

Machine Learning

4771

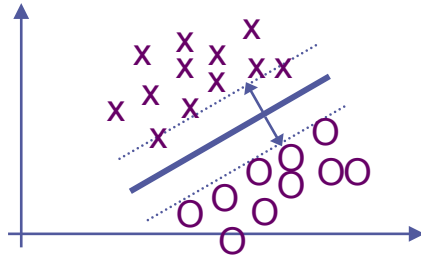
Instructor: Tony Jebara

Topic 7

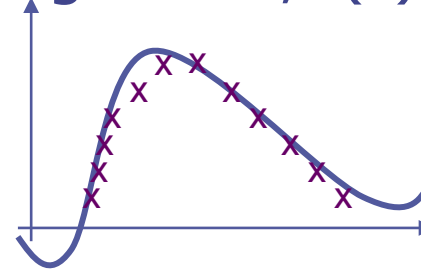
- Unsupervised Learning
- Statistical Perspective
- Probability Models
- Discrete & Continuous: Gaussian, Bernoulli, Multinomial
- Maximum Likelihood \rightarrow Logistic Regression
- Conditioning, Marginalizing, Bayes Rule, Expectations
- Classification, Regression, Detection
- Dependence/Independence
- Maximum Likelihood \rightarrow Naïve Bayes

Unsupervised Learning

Classification

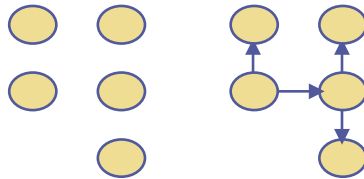
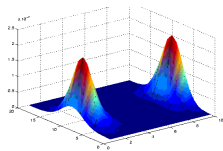


Regression, $f(x)=y$

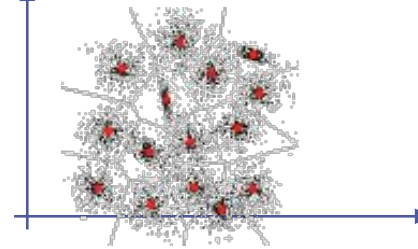


Supervised

Density/Structure Estimation

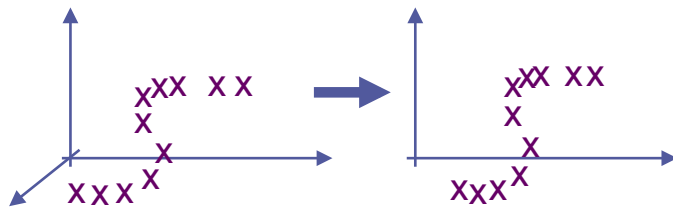


Clustering

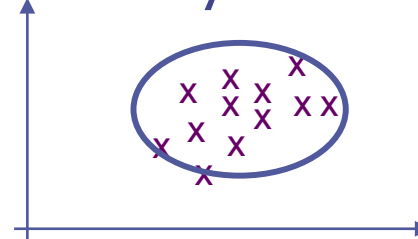


Unsupervised
(can help supervised)

Feature Selection

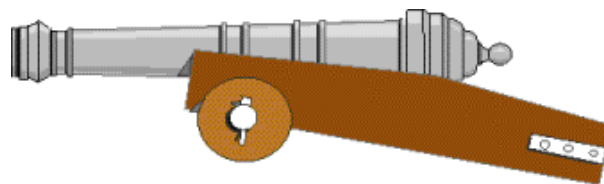


Anomaly Detection



Statistical Perspective

- Several problems with framework so far:
 - Only have input-output approaches (SVM, Neural Net)
 - Pulled non-linear squashing functions out of a hat
 - Pulled loss functions (squared error, etc.) out of a hat
- Better approach for classification?
- What if we have multi-class classification?
- What if other problems, i.e. unobserved values of x, y , etc...
- Also, what if we don't have a true function?
- Example of Projectile Cannon (c.f. Distal Learning)

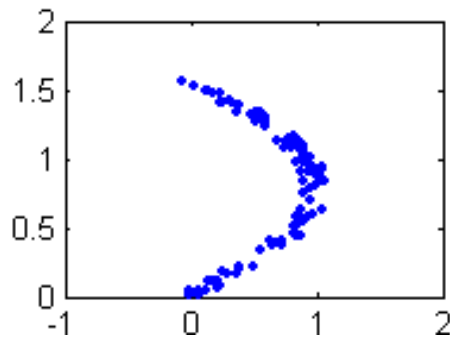


- Would like to train a regression function to control a cannon's angle of fire (y) given target distance (x)

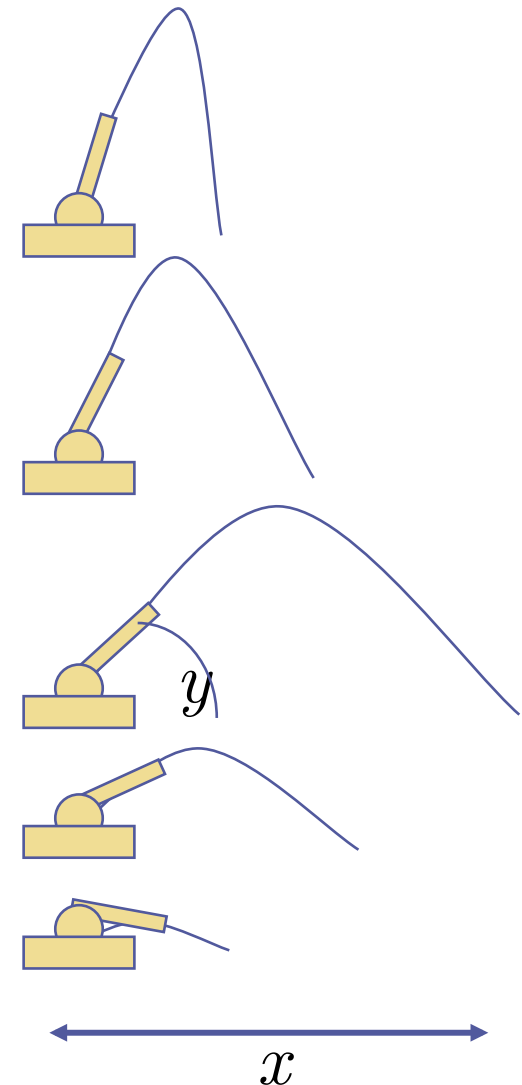
Statistical Perspective

- Example of Projectile Cannon (45 degree problem)
x = input target distance
y = output cannon angle

$$x = \frac{v(0)^2}{g} \sin(2y) + \text{noise}$$

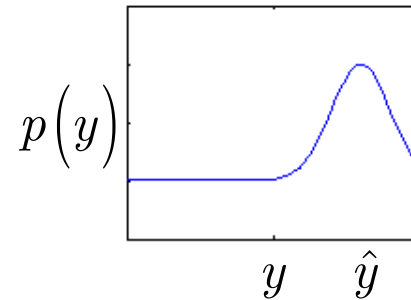


- What does least squares do?
- Conditional statistical models address this problem...



Probability Models

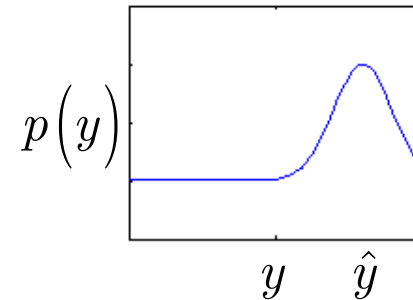
- Instead of deterministic functions, output is a probability
- Previously: our output was a scalar $\hat{y} = f(x) = \theta^T x + b$
- Now: our output is a probability $p(y)$
e.g. a probability bump:



- $p(y)$ subsumes or is a superset of \hat{y}
- Why is this representation for our answer more general?

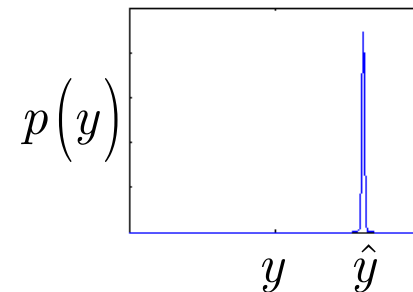
Probability Models

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- Previously: our output was a scalar $\hat{y} = f(x) = \theta^T x + b$
- Now: our output is a probability $p(y)$
e.g. a probability bump:



- $p(y)$ subsumes or is a superset of \hat{y}
- Why is this representation for our answer more general?
→ A deterministic answer \hat{y} with complete confidence is like putting a probability $p(y)$ where all the mass is at \hat{y} !

$$\hat{y} \Leftrightarrow p(y) = \delta(y - \hat{y})$$



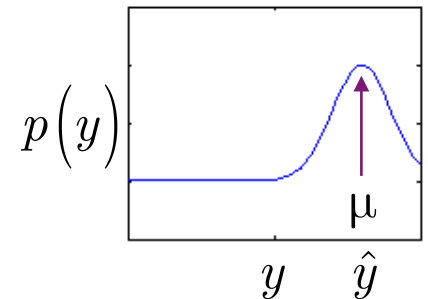
Probability Models

- Now: our output is a probability density function (pdf) $p(y)$
- Probability Model: a family of pdf's with adjustable parameters which lets us select one of many

$$p(y) \rightarrow p(y | \Theta)$$

- E.g.: 1-dim Gaussian distribution
'given' 'mean' parameter μ :

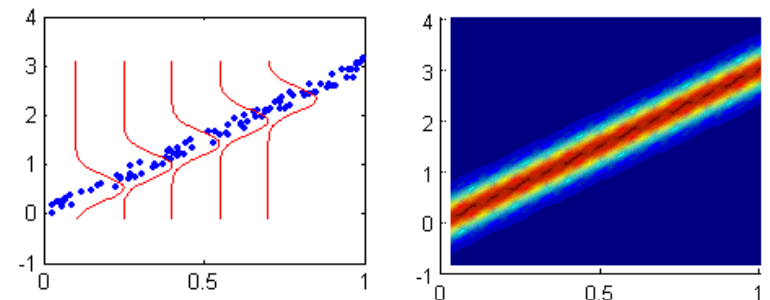
$$p(y | \mu) = N(y | \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y-\mu)^2}$$



- Want mean centered on $f(x)$'s value $p(y) = N(y | f(x))$

- Now, linear regression is:

$$\begin{aligned} N(y | f(x)) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y-f(x))^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y-\theta^T x - b)^2} \end{aligned}$$



Probability Models

- To fit to data, we typically “maximize likelihood” of the probability model
- Log-likelihood = objective function (i.e. negative of cost) for probability models which we want to maximize
- Likelihood = $L(\Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(y_i | f(x_i))$
- Log-Likelihood = $l(\Theta) = \log(L(\Theta)) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(y_i | f(x_i))$
- For Gaussian, get squared error regression! Same solution!

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(y_i | f(x_i)) &= \sum_{i=1}^N \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(y_i - f(x_i))^2} \\ &= -N \log(\sqrt{2\pi}) - \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} (y_i - f(x_i))^2 \end{aligned}$$

Probability Models

- Can extend probability model to 2 bumps:

$$p(y | \Theta) = \frac{1}{2} N(y | \mu_1) + \frac{1}{2} N(y | \mu_2)$$

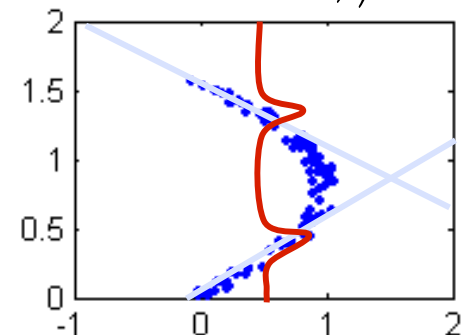
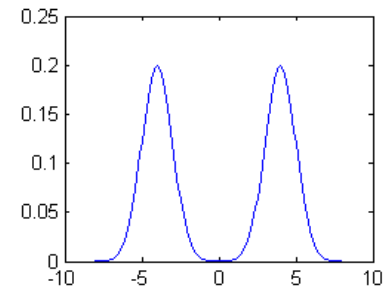
- Each mean can be a linear regression fn.

$$\begin{aligned} p(y | \Theta) &= \frac{1}{2} N(y | f_1(x)) + \frac{1}{2} N(y | f_2(x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} N(y | \theta_1^T x + b_1) + \frac{1}{2} N(y | \theta_2^T x + b_2) \end{aligned}$$

- Log-Likelihood:

$$l(\Theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log \left(\frac{1}{2} N(y_i | \theta_1^T x_i + b_1) + \frac{1}{2} N(y_i | \theta_2^T x_i + b_2) \right)$$

- Hard to solve \rightarrow gradient descent
- Now can handle "cannon fire" example
- Later: a better probabilistic algorithm than gradient descent




Probability Models

- Now classification: can also go beyond deterministic!
- Previously: wanted output to be binary $\hat{y} = \{0,1\}$
- Now: our output is a probability $p(y)$

e.g. a probability table:

y=0	y=1
0.73	0.27

α 

- This subsumes or is a superset again...
- Consider probability over binary events (coin flips!):

e.g. Bernoulli distribution (i.e 1x2 probability table)
with parameter α

$$p(y \mid \alpha) = \alpha^y (1 - \alpha)^{1-y} \quad \alpha \in [0,1]$$

- Now linear classification is:

$$p(y \mid f(x)) = f(x)^y (1 - f(x))^{1-y} \quad f(x) \in [0,1]$$

Probability Models

- Now linear classification is:

$$p(y | f(x)) = f(x)^y (1 - f(x))^{1-y} \quad f(x) \equiv \alpha \in [0, 1]$$

- Log-likelihood is (negative of cost function):

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(y_i | f(x_i)) &= \sum_{i=1}^N \log f(x_i)^{y_i} (1 - f(x_i))^{1-y_i} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \log f(x_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - f(x_i)) \\ &= \sum_{i \in \text{class1}} \log f(x_i) + \sum_{i \in \text{class0}} \log(1 - f(x_i)) \end{aligned}$$

- But, need a squashing function since $f(x)$ in $[0, 1]$

- Use sigmoid or logistic again...

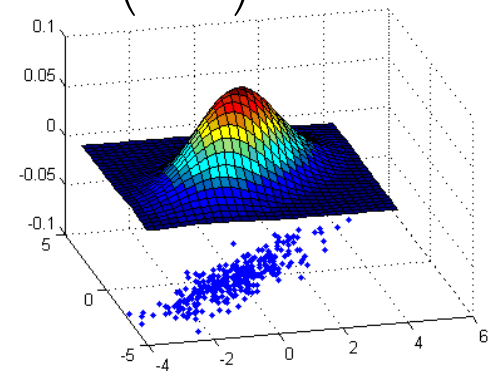
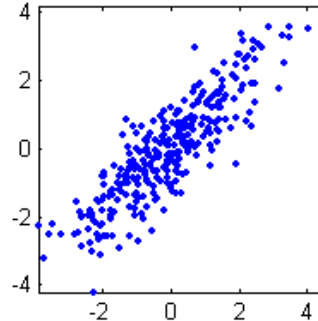
$$f(x) = \text{sigmoid}(\theta^T x + b) \in [0, 1]$$

- Called logistic regression \rightarrow *new loss function*
- Do gradient descent, similar to logistic output neural net!
- Can also handle multi-layer $f(x)$ and do backprop again!

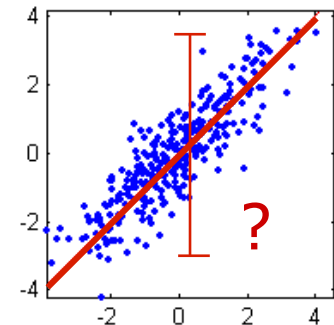
Generative Probability Models

- Idea: Extend probability to describe *both* X and Y
- Find probability density function over both: $p(x, y)$

E.g. *describe* data
with Multi-Dim.
Gaussian (later...)



- Called a 'Generative Model' because we can use it to synthesize or re-generate data similar to the training data we learned from
- Regression models & classification boundaries are not as flexible
don't keep info about X
don't model noise/uncertainty



Properties of PDFs

- Let's review some basics of probability theory
- First, pdf is a function, multiple inputs, one output:

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \qquad p(x_1 = 0.3, \dots, x_n = 1) = 0.2$$

- Function's output is always non-negative:

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq 0$$

- Can have discrete or continuous or both inputs:

$$p(x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0, x_4 = 3.1415)$$

- Summing over the domain of all inputs gives unity:

$$\int_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} p(x, y) dx dy = 1 \qquad \sum_y \sum_x p(x, y) = 1$$

0.4	0.1
0.3	0.2

Continuous → integral, Discrete → sum

Properties of PDFs

- **Marginalizing:** integrate/sum out a variable leaves a marginal distribution over the remaining ones...

$$\sum_y p(x, y) = p(x)$$

- **Conditioning:** if a variable 'y' is 'given' we get a conditional distribution over the remaining ones...

$$p(x | y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(y)}$$

- **Bayes Rule:** mathematically just redo conditioning but has a deeper meaning (1764)... if we have x being data and θ being a model

$$\text{posterior} \rightarrow p(\theta | x) = \frac{\text{likelihood } p(x | \theta) \text{ prior } p(\theta)}{\text{evidence } p(x)}$$



Properties of PDFs

- **Expectation:** can use pdf $p(x)$ to compute averages and expected values for quantities, denoted by:

$$E_{p(x)} \{f(x)\} = \int_x p(x) f(x) dx \quad \text{or} \quad = \sum_x p(x) f(x)$$

- **Properties:** $E \{cf(x)\} = cE \{f(x)\}$

$$E \{f(x) + c\} = E \{f(x)\} + c$$

$$E \{E \{f(x)\}\} = E \{f(x)\}$$

- **Mean:** expected value for x

$$E_{p(x)} \{x\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) x dx$$

example: speeding ticket

Fine=0\$	Fine=20\$
0.8	0.2

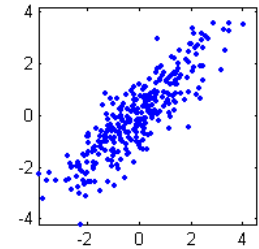
expected cost of speeding?

- **Variance:** expected value of $(x - \text{mean})^2$, how much x varies

$$\text{Var} \{x\} = E \left\{ \left(x - E \{x\} \right)^2 \right\} = E \left\{ x^2 - 2xE \{x\} + E \{x\}^2 \right\}$$

$$= E \{x^2\} - 2E \{x\} E \{x\} + E \{x\}^2 = E \{x^2\} - E \{x\}^2$$

Properties of PDFs



- **Covariance:** how strongly x and y vary together

$$\text{Cov}\{x, y\} = E\left\{\left(x - E\{x\}\right)\left(y - E\{y\}\right)\right\} = E\{xy\} - E\{x\}E\{y\}$$

- **Conditional Expectation:** $E\{y | x\} = \int_y p(y | x) y dy$

$$E\{E\{y | x\}\} = \int_x p(x) \int_y p(y | x) y dy dx = E\{y\}$$

- **Sample Expectation:** If we don't have pdf $p(x, y)$ can approximate expectations using samples of data

$$E_{p(x)}\{f(x)\} \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

- **Sample Mean:** $E\{x\} \simeq \bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$

- **Sample Var:** $E\left\{\left(x - E(x)\right)^2\right\} \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(x_i - \bar{x}\right)^2$

- **Sample Cov:** $E\left\{\left(x - E(x)\right)\left(y - E(y)\right)\right\} \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(x_i - \bar{x}\right)\left(y_i - \bar{y}\right)$

More Properties of PDFs

- **Independence:** probabilities of independent variables multiply. Denote with the following notation:

$$x \perp\!\!\!\perp y \rightarrow p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

$$x \perp\!\!\!\perp y \rightarrow p(x | y) = p(x)$$

also note in this case:

$$\begin{aligned} E_{p(x,y)} \{xy\} &= \int_x \int_y p(x)p(y)xy \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_x p(x)x \, dx \int_y p(y)y \, dy = E_{p(x)} \{x\} E_{p(y)} \{y\} \end{aligned}$$

- **Conditional independence:** when two variables become independent only if another is observed

$$x \perp\!\!\!\perp y | z \rightarrow p(x | y, z) = p(x | z)$$

$$x \perp\!\!\!\perp y | z \rightarrow p(x | y) \neq p(x)$$

The IID Assumption

- Most of the time, we will assume that a dataset independent and identically distributed (IID)
- In many real situations, data is generated by some black box phenomenon in an arbitrary order.
- Assume we are given a dataset:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$$

“Independent” means that (given the model θ) the probability of our data multiplies:

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N \mid \Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N p_i(x_i \mid \Theta)$$

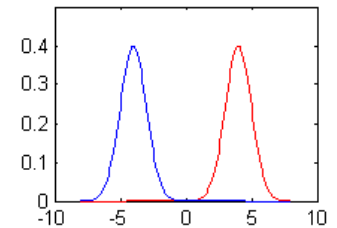
“Identically distributed” means that each marginal probability is the same for each data point

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N \mid \Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N p_i(x_i \mid \Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(x_i \mid \Theta)$$

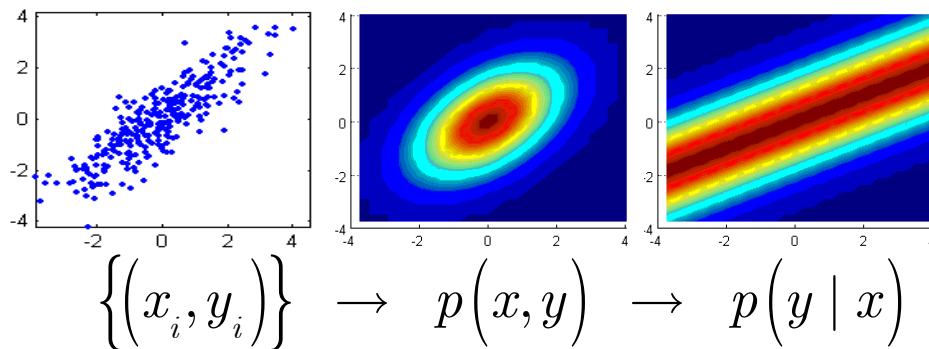
Uses of PDFs

- **Classification:** have $p(x,y)$ and given x . Asked for discrete y output, give most probable one

$$p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y | x) \rightarrow \hat{y} = \arg \max_m p(y = m | x)$$



- **Regression:** have $p(x,y)$ and given x . Asked for a scalar y output, give most probable or expected one



$$\hat{y} = \begin{cases} \arg \max_y p(y | x) \\ E_{p(y|x)} \{y\} \end{cases}$$

- **Anomaly Detection:** if have $p(x,y)$ and given both x, y . Asked if it is similar \rightarrow threshold

$$p(x, y) \geq \text{threshold} \rightarrow \{normal, anomaly\}$$

