**Bayesian Inference and Data Modelling** 

#### **Bayesian Inference**

- Let us now examine Bayesian inference in the context of real data modeling problems, such as those found in computer vision.
- We begin with the simple problem of fitting data to a model.

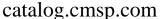


**Problem:** Given a set of data points acquired from a set of measurements, infer the underlying model that generated the points.

• This problem is typical in computer vision:

#### Brain ventricle



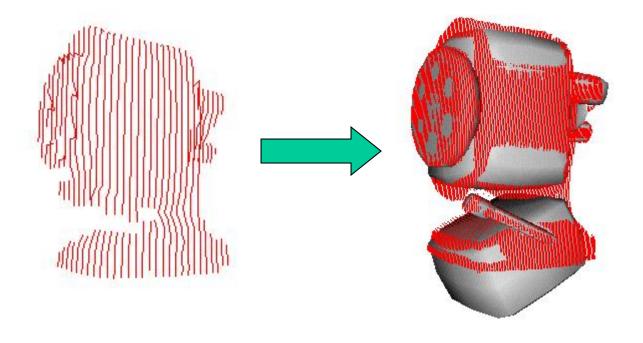




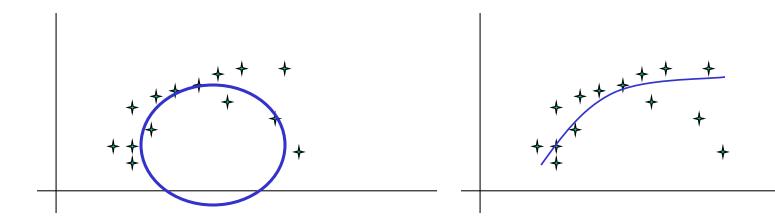
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Range image

Parametric model



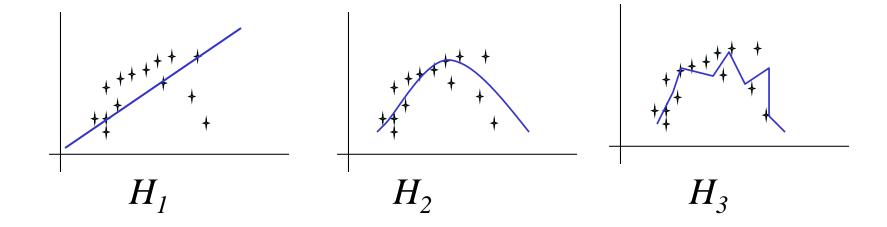
 This problem is ill-posed in that many different models could lead to the same measurements. The uniqueness constraint is violated.



What is the difference between a frequentist and a Bayesian approach to this problem?

- Frequentist approach: Try to estimate the "true" underlying model through optimization.
- Bayesian approach: There is no *true* model. Even if there were, we will never know what it is due to the uncertainty in the measurement process. The best we can do is try to infer the probability of competing hypotheses given the measurements.

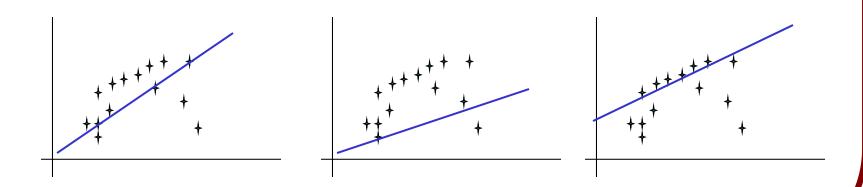
• Let  $H_i$  denote the different hypotheses about the types of models possible:



- There are two stages of inference to this problem:
  - 1. Model fitting
  - 2. Model comparison

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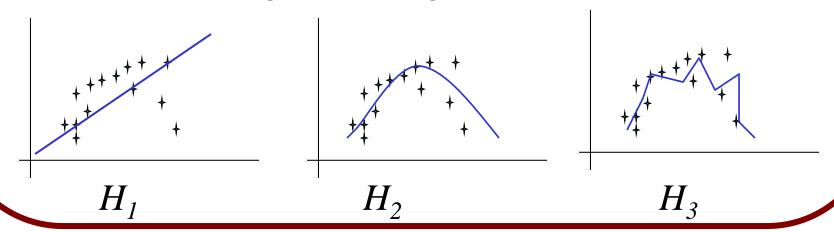
• At the *first* level of inference, we assume a particular model hypothesis is true (e.g.  $H_1$ ). We infer what the model parameters w might be given the data:



- This process is repeated for each model.
- The results of this inference stage are often (but not always) summarized by the most probable parameter values,  $\mathbf{w}_{MP}$ , and error bars on these parameters.
- If the result is in this format, applying Bayesian methods to this problem is little different from the solution given by orthodox statistics.

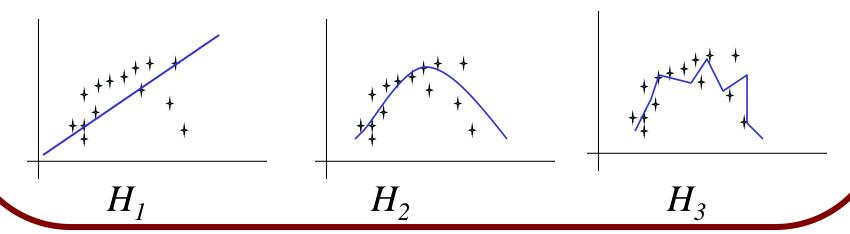
- There are two stages of inference to this problem:
  - 1. Model fitting
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- At the *second* level of inference, we wish to infer which model is most plausible given the data.
- We wish to compare the models in light of the data, and assign rankings to the alternatives.

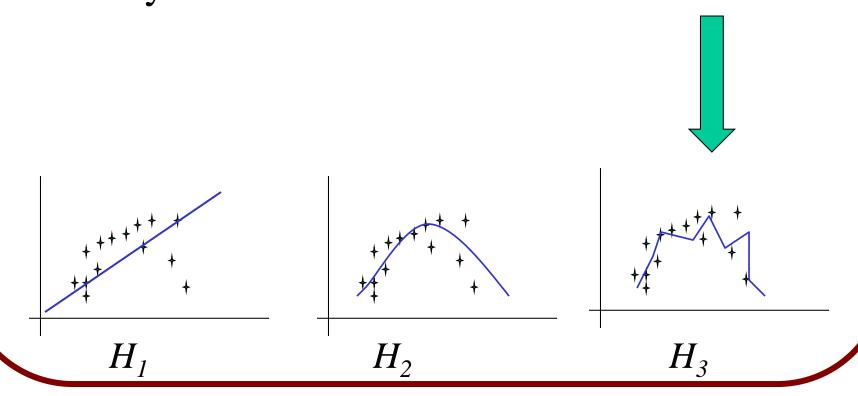


• It is here that Bayesian methods are different from maximum likelihood methods.

• Why don't we simply choose the model that fits the data best?



• It is not simply a matter of choosing the model that fits the data best – complex models will usually fit the data better



• Maximum likelihood models would lead to over-parametrized models that don't generalize well.

• Recall that the ill-posedness of the problem is related to the solution space.

• Intuitively, one can see that the complex model defines a solution subspace in F which renders the problem more ill-posed than the case of the simplest model.

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• Recall that the ill-posedness of the problem is related to the solution space.

• Intuitively, one can see that the complex model defines a solution subspace in F which renders the problem more ill-posed than the case of the simplest model.

 This is because of the *instability* caused by the model complexity.

• How do both the Tikhonov and the Bayesian approaches render the problem well-posed?

- Tikhonov regularization methods:
  - Define a "smoothing" stabilizer on a subset of F.
  - Perform unconstrained optimization to find solution, z, which minimizes the stabilizer subject to consistency with the data.
- What would an equivalent Bayesian regularization scheme involve?

• An equivalent Bayesian regularization scheme would map to developing a strong prior which favors the "smoother" solution.

Recall:

$$P(u \mid z) = \frac{\exp(-\beta \rho_U(Az, u))}{Z_1}$$

$$P(z) = \frac{\exp(-\beta \alpha \Omega[z])}{Z_2}$$

$$P(u) = \frac{Z}{Z_1 Z_2}$$

• An equivalent Bayesian regularization scheme would map to developing a strong prior which favors the "smoother" solution.



 $P(H_i \mid D) \propto P(D \mid H_i)P(H_i)$ 

• Is this necessary?

• Do we need to add in a strong prior to favor the simpler model?

What if we have no such predisposition?

It turns out that we do not!

• Bayesian methods embed *Occam's razor* that naturally penalizes overly complex models:

If several explanations are compatible with a set of observations, Occam's razor advises us to choose the simplest.

"Coherent inference (as embodied by Bayesian probability) automatically embodies Occam's razor, quantitatively."

<sup>1</sup>Mackay, Chap. 28, pg. 344.

• Suppose we wish to evaluate the plausibility of  $H_1$  (simpler) and  $H_2$  (more complex) in light of data D using Bayes' Theory:

$$\frac{P(H_1 \mid D)}{P(H_2 \mid D)} = \frac{P(H_1)}{P(H_2)} \frac{P(D \mid H_1)}{P(D \mid H_2)}$$

 $\frac{P(H_1)}{P(H_2)}$  Measures how much our initial beliefs favor  $H_1$  over  $H_2$ .

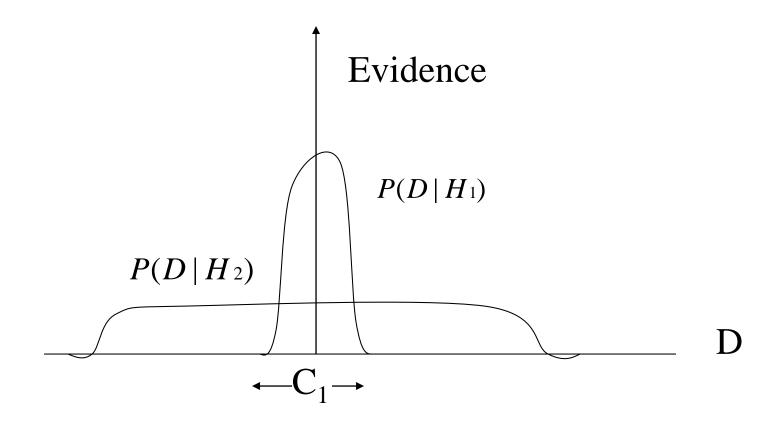
 $\frac{P(D|H_1)}{P(D|H_2)}$  Measures how well observed data were predicted by  $H_1$  over  $H_2$ .

 $\frac{P(H_1)}{P(H_2)}$ 

Gives us the opportunity to insert prior bias based on experience, aesthetic reasons.

Here we can state explicit constraint as in regularization.

This prior bias is not necessary in that the data-dependent factor embodies *Occam's* razor automatically.



- Simple models tend to make more precise predictions. Complex models capable of making greater variety of predictions  $P(D/H_2)$  more thinly spread out.
- $H_2$  does not predict the data sets in  $C_1$  as strongly as  $H_1$ .

- When:
  - Data are compatible in with both models,
  - Equal prior probably probabilities assigned to both models,

#### Then:

Simpler model will be more probable than complex model, if data falls in region C<sub>1</sub>.

• At the *first* level of inference, we assume a particular model hypothesis is true (e.g.  $H_1$ ). We infer what the model parameters w might be given the data:

$$P(\mathbf{w} \mid D, H_i) = \frac{P(D \mid \mathbf{w}, H_i)P(\mathbf{w} \mid H_i)}{P(D \mid H_i)}$$

$$Posterior = \frac{\text{Likelihood} \times \text{Prior}}{\text{Evidence}}$$

- Common practice to use gradient methods to find maximum of posterior:  $\mathbf{w}_{MP}$ .
- Summarize posterior by value of  $\mathbf{w}_{MP}$ , and confidence intervals on best fit parameters, attained from curvature of posterior.
- Evaluating the Hessian A at  $\mathbf{w}_{MP}$ , and Taylor expanding the log posterior probability with

$$\Delta \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w}_{MP}$$
:

$$P(\mathbf{w} \mid D, H_i) \simeq P(\mathbf{w}_{MP} \mid D, H_i) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\Delta \mathbf{w} \mathbf{A} \Delta \mathbf{w})$$

- Posterior locally approximated by Gaussian with covariance matrix  $\mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- Whether or this approximation is good or not depends on problem we are solving.

• We wish to infer the most plausible model given the data. The posterior probability for each model is:

$$P(H_i \mid D) \propto P(D \mid H_i)P(H_i)$$

 $P(D | H_i)$  Evidence for  $H_i$ 

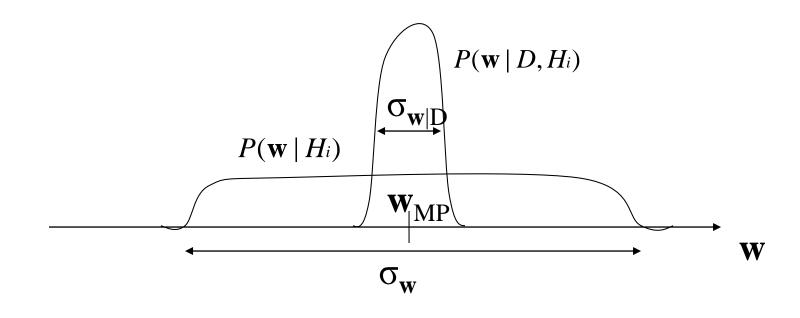
 $P(H_i)$  Subjective prior over hypothesis space: How plausibility of alternative models before data arrived.

- Assuming equal priors, rank hypotheses by evaluating the *evidence*, which embodies Occam's razor.
- Evidence can be evaluated for parametric, nonparametric models, any data modelling problem: regression, density estimation, classification.

$$P(\mathbf{w} \mid D, H_i) = \frac{P(D \mid \mathbf{w}, H_i)P(\mathbf{w} \mid H_i)}{P(D \mid H_i)}$$

where 
$$P(D \mid H_i) = \int P(D \mid \mathbf{w}, H_i) P(\mathbf{w} \mid H_i) d\mathbf{w}$$

For many problems, posterior has strong peak at  $\mathbf{w}_{\mathbf{MP}}$ .



Evidence can then be approximated using Laplace's method – height of peak of integrand  $P(D \mid \mathbf{w}, H_i)P(\mathbf{w} \mid H_i)$  times width:  $\sigma_{\mathbf{w}\mid D}$ 

$$P(D \mid H_i) \simeq P(D \mid \mathbf{w}_{MP}, H_i) \times P(\mathbf{w}_{MP} \mid H_i) \sigma_{w \mid D}$$

Evidence = Best fit likelihood × Occam factor

#### **Occam Factor**

If  $P(\mathbf{w} | H_i)$  is uniform on some large interval,  $\sigma_w$ ,

$$P(\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{MP}} | H_i) = \frac{1}{\sigma_w}$$

Occam factor=
$$\frac{\sigma_{w|D}}{\sigma_w}$$

Occam factor is equal to the ratio of the posterior accessible volume of  $H_i$ 's parameter space to the prior accessible volume.

#### **Occam Factor**

- Logarithm of Occam factor measures amount of information gain about model parameters after data arrives.
- Complex model penalized more by Occam factor than simpler model (due to larger  $\sigma_{\rm w}$ ).
- Occam factor also penalizes models that have to be fine tuned to fit data (smaller  $\sigma_{w|D}$ ).
- Model that achieves greatest evidence: tradeoff between minimizing natural complexity measure and minimizing data misfit.

#### **Occam Factor**

Occam factor for a model easy to evaluate –
depends on error bars on parameters, which
were already evaluated when fitting the model
to the data.

#### Inference vs. Decision Theory

- Inference is different from decision theory.
- Goal of inference: Given defined hypothesis space and particular data set, assign probabilities to hypotheses.
- Goal of decision theory: choose between alternative *actions* on basis of these probabilities so as to minimize expectation of "loss function".

### Inference vs. Decision Theory

- Model comparison does not imply model choice – making predictions based on all information.
- Decision theory would involve:
  - Choosing future actions
  - Deciding whether to create new models
  - Deciding what data to gather next (active vision)