

Generative models: an example with naive Bayes



Reminders/Comments

- Assignment 2 due this week
- Please see Touqir's clarifications
 - He is trying to make the outcomes more clear-cut
- Lectures are supposed to complement assignments
 - assignments are for you to learn, run into real problems first hand
- Final exam will only include topics in the notes
 - anything extra in lectures is for interest and context

Thought question

- Which optimization methods are more likely to overfit?
- Is it more likely for Stochastic GD or Batch GD to overfit?
- What about Second-order GD (i.e., Newton's method)?

Exercise questions

- What are the properties of different optimization approaches?
 - e.g., why are we taking the derivative and setting it to zero?
 - e.g., does the amount of data influence whether we obtain local or global solutions?
 - e.g., does stochastic gradient descent result in local solutions?
 - e.g., can gradient descent approaches only be used for convex problems?
 - e.g., why would you use second-order gradient descent rather than first-order gradient descent?

Batch GD versus SGD

- What are some advantages of batch gradient descent?
 - less noisy gradient
 - more clear strategies for selecting stepsize
- What are some advantages of SGD?
 - more computationally efficient: does not waste an entire epoch to provide an update to the weights
 - convenient for updating current solution with new data
- Does batch always give better solutions than SGD?

Classification so far

- Have been learning p(y | x)
 - Either for binary classification, as a Bernoulli
 - Or for multi-class classification, as a Multinomial
- These are called discriminative classifiers
- i.e., learning a function of x, to predict distribution over y, i.e,
 f(x) = p(y | x)
- Do not learn the distribution over x itself
- Note: the classifiers have been linear so far, but this is not a requirement for discriminative classifiers, f can be a (highly) nonlinear function of x

Recall: Logistic regression

- Hyperplane $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} = 0$ separates the two classes
 - P(y=1 | x, w) > 0.5 only when $\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} \ge 0$.
 - P(y=0 | x, w) > 0.5 only when P(y=1 | x, w) < 0.5, which happens when $\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} < 0$

What happens e.g.,
$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.75 & -1/3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

if $w0 = 0$? x_2
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Discriminative versus generative

- Discriminative: learn p(y | x), as a function of x
- In generative learning,
 - learn p(x | y) p(y) (which gives the joint p(x, y) = p(x|y) p(y))
 - compute p(x | y) p(y), which is proportional to p(y | x)

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)}$$

- Question: how do we use p(xly) p(y) for prediction?
- Question: how do we learn p(xly) and p(y)?
- Question: why might we want to use generative models?

How to use generative models

- Our decision rule for using these probabilities is the same as with logistic regression: pick class with the highest probability
- Assume you have learned p(x | y) and p(y) from a dataset
- Compute

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(y|\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(\mathbf{x}|y) p(y) / p(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \arg \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(\mathbf{x}|y) p(y)$$

How to learn generative models

- For discriminative, had to choose distribution over y given x
 - e.g. p(y | x) is Gaussian for continuous y
 - e.g. p(y | x) is Poisson for y in {1, 2, 3, ...}
 - e.g. p(y | x) is Bernoulli for y in {0,1}
- Parameters to p(y | x) were w such that E[Y | x] = f(xw)
- Now we need to choose the distribution p(x | y) and p(y)
- How do we pick p(x | y) and p(y)? What are the parameters?

How do we pick distributions more generally?

- For p(x), picked Gaussian, Bernoulli, Poisson, Gamma
 - depending on the values x could take, or looking at a plot
- For conditional distributions, like p(y | x), we picked the distribution based on the properties of y
 - Once the given features x are fixed, are are just learning a distribution over y
- Imagine x is a 2-d Gaussian RV and y is a 1-d Gaussian
- What might you pick for p(x I y) and p(y)?

Another setting

- Imagine x is a 2-d Gaussian RV and y is a Bernoulli
- Now what might you pick for p(x I y) and p(y)?

What if there are lots of features?

- Imagine x is a 1000-d random variable and y is a Bernoulli
- How can we determine what type of distribution to pick for x?
- What if we decide its a 1000-d multivariate Gaussian RV. Any issues with learning mean mu and covariance Sigma?

Simplifying assumptions

- How do we realistically learn p(x l y)?
- One option is to make a (strong) conditional independence assumption: the features are independent given the label

$$p(\mathbf{x}|y) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(x_i|y).$$

Conditional independence $p(\mathbf{x}|y) = \prod_{i=1}^{d} p(x_i|y).$ assumption

- Example: given a patient has the disease (y=1), attributes about patient are uncorrelated (e.g., age & smokes)
 - even within a class, age and smokes could be correlated
- Surprisingly, despite the fact that this seems unrealistic, in practice this can work okay
 - one hypothesis is we are running these algorithms on "easy" data
 - another is that dependencies skew the distribution equally across all classes, so no one class gets an increased probability y

i=1

Naive Bayes

- For naive Bayes, we learn p(x I y) and p(y) exactly given this conditional independence assumption d $p(\mathbf{x}|y) = \prod p(x_i|y).$
 - For the classification setting
- Then we still need to choose p(xi | y) and p(y)
- What is p(y)? Table of values

$$p(y = 1), \dots, p(y = k - 1), \text{ with } p(y = k) = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} p(y = i)$$

i=1

	probability
1 2	p1 p2
k	pk

What if we have binary features?

- For binary features x in {0,1}, binary y in {0,1}, what is p(x | y)?
- How do we learn p(x l y)?
- How do we learn p(y)?

What if we have continuous features?

- For continuous features x, binary y in {0,1}, what could we choose for p(x | y)?
 - e.g., 5 features
- Need to identify p(xi I y) what could this be?
- What are the parameters and how do we learn them?



* Image from Yaroslav Bulatov

Exercise

- Imagine someone gives you p(x I y) and p(y)
- They give you a test instance, with features x
 - e.g., x is an image, of pixel values (values between 0 to 255)
- Your goal is to predict the output y
 - e.g., if the image contains a cat or not
- How do you use p(x I y) and p(y) to make a prediction?

Whiteboard

- Naive Bayes derivation
- Exercise showing how to use naive Bayes
- Exercise dealing with missing values

Thought question

- "I understand that there is always a tradeoff between bias and variance of a model, and that this is a crucial part of model optimization, but does this mean that we can't ever achieve 100% accuracy, even in simple tasks like digit recognition?"
 - Recall reducible and irreducible error
 - Bias-variance is about selecting the model class (or function class)
 - Choosing the function class influences reducible error; more powerful function classes can reduce this error more
 - Irreducible error represents noise that we cannot model, and so we cannot ever achieve 100% accuracy
 - Why might such noise exist?

Exercise: Bias-variance for naive Bayes model

- Do you think naive Bayes has high bias and/or high variance?
 - is naive Bayes unbiased?
 - Recall: bias refers to error to the true function, in expectation
 - is f(y) = p(x | y) an unbiased estimate of $f^{*}(y)$?
- How do we compute bias and variance?
- naive Bayes can perform better in the small sample setting
 - see "On discriminative vs. generative classifiers: A comparison of logistic regression and naive Bayes", Ng and Jordan, 2002

Pros and Cons

• Discriminative

- focus learning on the value we care about: p(y | x)
- can be much simpler, particularly if features x complex: p(x | y) can be difficult to model without strong assumptions

• Generative

- can be easier for expert to encode prior beliefs, e.g., for classifying trees in evergreen or deciduous, structure/distribution over the features (height, location) can be more clearly specified by p(x | y), whereas p(y | x) does not allow this information to be encoded
- can sample from the generative model, obtain explanations
- more amenable to missing values

Sampling from generative model

- How sample (x,y) from generative model p(x,y) = p(x | y) p(y)
 - Sample y from p(y)
 - Then sample x from p(x | y)
- Why would you do this? Let's use the trees example again
 - Could sample trees from p(x | y) to see what your model produces
 - Could answer additional questions about the features, such as average leaf diameter in population
 - Could depict average tree, within a type or across types
 - Question: how would you do it within a type (deciduous or coniferous)?
 - Question: how would you do it across types?
 - More realistic example for explanations: obtain profile of typical person with heart disease

Other generative models

- Often use generative models for images (markov random field)
 - e.g., can model the spatial structure in the distribution p(x | y)
 - We know a lot about image structure, can take advantage of that expert knowledge in choice of p(x | y)



Thought question

- Is it possible to provide a prediction and an estimate of how confident we are in that prediction?
 - "Let's say the data you are modeling is inherently high-variance and it may not be appropriate to give exact estimates for new data. Is it possible to generate a distribution range, i.e., the outcome will likely fall within some N(mu, sigma²)"
- For p(y | x) Gaussian, we could try to estimate mean mu = <x,w> and estimate variance sigma^2
 - when predict E[Y | x], have a sense of how much y can vary
- But what if our estimates are wrong? To be confident in predictions, want estimate of confidence in parameters

Practical considerations: incorporating new data

- Imagine you have a discriminative model (say weights w) and now want to incorporate new data
- How can you do this with regression approaches?
- Option 1: add data to your batch and recompute entire solution
- Option 2: start from previous w (warm start), add data to your batch and do a few gradient descent steps
- Option 3: use stochastic gradient descent update and step in the direction of the gradient for those samples
 - for a constant stream of data, will only ever use one sample and then throw it away

How about naive Bayes?

- How can we update means and covariances in naive Bayes model?
- Learned mu_{j,c} and sigma_{j,c} for each feature j, each class c

Updating naive Bayes model

- Keep a running average of mu_{j,c} and sigma_{j,c}, with number of samples n_{j,c} for feature j class c
- For a new sample (x, y), update parameters mu_{j,y} and sigma_{j,y} using:
 - $mu_{j,y} = mu_{j,y} + (x_j mu_{j,y})/ n_{j,c}$
 - sndmoment_{j,y} = sndmoment_{j,y} + (x_j^2 sndmoment_{j,y})/ n_{j,c}
 - sigma_{j,c} = sqrt(sndmoment_{j,y} mu_{j,y}^2)

Exercise: Non-stationarity

- A theme in thought questions: "What if the distribution changes over time?"
- Say you have trained your model so far, and now are getting new data that is from a slightly different distribution (drift)
 - Data could be coming from a physical system that wears out, such as a robot vacuum collecting data where its wheels wear-out
 - Data could reflect continually (but slowly) changes preferences in human population
- How can we handle this?
 - We can update parameters with this new data, and hope that works
 - How can we give more weight

Exercise: Non-stationarity

- A theme in thought questions: "What if the distribution changes over time?"
- How can we handle this?
 - Don't want to throw away previous solution, since drift is slow so old solution is still (mostly) reflective
 - We can update parameters with this new data, and hope that works
 - How can we give more weight to new data? Say for naive Bayes

Exponential average

$$\mu_{t} = \alpha x_{t} + (1 - \alpha)\mu_{t-1}$$

$$= \alpha x_{t} + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha x_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)\mu_{t-2})$$

$$= \alpha x_{t} + \alpha(1 - \alpha)x_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)^{2}(\alpha x_{t-2} + (1 - \alpha)\mu_{t-3})$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 - \alpha)^{i} x_{t-i}$$
where $0 < \alpha < 1$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (1 - \alpha)^{i} = \frac{1}{\alpha}$$