

ST451 - Lent term

Bayesian Machine Learning

Kostas Kalogeropoulos

Bayesian Inference Concepts

Outline

- 1 Practical Information - Course content
- 2 Machine Learning and Bayesian Inference
- 3 Bayes Estimators, Credible Intervals and Forecasting
- 4 Bayesian Inference via Monte Carlo methods

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Teaching

My name is **Kostas Kalogeropoulos** and will be doing the lectures and one computer class group.

Phil Chan and **Gianluca Giudice** will teach the other two computer classes groups.

Lectures: 2 hours every week on Monday 13:00–15:00 in room NAB.2.04 (except week 6 which is NAB.LG.01).

Computer Classes: 3 groups Mon 15:00-16:30, Tue 16:00-17:30 and Thu 15:00-16:30.

In Class

During lectures we will cover the theory and go through several examples.

Recordings will be available on Moodle but try to attend lectures anyway.

During computer classes we will go through the computer part of the course.

Class attendance is compulsory and will be recorded on LSE for You.

Moodle and Course Webpage

All relevant material will be posted on either Moodle or the [course webpage](#). The Moodle Enrolment key: **Laplace**

- Slides for each lecture.
- Recording of lectures.
- Code for each computer class
- Problem sets each Monday.
- Solution of problem sets with code once you have handed them back.

Computing

- **Python** will be used throughout the course.
- You can either bring **your laptop** to the computer classes or use the **room's PC**.
- Install **Anaconda** from the link below (Python 3.7 version)

`https://www.anaconda.com/download/`

Weekly formative assignments

Each week you will be assigned a **problem set** containing both theoretical and computer exercises.

It will be due **next week**. Submit in Columbia House **Box 34**. Write your **class group number** in the first page

Hand in everything you are able to solve even if it is not complete. Marks **don't count** in the final grade but are recorded on **LSE for You**.

Problem sets will be returned **marked with feedback** during the class of the week after you handed them in.

Assessment

An **individual** project will be assigned on **week 7** and will be due Tuesday, May 12th noon. You will be required to analyse data of your choice using the taught Bayesian Machine Learning techniques and present your findings through a paper-like report.

During summer term the course is assessed by a 2 hour **written exam**.

The final grade will be determined by the above with equal weights (**50-50%**).

Questions and Feedback

1. Ask questions in class.
2. Office and Feedback hours: COL.6.10 on Monday 10:30–12:00.
3. Use the forum on Moodle.
4. Feel free to send emails but please try to avoid questions that might be of interest for all the class; use Moodle forum instead.

Syllabus

- Weeks 1-2: Bayesian Inference Concepts
- Weeks 2-3: Linear Regression
- Week 4: Classification
- Week 5: Graphical Models
- Week 6: Mixture Models and Clustering
- Week 7: Approximate Inference
- Week 8: Sampling methods
- Week 9: Sequential Data
- Week 10: Gaussian Processes

Reading

Lecture slides will be **sufficient** for exam purposes but for further reading you can check the books below:

- C. M. Bishop, Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning, Springer 2006
- K. Murphy, Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective, MIT Press, 2012
- D. Barber, Bayesian Reasoning and Machine Learning, Cambridge University Press 2012
- S. Rogers and M. Girolami, A First Course in Machine Learning, Second Edition, Chapman and Hall/CRC, 2016

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Skills of a Data Scientist

MODERN DATA SCIENTIST

Data Scientist, the sexiest job of 21st century requires a mixture of multidisciplinary skills ranging from an intersection of mathematics, statistics, computer science, communication and business. Finding a data scientist is hard. Finding people who understand who a data scientist is, is equally hard. So here is a little cheat sheet on who the modern data scientist really is.

MATH & STATISTICS

- ☆ Machine learning
- ☆ Statistical modeling
- ☆ Experiment design
- ☆ Bayesian inference
- ☆ Supervised learning: decision trees, random forests, logistic regression
- ☆ Unsupervised learning: clustering, dimensionality reduction
- ☆ Optimization: gradient descent and variants

DOMAIN KNOWLEDGE & SOFT SKILLS

- ☆ Passionate about the business
- ☆ Curious about data
- ☆ Influence without authority
- ☆ Hacker mindset
- ☆ Problem solver
- ☆ Strategic, proactive, creative, innovative and collaborative



PROGRAMMING & DATABASE

- ☆ Computer science fundamentals
- ☆ Scripting language e.g. Python
- ☆ Statistical computing package e.g. R
- ☆ Databases SQL and NoSQL
- ☆ Relational algebra
- ☆ Parallel databases and parallel query processing
- ☆ MapReduce concepts
- ☆ Hadoop and Hive/Pig
- ☆ Custom reducers
- ☆ Experience with xaaS like AWS

COMMUNICATION & VISUALIZATION

- ☆ Able to engage with senior management
- ☆ Story telling skills
- ☆ Translate data-driven insights into decisions and actions
- ☆ Visual art design
- ☆ R packages like ggplot or lattice
- ☆ Knowledge of any of visualization tools e.g. Flare, D3.js, Tableau

Machine Learning and related fields

Machine Learning: A set of methods that can automatically detect patterns in data, and then use them to predict future data, or take decisions under uncertainty.

Related fields:

- *Data Mining:* Data Mining focuses on discovering unknown patterns in the data. Machine Learning wants to **use these patterns to complete some tasks**.
- *Optimisation:* Optimisation aims in minimising some kind of loss in the data. Machine Learning focuses on **unseen future data**.
- *Statistics:* Closely linked. In statistics we typically have **probability models**. In machine we may **also have algorithmic models**.

Why Bayesian vs Standard Machine Learning?

- **Being Bayesian without realising it:** Penalised methods, such as Lasso/Ridge regression, make more sense as Bayesian methods.
- **Know when you don't know:** Natural framework for handling uncertainty in predictions.
- **Principled probabilistic framework:** Leads to techniques such as graphical models, sequential methods, Gaussian processes.
- **Philosophical background:** Natural framework for learning.

Defining probability

Frequentist definition: If the experiment was repeated many times, probability of A is the **frequency** f_n in which a given event A is realised.

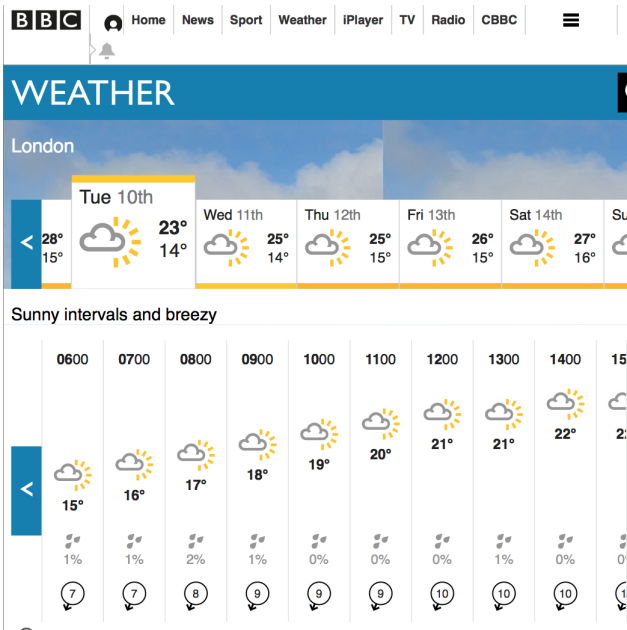
$$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n.$$

Subjective definition: $P(A)$: a number in $[0, 1]$ reflecting our **beliefs** on how likely A is (0:impossible, 1:certain).

Example: Probability of heads when tossing a fair coin?

- If we toss a fair coin n times, where n is large, **count** the number of times we get head say k_n over n . If the coin is fair, we should get 0.5.
- Alternatively, we can argue that it makes sense for this probability to be 0.5 as we **believe** that heads and tails are equally likely.

Probability of rain in a particular day?



Frequentist Probability and Time Travel?



Frequentist Probability and Multiverse?



Statistical Analysis or Machine learning setting

- Consider **data** $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ from a real world application.
- Assign a suitable **probability model aka likelihood** for data y and parameter(s) $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_p)$.

$$f(y_1, \dots, y_n | \theta_1, \dots, \theta_p) = f(y | \theta).$$

- Use y to **learn** about θ and answer the relevant questions or **predict** future y .

Prior Information

Consider the following 3 experiments where the **probability of a correct answer** θ is of interest.

- 1 A lady claims that by tasting a cup of tea with milk she can tell whether the milk was poured into the cup before the tea. In 9 out of 10 trials she gets it right.
- 2 A musical expert claims that he can distinguish by a small music part whether it is Mozart or Haydn. He gets it right in 9 out of 10 times.
- 3 A drunk man claims he can predict the outcome of a fair coin flip. In 9 flips out of 10 he is correct.

Frequentist approach: Test $H_0 : \theta = 0.5$ vs $H_1 : \theta > 0.5$.

This gives p-value ≈ 0.01 concluding **genuine skill in all cases**.

Bayes theorem for events

Clearly there exists some relevant information prior to the experiments. Bayesian inference formally seeks to utilise prior information on θ by the so-called **prior** distribution $\pi(\theta)$

Bayes Theorem for Events: In terms of events and their probabilities, let A and B be two events such that $P(A) > 0$. then $P(B|A)$ and $P(A|B)$ are related by

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A|B)P(B)}{P(A|B)P(B) + P(A|B^c)P(B^c)}$$

More generally if B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k form a partition (k can be ∞), we can write for all $j = 1, \dots, k$

$$P(B_j|A) = \frac{P(A|B_j)P(B_j)}{P(A)}, \text{ where } P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

Bayesian Statistical model

We treat θ as a random variable and assign the **prior** pdf $\pi(\theta)$. The prior reflects our beliefs on θ **before** seeing the data.

The posterior distribution reflects our beliefs on θ **after** seeing the data and is the main object for inference. It is given by

$$\pi(\theta|y) = \frac{f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)}{f(y)}, \text{ where } f(y) = \int f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta$$

The term $f(y)$ is known as **marginal likelihood** or **evidence** and reflects probability of the data under the adopted probability model. It may also be viewed as a normalising constant.

Features of Bayesian Inference

- **Prior information:** Every problem is different and has its own context which can (in theory) be reflected via the prior distribution.

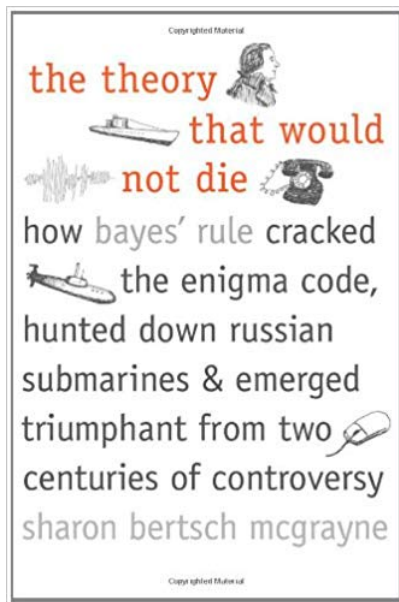
Criticism: It is not always clear how to define the prior distribution. Results depend on the choice of it.

- **Subjective probability:** Accepting the subjective basis of knowledge. Also always defined contrary to the frequentist definition that applies to inherently repeatable events.

Criticism: No guarantee that your quantification of uncertainty will be seen by others as 'good'.

- **Common misconception:** Bayesians believe that there is a **single unknown** value for θ . A distribution is assigned only to express **subjective uncertainty** not because the truth is random.

History of Frequentist vs Bayesian Inference



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Bayes Estimators

Point estimators: functions of y (and other known things but not θ), that provide an **educated guess** for θ . e.g. MLEs, Method of Moments, least square estimators etc.

Bayes estimators provide another alternative. They minimise the posterior and Bayes risk (beyond the scope of the course).

We will focus on the following Bayes estimators:

- The **posterior mean** $\hat{\theta} = E(\theta|y) = \int_{\theta} \theta \pi(\theta|y) d\theta$.
- The **posterior median** $\hat{\theta} = q$ such that $\pi(\theta \leq q|y) = 0.5$.
- The **posterior mode**, aka MAP, $\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \pi(\theta|y)$.

Bayesian (Credible) Intervals

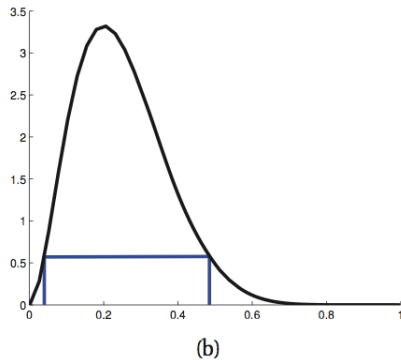
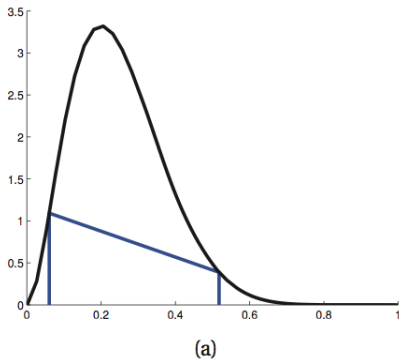
Frequentist 95% Confidence Interval for θ : If the experiment was repeated many times and we constructed a confidence interval each time with the same procedure, 95% of these intervals would contain the true θ .

(Bayesian) 95% Credible Interval for θ : θ is in a 95% credible interval with probability 95%.

Note that there exist many 95% credible intervals as well as many 95% confidence intervals.

Construction: A 95% credible interval, is usually defined by the 2.5% to the 97.5% points of $\pi(\theta|y)$. Another option is the Highest Posterior Density intervals.

Illustration of Credible Intervals



Beta-Binomial Example

Suppose that y is $\text{Binomial}(n, \theta)$. The **likelihood** is given by

$$f(y|\theta) = \binom{n}{y} \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} \propto \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y}$$

As $0 < \theta < 1$ a corresponding distribution must be chosen as the **prior**, e.g. the $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$, for some known positive α, β .

$$\pi(\theta) \propto \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}$$

The **posterior** distribution can then be obtained as

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\theta|y) &\propto f(y|\theta)\pi(\theta) \propto \theta^y (1 - \theta)^{n-y} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1} \\ &= \theta^{\alpha+y-1} (1 - \theta)^{n-y+\beta-1} \\ &\stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \text{Beta}(\alpha + y, n - y + \beta) \end{aligned}$$

Beta-Binomial Example (cont'd)

Bayes Estimators:

- Posterior mean, equal to $\frac{\alpha+y}{\alpha+\beta+n}$.
Different than the MLE which is y/n
- Posterior mode, equal to $\frac{\alpha+y-1}{\alpha+\beta+n-2}$.
Coincides with the MLE for $\alpha = \beta = 1$, i.e. Uniform(0, 1) prior.

Credible Intervals: Use the 2.5-th and 97.5-th percentiles - today's computer class.

Prior Specification

Prior Elicitation: Use existing information about θ , e.g. if for $\theta > 0$ it is known that $E[\theta] = 5$ and $\text{Var}[\theta] = 4$, assign the $\text{Gamma}(6.25, 1.25)$.

What if no information is available?

Transformation Invariance principle: If no information is available for θ then no information should be available for any deterministic function of θ either.

Jeffreys prior: $\pi(\theta) \propto |I(\theta)|^{1/2}$, $I(\theta)$ is Fisher's information.
If $\theta = g(\phi)$ the Jeffreys prior for ϕ is $\pi(\phi) \propto |I(\phi)|^{1/2}$.

Usually not a proper distribution but posterior can be proper.

Transformation invariance of Fisher's information

Fisher's information for θ : Given $f(y|\theta)$, it is defined as

$$I(\theta) = E_Y \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(y|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right)^2 \right] = -E_Y \left(\frac{\partial^2 \log f(y|\theta)}{\partial \theta^2} \right).$$

Lemma: Let $\theta = g(\phi)$. Then if $\theta \sim \pi_\theta(\theta)$ the pdf of ϕ is

$$\pi_\phi(\phi) = \pi_\theta(g(\phi)) \left| \frac{\partial g(\phi)}{\partial \phi} \right| = \pi_\theta(\theta) \left| \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right|$$

Transformation invariance proof: Let $\pi_\theta(\theta) \propto I(\theta)^{1/2}$ and take

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_\phi(\phi) &= \pi_\theta(\theta) \left| \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right| \propto E_Y \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(y|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \left(\left| \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right|^2 \right)^{1/2} \\ &= E_Y \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(y|\theta)}{\partial \theta} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} = E_Y \left[\left(\frac{\partial \log f(y|\phi)}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} = I(\phi)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

'Low' informative priors

In practice, when there is no prior information, a **low** informative distribution, e.g. with high variance is selected.

This is **usually ok** for point/interval estimation.

It can be **dangerous** for some Hypothesis testing cases though (to be discussed later).

Bayesian Prediction/Forecasting

Let y_n denote a **future** observation. Under the assumption that y_n comes from the **same** probability model as y , we are interested predicting its value.

Under Bayesian Prediction/Forecasting this is done via the *(posterior-)predictive* distribution that combines the uncertainty of the **unknown parameters** θ as well as the uncertainty of the **future** observation:

$$f(y_n|y) = \int f(y_n|\theta)\pi(\theta|y)d\theta.$$

The predictive distribution can be used in different ways (e.g. point prediction, interval prediction, etc) depending on the forecasting task at hand.

Poisson-Gamma Example

Let $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ with y_i 's being independent and $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. The **likelihood** is given by the joint density of the sample

$$f(y|\lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\exp(-\lambda) \lambda^{y_i}}{y_i!} \propto \exp(-n\lambda) \lambda^{\sum y_i}$$

As $\lambda > 0$ assign the $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ as the **prior** for λ

$$\pi(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta\lambda)$$

The **posterior** can then be obtained as

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\lambda|y) &\propto f(y|\lambda)\pi(\lambda) \propto \exp(-n\lambda) \lambda^{\sum y_i} \lambda^{\alpha-1} \exp(-\beta\lambda) \\ &= \lambda^{\alpha+\sum y_i-1} \exp(-n\lambda - \beta\lambda) \\ &= \lambda^{\alpha+\sum y_i-1} \exp[-\lambda(n + \beta)] \\ &\stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \text{Gamma}(\alpha + \sum y_i, n + \beta) \end{aligned}$$

Poisson-Gamma Example (cont'd)

Bayes Estimator:

Posterior mean, equal to

$$\frac{\alpha + n\bar{y}}{n + \beta} = \dots = \left(1 - \frac{n}{n + \beta}\right) \frac{\alpha}{\beta} + \frac{n}{n + \beta} \bar{y},$$

which is a weighted average between the prior mean and \bar{y} (MLE). As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the posterior mean **converges** to \bar{y} .

Credible Intervals: Use the 2.5-th and 97.5-th percentiles - today's computer class.

Poisson-Gamma Example - Prior

Prior Elicitation:

If prior knowledge for λ exists, it can be used to specify α and β , e.g. if $E[\lambda] = 5$ and $\text{Var}[\lambda] = 4$, set $\alpha = 6.25$, $\beta = 1.25$.

Low Informative prior:

Set $\alpha = \beta = 0.001$, then $\text{Var}[\lambda] = 1000$ - quite 'flat'.

Jeffreys prior:

Fisher's information $I(\lambda) = n/\lambda$ (see this week's exercises), hence $\pi(\lambda) \propto \lambda^{-1/2}$. Corresponds the $\text{Gamma}(1/2 + \sum y_i, n)$ as posterior.

A trick for calculating integrals

Let λ be Gamma(A, B) for some positive A, B . It's pdf can be written as

$$f(\lambda|A, B) = \frac{B^A}{\Gamma(A)} \lambda^{A-1} \exp(-B\lambda)$$

for all positive A, B and λ .

Not that $f(\lambda|A, B)$ is a pdf so it integrates to 1. Hence we can write (for all positive A, B and λ)

$$\int_0^\infty \lambda^{A-1} \exp(-B\lambda) d\lambda = \frac{\Gamma(A)}{B^A}$$

We can do this for all known pdfs.

Poisson-Gamma (posterior-)predictive distribution

Let now y_n denote a **future** observation from the same $\text{Poisson}(\lambda)$ model. The **predictive** distribution for y_n is

$$\begin{aligned} f(y_n|y) &= \int_0^\infty f(y_n|\lambda)\pi(\lambda|y)d\lambda \\ &= \int_0^\infty \frac{\exp(-\lambda)\lambda^{y_n}}{y_n!} \frac{(n+\beta)^{\alpha+\sum y_i}}{\Gamma(\alpha+\sum y_i)} \lambda^{\alpha+\sum y_i-1} \exp(-(n+\beta)\lambda)d\lambda \\ &= \frac{(n+\beta)^{\alpha+\sum y_i}}{y_n!\Gamma(\alpha+\sum y_i)} \int_0^\infty \lambda^{\alpha+y_n+\sum y_i-1} \exp(-(n+\beta+1)\lambda)d\lambda \\ &= \frac{(n+\beta)^{\alpha+\sum y_i}}{y_n!\Gamma(\alpha+\sum y_i)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+y_n+\sum y_i)}{(n+\beta+1)^{\alpha+y_n+\sum y_i}} \end{aligned}$$

for $y_n = 0, 1, \dots$

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Why arthe posterior or the predictive needed?

So far we saw methods to find the posterior or the predictive distributions. Why do we need them?

- To find their mean, median or mode of the posterior - **Bayes Estimation**.
- To find the 2.5-th and 97.5-th percentiles of the posterior - **Credible Intervals**.
- Same for the **predictive** to obtain a prediction or a prediction interval.
- May even want to calculate probabilities for certain values values of future observations.

Essentially we only need to calculate **expectations** wrt these distributions. No need to know them, it suffices to be able to **simulate** from them.

Monte Carlo Calculation of Expectation

Monte Carlo

Let $F(x)$ be a probability distribution and $h(x)$ be a function such that $E_X(h(X)) < \infty$. Also let $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be a sample from F . Then **law of large numbers** implies that as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$E_X(h(X)) \rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n h(x_i)$$

Implementation

Draw x_1, \dots, x_n from F and calculate the integral using the sample mean. The error becomes **arbitrarily small** as n increases.

Simulating from distributions

- For most known distributions simulation is straightforward using a computer package (and of course Python).
- If we can simulate from the likelihood and the posterior we can also simulate from the **predictive** distribution in the following two steps:
 - 1 Simulate samples θ^* from the **posterior** $\pi(\theta|y)$.
 - 2 Simulate samples of potential future data y_n from the **likelihood** $f(y|\theta^*)$.
- It is actually possible to simulate from the posterior distribution **without fully knowing it**. We will come back to on Week 8.

Today's lecture - Reading

Murphy: 2.1-2.7, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 6.6.1 and 6.6.2