

# **15-388/688 - Practical Data Science: Maximum likelihood estimation, naïve Bayes**

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# Outline

Maximum likelihood estimation

Naive Bayes

Machine learning and maximum likelihood

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# Estimating the parameters of distributions

We're moving now from probability to statistics

The basic question: given some data  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}$ , how do I find a distribution that captures this data “well”?

In general (if we can pick from the space of all distributions), this is a hard question, but if we pick from a particular *parameterized family* of distributions  $p(X; \theta)$ , the question is (at least a little bit) easier

Question becomes: how do I find parameters  $\theta$  of this distribution that fit the data?

# Maximum likelihood estimation

Given a distribution  $p(X; \theta)$ , and a collection of observed (independent) data points  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}$ , the probability of observing this data is simply

$$p(x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

**Basic idea of maximum likelihood estimation (MLE):** find the parameters that maximize the probability of the observed data

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}; \theta) \equiv \underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(x^{(i)}; \theta)$$

where  $\ell(\theta)$  is called the **log likelihood** of the data

Seems “obvious”, but there are many other ways of fitting parameters

# Parameter estimation for Bernoulli

Simple example: Bernoulli distribution

$$p(X = 1; \phi) = \phi, \quad p(X = 0; \phi) = 1 - \phi$$

Given observed data  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}$ , the “obvious” answer is:

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{\#1\text{'s}}{\# \text{ Total}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}}{m}$$

But why is this the case?

Maybe there are other estimates that are just as good, i.e.?

$$\phi = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)} + 1}{m + 2}$$

# MLE for Bernoulli

Maximum likelihood solution for Bernoulli given by

$$\underset{\phi}{\text{maximize}} \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}; \phi) = \underset{\phi}{\text{maximize}} \prod_{i=1}^m \phi^{x^{(i)}} (1 - \phi)^{1-x^{(i)}}$$

Taking the negative log of the optimization objective (just to be consistent with our usual notation of optimization as minimization)

$$\underset{\phi}{\text{maximize}} \ell(\phi) = \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} \log \phi + (1 - x^{(i)}) \log(1 - \phi))$$

Derivative with respect to  $\phi$  is given by

$$\frac{d}{d\phi} \ell(\phi) = \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \frac{x^{(i)}}{\phi} - \frac{1 - x^{(i)}}{1 - \phi} \right) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}}{\phi} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (1 - x^{(i)})}{1 - \phi}$$

# MLE for Bernoulli, continued

Setting derivative to zero gives:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}}{\phi} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (1 - x^{(i)})}{1 - \phi} &\equiv \frac{a}{\phi} - \frac{b}{1 - \phi} = 0 \\ \implies (1 - \phi)a &= \phi b \\ \implies \phi &= \frac{a}{a + b} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}}{m}\end{aligned}$$

So, we have shown that the “natural” estimate of  $\phi$  actually corresponds to the maximum likelihood estimate



# Poll: Bernoulli maximum likelihood

Suppose we observe binary data  $x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}$  with  $x^{(i)} \in \{0,1\}$  with some  $x^{(i)} = 0$  and some  $x^{(j)} = 1$ , and we compute the Bernoulli MLE

$$\hat{\phi} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}}{m}$$

Which of following statements necessarily true? (may be more than one)

1. For any  $\phi' \neq \hat{\phi}$ ,  $p(x^{(i)}; \phi') \leq p(x^{(i)}; \hat{\phi})$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$
2. For any  $\phi' \neq \hat{\phi}$ ,  $\prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}; \phi') \leq \prod_{i=1}^m p(x^{(i)}; \hat{\phi})$
3. We always have  $p(x^{(i)}; \phi') \geq p(x^{(i)}; \hat{\phi})$  for at least one  $i$

# MLE for Gaussian, briefly

For Gaussian distribution

$$p(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-1/2} \exp(-(1/2)(x - \mu)^2 / \sigma^2)$$

Log likelihood given by:

$$\ell(\mu, \sigma^2) = -m \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}$$

Derivatives (see if you can derive these fully):

$$\frac{d}{d\mu} \ell(\mu, \sigma^2) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{x^{(i)} - \mu}{\sigma^2} = 0 \implies \mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x^{(i)}$$

$$\frac{d}{d\sigma^2} \ell(\mu, \sigma^2) = -\frac{m}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{(x^{(i)} - \mu)^2}{(\sigma^2)^2} = 0 \implies \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^{(i)} - \mu)^2$$

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# Naive Bayes modeling

Naive Bayes is a machine learning algorithm that rests relies heavily on probabilistic modeling

But, it is also interpretable according to the three ingredients of a machine learning algorithm (hypothesis function, loss, optimization), more on this later

Basic idea is that we model input and output as random variables  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  (several Bernoulli, categorical, or Gaussian random variables), and  $Y$  (one Bernoulli or categorical random variable), goal is to find  $p(Y|X)$

# Naive Bayes assumptions

We're going to find  $p(Y|X)$  via Bayes' rule

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{p(X)} = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{\sum_y p(X|y)p(y)}$$

The denominator is just the sum over all values of  $Y$  of the distribution specified by the numerator, so we're just going to focus on the  $p(X|Y)p(Y)$  term

Modeling full distribution  $p(X|Y)$  for high-dimensional  $X$  is not practical, so we're going to make the **naive Bayes assumption**, that the elements  $X_i$  are conditionally independent given  $Y$

$$p(X|Y) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(X_i|Y)$$

# Modeling individual distributions

We're going to explicitly model the distribution of each  $p(X_i|Y)$  as well as  $p(Y)$

We do this by specifying a distribution for  $p(Y)$  and a *separate* distribution and for each  $p(X_i|Y = y)$

So assuming, for instance, that  $Y_i$  and  $X_i$  are binary (Bernoulli random variables), then we would represent the distributions

$$p(Y; \phi_0), \quad p(X_i|Y = 0; \phi_i^0), \quad p(X_i|Y = 1; \phi_i^1)$$

We then estimate the parameters of these distributions using MLE, i.e.

$$\phi_0 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m y^{(j)}}{m}, \quad \phi_i^y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m x_i^{(j)} \cdot 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}$$

# Making predictions

Given some new data point  $x$ , we can now compute the probability of each class

$$p(Y = y|x) \propto p(Y = y) \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i|Y = y) = \phi_0 \prod_{i=1}^m (\phi_i^y)^{x_i} (1 - \phi_1^y)^{1-x_i}$$

After you have computed the right hand side, just normalize (divide by the sum over all  $y$ ) to get the desired probability

Alternatively, if you just want to know the most likely  $Y$ , just compute each right hand side and take the maximum

# Example

$Y$	$X_1$	$X_2$
0	0	0
1	1	0
0	0	1
1	1	1
1	1	0
0	1	0
1	0	1
?	1	0

$$p(Y = 1) = \phi_0 =$$

$$p(X_1 = 1|Y = 0) = \phi_1^0 =$$

$$p(X_1 = 1|Y = 1) = \phi_1^1 =$$

$$p(X_2 = 1|Y = 0) = \phi_2^0 =$$

$$p(X_2 = 1|Y = 1) = \phi_2^1 =$$

$$p(Y|X_1 = 1, X_2 = 0) =$$



# Potential issues

**Problem #1:** when computing probability, the product  $p(y) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|y)$  quickly goes to zero to numerical precision

**Solution:** compute log of the probabilities instead

$$\log p(y) + \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x_i|y)$$

**Problem #2:** If we have never seen either  $X_i = 1$  or  $X_i = 0$  for a given  $y$ , then the corresponding probabilities computed by MLE will be zero

**Solution:** Laplace smoothing, “hallucinate” one  $X_i = 0/1$  for each class

$$\phi_i^y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m x_i^{(j)} \cdot 1\{y^{(j)} = y\} + 1}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\} + 2}$$

# Other distributions

Though naive Bayes is often presented as “just” counting, the value of the maximum likelihood interpretation is that it’s clear how to model  $p(X_i|Y)$  for non-categorical random variables

Example: if  $x_i$  is real-valued, we can model  $p(X_i|Y = y)$  as a Gaussian

$$p(x_i|y; \mu^y, \sigma_y^2) = \mathcal{N}(x_i; \mu^y, \sigma_y^2)$$

with maximum likelihood estimates

$$\mu^y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m x_i^{(j)} \cdot 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}, \quad \sigma_y^2 = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^m (x_i^{(j)} - \mu^y)^2 \cdot 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}{\sum_{j=1}^m 1\{y^{(j)} = y\}}$$

All probability computations are exactly the same as before (it doesn’t matter that some of the terms are probability densities)

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# Machine learning via maximum likelihood

Many machine learning algorithms (specifically the loss function component) can be interpreted probabilistically, as maximum likelihood estimation

Recall logistic regression:

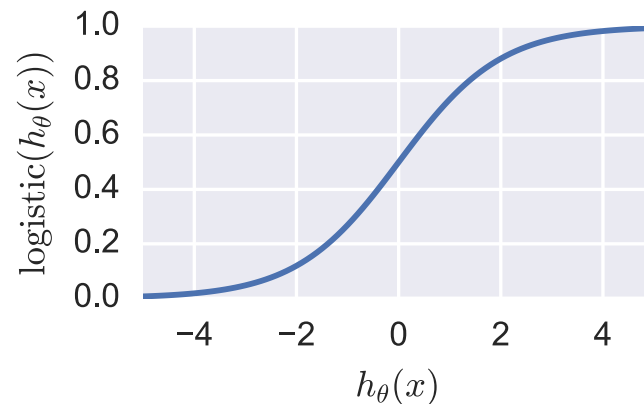
$$\text{minimize}_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell_{\text{logistic}}(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

$$\ell_{\text{logistic}}(h_{\theta}(x), y) = \log(1 + \exp(-y \cdot h_{\theta}(x)))$$

# Logistic probability model

Consider the model (where  $Y$  is binary taking on  $\{-1, +1\}$  values)

$$p(y|x; \theta) = \text{logistic}(y \cdot h_{\theta}(x)) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y \cdot h_{\theta}(x))}$$



Under this model, the maximum likelihood estimate is

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}; \theta) \equiv \underset{\theta}{\text{minimize}} \sum_{i=1}^m \ell_{\text{logistic}}(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

# Least squares

In linear regression, assume

$$y = \theta^T x + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$
$$\iff p(y|x; \theta) = \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x, \sigma^2)$$

Then the maximum likelihood estimate is given by

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \sum_{i=1}^m \log p(y^{(i)} | x^{(i)}; \theta) \equiv \underset{\theta}{\text{minimize}} \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - \theta^T x^{(i)})^2$$

i.e., the least-squares loss function can be viewed as MLE under Gaussian errors

Other approaches possible too: absolute loss function can be viewed as MLE under Laplace errors