

S&DS 365 / 665
Intermediate Machine Learning

Nonparametric Bayes: Gaussian Processes

(continued)

October 3

Reminders

- Assignment 2 posted (CNNs and GPs)
- Quiz 3 on Wednesday, Oct 5
- Midterm on Tuesday, October 17 in class
- Practice exam and review next week

For Today

- Gaussian processes (continued)
- Examples
- Dirichlet process (intro)

Bayesian Inference

The parameter θ of a model is viewed as a random variable.
Inference usually carried out as follows:

- Choose a *generative model* $p(x | \theta)$ for the data.
- Choose a *prior distribution* $\pi(\theta)$ that expresses beliefs about the parameter before seeing any data.
- After observing data $\mathcal{D}_n = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, update beliefs and calculate the *posterior distribution* $p(\theta | \mathcal{D}_n)$.

Bayes' Theorem

The posterior distribution can be written as

$$p(\theta | x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{p(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta)\pi(\theta)}{p(x_1, \dots, x_n)} = \frac{\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)\pi(\theta)}{c_n} \propto \mathcal{L}_n(\theta)\pi(\theta)$$

where $\mathcal{L}_n(\theta)$ is the *likelihood function* and

$$c_n = p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int p(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta = \int \mathcal{L}_n(\theta)\pi(\theta)d\theta$$

is the normalizing constant, which is also called *evidence*.

Nonparametric Bayes

- In nonparametric Bayesian inference, we replace a finite dimensional model θ with an infinite dimensional model
- This is usually a class of *functions*
- Typically neither the prior nor the posterior have a density; but the posterior is still well defined.

Core questions

- ① How do we construct a prior π on an infinite dimensional set \mathcal{F} ?
- ② How do we compute the posterior? How do we draw random samples from the posterior?
- ③ What are the properties of the posterior?

Stochastic processes

A stochastic process is a collection of random variables indexed some set (such as time), all defined with respect to a common probability space.

We'll focus on a fundamental stochastic process: The Gaussian process

More technically, a stochastic process $\{X(t)\}_{t \in T}$ is a collection of random variables indexed by a set T and defined on a common probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) where Ω is a sample space, \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra, and P is a probability measure.

Regression model

The nonparametric regression model is

$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

where $\mathbb{E}(\epsilon_i) = 0$.

The frequentist kernel estimator for m is

$$\hat{m}(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i K\left(\frac{x-X_i}{h}\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{x-X_i}{h}\right)}$$

where K is a kernel and h is a bandwidth.

Bayesian version requires prior π on set of regression functions

Gaussian process

A stochastic process $m(x)$ indexed by $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a *Gaussian process* if for each set of points x_1, \dots, x_n the vector $(m(x_1), m(x_2), \dots, m(x_n))^T$ is normally distributed:

$$(m(x_1), m(x_2), \dots, m(x_n))^T \sim N(\mu(x), K(x))$$

where $K_{ij}(x) = K(x_i, x_j)$ is a Mercer kernel.

As before, if x_1, \dots, x_n are fixed we denote the $n \times n$ matrix with entries $K(x_i, x_j)$ by \mathbb{K} .

Gaussian process prior

Let's assume $\mu = 0$, so prior mean function is zero

Density of the Gaussian process prior of $m = (m(x_1), \dots, m(x_n))$ is

$$\pi(m) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} |\mathbb{K}|^{-1/2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} m^T \mathbb{K}^{-1} m \right).$$

Under change of variables $m = \mathbb{K}\alpha$, we have $\alpha \sim N(0, \mathbb{K}^{-1})$ and

$$\pi(\alpha) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} |\mathbb{K}|^{1/2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \alpha^T \mathbb{K} \alpha \right).$$

Gaussian processes prior

What functions have high probability according to the Gaussian process prior?

The prior favors $m^T \mathbb{K}^{-1} m$ being small. If v is an eigenvector of \mathbb{K} , with eigenvalue λ , then

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = v^T \mathbb{K}^{-1} v$$

- Eigenfunctions of the Mercer kernel K with *large* eigenvalues are favored by the prior
- These correspond to smooth functions; the eigenfunctions that are very wiggly correspond to small eigenvalues

Using the likelihood

We observe $Y_i = m(x_i) + \epsilon_i$ where $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. So, log-likelihood is

$$\log p(Y | m) = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (Y_i - m(x_i))^2 + C$$

where $C = -\log(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})$.

Log-posterior is

$$\begin{aligned}\log p(Y | m) + \log \pi(m) &= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|Y - \mathbb{K}\alpha\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T \mathbb{K}\alpha + C' \\ &= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|Y - \mathbb{K}\alpha\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \|\alpha\|_K^2 + C'\end{aligned}$$

C' is just another constant.

Calculating the posterior

In Bayesian *maximum a posteriori (MAP)* inference, one estimates the mode of the posterior.

The posterior mean (and mode) is

$$\mathbb{E}(\alpha \mid Y) = \left(\mathbb{K} + \sigma^2 I \right)^{-1} Y$$

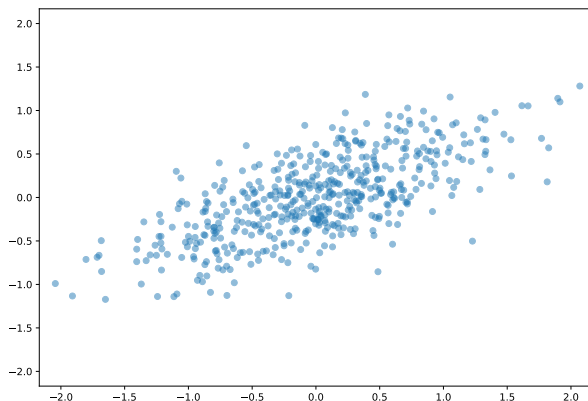
and thus

$$\hat{m} = \mathbb{E}(m \mid Y) = \mathbb{K} \left(\mathbb{K} + \sigma^2 I \right)^{-1} Y.$$

Equivalent to Mercer kernel regression

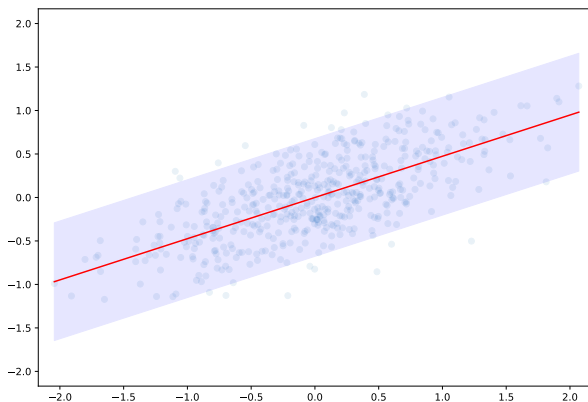
Conditionals of Gaussian

Posterior is calculated using Gaussian conditionals



Conditionals of Gaussian

Posterior is calculated using Gaussian conditionals



Gaussian conditionals

If (X_1, X_2) are jointly Gaussian with distribution

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} K_{11} & K_{12} \\ K_{21} & K_{22} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

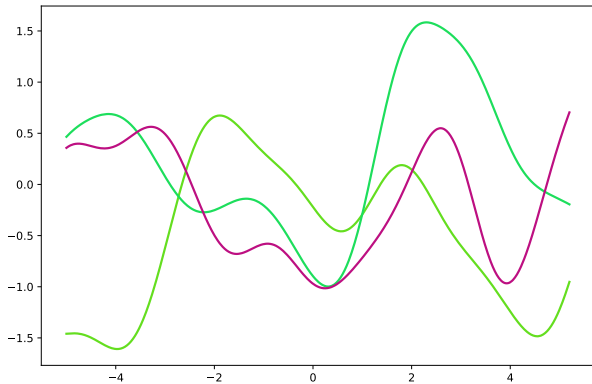
then the conditional distributions are also Gaussian and given by

$$X_1 | x_2 \sim N \left(\frac{K_{12}}{K_{22}} x_2, K_{11} - \frac{K_{12}^2}{K_{22}} \right)$$

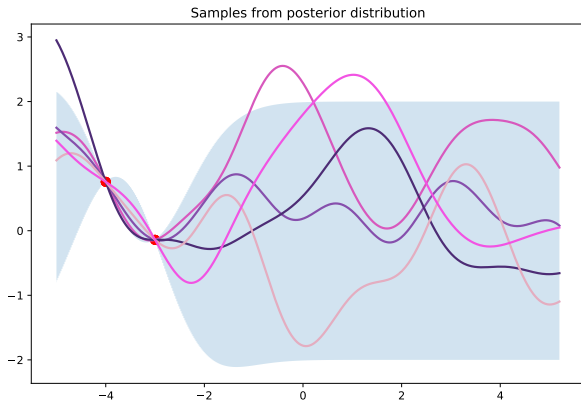
$$X_2 | x_1 \sim N \left(\frac{K_{12}}{K_{11}} x_1, K_{22} - \frac{K_{12}^2}{K_{11}} \right)$$

Let's look at the notebook demo
(plots from the demo follow)

Samples from prior and posterior



Samples from prior and posterior



Gaussian conditionals

If (X_1, X_2) are jointly Gaussian with distribution

$$\begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} A & C \\ C^T & B \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

then the conditional distributions are also Gaussian and given by

$$X_1 | x_2 \sim N \left(\mu_1 + CB^{-1}(x_2 - \mu_2), A - CB^{-1}C^T \right)$$

$$X_2 | x_1 \sim N \left(\mu_2 + C^T A^{-1}(x_1 - \mu_1), B - C^T A^{-1}C \right)$$

Predicting at a new point

How do we predict $Y_{n+1} = m(x_{n+1}) + \epsilon_{n+1}$?

Let k be the vector

$$k = (K(x_1, x_{n+1}), \dots, K(x_n, x_{n+1})).$$

Then (Y_1, \dots, Y_{n+1}) are jointly Gaussian with covariance

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{K} + \sigma^2 I & k \\ k^T & K(x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + \sigma^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Predictive distribution

Using above expression for Gaussian conditionals:

The posterior mean and variance are

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_{n+1} \mid x_{1:n}, Y_{1:n}) = k^T (\mathbb{K} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} Y$$

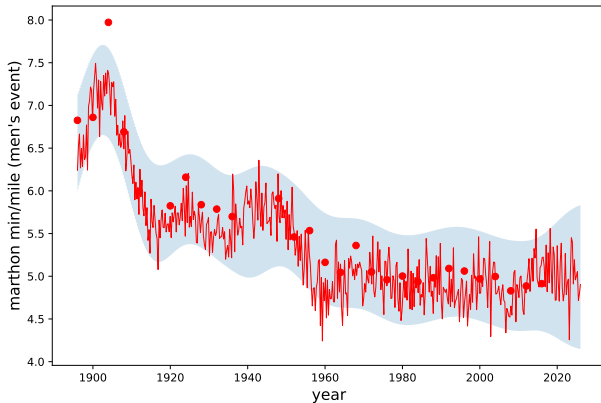
$$\text{Var}(Y_{n+1} \mid x_{1:n}, Y_{1:n}) = K(x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + \sigma^2 - k^T (\mathbb{K} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} k$$

Predictive distribution

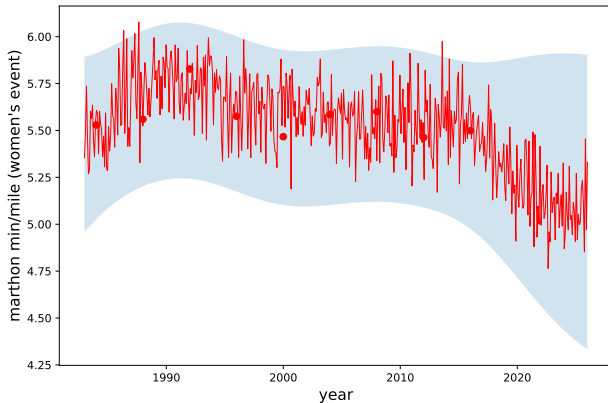
- Note that the mean is identical to what we saw for Mercer kernel regression
- But now we get a measure of uncertainty (the variance), which comes from the Gaussian process assumption

Let's return to the notebook demo
(plots from the demo follow)

Olympic marathon times (men's race)



Olympic marathon times (women's race)



The Dirichlet Process

- The Dirichlet process is analogous to the Gaussian process
- Every partition of sample space has a Dirichlet distribution (more precise shortly)
- GPs are tools for regression functions; DPs are tools for distributions and densities
- DPs finesse the problem of choosing the number of components in a mixture model
 - ▶ Example: Number of topics in a topic model

The Dirichlet Process

Dirichlet processes have some fun mnemonic metaphors, which help understand the concepts:

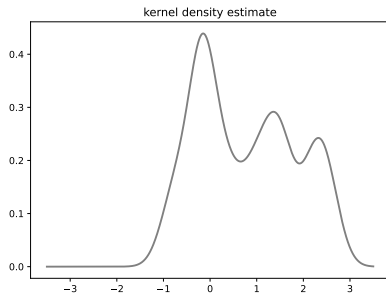
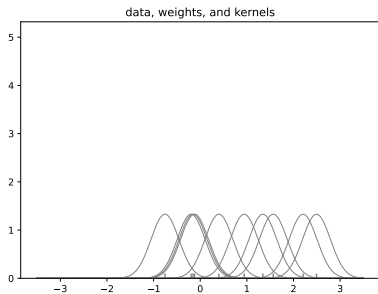
- Stick breaking
- Chinese restaurants

Recall: KDE

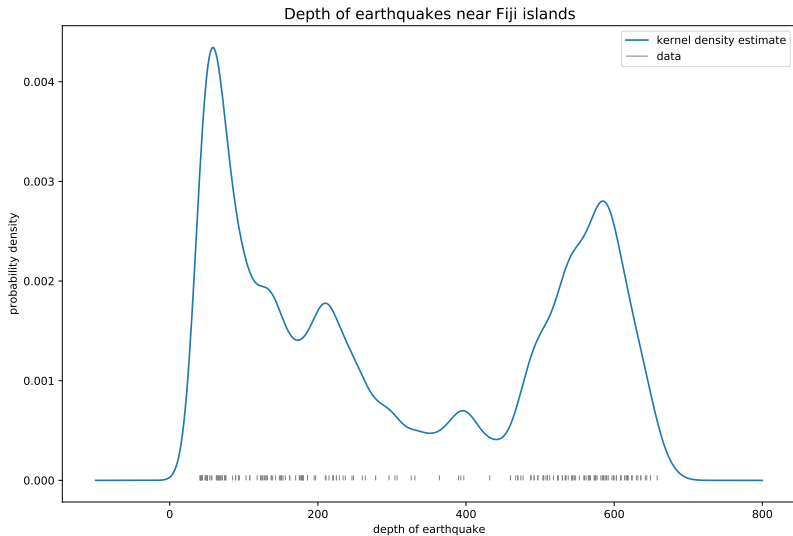
The *kernel density estimate* is the mixture model that places weight $\frac{1}{n}$ on the kernel bump function centered on each data point:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum_{i=1}^n K\left(\frac{X_i - x}{h}\right)$$

Recall: KDE



Recall: KDE



Getting rid of the data

The “parameters” in the kernel density estimate are the data

We want to construct a *prior* distribution over densities before we see any data

Solution: Use synthetic or “imaginary” data!

Dirichlet process

Each sample from a Dirichlet process prior has a *random collection of weights*, assigned to a *random selection of data*

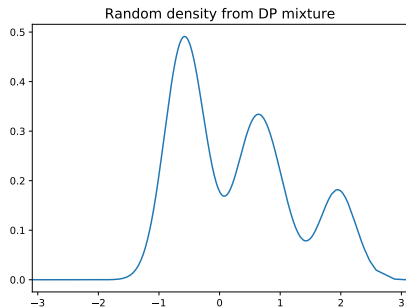
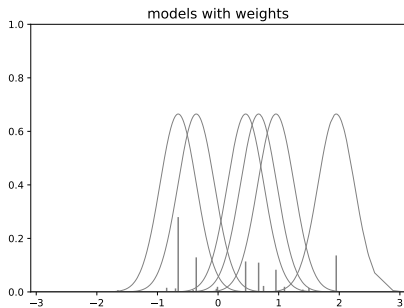
Each sample from Dirichlet process mixture has a random collection of weights assigned to a random selection of *model parameters*

Demo



Two volunteers?

Sample from DP mixture



Stick breaking process for DPM

Stick breaking:

- At each step, break off a fraction $V \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha)$

Sample model parameters:

- At each step, sample $\theta \sim F_0$

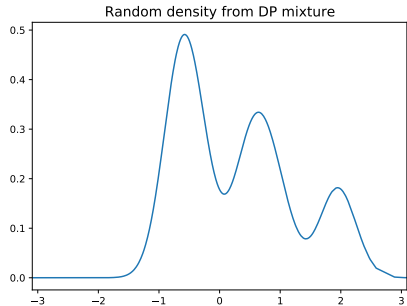
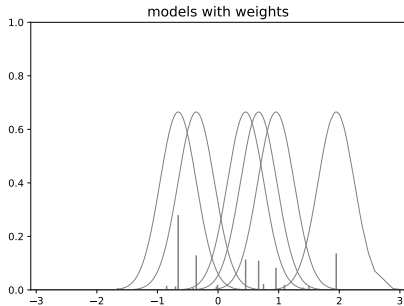
Stick breaking process for DPM

To draw a single random mixture from $\text{DPM}(\alpha, F_0)$:

- 1 Draw $\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots$ independently from F_0 .
- 2 Draw $V_1, V_2, \dots \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha)$ and set $w_j = V_j \prod_{i=1}^{j-1} (1 - V_i)$
- 3 Let f be the (infinite) mixture model

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} w_j f(x | \theta_j)$$

Sample from DP mixture



Relation to KDEs

- A DP is a distribution over distributions
- A Dirichlet process mixture is a distribution over mixture models
- DPMs are Bayesian versions of kernel density estimation
- Subject to the curse of dimensionality!

But what actually is a DP?

Recall:

A random function m is distributed according to a Gaussian process if for every x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n the random vector $m(x_1), \dots, m(x_n)$ has a multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$N(\mu(x), K(x))$$

But what actually is a DP?

A random distribution F is distributed according to a Dirichlet process $DP(\alpha, F_0)$ if for every partition A_1, \dots, A_n of the sample space the random vector $F(A_1), \dots, F(A_n)$ has a Dirichlet distribution

$$\text{Dir}(\alpha F_0(A_1), \alpha F_0(A_2), \dots, \alpha F_0(A_n))$$

But what actually is a DP?

As a special case, if the sample space is the real line we can take the partition to be

$$A_1 = \{z : z \leq x\}$$

$$A_2 = \{z : z > x\}$$

and then

$$F(x) \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha F_0(x), \alpha(1 - F_0(x)))$$

Big picture

The definition tells us the precise sense in which a DP is an infinite Dirichlet distribution

But this is not concrete

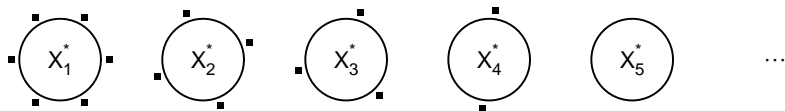
The sticking breaking and Chinese restaurant processes give us *algorithms* for working with a DP

Chinese restaurant mnemonic



Inspired by the large Chinese restaurants in San Francisco

Chinese restaurant mnemonic



A customer (data point) comes into the restaurant and either

- 1 sits at an empty table, with probability proportional to α , or
- 2 sits at an occupied table with probability proportional to number of customers already seated at that table

The posterior for a DPM

- The posterior distribution does not have a closed form — need to approximate it algorithmically
- Two forms of approximations: Gibbs sampling and variational methods — next topic

Summary

- In a Bayesian approach, the parameters are random, and the data are fixed.
- In nonparametric Bayes, the “parameters” are functions
- A Gaussian process is a stochastic process m where each collection of random variables $m(x_1), m(x_2), \dots, m(x_n)$ is jointly Gaussian
- Gaussian processes are Bayesian versions of kernel regression; the posterior mean is equivalent to Mercer kernel regression
- A Dirichlet process mixture is a Bayesian version of kernel density estimation
- Bayesian nonparametric methods require a lot of conceptual machinery and computation