

Bayesian Learning 732A46: Lecture 6

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Lecture overview

- ► Large sample theory
- Classification
- ► Naive Bayes (generative)
- ► Logistic regression (discriminative)

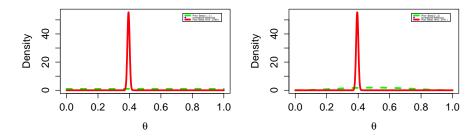
The likelihood dominates the prior

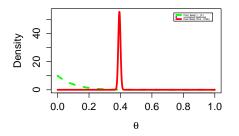
A statement I made during the first lecture

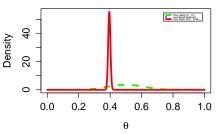
The influence of the prior vanishes as more data is collected. In other words, in large samples the likelihood dominates the prior. Any reasonable prior results in essentially the same inferences.

- Recall the spam data example:
 George has gone through his collection of 4601 e-mails. He classified 1813 of them to be spam (and 2788 non-spam).
- Four different priors gave the same result.

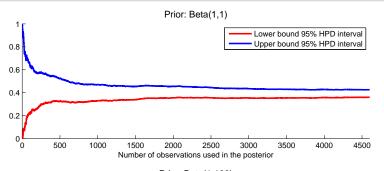
The likelihood dominates the prior, cont.

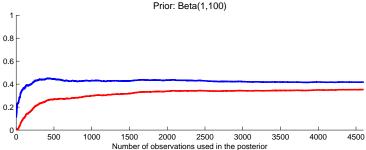






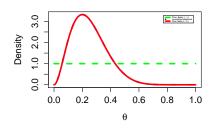
The likelihood dominates the prior, cont.

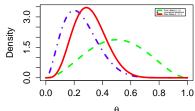


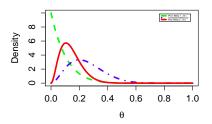


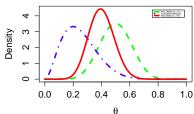
The behaviour of the posterior as the sample size increases.

► Recall: In small samples it was far from a normal distribution...



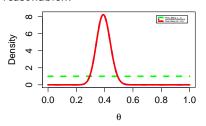


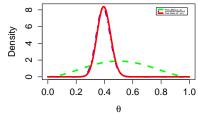


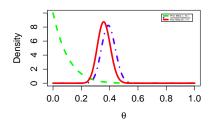


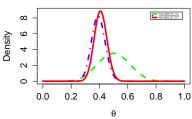
The behaviour of the posterior as the sample size increases

 ... as more data entered the estimation, normality becomes more reasonable...



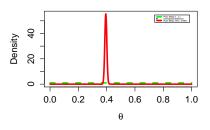


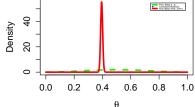


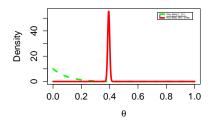


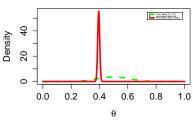
The behaviour of the posterior as the sample size increases

▶ ... and with all data (a large sample)... Note that it also concentrates...









Formalizing the statements

- ▶ We have made three observations as *n* increases
 - 1. The likelihood dominates the prior
 - 2. The posterior approaches a normal distribution
 - 3. The posterior concentrates around a value
- 2. Taylor series expansion $p(\theta|y)$ w.r.t $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^p$ around the posterior mode θ^*

$$\begin{split} \log p(\theta|y) &= \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) + \nabla_{\theta} \log p(\theta^{\star}|y)'(\theta - \theta^{\star}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2!} (\theta - \theta^{\star})' \nabla \nabla_{\theta}' \log p(\theta^{\star}|y)(\theta - \theta^{\star}) + \dots \end{split}$$

where

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) = \frac{\partial \ln p(\theta|y)}{\partial \theta} \bigg|_{\theta=\theta^{\star}} \in \mathbb{R}^{p} \quad \text{(gradient)}$$

$$\nabla \nabla'_{\theta} \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) = \frac{\partial^{2} \ln p(\theta|y)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \bigg|_{\theta=\theta^{\star}} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p} \quad \text{(Hessian)}$$

Formalizing statement nbr 2.

Define the observed information

$$J_y(\theta^*) = -\nabla \nabla'_{\theta} \log p(\theta^*|y)$$
 (negative Hessian)

▶ At the mode **the gradient** is zero (necessary condition to be a mode)

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) = \mathbf{0}$$

► The Taylor series..

$$\log p(\theta|y) = \log p(\theta^*|y) - \frac{1}{2!}(\theta - \theta^*)'J_y(\theta^*)(\theta - \theta^*) + \dots$$

... can be truncated (in large samples)

$$\log p(\theta|y) \approx \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) - \frac{1}{2!}(\theta - \theta^{\star})'J_{y}(\theta^{\star})(\theta - \theta^{\star})$$

▶ ... which is a quadratic form in θ ... $p(\theta|y)$ is \propto a normal density!

Formalizing statement nbr 2., cont.

► Taking exponents

$$p(\theta|y) \approx \underbrace{p(\theta^{\star}|y)}_{f} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta^{\star})'J_{y}(\theta^{\star})(\theta - \theta^{\star})\right) \propto \mathcal{N}_{p}(\theta^{\star}, J_{y}^{-1}(\theta^{\star})).$$

► Why is this useful?

We can approximate the posterior of (many) complex (non-conjugate) models by a normal distribution...

... but note that we require the posterior mode and the Hessian evaluated at the mode...

 \dots can easily be obtained with numerical optimization (e.g. optim in R).

► But be aware

Posterior might be multi-modal.

Rate of convergence depends on p. Large p will require very large n.

Formalizing statement nbr 1.

- 1. Recall: The likelihood dominates the prior.
- Assume conditionally iid. observations

$$p(y|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad \ell(\theta) = \log p(y|\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(y_i|\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \ell_i(\theta).$$

- ▶ Bayes' theorem in log scale $\log p(\theta|y) = \log p(y|\theta) + \log p(\theta) + c$
- ► Since

$$\nabla \nabla_{\theta}' \log p(\theta^{\star}|y) = \nabla \nabla_{\theta}' \ell(\theta^{\star}) + \nabla \nabla_{\theta}' \log p(\theta^{\star})$$

the observed information is

$$J_{y}(heta^{\star}) = \left(-\sum_{i=1}^{n} J_{y_i}(heta^{\star})
ight) \ -J(heta^{\star}), \ J_{y_i} = -
abla
abla'_{ heta} \ell_i(heta) \ J(heta^{\star}) = -
abla
abla'_{ heta} \log p(heta^{\star})$$

3. As *n* increases the curvature is **dominated** by the information part coming from the likelihood. **Recall**

$$\Sigma_n = J_y^{-1}(\theta^*)$$
 [The posterior covariance]

Formalizing statement nbr 3.

- ► **Recall**: The posterior concentrates around a value.
- ▶ Posterior consistency: the posterior degenerates to the "true value".

- ▶ But what is the "true value"?
 - ▶ Mathematical idealization. Let Θ denote the parameter space. The value θ_0 is the "true value" in the sense that the data

$$y \sim f(y) = p(y|\theta_0)$$
 for some $\theta_0 \in \Theta$.

- ▶ **Note**: the data is random (θ_0 is a fixed constant).
- **Proof**: similar but replacing $J_i(\theta^*)$ by the expected information

$$I_i(\theta_0) = -E_{y_i} \left(
abla
abla'_{ heta} \log p(y_i|\theta_0) \right)$$
 so that $I(\theta_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n I_i(\theta_0)$

is the Fisher information.

Example: Normal approximation of a gamma posterior

▶ Poisson model: $\theta|y_1,...,y_n \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \beta_0 + n)$

$$\log p(\theta|y_1,...,y_n) \propto (\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1) \log(\theta) - \theta(\beta_0 + n)$$

First derivative (gradient for p = 1) of log density

$$\frac{\partial \ln p(\theta|y)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{\theta} - (\beta_0 + n) = 0 \implies \theta^* = \frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{\beta_0 + n}$$

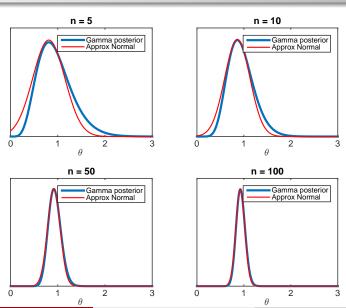
• Second derivative (**Hessian** for p = 1) at mode θ^*

$$\left. \frac{\partial^2 \ln p(\theta|y)}{\partial \theta^2} \right|_{\theta=\theta^*} = -\frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{\left(\frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{\beta_0 + n}\right)^2} = -\frac{(\beta_0 + n)^2}{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}.$$

► The normal approximation is

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{\beta_0 + n}, \frac{\alpha_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n y_i - 1}{(\beta_0 + n)^2}\right).$$

Example: Normal approximation of a gamma posterior, cont.



Normal approximation of posterior

- For complex models / high dimensional θ use standard optimization routines (e.g. optim in R).
 - ▶ Input: an expression proportional to $\log p(\theta|y)$ and initial values.
 - ▶ Output: $\log p(\theta^*|y)$, θ^* and Hessian matrix $[-J_y(\theta^*)]$.
- ► Re-parametrization may improve normal approximation. [Don't forget the Jacobian!]
 - If $\theta > 0$ use $\phi = \log(\theta)$.
 - If $0 \le \theta \le 1$, use $\phi = \ln[\theta/(1-\theta)]$.
- ▶ Recall change of variables: Let $p_{\theta}(\theta)$ be continuous and let $\phi = h(\theta)$ be a one-to-one transform.

$$p_\phi(\phi) = p_ heta(h^{-1}(\phi))|J|, \quad |J| = ext{determinant of } h^{-1}(\phi) \left[1 - ext{dim}: rac{d}{d\phi}h^{-1}(\phi)
ight].$$

- ▶ Even if $p(\theta|y) \approx \mathcal{N}$, $g(\theta)$ may have a **very complex** posterior...
- ▶ ... The joy of simulating to the rescue!

Bayesian classification

- Classification is like regression but with a discrete label as output.
- **►** Examples
 - ▶ binary (0-1). Spam/Ham.
 - ▶ Multi-class. (c = 1, 2, ..., C). {*iPhone*, *Android*, *Windows*, *Other*}.
- ▶ Let $x = (x_1, ..., x_p)'$ be a vector of p covariates/features (inputs).
- ▶ Posterior distribution over the classes (output)

$$Pr(c = k|x), \quad k = 1, ..., C \quad [= p(c|x)].$$

► The Bayesian classifies

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{c \in \mathcal{C}} p(c|x)$$

- Two approaches
 - 1. Discriminative models model p(c|x) directly (logistic regression, SVM)
 - 2. Generative models Use Bayes' theorem $p(c|x) \propto p(x|c)p(c)$ and model
 - (i) the class-conditional distribution p(x|c)
 - (ii) the prior p(c).

Examples: discriminant analysis, naive Bayes.

Generative model: Naive Bayes

▶ By Bayes' theorem

$$p(c|x) \propto p(x|c)p(c)$$

- **Example:** Let $c = \{\text{male}, \text{female}\}\$ and $x = \{\text{weight}, \text{length}, \text{shoe size}\}\$
- ▶ **Data:** $\{c_i, x_i\}_{i=1}^n$
- ▶ p(c) can be estimated by a conjugate **Bernoulli-Beta** model with data c_i , i = 1, ..., n (or **Multinomial-Dirichlet** if C > 2)
- Non-naive: p(x|c) can be $\mathcal{N}_p(\theta_c, \Sigma_c)$ (or more flexibly a **Finite mixture of normals**, see next module) (**Note**: p = 3 in Ex.).
- ▶ Naive Bayes: features are assumed independent

$$p(x|c) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} p(x_j|c) \implies p(c|x) \propto \left[\prod_{j=1}^{p} p(x_j|c)\right] p(c),$$

Note: the **class-conditionals** are modeled separately.

▶ Classify using probabilities, e.g. $x = \{52 \text{ kg}, 160 \text{ cm}, 36\}$

 $Pr(female|x) \propto p(x_1 = 52|female)p(x_2 = 160|female)p(x_3 = 36|female) Pr(female)$

Generative model: Naive Bayes, cont.

- ▶ The Naive Bayes is not necessary a realistic model.
- ▶ Our example: variables are probably dependent (even if gender is known)
- ► Why don't always go non-Naive?
 - 1. Feature vector x might be **very** high-dimensional.
 - 2. Even with binary features the sample space of x can be **huge**.

Discriminative model: logistic regression

- Response is assumed to be **binary** (y = 0 or 1).
- **Example**: Spam (y = 1) or Ham (y = 0). Covariates: \$-symbols, etc.
- ► Logistic regression

$$\Pr(y_i = 1 \mid x_i) = \frac{\exp(x_i'\beta)}{1 + \exp(x_i'\beta)}.$$

Likelihood

$$p(y|\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\left[\exp(x_i'\beta)\right]^{y_i}}{1 + \exp(x_i'\beta)}.$$

Note: implicitly conditioning on covariates (they are not modeled)

▶ Our example here: $x_i = \{\text{weight}, \text{length}, \text{shoe size}\}$, for the *i*th obs.

$$Pr(y_i = female \mid x_i) = \frac{exp(x_i'\beta)}{1 + exp(x_i'\beta)}.$$

Note: not modeling weight/length/shoe size as in the generative model.

▶ Prior $\beta \sim N(0, \lambda^{-1}I)$ (simple shrinkage prior). Posterior is non-standard.

Discriminative model: logistic regression, cont.

- ▶ Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) can be used to simulate $p(\beta|y)$.
- We can alternatively obtain a **normal approximation** of $p(\beta|y)$.
- ► Homework: Go through MainOptimizeSpam.R.
 - ▶ Learn how to master the function optim
 - **Learn how to code** an expression of the log posterior (only \propto required)
 - ► Add a step where you (given the output from optim) simulate from the posterior. Hint:

$$p(\beta|y) \approx \mathcal{N}\left(\theta^\star, \Sigma_\star\right) \quad \left[\theta^\star \colon \mathsf{mode}, \Sigma_\star \colon \mathsf{-Hess}^{-1}(\theta^\star)\right].$$

▶ Generalization to multi-class (c = 1, ..., C) logistic regression

$$\Pr(y_i = c \mid x_i) = \frac{\exp(x_i'\beta_c)}{\sum_{k=1}^{C} \exp(x_i'\beta_k)}.$$