

# Python for Data Science

## Introduction to Bayesian Approaches in Learning from Data

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Salemba, December 2018

## Insight

What we want to obtain?

## Bayesian Learning from Data

Introd to Bayesian Linear Regression

Introd to Gaussian Processes

# Insight: What we want to obtain?

- ▶ Get the idea at a glance on the differences between Frequentist and Bayesian approaches in learning from data.
- ▶ Implement in a very simple way how Python comes up with those stuff.

## Revisit Linear Regression

The concept of linear regression is very interesting, because it gives the central idea of so many various machine learning models, as the function for approximations.

## Revisit Linear Regression

In linear (linear in parameter) regression:

$$y_i = \beta x_i + c + \epsilon_i \quad (1)$$

where  $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ . The estimation scenario is to find  $\beta$  by utilising e.g. least square error. The task is to minimise total residual,<sup>1</sup>  $S$

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2 \quad (2)$$

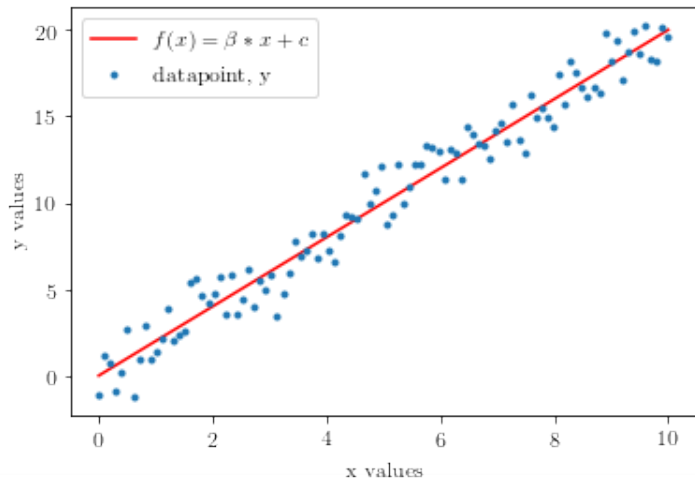
where  $r_i = y_i - f(x_i, \beta)$

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<sup>1</sup>Here we note residual, as the estimation from sample, rather than error which is the differences between the observed and the population

# Bayesian Linear Regression

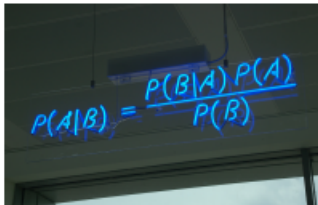
## Revisit Linear Regression



## Revisit Linear Regression

- ▶ Usually we use Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) to find the parameter  $\beta$ . The term "MLE" is just a fancy terminology from the simple one: "estimating the parameter by seeing available (sample) data"
- ▶ This approach is usually called as "frequentist" approach.
- ▶ Fitting function procedure includes e.g. *least square estimates*, given data (`np.linalg.lstsq` or `np.linalg.solve`). Usually, we are interested in a set of unique solution.
- ▶ We refer this as point-estimate approach, rather than expected value from a distribution.

## Bayes Rule


$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$





## Bayes Rule and Our parameter estimation approach

We have had Bayes' Rule

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} \quad (3)$$

That is

$$\text{Posterior} = \frac{\text{Likelihood} * \text{Prior}}{\text{Normalisation}} \quad (4)$$

The Normalisation constant is needed in order to make a valid distribution (that is, the sum of the area under the curve must be 1). Our parameter estimation thus becomes:

$$p(\beta|y, x) = \frac{p(y|\beta, x)p(\beta|x)}{p(y|x)} \quad (5)$$

- ▶ For simplicity, through this slide the parts related to regression model, we will assume that all of the distributions (prior and likelihood) are Gaussian distribution.
- ▶ So that prior and posterior will have the same family distribution. This is called as conjugate prior concept.

## Point based estimate vs distribution based estimate

Our original model

$$y = \beta^T \mathbf{x} + \epsilon \quad (6)$$

where  $\beta = \arg \max_{\beta} p(y|\beta, \mathbf{x})$  (Here I eliminate notation  $c$  (intercept) just to simplify, turning into  $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_0)^T$ ;  $\mathbf{x} = (x, 1)^T$ ). Our prediction  $y$  is rather a point estimate.

But now, with Bayesian approach our prediction of  $y$  would rather be interpreted as a distribution  $p_y$ , that is:

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta^T \mathbf{x}, \sigma_y^2) \quad (7)$$

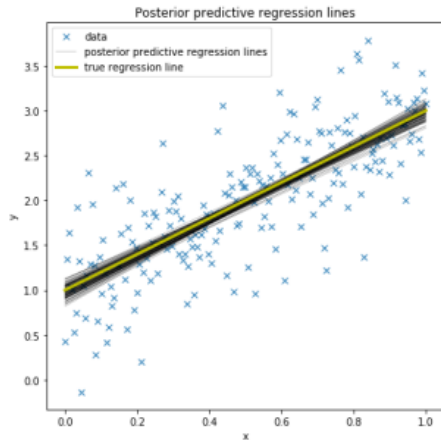
Recall that in learning process (or parameter estimation), our  $\beta$  comes from:

$$p(\beta|y, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(y|\beta, \mathbf{x})p(\beta|\mathbf{x})}{p(y|\mathbf{x})} \quad (8)$$

So that our estimated  $y$  is represented as  $\mathbb{E}(y) \approx \bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i^N y_i$  where  $y_i$  is sampled from our posterior  $p_y$

# Bayesian Linear Regression

## Frequentist vs Bayesian Approach in modelling linear regression.



**Left:** Frequentist approach, **Right:** Bayesian approach.

In Gaussian process, our  $f$  is:

$$f \sim \mathcal{GP} \quad (9)$$

Given  $x$ , the function  $f$  is possibly any complex and expensive function to evaluate.

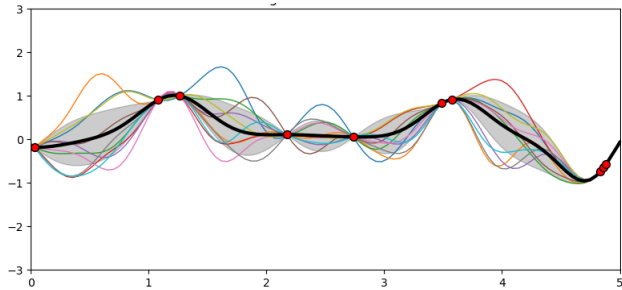
## Notation

I will write the bold symbol to represent multivariate random variable,

$$\mathbf{f} = (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_N).$$

We will demonstrate that  $f$  is of any regression function. That is, we refer this as Gaussian Process Regression.

# Intro to Gaussian Processes



With Gaussian processes, we update our belief about our  $\mathbf{f}$  every time we see the data  $\mathbf{y}$

$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f})}{p(\mathbf{y})} \quad (10)$$

So posterior is proportional to prior and likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y}) \propto (\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}) \quad (11)$$

Having conjugate prior, our posterior poses same family distribution as the prior.

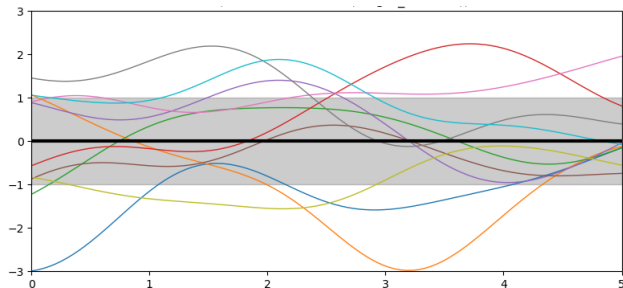
$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}) \quad (12)$$

We know that  $\mathbf{f}$  is a function of  $\mathbf{x}$  to approximate  $\mathbf{y}$ . Thus, we need to model  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{y}$  for this.

## Prior

$$p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}) \quad (13)$$

where  $\mathbf{K}$  is any kernel  $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}^i, \mathbf{x}^j)$  (usually we use Mercer kernel, in order to make sure that  $K$  is a positive definite matrix, so that it would be valid Gaussian).



Visualisation of Prior belief about  $f$  over  $x$ . Horizontal axes:  $x$ , vertical axes:  $f$



And now let us say we perform an experiment, so that we got  $y^* = f(x)$ . (Note:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}(f, \sigma_y^2)$ )

We then update our  $\mathbf{f}$  become new one,  $\mathbf{f}^*$ . First, model the joint probability between  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1 \dots y_n, y^*)$  and new  $\mathbf{f}^*$ .

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{f}^* \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{f}^* \end{bmatrix}; \mathbf{0}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}(X, X^*) + \sigma_y^2 \mathbb{I} & \mathbf{K}(X, X^*) \\ \mathbf{K}(X^*, X) & \mathbf{K}(X^*, X^*) \end{bmatrix}\right) \quad (14)$$

## Posterior Distribution

Our updated distribution of  $\mathbf{f}^*$ , that is posterior, becomes:

$$p(\mathbf{f}^*) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}^*; \text{mean}(\mathbf{f}^*), \text{cov}(\mathbf{f}^*)) \quad (15)$$

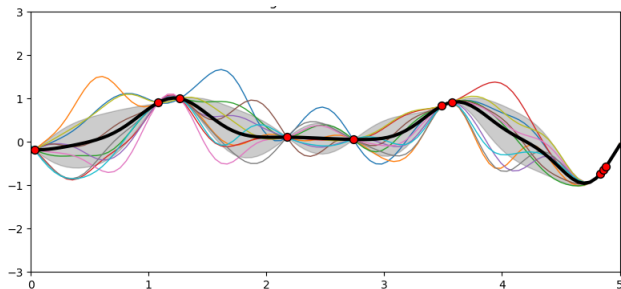
Where

$$\text{mean}(\mathbf{f}^*) = \mathbf{K}(X^*, X)(\mathbf{K}(X, X) + \sigma_y^2 \mathbb{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \quad (16)$$

and

$$\text{cov}(\mathbf{f}^*) = \mathbf{K}(X^*, X^*) - \mathbf{K}(X^*, X)(\mathbf{K}(X, X) + \sigma_y^2 \mathbb{I})^{-1} \mathbf{K}(X, X^*) \quad (17)$$

Our posterior..



Visualisation of Posterior belief about  $f$  over  $x$ . Horizontal axes:  $x$ , vertical axes:  $f$

**As simple as that, but it is indeed a powerful method**



**Thank You**