

Introduction to Bayesian learning

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- We are given a set of observed data assumed to be generated from some distribution.

$$X := (x_1, \dots, x_n) \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p_{\text{true}}(x). \quad (1)$$

- Since we don't have an access to $p_{\text{true}}(x)$, we setup a **model** $p(x; \theta)$ defined with a parameter θ .
- Now we select θ that best describes the observed data X through $p(x; \theta)$.

- Best describes? - $p(x; \theta)$ should be close to $p_{\text{true}}(x)$.
- A popular example - maximum likelihood.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{D}_{\text{KL}}[p_{\text{true}}(x) \| p(x; \theta)] &= \int p_{\text{true}}(x) \log \frac{p_{\text{true}}(x)}{p(x; \theta)} dx \\ &= -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{true}}(x)}[\log p(x; \theta)] - \mathbb{H}[p_{\text{true}}(x)] \\ &\approx -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x_i; \theta) + \text{const.} \quad (2)\end{aligned}$$

- A simplified representation of (random) phenomenon with mathematical language.
- “All models are wrong, but some are useful.” - George E. P. Box.
- How do we know whether a model is good enough?
- How can we compare different models?

- It all began from a simple formula.

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

- Bayesian learning: treat θ as a random variable with **prior** $p(\theta)$, and compute its **posterior** $p(\theta|X)$ after observing data.

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)} = \frac{p(\theta) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\theta)}{p(X)}. \quad (4)$$

Frequentism vs Bayesianism

- Frequentists
 - Probability is a limiting **frequency** of an event happening over **repeated experiments**.
 - Parameter θ is a fixed value, and it is meaningless to define the frequency of θ (and thus $p(\theta)$).
 - We are interested in doing repeated experiments for X (even if it is hypothetical).
- Bayesian
 - Probability is **quantification of uncertainty** for some event.
 - It is natural to define an uncertainty of a parameter θ as $p(\theta)$.
 - We are interested in the uncertainty of θ after observing data X - the posterior $p(\theta|X)$.
 - We are not particularly interested in the uncertainty of X because we have observed it.

Coin toss example

- Say we have observed a set of outcomes from a coin toss.

$$X = (x_1, \dots, x_n), \quad x_i \in \{H, T\} \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n. \quad (5)$$

- We assume a very simple Bernoulli model.

$$p(x = H; \theta) = \theta, \quad \theta \in [0, 1]. \quad (6)$$

- We want to estimate the parameter θ .

Coin toss example - a frequentist approach

- Believing that our simple model is correct, there should be only one parameter θ that could have generated X .
- Define an estimator $\hat{\theta}_X$ by maximizing the log-likelihood.

$$\hat{\theta}_X := \arg \max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^n \log p(x_i; \theta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i=H\}}}{n}. \quad (7)$$

- $\hat{\theta}_X$ would approach θ as we observe more and more data (do more coin tosses).

Coin toss example - a frequentist approach

- It is perfectly natural to define a probability of $\hat{\theta}_X$, because we can do repeated experiments to compute them.
- In other words, $\hat{\theta}_X$ itself is a random variable, with mean and variance computed as

$$\mathbb{E}_{p_{\text{true}}(X)}[\hat{\theta}_X] = \theta, \quad \text{Var}_{p_{\text{true}}(X)}[\hat{\theta}_X] = \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n}. \quad (8)$$

- By the central limit theorem,

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_X - \theta}{\sqrt{\frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n}}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1). \quad (9)$$

Coin toss example - a frequentist approach

- By the law of large numbers,

$$\hat{\sigma}_X^2 := \frac{\hat{\theta}_X(1 - \hat{\theta}_X)}{n} \xrightarrow{P} \frac{\theta(1 - \theta)}{n}. \quad (10)$$

- By the Slutsky's theorem,

$$\frac{\hat{\theta}_X - \theta}{\hat{\sigma}_X} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad (11)$$

and thus the Confidence Interval (CI) at level α ($100(1 - \alpha)\%$ CI) is computed as

$$\Pr\left(\hat{\theta}_X - Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\hat{\sigma}_X < \theta < \hat{\theta}_X + Z_{1-\frac{\alpha}{2}}\hat{\sigma}_X\right) \rightarrow 1 - \alpha, \quad (12)$$

where Z_α is the inverse CDF of $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Coin toss example - a frequentist approach

- Does this mean that the probability of θ being included in the ci is $1 - \alpha$?
 - No! θ is a fixed value. What's varying is the data X (and thus the ci computed from X).
 - So, the correct interpretation is, if we compute cis for many datasets X generated from $p_{\text{true}}(x)$ over and over again, the fraction among those containing θ would approach $1 - \alpha$.
 - Does that sound intuitive?

Coin toss example - a Bayesian approach

- Believing that our model is true, we represent our uncertainty about θ as a prior distribution.

$$p(\theta) = \text{Beta}(\theta; a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \theta^{a-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1}. \quad (13)$$

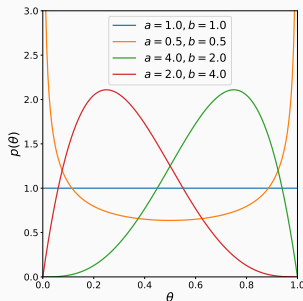


Figure 1: PDF of beta distribution with various parameters.

Coin toss example - a Bayesian approach

- Luckily, the posterior after observing X is still a Beta distribution, with parameters

$$p(\theta|X) = \text{Beta} \left(\theta; a + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i=\text{H}\}}, b + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i=\text{T}\}} \right). \quad (14)$$

- The Credible Region (CR) $[L_X, U_X]$ at level α is defined as

$$\int_{L_X}^{U_X} p(\theta|X) d\theta = 1 - \alpha. \quad (15)$$

- This requires a numerical approximation, but can directly be interpreted as, **the probability of θ (after observing X) contained in $[L_X, U_X]$ is $1 - \alpha$!**

Model selection for regression

- Assume we have a dataset $\mathcal{D} := (X, Y) = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.
- We assume that \mathcal{D} was generated from some function $y = f_\theta(x)$ plus some additive noise.

$$p(y|x; \theta) = \mathcal{N}(y|f_\theta(x), \sigma_y^2). \quad (16)$$

- What would be a proper form of $f_\theta(x)$?

$$f_\theta(x; \mathbf{m}_1) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x. \quad (17)$$

$$f_\theta(x; \mathbf{m}_2) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 x^2. \quad (18)$$

Model selection for regression

- Is it right to compare the maximum likelihoods of models?

$$\max_{\theta} p(Y|X; \theta, \mathbf{m}_1) < \max_{\theta} p(Y|X; \theta, \mathbf{m}_2)? \quad (19)$$

- No, as you all might know, the infamous overfitting issue.

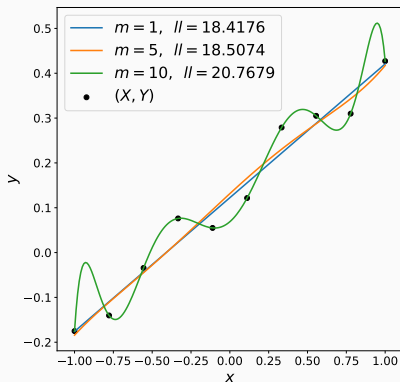


Figure 2: Maximum likelihood fits with various degrees.

Model selection for regression - frequentist approaches

- This happens because we don't take the model complexity into account.
- Akaike Information Criterion (AIC): penalize complex models (k : number of parameters).

$$\text{AIC}(\mathbf{m}) = 2k - \max_{\theta} \log p(Y|X; \theta, \mathbf{m}). \quad (20)$$

- Alternative approaches: create more samples.
 - Cross-validation.
 - Bootstrapping.
- Also devise model-specific statistics whose distribution is well understood and easy to compute.

Model selection for regression - a Bayesian approach

- In Bayesian model, we can naturally define the **marginal likelihood** or **evidence** of data by averaging over all possible parameters.

$$p(Y|X; \mathbf{m}) = \int p(Y|X, \theta; \mathbf{m})p(\theta)d\theta. \quad (21)$$

- We can even treat the model \mathbf{m} as a random variable, and compute the posterior probability of the model.

$$p(\mathbf{m}|X, Y) = \frac{p(Y|X, \mathbf{m})p(\mathbf{m})}{p(Y|X)}. \quad (22)$$

Model selection for regression - a Bayesian approach

- To compare two models, we compute the [Bayes factor](#).

$$\frac{p(Y|X, \mathbf{m}_1)}{p(Y|X, \mathbf{m}_2)}. \quad (23)$$

- Likewise, this requires a numerical approximation (sometimes given analytically though), but we can intuitively compare two different models without additional metrics, datasets (cross-validation), and model-specific statistics.

Frequentism vs Bayesianism - summary

- Frequentism
 - Probabilities are limiting frequencies.
 - Everything makes sense under the context of repeated experiments.
 - Model parameters are fixed.
 - In some sense, current data X is not that important!
 - Rather awkward definition of confidence interval, and requires some care for model comparison.
- Bayesianism
 - Probabilities are uncertainties.
 - Naturally defines uncertainties of parameters and even models via probabilities.
 - Intuitive definitions of confidence (credible region) and model comparison (Bayes factor).
 - Computations may be non-trivial.

Why I'm a Bayesian?

- In my opinion, it is more close to human way of learning concepts.
 - We have an initial knowledge, and it gets updated once we observe data.
 - Sequential update rule.

$$p(\theta|X_1, X_2) = \frac{p(X_2|\theta)p(\theta|X_1)}{p(X_2|X_1)} = \frac{p(X_2|\theta)p(X_1|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X_2|X_1)P(X_1)}. \quad (24)$$

- Freedom to think of probabilities or uncertainties of non-trivial concepts (e.g., Bayesian nonparametric models)
- General principle for model assessment and comparison (I don't think the computation is the issue).
- It's cool.

Why uncertainty matters?

- Importance of knowing what you don't know.
 - Uber incident.
 - Racist algorithm by Google.
 - Medical diagnosis and decision making with financial data.
- Uncertainty guided sequential decision making
 - Bayesian optimization.
 - Reinforcement learning.
 - Active learning.

- We have a data X . We setup a model \mathbf{m} with a parameter θ .
- **Inference**: compute $p(\theta|X)$.

$$p(\theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(X)}. \quad (25)$$

- **Prediction**: for a new data x_* and a function of interest f ,

$$p(f(x_*)|X) = \int p(f(x_*)|\theta)p(\theta|X)d\theta. \quad (26)$$

- Model comparison and criticism (posterior predictive checks, Bayes factors, ...).

The most useful identity

Monte-Carlo estimator of expectation.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}_{p(x)}[f(x)] = \int f(x)p(x)dx, \quad (27)$$

where $x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} p(x)$.

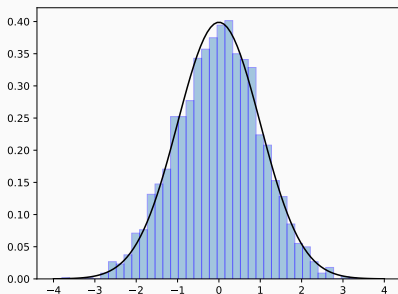


Figure 3: Monte-Carlo approximation for $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Recommended Readings

- `http://jakevdp.github.io/blog/2014/03/11/frequentism-and-bayesianism-a-practical-intro/`
- `http://www.stat.cmu.edu/~larry/=sml/Bayes.pdf`