#### Lecture 6: Generalized Linear Models

#### **Tao LIN**

SoE, Westlake University

October 14, 2025



Review of Last Week

- 2 Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models
  - Motivation
  - Exponential family
  - Application in ML (Generalized Linear Models)

#### Reading materials & Reference

#### Reading materials:

- Chapter 3, Stanford CS 229 Lecture Notes, https://cs229.stanford.edu/notes2022fall/main\_notes.pdf
- Lecture 4, Stanford CS 231n, http://cs231n.stanford.edu/schedule.html

#### **Table of Contents**

- Review of Last Week
- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

What is the **optimal performance**, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution p(x, y).

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

• For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution p(x, y).

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):
   If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label,

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution p(x, y).

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):
   If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\arg\max} \, p(y|\mathbf{x}) \tag{1}$$

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \underset{y \in \mathcal{Y}}{\arg \max} p(y|\mathbf{x}) \tag{1}$$

This classifier is also called the *Bayes classifier*.  $f^* = \arg\min_f L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$ , where

$$f^{\star}(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg\max_{\{-1,1\}} \Pr(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}) \tag{2}$$

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|\mathbf{x}) \tag{1}$$

This classifier is also called the *Bayes classifier*:  $f^{\star} = \arg \min_{f} L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$ , where

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg\max_{\{-1,1\}} \Pr(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}) \tag{2}$$

• In practice, we do not know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ 

What is the **optimal performance**, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|\mathbf{x}) \tag{1}$$

This classifier is also called the *Bayes classifier*.  $f^* = \arg\min_f L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$ , where

$$f^*(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg\max_{\{-1,1\}} \Pr(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x}) \tag{2}$$

• In practice, we do not know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ 

⇒ Bayes classifier is an unattainable gold standard.

What is the optimal performance, regardless of the finiteness of the training data?

Assume that we know the joint distribution  $p(\mathbf{x}, y)$ .

- For a given input x, the probability that the "correct" label is y is p(y|x).
- Maximum A-Posteriori (MAP):

If we want to maximize the probability of guessing the correct label, then we should choose the decision rule

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|\mathbf{x}) \tag{1}$$

This classifier is also called the *Bayes classifier*:  $f^* = \arg\min_f L_{\mathcal{D}}(f)$ , where

$$f^{\star}(\mathbf{x}) \in \arg\max_{X \to 1} \Pr(Y = y | X = \mathbf{x})$$
 (2)

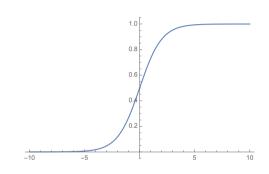
• In practice, we do not know the joint distribution p(x, y)

# The logistic function

Consider first of all the case of two classes. The posterior probability for class  $C_1$ :

$$p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1) + p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta)} = \sigma(\eta)$$
(4)



#### Properties of the logistic function:

- $1 \sigma(\eta) = \sigma(-\eta)$
- $\sigma'(\eta) = \sigma(\eta) (1 \sigma(\eta))$

# The logistic function

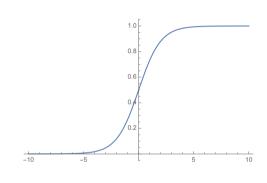
Consider first of all the case of two classes. The posterior probability for class  $C_1$ :

$$p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1) + p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)}$$

$$=\frac{1}{1+\exp(-\eta)}=\sigma(\eta)\tag{}$$

where we have defined

$$\eta = \ln rac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)}$$
 and  $\sigma(\eta) := rac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}}$ 



Properties of the logistic function:

- $1 \sigma(\eta) = \sigma(-\eta)$
- $\sigma'(\eta) = \sigma(\eta) (1 \sigma(\eta))$

# The logistic function

Consider first of all the case of two classes. The posterior probability for class  $C_1$ :

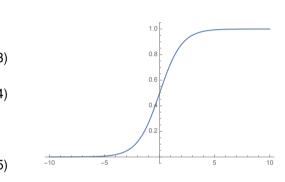
$$p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1) + p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta)} = \sigma(\eta)$$

where we have defined

$$\eta = \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_1)p(\mathcal{C}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_2)p(\mathcal{C}_2)} \text{ and } \sigma(\eta) := \frac{e^{\eta}}{1 + e^{\eta}}$$

For the case of K > 2 classes, we have

$$p(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k)}{\sum_i p(\mathbf{x}|C_i)p(C_i)} = \frac{\exp(\eta_k)}{\sum_i \exp(\eta_i)}$$



Properties of the logistic function:

• 
$$1 - \sigma(\eta) = \sigma(-\eta)$$

(6) 
$$\bullet$$
  $\sigma'(\eta) = \sigma(\eta) (1 - \sigma(\eta))$ 

### Logistic Regression

Given a "new" feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , we predict the (posterior) probability of the two class labels given  $\mathbf{x}$  by means of

$$p(1|\mathbf{x}) := \Pr\left[Y = 1|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\right] = \sigma\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w} + w_0\right)$$
(7)

$$p(0|\mathbf{x}) := \Pr\left[Y = 0|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}\right] = 1 - \sigma\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w} + w_0\right), \tag{8}$$

where we predict a real value (a probability) and not a label.

#### MLE is a method of estimating the parameters of a statistical model

The MLE finds the parameters  $\mathbf{w}^*$  under which  $\{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}\}$  are the most likely:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\star} = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \left( \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(\{\mathbf{x}_{n}, y_{n}\} | \mathbf{w}) \right) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[ -\log \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) \right]. \tag{9}$$

#### MLE is a method of estimating the parameters of a statistical model

The MLE finds the parameters  $\mathbf{w}^*$  under which  $\{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}\}$  are the most likely:

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \arg\max_{\mathbf{w}} \left( \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) := \prod_{n=1}^N p(\{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\} | \mathbf{w}) \right) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \left[ -\log \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) \right]. \tag{9}$$

The likelihood of the data  $\{y, X\}$  given the parameter w, i.e., p(y, X|w).

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}|\mathbf{w}) = p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = p(\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}),$$
(10)

where X does not depend on w.

For Logistic Regression, we have:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n)$$

(12)

For Logistic Regression, we have:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{n \mid \mathbf{x}_n = 1} p(y_n = 1|\mathbf{x}_n) \prod_{n \mid \mathbf{x}_n = 0} p(y_n = 0|\mathbf{x}_n)$$
(11)

(12)

For Logistic Regression, we have:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{n:y_n=1} p(y_n = 1|\mathbf{x}_n) \prod_{n:y_n=0} p(y_n = 0|\mathbf{x}_n)$$

$$= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^{y_n} \left[1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})\right]^{1-y_n}$$
(12)

For Logistic Regression, we have:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{n:y_n=1} p(y_n = 1|\mathbf{x}_n) \prod_{n:y_n=0} p(y_n = 0|\mathbf{x}_n)$$
$$= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^{y_n} \left[1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})\right]^{1-y_n}$$

$$n=1$$

Minimizing  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$  through the property of stationary points.

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_n \left( \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) - y_n \right) = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \left[ \sigma(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{y} \right],$$

where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ .

(13)

(11)

(12)

For Logistic Regression, we have:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n) = \prod_{n:y_n=1} p(y_n = 1|\mathbf{x}_n) \prod_{n:y_n=0} p(y_n = 0|\mathbf{x}_n)$$
$$= \prod_{n=1}^{N} \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^{y_n} \left[ 1 - \sigma(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \right]^{1-y_n}$$

$$n=1$$

Minimizing  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$  through the property of stationary points.

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_{n} \left( \sigma(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{w}) - y_{n} \right) = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \left[ \sigma(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{y} \right],$$

where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times d}$ . It has no closed-form solution to  $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$ .

9/39

(13)

(11)

(12)

#### Last lecture:

• Logistic Regression

#### Last lecture:

• Logistic Regression

#### This lecture:

- Exponential Families
- Generalized Linear Models

#### **Table of Contents**

- Review of Last Weel
- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models
  - Motivation
  - Exponential family
  - Application in ML (Generalized Linear Models)

#### **Table of Contents**

Review of Last Week

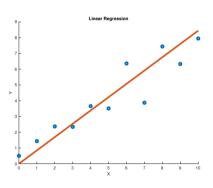
- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models
  - Motivation
  - Exponential family
  - Application in ML (Generalized Linear Models)

#### The Least-Squares can be defined in two different ways

#### Geometric way:

Minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2$$
 (14)



### The Least-Squares can be defined in two different ways

#### Geometric way:

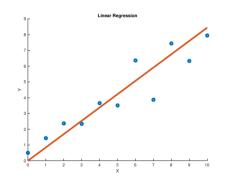
Minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2$$
 (14)

#### Probabilistic way:

Assume the data follow a linear Gaussian model:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \text{ where } \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$$
 (15)



### The Least-Squares can be defined in two different ways

#### Geometric way:

Minimizing the sum of the squares of the residuals:

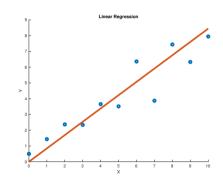
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w})^2$$
 (14)

#### Probabilistic way:

Assume the data follow a linear Gaussian model:

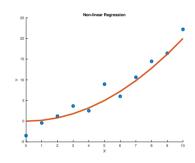
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \text{ where } \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)$$
 (15)

Doing MLE recovers the LS estimator  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ .



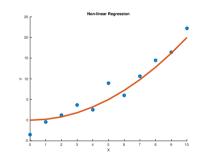
### How to get non-linear models?

• Features augmentations: add non-linear features  $(x, x^2, x^3, ...)$ 



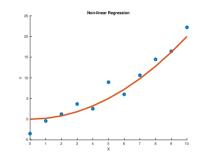
#### How to get non-linear models?

- Features augmentations: add non-linear features  $(x, x^2, x^3, ...)$
- Different probabilistic models:



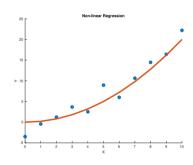
#### How to get non-linear models?

- Features augmentations: add non-linear features  $(x, x^2, x^3, ...)$
- Different probabilistic models:
  - Least Squares:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$

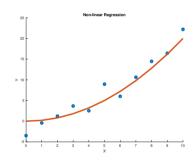


- Features augmentations: add non-linear features  $(x, x^2, x^3, ...)$
- Different probabilistic models:
  - Least Squares:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$

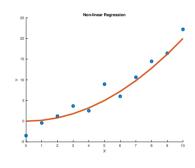
 $\implies$  The linear model predicts the mean of a distribution  $\mu$  (from which the data are sampled).



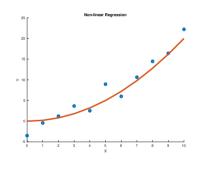
- Features augmentations:
   add non-linear features (x, x², x³, ...)
- Different probabilistic models:
  - Least Squares:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$ 
    - $\Longrightarrow$  The linear model predicts the mean of a distribution  $\mu$  (from which the data are sampled).
  - Logistic Regression:  $y \sim \mathcal{B}\left(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})\right)$



- Features augmentations:
   add non-linear features (x, x², x³,...)
- Different probabilistic models:
  - Least Squares:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$ 
    - $\Longrightarrow$  The linear model predicts the mean of a distribution  $\mu$  (from which the data are sampled).
  - Logistic Regression:  $y \sim \mathcal{B}\left(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})\right)$ 
    - $\Longrightarrow$  The linear model predicts another quantity  $\eta := \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}$ .



- Features augmentations:
   add non-linear features (x, x², x³, ...)
- Different probabilistic models:
  - Least Squares:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{2}\right)$ 
    - $\Longrightarrow$  The linear model predicts the mean of a distribution  $\mu$  (from which the data are sampled).
  - Logistic Regression:  $y \sim \mathcal{B}\left(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})\right)$ 
    - $\Longrightarrow$  The linear model predicts another quantity  $\eta := \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$ .
      - ⇒ Generalized linear model
      - ⇒ Exponential family



Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
 (16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}$ .

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
 (16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} \tag{17}$$

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta), \tag{16}$$

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
(17)

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta), \tag{16}$$

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

• The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta), \tag{16}$$

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

- The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.
- Rather  $\eta$  is related to the mean  $\mu$  by the non-linear relation  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$  or  $\mu = \sigma(\eta)$ .

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
 (16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

- The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.
- Rather  $\eta$  is related to the mean  $\mu$  by the non-linear relation  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$  or  $\mu = \sigma(\eta)$ .
- The relation between
  - $\bullet$   $\eta$
  - μ

makes possible to use linear model in this context.

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
 (16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

- The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.
- Rather  $\eta$  is related to the mean  $\mu$  by the non-linear relation  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$  or  $\mu = \sigma(\eta)$ .
- The relation between
  - $\eta$  (the parameter predicted by the linear model)
  - μ

makes possible to use linear model in this context.

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
 (16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

- The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.
- Rather  $\eta$  is related to the mean  $\mu$  by the non-linear relation  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$  or  $\mu = \sigma(\eta)$ .
- The relation between
  - $\eta$  (the parameter predicted by the linear model)
  - $\mu$  (the distribution's mean)

makes possible to use linear model in this context.

Logistic Regression models the probability of the two classes  $\{0,1\}$  by

$$p(1|\eta) = \sigma(\eta) \text{ and } p(0|\eta) = 1 - \sigma(\eta),$$
(16)

where  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$ . This can be compactly written as (exercise: express it as the format of  $\exp(\ldots)$ )

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (17)

- The linear model predicts  $\sigma(\eta)$  which is not the mean of the distribution.
- Rather  $\eta$  is related to the mean  $\mu$  by the non-linear relation  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$  or  $\mu = \sigma(\eta)$ .
- The relation between
  - $\eta$  (the parameter predicted by the linear model)
  - $\mu$  (the distribution's mean)

makes possible to use linear model in this context.

It is called the link function.

The distribution used in Logistic Regression can be written in a very specific form:

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (18)

The distribution used in Logistic Regression can be written in a very specific form:

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (18)

Goals: a unified framework to generalize other forms of distributions.

The distribution used in Logistic Regression can be written in a very specific form:

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (18)

**Goals:** a unified framework to generalize other forms of distributions.

• The discussion on a class of distributions, known as exponential families.

The distribution used in Logistic Regression can be written in a very specific form:

$$p(y|\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta y}}{1 + e^{\eta}} = \exp(\eta y - \ln(1 + e^{\eta}))$$
 (18)

Goals: a unified framework to generalize other forms of distributions.

- The discussion on a class of distributions, known as exponential families.
- Many distributions (but not all) fit into this framework and that distributions in this family have many nice properties.

#### **Table of Contents**

Review of Last Week

- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models
  - Motivation
  - Exponential family
  - Application in ML (Generalized Linear Models)

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{\text{oo}} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (19)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

• n: natural parameter of the distribution

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

η: natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- $\eta$ : natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- η: natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information to estimate  $\eta$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- η: natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information to estimate  $\eta$ .
- h(y): the base measure (a scaling factor independent of  $\eta$ )

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- $\eta$ : natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information to estimate  $\eta$ .
- h(y): the base measure (a scaling factor independent of  $\eta$ )
- $A(\eta)$ : log-partition function, the quantity  $e^{-A(\eta)}$  is used as a normalization constant:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- η: natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information to estimate  $\eta$ .
- h(y): the base measure (a scaling factor independent of  $\eta$ )
- $A(\eta)$ : log-partition function, the quantity  $e^{-A(\eta)}$  is used as a normalization constant:

(we need) 
$$\int p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta})dy = \int h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right] dy = 1$$
 (20)

(21)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(19)

- η: natural parameter of the distribution (encodes the parameters of the distribution in a natural form)
- $\phi(y)$ : sufficient statistics<sup>1</sup>, containing all the relevant information to estimate  $\eta$ .
- h(y): the base measure (a scaling factor independent of  $\eta$ )
- $A(\eta)$ : log-partition function, the quantity  $e^{-A(\eta)}$  is used as a normalization constant:

(we need) 
$$\int p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta})dy = \int h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right] dy = 1$$
 (20)

$$\implies (\text{exercise}) \int h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right] dy = \int h(y) \exp\left[A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right] dy = \exp\left[A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (21)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Assume that we are given independent samples from this distribution. We do know  $\phi(y)$  and h(y) but not  $\eta$ . In order to optimally estimate  $\eta$  given these samples, all we need is the empirical average of the  $\phi(y)$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

• A fixed choice of  $\phi(y)$ ,  $A(\eta)$  and h(y) defines a family of distributions (parameterized by  $\eta$ ).

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

- A fixed choice of  $\phi(y)$ ,  $A(\eta)$  and h(y) defines a family of distributions (parameterized by  $\eta$ ).
- As we vary  $\eta$ , we then get different distribution within this family.

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

- A fixed choice of  $\phi(y)$ ,  $A(\eta)$  and h(y) defines a family of distributions (parameterized by  $\eta$ ).
- As we vary  $\eta$ , we then get different distribution within this family.
- For some parameters  $\eta$ , there exists some  $h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) \right]$  that cannot be normalized.

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

- A fixed choice of  $\phi(y)$ ,  $A(\eta)$  and h(y) defines a family of distributions (parameterized by  $\eta$ ).
- As we vary n, we then get different distribution within this family.
- For some parameters  $\eta$ , there exists some  $h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) \right]$  that cannot be normalized.

For example, h(y) = 1,  $\phi(y) = y^2$  and  $\eta = 1$ .

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \underbrace{h(y)}_{>0} \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (22)

- A fixed choice of  $\phi(y)$ ,  $A(\eta)$  and h(y) defines a family of distributions (parameterized by  $\eta$ ).
- As we vary  $\eta$ , we then get different distribution within this family.
- For some parameters  $\eta$ , there exists some  $h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) \right]$  that cannot be normalized.

For example, h(y) = 1,  $\phi(y) = y^2$  and  $\eta = 1$ .

We will exclude such parameters by only looking at the set of parameters

Natural parameter space 
$$M := \left\{ \boldsymbol{\eta} : \int_{y} h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right] dy < \infty \right\}$$
 (23)

# Why?

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (24)

#### Bernoulli distributions belong to the exponential family

**Recall:** A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (24)

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \mu$$
 and  $\Pr(Y = 0) = 1 - \mu$  (25)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (24)

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

$$Pr(Y = 1) = \mu$$
 and  $Pr(Y = 0) = 1 - \mu$  (25)

Claim: the Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family.

$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}$$
, where  $\mu \in (0,1)$  (26)

$$= \exp\left\{ (\ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) y + \ln(1-\mu) \right\} = \exp\left\{ \eta \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right\}. \tag{27}$$

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (24)

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

$$Pr(Y = 1) = \mu$$
 and  $Pr(Y = 0) = 1 - \mu$  (25)

Claim: the Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family.

$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}$$
, where  $\mu \in (0,1)$  (26)

$$= \exp\left\{ (\ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu})y + \ln(1-\mu) \right\} = \exp\left\{ \eta \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right\}.$$
 (27)

where we can identify (exercise):

**Recall:** A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

$$\Pr(Y=1) = \mu$$
 and  $\Pr(Y=0) = 1 - \mu$ 

Claim: the Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family.

$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}$$
, where  $\mu \in (0,1)$ 

$$= \exp\left\{ (\ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) y + \ln(1-\mu) \right\} = \exp\left\{ \eta \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right\}. \tag{27}$$

where we can identify (exercise):

$$\phi(y) = y$$
,  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$ ,  $A(\eta) = -\ln(1-\mu) = \ln(1+e^{\eta})$ ,  $h(y) = 1$ . (28)

(24)

(25)

(26)

**Recall:** A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable sach that for 
$$\mu \in [0,1]$$

 $\Pr(Y=1) = \mu$  and  $\Pr(Y=0) = 1 - \mu$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}, \text{ where } \mu \in (0,1)$$
$$= \exp\left\{ (\ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) y + \ln(1-\mu) \right\} = \exp\left\{ \eta \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right\}.$$

$$\phi(y) = y \,, \quad \eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu} \,, \quad A(\eta) = -\ln(1-\mu) = \ln(1+e^{\eta}) \,, \quad h(y) = 1.$$

$$\Longrightarrow \eta = g(\mu) = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu} \Leftrightarrow \mu = g^{-1}(\eta) = \frac{e^{\eta}}{1+e^{\eta}}.$$

(24)

(25)

(26)

(27)

**Recall:** A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (24)

The Bernoulli distribution is the binary random variable such that for  $\mu \in [0,1]$ :

$$\Pr(Y = 1) = \mu$$
 and  $\Pr(Y = 0) = 1 - \mu$  (25)

Claim: the Bernoulli distribution is a member of the exponential family.

$$p(y|\mu) = \mu^y (1-\mu)^{1-y}$$
, where  $\mu \in (0,1)$ 

$$= \exp\left\{ (\ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}) y + \ln(1-\mu) \right\} = \exp\left\{ \eta \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right\}.$$
 (27)

where we can identify (exercise):

$$\phi(y) = y$$
,  $\eta = \ln \frac{\mu}{1-\mu}$ ,  $A(\eta) = -\ln(1-\mu) = \ln(1+e^{\eta})$ ,  $h(y) = 1$ . (28)

$$\Longrightarrow \eta = g(\mu) = \ln \tfrac{\mu}{1-\mu} \Leftrightarrow \mu = g^{-1}(\eta) = \tfrac{e^{\eta}}{1+e^{\eta}}. \text{ Link function } g(\mu) \text{ links the mean of } \phi(y) \text{ to } \eta \cdot \tfrac{21/39}{1+e^{\eta}}.$$

**Recall:** A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (29)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (29)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right] \tag{29}$$

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \qquad \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$$
 (30)

$$= \exp\left[ \left( \mu/\sigma^2, -1/(2\sigma^2) \right) (y, y^2)^\top - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right]. \tag{31}$$

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\eta) = h(y) \exp\left[\eta^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\eta)\right]$$
 (29)

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \qquad \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$$
 (30)

$$= \exp\left[\left(\mu/\sigma^2, -1/(2\sigma^2)\right)(y, y^2)^{\top} - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi\sigma^2)\right]. \tag{31}$$

$$\phi(y) = (y, y^2)^{\top}, \ \boldsymbol{\eta} = (\eta_1 = \mu/\sigma^2, \eta_2 = -1/(2\sigma^2))^{\top}, \ A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2} - \frac{1}{2}\ln(-\eta_2/\pi), \ h(y) = 1.$$
 (32)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (29)

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \qquad \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$$
(30)

$$= \exp\left[\left(\mu/\sigma^2, -1/(2\sigma^2)\right)(y, y^2)^{\top} - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{2}\ln(2\pi\sigma^2)\right]. \tag{31}$$

$$\phi(y) = (y, y^2)^{\top}, \ \boldsymbol{\eta} = (\eta_1 = \mu/\sigma^2, \eta_2 = -1/(2\sigma^2))^{\top}, \ A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2} - \frac{1}{2}\ln(-\eta_2/\pi), \ h(y) = 1.$$
 (32)

**Link function** 
$$(\eta := g(\mu))$$
:  $\eta_1 = \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}, \eta_2 = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \iff \mu = -\frac{\eta_1}{2\eta_2}, \sigma^2 = -\frac{1}{2\eta_2}$ .

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
 (33)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(33)

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(33)

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} = \frac{1}{y!} e^{y \ln(\mu) - \mu} = h(y) e^{\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)}$$
(34)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\eta) = h(y) \exp\left[\eta^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\eta)\right]$$
(33)

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} = \frac{1}{y!} e^{y \ln(\mu) - \mu} = h(y) e^{\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)}$$
(34)

We can identify (exercise):

$$h(y) = \frac{1}{y!}, \ \phi(y) = y, \ \text{ and } \eta = \ln(\mu)$$
 (35)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp \left[ \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$$

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{\nu!} = \frac{1}{\nu!} e^{y \ln(\mu) - \mu} = h(y) e^{\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)}$$
(34)

We can identify (exercise):

$$h(y) = \frac{1}{y!}, \ \phi(y) = y, \ \text{ and } \eta = \ln(\mu)$$
 (35)

Link function (exercise):

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = g(\mu) \tag{36}$$

(33)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{y!} = \frac{1}{y!} e^{y \ln(\mu) - \mu} = h(y) e^{\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)}$$
(34)

We can identify (exercise):

$$h(y) = \frac{1}{y!}, \ \phi(y) = y, \ \text{ and } \eta = \ln(\mu)$$
 (35)

Link function (exercise):

$$\eta = g(\mu) = \ln(\mu) \tag{36}$$

(33)

Recall: A distribution belongs to the exponential family if it can be written in the form

$$p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = h(y) \exp\left[\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right]$$
(33)

**Claim:** the Poisson distribution with mean  $\mu$  belongs to the family: for  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ 

$$p(y|\mu) = \frac{\mu^y e^{-\mu}}{\nu!} = \frac{1}{\nu!} e^{y \ln(\mu) - \mu} = h(y) e^{\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)}$$
(34)

We can identify (exercise):

$$h(y) = \frac{1}{y!}, \ \phi(y) = y, \ \text{ and } \eta = \ln(\mu)$$
 (35)

Link function (exercise):

$$\eta = g(\mu) = \ln(\mu) \Longleftrightarrow \mu = g^{-1}(\eta) = e^{\eta}$$
(36)

• Cumulant  $A(\eta)$  is convex.

- Cumulant  $A(\eta)$  is convex.
- $\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right]$

- Cumulant  $A(\eta)$  is convex.
- $\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right]$
- $\nabla^2 A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)^\top\right] \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right]\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right]^\top$

- Cumulant  $A(\eta)$  is convex.
- $\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right]$
- $\nabla^2 A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\phi(y)^\top\right] \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]^\top$
- There is a 1-1 relationship between the "mean"  $\mu:=\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]$  and natural parameter  $\eta$ , defined using a so-called *link function* g:

- Cumulant  $A(\eta)$  is convex.
- $\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{y})\right]$
- $\nabla^2 A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\phi(y)^\top\right] \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]^\top$
- There is a 1-1 relationship between the "mean"  $\mu := \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right]$  and natural parameter  $\eta$ , defined using a so-called *link function*  $\mathbf{g}$ :

$$\eta = \mathbf{g}(\mu := \mathbb{E}[\phi(y)]) \Longleftrightarrow \mu = \mathbf{g}^{-1}(\eta) = \nabla A(\eta)$$
(37)

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \le \lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1) + (1 - \lambda)A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$$

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \leq \lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$$

We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy$$
(39)

(43)

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \leq \lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$$

We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1} + (1 - \lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy$$
(40)

(43)

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\mathbf{n}) \leq \lambda A(\mathbf{n}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\mathbf{n}_2)$$

We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{39}$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1} + (1 - \lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{40}$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{\boldsymbol{\phi}} \cdot \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1 - \lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{\boldsymbol{\phi}} dy \tag{41}$$

(43)

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \leq \lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$$

We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{39}$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1} + (1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{40}$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{f(y)} \cdot \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{g(y)} dy \tag{41}$$

$$= \int f(y)g(y)dy \tag{42}$$

25/39

(43)

 $= \|fg\|_1$ 

#### **Proof:** convexity

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\mathbf{n}) \leq \lambda A(\mathbf{n}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\mathbf{n}_2)$$

We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{40}$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1} + (1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{40}$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{f(y)} \cdot \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{g(y)} dy \tag{41}$$

$$= \int f(y)g(y)dy \tag{42}$$

(43)

• For  $\eta_1, \eta_2$  two parameters, we define  $\eta = \lambda \eta_1 + (1 - \lambda) \eta_2$ . We want to show

$$A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \leq \lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2)$$

$$A(\eta) \leq \lambda A(\eta_1) + (1-\lambda)A(\eta_2)$$
 We have first

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp \left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy$$
$$= \int h(y) \exp \left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{x} + 1\right)\right) dy$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_1 + (1-\lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_2\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{} \cdot \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1-\lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{} dy$$

$$= \int f(y)g(y)dy$$

$$=\|fg\|_1$$

We will continue the proof with the Hoelder's inequality.

• We recall the **Hoelder's inequality:** 

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_p \, ||g||_q \tag{44}$$

for 
$$p,q\in [1,+\infty]$$
  $s.t.$   $\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1$ , and  $\left\|f\right\|_p=(\int \left|f(y)\right|^p dy)^{1/p}.$ 

We recall the Hoelder's inequality:

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_p \, ||g||_q \tag{44}$$

for 
$$p, q \in [1, +\infty]$$
 s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $||f||_p = (\int |f(y)|^p dy)^{1/p}$ .

• We apply Hoelder's inequality to f and g for  $p = 1/\lambda$  and  $q = 1/(1 - \lambda)$ :

$$\|fg\|_{1} \le \|f\|_{p} \|g\|_{q}$$
 where  $1/p + 1/q = \lambda + (1 - \lambda) = 1$  (45)

• We recall the Hoelder's inequality:

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_p \, ||g||_q \tag{44}$$

for 
$$p, q \in [1, +\infty]$$
 s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $||f||_p = (\int |f(y)|^p dy)^{1/p}$ .

• We apply Hoelder's inequality to f and g for  $p = 1/\lambda$  and  $q = 1/(1 - \lambda)$ :

$$\|fg\|_{1} \le \|f\|_{p} \|g\|_{q}$$
 where  $1/p + 1/q = \lambda + (1-\lambda) = 1$  (45)

Note that

We recall the Hoelder's inequality:

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_p \, ||g||_q \tag{44}$$

for  $p, q \in [1, +\infty]$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $||f||_p = (\int |f(y)|^p dy)^{1/p}$ .

• We apply Hoelder's inequality to f and g for  $p = 1/\lambda$  and  $q = 1/(1 - \lambda)$ :

$$\left\|fg\right\|_{1}\leq\left\|f\right\|_{p}\left\|g\right\|_{q}\quad\text{ where }\quad1/p+1/q=\lambda+(1-\lambda)=1\tag{45}$$

Note that

$$\left\|f\right\|_{p} = \left(\int f(y)^{p} dy\right)^{1/p} = \left(\int \left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \eta_{1}^{\top} \phi(y)\right)\right]^{1/\lambda} dy\right)^{\lambda} = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\eta_{1}^{\top} \phi(y)\right) dy\right)^{\lambda}$$

We recall the Hoelder's inequality:

$$||fg||_1 \le ||f||_p \, ||g||_q \tag{44}$$

for  $p, q \in [1, +\infty]$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $||f||_p = (\int |f(y)|^p dy)^{1/p}$ .

• We apply Hoelder's inequality to f and g for  $p = 1/\lambda$  and  $q = 1/(1 - \lambda)$ :

$$\|fg\|_{1} \le \|f\|_{p} \|g\|_{q} \quad \text{where} \quad 1/p + 1/q = \lambda + (1-\lambda) = 1$$
 (45)

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \left\|f\right\|_{p} &= \left(\int f(y)^{p} dy\right)^{1/p} = \left(\int \left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]^{1/\lambda} dy\right)^{\lambda} = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{\lambda} \\ \left\|g\right\|_{q} &= \left(\int g(y)^{q} dy\right)^{1/q} = \left(\int \left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1-\lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\lambda}} dy\right)^{1-\lambda} = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{1-\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

We recall the Hoelder's inequality:

$$\|fg\|_1 \le \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$$

for  $p, q \in [1, +\infty]$  s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ , and  $||f||_p = (\int |f(y)|^p dy)^{1/p}$ .

• We apply Hoelder's inequality to 
$$f$$
 and  $g$  for  $p = 1/\lambda$  and  $q = 1/(1 - \lambda)$ :

• Note that 
$$\|f\|_p = \left(\int f(y)^p dy\right)^{1/p} = \left(\int \left[h(y)^\lambda \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_1^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]^{1/\lambda} dy\right)^\lambda = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^\lambda \\ \|g\|_q = \left(\int g(y)^q dy\right)^{1/q} = \left(\int \left[h(y)^{1-\lambda} \exp\left((1-\lambda)\boldsymbol{\eta}_2^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\lambda}} dy\right)^{1-\lambda} = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{1-\lambda}$$

 $\|fg\|_1 \le \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$  where  $1/p + 1/q = \lambda + (1 - \lambda) = 1$ 

• Therefore we have 
$$\|f\|_p \|g\|_q = \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_1^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{\lambda} \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_2^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{1-\lambda} \tag{46}$$

 $= \exp(\lambda A(\eta_1)) \exp((1-\lambda)A(\eta_2))$ 26439

(44)

(45)

## Summary of proof: convexity

We have

$$\exp A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{48}$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp\left(\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1} + (1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}\right)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy \tag{49}$$

$$= \int \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{\lambda} \exp\left(\lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{f(y)} \cdot \underbrace{\left[h(y)^{1 - \lambda} \exp\left((1 - \lambda) \boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right)\right]}_{g(y)} dy \tag{50}$$

$$\leq \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{\lambda} \left(\int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y)\right) dy\right)^{1 - \lambda} \tag{51}$$

$$= \exp\left(\lambda A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{1})\right) \exp\left((1 - \lambda) A(\boldsymbol{\eta}_{2})\right) \tag{52}$$

## Derivate of $A(\eta)$ and moments: particular cases

Bernoulli distribution:

$$A'(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{d}{d\boldsymbol{\eta}}\ln(1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}) = \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}}{1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}} = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mu$$
 (53)

$$A''(\eta) = \frac{d}{\eta}\sigma(\eta) = \sigma(\eta)\left(1 - \sigma(\eta)\right) = \mu(1 - \mu)$$
(54)

## Derivate of $A(\eta)$ and moments: particular cases

Bernoulli distribution:

$$A'(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = rac{d}{d\boldsymbol{\eta}} \ln(1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}) = rac{e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}}{1 + e^{\boldsymbol{\eta}}} = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \mu$$

$$A''(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{d}{n}\sigma(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{\eta}) (1 - \sigma(\boldsymbol{\eta})) = \mu(1 - \mu)$$

Gaussian distribution:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_1} A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_1} \left( -\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2} - \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( -\eta_2/\pi \right) \right) = -\frac{\eta_1}{2\eta_2} = \mu$$

$$\partial \eta_1^{T}(\eta) = \partial \eta_1 \left( 4\eta_2 - 2 \ln \left( \eta_2/\kappa \right) \right) = 2\eta_2 - \mu$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial n_1^2} A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial n_1} \left( -\frac{\eta_1}{2n_2} \right) = -\frac{1}{2n_2} = \sigma^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_2} A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_2} \left( -\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2} - \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( -\eta_2/\pi \right) \right) = \frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2^2} - \frac{1}{2\eta_2} = \mu^2 + \sigma^2$$

(53)

(54)

(55)

(56)

28/39

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

(64)

(58)

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$
(59)

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$
(60)

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int \nabla \left[ h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \right] dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$
(61)

 $\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$ 

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int \nabla \left[ h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \right] dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

(64)

(58)

(59)

(60)

(61)

(62)

 $= \int h(y) \exp\left(\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta})\right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy$ 

## Derivate of $A(\eta)$ and moments: general cases

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int \nabla \left[ h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \right] dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

29/39

(58)

(59)

(60)

(61)

(62)

(63)

 $= \int p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta})\phi(y)dy$ 

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int \nabla \left[ h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \right] dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy$$

$$(63)$$

29/39

$$\nabla A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \nabla \left[ \ln \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right]$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \nabla \left[ \left( \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) dy \right) \right] \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int \nabla \left[ h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \right] dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy \cdot \exp \left( -A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)$$

$$= \int h(y) \exp \left( \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) - A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy$$

$$= \int p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) dy = \mathbb{E} \left[ \boldsymbol{\phi}(Y) \right]$$

$$(64)$$

#### **Table of Contents**

Review of Last Week

- Exponential Families and Generalized Linear Models
  - Motivation
  - Exponential family
  - Application in ML (Generalized Linear Models)

Assume a set of iid samples  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , sampled from a member of the exponential family with given h(y), sufficient statistics  $\phi(y)$ , but unknown parameter  $\eta$ .

Assume a set of iid samples  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , sampled from a member of the exponential family with given h(y), sufficient statistics  $\phi(y)$ , but unknown parameter  $\eta$ .

**Goal:** Estimate the natural parameter  $\eta$ .

Assume a set of iid samples  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , sampled from a member of the exponential family with given h(y), sufficient statistics  $\phi(y)$ , but unknown parameter  $\eta$ .

**Goal:** Estimate the natural parameter  $\eta$ .

**How:** MLE for  $p(y|\eta) = h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right]$ .

Assume a set of iid samples  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , sampled from a member of the exponential family with given h(y), sufficient statistics  $\phi(y)$ , but unknown parameter  $\eta$ .

**Goal:** Estimate the natural parameter  $\eta$ .

**How:** MLE for  $p(y|\eta) = h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right]$ .

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{1}{N} \ln \left( p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right) \tag{65}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right] . \tag{66}$$

Assume a set of iid samples  $\{y_n\}_{n=1}^N$ , sampled from a member of the exponential family with given h(y), sufficient statistics  $\phi(y)$ , but unknown parameter  $\eta$ .

**Goal:** Estimate the natural parameter  $\eta$ .

**How:** MLE for  $p(y|\eta) = h(y) \exp \left[ \eta^{\top} \phi(y) - A(\eta) \right]$ .

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{1}{N} \ln \left( p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right) \tag{65}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right] . \tag{66}$$

 $\implies$  The cost function  $\mathcal{L}$  is a convex function in  $\eta$  since  $A(\eta)$  is convex.

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$$
 (67)

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ It says that we should pick  $\eta$  s.t. the expected value of the sufficient statistics is equal to its empirical value!

 $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln \left( h(y_n) \right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$ 

Given the definition

Gradient:

$$abla_{oldsymbol{\eta}} \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = -rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} oldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + \mathbb{E}\left[oldsymbol{\phi}(y)
ight] \,,$$

(67)

(68)

It says that we should pick  $\eta$  s.t. the expected value of the sufficient statistics is equal to its empirical value!

Given the definition

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$$

(67)

Gradient:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{n}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{r})$$

$$abla_{oldsymbol{\eta}} \mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = -rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} oldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + \mathbb{E}\left[oldsymbol{\phi}(y)
ight] \,,$$

(68)

Stationary point:2

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>It says that we should pick  $\eta$  s.t. the expected value of the sufficient statistics is equal to its empirical value!

Given the definition

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$$

(67)

Gradient:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + \mathbb{E} \left[ \boldsymbol{\phi}(y) \right] ,$$

(68)

$$\mu$$
 :

$$\mu := \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(y_n)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>It says that we should pick  $\eta$  s.t. the expected value of the sufficient statistics is equal to its empirical value!

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\ln\left(h(y_n)\right) - \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n) + A(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right]$$
 (67)

Stationary point:2

$$\nabla_{n}\mathcal{L}(s)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(oldsymbol{\eta}) = -rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \phi$$

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(y_n) + \mathbb{E} \left[ \phi(y) \right] ,$$

Closed-form: assume we have determined the link function 
$$\mathbf{g}(\mu) = \eta$$

$$\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{g}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathbf{r}, \phi(\nu_i)\right).$$

$$\eta = \mathbf{g}\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^N \boldsymbol{\phi}(y_n)\right),$$

$$N \leq n=1$$

<sup>2</sup>It says that we should pick  $\eta$  s.t. the expected value of the sufficient statistics is equal to its empirical value!

 $\mu := \mathbb{E}\left[\phi(y)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \phi(y_n)$ 

(68)

(69)

(70)

32/39

and justify why we called 
$$\phi(y)$$
 a sufficient statistics

and justify why we called 
$$\phi(y)$$
 a sufficient statistics.

Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y

- ullet Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$

- Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
  - Logistic regression:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}))$

- Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
  - Logistic regression:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}))$
- Common feature of linear and logistic regression:

- Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
  - Logistic regression:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}))$
- Common feature of linear and logistic regression:
  - 1 Model the conditional expectation as  $\mu = f(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})$

- Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
  - Logistic regression:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}))$
- Common feature of linear and logistic regression:
  - 1 Model the conditional expectation as  $\mu = f(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})$
  - 2 Endow Y with a particular probability distribution having  $\mu$  as parameter

- ullet Both linear and logistic regressions focus on the conditional relationship between X and Y
  - LS:  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$
  - Logistic regression:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}))$
- Common feature of linear and logistic regression:
  - 1 Model the conditional expectation as  $\mu = f(\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w})$
  - 2 Endow Y with a particular probability distribution having  $\mu$  as parameter
- The GLM framework extends these ideas to the general exponential family.

#### Scenario:

• We would like to build a model to estimate the number y of customers arriving in a store.

- We would like to build a model to estimate the number y of customers arriving in a store.
- The Poisson distribution usually gives a good model for the number of visitors.

- We would like to build a model to estimate the number y of customers arriving in a store.
- The Poisson distribution usually gives a good model for the number of visitors.
- How can we come up with a model for our problem?

- We would like to build a model to estimate the number y of customers arriving in a store.
- The Poisson distribution usually gives a good model for the number of visitors.
- How can we come up with a model for our problem?
- Fortunately the Poisson is an exponential family distribution.

#### Scenario:

- We would like to build a model to estimate the number y of customers arriving in a store.
- The Poisson distribution usually gives a good model for the number of visitors.
- How can we come up with a model for our problem?
- Fortunately the Poisson is an exponential family distribution.

We can apply a Generalized Linear Model (GLM)!

## Constructing GLMs

To derive a GLM for a classification/regression problem (the conditional dist. of y given x):

#### Constructing GLMs

To derive a GLM for a classification/regression problem (the conditional dist. of y given x):

1) The natural parameter  $\eta$  and the observed inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  are related linearly:  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$ 

# Constructing GLMs

To derive a GLM for a classification/regression problem (the conditional dist. of y given x):

- 1) The natural parameter  $\eta$  and the observed inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  are related linearly:  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$
- 2 The conditional mean  $\mu$  is represented as a function  $f(\eta)$  of the linear combination  $\eta$

# **Constructing GLMs**

To derive a GLM for a classification/regression problem (the conditional dist. of y given x):

- 1 The natural parameter  $\eta$  and the observed inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  are related linearly:  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$
- 2 The conditional mean  $\mu$  is represented as a function  $f(\eta)$  of the linear combination  $\eta$
- 3 The observed output y is assumed to be characterized by an exponential family distribution with conditional mean  $\mu$ .

# **Constructing GLMs**

To derive a GLM for a classification/regression problem (the conditional dist. of y given x):

- 1 The natural parameter  $\eta$  and the observed inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  are related linearly:  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{w}$
- 2 The conditional mean  $\mu$  is represented as a function  $f(\eta)$  of the linear combination  $\eta$
- 3 The observed output y is assumed to be characterized by an exponential family distribution with conditional mean  $\mu$ .

The condition probability is thus modeled as:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = h(y_n) \exp\left(\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta)\right) \qquad \text{for} \quad \eta = g \circ f(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w})$$
 (71)

- Two choice points in the specification of a GLM:
  - 1 The choice of the exponential family distribution
  - $\Longrightarrow$  Generally constrained by the nature of the data Y
  - 2 The choice of the response function *f* 
    - → Real degree of freedom!
  - $\implies$  Canonical response function:  $f = g^{-1}$ , uniquely associated with the given exponential family distribution.
- If we decide to use the canonical response function, the choice of the exponential family density completely determines the GLM:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = h(y_n) \exp(\eta \phi(y) - A(\eta))$$
 for  $\eta = \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}$  (72)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n | \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n \phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n))$$
 (73)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n | \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n \phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n))$$
 (73)

If we rewrite this sum by using the matrix notation, we get (exercise:)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_n))$$

(76)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n | \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n \phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n) \right)$$

If we rewrite this sum by using the matrix notation, we get (exercise:)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_n) \right) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - A'(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n \right)$$
(74)

(76)

(73)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n^{ op}\mathbf{w}) = -rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n\phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n)
ight)$$

If we rewrite this sum by using the matrix notation, we get (exercise:)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_n)) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - A'(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \mathbb{E} [\phi(Y_n)] \mathbf{x}_n)$$

(76)

(73)

(74)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n | \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n \phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n) \right)$$

If we rewrite this sum by using the matrix notation, we get (exercise:)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_n)) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - A'(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \mathbb{E} [\phi(Y_n)] \mathbf{x}_n) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n)$$

(73)

(74)

(75)

(76)

Note that:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n|\mathbf{x}_n^{ op}\mathbf{w}) = -rac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(\ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n\phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n)
ight)$$

If we rewrite this sum by using the matrix notation, we get (exercise:)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_n)) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - A'(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n \right)$$
(74)
$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \mathbb{E} \left[ \phi(Y_n) \right] \mathbf{x}_n) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - g^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n \right)$$
(75)
$$= -\frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \left[ g^{-1}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \phi(\mathbf{y}) \right]$$
(76)

(73)

Note that:

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(y_n | \mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \ln(h(y_n)) + \eta_n \phi(y_n) - A(\eta_n) \right)$ 

$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \mathbb{E} \left[ \phi(Y_n) \right] \mathbf{x}_n) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ g^{-1}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}) - \phi(\mathbf{y}) \right]$$

In the case of Logistic Regression:

 $= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - \mathbb{E} [\phi(Y_n)] \mathbf{x}_n) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n \phi(y_n) - g^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_n)$ 

 $abla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{X}^{\top} \left[ \sigma(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) - \mathbf{y} \right]$ 

 $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_{n} \phi(y_{n}) - \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} A(\eta_{n}) \right) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mathbf{x}_{n} \phi(y_{n}) - A'(\mathbf{x}_{n}^{\top} \mathbf{w}) \mathbf{x}_{n} \right)$ 

(73)

(74)

(75)

(76)

(77)

## Some examples

Gaussian distribution

Least Squares

## Some examples

- Gaussian distribution
- Bernoulli distribution

Least Squares

Logistic Regression

#### Some examples

- Gaussian distribution
- Bernoulli distribution
- Multi-nomial distribution

Least Squares

Logistic Regression

Naffrancia Danmanaian

Softmax Regression

• Logistic Regression

#### This lecture:

- Exponential Families
- Generalized Linear Models