Appendix A

Details of the Implementation

This appendix contains mathematical details regarding the Bayesian neural network implementation described in Chapter 3, and used for the evaluations in Chapter 4. Some features of this implementation are not discussed in these earlier chapters, but are described here for completeness.

Due to the variety of network architectures accommodated, it is necessary here to use a notation that is more systematic, albeit more cumbersome, than that which is used elsewhere. This notation is summarized on the next page.

A.1 Specifications

This section defines the class of network models that are implemented by the software, and explains how they are specified, in an abstract way. (For the detailed syntax of network specifications, and other non-mathematical details, see the documentation that comes with the software.)

A.1.1 Network architecture

The multilayer perceptron networks that this implementation supports consist of a layer of input units, zero or more hidden layers with tanh activation function, and a layer of output units. Units in each hidden layer are connected to units in the preceding hidden layer and to units in the input

Values associated with units

$egin{array}{c} v_i^I \ v_i^\ell \end{array}$	Value of i th input unit, before the offset is added Value of i th hidden unit in layer ℓ , before the offset is added
,	Value of ith output unit Value of the input to the ith hidden unit

Parameters of the network

t_i^I	Offset for ith input unit
t_i^ℓ	Offset for <i>i</i> th hidden unit in layer ℓ
b_i^ℓ	Bias for ith unit in hidden layer ℓ
b_i^O	Bias for ith output unit
$w_{i,j}^{I,O}$	Weight from ith input unit to jth output unit
$w_{i,j}^{I,\ell}$	Weight from ith input unit to jth unit in hidden layer ℓ
$w_{i,j}^{\ell-1,\ell}$	Weight from ith unit in hidden layer $\ell-1$ to jth unit in hidden layer ℓ
$w_{i,j}^{\ell,O}$	Weight from ith unit in hidden layer ℓ to the jth output unit

Hyperparameters defining priors for parameters

Common sigma for offsets of input units
Common sigma for offsets of units in hidden layer ℓ
Common sigma for biases of units in hidden layer ℓ
Common sigma for biases of output units
Common sigma for weights from input units to output units
Common sigma for weights from input units to units in hidden layer ℓ
Common sigma for weights from units in hidden layer $\ell-1$ to units in hidden layer ℓ
Common sigma for weights from units in hidden layer ℓ to output units
Sigma for weights from input unit i to output units
Sigma for weights from input unit i to units in hidden layer ℓ
Sigma for weights from unit i in hidden layer $\ell-1$ to units in hidden layer ℓ
Sigma for weights from unit i in hidden layer ℓ to output units
Sigma adjustment for weights and biases into output unit i
Sigma adjustment for weights and biases into unit i in hidden layer ℓ

layer. Units in the output layer are connected to units in the hidden layers and to units in the input layer. Each of these connections has an associated weight, used to form a weighted sum of inputs to a unit along incoming connections. Each unit in the hidden and output layers has a bias, which is added to this weighted sum of inputs. Each unit in the input and hidden layers has an offset, which is added to its output. Any of these sets of parameters (associated with a particular layer, or pair of layers) may be missing in any particular network, producing the same effect as if their values were zero.

The following formulas define the outputs, v_i^O , of a network for given values of the inputs, v_i^I . Note that the interpretation of these outputs is determined by the data model, described next.

$$u_i^{\ell} = b_i^{\ell} + \sum_k w_{k,i}^{I,\ell} (v_k^I + t_k^I) + \sum_k w_{k,i}^{\ell-1,\ell} (v_k^{\ell-1} + t_k^{\ell-1}) \quad (A.1)$$

$$v_i^{\ell} = \tanh(u_i^{\ell}) \tag{A.2}$$

$$v_i^O = b_i^O + \sum_k w_{k,i}^{I,O}(v_k^I + t_k^I) + \sum_{\ell} \sum_k w_{k,i}^{\ell,O}(v_k^\ell + t_k^\ell)$$
 (A.3)

Here, and subsequently, the summations are over all units in the appropriate layer, or over all hidden layers (for ℓ). The number of layers and the numbers of units in each layer are part of the architecture specification, but these numbers are not given symbols here. The term in the equation for u_i^{ℓ} involving layer $\ell-1$ is omitted for the first hidden layer.

A.1.2 Data models

Networks are normally used to define models for the conditional distribution of a set of "target" values given a set of "input" values. There are three sorts of models, corresponding to three sorts of targets — real-valued targets (a "regression" model), binary-valued targets (a "logistic regression" model), and "class" targets taking on values from a (small) finite set (a generalized logistic regression, or "softmax" model). For regression and logistic regression models, the number of target values is equal to the number of network outputs. For the softmax model, there is only one target, with the number of possible values for this target being equal to the number of network outputs.

The distributions for real-valued targets, y_j , in a case with inputs v_i^I may be modeled by independent Gaussian distributions with means given by the corresponding network outputs, and with standard deviations given by the hyperparameters σ_j — the "noise levels" for the targets. The probability density for a target given the associated inputs and the network parameters

is then

$$P(y_j \mid \text{inputs, parameters}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_j} \exp\left(-(y_j - v_j^O)^2/2\sigma_j^2\right)$$
 (A.4)

Alternatively, each case, c, may have its own set of standard deviations, $\sigma_{j,c}$, with the corresponding precisions, $\tau_{j,c} = \sigma_{j,c}^{-2}$, being given Gamma distributions with means of τ_j and shape parameter α_2 (called this for reasons that will become clear later):

$$P(\tau_{j,c} \mid \tau_j) = \frac{(\alpha_2/2\tau_j)^{\alpha_2/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_2/2)} \tau_{j,c}^{\alpha_2/2-1} \exp(-\tau_{j,c}\alpha_2/2\tau_j) \quad (A.5)$$

The previous case corresponds to the degenerate Gamma distribution with $\alpha_2 = \infty$. Otherwise, integrating out $\tau_{j,c}$ gives a t-distribution for the target with α_2 "degrees of freedom":

 $P(y_i \mid \text{inputs, parameters})$

$$= \frac{\Gamma((\alpha_2+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\alpha_2/2)\sqrt{\pi\alpha_2}\sigma_j} \left[1 + (y_j - v_j^O)^2/\alpha_2\sigma_j^2\right]^{-(\alpha_2+1)/2}$$
 (A.6)

For a logistic regression model, the probability that a binary-valued target, y_j , has the value 1 is given by

$$P(y_j = 1 \mid \text{inputs, parameters}) = \left[1 + \exp(-v_j^O)\right]^{-1} \quad (A.7)$$

For a softmax model, the probability that a class target, y, has the value j is given by

$$P(y = j \mid \text{inputs, parameters}) = \exp(v_j^O) / \sum_k \exp(v_k^O)$$
 (A.8)

A.1.3 Prior distributions for parameters and hyperparameters

The prior distributions for the parameters of a network are defined in terms of hyperparameters. Conceptually, this implementation provides for one hyperparameter for every parameter, but these lowest-level hyperparameters are not explicitly represented. Mid-level hyperparameters control the distribution of a group of low-level hyperparameters that are all of one type and all associated with the same source unit. High-level (or "common") hyperparameters control the distribution of the mid-level hyperparameters, or of the low-level hyperparameters for parameter types with no mid-level hyperparameters. The same three-level scheme is used for noise levels in regression models.

These hyperparameters are represented in terms of "sigma" values, σ , but their distributions are specified in terms of the corresponding "precisions", $\tau = \sigma^{-2}$, which are given Gamma distributions. The top-level mean

is given by a "width" value associated with the parameter type. The shape parameters of the Gamma distributions are determined by "alpha" values associated with each type of parameter. An alpha value of infinity concentrates the entire distribution on the mean, effectively removing one level from the hierarchy. The sigma for a weight may also be multiplied by an "adjustment" value that is associated with the destination unit.

This gives the following generic scheme for the priors for weights:

$$P(\tau_w) = \frac{(\alpha_{w,0}/2\omega_w)^{\alpha_{w,0}/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_{w,0}/2)} \tau_w^{\alpha_{w,0}/2-1} \exp(-\tau_w \alpha_{w,0}/2\omega_w) \quad (A.9)$$

$$P(\tau_{w,i} \mid \tau_w) = \frac{(\alpha_{w,1}/2\tau_w)^{\alpha_{w,1}/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_{w,1}/2)} \tau_{w,i}^{\alpha_{w,1}/2-1} \exp(-\tau_{w,i}\alpha_{w,1}/2\tau_w)$$
(A.10)

$$P(\tau_{a,j}) = \frac{(\alpha_a/2)^{\alpha_a/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_a/2)} \tau_{a,j}^{\alpha_a/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau_{a,j}\alpha_a/2\right)$$
(A.11)

For weights from input units to output units, for example, τ_w will equal $\tau_w^{I,O} = [\sigma_w^{I,O}]^{-2}$, and similarly for $\tau_{w,i}$, while $\tau_{a,j}$ will equal $[\sigma_{a,i}^O]^{-2}$. The top-level precision value, ω_w , is derived from the "width" value specified for this type of weight. The positive (possibly infinite) values $\alpha_{w,0}$ and $\alpha_{w,1}$ are also part of the prior specification for input to output weights, while α_a is a specification associated with the output units (note that in this case the "width" value is fixed at one, as freedom to set it would be redundant).

The distribution for a weight from unit i of one layer to unit j of another layer may be Gaussian with mean zero and standard deviation given by $\sigma_{w,i}\sigma_{a,j} = [\tau_{w,i}\tau_{a,j}]^{-1/2}$. That is:

$$P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{w,i}\sigma_{a,j}} \exp\left(-w_{i,j}^2/2\sigma_{w,i}^2\sigma_{a,j}^2\right) \quad (A.12)$$

(Here, $w_{i,j}$ represents, for example, $w_{i,j}^{I,O}$, in which case $\sigma_{w,i}$ represents $\sigma_{w,i}^{I,O}$ and $\sigma_{a,j}$ represents $\sigma_{a,j}^{O}$.)

Alternatively, each individual weight may have its own "sigma", with the corresponding precision having a Gamma distribution with mean $\tau_{w,i}\tau_{a,j}$ and shape parameter given by $\alpha_{w,2}$. The previous case corresponds to the degenerate distribution with $\alpha_{w,2} = \infty$. Otherwise, we can integrate over the individual precisions and obtain t-distributions for each weight:

$$P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j})$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma((\alpha_{w,2}+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\alpha_{w,2}/2)\sqrt{\pi\alpha_{w,2}}\sigma_{w,i}\sigma_{a,j}} \left[1 + w_{i,j}^2/\alpha_{w,2}\sigma_{w,i}^2\sigma_{a,j}^2\right]^{-(\alpha_{w,2}+1)/2}$$

The same scheme is used for biases, except that for them there are no mid-level hyperparameters. We have

$$P(\tau_b) = \frac{(\alpha_{b,0}/2\omega_b)^{\alpha_{b,0}/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_{b,0}/2)} \tau_b^{\alpha_{b,0}/2-1} \exp(-\tau_b \alpha_{b,0}/2\omega_b) \quad (A.14)$$

where τ_b might, for example, be $\tau_b^O = [\sigma_b^O]^{-2}$, etc.

The distribution of the biases is then either

$$P(b_i \mid \sigma_b, \sigma_{a,i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_b\sigma_{a,i}} \exp\left(-b_i^2/2\sigma_b^2\sigma_{a,i}^2\right)$$
 (A.15)

if $\alpha_{b,1} = \infty$, or if not

$$P(b_{i} \mid \sigma_{b}, \sigma_{a,i}) = \frac{\Gamma((\alpha_{b,1}+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\alpha_{b,1}/2)\sqrt{\pi\alpha_{b,1}}\sigma_{b}\sigma_{a,i}} [1 + b_{i}^{2}/\alpha_{b,1}\sigma_{b}^{2}\sigma_{a,i}^{2}]^{-(\alpha_{b,1}+1)/2}$$
(A.16)

For the offsets added to input and hidden unit values, there are no midlevel hyperparameters, and neither are "adjustments" used. We have

$$P(\tau_t) = \frac{(\alpha_{t,0}/2\omega_t)^{\alpha_{t,0}/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_{t,0}/2)} \tau_t^{\alpha_{t,0}/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau_t \alpha_{t,0}/2\omega_t\right) \quad (A.17)$$

where τ_t might, for example, be $\tau_t^I = [\sigma_t^I]^{-2}$, etc.

The distribution of the offsets is then either

$$P(t_i \mid \sigma_t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_t} \exp\left(-t_i^2/2\sigma_t^2\right)$$
 (A.18)

if $\alpha_{t,1} = \infty$, or if not

$$P(t_i \mid \sigma_t) = \frac{\Gamma((\alpha_{t,1}+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\alpha_{t,1}/2)\sqrt{\pi\alpha_{t,1}}\sigma_t} \left[1 + t_i^2/\alpha_{t,1}\sigma_t^2\right]^{-(\alpha_{t,1}+1)/2}$$
(A.19)

The scheme for noise levels in regression models is also similar, with τ_j , the precision for target j, being specified in terms of an overall precision, τ , as follows:

$$P(\tau) = \frac{(\alpha_0/2\omega)^{\alpha_0/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_0/2)} \tau^{\alpha_0/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau \alpha_0/2\omega\right) \quad (A.20)$$

$$P(\tau_j \mid \tau) = \frac{(\alpha_1/2\tau)^{\alpha_1/2}}{\Gamma(\alpha_1/2)} \tau_j^{\alpha_1/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau_j \alpha_1/2\tau\right) \quad (A.21)$$

where ω , α_0 , and α_1 are parts of the noise specification. A third alpha (α_2) is needed for the final specification of the noise in individual cases, as described in the Section A.1.2.

A.1.4 Scaling of priors

The top-level mean precisions used in the preceding hierarchical priors (the ω values) may simply be taken as specified (actually, what is specified is the corresponding "width", $\omega^{-1/2}$). Alternatively, for connection weights only (not biases and offsets), the ω for values of one type may be scaled automatically, based on the number of source units that feed into each destination unit via connections of this type. This scaling is designed to produced sensible results as the number of source units goes to infinity, while all other specifications remain unchanged.

The theory behind this scaling concerns the convergence of sums of independent random variables to "stable distributions" (Feller 1966, Samorodnitsky and Taqqu 1994), as discussed in Chapter 2. The symmetric stable distributions are characterized by a width parameter and an index, α , in the range (0,2]. If X_1, \ldots, X_n are independent and each has the same symmetric stable distribution of index α , then $(X_1 + \cdots + X_n)/n^{1/\alpha}$ has this same stable distribution as well. The stable distribution with index 2 is the Gaussian. The sums of all random variables with finite variance converge to the Gaussian, along with some others. Typically, random variables whose moments are defined up to but not including α converge to the stable distribution with index α , for $\alpha < 2$.

This leads to the following scaling rules for producing ω based on the specified base precision, ω_0 , the number of source units, n, and the relevant α value (see below):

$$\omega = \begin{cases} \omega_0 n & \text{for } \alpha = \infty \\ \omega_0 n \alpha / (\alpha - 2) & \text{for } \alpha > 2 \\ \omega_0 n \log n & \text{for } \alpha = 2 \text{ (but fudged to } \omega_0 n \text{ if } n < 3) \\ \omega_0 n^{2/\alpha} & \text{for } \alpha < 2 \end{cases}$$
(A.22)

Here, α is $\alpha_{w,2}$ if that is finite, and is otherwise $\alpha_{w,1}$. The scheme doesn't really work if both $\alpha_{w,1}$ and $\alpha_{w,2}$ are finite. When $\alpha=2$, the scaling produces convergence to the Gaussian distribution, but with an unusual scale factor, as the *t*-distribution with $\alpha=2$ is in the "non-normal" domain of attraction of the Gaussian distribution.

A.2 Conditional distributions for hyperparameters

Implementation of Gibbs sampling for hyperparameters requires sampling from the conditional distribution for one hyperparameter given the values of the other hyperparameters and of the network parameters. This section describes how this is done.

A.2.1 Lowest-level conditional distributions

The simplest conditional distributions to sample from are those for "sigma" hyperparameters that directly control a set of network parameters. This will be the situation for the lowest-level sigmas, as well as for higher-level sigmas when the lower-level sigmas are tied exactly to this higher-level sigma (i.e. when the "alpha" shape parameter for their distribution is infinite). The situation is analogous for sigma values relating to noise levels in regression models, except that the errors in training case are what is modeled, rather than the network parameters.

In general, we will have some hyperparameter $\tau = \sigma^{-2}$ that has a Gamma prior, with shape parameter we will call α , and with mean ω (which may be a higher-level hyperparameter). The purpose of τ is to specify the precisions for the independent Gaussian distributions of n lower-level quantities, z_i . In this situation, the conditional distribution for τ will be given by the following proportionality:

$$P(\tau \mid \{z_i\}, \ldots) \propto \tau^{\alpha/2-1} \exp(-\tau \alpha/2\omega) \cdot \prod_i \tau^{1/2} \exp(-\tau z_i^2/2) \quad (A.23)$$
$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha+n)/2-1} \exp(-\tau (\alpha/\omega + \sum_i z_i^2)/2) \quad (A.24)$$

The first factor in equation (A.23) derives from the prior for τ , the remaining factors from the effect of τ on the probabilities of the z_i . The result is a Gamma distribution that can be sampled from by standard methods (Devroye 1986).

When the distributions of the z_i are influenced by "adjustments", $\tau_{a,i}$, the above formula is modified as follows:

$$P(\tau \mid \{z_i\}, \{\tau_{a,i}\}, \ldots)$$

$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha+n)/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau(\alpha/\omega + \sum_i \tau_{a,i} z_i^2)/2\right) \tag{A.25}$$

Gibbs sampling for the adjustments themselves is done in similar fashion, using the weighted sum of squares of parameters influenced by the adjustment, with the weights in this case being the precisions associated with each parameter.

A.2.2 Higher-level conditional distributions

Sampling from the conditional distribution for a sigma hyperparameter that controls a set of lower-level sigmas is more difficult, but can be done in the most interesting cases using rejection sampling. This method is generally adequate, but not completely satisfactory. I plan to replace it with a better scheme soon.

Assume that we wish to sample from the distribution for a precision hyperparameter τ , which has a higher-level Gamma prior specified by α_0 and ω , and which controls the distributions of lower-level hyperparameters, τ_i , that have independent Gamma distributions with shape parameter α_1 and mean τ . The conditional distribution for τ is then given by the following proportionality:

$$P(\tau \mid \{\tau_i\}, \ldots)$$

$$\propto \tau^{\alpha_0/2-1} \exp(-\tau \alpha_0/2\omega) \cdot \prod_i \tau^{-\alpha_1/2} \exp(-\tau_i \alpha_1/2\tau) \quad (A.26)$$

$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha_0 - n\alpha_1)/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau \alpha_0/2\omega - (\alpha_1 \sum_i \tau_i)/2\tau\right) \quad (A.27)$$

Defining $\gamma = 1/\tau$, we get:

$$P(\gamma \mid \{\tau_i\}, \dots)$$

$$\propto \tau^2 P(\tau \mid \{\tau_i\}, \dots) \qquad (A.28)$$

$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha_0 - n\alpha_1)/2 + 1} \exp\left(-\tau \alpha_0/2\omega - (\alpha_1 \sum_i \tau_i)/2\tau\right) \qquad (A.29)$$

$$\propto \gamma^{(n\alpha_1 - \alpha_0)/2 - 1} \exp\left(-\gamma (\alpha_1 \sum_i \tau_i)/2\right) \cdot \exp\left(-\alpha_0/2\omega\gamma\right) (A.30)$$

The first part of this has the form of a Gamma distribution for γ , provided $n\alpha_1 > \alpha_0$; the last factor lies between zero and one. If $n\alpha_1 > \alpha_0$, we can therefore obtain a value from the distribution for γ by repeatedly sampling from the Gamma distribution with shape parameter $n\alpha_1 - \alpha_0$ and mean $(n\alpha_1 - \alpha_0)/(\alpha_1 \sum_i \tau_i)$ until the value of γ generated passes an acceptance test, which it does with probability $\exp(-\alpha_0/2\omega\gamma)$. We may hope that the probability of rejection will be reasonably low if α_0 is small, which is typical.

In some contexts, the values τ_i are not explicitly represented, and must themselves be found by sampling using the method of the previous section.

A.3 Calculation of derivatives

To use the hybrid Monte Carlo method, we must be able to calculate the derivatives of the log of the posterior probability density for the parameter values, which are found by summing the derivatives of the log likelihood and of the log of the prior probability density of the parameter values. This section details how this is done.

A.3.1 Derivatives of the log prior density

For fixed values of the explicitly-represented hyperparameters, one can easily obtain the derivatives of the log of the prior probability with respect to the network weights and other parameters. Generically, if $\alpha_{w,2} = \infty$, we get, from equation (A.12), that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i,j}} \log P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j}) = -\frac{w_{i,j}}{\sigma_{w,i}^2 \sigma_{a,j}^2}$$
(A.31)

while otherwise, we get, from equation (A.14), that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{i,j}} \log P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j})
= -\frac{\alpha_{w,2} + 1}{\alpha_{w,2} \sigma_{w,i}^2 \sigma_{a,j}^2} \frac{w_{i,j}}{[1 + w_{i,j}^2 / \alpha_{w,2} \sigma_{w,i}^2 \sigma_{a,j}^2]}$$
(A.32)

Similar formulas for derivatives with respect to the biases are obtained from equations (A.15) and (A.16) and for derivatives with respect to the offsets from equations (A.18) and (A.19).

A.3.2 Log likelihood derivatives with respect to unit values

The starting point for calculating the derivatives of the log likelihood with respect to the network parameters is to calculate the derivative of the log likelihood due to a particular case with respect to the network outputs. For the regression model with $\alpha_2 = \infty$, we get from equation (A.4) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v_j^O} \log P(y \mid v_j^O) = -\frac{y_j - v_j^O}{\sigma_j^2} \tag{A.33}$$

When α_2 is finite, we get from equation (A.6) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v_j^O} \log P(y \mid v_j^O) = -\frac{\alpha_2 + 1}{\alpha_2 \sigma_j^2} \frac{y_j - v_j^O}{\left[1 + (y_j - v_j^O)^2 / \alpha_2 \sigma_j^2\right]}$$
(A.34)

For the model of binary targets given by equation (A.7), we get the following, after some manipulation:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v_j^O} \log P(y \mid v_j^O) = y_j - \left[1 + \exp(-v_j^O)\right]^{-1}$$
 (A.35)

$$= y_j - P(y_j = 1 \mid v_j^O)$$
 (A.36)

For the many-way "softmax" classification model of equation (A.8), we get the following (where $\delta(y, j)$ is one if y = j and zero otherwise):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v_j^O} \log P(y \mid \{v_k^O\}) = \delta(y, j) - \frac{\exp(v_j^O)}{\sum_k \exp(v_k^O)}$$
 (A.37)

$$= \delta(y, j) - P(y = j \mid \{v_k^O\})$$
 (A.38)

Let L be the log likelihood due to a single training case — that is, $L = \log P(y \mid \text{inputs}, \text{parameters}) = \log P(y \mid \text{outputs})$. Once the derivatives of L with respect to the output unit values are known, its derivatives with respect to the values of the hidden and input units can be found by the standard backpropagation method. From equations (A.1), (A.2), and (A.3):

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i^{\ell}} = \sum_j w_{i,j}^{\ell,O} \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_j^O} + \sum_j w_{i,j}^{\ell,\ell+1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial u_j^{\ell+1}}$$
(A.39)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial u_i^{\ell}} = \left(1 - \left[v_i^{\ell}\right]^2\right) \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i^{\ell}} \tag{A.40}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{i}^{I}} = \sum_{i} w_{i,j}^{I,O} \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{j}^{O}} + \sum_{\ell} \sum_{i} w_{i,j}^{I,\ell} \frac{\partial L}{\partial u_{j}^{\ell}}$$
(A.41)

In (A.39), the second term is not present when ℓ is the last hidden layer.

A.3.3 Log likelihood derivatives with respect to parameters

The derivatives of L with respect to the network parameters (with explicitly represented noise sigmas fixed) are obtained using the derivatives with respect to unit values and unit inputs found in the previous section, as follows:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b_i^O} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i^O} \tag{A.42}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b_i^{\ell}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u_i^{\ell}} \tag{A.43}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t_i^{\ell}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i^{\ell}} \tag{A.44}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial t_i^I} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_i^I} \tag{A.45}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,j}^{\ell,O}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_j^O} \left(v_i^{\ell} + t_i^{\ell} \right) \tag{A.46}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,j}^{\ell-1,\ell}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u_j^{\ell}} \left(v_i^{\ell-1} + t_i^{\ell-1} \right) \tag{A.47}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,j}^{I,t}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial u_j^t} \left(v_i^I + t_i^I \right) \tag{A.48}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,i}^{I,O}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{i}^{O}} \left(v_{i}^{I} + t_{i}^{I} \right) \tag{A.49}$$

The derivatives found in this way for each training case are summed over the full training set, and added to the derivatives with respect to the log prior density, to give the derivatives with respect to the log posterior probability density, which control the hybrid Monte Carlo dynamics.

A.4 Heuristic choice of stepsizes

Stepsizes for dynamical trajectory computations and for Metropolis updates are heuristically chosen based on the values of the training inputs and the current values of the hyperparameters. These stepsize choices are made on the assumption that the system is near equilibrium, moving about in an approximately Gaussian hump of the posterior distribution. If the axes of this hump were aligned with the coordinate axes, the optimal stepsize along each axis would be in the vicinity of the standard deviation along that axis. Since the axes of the bowl may not be aligned with the coordinate axes, the actual stepsizes may have to be less than this. On the other hand, the estimates used are in some respects conservative. Any overall adjustment of the stepsizes to account for these factors must be done manually by the user.

Estimates of the posterior standard deviations along the axes are based on estimates of the second derivatives of the log posterior probability density along the axes. These second derivatives are estimated using estimates of the second derivatives of the log likelihood with respect to the values of units in the network.

Letting L be the log likelihood for a single training case, we get the following for real-valued targets, with $\alpha_2 = \infty$, using equation (A.33):

$$-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_j^O)^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_j^2} \tag{A.50}$$

while for finite α_2 , we get from equation (A.34) that

$$-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_j^O)^2} = \frac{\alpha_2 + 1}{\alpha_2 \sigma_j^2} \left[\left(1 + \frac{(v_j^O)^2}{\alpha_2 \sigma_j^2} \right)^{-1} + \frac{2(v_j^O)^2}{\alpha_2 \sigma_j^2} \left(1 + \frac{(v_j^O)^2}{\alpha_2 \sigma_j^2} \right)^{-2} \right] (A.51)$$

This is estimated by its maximum value, which occurs at $v_j^O = 0$:

$$-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_i^O)^2} \approx \frac{\alpha_2 + 1}{\alpha_2 \sigma_i^2} \tag{A.52}$$

For binary-valued targets, equation (A.36) gives

$$-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_i^O)^2} = \frac{1}{[1 + \exp(v_i^O)][1 + \exp(-v_i^O)]} \approx \frac{1}{4}$$
 (A.53)

Again, the estimate is based on the maximum possible value, which occurs when $v_i^O = 0$.

We get a similar estimate for a class target, using equation (A.38):

$$-\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_j^O)^2} = \frac{\exp(v_j^O)}{\sum\limits_k \exp(v_k^O)} \left[1 - \frac{\exp(v_j^O)}{\sum\limits_k \exp(v_k^O)} \right] \approx \frac{1}{4}$$
 (A.54)

These estimates for the second derivatives of L with respect to the outputs are propagated backward to give estimates for the second derivatives of L with respect to the values of hidden and input units.

When doing this backward propagation, we need an estimate of the second derivative of L with respect to the summed input to a tanh hidden unit, given its second derivative with respect to the unit's output. Letting the hidden unit output be v = tanh(u), we have

$$\frac{d^2L}{du^2} = \frac{d}{du} \left[(1-v^2) \frac{dL}{dv} \right] \tag{A.55}$$

$$= (1 - v^2)^2 \frac{d^2 L}{dv^2} - 2v(1 - v^2) \frac{dL}{dv}$$
 (A.56)

$$\approx (1 - v^2)^2 \frac{d^2 L}{dv^2} \approx \frac{d^2 L}{dv^2} \tag{A.57}$$

The first approximation assumes that since $2v(1-v^2)(dL/dv)$ may be either positive or negative, its effects will (optimistically) cancel when averaged over the training set. Since v is not known, the second approximation above takes the maximum with respect to v. The end result is that we just ignore the fact that the hidden unit input is passed through the tanh function.

The backward propagation also ignores any interactions between multiple connections from a unit. Since the stepsizes chosen are not allowed to depend on the actual values of the network parameters, the magnitude of each weight is taken to be equal to the corresponding sigma hyperparameter, multiplied by the destination unit adjustment, if present. This gives the following generic estimate:

$$\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_i^S)^2} \approx \sum_D \sum_j (\sigma_{w,i}^{S,D} \sigma_{a,j}^D)^2 \frac{\partial^2 L}{(v_j^D)^2}$$
(A.58)

Here, S is the source layer, D goes through the various layers receiving connections from S, $\sigma_{w,i}^{S,D}$ is the hyperparameter controlling weights to layer D out of unit i in S, and $\sigma_{a,j}^{D}$ is the sigma adjustment for unit j in D.

The second derivative of L with respect to a weight, $w_{i,j}^{S,D}$, can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (w_{i,j}^{S,D})^2} = (v_i^S)^2 \frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial (v_j^D)^2}$$
 (A.59)

When the weight is on a connection from an input unit, $v_i^S = v_i^I$ is the *i*th input for this training case, which is known. If the weight is on a connection from a hidden unit, $(v_i^S)^2$ is assumed to be one, the maximum possible value.

Second derivatives with respect to biases and offsets are simply equal to the second derivatives with respect to the associated unit values.

These heuristic estimates for the second derivatives of L due to each training case with respect to the various network parameters are summed for all cases in the training set. To these are added estimates of the second derivatives of the log prior probability density with respect to each parameter, giving estimates of the second derivatives of the log posterior density.

For the second derivative of the log prior density with respect to weight $w_{i,j}$, we have

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_{i,j}^2} \log P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j}) = \frac{1}{\sigma_{w,i}^2 \sigma_{a,j}^2}$$
(A.60)

if α_2 is infinite, while for finite α_2 , we use an estimate analogous to equation (A.52):

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_{i,j}^2} \log P(w_{i,j} \mid \sigma_{w,i}, \sigma_{a,j}) \approx \frac{\alpha_2 + 1}{\alpha_2 \sigma_{w,i}^2 \sigma_{a,j}^2}$$
(A.61)

Biases and offsets are handled similarly.

Finally, the stepsize used for a parameter is the reciprocal of the square root of minus the estimated second derivative of the log posterior with respect to that parameter.

A.5 Rejection sampling from the prior

In addition to the Monte Carlo implementation based on Markov chain sampling, a simple Monte Carlo procedure using rejection sampling has also been implemented. This procedure is very inefficient; it is intended for use only as a means of checking the correctness of the Markov chain implementations.

The rejection sampling procedure is based on the idea of producing a sample from the posterior by generating networks from the prior, and then accepting some of these networks with a probability proportional to the likelihood (for the given training data) of the generated parameter and hyperparameter values. For data models with discrete targets, this idea can be implemented directly, as the likelihood is the probability of the targets in the training set, which can be no more than one. For regression models, the likelihood is the probability density of the targets, which can be greater than one, making its direct use as an acceptance probability invalid. If the noise levels for the targets are fixed, however, the likelihood is bounded, and can be used as the acceptance probability after rescaling. For a Gaussian noise model (equation (A.4)), this is accomplished by simply ignoring the factors of $1/\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_i$ in the likelihood; the analogous procedure can be used for noise from a t-distribution (equation (A.6)).

When the noise levels are variable hyperparameters, a slightly more elaborate procedure must be used, in which the noise levels are not generated from the prior, but rather from the prior multiplied by a bias factor that gives more weight to higher precisions (lower noise). This bias factor is chosen so that when it is cancelled by a corresponding modification to the acceptance probability, these probabilities end up being no greater than one.

Specifically, the overall noise precision, τ , and the noise precisions for individual targets, the τ_j , are sampled from Gamma distributions obtained by modifying the priors of equations (A.20) and (A.21) as follows:

$$f(\tau) \propto \tau^{nm/2} P(\tau)$$

$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha_0 + nm)/2 - 1} \exp(-\tau \alpha_0 / 2\omega)$$
(A.62)
(A.63)

$$\propto \tau^{(\alpha_0 + nm)/2 - 1} \exp(-\tau \alpha_0/2\omega)$$
 (A.63)

$$f(\tau_j \mid \tau) \propto \tau_j^{n/2} P(\tau_j \mid \tau)$$

$$\propto \tau^{-(\alpha_1 + n)/2} \tau_j^{(\alpha_1 + n)/2 - 1} \exp\left(-\tau_j \alpha_1/2\tau\right)$$
(A.64)
(A.65)

$$\propto \tau^{-(\alpha_1+n)/2} \tau_j^{(\alpha_1+n)/2-1} \exp\left(-\tau_j \alpha_1/2\tau\right) \quad (A.65)$$

Here, n is the number of training cases and m is the number of targets. The resulting joint sampling density is

$$f(\tau, \{\tau_j\}) = f(\tau) \prod_{j=1}^m f(\tau_j \mid \tau) \propto P(\tau, \{\tau_j\}) \prod_{j=1}^m \tau_j^{n/2}$$
 (A.66)

Since this sampling density is biased in relation to the prior by the factor $\prod_{j=1}^{m} \tau_{j}^{n/2}$, when constructing the acceptance probability we must multiply the likelihood by the inverse of this factor, $\prod_{j=1}^{m} \tau_j^{-n/2} = \prod_{c=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{m} \sigma_j.$ This cancels the factors of $1/\sigma_j$ in the target probabilities of equations (A.4) and (A.6), leaving an acceptance probability which is bounded, and can be adjusted to be no more than one by ignoring the remaining constant factors.

Appendix B

Obtaining the software

The implementation of Bayesian learning for neural networks described in Appendix A is available free of charge for research and educational purposes. This implementation is written in C, and currently is designed for use only on Unix systems. It does not require any special graphics or user interface environment. The software also does not use any special Unix facilities, but it is nevertheless likely that various modifications would be required in order for it to run in some other environment, and I cannot undertake to provide assistance with any such conversion.

Potential users should note that this software is intended to support research in Bayesian neural network learning, not as a tool for routine data analysis.

The software is available over the Internet, via my World Wide Web home page, at URL

http://www.cs.utoronto.ca/~radford/

It can also be obtained by anonymous ftp to ftp.cs.utoronto.ca, directory pub/radford. Look in the README file there for further instructions.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to say for how long the above instructions will remain valid. If you encounter difficulties, you should be able to find an up-to-date link at Springer-Verlag's Web page, which is currently located at URL

http://www.springer-ny.com/

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176 Bibliography

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Index

 $0-1 \, loss, \, 5$

absolute error loss, 5, 104, 106 activation function, 11, 31, 75, 153 additive models, 148–150 adjustment values, 39, 157 alpha values, 101, 157 artificial intelligence, 2, 10 autocorrelations, 24, 81-85, 90, 97, 106 Automatic Relevance Determination (ARD), 15-17, 102, 113-116, 148 1-level vs. 2-level priors for, 123 alternative to compare with, 114 magnitudes of weights when using, 120, 123, 136, 141–142 prior distributions for, 114–115, 125 tests on LED display problem, 116 - 122tests on robot arm problem, 122 - 125

backpropagation, 13, 70, 111, 163

Bayes' Rule, 5 Bayesian learning, see Bayesian statistics; learning, Bayesian Bayesian statistics, 3 books about, 3 controversy regarding, 2, 5 bias (for a unit), 11, 155 prior distribution for, 158 bias-variance tradeoff, 8 Boltzmann distribution, see canonical distribution Boltzmann machine, 25 Boston housing data, 127 computational performance on, 134 cross-validation tests on, 132 - 136messy aspects of, 127-129 neural network models for, 129 - 132predictive performance on, 131, 132, 134–136 preliminary tests on, 129–132 Quinlan's results on, 133, 134 Brownian functions, 35-37

candidate state, 26	domain of attraction, 43, 159
canonical distribution, 57, 69	
invariance under Hamiltonian	early stopping, 112
dynamics, 59	energy function, 27, 57-58, 68
over phase space, 57	approximations to, 92
CART (Classification and	entropy-based priors, 15
Regression Trees), 116, 119	equilibrium distribution, 24
Cauchy distribution, 35, 43, 46	confirming convergence to, 81,
Central Limit Theorem, 32	87, 106, 143
central region, 36, 52-53	getting close to, 76
classification models, 12, 14, 31,	error on training cases, 12
150, 155	estimator, 3
coin tossing, 3-6	bias and variance of, 8, 9
committee (of networks), 21	MAP, 6
complex models, see model,	maximum likelihood, 4
complexity of	penalized likelihood, 4
computational expense	evaluation of learning methods,
of Bayesian learning using	99–100, 126–127, 152
Gaussian approximation, 88,	evidence approach, 20, 86, 108, 114
152	criticism of, 20
of Bayesian learning using	extrapolation, 52
hybrid Monte Carlo, 87-88,	
152	forensic glass data, 136
of cross-validation, 13	computational performance on,
of rejection sampling from the	138
prior, 19	neural network models for,
computational performance	137–138
on Boston housing data, 134	predictive performance on,
on forensic glass data, 138	139–143
on LED display problem, 119	Ripley's results on, 139
on robot arm problem, 87–88,	fractional Brownian functions,
113, 123, 125	39–40
conjugate prior, 67	hyperparameter controlling, 52
covariance function, 37, 146	with $\eta < 1, 49$
cross validation, 13, 119, 127, 129	free energy (of window), 95
, , ,	frequentist statistics, 3
DELVE project, 152	C 1' 1' 1' 00 67 101
derivatives	Gamma distribution, 39, 67, 101,
erroneous computation of, 73	156
of log likelihood, 162–164	Gaussian approximation, see
of log prior density, 162	posterior distribution,
of potential energy, 58, 70, 93	Gaussian approximation to
detailed balance, 24, 27	Gaussian distribution, 4, 21, 27,
dissipation of energy, 78	43, 159
dogs, weights of, 7	example of sampling from, 62

Gaussian process, 31–42, 146
Brownian, 38
convergence to, 33, 36
covariance function for, 37, 146
direct implementation of, 43,
146
fractional Brownian, 39–40, 146
smooth, 38
Gibbs sampling, 25–26
ergodicity of, 26
for neural network model, 26
invariance for, 25
use in Bayesian inference, 26
use in hybrid Monte Carlo, 60
use in stochastic dynamics, 59

Hamiltonian dynamics, 58-59

invariance of canonical distribution under, 59 simulation of, 59, 61 Hamiltonian function, 57 handwriting recognition, 8 heatbath method, see Gibbs sampling heteroscedasticity, 66, 128 hidden features, 11, 34, 43, 45, 50, 146 hidden layers infinite number, 50-51, 147 more than one, 48-51, 147 hidden unit, 10, 153 step function, 31, 35, 37, 46, 48 tanh, 30, 36, 38, 46 hierarchical models, 6, 14, 51-53, 147 - 150as alternative to comparing several models, 127, 148 determining input relevance, 16 finding additive structure, 148 other uses of, 52, 150hybrid Monte Carlo, 56, 60-63, 150 compared with other methods, 62-63, 88-91demonstration on robot arm data, 76-84

ergodicity of, 61 for bivariate Gaussian, 62-63 for Gaussian process model, 151 for neural network model, 64-66, 68-73invariance for, 61, 98 other variants of, 151 with partial gradients, 91-95 with persistence, 71, 97–98 with windows, 95–96, 118, 138 with windows and partial gradients together, 96-97, 106, 123, 131, 134 hyperbolic tangent (tanh), 11, 75 hyperparameters, 6, 20, 156 common, 67, 102, 115, 156 controlling noise level, 12, 68 controlling prior variance, 14, 66, 101 Gibbs sampling for, 67, 83, 159 - 161in additive models, 149 in ARD models, 16, 102 integration over, 20 maximization with respect to, 20 other ways of handling, 65

infinite networks, 15, 17, 30, 103, 145, 147
initial distribution, 23
initial phase, 76-79, 102, 106, 118
input unit, 10, 153
invariant distribution, 24
irrelevant inputs, 15

kriging, 146 Kullback-Leibler divergence, 22

Langevin Monte Carlo, 61-63 compared with hybrid Monte Carlo, 63, 88 large networks, 102-113 lattice field theory, 56 leapfrog method, 59-60

for simple system, 71	compared with hybrid Monte
stability of, 62, 71, 79	Carlo, 63, 88
with individual stepsizes, 70	ergodicity of, 27
learning	for neural network model, 28
about parameters, 4	invariance for, 27
Bayesian, 3, 4, 13, 17, 18	use in hybrid Monte Carlo, 61
for neural networks, 12, 13	Minimum Description Length, 22
frequentist, 3	mixture models, 9
in daily life, 1	ML-II, 20
theories of, 1	model (probabilistic), 3
LED display problem, 116	based on multilayer perceptron,
Breiman's results on, 117	12, 149
computational performance on,	complexity of, 2, 7-9, 21, 51,
119	103, 145
neural network models for,	hierarchical, 6
117–118	nonparametric, 10, 30
predictive performance on,	parameters of, 3
119–120	posterior probability of, 148
likelihood function, 4, 5, 13, 19	model parameter, see parameters
local minima, 13, 21	momentum variable, 57, 69
logistic regression models, 155	Monte Carlo estimate, 17, 23
loss function, 5	based on dependent sample, 24
Tobb Turious, o	for mean of predictive
Markov chain, 23	distribution, 64, 85
construction of, 25	for median of predictive
describing prior of infinite-layer	distribution, 106
network, 51	for predictive distribution, 20
ergodic, 24	variance of, 24, 85
reversible, 24	multi-fractals, 146
Markov chain Monte Carlo, 22-28	multi-leap, 92
for neural network model, 55–98	multilayer perceptron, 10, 153
reviews of, 23	approximations using, 11, 30
masses, 58, 70	models defined using, 12, 155
relation to stepsizes, 70	posterior distribution for, 19, 64
maximum a posteriori probability	prior distributions for, 14–15,
(MAP) estimate, 6, 111	29, 53
maximum likelihood, 4, 8, 12	multiple inputs, 40, 42
for network applied to robot	multiple outputs, 33, 34, 45
arm problem, 111–112	multiple outputs, 55, 54, 45
maximum penalized likelihood, 4,	neural networks, 10
6, 13, 111	applications of, 2, 12
median (guessing), 104, 106	as models of the brain, 2
method of sieves, 9	large vs. small, 46–48, 103–104
Metropolis algorithm, 26–28	multilayer perceptron, 10, 153
- r	noise level, 12, 66, 155

for robot arm problem, 76 predictive distribution, 5, 6, 14 prior distribution for, 68, 158 for Gaussian process model, 33, non-Gaussian stable process, 43–48 convergence to, 44 for neural network model, 13, nonparametric models, 10 19, 20, 33, 64, 84, 108 normalization of inputs, 115-116, found using Markov chain 128, 137 Monte Carlo, 64, 84–87 median of, 104, 106 Occam's Razor, 2, 7, 9 visualizing, 84 offset (for a unit), 155 predictive performance prior distribution for, 158 on Boston housing data, 131, on-line learning, 91 132, 134–136 output unit, 11, 153 on forensic glass data, 139-143 overfitting, 8, 13, 30, 103, 104, 108, on LED display problem, 112–113, 135 119 - 120on robot arm problem, 85–87, parameters (of a model), 3, 6 104, 107, 125 for a multilayer perceptron, 11, prior distribution, 4, 5 Cauchy, 105 partial gradients, see hybrid Monte choice of, 15, 51 Carlo, with partial gradients combined Gaussian and performance, see computational non-Gaussian, 49 performance; predictive for a multilayer perceptron, performance 14–15, 29–53, 156–158 persistence, see hybrid Monte Gaussian, 14, 16, 17, 31, 104 Carlo, with persistence improper, 7, 75, 105 phase space, 57 limit for infinite network, 32–34, preservation of volume, 59, 60 36, 43-45philosophy of induction, 2, 7, 9 meaning of, 15, 29 Poisson process, 45, 147 non-Gaussian, 16, 43, 44, 104, polynomial models, 9 position variable, 57, 68 random generation from, 17, 18, posterior distribution, 5, 17, 19 30, 36, 45, 147 expectations with respect to, 23 scaling with number of units, for neural network model, 13, 32, 44, 75, 159 19, 64 vague, 7, 17, 67, 105, 114, 137, Gaussian approximation to, 143, 150 19-22, 55-56, 151 probabilistic model, see model modes of, 19–22, 150, 151 proposal distribution, 26-27, 61, 90 precision values, 67, 101, 156 prediction quantum chromodynamics, 56 Bayesian, 5, 6 frequentist, 4, 6 random walks (problem of), 27, 28, uncertainty of, 6, 9, 18, 108 62-63, 79, 89, 97, 150

redundancy in training set, 92

using weighted average, 21

details regarding, 153-167

regression models, 12, 14, 17, 31, how to obtain, 169 verifying correctness of, 73–74 155 squared error loss, 5, 14, 17, 84, regularization, 4, 52 rejection rate, 72, 73, 81, 90, 91, 104, 106 96 - 98stable distributions, 43, 159 stationary distribution, see rejection sampling, 19 invariant distribution for high-level hyperparameters, 160 statistical physics, 22, 26 for posterior of network model, step function, 31, 35 stepsize, 60, 61 19, 74, 166–167 robot arm problem, 75 for Langevin Monte Carlo, 63 computational performance on, heuristic choice of, 72–73, 87–88, 113, 123, 125 164 - 166demonstration of relation to masses, 70 selection of, 62, 66, 71-73 implementation on, 76-84 stepsize adjustment factor, 72, 106 large networks applied to, 104-113 choice of, 77, 79, 133 MacKay's results on, 86, 88, 108 stochastic dynamics, 58-60 maximum likelihood applied to, compared with hybrid Monte Carlo, 90-91 111-112ergodicity of, 59 neural network models for, 75-76, 104-106, 122 for neural network model, 65 systematic error in, 60 predictive performance on, structural risk minimization, 9 85-87, 104, 107, 125 tests of ARD on, 122-125 super-transitions, 77, 102 t-distribution, 44, 52, 101, 128, sampling phase, 76, 81-84, 102, 106, 118 156, 157 targets, 12, 64, 155 second derivatives of log likelihood, 164 binary, 156 of log posterior density, 19, 164 discrete, 12, 156 real-valued, 12, 155 of log prior density, 166 of potential energy, 72 temperature, 57 tempering, 143, 151 sigma values, 156 simulated annealing, 26, 65, 143 test case, 13, 64 tests of performance, 99-100, smart Monte Carlo, 62 126-127, 152 smooth functions, 14, 15, 36, 37 smoothing splines, 146 time (fictitious), 58 timing figures, 74, 102 softmax model, 12, 14, 117, 138, training cases, 12, 64 155 software implementing Bayesian trajectory, 59 neural network learning computed using partial gradients, 92-93 demonstration of, 74–88 error in H along, 62, 79design decisions for, 65-66

optimal length of, 59, 62, 79-81, 106, 133
variation of quantities along, 79, 106
transition probabilities, 23
tuning (of implementation), 66

underfitting, 13, 103, 108

vague prior, see prior distribution, vague validation set, 13-14, 112, 113

weight (on a connection), 10, 155
prior distribution for, 157
weight decay, 13, 14, 113
width values, 157
windows, see hybrid Monte Carlo,
with windows

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