# INTRODUCTION TO GENERATIVE SUPERVISED LEARNING MODELS

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DEPT. OF INDUSTRIAL & SYSTEMS ENGINEERING

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# OVERVIEW OF DISCRIMINATIVE VS. GENERATIVE MODELS

#### **Discriminative Learning**

- Models that directly aim at learning (or approximating) the posterior probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}(Y|X)$ .
- The posterior distribution  $\mathbb{P}(Y|X)$  is the distribution of the target variable Y conditioned on observing a set of data features X.
- This distribution is given the name "posterior" distribution in reference to the probability of the target variable Y "post" (or after) observing the data X.
- Alternatively, we refer to  $\mathbb{P}(Y)$  as the **prior distribution** since it is meant to represent our knowledge or belief in an outcome of interest Y before observing any data X, hence the name "**prior**".

## **Generative Learning**

- Models that *still* predict posterior probabilities, but instead of learning the posterior distribution directly, generative models focus on learning the **underlying joint probability** distribution  $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)$ , after which **Baye's Theorem** can be applied to "generate" probabilities from the posterior distribution.
- Once the joint probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)$  is learned, using **Baye's Theorem**, posterior probabilities are generated according to the equation

$$\mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(Y)\mathbb{P}(X|Y)}{\mathbb{P}(X)}.$$

# GENERATIVE MODELS & BAYES' THEOREM

- As stated, the difference between discriminative models and generative models in supervised learning is that discriminative models aim at learning the posterior distribution  $\mathbb{P}(y|x)$  directly whereas generative models aim at learning the joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}(x,y)$  from which one can generate posterior probabilities via Bayes' Theorem.
- Recall from the *Probability & Statistics Slides* that conditional probability is defined as

$$\mathbb{P}(y|x) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(x,y)}{\mathbb{P}(x)}.$$

- However, in machine learning problems, we do not typically have access to "exact" information of the joint probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}(x,y)$  (recall from the *Linear Regression Slides* that this is a direct approximation of the true underlying distribution that the data is drawn from, denoted by  $\mathcal{P}(x,y)$ ).
- On the other hand, we do typically have information of the marginal "**prior**"  $\mathbb{P}(y)$ , the marginal  $\mathbb{P}(x)$ , and the conditional distribution  $\mathbb{P}(x|y)$ , which can be modeled by again using the definition of conditional probability as

$$\mathbb{P}(x|y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(x,y)}{\mathbb{P}(y)}.$$

• Using this, we can solve for the joint distribution in terms of quantities that we do know

$$\mathbb{P}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(y)\mathbb{P}(x|y).$$

• Lastly, substituting this into the equation for the posterior distribution above, we obtain Bayes' Theorem

$$\mathbb{P}(y|x) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(y)\mathbb{P}(x|y)}{\mathbb{P}(x)}.$$

Therefore, if one can <u>correctly model</u> the probability distributions  $\mathbb{P}(y)$  and  $\mathbb{P}(x|y)$ , then one can generate posterior probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(y|x)$  via Bayes' Theorem. This is the idea behind Generative Models.

## WHAT MAKES GENERATIVE MODELS USEFUL?

- Although generative models "can" be used to predict a target variable y in a supervised learning context, they are typically only used for this purpose in scenarios when there is **not much data available** to train on.
- If relatively large amounts of data are available, then one would typically use a discriminative model which will almost always have higher predictive power.

## So, then what are generative models used for?

- The reason that these models are given the moniker "generative" is because they are very useful for generating synthetic data that mimics the original "true" distribution  $\mathcal{P}(x,y)$  (with the approximation obtained by  $\mathbb{P}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(y)\mathbb{P}(x|y)$ ).
- As a result, once the approximate joint distribution  $\mathbb{P}(x,y)$  has been learned, one can sample new synthetic data from that distribution.
- This can be very useful for a variety of problems, such as class-imbalance problems (i.e., artificially increasing
  the number of instances for an underrepresented class), data cleaning (i.e., replacing missing data), and others.

# GAUSSIAN DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

The first generative model that we will introduce is the **Gaussian Discriminant Analysis** model. This model (and all other generative models for that matter) assumes that the features and target variable of a dataset follow certain distributions, from which we can model relatively well.

## The Gaussian Discriminant Analysis (GDA) Model

Consider some dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$ , where  $x^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and the target variable is **binary**  $y \in \{0,1\}$ .

- Therefore, the target variable y can be modeled as a **Bernoulli random variable** with probability parameter given by  $\phi \in [0,1]$  such that  $\mathbb{P}(y=1) = \phi$ .
- Further, this model assumes that each feature vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  comes from an n-dimensional multivariate Gaussian distribution when conditioned on y. More specifically, this means that given some mean vector  $\mu_y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and covariance matrix  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , then it follows that  $\mathbb{P}(x|y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_y, \Sigma_y)$  for  $y \in \{0,1\}$ . Thus, we have that

$$\mathbb{P}(x|y;\mu_y,\Sigma_y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma_y|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu_y)^T \Sigma_y^{-1}(x-\mu_y)}.$$

Therefore, when trying to classify a new datapoint (x, y), the GDA model  $h_{\theta}$  (where the parameters  $\theta = [\mu_0, \mu_1, \Sigma_0, \Sigma_1]$ ) utilizes Bayes' Theorem and chooses the value of  $y \in \{0,1\}$  that maximizes the posterior probability  $\mathbb{P}(y|x)$ , i.e.,

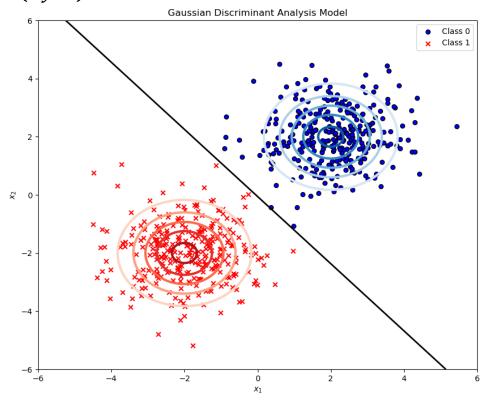
$$h_{\theta}(x) \coloneqq \underset{y \in \{0,1\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbb{P}(y|x) = \underset{y \in \{0,1\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{\mathbb{P}(y)\mathbb{P}(x|y)}{\mathbb{P}(x)} = \underset{y \in \{0,1\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbb{P}(y)\mathbb{P}(x|y).$$

Since  $\mathbb{P}(x)$  will only be a function in x and not y, we can omit it in the maximization over y.

• For the remainder of these slides, we will make the simplifying assumption that  $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1 = \Sigma$  (i.e., equal covariances).

# ILLUSTRATION OF GDA

This figure illustrates a **Gaussian Discriminative Analysis** (GDA) Model where the conditional distribution is a multivariate Gaussian distribution conditioned on a binary variable  $Y \in \{0,1\}$ , i.e.,  $f_{X|Y}(X|Y=y) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_V, \Sigma)$ .



Recall from Homework Assignment 6 that a GDA model with the same covariance matrices (i.e.,  $\Sigma_0 = \Sigma_1 = \Sigma$ ) describing each of the Gaussians is equivalent to a Logistic Regression model.

# LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION OF GDA

As with all probabilistic models that we have seen, we can go about "training" the GDA model by choosing the set of parameters  $\theta$  that maximize the likelihood function of observing the data that was observed.

#### Likelihood Function for GDA

Under the assumptions that the datapoints, given by the set  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^m$ , are i.i.d. and the prior distribution  $\mathbb{P}(y^{(i)})$  is given by the **Bernoulli distribution** 

$$\mathbb{P}(y^{(i)}) = \phi^{y^{(i)}} (1 - \phi)^{(1 - y^{(i)})},$$

and the conditional distribution  $\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|y^{(i)})$  is given by the **multivariate Gaussian distribution**  $\mathcal{N}\left(\mu_{y^{(i)}},\Sigma\right)$  written as

$$\mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|y^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}})^T \Sigma^{-1}(x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}})}.$$

Then, one can define the **likelihood** function of observing the data  $\mathcal{D}$ , given the set of model parameters  $\theta \coloneqq [\mu_0, \mu_1, \Sigma]$ , as

$$L\left(\theta; \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{m}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(y^{(i)}) \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|y^{(i)}).$$

Similarly, the corresponding log-likelihood function is given by

$$\ell\left(\theta; \{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})\}_{i=1}^{m}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[\log \mathbb{P}(y^{(i)}) + \log \mathbb{P}(x^{(i)}|y^{(i)})\right].$$

## MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATES FOR GDA

Training the GDA model amounts to solving the optimization problem of maximizing the likelihood function, i.e.,

$$\theta^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta} \ell \left( \theta; \left\{ \left( x^{(i)}, y^{(i)} \right) \right\}_{i=1}^m \right).$$

After some algebra, the explicit form of the log-likelihood can be written as

$$\ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ y^{(i)} \log \phi + \left( 1 - y^{(i)} \right) \log(1 - \phi) - \frac{1}{2} \left( x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}} \right)^T \Sigma^{-1} \left( x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}} \right) \right] - \frac{mn}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{m}{2} \log |\Sigma|.$$

• An important point: this log-likelihood function is not concave in general... However, we can still solve for closed-form analytical solutions for the maximum-likelihood estimates (MLE)  $\phi^*$ ,  $\mu_0^*$ ,  $\mu_1^*$ , and  $\Sigma^*$  because the partial derivatives with respect to each of these parameters reduces to solvable linear or quadratic equations, which do enable closed-form solutions. It can be shown that, by setting the partial derivatives of the parameters to zero, their optimal solutions can be derived as

$$\phi^* = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \quad and \quad \mu_y^* = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{I}[y^{(i)} = y]x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{I}[y^{(i)} = y]},$$

$$\Sigma^* = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ [y^{(i)} = 0]x^{(i)}(x^{(i)})^T + [y^{(i)} = 1]x^{(i)}(x^{(i)})^T \right].$$

• Lastly, if the covariance matrices are not equivalent (i.e.,  $\Sigma_0 \neq \Sigma_1$ ), the other MLEs of the other parameters are the same, but the solutions  $\Sigma_0^*$  and  $\Sigma_1^*$  will take on different forms; however, they can still be derived by setting the respective partial derivatives of the log-likelihood equal to 0 and solving.

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