

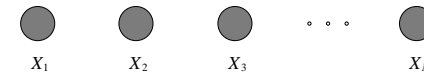
LECTURE 5:  
PARAMETER ESTIMATION & LEARNING

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MULTIPLE OBSERVATIONS, COMPLETE DATA, IID SAMPLING

- A single observation of the data  $\mathbf{X}$  is rarely useful on its own.
- Generally we have data including many observations, which creates a *set of random variables*:  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}^M\}$
- We will assume two things:
  1. Observations are independently and identically distributed according to joint distribution of graphical model: IID samples.
  2. We observe all random variables in the domain on each observation: complete data.
- We shade the nodes in a graphical model to indicate they are observed. (Later you will see unshaded nodes corresponding to missing data or latent variables.)



LEARNING GRAPHICAL MODELS FROM DATA

- In AI the bottleneck is often knowledge acquisition.
- Human experts are rare, expensive, unreliable, slow.  
But we have lots of machine readable data.
- Want to build systems automatically based on data and a small amount of prior information (e.g. from experts).



⇒ Sam Roweis



⇒ Geoff Hinton

- In this course, our “systems” will be probabilistic graphical models.
- Assume the prior information we have specifies type & structure of the GM, as well as the mathematical form of the parent-conditional distributions or clique potentials.
- In this case learning  $\equiv$  setting parameters.  
(“Structure learning” is also possible but we won’t consider it now.)

LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION

- So far we have focused on the (log) probability function  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  which assigns a probability (density) to any joint configuration of variables  $\mathbf{x}$  given fixed parameters  $\theta$ .
- But in learning we turn this on its head: we have some fixed data and we want to find parameters.
- Think of  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  as a function of  $\theta$  for fixed  $\mathbf{x}$ :

$$L(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$$

$$\ell(\theta; \mathbf{x}) = \log p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$$

- This function is called the (log) “likelihood”.
- Chose  $\theta$  to maximize some cost function  $c(\theta)$  which includes  $\ell(\theta)$ :
 

$c(\theta) = \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D})$	maximum likelihood (ML)
$c(\theta) = \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) + r(\theta)$	maximum a posteriori (MAP)/penalized ML (also cross-validation, Bayesian estimators, BIC, AIC, ...)

## MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD

- For IID data:

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_m p(\mathbf{x}^m|\theta)$$

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \sum_m \log p(\mathbf{x}^m|\theta)$$

- Idea of maximum likelihood estimation (MLE): pick the setting of parameters most likely to have generated the data we saw:

$$\theta_{\text{ML}}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D})$$

- Very commonly used in statistics.  
Often leads to “intuitive”, “appealing”, or “natural” estimators.
- For a start, the IID assumption makes the log likelihood into a sum, so its derivative can be easily taken term by term.

## EXAMPLE: BERNOULLI TRIALS

- We observe  $M$  iid coin flips:  $\mathcal{D}=\text{H,H,T,H},\dots$

- Model:  $p(H) = \theta \quad p(T) = (1 - \theta)$

- Likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) \\ &= \log \prod_m \theta^{\mathbf{x}^m} (1 - \theta)^{1 - \mathbf{x}^m} \\ &= \log \theta \sum_m \mathbf{x}^m + \log(1 - \theta) \sum_m (1 - \mathbf{x}^m) \\ &= \log \theta N_H + \log(1 - \theta) N_T \end{aligned}$$

- Take derivatives and set to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} &= \frac{N_H}{\theta} - \frac{N_T}{1 - \theta} \\ \Rightarrow \theta_{\text{ML}}^* &= \frac{N_H}{N_H + N_T} \end{aligned}$$

## SUFFICIENT STATISTICS

- A statistic is a (possibly vector valued) function of a (set of) random variable(s).

- $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a “sufficient statistic” for  $\mathbf{X}$  if

$$T(\mathbf{x}^1) = T(\mathbf{x}_x^2) \Rightarrow T(\mathbf{x}) L(\theta; \mathbf{x}^1) = L(\theta; \mathbf{x}^2) \quad \forall \theta$$

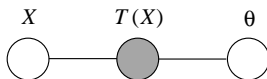
- Equivalently (by the **Factorization theorem**) we can write:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = h(\mathbf{x}) g(T(\mathbf{x}), \theta)$$

- Example: exponential family models:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = h(\mathbf{x}) \exp\{\eta^T T(\mathbf{x}) - A(\eta)\}$$

(b)



(c)

## EXAMPLE: MULTINOMIAL

- We observe  $M$  iid die rolls (K-sided):  $\mathcal{D}=3,1,K,2,\dots$

- Model:  $p(k) = \theta_k \quad \sum_k \theta_k = 1$

- Likelihood (for binary indicators  $[\mathbf{x}^m = k]$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) \\ &= \log \prod_m \theta_{\mathbf{x}^m} = \log \prod_m \theta_1^{[\mathbf{x}^m=1]} \dots \theta_k^{[\mathbf{x}^m=k]} \\ &= \sum_k \log \theta_k \sum_m [\mathbf{x}^m = k] = \sum_k N_k \log \theta_k \end{aligned}$$

- Take derivatives and set to zero (enforcing  $\sum_k \theta_k = 1$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_k} &= \frac{N_k}{\theta_k} - M \\ \Rightarrow \theta_k^* &= \frac{N_k}{M} \end{aligned}$$

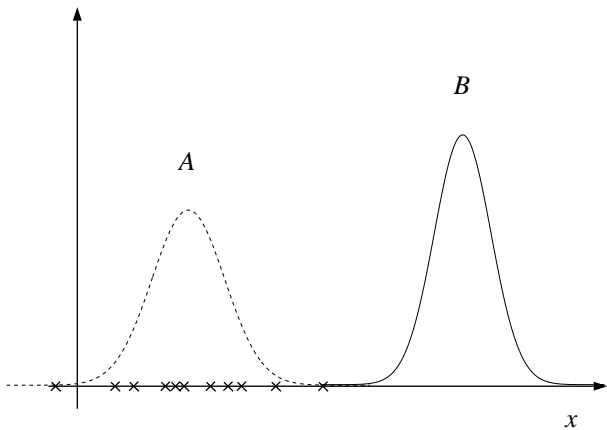
EXAMPLE: UNIVARIATE NORMAL

- We observe  $M$  iid real samples:  $\mathcal{D} = 1.18, -.25, .78, \dots$
- Model:  $p(x) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp\{-(x - \mu)^2/2\sigma^2\}$
- Likelihood (using probability density):

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) \\ &= -\frac{M}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_m \frac{(x^m - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \end{aligned}$$

- Take derivatives and set to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} &= (1/\sigma^2) \sum_m (x_m - \mu) \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma^2} &= -\frac{M}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2\sigma^4} \sum_m (x_m - \mu)^2 \\ \Rightarrow \mu_{\text{ML}} &= (1/M) \sum_m x_m \\ \sigma_{\text{ML}}^2 &= (1/M) \sum_m x_m^2 - \mu_{\text{ML}}^2 \end{aligned}$$



EXAMPLE: LINEAR REGRESSION

- At a linear regression node, some parents (covariates/inputs) and all children (responses/outputs) are continuous valued variables.
- For each child and setting of discrete parents we use the model:

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \text{gauss}(y|\theta^\top \mathbf{x}, \sigma^2)$$

- The likelihood is the familiar "squared error" cost:

$$\ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_m (y^m - \theta^\top \mathbf{x}^m)^2$$

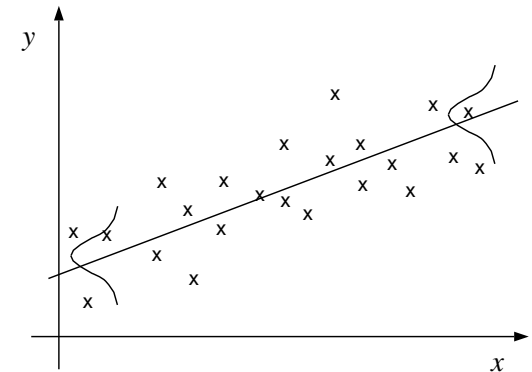
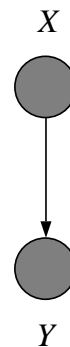
- The ML parameters can be solved for using linear least-squares:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta} &= -\sum_m (y^m - \theta^\top \mathbf{x}^m) \mathbf{x}^m \\ \Rightarrow \theta_{\text{ML}}^* &= (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

- Sufficient statistics are input correlation matrix and input-output cross-correlation vector.

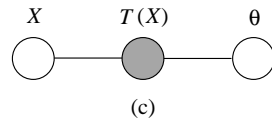
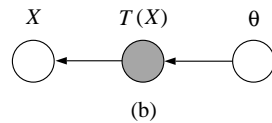
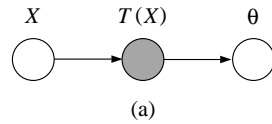
EXAMPLE: UNIVARIATE NORMAL

EXAMPLE: LINEAR REGRESSION



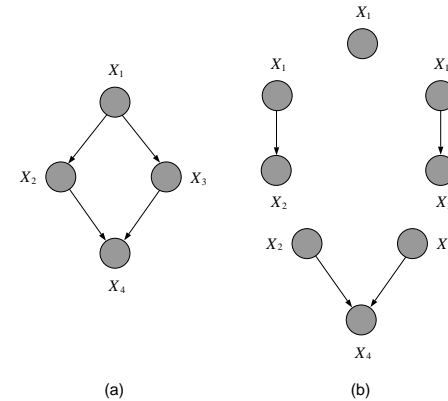
## SUFFICIENT STATISTICS ARE SUMS

- In the examples above, the sufficient statistics were merely sums (counts) of the data:
  - Bernoulli: # of heads, tails
  - Multinomial: # of each type
  - Gaussian: mean, mean-square
  - Regression: correlations
- As we will see, this is true for all exponential family models: sufficient statistics are the average natural parameters.
- Only\* exponential family models have simple sufficient statistics.



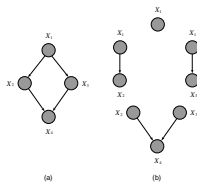
## EXAMPLE: A DIRECTED MODEL

- Consider the distribution defined by the DAGM:
 
$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = p(\mathbf{x}_1|\theta_1)p(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1, \theta_2)p(\mathbf{x}_3|\mathbf{x}_1, \theta_3)p(\mathbf{x}_4|\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \theta_4)$$
- This is exactly like learning four separate small DAGMs, each of which consists of a node and its parents (not its Markov blanket).



## MLE FOR DIRECTED GMS

- For a directed GM, the likelihood function has a nice form:
 
$$\log p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \log \prod_m \prod_i p(\mathbf{x}_i^m | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}, \theta_i) = \sum_m \sum_i \log p(\mathbf{x}_i^m | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}, \theta_i)$$
- The parameters *decouple*; so we can maximize likelihood independently for each node's function by setting  $\theta_i$ .
- Only need the values of  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and its parents in order to estimate  $\theta_i$ .
- Furthermore, if  $\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}$  have sufficient statistics only need those.
- In general, for fully observed data if we know how to estimate params at a single node we can do it for the whole network.



## MLE FOR MULTINOMIAL NETWORKS

- Assume our DAGM contains only discrete nodes, and we use the (general) multinomial form for the conditional probabilities.
- Sufficient statistics involve counts of joint settings of  $\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}$  summing over all other variables in the table.
- Likelihood for these special "fully observed multinomial networks":

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta; \mathcal{D}) &= \log \prod_{m,i} p(\mathbf{x}_i^m | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}^m, \theta_i) \\ &= \log \prod_{i, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}} p(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}, \theta_i)^{N(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i})} = \log \prod_{i, \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}} \theta_{\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}}^{N(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i})} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}} N(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}) \log \theta_{\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}} \\ \Rightarrow \theta_{\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i}}^* &= \frac{N(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_{\pi_i})}{N(\mathbf{x}_{\pi_i})} \end{aligned}$$

## MLE FOR GENERAL EXPONENTIAL FAMILY MODELS

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- Recall the probability function for models in the exponential family:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = h(\mathbf{x}) \exp\{\eta^\top T(\mathbf{x}) - A(\eta)\}$$

- For iid data, the sufficient statistic vector is  $\sum_m T(\mathbf{x}^m)$ :

$$\ell(\eta; \mathcal{D}) = \log p(\mathcal{D}|\eta) = \left( \sum_m \log h(\mathbf{x}^m) \right) - MA(\eta) + \left( \eta^\top \sum_m T(\mathbf{x}^m) \right)$$

- Take derivatives and set to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \eta} &= \sum_m T(\mathbf{x}^m) - M \frac{\partial A(\eta)}{\partial \eta} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial A(\eta)}{\partial \eta} &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_m T(\mathbf{x}^m) \\ \eta_{\text{ML}} &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_m T(\mathbf{x}^m) \end{aligned}$$

recalling that the natural moments of an exponential distribution are the derivatives of the log normalizer.