

CS 4375 Midterm Review: Part II

Rishabh Iyer University of Texas at Dallas

Topics for the Midterm Exam



- Linear Regression
- Perceptron
- Support Vector Machines
- Nearest Neighbor Methods
- Decision Trees
- Bayesian Methods and Parameter Estimation
- Naïve Bayes
- Logistic Regression

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Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)



- Data: Observed set of α_H heads and α_T tails
- Hypothesis: Coin flips follow a Bernoulli distribution
- Learning: Find the "best" θ
- MLE: Choose θ to maximize probability of D given θ

$$\widehat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg max}} P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

$$= \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg max}} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

Coin Flipping – Binomial Distribution













- $P(Heads) = \theta$, $P(Tails) = 1 \theta$
- Flips are i.i.d.
 - Independent events
 - Identically distributed according to Binomial distribution
- Our training data consists of α_H heads and α_T tails

$$p(D|\theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} \cdot (1-\theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

First Parameter Learning Algorithm



$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

Set derivative to zero, and solve!

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T} \right]$$

$$= \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\alpha_H \ln \theta + \alpha_T \ln(1 - \theta) \right]$$

$$= \alpha_H \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln \theta + \alpha_T \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln(1 - \theta)$$

$$= \frac{\alpha_H}{\theta} - \frac{\alpha_T}{1 - \theta} = 0$$

First Parameter Learning Algorithm



$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

Set derivative to zero, and solve!

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\ln \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T} \right]
= \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\alpha_H \ln \theta + \alpha_T \ln(1 - \theta) \right]
= \alpha_H \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln \theta + \alpha_T \frac{d}{d\theta} \ln(1 - \theta)
= \frac{\alpha_H}{\theta} - \frac{\alpha_T}{1 - \theta} = 0 \qquad \widehat{\theta}_{MLE} = \frac{\alpha_H}{\alpha_H + \alpha_T} \frac{\alpha_H}{\alpha_H}$$

Coin Flip MLE



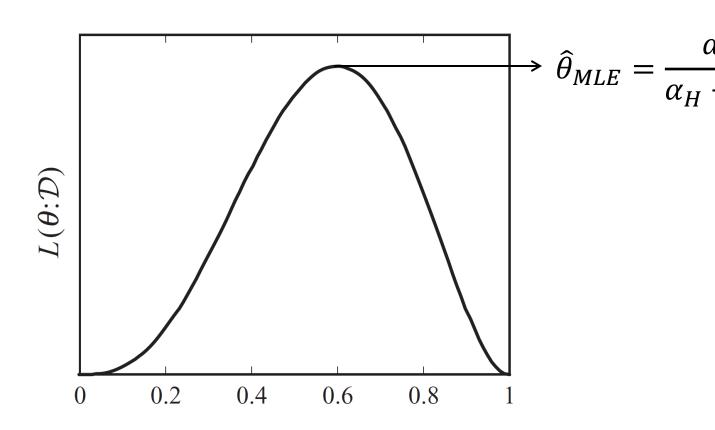








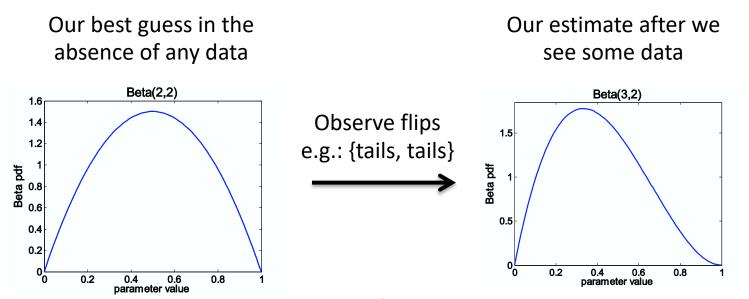




Priors



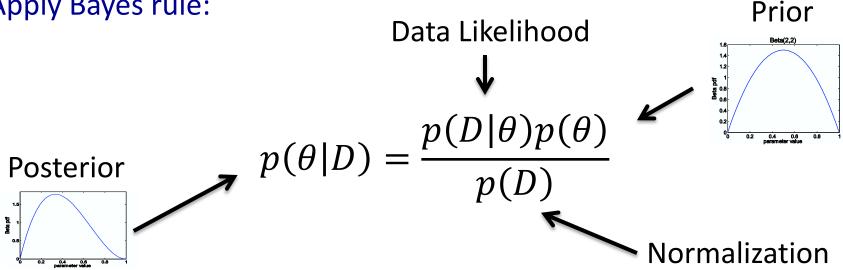
- Priors are a Bayesian mechanism that allow us to take into account "prior" knowledge about our belief in the outcome
- Rather than estimating a single θ , consider a distribution over possible values of θ given the data
 - Update our prior after seeing data



Bayesian Learning



Apply Bayes rule:



- Or equivalently: $p(\theta|D) \propto p(D|\theta)p(\theta)$
- For uniform priors this reduces to the MLE objective

$$p(\theta) \propto 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad p(\theta|D) \propto p(D|\theta)$$

Coin Flips with Beta Distribution

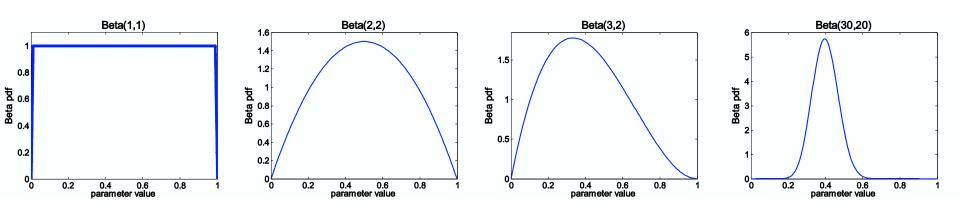


Likelihood function:

$$P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

Prior:

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\theta^{\beta_H - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta_T - 1}}{B(\beta_H, \beta_T)} \sim Beta(\beta_H, \beta_T)$$



$$P(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T} \theta^{\beta_H - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta_T - 1}$$

$$= \theta^{\alpha_H + \beta_H - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T + \beta_T - 1}$$

$$= Beta(\alpha_H + \beta_H, \alpha_T + \beta_T)$$

MAP Estimation



• Choosing θ to maximize the posterior distribution is called maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation

$$\theta_{MAP} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(\theta|D)$$

• The only difference between θ_{MLE} and θ_{MAP} is that one assumes a uniform prior (MLE) and the other allows an arbitrary prior

MAP for the Coin Flip Model













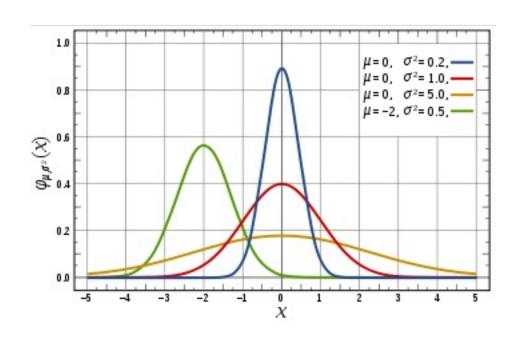
- Suppose we have 5 coin flips all of which are heads
 - MLE would give $\theta_{MLE}=1$
 - MLE with a Beta(2,2) prior gives $\theta_{MAP} = \frac{6}{7} \approx .857$
 - As we see more data, the effect of the prior diminishes

•
$$\theta_{MAP} = \frac{\alpha_H + \beta_H - 1}{\alpha_H + \beta_H + \alpha_T + \beta_T - 2} \approx \frac{\alpha_H}{\alpha_H + \alpha_T}$$
 for large # of observations

MLE for Gaussian Distributions



 Two parameter distribution characterized by a mean and a variance



$$P(x \mid \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Learning a Gaussian



Collect data

- Hopefully, i.i.d. samples
- e.g., exam scores
- Learn parameters
 - Mean: μ
 - Variance: σ

i	Exam Score
0	85
1	95
2	100
3	12
•••	•••
99	89

$$P(x \mid \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

MLE for Gaussian:



• Probability of N i.i.d. samples $D = x^{(1)}, ..., x^{(N)}$

$$p(D|\mu,\sigma) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}\right)^N \prod_{i=1}^N e^{-\frac{\left(x^{(i)}-\mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$\mu_{MLE}, \sigma_{MLE} = \arg \max_{\mu, \sigma} P(\mathcal{D} \mid \mu, \sigma)$$

Log-likelihood of the data

$$\ln p(D|\mu,\sigma) = -\frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi\sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

MLE for the Mean of a Gaussian



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln p(D|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left[-\frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi \sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left[-\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)}{\sigma^2}$$

$$= \frac{\left[N\mu - \sum_{i=1}^{N} x^{(i)}\right]}{\sigma^2} = 0$$

$$\mu_{MLE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x^{(i)}$$

MLE for Variance



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln p(D|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \left[-\frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi \sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{N}{\sigma} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \left[-\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{N}{\sigma} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(x^{(i)} - \mu\right)^2}{\sigma^3} = 0$$

$$\sigma_{MLE}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x^{(i)} - \mu_{MLE})^2$$

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Bayesian Categorization/Classification



- Given features $x = (x_1, ..., x_m)$ predict a label y
- If we had a joint distribution over x and y, given x we could find the label using MAP inference

$$\arg\max_{y} p(y|x_1, ..., x_m)$$

 Can compute this in exactly the same way that we did before using Bayes rule:

$$p(y|x_1,...,x_m) = \frac{p(x_1,...,x_m|y)p(y)}{p(x_1,...,x_m)}$$

Bag of Words





aardvark	0	
about2		
all 2		
Africa	1	
apple0		
anxious	0	
gas 1		
oil 1		
Zaire 0		

Naïve Bayes



- Naïve Bayes assumption
 - Features are independent given class label

$$p(x_1, x_2|y) = p(x_1|y) p(x_2|y)$$

More generally

$$p(x_1, ..., x_m | y) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i | y)$$

- How many parameters now?
 - Suppose x is composed of d binary features

Naïve Bayes



- Naïve Bayes assumption
 - Features are independent given class label

$$p(x_1, x_2|y) = p(x_1|y) p(x_2|y)$$

More generally

$$p(x_1, ..., x_m | y) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i | y)$$

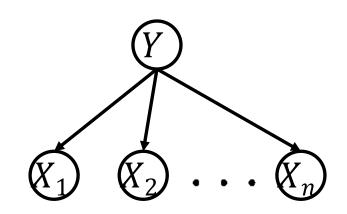
- How many parameters now?
 - Suppose x composed of d binary features $\Rightarrow O(d \cdot L)$ where L is the number of class labels

The Naïve Bayes Classifier



Given

- Prior p(y)
- m conditionally independent features X given the class Y



- For each X_i , we have likelihood $P(X_i|Y)$
- Classify via

$$y^* = h_{NB}(x) = \arg \max_{y} p(y) p(x_1, ..., x_m | y)$$
$$= \arg \max_{y} p(y) \prod_{i} p(x_i | y)$$

MLE for the Parameters of NB



- Given dataset, count occurrences for all pairs
 - $Count(X_i = x_i, Y = y)$ is the number of samples in which $X_i = x_i$ and Y = y
- MLE for discrete NB

$$p(Y = y) = \frac{Count(Y = y)}{\sum_{y'} Count(Y = y')}$$
$$p(X_i = x_i | Y = y) = \frac{Count(X_i = x_i, Y = y)}{\sum_{x_i'} Count(X_i = x_i', Y = y)}$$

See this link for more insights: http://www.datasciencecourse.org/notes/mle/

NB and MAP: Laplace Smoothing



- To fix this, use a prior!
 - Already saw how to do this in the coin-flipping example using the Beta distribution
 - For NB over discrete spaces, can use the Dirichlet prior
 - The Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over $z_1, \ldots, z_k \in (0,1)$ such that $z_1 + \cdots + z_k = 1$ characterized by k parameters $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k$

$$f(z_1, \dots, z_k; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k) \propto \prod_{i=1}^k z_i^{\alpha_i - 1}$$

 Called smoothing, what are the MLE estimates under these kinds of priors?

Continuous Naïve Bayes



- Continuous Naïve Bayes, also known as Guassian Naïve Bayes is where the features are continuous
- The distribution $p(X_i = x_i \mid Y = y) = N(x_i, \mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$
- In other words, the conditional distribution of each feature given the class is a Guassian distribution with mean μ_y and variance σ_y^2
- We can use the Naïve Bayes assumption and assume:

$$p(x_1, ..., x_m | y) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i | y)$$

The distribution of labels is the same as the multinomial case

Parameter Estimation of Cont. NB



- The parameter estimation can similarly be obtained using the Maximum Likelihood Estimation
- The mean and variance can be estimated as the standard Gaussian distribution except that we restrict to each label

$$\mu_y = rac{\sum_{j=1}^m x_i^{(j)} 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}},$$

$$\sigma_y^2 = rac{\sum_{j=1}^m (x_i^{(j)} - \mu_y)^2 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}$$

Parameter Estimation of Cont. NB



- Finally, we need to estimate p(y)
- This is like the discrete Naïve Bayes case:

$$p(Y = y) = \frac{Count(Y = y)}{\sum_{y'} Count(Y = y')}$$

We can classify a test example in a similar way to discrete NB:

$$y^* = h_{NB}(x) = \arg \max_{y} p(y) p(x_1, ..., x_m | y)$$
$$= \arg \max_{y} p(y) \prod_{i} p(x_i | y)$$

• Here $p(x_i | y) = N(x_i, \mu_y, \sigma_y^2)$

Summary of Naïve Bayes Models



- Two kinds of Naïve Bayes: Discrete and Continuous
- Learning is often very simple
 - Using counts (discrete NB) or mean/variance (cont. NB), obtain estimates for $p(x_i | y)$
 - Using counts, obtain estimates for p(y)
- At inference time, we classify based on:

$$y^* = h_{NB}(x) = \arg \max_{y} p(y) p(x_1, ..., x_m | y)$$
$$= \arg \max_{y} p(y) \prod_{i} p(x_i | y)$$

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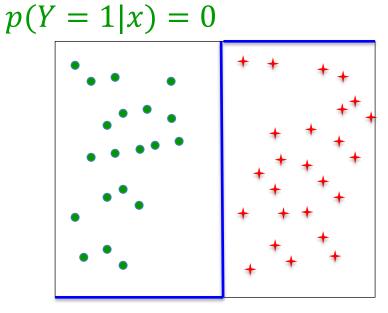


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Ideal 0/1 Probability



- Learn p(Y|X) directly from the data
 - Assume a particular functional form, e.g., a linear classifier p(Y=1|x)=1 on one side and 0 on the other
 - Not differentiable...
 - Makes it difficult to learn
 - Can't handle noisy labels



$$p(Y=1|x)=1$$

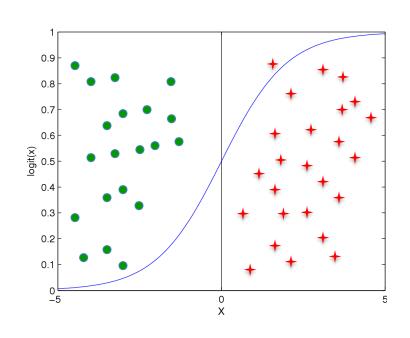
Logistic Regression



- Learn p(y|x) directly from the data
 - Assume a particular functional form

$$p(Y = -1|x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(w^T x + b)}$$

$$p(Y = 1|x) = \frac{\exp(w^T x + b)}{1 + \exp(w^T x + b)}$$



Functional Form: Two classes



- Given some w and b, we can classify a new point x by assigning the label 1 if p(Y=1|x)>p(Y=-1|x) and -1 otherwise
 - This leads to a linear classification rule:
 - Classify as a 1 if $w^T x + b > 0$
 - Classify as a -1 if $w^T x + b < 0$



To learn the weights, we maximize the conditional likelihood

$$(w^*, b^*) = \arg\max_{w,b} \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

- This is the not the same strategy that we used in the case of naive Bayes
 - For naive Bayes, we maximized the log-likelihood



$$\ell(w,b) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} \ln p(Y = 1|x^{(i)}, w, b) + \left(1 - \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2}\right) \ln p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} \ln \frac{p(Y = 1|x^{(i)}, w, b)}{p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)} + \ln p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} (w^{T}x^{(i)} + b) - \ln(1 + \exp(w^{T}x^{(i)} + b))$$



$$\ell(w,b) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

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$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} \ln \frac{p(Y = 1|x^{(i)}, w, b)}{p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)} + \ln p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} (w^{T}x^{(i)} + b) - \ln(1 + \exp(w^{T}x^{(i)} + b))$$

This is concave in w and b: take derivatives and solve!



$$\ell(w,b) = \ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} \ln p(Y = 1|x^{(i)}, w, b) + \left(1 - \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2}\right) \ln p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} \ln \frac{p(Y = 1|x^{(i)}, w, b)}{p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)} + \ln p(Y = -1|x^{(i)}, w, b)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} (w^{T}x^{(i)} + b) - \ln(1 + \exp(w^{T}x^{(i)} + b))$$

No closed form solution 🕾



Can apply gradient ascent to maximize the conditional likelihood

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial b} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} - p(Y = 1 | x^{(i)}, w, b) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial w_j} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_j^{(i)} \left[\frac{y^{(i)} + 1}{2} - p(Y = 1 | x^{(i)}, w, b) \right]$$

Priors



- Can define priors on the weights to prevent overfitting
 - Normal distribution, zero mean, identity covariance

$$p(w) = \prod_{j} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{w_j^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- "Pushes" parameters towards zero
- Regularization
 - Helps avoid very large weights and overfitting

Priors as Regularization



The log-MAP objective with this Gaussian prior is then

$$\ln \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b) p(w) p(b) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln p(y^{(i)}|x^{(i)}, w, b) \right] - \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|_{2}^{2}$$

- Quadratic penalty: drives weights towards zero
- Adds a negative linear term to the gradients
- Different priors can produce different kinds of regularization

Somtimes called an ℓ_2 regularizer

Generative vs. Discriminative Classifiers

Generative classifier:

(e.g., Naïve Bayes)

- Assume some functional form for p(x|y), p(y)
- Estimate parameters of p(x|y), p(y) directly from training data
- Use Bayes rule to calculate p(y|x)
- This is a generative model
 - Indirect computation of p(Y|X) through Bayes rule
 - As a result, can also generate a sample of the data, $p(x) = \sum_{v} p(y)p(x|y)$

Discriminative classifiers:

(e.g., Logistic Regression)

- Assume some functional form for p(y|x)
- Estimate parameters of p(y|x) directly from training data
- This is a discriminative model
 - Directly learn p(y|x)
 - But cannot obtain a sample of the data as p(x) is not available
 - Useful for discriminating labels