

MAP 534

Introduction to machine learning

Bayesian machine learning

Alain Durmus

Motivations

Bayesian statistics

Modeling view of machine learning

- Decide what the input-output pairs are.
- Decide how to encode inputs and outputs. This defines the input space X , and the output space Y and the dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- Choose a class of hypotheses/representations $\mathcal{F} = \{f_w : X \rightarrow Y : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$.
- Choose a loss function ℓ .
- Define the error function

$$E_\ell(w) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \ell(y_i, f_w(x_i)) . \quad (1)$$

- Choose an algorithm to solve

$$\text{minimize } E_\ell . \quad (2)$$

- How to do so: vanish the gradient or gradient descent (see later)...

Modeling view of machine learning

- Decide what the input-output pairs are.
- Decide how to encode inputs and outputs. This defines the input space X , and the output space Y and \mathcal{D} .
- Choose a class of hypotheses/representations $\mathcal{F} = \{f_w : X \rightarrow Y : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$.
- Choose a loss function ℓ .
- Define the error function

$$E_\ell(w) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(y_i, f_w(x_i)) . \quad (3)$$

- Choose an algorithm to solve

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmin} E_\ell . \quad (4)$$

- Prediction:

$$\hat{y}_{\text{pred}} = f_{\hat{w}}(x_{\text{new}}) . \quad (5)$$

- This framework is called the deterministic discriminative setting.

Going back to the example of polynomial curve fitting

- Consider N observations $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ such that

$$x_i \in X = [0, 1] \text{ and } y_i \in Y = \mathbb{R} . \quad (6)$$

- We consider here that

$$\mathcal{P}_d = \left\{ f_w(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x^{(i)} \right\} . \quad (7)$$

- This corresponds to the choice of basis function $\phi_j(x) = x^j$.
- Justification: polynomials can approximate continuous any function on $[0, 1]$.
- LSE:

$$\hat{w} \in \underset{w}{\operatorname{argmin}} E(w) , \quad E(w) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^N \left\{ y_j - \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_j^i \right\}^2 . \quad (8)$$

- Two main questions still remain:
 - Can we weight the possible choices for \mathcal{F}/d ?
 - Can we quantify the uncertainty of the prediction?
- The two questions are related and addressed with the use of Bayesian statistics:
 - For these two problems, we give some weights/probabilities on models/coefficients based on a priori knowledge.
 - Regarding the second point, Bayesian inference “sees” the parameter w as random!

Motivations

Bayesian statistics

- No modeling view discussed previously: no probability!
- Here we consider a statistical model on the observations $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- This model as in your statistics course is specified by a likelihood, i.e., a family of parametrized probability density functions (p.d.f.)

$$\{(x, y) \mapsto L_w(x, y) : w \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d\} .$$

- Examples:
 - Regression:

$$Y_i = f_w(X_i) + \epsilon_i , \quad \epsilon_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1) . \quad (9)$$

Likelihood:

$$L_w(x, y) = ? \quad (10)$$

- No modeling view discussed previously: no probability!
- Here we consider a statistical model on the observations $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- This model as in your statistics course is specified by a likelihood, i.e., a family of parametrized probability density functions (p.d.f.)

$$\{(x, y) \mapsto L_w(x, y) : w \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d\}.$$

- Examples:
 - Classification ($Y = \{0, 1\}$):

$$Y_i = \mathbb{1} \{f_w(X_i) + \epsilon_i \geq 0\}, \quad \epsilon_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (11)$$

Likelihood:

$$L_w(x, y) = ? \quad (12)$$

Probabilistic modeling in machine learning: discriminative setting

- No modeling view discussed previously: no probability!
- Here we consider a statistical model on the observations $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- Here, we fix a distribution p for x but does not matter, so the likelihood has the form:

$$\{(x, y) \mapsto L_w(x, y) = p_w(y|x)p(x) : w \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d\}.$$

- MLE:

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmax}_w \{\log p_w(y|x)\} \quad (13)$$

- Prediction:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \operatorname{argmax}_y p_{\hat{w}}(y|x_{\text{new}}). \quad (14)$$

- In our examples, what would y_{pred} be?
- We only care about the conditional $y|x$!
- This framework is referred to as the probabilistic discriminative framework.

Probabilistic modeling in machine learning: generative setting

- Here we consider a statistical model on the observations $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.
- We can also take a generative model approach:

$$\{(x, y) \mapsto L_w(x, y) = p_w(x|y)p(y) : w \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^d\}.$$

- Still the MLE:

$$\hat{w} \in \operatorname{argmax}_w \{\log p_w(y|x)\} \quad (15)$$

- Prediction:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \operatorname{argmax}_y p_{\hat{w}}(y|x_{\text{new}}). \quad (16)$$

- What is $p_w(y|x)$? $p(y)$?
- Answer: Bayes theorem/formula and $p(y)$ is a prior to choose (details further...)
- This framework is referred to as the probabilistic generative framework.
- Pros: access to $p_{\hat{w}}$ which allows detection of outliers.
- Cons: computational demanding...
- Example in the next course!

- The statistical model associated with the LSE is:

$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \phi_j(X_i) + \sigma^2 Z_i, \quad i \in \{1, \dots, N\}, \quad (17)$$

where

- $Z_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, 1)$;
 - X_i are i.i.d random variables with unknown distribution;
 - w is the parameter to infer.
- Then, if we are just interested in inferring w , the log-likelihood is

$$\ell(w) = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ y_i - \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \phi_j(x_i) \right\}^2, \quad (18)$$

where the observations are $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$.

- Therefore, maximizing the log-likelihood leads to the same solution as minimizing the error function.

Uncertainty and model selection in frequentist statistics

- MLE: Only point estimate! No uncertainty quantification!
- Confident intervals on the coefficients of w defined by bootstrap:

$$\mathcal{D}_{\text{rand},i} \subset \mathcal{D}_{\text{train}} \text{ uniformly random , } \quad \text{and consider } \hat{w}(d, \mathcal{D}_{\text{rand},i}) . \quad (19)$$

- Consider the intervals which contains ..% of the solutions.
- Analysis of variance (ANOVA, using an F-test): test the null hypothesis that a model \mathcal{M}_1 is sufficient to explain the data against the alternative hypothesis that a more complex model \mathcal{M}_2 .
- Do not generalize well and have pathologies¹:
 - counter-intuitive behavior on confident intervals for some simple models;
 - p-values tend to overstate the evidence against the null no matter how large the sample size;
 - p-values is sensible to slight changes in the statistical models;
 - many frequentist methods regarding uncertainties/model selection does not follow likelihood principle: are based on hypothetical future observations.
- All these problems can be addressed by Bayesian inference!

¹[Mur13, Section 6.6]

- Consider N observations $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ such that

$$x_i \in X = [0, 1] \text{ and } y_i \in Y = \mathbb{R} . \quad (20)$$

- We consider here that

$$\mathcal{P}_d = \left\{ f_w(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x^i \right\} . \quad (21)$$

- We would like to quantify uncertainties with respect to
 - the parameters w ;
 - our prediction;
 - the hypothesis class complexity d .
- This generalizes to any parametrized hypothesis class

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f_w : X \rightarrow Y : w \in \Theta\} . \quad (22)$$

- Do we think that all hypothesis/models are equally probable... before we see any data?
- Here an hypothesis is a fixed function f_w for some fixed parameter w .
- What does the probability of a model/hypothesis even mean?
- Do we need to choose a single “best” model \mathcal{F} or can we consider several $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ for our predictions?
- We need a framework to answer such questions.

- Bayes rule tells us how to do inference about hypothesis (the uncertain quantities) from data (measured quantities).
- Learning and prediction can be seen as a form of inference

$$p(\text{hypothesis}|\text{data}) = \frac{p(\text{data}|\text{hypothesis})p(\text{hypothesis})}{p(\text{data})} . \quad (23)$$

- $p(\text{data}|\text{hypothesis})$ is the likelihood associated with the family of hypothesis we first consider.
- $p(\text{hypothesis}|\text{data})$ is called the posterior distribution of the hypothesis.
- However, in contrast to frequentist statistics, we choose a prior on our hypothesis!

- Bayes inference recipe:

- Consider a statistical model for \mathcal{D} parametrized by $w \in \Theta$:

$$p(\mathcal{D}|w) = L_w(x, y) . \quad (24)$$

- We treat the likelihood as the conditional distribution of the data given the parameter!
- Choose a prior for w , $p(w)$.
- Consider the posterior:

$$p(w|\mathcal{D}) \propto p(\mathcal{D}|w)p(w) = L_w(x, y)p(w) . \quad (25)$$

- All the conclusions are then drawn from the posterior.

Bayes paradigm: example, the Bernoulli model

- Consider the observations $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^N$ be i.i.d from

$$Y_i = \text{Ber}(q) , \quad q \in [0, 1] \text{ is the parameter to infer .} \quad (26)$$

- The likelihood is

$$p_q(y) = ? \quad (27)$$

- We chose as a prior $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$, for $\alpha, \beta > 0$:

$$p(q|y) \propto ? \quad (28)$$

- The posterior distribution for q is ?...
- Notation here if $p(q|y)$ is a conditional density:

$$p(q|y) \propto h(q, y) , \text{ if } p(q|y) = h(q, y) / \int h(q, y) dq . \quad (29)$$

- Bayes inference recipe:

- Consider a statistical model for \mathcal{D} parametrized by $w \in \Theta$:

$$p(\mathcal{D}|w) = L_w(x, y) . \quad (30)$$

- We treat the likelihood as the conditional distribution of the data given the parameter!
- Choose a prior for w , $p(w)$.
- Consider the posterior:

$$p(w|\mathcal{D}) \propto p(\mathcal{D}|w)p(w) = L_w(x, y)p(w) . \quad (31)$$

- All the conclusions are then drawn from the posterior.
- The posterior is known up to a multiplicative constant:

$$Z(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|w)p(w)dw = \int L_w(x, y)p(w)dw . \quad (32)$$

This constant is also known as the marginal likelihood.

- In many models, this constant can not be computed and the posterior does not belong to “common” distribution.

Why Bayesian inference seems to be a sensible option?

- A robot, in order to behave intelligently, should be able to represent beliefs about propositions in the world:
 - charging station is at location (x,y,z)
 - that cat is hostile...
- Using probabilistic models, we want to represent the strengths of these beliefs, and be able to manipulate these beliefs based on a priori.
- The prior distribution models this prior knowledge.
- Data are then used to update our knowledge and give the posterior.
- Probabilistic learning can also be used for calibrated models and prediction uncertainty - getting systems that know what they do not know.

Prior and multiple explanations of the data

- Choosing a prior and following the Bayesian paradigm, we do not believe all models are equally probable to explain the data.
- We may believe that a simpler model is more probable than a complex one based on Occam's razzor (Aristotle, Ockham, Newton, Russel...)

We consider it a good principle to explain the phenomena by the simplest hypothesis possible.

- Ptolemy (c. AD 90 - c. 168) -

- Bayesian allows us to consider/combine a collection of hypothesis/models:
 - We do not know what particular function generated the data.
 - More than one of our models can perfectly fit the data.
 - We believe more than one of our models could have generated the data.
 - We want to reason in terms of a set of possible explanations, not just one.

- The first Bayesian estimator, the maximum a posterior estimator (MAP):

$$\hat{w}_{\text{MAP}} \in \operatorname{argmax} p(w|\mathcal{D}) . \quad (33)$$

- The MAP is not fully Bayesian (not an admissible estimator)...
- The usual Bayesian estimator is the posterior mean:

$$\hat{w}_{\text{post}} = \int w p(w|\mathcal{D}) dw . \quad (34)$$

- To quantify the uncertainties over w we consider $1 - \alpha$ -credible region for $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.
- C_α is set to be a $1 - \alpha$ -credible region if

$$\int \mathbb{1} \{w \in C_\alpha\} p(w|\mathcal{D}) dw \geq 1 - \alpha . \quad (35)$$

Example of point estimates

- Consider the observations $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^N$ be i.i.d from

$$Y_i = \text{Ber}(q) , \quad q \in [0, 1] \text{ is the parameter to infer .} \quad (36)$$

- We chose as a prior $\text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$, for $\alpha, \beta > 0$:

$$p(q|y) \propto q^{\alpha-1+\sum_{i=1}^N y_i} (1-q)^{\beta-1+N-\sum_{i=1}^N y_i} . \quad (37)$$

- The posterior distribution for q is $\text{Beta}(\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^N y_i, \beta + N - \sum_{i=1}^N y_i)$.
- MAP:

$$\hat{w}_{\text{MAP}} = \frac{\alpha - 1 + \sum_i y_i}{\alpha + \beta - 2 + N} . \quad (38)$$

- Posterior mean:

$$\hat{w}_{\text{post}} = \frac{\alpha + \sum_i y_i}{\alpha + \beta + N} . \quad (39)$$

- We consider the statistical model associated with the LSE is:

$$Y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \phi_j(X_i) + \sigma^2 Z_i, \quad i \in \{1, \dots, N\}, \quad (40)$$


where

- $Z_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, 1)$;
 - X_i are i.i.d random variables with unknown distribution;
 - w is the parameter to infer.
- What does it mean to choose a prior on the hypothesis here?

Prior on parameters induce priors on functions

- A hypothesis f_w is a choice of a model structure \mathcal{F} (first block) and a parameter value (second block) w .
- Consider the linear regression example:

$$f_w(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_j \phi_j(x) , \quad (41)$$

- The number d and the choices of basis functions $\{\phi_j\}$ constitute the model structure;
- The coefficient w , the parameter value.
- Setting a prior $p(w)$ determines what functions this model can generate.
- For the moment \mathcal{F} is fixed but we can also set a prior on the model structure (see after)!
- What is the posterior in this case? 

Posterior for the linear regression model

- The likelihood setting $\beta = \sigma^{-2}$ the precision:

$$L(\mathcal{D}|w) = N_n(\text{vector}(f_w(x_i)), \beta^{-1}I_n) \quad (42)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp \left(-\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \phi(x_i)^T w)^2 \right) \quad (43)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp \left(-\frac{\beta}{2} \|y - \Phi_x w\|^2 \right), \quad (44)$$

with $\Phi_x = ??$.

- If we choose $p(w) = N_d(m_0, S_0)$, we get

$$p(w|\mathcal{D}) = N(m_N, S_n), \quad (45)$$

Proof of (49).

□

Posterior for the linear regression model

- The likelihood setting $\beta = \sigma^{-2}$ the precision:

$$L(\mathcal{D}|w) = N_n(\text{vector}(f_w(x_i)), \beta^{-1}I_n) \quad (46)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp \left(-\frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \phi(x_i)^T w)^2 \right) \quad (47)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp \left(-\frac{\beta}{2} \|y - \Phi_x w\|^2 \right), \quad (48)$$

with $\Phi_x = ??$.

- If we choose $p(w) = N_d(m_0, S_0)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} p(w|\mathcal{D}) &= N(m_N, S_N), \\ m_N &= S_N(S_0^{-1}m_0 + \beta\Phi_x^T y), \quad S_N = (S_0^{-1} + \beta\Phi_x^T \Phi_x)^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

Proof of (49).

□

Prediction using Bayesian inference

- Consider the linear regression example:

$$f_w(x) = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \phi_j(X_i) . \quad (50)$$

- Based on the posterior $p(w|\mathcal{D})$, $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$, how to make our predictions?
- First frequentist-like option:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = f_{\hat{w}}(x_{\text{new}}) , \quad (51)$$

where \hat{w} is either the MAP or the posterior mean.

- Not really Bayesian...
- Indeed, Bayesian inference is also guided by the aim to give an “optimal” prediction.
- To define what we mean by an “optimal” prediction, we rely on decision theory.

Decision theory for prediction

- Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with a probabilistic model

$$\{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mapsto L_w(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) : w \in \Theta\},$$

we would like to find the best estimator for the prediction y_{pred} based on x_{new} .

- By estimator, here, we mean a function $\mathcal{D} \mapsto \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}$ which outputs a function:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}). \quad (52)$$

- How to compare estimator?
- We need a loss function $\ell : Y \times Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ and a prior on w , $w \mapsto p(w)$.
- We define then the conditional risk (given \mathcal{D} and w) as

$$\text{cR}(\hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}, w) = \mathbb{E}_{(Y_{\text{new}}, X_{\text{new}}) \sim L_w}[\ell(Y_{\text{new}}, \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(X_{\text{new}}))] \quad (53)$$

$$= \int \ell(y_{\text{new}}, \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}})) L_w(x_{\text{new}}, y_{\text{new}}) d(x_{\text{new}}, y_{\text{new}}). \quad (54)$$

Decision theory for prediction

- Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with a probabilistic model

$$\{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mapsto L_w(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) : w \in \Theta\},$$

we would like to find the best estimator for the prediction y_{pred} based on x_{new} .

- By estimator, here, we mean a function $\mathcal{D} \mapsto \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}$ which outputs a function:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}). \quad (55)$$

- We define then the conditional risk (given \mathcal{D} and w) as

$$\text{cR}(\hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}, w) = \mathbb{E}_{(Y_{\text{new}}, X_{\text{new}}) \sim L_w} [\ell(Y_{\text{new}}, \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(X_{\text{new}}))] . \quad (56)$$

- An ideal estimator is the one which minimizes the integrated/Bayesian risk:

$$\text{IR} = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}, w} [\text{R}(\hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}, w)] = \int \text{R}(\hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}, w) L_w(\mathcal{D}) p(w) d\mathcal{D} dw . \quad (57)$$

- Here $L_w(\mathcal{D})$ is the complete likelihood $L_w(x, y) = \prod_{i=1}^N L_w(x_i, y_i)$.

- Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with a probabilistic model $\{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mapsto L_w(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) : w \in \Theta\}$, we would like to find the best estimator for the prediction y_{pred} based on x_{new} .
- By estimator, here, we mean a function $\mathcal{D} \mapsto \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}$ which outputs a function:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}) . \quad (58)$$

- In the case $\ell(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 - y_2)^2/2$, we can show that the best estimator is

$$\hat{y}_{\star, L^2}^{\mathcal{D}} = \int \tilde{y}_{\text{new}} L_w(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}) p(w | \mathcal{D}) d(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}}, w) , \quad (59)$$

where $p(w | \mathcal{D})$ is the posterior distribution associated with prior p .

- It is called the Bayes estimator.

Posterior predictive distribution

- Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with a probabilistic model $\{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mapsto L_w(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) : w \in \Theta\}$, we would like to find the best estimator for the prediction y_{pred} based on x_{new} .

- By estimator, here, we mean a function $\mathcal{D} \mapsto \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}$ which outputs a function:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}) . \quad (60)$$

- In the case $\ell(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 - y_2)^2/2$, we can show that the best estimator is

$$\hat{y}_{\star, L^2}^{\mathcal{D}} = \int \tilde{y}_{\text{new}} L_w(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}) p(w | \mathcal{D}) d(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}}, w) , \quad (61)$$

where $p(w | \mathcal{D})$ is the posterior distribution associated with prior p .

- This gives rise to the posterior predictive distribution:

$$p_{\text{post}}(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | \mathcal{D}) = \int L_w(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}) p(w | \mathcal{D}) d(w) . \quad (62)$$

- With this notation:

$$\hat{y}_{\star, L^2}^{\mathcal{D}} = \int \tilde{y}_{\text{new}} p_{\text{post}}(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | \mathcal{D}, x_{\text{new}}) d\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} . \quad (63)$$

- This distribution give a point estimate for our predicition but also completely characterizes the uncertainties about our predictions!

Posterior predictive distribution

- Given a dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(y_i, x_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with a probabilistic model $\{(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \mapsto L_w(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) : w \in \Theta\}$, we would like to find the best estimator for the prediction y_{pred} based on x_{new} .
- By estimator, here, we mean a function $\mathcal{D} \mapsto \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}$ which outputs a function:

$$y_{\text{pred}} = \hat{y}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}) . \quad (64)$$

- In the case $\ell(y_1, y_2) = (y_1 - y_2)^2/2$, we can show that the best estimator is

$$\hat{y}_{\star, L^2}^{\mathcal{D}}(x_{\text{new}}) = \int \tilde{y}_{\text{new}} L_w(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}) p(w | \mathcal{D}) d(\tilde{y}_{\text{new}}, w) , \quad (65)$$

where $p(w | \mathcal{D})$ is the posterior distribution associated with prior p .

Proof of (65).

□

Predictive posterior for the linear regression model

- The likelihood setting $\beta = \sigma^{-2}$ the precision:

$$L(\mathcal{D}|w) = N_n(\text{vector}(f_w(x_i)), \beta^{-1}I_n) \quad (66)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\beta}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f_w(x_i))^2\right) . \quad (67)$$

- If we choose $p(w) = N_d(m_0, S_0)$, we get

$$p(w|\mathcal{D}) = N(m_N, S_N) , \quad m_N = S_N(S_0^{-1}m_0 + \beta\Phi_x^T y) , \quad S_N = (S_0^{-1} + \beta\Phi_x^T \Phi_x)^{-1} . \quad (68)$$

- Since $p(y_{\text{new}}|w, x_{\text{new}}) = N(f_w(x_{\text{new}}), \beta^{-1})$, we get that the predictive posterior is

$$p(y_{\text{new}}|x_{\text{new}}) = N(\phi(x_{\text{new}})^T m_N, \beta^{-1} + \phi(x_{\text{new}})S_N\phi(x_{\text{new}})) , \quad (69)$$

- the Bayes estimator:

$$\hat{y}_{\star, L^2} = \phi(x_{\text{new}})^T m_N . \quad (70)$$

- Proof in practical sessions.

- What if we are unsure which model is right? So far we assumed we were able to start by making a definite choice of model.
- We can compare models based on marginal likelihoods (also known as model evidence) for each model - this is the probability the model assigns to the observed data.
- This is the normalizing constant in Bayes rule which we ignored previously.

- Let us say that we have two models $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$.
- Question: given some data, can we say if one of them is most probable?
- Examples:

$$\mathcal{F}_1 = \left\{ f_w = \sum_{i=1}^{d_1} w_j \phi_j(X_i) : w \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1} \right\}, \quad \mathcal{F}_2 = \left\{ f_w = \sum_{i=1}^{d_2} w_j \phi_j(X_i) : w \in \mathbb{R}^{d_2} \right\} \quad (71)$$

d_1 or d_2 should be privileged?

- Solution: Bayesian paradigm.
- We treat the prior $p(w|\mathcal{F}_1), p(w|\mathcal{F}_2)$ used for $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ as likelihood/conditional probability.
- We set some prior on the models $\mathcal{F}_i, i = 1, 2$.

Model comparisons and selections

- Let us say that we have two models $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$.
- Question: given some data, can we say if one of them is most probable?
- Solution: Bayesian paradigm.
- We treat the likelihoods $p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{F}_1), p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{F}_2)$ and priors $p(w|\mathcal{F}_1), p(w|\mathcal{F}_2)$ used for $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$ as likelihood/conditional probability.
- We set some prior on the models $\mathcal{F}_i, i = 1, 2$.
- In most cases, the uniform prior is chosen...
- The posterior distribution for (w, \mathcal{F}_i) is by Bayes theorem:

$$p(w, \mathcal{F}_i|\mathcal{D}) = p(\mathcal{F}_i)p(w|\mathcal{F}_i)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{F}_i)/p(\mathcal{D}) , \quad (72)$$

$$p(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_i \int_w p(\mathcal{F}_i)p(w|\mathcal{F}_i)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{F}_i)dw . \quad (73)$$

- The posterior distribution for \mathcal{F}_i is then:

$$p(\mathcal{F}_i|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{F}_i)}{p(\mathcal{D})} \int p(w|\mathcal{F}_i)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{F}_i)dw . \quad (74)$$

Model comparisons and selections

- Let us say that we have two models $\mathcal{F}_1, \mathcal{F}_2$.
- Question: given some data, can we say if one of them is most probable?
- The posterior distribution for (w, \mathcal{F}_i) is by Bayes theorem:

$$p(w, \mathcal{F}_i | \mathcal{D}) = p(\mathcal{F}_i) p(w | \mathcal{F}_i) p(\mathcal{D} | w, \mathcal{F}_i) / p(\mathcal{D}) , \quad (75)$$

$$p(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_i \int_w p(\mathcal{F}_i) p(w | \mathcal{F}_i) p(\mathcal{D} | w, \mathcal{F}_i) dw . \quad (76)$$

- The posterior distribution for \mathcal{F}_i is then:

$$p(\mathcal{F}_i | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{F}_i) Z_i(\mathcal{D})}{p(\mathcal{D})} , \quad Z_i(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(w | \mathcal{F}_i) p(\mathcal{D} | w, \mathcal{F}_i) dw . \quad (77)$$

- If $p(\mathcal{F}_i) = 1/2$, the posterior distribution for \mathcal{F}_i simplifies:

$$p(\mathcal{F}_i | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{Z_i(\mathcal{D})}{Z_1(\mathcal{D}) + Z_2(\mathcal{D})} . \quad (78)$$

- This easily generalizes to finite number of models.

- From looking at the equation of posterior distribution, the marginal likelihood is given by

$$Z(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{M}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|w, \mathcal{M})p(w|\mathcal{M})dw = \int L_w^{\mathcal{M}}(x, y)p(w|\mathcal{M})dw . \quad (79)$$

- Second level inference : model comparison

$$p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}) \propto Z(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{M})p(\mathcal{M}) . \quad (80)$$

- Represents some belief/probability on our models given \mathcal{D} .
- Model selection:

$$\mathcal{M}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathcal{M}} p(\mathcal{M}|\mathcal{D}) . \quad (81)$$

Marginal likelihood for the linear regression model

- The likelihood setting $\beta = \sigma^{-2}$ the precision:

$$L(\mathcal{D}|w) = N_n(\text{vector}(f_w(x_i)), \beta^{-1}I_n) \quad (82)$$

$$= (\beta/2\pi)^{N/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\beta}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f_w(x_i))^2\right) . \quad (83)$$

- If we choose $p(w) = N_d(m_0, S_0)$, we get

$$p(w|\mathcal{D}) = N(m_N, S_n) , \quad m_N = S_N(S_0^{-1}m_0 + \beta\Phi_x^T y) , \quad S_n = (S_0^{-1} + \beta\Phi_x^T \Phi_x)^{-1} . \quad (84)$$

- The marginal likelihood is in the case $p(w) = N_d(0, \alpha^{-1}I_d)$:

$$Z(\mathcal{D}) = \alpha^{d/2} \beta^{N/2} (2\pi)^{-N/2} [\det S_N]^{1/2} \exp\left(-\beta \|y\|^2 / 2 + \beta \left\langle S_N m_N, \Phi_x^T y \right\rangle / 2\right) \quad (85)$$

$$= \alpha^{d/2} \beta^{N/2} (2\pi)^{-N/2} [\det S_N]^{1/2} \exp\left(-\beta \|y - \Phi_x m_N\|^2 / 2 - \alpha \|m_N\|^2 / 2\right) . \quad (86)$$

- Proof in small classes.

Hyper-parameter selection

- Let us say that we have some hyperparameters β and α for the likelihoods $p_w((x, y)|\beta)$ and the prior $p(w|\alpha)$ respectively.
- Question: given some data, can we make some recommendations on the choice of these hyperparameters?
- Examples: linear regression (again!) (recall $f_w(x_1) = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \phi_j(x_1)$)

$$p_w((x_1, y_1)|\beta) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2} \exp(-(y_1 - f_w(x_1))^2/(2\sigma^2)) , \beta = \sigma^{-2} , \quad (87)$$

$$p(w|\alpha) = \alpha \|w\|^2 . \quad (88)$$

- Solution: Bayesian paradigm (again...).
- We set some prior on α and β and treat them as parameter as it was the case for models.
- In most cases, the uniform prior is chosen uniform $p(\alpha) = 1$, $p(\beta) = 1$ (even if they do not define a well-defined distribution...).

Hyper-parameter selection

- Let us say that we have some hyperparameters β and α for the likelihoods $p_w((x, y)|\beta)$ and the prior $p(w|\alpha)$ respectively.
- Question: given some data, can we make some recommendations on the choice of these hyperparameters?
- The posterior distribution for (w, λ, β) is by Bayes theorem:

$$p(w, \lambda, \beta|\mathcal{D}) = p(\alpha)p(\beta)p(w|\alpha, \beta)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \alpha, \beta)/p(\mathcal{D}) , \quad (89)$$

$$p(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_i \int_w p(\alpha)p(\beta)p(w|\alpha, \beta)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \alpha, \beta)dw \quad (90)$$

- The posterior distribution for α, β is then:

$$p(\alpha, \beta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\alpha)p(\beta)}{p(\mathcal{D})} \int p(w|\alpha, \beta)p(\mathcal{D}|w, \alpha, \beta)dw . \quad (91)$$

- Pragmatic choice:

$$(\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\beta}) \in \operatorname{argmax} p(\alpha, \beta|\mathcal{D}) , \quad (92)$$

this corresponds maximization of the marginal likelihood or empirical Bayes approach.

- Example: Bayesian linear regression .

- For most Bayesian inference problems, the integrals needed to do inference and prediction are not analytically tractable - hence the need for various approximations.
- Most of the exceptions involve conjugate priors, which combine nicely with the likelihood to give a posterior distribution of the same form.
- Basic Idea : Given likelihood function $L_w(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, choose a family of prior distributions such that integrals can be obtained tractably.
- If the prior $p(w)$ and posterior $p(w|\mathcal{D})$ belong to same family of distributions, the prior is called a conjugate prior.
- Example: if likelihood function is Gaussian, choosing Gaussian prior over mean will ensure that the posterior distribution is also Gaussian.

Monte Carlo needs: Representing Prior and Posterior by Samples

- The complex distributions we will often use as priors, or obtain as posteriors, may not be easily represented.
- A general technique is to represent a distribution by sampling of many values drawn randomly from it. We can then
 - Visualize the distribution by viewing these sample values, or low dimensional projections of them (PCA..later).
 - Make Monte Carlo estimates for probabilities or expectations with respect to the distribution, by taking averages over these sample values.
- Obtaining a sample from the prior is easy! Obtaining a sample from the posterior is usually more difficult - nevertheless a dominant approach to Bayesian computation.



Kevin P. Murphy. *Machine learning : a probabilistic perspective*. Cambridge, Mass. [u.a.]: MIT Press, 2013. ISBN: 9780262018029 0262018020.