

Advanced Data Analytics

Lecture week 6: Evidence procedure

Ian T. Nabney

- Understand approximations involved in evidence procedure
- Application of evidence procedure to Bayesian linear regression
- Application of evidence procedure to PCA

Further reading: Bishop sections 3.5 and 12.2.3. Other models can be found in sections 4.4, 4.5 and 5.7.

Evidence approximation

- Recall the linear basis function model

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$$

where the probabilistic form has a Gaussian noise model with zero mean and inverse variance β and a weight prior with zero mean and spherical inverse variance α .

- In a fully Bayesian treatment of the linear basis function model, we would introduce prior distributions over the hyperparameters α and β and make predictions by marginalizing with respect to these hyperparameters as well as with respect to the parameters \mathbf{w} .
- However, although we can integrate analytically over either \mathbf{w} or over the hyperparameters, the complete marginalization over all of these variables is analytically intractable.
- In the evidence approximation we set the hyperparameters to specific values determined by maximizing the **marginal likelihood function** obtained by first integrating over the parameters \mathbf{w} .

Evidence procedure framework

- If we introduce hyperpriors over α and β , the predictive distribution is obtained by marginalizing over \mathbf{w} , α and β so that

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}) = \iiint p(t|\mathbf{w}, \beta) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) p(\alpha, \beta|\mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w} d\alpha d\beta \quad (1)$$

- If the posterior distribution $p(\alpha, \beta|\mathbf{t})$ is sharply peaked around values $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$, then the predictive distribution is obtained simply by marginalizing over \mathbf{w} in which α and β are fixed to the values $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$, so that

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}) \simeq p(t|\mathbf{t}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) = \int p(t|\mathbf{w}, \hat{\beta}) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) d\mathbf{w}. \quad (2)$$

The posterior distribution for α and β is given by

$$p(\alpha, \beta|\mathbf{t}) \propto p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha, \beta) p(\alpha, \beta). \quad (3)$$

If the prior is relatively flat, then in the evidence framework the values of $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ are obtained by maximizing the marginal likelihood function $p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha, \beta)$.

Evaluating the evidence function

- We can write the evidence function in the form

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha, \beta) = \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi}\right)^{N/2} \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^{M/2} \int \exp\{-E(\mathbf{w})\} d\mathbf{w} \quad (4)$$

where M is the dimensionality of \mathbf{w} , and we have defined

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathbf{w}) &= \beta E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \alpha E_W(\mathbf{w}) \\ &= \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{t} - \Phi\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

- Introduce

$$\mathbf{A} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \Phi^T \Phi = \nabla \nabla E(\mathbf{w}) \quad (6)$$

\mathbf{A} is the matrix of second derivatives of the error function, the **Hessian**.

- The log of the marginal likelihood in the form

$$\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{M}{2} \ln \alpha + \frac{N}{2} \ln \beta - E(\mathbf{m}_N) - \frac{1}{2} \ln |\mathbf{A}| - \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi) \quad (7)$$

which is the required expression for the evidence function.

Maximising the evidence function: α

- Defining the following eigenvector equation

$$\left(\beta\Phi^T\Phi\right)\mathbf{u}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{u}_i. \quad (8)$$

Then \mathbf{A} has eigenvalues $\alpha + \lambda_i$.

- Now consider the derivative of the term involving $\ln|\mathbf{A}|$ in (7) with respect to α . We have

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} \ln|\mathbf{A}| = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \ln \prod_i (\lambda_i + \alpha) = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \sum_i \ln(\lambda_i + \alpha) = \sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i + \alpha}. \quad (9)$$

Thus the stationary points of (7) with respect to α satisfy

$$0 = \frac{M}{2\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{m}_N^T \mathbf{m}_N - \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i + \alpha}. \quad (10)$$

Write

$$\gamma = M - \frac{1}{\lambda_i + \alpha} = \sum_i \frac{\lambda_i}{\alpha + \lambda_i}. \quad (11)$$

- So the value of α that maximizes the marginal likelihood satisfies (11)

$$\alpha = \frac{\gamma}{\mathbf{m}_N^T \mathbf{m}_N}. \quad (12)$$

This is an implicit solution for α not only because γ depends on α , but also because the mode \mathbf{m}_N of the posterior distribution depends on the choice of α .

Maximising the evidence function: β

- The eigenvalues λ_i are proportional to β , and hence $d\lambda_i/d\beta = \lambda_i/\beta$ giving

$$\frac{d}{d\beta} \ln |\mathbf{A}| = \frac{d}{d\beta} \sum_i \ln(\lambda_i + \alpha) = \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_i \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_i + \alpha} = \frac{\gamma}{\beta}. \quad (13)$$

- The stationary point of the marginal likelihood therefore satisfies

$$0 = \frac{N}{2\beta} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{m}_N^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2 - \frac{\gamma}{2\beta} \quad (14)$$

and rearranging we obtain (15)

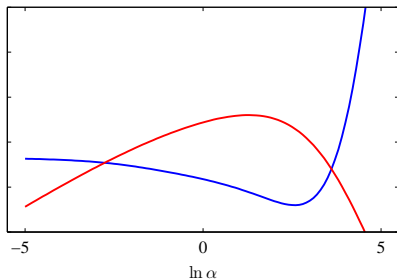
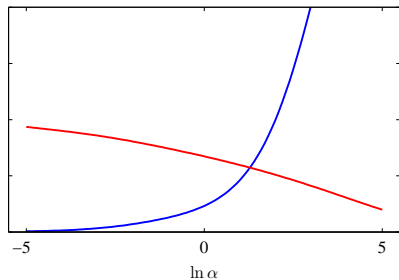
$$\frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{1}{N - \gamma} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{m}_N^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2. \quad (15)$$

Again, this is an implicit solution for β .

Evidence procedure algorithm

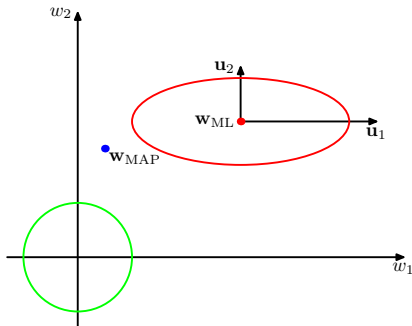
- 1 Compute the eigenvalues of $\Phi^T \Phi$ (note that it is fixed).
- 2 Initialise α and β .
- 3 Compute γ γ , with (11)
- 4 Compute \mathbf{m}_N , which is given by (11). These values are then used to re-estimate α using (12).
- 5 Use the current value of β to calculate \mathbf{m}_N and γ and then re-estimate β using (15)
- 6 Iterate from step 3 until convergence.

Evidence procedure results



Density contours

- Contours of the likelihood function (red) and the prior (green) in which the axes in parameter space have been rotated to align with the eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i of the Hessian.
- For $\alpha = 0$, the mode of the posterior is given by the maximum likelihood solution \mathbf{w}_{ML} , whereas for nonzero α the mode is at $\mathbf{w}_{\text{MAP}} = \mathbf{m}_N$. In the direction w_1 the eigenvalue λ_1 is small compared with α and so the quantity $\lambda_1/(\lambda_1 + \alpha)$ is close to zero, and the corresponding MAP value of w_1 is also close to zero.
- By contrast, in the direction w_2 the eigenvalue λ_2 is large compared with α and so the quantity $\lambda_2/(\lambda_2 + \alpha)$ is close to unity, and the MAP value of w_2 is close to its maximum likelihood value.

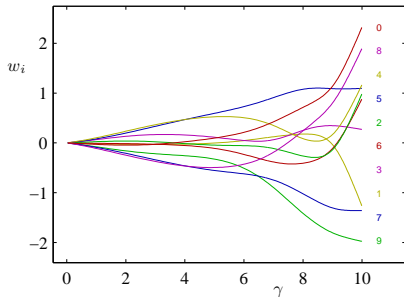


Effective number of parameters

- Because $\beta\Phi^T\Phi$ is a positive definite matrix, it will have positive eigenvalues, and so the ratio $\lambda_i/(\lambda_i + \alpha)$ will lie between 0 and 1 and so $0 \leq \gamma \leq M$.
- For directions in which $\lambda_i \gg \alpha$, the corresponding parameter w_i will be close to its maximum likelihood value, and the ratio $\lambda_i/(\lambda_i + \alpha)$ will be close to 1. Such parameters are called **well determined** because their values are tightly constrained by the data.
- Conversely, for directions in which $\lambda_i \ll \alpha$, the corresponding parameters w_i will be close to zero, as will the ratios $\lambda_i/(\lambda_i + \alpha)$. These are directions in which the likelihood function is relatively insensitive to the parameter value and so the parameter has been set to a small value by the prior.
- The quantity γ therefore measures the **effective** total number of well determined parameters.

Effective number of parameters and α

- See how the parameter α controls the magnitude of the 10 parameters $\{w_i\}$, by plotting the individual parameters versus the effective number γ of parameters.
- The hyperparameter α is varied in the range $0 \leq \alpha \leq \infty$ causing γ to vary in the range $0 \leq \gamma \leq M$.



Laplace approximation

- For linear basis models, the posterior distribution over \mathbf{w} is Gaussian.
- For nonlinear models, such as neural networks, this will no longer be the case. For such models we can use the Laplace approximation which is based on a local Gaussian approximation to the true posterior, and combine this with a local linear approximation to the model function.
- The Gaussian is fitted to the peak of the distribution (its mode) with variance given by the curvature (second derivative or Hessian) at that peak.
- For the linear model discussed, the posterior distribution is already Gaussian and so the Laplace approximation is exact.
- We can apply this method to other models, such as logistic regression (Sections 4.4, 4.5) and neural networks (Section 5.7).

Dimension of PCA

- So far in our discussion of PCA, we have assumed that the value M for the dimensionality of the principal subspace is given. In practice, we must choose a suitable value according to the application.
- One approach is to plot the eigenvalue spectrum for the data set and look to see if the eigenvalues naturally form two groups comprising a set of small values separated by a significant gap from a set of relatively large values, indicating a natural choice for M . In practice, such a gap is often not seen.
- Because the probabilistic PCA model has a well-defined likelihood function, we could employ cross-validation to determine the value of dimensionality by selecting the largest log likelihood on a validation data set. Such an approach, however, can become computationally costly.
- It is also infeasible if we consider a probabilistic mixture of PCA models in which we seek to determine the appropriate dimensionality separately for each component in the mixture.

- Given that we have a probabilistic formulation of PCA, it seems natural to seek a Bayesian approach to model selection. To do this, we need to marginalize out the model parameters μ , \mathbf{W} , and σ^2 with respect to appropriate prior distributions.
- This can be done by using a variational framework to approximate the analytically intractable marginalizations.
- Here we consider a simpler approach introduced by Minka based on the **evidence approximation**, which is appropriate when the number of data points is relatively large and the corresponding posterior distribution is tightly peaked.

Priors and optimisation

- We make a specific choice of prior over \mathbf{W} that allows surplus dimensions in the principal subspace to be pruned out of the model. This corresponds to **ARD**.
- We define an independent Gaussian prior over each column of \mathbf{W} , which represent the vectors defining the principal subspace. Each such Gaussian has an independent variance governed by a precision hyperparameter α_i so that

$$p(\mathbf{W}|\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^M \left(\frac{\alpha_i}{2\pi} \right)^{D/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \alpha_i \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_i \right\} \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{w}_i is the i^{th} column of \mathbf{W} .

- The values for α_i are found iteratively by maximizing the marginal likelihood function in which \mathbf{W} has been integrated out. As a result of this optimization, some of the α_i may be driven to infinity, with the corresponding parameters vector \mathbf{w}_i being driven to zero (the posterior distribution becomes a delta function at the origin) giving a sparse solution.

Bayesian PCA algorithm

- The values of α_i are re-estimated during training by maximizing the log marginal likelihood given by

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2) = \int p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{W}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2)p(\mathbf{W}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) d\mathbf{W} \quad (17)$$

For simplicity we also treat $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and σ^2 as parameters to be estimated, rather than defining priors over these parameters.

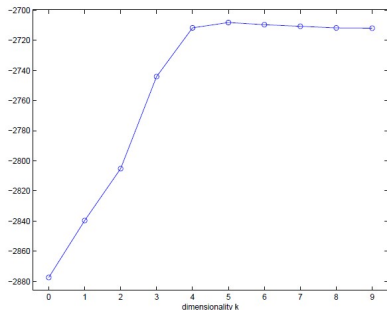
- Because this integration is intractable, we make use of the Laplace approximation. The re-estimation equations obtained by maximizing the marginal likelihood with respect to α_i take the simple form

$$\alpha_i^{\text{new}} = \frac{D}{\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_i} \quad (18)$$

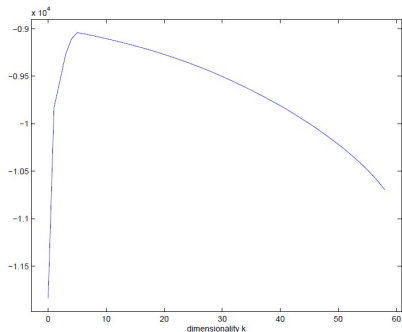
which follows from (12), noting that the dimensionality of \mathbf{w}_i is D .

- These re-estimations are interleaved with the EM algorithm updates for determining \mathbf{W} and σ^2 .

Experimental results



Data-rich case $N \gg D$ is generated from a 10-dimensional Gaussian with variance in 5 directions given by [10 8 6 4 2] and variance 1 in the remaining 5 directions.



Data-rich case $N \gg D$ is generated from a 100-dimensional Gaussian with variance in 5 directions given by [10 8 6 4 2] and variance 1 in the remaining 95 directions.

- Understand approximations involved in evidence procedure
- Application of evidence procedure to Bayesian linear regression
- Application of evidence procedure to PCA

Further reading: Bishop sections 3.5 and 12.2.3. Other models can be found in sections 4.4, 4.5 and 5.7.