

Probabilistic classification

Course of Machine Learning
Master Degree in Computer Science
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Probabilistic generative models

Introduction

Linear classifiers derive from simple hypotheses on posterior $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ and prior $p(C_k)$ distribution of classes

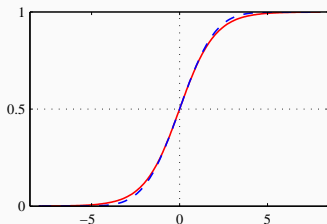
Binary case:

$$p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1) + p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} = \sigma(a)$$

where

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

$\sigma(x)$ is the **logistic function** or (**sigmoid**)



Properties of the sigmoid

- $\sigma(-x) = 1 - \sigma(x)$
- $\frac{d\sigma(x)}{dx} = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$

The inverse function of the sigmoid is the **logit** function

$$a = \log \frac{\sigma}{1 - \sigma}$$

As seen above, in our framework a is the log of the ratio between the posterior probabilities (**log odds**)

The extension of the sigmoid to the case $K > 2$ is the **softmax** function (or **normalized exponential**)

$$p(C_k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k)}{\sum_j p(\mathbf{x}|C_j)p(C_j)} = \frac{e^{a_k}}{\sum_j e^{a_j}} = s(a_k)$$

where

$$a_k(\mathbf{x}) = \log(p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k))$$

Smoothed version of the maximum: if $a_k \gg a_j$ for all $j \neq k$, then $s(a_k) \simeq 1$ and $s(a_j) \simeq 0$ for all $j \neq k$

Gaussian discriminant analysis

In Gaussian discriminant analysis (GDA) all class conditional distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ are assumed gaussian. This implies that the corresponding posterior distributions $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$ can be easily derived.

Hypothesis

All distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ have same covariance matrix Σ , of size $D \times D$.
Then,

$$p(\mathbf{x}|C_k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)\right)$$

If $K = 2$,

$$p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(a(\mathbf{x}))$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a(\mathbf{x}) &= \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)} \\ &= \log \frac{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)\right) p(C_1)}{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)\right) p(C_2)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \mathbf{x}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x}) - \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \mathbf{x}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x}) + \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)} \end{aligned}$$

Observe that the results of all products involving Σ^{-1} are scalar, hence, in particular

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 &= \boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{x}^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 &= \boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x}\end{aligned}$$

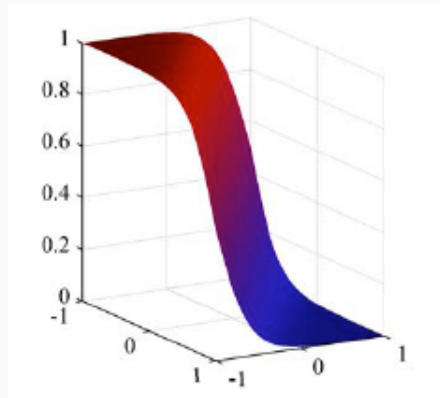
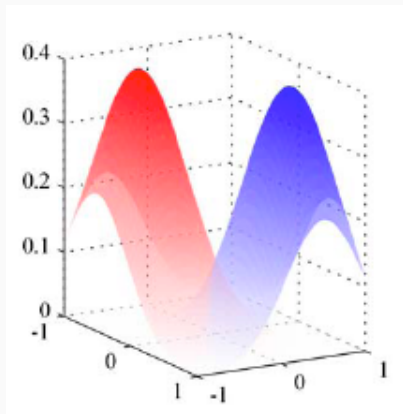
Then,

$$\begin{aligned}a(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) + (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1})\mathbf{x} + \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)} \\ &= \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0\end{aligned}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{w} &= \Sigma^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) \\ w_0 &= \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) + \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)}\end{aligned}$$

Example



Left, the class conditional distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|C_1), p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)$, gaussians with $D = 2$. Right the posterior distribution of C_1 , $p(C_1|\mathbf{x})$ with sigmoidal slope.

Discriminant function

The discriminant function can be obtained by the condition

$\sigma(a(\mathbf{x})) = \sigma(-a(\mathbf{x}))$, which is equivalent to $a(\mathbf{x}) = -a(\mathbf{x})$ and to $a(\mathbf{x}) = 0$.

As a consequence, it results

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 = 0$$

that is

$$\Sigma^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) + \log \frac{p(C_2)}{p(C_1)} = 0$$

Simple case: $\Sigma = \lambda \mathbf{I}$ (that is, $\sigma_{ii} = \lambda$ for $i = 1, \dots, d$). In this case, the discriminant function is

$$2(\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)\mathbf{x} + \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1\|^2 - \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2\|^2 + 2\lambda \log \frac{p(C_2)}{p(C_1)} = 0$$

Decision boundaries corresponding to the case when there are two classes C_j, C_k such that the corresponding posterior probabilities are equal, and larger than the probability of any other class. That is,

$$p(\mathbf{x}|C_k) = p(\mathbf{x}|C_j) \qquad p(\mathbf{x}|C_i) < p(\mathbf{x}|C_k) \quad i \neq j, k$$

As shown above, this implies that boundaries are linear. In particular, $a_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x} + w_{0k}$ with

$$\mathbf{w}_k = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k$$

and

$$w_{k0} = -\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^T \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}_k + \log p(C_k)$$

The class conditional distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ are gaussians with different covariance matrices

$$\begin{aligned}a(\mathbf{x}) &= \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)} \\&= \log \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)\right)}{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)\right)} + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2|}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1|} + \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)} \\&= \frac{1}{2} \left((\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) - (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \right) + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2|}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1|} \\&\quad + \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)}\end{aligned}$$

The decision boundary is now defined by

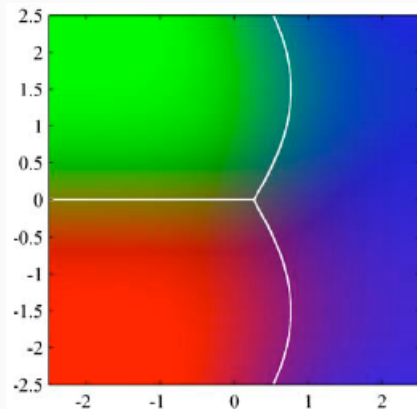
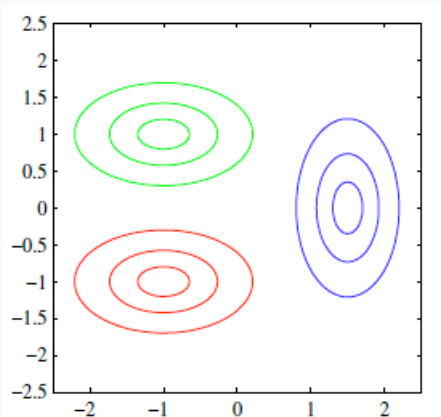
$$\left((\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) - (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \right) + \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_2|}{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1|} + 2 \log \frac{p(C_1)}{p(C_2)} = 0$$

Classes are separated by a (at most) quadratic surface.

Example for the general case

Left: 3 classes, modeled by gaussians with different covariance matrices.

Right: posterior distribution of classes, with boundary surfaces.



The class conditional distributions $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ can be derived from the training set by maximum likelihood estimation.

For the sake of simplicity, assume $K = 2$ and both classes share the same Σ .

It is then necessary to estimate μ_1, μ_2, Σ , and $\pi = p(C_1)$ (clearly, $p(C_2) = 1 - \pi$).

Training set \mathcal{T} : includes n elements (\mathbf{x}_i, t_i) , with

$$t_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{se } \mathbf{x}_i \in C_2 \\ 1 & \text{se } \mathbf{x}_i \in C_1 \end{cases}$$

If $\mathbf{x} \in C_1$, then $p(\mathbf{x}, C_1) = p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1) = \pi \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

If $\mathbf{x} \in C_2$, $p(\mathbf{x}, C_2) = p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2) = (1 - \pi) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

The likelihood of the training set \mathcal{T} is

$$L(\pi, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}|\mathcal{T}) = \prod_{i=1}^n (\pi \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i|\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}))^{t_i} ((1 - \pi) \cdot \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i|\boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}))^{1-t_i}$$

The corresponding log likelihood is

$$\begin{aligned}l(\pi, \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} | \mathcal{T}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i \log \pi + t_i \log(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}))) + \\ &+ \sum_{i=1}^n ((1 - t_i) \log(1 - \pi) + (1 - t_i) \log(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})))\end{aligned}$$

Its derivative wrt π is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l}{\partial \pi} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \pi} \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i \log \pi + (1 - t_i) \log(1 - \pi)) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{t_i}{\pi} - \frac{(1 - t_i)}{1 - \pi} \right) = \frac{n_1}{\pi} - \frac{n_2}{1 - \pi}\end{aligned}$$

which is equal to 0 for

$$\pi = \frac{n_1}{n}$$

The maximum wrt $\boldsymbol{\mu}_1$ (and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_2$) is obtained by computing the gradient

$$\frac{\partial l}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \log(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)$$

Let $\boldsymbol{\xi}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)$, then, by the chain rule of derivatives,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial l}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} &= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} (\boldsymbol{\xi}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\xi}_i) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}_i}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\xi}_i} (\boldsymbol{\xi}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\xi}_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} + (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1})^T) \boldsymbol{\xi}_i = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \end{aligned}$$

since in general

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}} (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{a}$$

and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1})^T$ by the symmetry of the covariance matrix.

As a consequence, we have $\frac{\partial l}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_1} = 0$ for

$$\sum_{i=1}^n t_i \mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \boldsymbol{\mu}_1$$

hence, for

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_1 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1} \mathbf{x}_i$$

Similarly, $\frac{\partial l}{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_2} = 0$ for

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} \mathbf{x}_i$$

To maximize the log-likelihood wrt Σ , derive the corresponding gradient

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l}{\partial \Sigma} &= \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \Sigma)) + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - t_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log(\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i | \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \Sigma)) \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n t_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \right) \\&\quad + \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - t_i) \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) \right) \\&= -\frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1) \right) \\&\quad - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2) \right)\end{aligned}$$

GDA and maximum likelihood

Observe now that $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ is a scalar, hence $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x})$; moreover, in general

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{ABC}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{CAB}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BCA})$$

As a consequence, $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial l}{\partial \Sigma} = & -\frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log |\Sigma| - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1} \text{tr} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T \Sigma^{-1} \right) \\ & - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} \text{tr} \left((\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T \Sigma^{-1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Let us now define the following matrices

$$\mathbf{S}_1 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_1} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_1)^T$$

$$\mathbf{S}_2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i \in C_2} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)(\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_2)^T$$

and let

$$\mathbf{S} = \frac{n_1}{n} \mathbf{S}_1 + \frac{n_2}{n} \mathbf{S}_2$$

By applying these definitions, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l}{\partial \Sigma} &= -\frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \log |\Sigma| - \frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma} \text{tr}(\mathbf{S} \Sigma^{-1}) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} (\Sigma^{-1})^T - \frac{n}{2} \frac{\partial \Sigma^{-1}}{\partial \Sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Sigma^{-1}} \text{tr}(\Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{S}) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \Sigma^{-1} + \frac{n}{2} (\Sigma^{-1} \Sigma^{-1}) \mathbf{S}^T \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \Sigma^{-1} (-\mathbf{I} + \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{S})\end{aligned}$$

since in general

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \log |\mathbf{A}| = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{A}} \text{tr}(\mathbf{B} \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{B}^T \qquad \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}^{-1}}{\partial \mathbf{A}} = -\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

This results into $\frac{\partial l}{\partial \Sigma} = \mathbf{0}$ iff $\Sigma = \mathbf{S}$

In the case of discrete (for example, binary) features we may simplify the model by assuming features are conditionally independent, given the class (naïve Bayes hypothesis). Then,

$$p(\mathbf{x}|C_k) = \prod_{i=1}^D p_{ki}^{x_i} (1 - p_{ki})^{1-x_i}$$

where $p_{ki} = p(x_i = 1|C_k)$.

Functions $a_k(\mathbf{x})$ can then be defined as in the softmax model:

$$\begin{aligned} a_k(\mathbf{x}) &= \log(p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)p(C_k)) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^D (x_i \log p_{ki} + (1 - x_i) \log(1 - p_{ki})) + \log p(C_k) \end{aligned}$$

These are still linear functions on \mathbf{x} .

The property that $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$ is a generalized linear model with sigmoid (for the binary case) and softmax (for the multiclass case) activation function holds more in general than assuming a gaussian or bernoulli class conditional distribution $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$.

Indeed, let the class conditional probability wrt C_k belong to the exponential family, that is it has the form

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) = g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)f(\mathbf{x})e^{\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^T\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})}$$

with the additional constraint that \mathbf{u} is the identity function, that is $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$.

In the case of binary classification, we check that $a(\mathbf{x})$ is a linear function

$$\begin{aligned} a(\mathbf{x}) &= \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_1)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)} = \log \frac{g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1)e^{\frac{1}{s}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1)^T\mathbf{x}}p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1)}{g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)e^{\frac{1}{s}\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)^T\mathbf{x}}p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2)} \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1) - \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2))^T \mathbf{x} + \log g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1) - \log g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2) + \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1) - \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for multiclass classification, we may easily derive that

$$a_k(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^T \mathbf{x} + \log g(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) + p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$

for all k .

Probabilistic discriminative models

For a large set of distributions type for $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ the posterior class distributions $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$ are sigmoidal (in the binary case) or softmax (for more classes): in both cases, with argument given by a linear combination of features in \mathbf{x} .

We may derive both the parameters of $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ and the prior class probabilities $p(C_k)$ through maximum likelihood estimation, and next apply Bayes' rule to derive $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$, at least up to a normalization factor.

Alternative idea

We could directly derive $p(C_k|\mathbf{x})$ (for example through ML estimation of its parameters).

Comparison wrt the generative approach:

- Less information derived (we do not know $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$, thus we are not able to generate new data)
- Simpler method, usually a smaller set of parameters to be derived
- Better predictions, if the assumptions done with respect to $p(\mathbf{x}|C_k)$ are poor.

Generalized linear models

A **generalized linear model** (GLM) is a function

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0)$$

where f is in general a non linear function.

Each iso-surface of $y(\mathbf{x})$, such that by definition $y(\mathbf{x}) = c$ (for some constant c), is such that

$$f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0) = c$$

and

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + w_0 = f^{-1}(y) = c'$$

(c' constant).

Hence, iso-surfaces of a GLM are hyper-planes, thus implying that boundaries are hyperplanes themselves.

Logistic regression is the GLM deriving from the hypothesis of a Bernoulli distribution of y , which results into

$$p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})}}$$

where the use of basis functions is explicitly considered.

The model is equivalent, for the binary classification case, to linear regression for the regression case.

- In the case of d features, logistic regression requires $d + 1$ coefficients w_0, \dots, w_d to be derived from a training set
- A generative approach with gaussian distributions requires:
 - $2d$ coefficients for the means μ_1, μ_2 ,
 - for each covariance matrix

$$\sum_{i=1}^d i = d(d+1)/2 \quad \text{coefficients}$$

- one prior cla probability $p(C_1)$
- As a total, it results into $d(d+1) + 2d + 1 = d(d+3) + 1$ coefficients (if a unique covariance matrix is assumed)
 $d(d+1)/2 + 2d + 1 = d(d+5)/2 + 1$ coefficients)

- Training set \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t} . The likelihood is

$$L(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{t_i} (1 - p_i)^{1-t_i}$$

where $p_i = p(C_1|\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)) = \sigma(a_i)$, with $a_i = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$

- The log-likelihood is then

$$l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \log L(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i \log p_i + (1 - t_i) \log(1 - p_i))$$

- Note that

$$\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial a_i} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial p_i} = \frac{t_i}{p_i} - \frac{1 - t_i}{1 - p_i} = \frac{t_i - p_i}{p_i(1 - p_i)}$$

$$\frac{\partial p_i}{\partial a_i} = \frac{\partial \sigma(a_i)}{\partial a_i} = \sigma(a_i)(1 - \sigma(a_i)) = p_i(1 - p_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial a_i}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

- Hence,

$$\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - p_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

- To maximize the likelihood, we could apply a gradient ascent algorithm, where at each iteration the following update of the currently estimated \mathbf{w} is performed

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{w}^{(j+1)} &= \mathbf{w}^{(j)} + \alpha \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \Big|_{\mathbf{w}^{(j)}} \\ &= \mathbf{w}^{(j)} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - \sigma((\mathbf{w}^{(j)})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \\ &= \mathbf{w}^{(j)} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i)) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\end{aligned}$$

As a possible alternative, at each iteration only one coefficient in \mathbf{w} is updated

$$\begin{aligned}w_k^{(j+1)} &= w_k^{(j)} + \alpha \frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial w_k} \Big|_{\mathbf{w}^{(j)}} \\&= w_k^{(j+1)} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - \sigma((\mathbf{w}^{(j)})^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \\&= w_k^{(j+1)} + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - y(\mathbf{x}_i)) \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)\end{aligned}$$

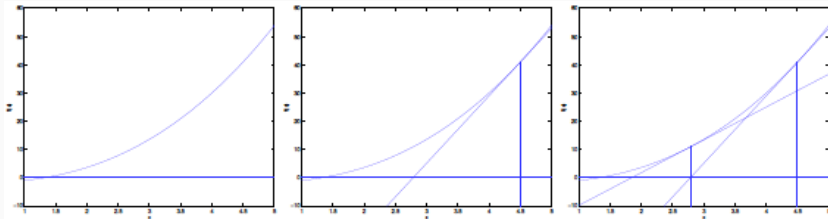
- Maximization of $l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ through the well-known Newton-Raphson algorithm to compute the roots of a given function
- Given $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, the algorithm finds $z \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(z) = 0$ through a sequence of iterations, starting from an initial value z_0 and performing the following update

$$z_{i+1} = z_i - \frac{f(z_i)}{f'(z_i)}$$

- At each iteration, the algorithm approximates f by a tangent line to f in $(z_i, f(z_i))$ and tangent to f , and defines z_{i+1} as the value where the line intersects the x axis

Newton-Raphson method

- Example of application of the method



- Newton-Raphson method can be also applied to compute maximum and minimum points for a function by finding zeros of the first derivative: this corresponds to applying the following update

$$z_{i+1} = z_i - \frac{f'(z_i)}{f''(z_i)}$$

- To apply Newton-Raphson to logistic regression we have to extend it to the case of a vector variable, since the maximization has to be performed with respect to the vector \mathbf{w} of coefficients
- In a multivariate framework, the first derivative is substituted by the gradient $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$, while the second derivative corresponds to the Hessian matrix \mathbf{H} , defined as follows

$$\mathbf{H}_{ij}(f) = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial w_i \partial w_j}$$

- The update operation turns out to be

$$\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - (\mathbf{H}(f)|_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}})^{-1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{w}}|_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}$$

- The error function, to be minimized, is

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - t_i)^2$$

- Then,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - t_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = \Phi^T \Phi \mathbf{w} - \Phi^T \mathbf{t}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T = \Phi^T \Phi$$

- At each iteration, the update is

$$\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)} = \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} (\Phi^T \Phi \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - \Phi^T \mathbf{t}) = (\Phi^T \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{t}$$

- We obtain the well-known solution, which is obtained in a single iteration.

Newton-Raphson and logistic regression

Here, we have

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = -l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \left(t_i \ln \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)) + (1 - t_i) \ln(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) \right)$$

(this is called **cross-entropy function**). Hence,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = -\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)) - t_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = \Phi^T (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}} - \mathbf{t})$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T = \Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}} \Phi$$

where

- $\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}}$ is a vector such that $\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}i} = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$
- $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}}$ is a diagonal matrix such that

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}ii} = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))) = \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}i}(1 - \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}i})$$

- In the case of logistic regression, the update is then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)} &= \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - (\Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} - \mathbf{t}) \\ &= (\Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \Phi)^{-1} ((\Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \Phi) \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - \Phi^T (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} - \mathbf{t})) \\ &= (\Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}\end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}$ is a vector of size d defined as

$$\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} = \Phi \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}^{-1} (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} - \mathbf{t})$$

As can be seen, $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}$ is a function of $\mathbf{w}^{(i)}$, hence of i .

Iterated reweighted least squares

- The value $(\Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}$ can be seen as the solution of a suitable instance of the **weighted least squares** problem defined as the minimization of

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \psi_i (\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - t_i)^2$$

for given weights ψ_1, \dots, ψ_n

- The minimum of this problem is obtained for

$$\mathbf{w} = (\Phi^T \Psi \Phi)^{-1} \Phi^T \Psi \mathbf{t}$$

where Ψ is a diagonal matrix such that $\Psi_{ii} = \psi_i$

- In our case $\Psi = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}$ and $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} = \Phi \mathbf{w}^{(i)} - \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}}^{-1} (\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i)}} - \mathbf{t})$: both of them are functions of i
- The update of $\mathbf{w}^{(i)}$ performed at each iteration implies solving a new instance of the weighted least square problem, setting $\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)}$ to the solution obtained, and deriving the new values $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)}}$ and $\mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{w}^{(i+1)}}$.

- Observe that assuming $p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)$ are $p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)$ as multivariate normal distributions with same covariance matrix Σ results into a logistic $p(C_1|\mathbf{x})$.
- The opposite, however, is not true in general: in fact, GDA relies on stronger assumptions than logistic regression.
- The more the normality hypothesis of class conditional distributions with same covariance is verified, the more GDA will tend to provide the best models for $p(C_1|\mathbf{x})$

- Logistic regression relies on weaker assumptions than GDA: it is then less sensible from a limited correctness of such assumptions, thus resulting in a more robust technique
- Since $p(C_i|\mathbf{x})$ is logistic under a wide set of hypotheses about $p(\mathbf{x}|C_i)$, it will usually provide better solutions (models) in all such cases, while GDA will provide poorer models as far as the normality hypotheses is less verified.

- In order to extend the logistic regression approach to the case $K > 2$, let us consider the vector \mathbf{w} of model coefficients, of size dK , where the k -th block of \mathbf{w} ($k = 1, \dots, K$) corresponds to the vector \mathbf{w}_k of coefficients for class C_k .
- In this case, the likelihood is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{X} | \mathbf{w}) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^K p(C_k | \mathbf{x}_i)^{t_{ik}} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^K \left(\frac{e^{\mathbf{w}_k^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)}}{\sum_{r=1}^K e^{\mathbf{w}_r^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)}} \right)^{t_{ik}} \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbf{X} is the usual matrix of features and \mathbf{T} is an $n \times K$ matrix such that the i -th row of \mathbf{T} is the 1-to- K coding of t_i . That is, if $\mathbf{x}_i \in C_k$ then $t_{ik} = 1$ and $t_{ir} = 0$ for $r \neq k$.

The log-likelihood is then defined as

$$l(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^K t_{ik} \log \left(\frac{e^{\mathbf{w}_k^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)}}{\sum_{r=1}^K e^{\mathbf{w}_r^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)}} \right)$$

The gradient $\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$ is a vector of size dK , where its j -th block ($j = 1, \dots, K$) corresponds to $\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j}$.

ML and softmax regression

- To derive $\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j}$ let

$$y_{ik} = \frac{e^{a_{ik}}}{\sum_{r=1}^K e^{a_{ir}}} \quad \text{with} \quad a_{ik} = \mathbf{w}_k^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

for $k = 1, \dots, K$ and $i = 1, \dots, n$. Then,

$$l(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^K t_{ik} \log y_{ik}$$

- For each $i = 1, \dots, n$, $j = 1, \dots, M$, $k = 1, \dots, K$,

$$\frac{\partial a_{ik}}{\partial w_{kj}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{kj}} \mathbf{w}_k^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial y_{ik}}{\partial a_{ik}} = y_{ik}(1 - y_{ik})$$

$$\frac{\partial y_{ik}}{\partial a_{ir}} = -y_{ir}y_{ik} \quad \text{if } r \neq k$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial l(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik} \log y_{ik} = \frac{\partial l}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij} \log y_{ij} + \frac{\partial l}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} \sum_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik} \log y_{ik} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij} \frac{1}{y_{ij}} \frac{\partial y_{ij}}{\partial a_{ij}} \frac{\partial a_{ij}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} + \sum_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik} \frac{1}{y_{ik}} \frac{\partial y_{ik}}{\partial a_{ik}} \frac{\partial a_{ik}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_j} \\&= \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij} \frac{1}{y_{ij}} y_{ij} (1 - y_{ij}) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) - \sum_{k \neq j} \sum_{i=1}^n t_{ik} \frac{1}{y_{ik}} y_{ik} y_{ij} \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \\&= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^n y_{ij} \sum_{k=1}^K t_{ik} \right) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \\&= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij} - \sum_{i=1}^n y_{ij} \right) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n (t_{ij} - y_{ij}) \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)\end{aligned}$$

Observe that the gradient has the same structure than in the case of linear regression and logistic regression.

- In a GLM, $p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}))$ where f is the activation function (a sigmoid in the case of logistic regression)
- In probit regression a **stochastic threshold model** is applied for classification, as follows:
 - Let \mathbf{w} be the model coefficients. In order to classify \mathbf{x}_i , the linear combination $a_i = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is computed
 - A threshold value θ is sampled from a given distribution $p(\theta)$
 - \mathbf{x}_i is classified in \mathcal{C}_1 if $a_i \geq \theta$, otherwise it is classified in \mathcal{C}_0 .
- In this case, we identify the activation function as the probability that \mathbf{x}_i is classified in \mathcal{C}_1 , which is given by the cumulative function

$$f(a) = \int_{-\infty}^a p(\theta) d\theta$$

Bayesian logistic regression

- Used to overcome the overfitting problem by assuming a prior distribution
- The aim is to estimate the posterior class distribution

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) &= \int p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \int \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}))p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})d\mathbf{w} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we need to derive the posterior distribution of coefficients $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$: this is in general intractable

Posterior distribution of coefficients

By Bayes' rule,

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{\int p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}')p(\mathbf{w}')d\mathbf{w}'}$$

where the likelihood is $p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w})$, with

$$p(t_i|\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w}) = \begin{cases} \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})) & \text{if } t_i = 1 \\ 1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})) & \text{if } t_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

that is,

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}))^{t_i} (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})))^{1-t_i}$$

and

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}))^{t_i} (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})))^{1-t_i}}{Z}$$

with

$$Z = \int p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}))^{t_i} (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})))^{1-t_i} d\mathbf{w}$$

Since the predictive distribution is the expectation of the model prediction wrt to the distribution of model coefficients,

$$p(\mathcal{C}_1|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \int \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w}$$

we need some way to evaluate $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ for any \mathbf{w} . Unfortunately, since Z is hard to compute, we are only able to evaluate

$$g(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{i=1}^n \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))^{t_i} \left(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))\right)^{1-t_i}$$

which is proportional to $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ through an unknown proportionality coefficient.

Possible options:

1. find a single value of \mathbf{w} which maximizes $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$: this corresponds to the value which maximizes $g(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ (this is the usual MAP approach)
2. approximate $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$ with some other probability density which can be treated analytically
3. sample from $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$, knowing only $g(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t})$