Bayesian Statistics

Al Friends Seminar

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Introduction



Bayesian Inference

Bayesian inference is a method of statistical inference in which Bayes' theorem is used to update the probability for a hypothesis as more evidence or information becomes available.

Bayesian updating is particularly important in the dynamic analysis of a sequence of data.

Bayesian inference has found application in a wide range of activities, including science, engineering, philosophy, medicine, sport, and law.

(in Wikipedia)

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Thomas Bayes and Bayes' Theorem

Thomas Bayes (1701 1761) was an English statistician, philosopher and Presbyterian minister who is known for formulating a specific case of the theorem that bears his name: Bayes' theorem.

Bayes never published what would become his most famous accomplishment; his notes were edited and published after his death by Richard Price.

(in Wikipedia)

Bayes' Theorem

For a partition $\{E_i\}$ of the sample space Ω and an event F,

$$P\{E_i|F\} = \frac{P\{E_i \cap F\}}{P\{F\}} = \frac{P\{F|E_i\}P\{E_i\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} P\{E_i\}P\{F|E_i\}}$$

Distribution Function and Parameter

The distribution function F(x) of a random variable X is defined by

$$F(x) = P\{X \le x\}.$$

The *parameter* of a distribution function is the value that determines the distribution.

For instance, when we consider a Bernoulli random variable X with $P\{X=1\}=p, P\{X=0\}=1-p$, the value p determines the distribution of X and is the parameter of the distribution of X.



Likelihood Function

Likelihood Function

Let X_1, X_2, \cdots, X_n be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables with parameter θ . The probability mass (or density) function of X_i is given by $p(x|\theta)$. Then, the likelihood $\mathcal{L}(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n|\theta)$ is defined by

$$\mathcal{L}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | \theta) = p(x_1 | \theta) p(x_2 | \theta) \dots p(x_n | \theta)$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) of θ

- The MLE is the value of θ that maximizes the likelihood function.
- Here, we consider the likelihood function as a function of θ .
- To compute the MLE, we usually use $\log(\mathcal{L}(x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n | \theta))$.



In Bayesian models we use the Bayes' rule to obtain unknown probability.

In Bayesian models with two random variables X and Y, the following are initially given.

- The data generating distribution: $X|Y \sim p(x|y)$
- The prior distribution $Y \sim p(y)$

We then obtain a sample value X=x and want to estimate the distribution (the posterior distribution) of Y, given X=x, i.e., p(y|x).

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|y)p(y)}{\int p(x,y) \ dy}.$$

We frequently use $p(y|x) \propto p(x|y)p(y)$.



Consider a random variable X having distribution function F(x) with unknown parameter θ .

In Bayesian models, the unknown parameter θ is considered *stochastic*. So we believe that $\theta \sim p(\theta)$ where $p(\theta)$ is called a *prior* distribution before sampling. After sampling, using Bayes' rule we obtain so-called a *posterior* distribution as follows:

$$p(\theta|x) = \frac{p(x,\theta)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta)}{\int p(x,\theta) \ d\theta}.$$

- $P(\theta)$ is the *prior* which is our belief of θ without considering the data (evidence) $\mathcal D$
- $P(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ is the *posterior* which is a refined belief of θ with the evidence \mathcal{D}
- $P(\mathcal{D}|\theta)$ is the *likelihood* which is the probability of obtaining the data \mathcal{D} as generated with parameter θ
- ullet $P(\mathcal{D})$ is the *evidence* which is the probability of the data as determined by considering all possible values of heta

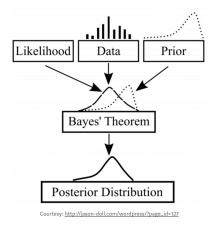


Figure: Concept of Bayesian models

Maximum A Posterior Estimator

Consider $X \sim p(x|\theta)$ with a prior distribution of $p(\theta)$. Here, θ is the parameter of the distribution of X.

The Maximum A Posterior (MAP) estimator is given by

$$\theta_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(\theta|X).$$

Note that $p(\theta|X)$ is the posterior distribution of θ and

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(\theta, X)}{p(X)}.$$

Since p(X) is not a function of θ , we have

$$\theta_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(\theta, X).$$



Maximum A Posterior Estimator

Recall that the Maximum Likelihood Estimator (MLE) is defined by

$$\theta_{MLE} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(X|\theta)$$

and the MAP estimator is given by

$$\theta_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(\theta, X) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(X|\theta)p(\theta).$$

So, the MAP estimator can use the prior information, but the MLE cannot.

Bayesain model: an example

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be indepedent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) Bernoulli random variables where

$$P\{X_1 = 1|\theta\} = \theta, \qquad P\{X_1 = 0|\theta\} = 1 - \theta.$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is usually called the parameter of Bernoulli distribution. First, observe that

$$P\{X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \cdots, X_n = x_n | \theta\}$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^n P\{X_i = x_i | \theta\} = \prod_{i=1}^n \theta^{x_i} (1 - \theta)^{1 - x_i}$$

$$= \theta^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}.$$



The prior distribution of θ is given by a uniform distribution over [0,1], i.e.,

$$p(\theta) = 1 \text{ for } 0 \le \theta \le 1.$$

After obtaining sample values $X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n$, we are interested in the posterior distribution of θ .

$$p(\theta|X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \cdots, X_n = x_n)$$

$$\propto P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \cdots, X_n = x_n | \theta) p(\theta)$$

$$\propto \theta^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}.$$

Considering the normalization constant, we obtain

$$p(\theta|X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n)$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(n+2)}{\Gamma(1 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)\Gamma(1 + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)} \theta^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}$$

which is a Beta distribution with parameters $a = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + 1$ and $b = n - \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i + 1$.

c.f.

$$\mathsf{Beta}(a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \theta^{a-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1}$$

Note that, when a=b=1, $\mathrm{Beta}(a,b)$ is in fact a uniform distribution over [0,1]. That is, the prior and the posterior of θ are both Beta distributions.

Example 1

Suppose we want to buy something from Amazon.com, and there are two sellers offering it for the same price. Seller 1 has 90 positive reviews and 10 negative reviews. Seller 2 has 2 positive reviews and 0 negative reviews. Who should we buy from? (from Machine Learning by K.P. Murphy)

Let θ_1 and θ_2 be the unknown reliabilities of the two sellers. Since we don't know much about them, we will endow them both with uniform priors, $\theta_i \sim \text{Beta}(1,1), i=1,2$. The posteriors are

$$p(\theta_1|\mathcal{D}_1) = \mathsf{Beta}(91,11), \qquad p(\theta_2|\mathcal{D}_2) = \mathsf{Beta}(3,1).$$

Hence,

$$\begin{array}{lcl} P(\theta_1 > \theta_2 | \mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2) & = & \int_0^1 \int_0^1 I_{\{\theta_1 > \theta_2\}} \mathsf{Beta}(\theta_1 | 91, 11) \mathsf{Beta}(\theta_2 | 3, 1) \ d\theta_1 d\theta_2 \\ & = & 0.710. \end{array}$$

This concludes that we are better off buying from seller 1.

Example 2

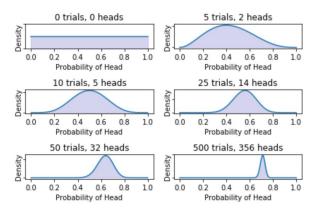


Figure: Bayesian Experiment for Bernoulli distribution with p=0.7



More generally, if we use Beta(a,b) as a prior distribution of θ , we have

$$p(\theta|X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n)$$

$$\propto P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n|\theta)p(\theta)$$

$$\propto P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n|\theta)\frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}\theta^{a-1}(1-\theta)^{b-1}$$

$$\propto \theta^{a+\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - 1}(1-\theta)^{b+n-\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - 1}.$$

Hence, we see that

$$p(\theta|X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n) = \text{Beta}(a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i).$$

In this case, the Beta distribution is a conjugate prior.

From now on, we use the notation $p(\theta|x_1,x_2,\cdots,x_n)$ or $p(\theta|X)$ for simplicity.

More on Conjugate Distributions

In Bayesian probability theory, if the posterior distributions $p(\theta|x)$ are in the same probability distribution family as the prior probability distribution $p(\theta)$, the prior and posterior are then called *conjugate distributions*, and the prior is called a *conjugate prior* for the likelihood function.

As shown before, if we use a conjugate prior, we can obtain a closed-form expression for the posterior. This also shows how the likelihood function updates a prior distribution.

Conjugate Prior for Normal distribution

Assume that X is distributed according to a normal distribution with unknown mean μ and variance $1/\tau$ (or precision τ), i.e.,

$$X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \tau^{-1})$$

and that the prior distribution on μ and τ , (μ,τ) , has a Normal-Gamma distribution

$$(\mu, \tau) \sim \mathsf{NormalGamma}(\mu_0, \lambda_0, \alpha_0, \beta_0),$$

for which the density $p(\mu,\tau)$ satisfies

$$p(\mu, \tau) \propto \tau^{\alpha_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \exp[-\beta_0 \tau] \exp\left[-\frac{\lambda_0 \tau (\mu - \mu_0)^2}{2}\right].$$

Suppose that

$$X_1,\ldots,X_n\mid \mu,\tau\sim \text{i.i.d. }\mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\tau^{-1}\right),$$

i.e., the components of $X=(X_1,\cdots,X_n)$ are conditionally independent given μ,τ and the conditional distribution given μ,τ is normal with expectation μ and variance $1/\tau$.

The posterior distribution of μ and τ given this dataset X, is given by

$$P(\tau, \mu \mid X) \propto \mathcal{L}(X \mid \tau, \mu) \ p(\tau, \mu),$$

where \mathcal{L} is the likelihood of the data given the parameters.



Since the data are i.i.d., the likelihood of X is given by

$$\mathcal{L}(X \mid \tau, \mu) \propto \prod_{i=1}^{n} \tau^{1/2} \exp\left[\frac{-\tau}{2} (x_i - \mu)^2\right]$$

$$\propto \tau^{n/2} \exp\left[\frac{-\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2\right]$$

$$\propto \tau^{n/2} \exp\left[\frac{-\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x} + \bar{x} - \mu)^2\right]$$

$$\propto \tau^{n/2} \exp\left[\frac{-\tau}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} ((x_i - \bar{x})^2 + (\bar{x} - \mu)^2)\right]$$

$$\propto \tau^{n/2} \exp\left[\frac{-\tau}{2} \left((n-1)s^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2\right)\right],$$

where $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$ and $s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$.

So, the posterior distribution of the parameters is proportional to the prior times the likelihood as given below.

$$P(\tau, \mu \mid X)$$

$$\propto \mathcal{L}(X \mid \tau, \mu) \ p(\tau, \mu)$$

$$\propto \tau^{n/2} \exp \left[\frac{-\tau}{2} \left((n-1)s^2 + n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 \right) \right]$$

$$\times \tau^{\alpha_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \exp[-\beta_0 \tau] \exp \left[-\frac{\lambda_0 \tau (\mu - \mu_0)^2}{2} \right]$$

$$\propto \tau^{\frac{n}{2} + \alpha_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \exp \left[-\tau \left(\frac{1}{2} (n-1)s^2 + \beta_0 \right) \right]$$

$$\times \exp \left[-\frac{\tau}{2} \left(n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 + \lambda_0 (\mu - \mu_0)^2 \right) \right]$$

The last exponential term is simplified as follows:

$$\begin{split} &n(\bar{x} - \mu)^2 + \lambda_0(\mu - \mu_0)^2 \\ &= (n + \lambda_0)\mu^2 - 2(n\bar{x} + \lambda_0\mu_0)\mu + n\bar{x}^2 + \lambda_0\mu_0^2 \\ &= (n + \lambda_0)(\mu^2 - 2\frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_0\mu_0}{n + \lambda_0}\mu) + n\bar{x}^2 + \lambda_0\mu_0^2 \\ &= (n + \lambda_0)\left(\mu - \frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_0\mu_0}{n + \lambda_0}\right)^2 + n\bar{x}^2 + \lambda_0\mu_0^2 - \frac{(n\bar{x} + \lambda_0\mu_0)^2}{n + \lambda_0} \\ &= (n + \lambda_0)\left(\mu - \frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_0\mu_0}{n + \lambda_0}\right)^2 + \frac{\lambda_0n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{n + \lambda_0} \end{split}$$

Combining all the results yields

$$\begin{split} & P(\tau, \mu \mid X) \\ & \propto \tau^{\frac{n}{2} + \alpha_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \exp \left[-\tau \left(\frac{1}{2} (n - 1) s^2 + \beta_0 \right) \right] \\ & \times \exp \left[-\frac{\tau}{2} \left((n + \lambda_0) \left(\mu - \frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_0 \mu_0}{n + \lambda_0} \right)^2 + \frac{\lambda_0 n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{n + \lambda_0} \right) \right] \\ & \propto \tau^{\frac{n}{2} + \alpha_0 - \frac{1}{2}} \exp \left[-\tau \left(\beta_0 + \frac{1}{2} \left((n - 1) s^2 + \frac{\lambda_0 n(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}{n + \lambda_0} \right) \right) \right] \\ & \times \exp \left[-\frac{\tau}{2} (n + \lambda_0) \left(\mu - \frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_0 \mu_0}{n + \lambda_0} \right)^2 \right] \end{split}$$

That is, the posterior is exactly in the same form as a Normal-Gamma distribution, i.e.,

$$P(\tau,\mu\mid X) = \mathsf{NormalGamma}(\mu_1,\lambda_1,\alpha_1,\beta_1)$$

where

$$\mu_{1} = \frac{n\bar{x} + \lambda_{0}\mu_{0}}{n + \lambda_{0}},$$

$$\lambda_{1} = n + \lambda_{0},$$

$$\alpha_{1} = \alpha_{0} + \frac{n}{2},$$

$$\beta_{1} = \beta_{0} + \frac{1}{2}\left((n - 1)s^{2} + \frac{\lambda_{0}n(\bar{x} - \mu_{0})^{2}}{n + \lambda_{0}}\right)$$

Wishart Distribution

Suppose ${\bf X}$ is a $p \times n$ matrix, each column of which is independently drawn from a p-variate normal distribution with zero mean

$$\mathbf{x}_i = (x_i^1, \cdots, x_i^p)^\top \sim \mathcal{N}_p(0, \mathbf{\Sigma}), 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

Then, the Wishart distribution is the probability distribution of the $p\times p$ random matrix

$$\mathbf{S} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^{\mathsf{T}}, \qquad \mathbf{S} \sim \mathsf{W}_p(\mathbf{\Sigma}, n).$$

The positive integer n is the degrees of freedom. For $n \geq p$ the matrix $\mathbf S$ is invertible with probability 1 if $\mathbf \Sigma$ is invertible.

If $p = \Sigma = 1$, then this distribution is a chi-squared distribution with n degrees of freedom.



The probability density function of $S \sim W_p(\Sigma, n)$ is given by

$$f(\mathbf{S}) = \frac{|\mathbf{S}|^{\frac{n-p-1}{2}}}{|\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{\frac{n}{2}} 2^{\frac{np}{2}} \Gamma_p\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \mathsf{tr}(\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{S})\right)$$

where
$$\Gamma_p(x) = \pi^{\frac{p(p-1)}{4}} \prod_{j=1}^p \Gamma(x + \frac{1-j}{2}).$$

Inverse-Wishart Distribution

The Inverse-Wishart distribution is a probability distribution on positive definite matrices.

We say that \mathbf{T} follows the Inverse-Wishart distribution with $\mathbf{\Psi}$ and m, denoted by $\mathbf{T} \sim \text{InvW}_p(\mathbf{\Psi}, m)$ if its inverse \mathbf{T}^{-1} follows $W_p(\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}, m)$.

The probability density function of $\mathbf{T} \sim \mathsf{InvW}_p(\mathbf{\Psi}, m)$ is given by

$$f(\mathbf{T}) = \frac{|\mathbf{\Psi}|^{\frac{m}{2}}}{|\mathbf{T}|^{\frac{m+p+1}{2}} 2^{\frac{mp}{2}} \mathbf{\Gamma}_p\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \mathsf{tr}(\mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{T}^{-1})\right)$$

where $\Gamma_p(x)=\pi^{rac{p(p-1)}{4}}\prod_{j=1}^p\Gamma(x+rac{1-j}{2}).$



We now show that the Inverse-Wishart distribution is conjugate prior on the covaraince matrix parameter of a multivariate normal distribution. Consider

$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_n), \mathbf{x}_i \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}), \mathbf{\Sigma} \sim \mathsf{InvW}_p(\mathbf{\Psi}, m)$$

Then the posterior distribution of Σ satisfies

$$f(\mathbf{\Sigma}|\mathbf{X}) \propto f(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{\Sigma})g(\mathbf{\Sigma}|\mathbf{\Psi}, m)$$

$$\propto (2\pi)^{-\frac{np}{2}} |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{n}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{i}\right)$$

$$\times \frac{|\mathbf{\Psi}|^{\frac{m}{2}}}{|\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{\frac{m+p+1}{2}} 2^{\frac{mp}{2}} \Gamma_{p}\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1})\right)$$

$$\propto |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{n}{2} - \frac{m+p+1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{\Psi} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1})\right)$$

Noting that

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i &= \operatorname{tr} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{tr} (\mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{tr} (\mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}) = \operatorname{tr} (\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}) \\ &= \operatorname{tr} (\mathbf{S} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}), \text{ where } \mathbf{S} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top, \end{split}$$

we obtain

$$f(\mathbf{\Sigma}|\mathbf{X}) \propto |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-rac{n+m+p+1}{2}} \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}\mathsf{tr}(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} + \mathbf{\Psi}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1})\right)$$

 $\propto |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-rac{n+m+p+1}{2}} \exp\left(-rac{1}{2}\mathsf{tr}((\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{\Psi})\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1})\right).$



Bayesian Decision Theory

The mode of a posterior distribuiton, e.g., the MAP estimator, is often a very poor choice as a summary because the mode is usually quite untypical of the distribution, unlike the mean and the median.

In this case we use Bayesian decision theory where a loss function $L(\theta,\hat{\theta})$ is considered. Here, $L(\theta,\hat{\theta})$ is the loss we have if the truth is θ and our estimate is $\hat{\theta}$.

With a loss function and a posterior distribution we are trying to minimize

$$\underset{\hat{\theta}}{\operatorname{argmin}} E[L(\theta, \hat{\theta}) | \mathcal{D}].$$

By choosing different loss functions we have different estimators other than the MAP estimator.



Bayesian Decision Theory

• $L(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = I_{\{\hat{\theta} \neq \theta\}}$: The MAP estimator

$$E[L(\theta, \hat{\theta})|\mathcal{D}] = p(\hat{\theta} \neq \theta|\mathcal{D}) = 1 - p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$$

• $L(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = (\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$: the mean

$$E[L(\theta, \hat{\theta})|\mathcal{D}] = E[(\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2|\mathcal{D}] = E[(\hat{\theta} - E[\hat{\theta}])^2|\mathcal{D}] + (E[\hat{\theta}] - \theta)^2$$

• $L(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = |\hat{\theta} - \theta|$: the median

$$E[L(\theta, \hat{\theta})|\mathcal{D}] = E[|\hat{\theta} - \theta||\mathcal{D}]$$



References

• K.P. Murphy, Machine Learning, The MIT Press, 2012.

