

Lecture 8: When Models Meet Data

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Mathematics for Machine Learning

 $\label{limits} \begin{tabular}{ll} $https://yung-web.github.io/home/courses/mathml.html \\ & KAIST \ EE \end{tabular}$

MONTH DAY, 2021

MONTH DAY, 2021 1 / 38



- Data, Models, and Learning
- Models as Functions: Empirical Risk Minimization
- Models as Probabilistic Models: Parameter Estimation (ML and MAP)
- Probabilistic Modeling and Inference
- Directed Graphical Models
- Model Selection

Roadmap



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MONTH DAY, 2021 3 / 38

Data, Models, and Learning



- Three major components of a machine learning system
 - 1. Data: $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$
 - 2. Models: functions or probabilistic models
 - 3. Learning: Training, and prediction/inference
- Good machine learning models: Perform well for unseen (untrained) data
- Machine learning algorithm: training and prediction

Data as Vectors



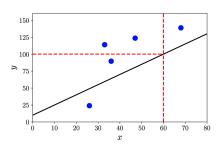
- Tabular format or not, numerical or not, good feature extraction etc.
- Assume that data is given as D-dimensional vector \mathbf{x}_n of real numbers, each called features, attributes, or covariates.
- Dataset: consisting of data points or examples x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N
- In supervised learning, $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n), \dots, (x_N, y_N)\}$, where y_n is the label (or target, response variable, or annotation).
- Better representation of data as vectors
 - \circ finding lower-dimensional approximations of the original feature vector (PCA via SVD or EVD)
 - using nonlinear higher-dimensional combinations of the original feature vector (feature map and kernel)

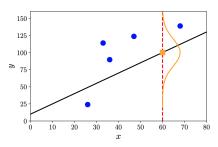
MONTH DAY. 2021 5 / 38

Models: Functions vs. Probabilistic Models



- Now, the business of constructing a predictor.
- Models as functions
 - $\circ \ \ f:\mathbb{R}^D\mapsto\mathbb{R}.$
 - Example. $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{\theta}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} + \theta_0$, Unknown parameter: $\mathbf{\theta}, \theta_0$
- Models as probabilistic models
 - model our uncertainty due to the observation process and our uncertainty in the parameters of our model
 - predictors should be able to express some sort of uncertainty via probabilistic models
 - Parameters: parameters of a chosen probabilistic model (mean and variance of Gaussian)





Learning Algorithms



- Three algorithmic phases
- (1) Prediction or inference: via function or probabilitic models
- (2) Training or parameters estimation
 - fixed parameter assumption (non-probabilistic) or Bayesisan approach (probabilistic)
 - Non-probabilistic: e.g., empirical risk minimization
 - Probabilistic: e.g., ML (Maximum Likelihood), MAP (Maximum A Posteriori)
 - · Cross-validation: Simulation of performing for unseen data
 - Regularization/Prior: Balancing models between training and unseen data
- (3) Hyperparameter tuning or model selection

MONTH DAY, 2021 7 / 38



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Empirical Risk Minimization



- Predictor as a function
- Given $\{(\pmb{x}_1,y_1),\ldots,(\pmb{x}_n,y_n),\ldots,(\pmb{x}_N,y_N)\}$, estimate a predictor $f(\cdot,\pmb{\theta}):\mathbb{R}^D\mapsto\mathbb{R}$
- Find a good parameter $m{ heta}^*$, such that $f(m{x}_n,m{ heta}^*)=\hat{y}_npprox y_n,$ for all $n=1,\ldots,N$
- Example. Affine function: By adding the unit feature $x^{(0)} = 1$ and θ_0 , i.e., $\mathbf{x}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1, x_n^{(1)}, \dots, x_n^{(D)} \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$, $\mathbf{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_0, \theta_1, \dots, \theta_D \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$

$$f(\mathbf{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_n = \theta_0 + \sum_{d=1}^D \theta_d x_n^{(d)}$$

• Example. Neural network: Complex non-linear function

MONTH DAY, 2021 9 / 38

Loss Function



- Training set: $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_n), \dots, (\boldsymbol{x}_N, y_N)\}$, an example matrix $\boldsymbol{X} := [\boldsymbol{x}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{x}_N]^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$, a label vector $\boldsymbol{y} := [y_1, \dots, y_N]^\mathsf{T}$,
- Average loss, empirical risk

$$R_{\mathsf{emp}}(f, \boldsymbol{X}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(y_n, \hat{y}_n)$$

- Goal: Minimizing empirical risk
- Example. The squared loss function $\ell(y_n, \hat{y}_n) = (y_n \hat{y}_n)^2$ leads to:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D} \frac{1}{N} \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\theta} \|^2$$

• Question. Ultimgate goal: Minimizing expected risk (for unseen data) $R_{\text{true}} = \mathbb{E}_{x,y}[\ell(y, f(x))]$?

Overfitting and Regularization



- The predictor fits too closely to the training data and does not generalize well to new data
- Need to somehow bias the search for the minimizer of empirical risk by introducing a penalty term
- Regularization: Compromise between accurate solution of empirical risk minimization and the size or complexity of the solution.
- Example. Regularized Least Squares

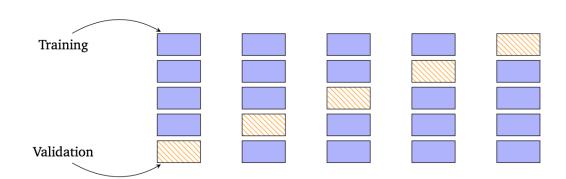
$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}} \frac{1}{N} \| \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\theta} \|^{2} + \lambda \| \boldsymbol{\theta} \|^{2}$$

 $\circ \|oldsymbol{ heta}\|^2$: regularizer, λ : regularization parameter

MONTH DAY, 2021 11 / 38

Cross-Validation for Generalization Performance





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MONTH DAY, 2021 13 / 38

MLE (Maximum Likelihood Estimation): Concepts



- Idea: define a function of the parameters called likelihood function.
- Negative log-likelihood for data x and a family of probability densities $\mathbb{P}(x \mid \theta)$ parameterized by θ :

$$\mathcal{L}_{m{x}}(m{ heta}) = \mathcal{L}(m{ heta}) := -\log \mathbb{P}(m{x} \mid m{ heta})$$

- \circ $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$: how likely a particular setting of θ is for the observations x.
- MLE: Find θ such that $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ is minimized (i.e., likelihood is maximized)

MLE: Supervised Learning



- The set of iid examples $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$
- $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, ..., x_N\}$ and $\mathcal{Y} = \{y_1, ..., y_N\}$
- Negative log-likelihood

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\log \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

• Example. Assume independent Gaussian noise $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ and linear model $y_n = \mathbf{x}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\theta}$ for prediction. Then, $Y_n | (\mathbf{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\theta}, \sigma^2)$.

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_n - \boldsymbol{x}_n^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{\theta})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \boldsymbol{x}_n^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{\theta})^2 - \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}}$$

MONTH DAY, 2021 15 / 38

MAP (Maximum A Posteriori)



- What if we have some prior knowledge about θ ? Then, how should we change our knowledge about θ after observing data x?
- Compute a posteriori distribution (using Bayes' Theorem) and find θ that maximizes the distribution:

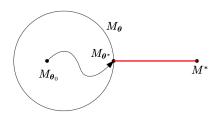
$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{x})} \Longleftrightarrow \min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \Big(-\log \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \boldsymbol{x}) \Big)$$

- In finding the optimal θ , $\mathbb{P}(x)$ can be ignored
- ML and MAP: Bridging the non-probabilistic and probabilistic worlds as it explicitly acknowledges the need for a prior distribution, yet producing a point estimate (one single parameter return).
- We later see the full parameter distributions

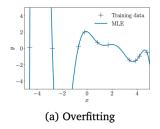
Model Fitting

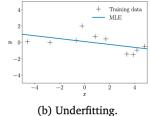


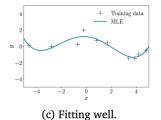
• Model class $M_{ heta}$ vs. Right model M^*



• Overfitting vs. Underfitting vs. Good fitting







MONTH DAY, 2021 17 / 38



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Modeling Generative Process and Probabilistic Models



- Many machine learning tasks: prediction of future events and decision making
- Often build (probabilistic) models that describe the generative process that generates the observed data
- In probabilistic modeling, the joint distribution $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ of the observed variables \mathbf{x} and the hidden parameters θ encapsulate the key information
 - the prior and likelihood, marginal distribution, and the posterior
- Essentially, if we know the joint distribution, we know all about its probabilistic model

MONTH DAY, 2021 19 / 38

Bayesian Inference



- Earlier, two ways of estimating the parameter θ : ML and MAP. Essentially, it is solving an optimization problem to get a single best value θ^* . \Longrightarrow Prediction through $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta^*)$.
- Rather than just a likelihood, having the full posterior distribution can be useful. For a data set \mathcal{X} , a parameter prior $\mathbb{P}(\theta)$, and a likelihood function, the posterior is:

$$\mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{ heta}\mid \mathcal{X}) = rac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}\mid oldsymbol{ heta})\mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{ heta})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X})}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}) = \int \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}\mid oldsymbol{ heta})\mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{ heta}) \; \mathrm{d}oldsymbol{ heta}$$

- Question. Examples of prediction using the posterior distribution?
- Bayesian inference requires to solving integration, which is often challenging. In particuluar, a conjugate prior is not chosen, the integration is not analytically tractable.
- Approximation technquies: MCMC (Markov Chain Monte Carlo), Laplance approximation, variational inference, expectation propagation

Bayesian Prediction



Given the data set \mathcal{X} , we want to predict A, we want to do the following prediction:

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid \mathcal{X})$$

ML: Easy (high), Exact (low)

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid \mathcal{X}) \approx \mathbb{P}(A \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \arg \max \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

MAP: Easy (mid), Exact (mid)

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid \mathcal{X}) \approx \mathbb{P}(A \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \arg \max \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathcal{X})$$

- Fully Bayesian: Easy (low), Exact (high)
 - predictive inference, use of posterior predictive distribution, bayesian prediction

$$\mathbb{P}(A \mid \mathcal{X}) = \int \mathbb{P}(A \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid \mathcal{X}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

MONTH DAY, 2021 21 / 38

Latent-Variable Models (1)



- Including latent variables in the model: Contributing to the interpretability of the model
- Examples: PCA for dimensionality reduction, Gaussian mixture models for density estimation
- Offers data generation process through parameters: $\mathbb{P}(\pmb{x}\mid \pmb{ heta}, \pmb{z})$, $\mathbb{P}(z)$
- Marginalization over the latent variables, which allows parameter estimation by ML and MAP (using the prior $\mathbb{P}(\theta)$)

$$\mathbb{P}(x \mid \theta) = \int \mathbb{P}(x \mid \theta, z) \mathbb{P}(z) dz$$

• We can compute a posterior on the latent variables, but marginalizing over both z and θ is hard:

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z}\mid\mathcal{X}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}\mid\boldsymbol{z})\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{z})}{\mathbb{P}(X)}, \quad \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}\mid\boldsymbol{z}) = \int \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X}\mid\boldsymbol{z},\boldsymbol{\theta})\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta})d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

Latent-Variable Models (2)



 Instead, it is easier to compute the latent-variable posterior, but conditioned on the model parameters, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{z} \mid \mathcal{X}, oldsymbol{ heta}) = rac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X} \mid oldsymbol{z}, oldsymbol{ heta}) \mathbb{P}(oldsymbol{z})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{X} \mid oldsymbol{ heta})}$$

• Question. How do we use the posteriors $\mathbb{P}(z \mid \mathcal{X})$ or $\mathbb{P}(z \mid \mathcal{X}, \theta)$ in practice? Any examples?

MONTH DAY, 2021 23 / 38



- Data, Models, and Learning
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Graphical Models



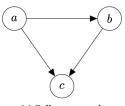
- Joint distribution of a probabilistic model: key quantity of interest, but quite complicated without structural properties
- However, there exist relations of independence, conditional independence among random variables.
- (Probabilistic) graphical models: Roughly speaking, a graph of random variables.
 - Simple ways to visualize the structure of the model
 - Insights into the structural properties, e.g., conditional independence
 - Computations for inference and learning can be expressed in terms of graphical manipulations

MONTH DAY, 2021 25 / 38

Graph Semantics

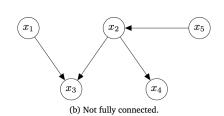
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$$\mathbb{P}(a,b,c) = \mathbb{P}(c|a,b)\mathbb{P}(b|a)\mathbb{P}(a)$$



(a) Fully connected.

$$\mathbb{P}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = \\ \mathbb{P}(x_1)\mathbb{P}(x_5)\mathbb{P}(x_2|x_5)\mathbb{P}(x_3|x_1, x_2)\mathbb{P}(x_4|x_2)$$

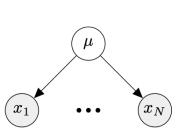


- Nodes: random variables
- Directed edge for direct dependence: b directly depends on a: a o b
- Graph layout: factorization of the joint distribution

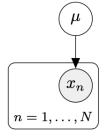
$$\mathbb{P}(x_1,\ldots,x_K) = \prod_{k=1}^K \mathbb{P}(x_k \mid \mathsf{Pa}_k), \quad \mathsf{Pa}_k \text{ are the parent nodes of } x_k.$$

Example: N coin-flip experiments

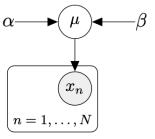




(a) Version with x_n explicit.



(b) Version with plate notation.



(c) Hyperparameters α and β on the latent μ .

- Shaded nodes: observables, μ : probability of head, a (latent) random variable
- Joint distribution

$$\mathbb{P}(x_1,\ldots,x_N\mid \mu)=\prod_{n=1}^N\mathbb{P}(x_n\mid \mu)$$

MONTH DAY, 2021 27 / 38

Conditional Independence and d-Separation

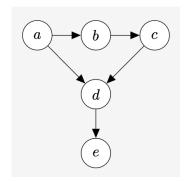


- Question. How can we see conditional independence in the directed graphical models? For example, $\mathcal{A} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathcal{B} \mid \mathcal{C}$?
- *d*-separation
 - \circ All possible trails 1 from any node ${\mathcal A}$ to any node in ${\mathcal B}$
 - Any such path is blocked if it includes any node such that either of the following is true:
 - lacktriangle The arrows on the path meet either head to tail or tail to tail at the node, and the node is in $\mathcal C$
 - \blacktriangleright The arrows meet head to head at the node, and neither the node nor any of its descendants is in ${\cal C}$
 - \circ If all the paths are blocked, then ${\mathcal A}$ is d-separated from ${\mathcal B}$ by ${\mathcal C}.$
 - \circ If *d*-separated, $\mathcal{A} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathcal{B} \mid \mathcal{C}$

¹paths that ignore the direction of the arrows

Example



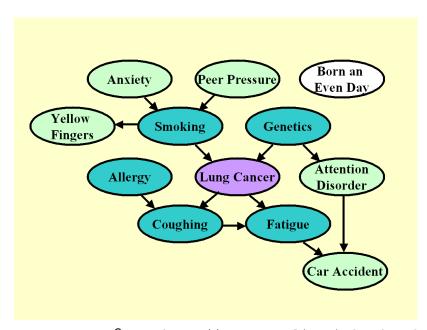


- *b* ⊥⊥ *d* | *a*, *c*
- a ⊥⊥ c | b
- *b* ⊥ *d* | *c*
- a ⊥ c | b, e

MONTH DAY, 2021 29 / 38

Example in Healthcare

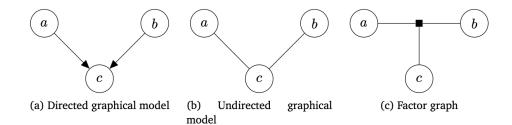




Source: http://www.causality.inf.ethz.ch/data/LUCAS.html

Three Types of Graphical Models





- Directed graphical models (or Bayesian Networks)
- Undirected graphical models (Markov Random Fields)
- Factor graphs

MONTH DAY, 2021 31 / 38



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Nested Cross-Validation



All labeled data	
All training data	Test data
To train model	Validation

- Model selection
 - Tradeoff between model complexity and data fit
 - Occam's razor. Find the simplest model that explains the data resonably well.
- Test set: estimate the generalization performance
- Validation set: choose the best model

MONTH DAY, 2021 33 / 38

Bayesian Model Selection



• A set of models $\mathbf{M} = \{M_1, \dots, M_k\}$, where each M_k has θ_k parameters. A prior $\mathbb{P}(M)$ on each model $M \in \mathbf{M}$.

$$M_k \sim \mathbb{P}(M), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}_k \sim \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta} \mid M_k), \quad \mathcal{D} \sim \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$

• Posterior distribution $\mathbb{P}(M_k \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto \mathbb{P}(M_k)\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D} \mid M_k)$, where we have the following model evidence or marginal likelihood:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}\mid M_k) = \int \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}\mid \boldsymbol{\theta}_k) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k\mid M_k) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{\theta}_k \quad (***)$$

- MAP for the model: $M^* = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{M_k} \mathbb{P}(M_k \mid \mathcal{D})$
- With the uniform model prior (i.e., $\mathbb{P}(M_k) = 1/k$), the MAP estimate equals to maximization of model evidence.

Bayes Factors for Model Comparison



• Compare two probabilistic models M_1 and M_2 :

$$(\text{Posterior odds}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(M_1 \mid \mathcal{D})}{\mathbb{P}(M_2 \mid \mathcal{D})} = \frac{\frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}|M_1)\mathbb{P}(M_1)}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D})}}{\frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}|M_2)\mathbb{P}(M_2)}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D})}} = \underbrace{\frac{\mathbb{P}(M_1)}{\mathbb{P}(M_2)}}_{\text{Prior odds}} \underbrace{\frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D} \mid M_1)}{\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D} \mid M_2)}}_{\text{Bayes factor}}$$

- $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D} \mid M_k)$: How well the data is predicted by the model M_k
- With the uniform model prior, the prior odds = 1
- Computation of Bayes factor requires the complex integration (***) in the previous slide. In this case, we rely on some approximations such as MCMC (Markov Chain Monte Carlo).

MONTH DAY, 2021 35 / 38

Summary





Questions?

MONTH DAY, 2021 37 / 38

Review Questions



1)