likelihood will always pick the most complex model).
- Advantages of frequentist approach:
  - Mathematically/ computationally simpler.
  - “objective”, unbiased, invariant to reparameterization
- As  $|D| \rightarrow \infty$ , the two approaches become the same:

$$p(\theta | D) \rightarrow \delta(\theta, \hat{\theta}_{ML})$$

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# Discrete Distributions



- Bernoulli distribution:  $\text{Ber}(p)$

$$P(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p & \text{for } x=0 \\ p & \text{for } x=1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow P(x) = \frac{p^x (1-p)^{1-x}}{p (1-p)}$$



- Multinomial distribution:  $\text{Mult}(1, \theta)$

- Multinomial (indicator) variable:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} X^1 \\ X^2 \\ X^3 \\ X^4 \\ X^5 \\ X^6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{aligned} X^j &= [0,1], \text{ and } \sum_{j \in \{1, \dots, 6\}} X^j = 1 \\ X^j &= 1 \text{ w.p. } \theta_j, \quad \sum_{j \in \{1, \dots, 6\}} \theta_j = 1 \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} p(x(j)) &= P(\{X_j = 1, \text{ where } j \text{ index the dice - face}\}) \\ &= \theta_j = \theta_1^{x^1} \times \theta_2^{x^2} \times \theta_3^{x^3} \times \theta_4^{x^4} \times \theta_5^{x^5} \times \theta_6^{x^6} = \prod_k \theta_k^{x^k} = \theta^x \end{aligned}$$

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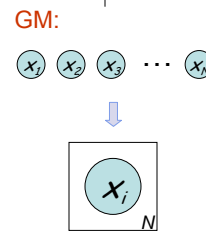
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# Example: multinomial model



- Data:
  - We observed  $N$  iid die rolls ( $K$ -sided):  $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$
- The likelihood of dataset  $D = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N | \theta) &= \prod_{n=1}^N P(x_n | \theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N \left( \prod_k \theta_k^{x_n^k} \right) \\ &= \prod_k \theta_k^{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n^k} = \prod_k \theta_k^{n_k} \end{aligned}$$



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# MLE: constrained optimization with Lagrange multipliers



- Objective function:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \log \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{D} | \theta) = \log \prod_k \theta_k^{n_k} = \sum_k n_k \log \theta_k$$

- We need to maximize this subject to the constraint  $\sum_{k=1}^K \theta_k = 1$

- Constrained cost function with a Lagrange multiplier

$$\bar{\ell} = \sum_k n_k \log \theta_k - \lambda \left( 1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \theta_k \right)$$

- Take derivatives wrt  $\theta_k$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{\ell}}{\partial \theta_k} = \frac{n_k}{\theta_k} - \lambda = 0$$

$$n_k = \lambda \theta_k \Rightarrow \sum_k n_k = N = \lambda \sum_k \theta_k = \lambda$$



$$\hat{\theta}_{k,MLE} = \frac{n_k}{N}$$

$$\text{or } \hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n x_n$$

Frequency as sample mean

- Sufficient statistics

- The counts,  $\vec{n} = (n_1, \dots, n_K)$ ,  $n_k = \sum_n x_n^k$ , are **sufficient statistics** of data  $\mathcal{D}$

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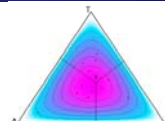
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# Bayesian estimation:



- Dirichlet distribution:

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum_k \alpha_k)}{\prod_k \Gamma(\alpha_k)} \prod_k \theta_k^{\alpha_k - 1} = C(\alpha) \prod_k \theta_k^{\alpha_k - 1}$$



- Posterior distribution of  $\theta$ :

$$P(\theta | x_1, \dots, x_N) = \frac{p(x_1, \dots, x_N | \theta) p(\theta)}{p(x_1, \dots, x_N)} \propto \prod_k \theta_k^{n_k} \prod_k \theta_k^{\alpha_k - 1} = \prod_k \theta_k^{\alpha_k + n_k - 1}$$

- Notice the isomorphism of the posterior to the prior,
- such a prior is called a **conjugate prior**

- Posterior mean estimation:

$$\theta_k = \int \theta_k p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta = C \int \theta_k \prod_k \theta_k^{\alpha_k + n_k - 1} d\theta = \frac{n_k + \alpha_k}{N + |\alpha|}$$

Handwritten notes:  $\frac{n_k}{N} + \frac{\alpha_k}{N + |\alpha|}$

Dirichlet parameters can be understood as pseudo-counts

More in HW!

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## Sequential Bayesian updating



- Start with Dirichlet prior  $\mathcal{P}(\bar{\theta} | \bar{\alpha}) = \text{Dir}(\bar{\theta} : \bar{\alpha})$
- Observe  $\mathcal{N}'$  samples with sufficient statistics  $\bar{n}'$ . Posterior becomes:

$$\mathcal{P}(\bar{\theta} | \bar{\alpha}, \bar{n}') = \text{Dir}(\bar{\theta} : \bar{\alpha} + \bar{n}')$$

- Observe another  $\mathcal{N}''$  samples with sufficient statistics  $\bar{n}''$ . Posterior becomes:

$$\mathcal{P}(\bar{\theta} | \bar{\alpha}, \bar{n}', \bar{n}'') = \text{Dir}(\bar{\theta} : \bar{\alpha} + \bar{n}' + \bar{n}'')$$

- So sequentially absorbing data in any order is equivalent to batch update.

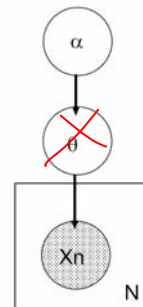
## Hierarchical Bayesian Models



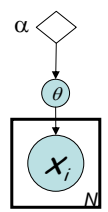
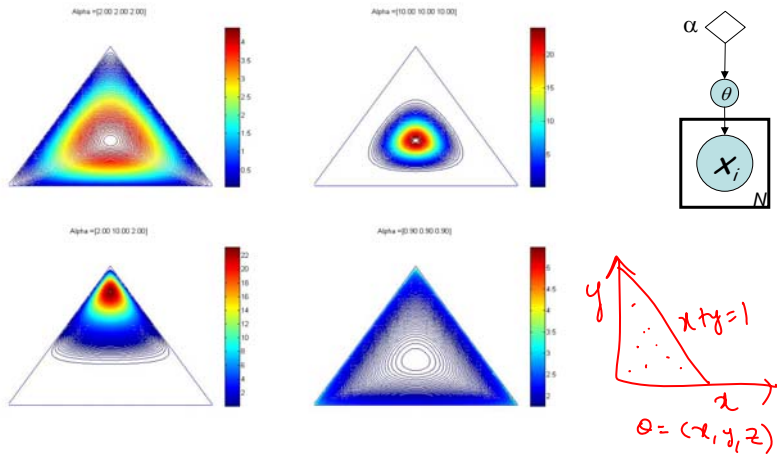
- $\theta$  are the parameters for the likelihood  $p(x|\theta)$
- $\alpha$  are the parameters for the prior  $p(\theta|\alpha)$ .
- We can have hyper-hyper-parameters, etc.
- We stop when the choice of hyper-parameters makes no difference to the marginal likelihood; typically make hyper-parameters constants.
- Where do we get the prior?

- Intelligent guesses
- Empirical Bayes (Type-II maximum likelihood)
  - computing point estimates of  $\alpha$ :

$$\hat{\alpha}_{MLE} = \arg \max_{\alpha} p(\bar{n} | \bar{\alpha})$$



# Limitation of Dirichlet Prior:



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# The Logistic Normal Prior

$$\theta \sim LN_K(\mu, \Sigma)$$

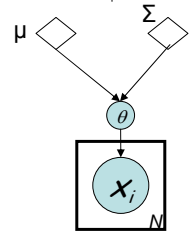
$$\gamma \sim N_{K-1}(\mu, \Sigma) \quad \gamma_K = 0$$

$$\theta_i = \exp\left\{ \gamma_i - \log\left( 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{\gamma_i} \right) \right\}$$

$$C(\gamma) = \log\left( 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{\gamma_i} \right)$$

- Log Partition Function  
- Normalization Constant

**Problem**

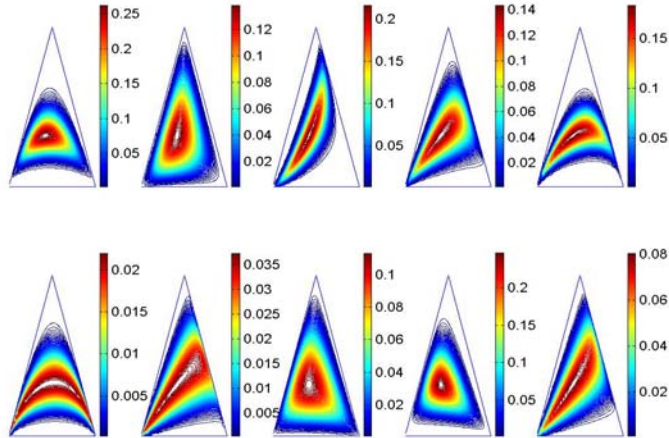


- Pro: co-variance structure
- Con: non-conjugate (we will discuss how to solve this later)

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# Logistic Normal Densities



Logistic Normal

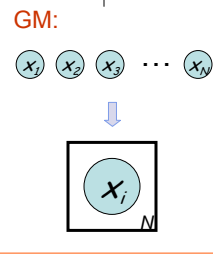
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# Example 2: univariate-Gaussian



- Data:
  - We observed  $N$  iid real samples:  
 $D = \{-0.1, 10, 1, -5.2, \dots, 3\}$
- Model:  $P(x) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp\{-(x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2\}$



- Log likelihood:
 
$$\ell(\theta; D) = \log P(D | \theta) = -\frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(x_n - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$$

- MLE: take derivative and set to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} &= (1/\sigma^2) \sum_n (x_n - \mu) & \Rightarrow & \mu_{MLE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n) \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma^2} &= -\frac{N}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_n (x_n - \mu)^2 & & \sigma_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n - \mu_{ML})^2 \end{aligned}$$

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## MLE for a multivariate-Gaussian



- It can be shown that the MLE for  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  is

$$\mu_{MLE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n)$$

$$\Sigma_{MLE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n - \mu_{ML})(x_n - \mu_{ML})^T = \frac{1}{N} S$$

where the scatter matrix is

$$S = \sum_n (x_n - \mu_{ML})(x_n - \mu_{ML})^T = \left( \sum_n x_n x_n^T \right) - N \mu_{ML} \mu_{ML}^T$$

$$x_n = \begin{pmatrix} x_n^1 \\ x_n^2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n^K \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ x_2^T \\ \vdots \\ x_N^T \end{pmatrix}$$

- The sufficient statistics are  $\sum_n x_n$  and  $\sum_n x_n x_n^T$ .
- Note that  $X^T X = \sum_n x_n x_n^T$  may not be full rank (eg. if  $N < D$ ), in which case  $\Sigma_{ML}$  is not invertible

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## Bayesian parameter estimation for a Gaussian



- There are various reasons to pursue a Bayesian approach
  - We would like to update our estimates sequentially over time.
  - We may have prior knowledge about the expected magnitude of the parameters.
  - The MLE for  $\Sigma$  may not be full rank if we don't have enough data.
- We will restrict our attention to conjugate priors.
- Various cases, in order of increasing complexity:
  - Known  $\sigma$ , unknown  $\mu$  ←
  - Known  $\mu$ , unknown  $\sigma$
  - Unknown  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$

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## Bayesian estimation: unknown $\mu$ , known $\sigma$

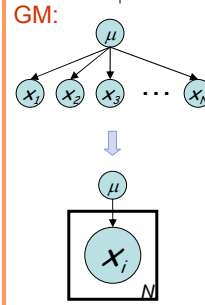
- Normal Prior:

$$P(\mu) = (2\pi\tau^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{(\mu - \mu_0)^2}{2\tau^2}\right\}$$

- Joint probability:

$$P(\mathbf{x}, \mu) = \underbrace{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_n - \mu)^2\right\}}_{P(\mathbf{x}|\mu)}$$

$$\times \underbrace{(2\pi\tau^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{(\mu - \mu_0)^2}{2\tau^2}\right\}}_{P(\mu|\mu_0, \tau)}$$



- Posterior:

$$P(\mu | \mathbf{x}) = (2\pi\tilde{\sigma}^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{(\mu - \tilde{\mu})^2}{2\tilde{\sigma}^2}\right\}$$

where  $\tilde{\mu} = \frac{N/\sigma^2}{N/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2} \bar{x} + \frac{1/\tau^2}{N/\sigma^2 + 1/\tau^2} \mu_0$ , and  $\frac{1}{\tilde{\sigma}^2} = \left(\frac{N}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2}\right)$

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Sample mean

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## Bayesian estimation: unknown $\mu$ , known $\sigma$

$$\mu_N = \frac{N/\sigma^2}{N/\sigma^2 + 1/\sigma_0^2} \bar{x} + \frac{1/\sigma_0^2}{N/\sigma^2 + 1/\sigma_0^2} \mu_0 \quad \frac{1}{\tilde{\sigma}^2} = \left(\frac{N}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2}\right)$$

- The posterior mean is a convex combination of the prior and the MLE, with weights proportional to their respective relative precisions.
- The precision of the posterior  $1/\sigma_N^2$  is the precision of the prior  $1/\sigma_0^2$  plus one contribution of data precision  $1/\sigma^2$  for each observed data point.

- Sequentially updating the mean

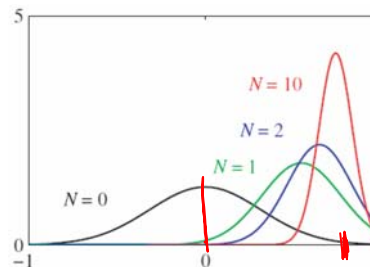
- $\mu^* = 0.8$  (unknown),  $(\sigma^2)^* = 0.1$  (known)

- Effect of single data point

$$\mu_1 = \mu_0 + (x - \mu_0) \frac{\sigma_0^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma_0^2}$$

- Uninformative (vague/ flat) prior,  $\sigma_0^2 \rightarrow \infty$

$$\mu_N \rightarrow x$$



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# Summary

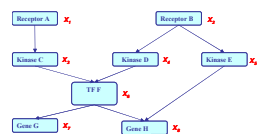


- Learning scenarios:
  - Objective function
  - Frequentist and Bayesian
- Learning single-node GM – density estimation
  - Typical discrete distribution
  - Typical continuous distribution
  - Conjugate priors

# Learning two-node GMs

## Probabilistic Graphical Models (10-708)

Lecture 8, Oct 10, 2007



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Reading: J-Chap. 5,6,7 KF-Chap. 8,15

## Two node GMs

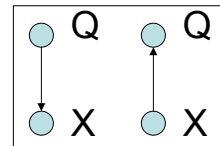
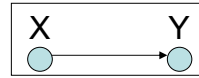


Conditional mixtures

Linear Regression

Classification

Generative and discriminative approaches



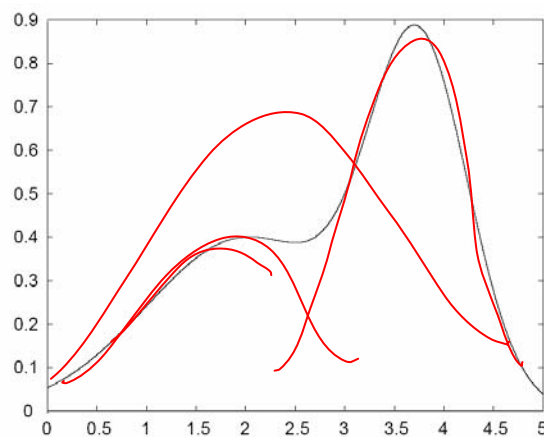
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## Multimodal models



- A bimodal probability density:



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# Conditional Gaussian

- The data:

$$\{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$$

- Both nodes are observed:

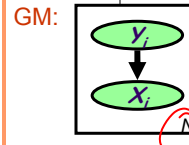
- $Y$  is a class indicator vector

$$p(y_n) = \text{multi}(y_n : \pi) = \prod_k \pi_k^{y_n^k}$$

- $X$  is a conditional Gaussian variable with a class-specific mean

$$p(x_n | y_n^k = 1, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_k)^2\right\}$$

$$p(x | y, \mu, \sigma) = \prod_n \left( \prod_k N(x_n : \mu_k, \sigma)^{y_n^k} \right)$$



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# MLE of conditional Gaussian

- Data log-likelihood

$$\ell(\theta; D) = \log \prod_n p(x_n, y_n) = \log \prod_n p(y_n | \pi) p(x_n | y_n, \mu, \sigma)$$

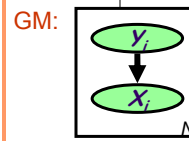
- MLE

$$\hat{\pi}_{k,MLE} = \arg \max_{\pi} \ell(\theta; D), \quad \hat{\pi}_{k,MLE} = \frac{\sum_n y_n^k}{N} = n_k / N$$

the fraction of samples of class  $m$

$$\hat{\mu}_{k,MLE} = \arg \max \ell(\theta; D), \quad \hat{\mu}_{k,MLE} = \frac{\sum_n y_n^k x_n}{\sum_n y_n^k} = \frac{\sum_n y_n^k x_n}{n_k}$$

the average of samples of class  $m$



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# Bayesian estimation of conditional Gaussian



- Prior:

$$P(\bar{\pi} | \bar{\alpha}) = \text{Dir}(\bar{\pi} : \bar{\alpha})$$

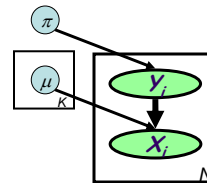
$$P(\mu_k | \nu) = \text{Normal}(\mu_k : \nu, \tau)$$

- Posterior mean (Bayesian est.)

$$\pi_{k, \text{Bayes}} = \frac{N}{N + |\alpha|} \hat{\pi}_{k, \text{ML}} + \frac{|\alpha|}{N + |\alpha|} \frac{\alpha_k}{|\alpha|} = \frac{n_k + \alpha_k}{N + |\alpha|}$$

$$\mu_{k, \text{Bayes}} = \frac{n_k / \sigma^2}{n_k / \sigma^2 + 1 / \tau^2} \hat{\mu}_{k, \text{ML}} + \frac{1 / \tau^2}{n_k / \sigma^2 + 1 / \tau^2} \nu, \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{\text{Bayes}}^2 = \left( \frac{N}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\tau^2} \right)^{-1}$$

GM:



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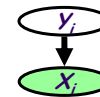
# Classification



- From conditional density modeling to classification:

- The joint probability of a datum and its label is:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_n, y_n^k = 1 | \mu, \sigma) &= p(y_n^k = 1) \times p(x_n | y_n^k = 1, \mu, \sigma) \quad p(y_n) \\ &= \pi_k \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_k)^2\right\} \quad p(x_n | y_n) \\ &\quad p(y_n | x_n) = ? \end{aligned}$$



- Given a datum  $x_n$ , we predict its label using the conditional probability of the label given the datum:

$$p(y_n^k = 1 | x_n, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{\pi_k \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_k)^2\right\}}{\sum_{k'} \pi_{k'} \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_{k'})^2\right\}}$$

- This is basic inference
  - introduce evidence, and then normalize

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# Naïve Bayes Classifier

- When  $X$  is multivariate-Gaussian vector:
  - The joint probability of a datum and its label is:

$$p(\bar{x}_n, y_n^k = 1 | \bar{\mu}, \Sigma) = p(y_n^k = 1) \times p(\bar{x}_n | y_n^k = 1, \bar{\mu}, \Sigma)$$

$$= \pi_k \frac{1}{(2\pi|\Sigma|)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\bar{x}_n - \bar{\mu}_k)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\bar{x}_n - \bar{\mu}_k)\right\}$$

- The naïve Bayes simplification

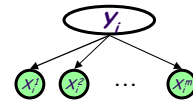
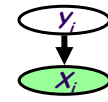
$$p(x_n, y_n^k = 1 | \mu, \sigma) = p(y_n^k = 1) \times \prod_j p(x_n^j | y_n^k = 1, \mu_{k,j}, \sigma_{k,j})$$

$$= \pi_k \prod_j \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_{k,j}^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_{k,j}^2}(x_n^j - \mu_{k,j})^2\right\}$$

- More generally:

$$p(x_n, y_n | \eta, \pi) = p(y_n | \pi) \times \prod_{j=1}^m p(x_n^j | y_n, \eta)$$

- Where  $p(\cdot | \cdot)$  is an arbitrary conditional (discrete or continuous) 1-D density



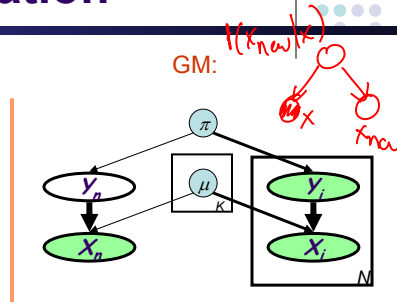
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# Transductive classification

- Given  $X_n$ , what is its corresponding  $Y_n$  when we know the answer for a set of training data?

- Frequentist prediction:
  - we fit  $\pi, \mu$  and  $\sigma$  from data first, and then ...



$$p(y_n^k = 1 | x_n, \mu, \sigma, \pi) = \frac{p(y_n^k = 1, x_n | \mu, \sigma, \pi)}{p(x_n | \mu, \sigma, \pi)} = \frac{\pi_k N(x_n | \mu_k, \sigma)}{\sum_j \pi_j N(x_n | \mu_j, \sigma)}$$

- Bayesian:
  - we compute the posterior dist. of the parameters first ...

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## The predictive distribution



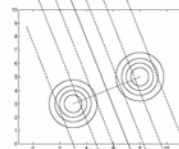
- Understanding the predictive distribution

$$p(y_n^k = 1 | x_n, \mu, \sigma, \pi) = \frac{p(y_n^k = 1, x_n | \mu, \sigma, \pi)}{p(x_n | \mu, \sigma)} = \frac{\pi_k N(x_n, | \mu_k, \sigma)}{\sum_j \pi_j N(x_n, | \mu_j, \sigma)}$$

- For two class (i.e.,  $K=2$ ), \* turns out to be the **logistic function**

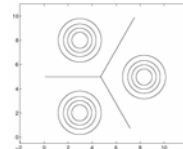
$$p(y_n^1 = 1 | x_n) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_2)^2\right\}}{\frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_n - \mu_1)^2\right\}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left\{-x_n \frac{1}{\sigma^2}(\mu_1 - \mu_2) + \log \frac{\pi_2}{\pi_1}\right\}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x_n}}$$



- For multiple class (i.e.,  $K>2$ ), \* correspond to a **softmax function**

$$p(y_n^k = 1 | x_n) = \frac{e^{-\theta_k^T x_n}}{\sum_j e^{-\theta_j^T x_n}}$$



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## Discussion



- We've seen how to learning two-node model  $p(y_n, x_n)$ , but in certain problems the goal is to learning  $p(y_n | x_n)$
- Can we model  $p(y_n | x_n)$  directly?
- How?

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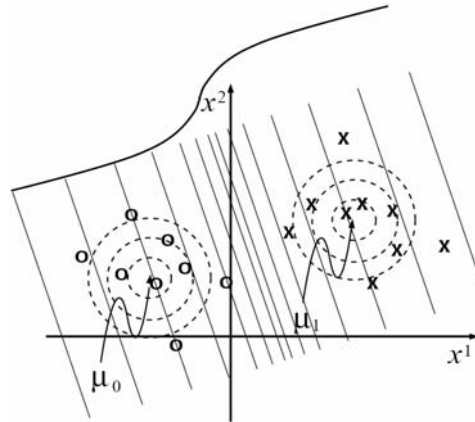
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# Generative and discriminative classifiers



- Generative:
  - Modeling the joint distribution of all data
- Discriminative:
  - How?



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# Linear Regression: A discriminative model

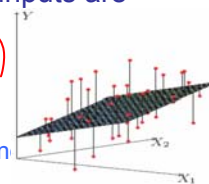


- Let us assume that the target variable and the inputs are related by the equation:

$$y_i = \theta^T x_i + \varepsilon_i$$



where  $\varepsilon$  is an error term of unmodeled effects or random noise



- Now assume that  $\varepsilon$  follows a Gaussian  $N(0, \sigma)$ , then we have:

$$p(y_i | x_i; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- By independence assumption:

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i; \theta) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\right)^n \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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## Linear regression



- Hence the log-likelihood is:

$$l(\theta) = n \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

- Do you recognize the last term?

Yes it is: 
$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \theta - y_i)^2$$

- It is same as the MSE!

## The Least-Mean-Square (LMS) method



- The Cost Function:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \theta - y_i)^2$$

- Consider a **gradient descent** algorithm:

$$\begin{aligned} \theta^{t+1} &= \theta^t - \alpha \nabla J(\theta)_t \\ &= \theta^t + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \theta) \mathbf{x}_i \\ \theta^{t+1} &= \theta^t + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \theta) \mathbf{x}_i \end{aligned}$$

# The Least-Mean-Square (LMS) method



- Now we have the following descent rule:

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha \sum_{n=1}^n (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \theta^t) \mathbf{x}_n$$

- This is as a **batch** gradient descent algorithm
- For a single training point, we have:

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \theta^t) \mathbf{x}_i$$

- This is known as the LMS update rule, or the Widrow-Hoff learning rule
- This can be used as a **on-line** algorithm

# The normal equations

*Handwritten notes:*  $X^T A X$  (matrix),  $n \times n$ ,  $n \times 1$ ,  $= 1 \times 1$



- Write the cost function in matrix form:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^T \theta - y_i)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (X\theta - \bar{y})^T (X\theta - \bar{y})$$

*Handwritten matrix derivation:*

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\theta^T X^T X \theta - 2 \theta^T X^T \bar{y} + \bar{y}^T X \theta + \bar{y}^T \bar{y}) = \frac{1}{2} (\theta^T X^T X \theta - 2 \theta^T X^T \bar{y} + \bar{y}^T X \theta + \bar{y}^T \bar{y})$$

Matrix representation:  $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^T \\ x_2^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{bmatrix}$  (size  $n \times 1$ ),  $\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \theta \\ \vdots \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}$  (size  $1 \times 1$ ),  $\bar{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$  (size  $n \times 1$ ).

- To minimize  $J(\theta)$ , take derivative and set to zero:

*Handwritten derivative and solution:*

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} (2 X^T X \theta - 2 X^T \bar{y}) = 0$$

$$X^T X \theta = X^T \bar{y}$$

**The normal equations**

$$\theta^* = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \bar{y}$$



## A recap:

- LMS update rule

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha(y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \theta^t) \mathbf{x}_n$$

- Pros: on-line, low per-step cost
- Cons: coordinate, maybe slow-converging

- Steepest descent

$$\theta^{t+1} = \theta^t + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^T \theta^t) \mathbf{x}_n$$

- Pros: fast-converging, easy to implement
- Cons: a batch,

- Normal equations

$$\theta^* = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \bar{y}$$

- Pros: a single-shot algorithm! Easiest to implement.
- Cons: need to compute pseudo-inverse  $(X^T X)^{-1}$ , expensive, numerical issues (e.g., matrix is singular ..)

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## Multivariate Linear Regression

- Consider vector-valued input  $X \in \mathbf{R}^k$  leading to vector-valued output  $Y \in \mathbf{R}^d$  via regression matrix  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{k \times d}$ :

$$p(y|x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(y - Ax)^T \Sigma^{-1}(y - Ax)\right\}$$

- Log-(conditional-) likelihood

$$\ell = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_n |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n (y_n - Ax_n)^T \Sigma^{-1} (y_n - Ax_n) + c$$

- To take derivatives wrt a matrix, we use the following identity

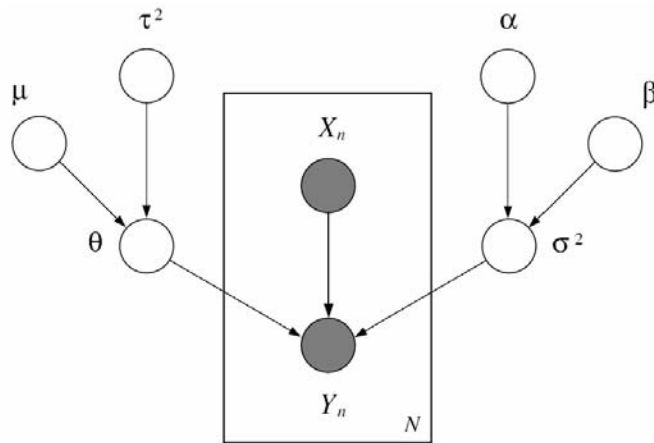
$$\frac{\partial((Ma+b)^T C(Ma+b))}{\partial M} = (C+C^T)(Ma+b)a^T$$

where  $M = A$ ,  $a = -x_n$ ,  $b = y_n$  and  $C = \Sigma^{-1}$

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# Bayesian linear regression



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# Bayesian Linear regression: L2 regularization



- Let

$$p(\theta | \lambda) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\pi}\right)^{N/2} \exp(-\lambda(\theta - 0)^T(\theta - 0)^T)$$

- The joint likelihood:

$$p(y_i, \theta | x_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \times \left(\frac{\lambda}{\pi}\right)^{N/2} \exp(-\lambda|\theta|_2^2)$$

- The "regularized" regression cost function

$$J(\theta) = (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2 + \lambda|\theta|_2^2$$

- Regularization term restricts large value components
- Smooth and convex,
- Can be computed directly (  $O(n^3)$  )
- Or can use iterative methods (e.g. conjugate gradients method)

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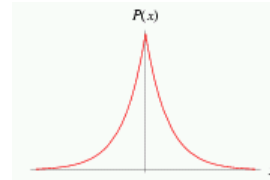
# Bayesian Linear regression: Laplace Prior and Sparsity



- The Laplace prior:

$$p(\theta_k | \lambda) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \exp(-\lambda |\theta_k|)$$

$$p(\theta | \lambda) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \exp(-\lambda |\theta|_1)$$



- The joint likelihood:

$$p(y_i, \theta | x_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \times \frac{\lambda}{2} \exp(-\lambda |\theta|_1)$$

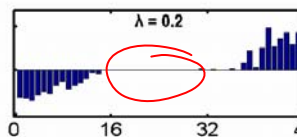
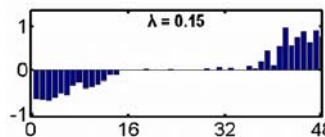
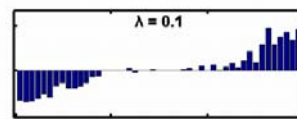
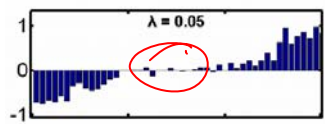
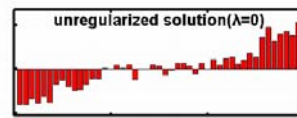
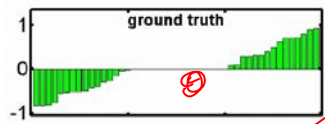
- The "regularized" regression cost function

$$J(\theta) = (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2 + \lambda |\theta|_1$$

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# Effects of L1-Regularization



Select  $\lambda$  by cross-validation

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## Recall the condition-Gaussian classifier



- So we have seen a new scheme based on LMS (ML) to learn two node GM:  $p(y|x; \theta) = \mathcal{N}(y; \theta^T x, \sigma^2)$  discriminatively
  - Gradient descent
  - Normal equation

$$p(y=1|x) = \mu(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$

$p(y|x)$

- How can we use this scheme to learning the conditional Gaussian classifier discriminatively?

- Recall that  $p(y|x) = \mu(x)^y (1 - \mu(x))^{1-y}$

where  $\mu(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}} = \frac{e^{\theta^T x}}{e^{\theta^T x} + 1}$

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## Logistic regression (sigmoid classifier)

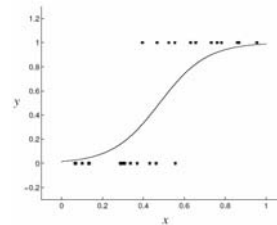


- The condition distribution: a Bernoulli

$$p(y|x) = \mu(x)^y (1 - \mu(x))^{1-y}$$

where  $\mu$  is a logistic function

$$\mu(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$



- We can use the brute-force gradient method as in Linear Regression
- But we can also apply generic laws by observing the  $p(y|x)$  is an **exponential family function**, more specifically, a **generalized linear model** (see next lecture!)

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# Summary



- Conditional Density Est. ✓
- Classification ✓
  - Generative classifier ✓
  - Discriminative classifier ✓
- Linear Regression
  - Algorithms
    - LMS ✓
    - Steepest descent ✓
    - Normal equation ✓
  - Regularized regression vs. Bayesian regression

- Feedback on Homeworks 1 and 2
  - Difficulty?
  - Time?

