

Basics of Parameter Estimation in Probabilistic Models

CS698X: Topics in Probabilistic Modeling and Inference

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Two Fundamental Rules

- Keep in mind these two simple rules of probability: **sum rule** and **product rule**
- Assume two random variables a and b

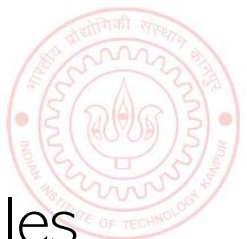
$$p(a) = \sum_b p(a, b) \quad (\text{sum rule})$$

$$p(a, b) = p(a)p(b|a) = p(b)p(a|b) \quad (\text{product rule})$$

- Note: For continuous r.v.'s, sum replaced by integral: $p(a) = \int p(a, b)db$
- Bayes rule can be easily obtained from the above two rules
- Assuming b is continuous, the Bayes rule is

$$p(b|a) = \frac{p(b)p(a|b)}{p(a)} = \frac{p(b)p(a|b)}{\int p(a, b)db} = \frac{p(b)p(a|b)}{\int p(b)p(a|b)db}$$

- Probabilistic modeling and inference is about consistently applying these two rules



Probabilistic Modeling

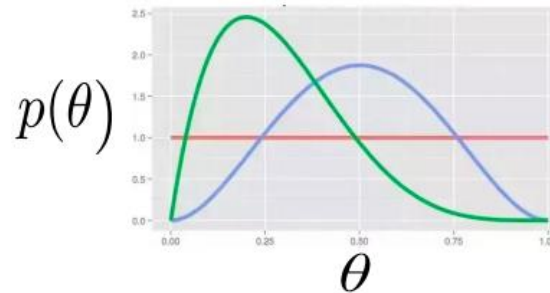
- Assume data $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_n\}_{n=1}^N$ generated from a prob distribution with params θ
$$\mathbf{x}_n \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\theta, m) \quad n = 1, 2, \dots, N$$
- $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta, m)$ is also known as the **likelihood** (a function of the parameters θ)
- Assume a **prior distribution** $p(\theta|m)$ on the parameters θ
- Note: Here m collectively denotes “all other stuff” about the model, e.g.,
 - An “index” for the type of model being considered (e.g., “Gaussian”, “Student-t”, etc)
 - Any other (hyper)parameters of the likelihood/prior
- Note: Usually we will omit the explicit use of m in the notation
 - In some situations (e.g., when doing model comparison/selection), we will use it explicitly
- Note: For some models, the likelihood is not defined explicitly using a probability distribution but implicitly[†] via a probabilistic simulation process



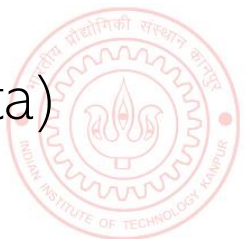
[†]Hierarchical Implicit Models and Likelihood-Free Variational Inference (Tran et al (NIPS 2017))

Probabilistic Modeling

- The prior $p(\theta|m)$ plays an important role in probabilistic/Bayesian modeling
 - Reflects our **prior beliefs** about possible parameter values before seeing the data



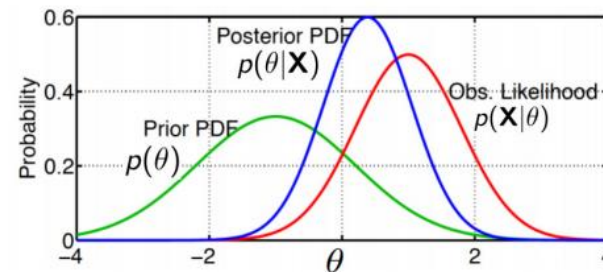
- Can be “subjective” or “objective” (also a topic of debate, which we won’t get into)
 - **Subjective**: Prior (our beliefs) derived from past experiments
 - **Objective**: Prior represents “neutral knowledge” (e.g., uniform, vague prior)
 - Can also be seen as a **regularizer** (connection with non-probabilistic view)
- The goal of probabilistic modeling is usually one or more of the following
 - Infer the unknowns/parameters θ given data \mathbf{X} (to summarize/understand the data)
 - Use the inferred quantities to make predictions



Parameter Estimation/Inference

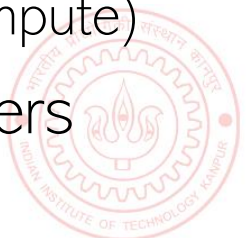
- Can infer params by computing **posterior distribution** (fully Bayesian inference)

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)}{p(\mathbf{X}|m)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)}{\int p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)d\theta} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{marginal likelihood}}$$



Note: **Prior** and **posterior** are distributions over θ . **Likelihood** is just a function of θ

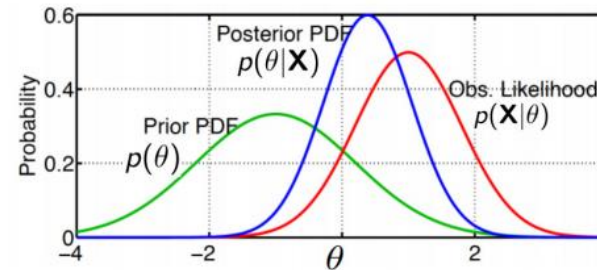
- Marginal likelihood is another very important quantity (more on it later)
 - Probability of data after integrating out some/all of the unknowns from the likelihood
 - $p(\mathbf{X}|m)$ above is the likelihood obtained after integrating out θ from the likelihood $p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)$
 - Not always available in closed form (the key reason why full posterior is often hard to compute)
- Cheaper alternative to fully Bayesian inference: **Point Estimation** of the parameters
 - Find the single “best” estimate of the unknowns



Point Estimation

- Recall that the posterior is

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



In some problems as we will see, hybrid inference is also possible/desirable – infer full posterior for some parameters and point estimate for others



- Point estimation typically done via one of the following two approaches
 - Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation: Find θ for which observed data has largest probability

$$\hat{\theta}_{ML} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(\mathbf{X}|\theta)$$

- Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation: Find θ that has the largest posterior probability

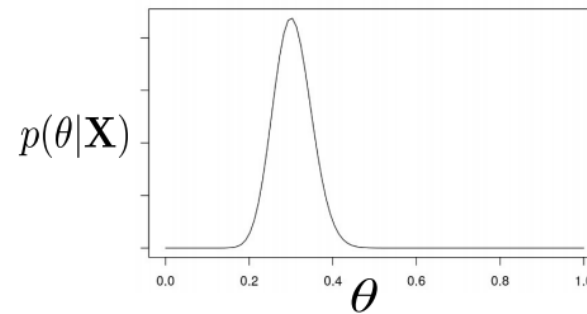
$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \log p(\theta|\mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} [\log p(\mathbf{X}|\theta) + \log p(\theta)]$$

- MAP is just like MLE but information from the prior is also incorporated
 - Thus MAP is like regularized MLE (thus helps prevent overfitting)

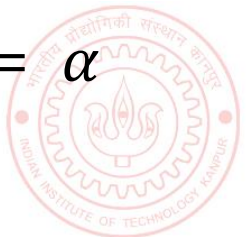


“Reading” the Posterior Distribution

- Posterior provides us a holistic view about θ given observed data
- A simple unimodal posterior for a scalar parameter θ might look something like

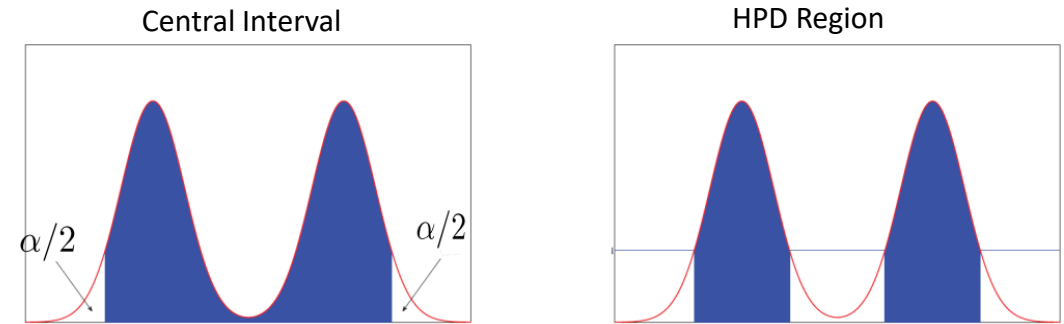
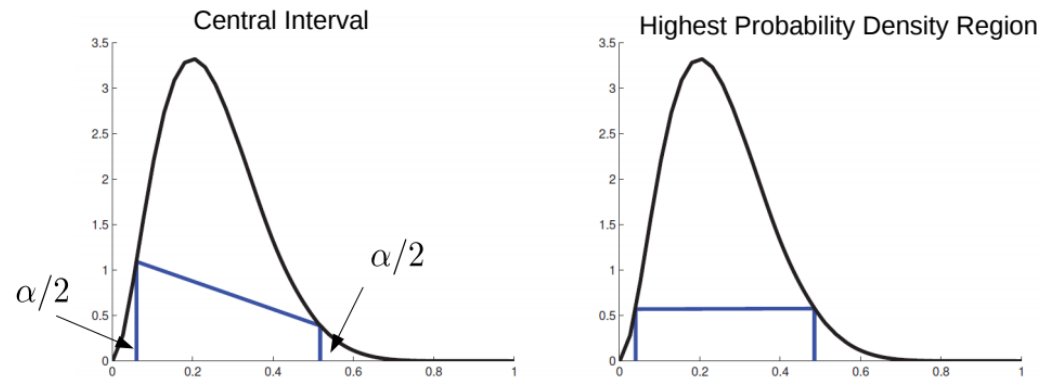


- Various types of estimates regarding θ can be obtained from the posterior, e.g.,
 - Mode of the posterior (same as the MAP estimate)
 - Mean and median of the posterior
 - Variance/spread of the posterior (uncertainty in our estimate of the parameters)
 - Any **quantile** (say $0 < \alpha < 1$ quantile) of the posterior, e.g., θ_* s.t. $p(\theta \leq \theta_*) = \alpha$
 - Various types of intervals/regions



“Reading” the Posterior Distribution

Also defined for multi-modal posteriors



- $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ **Credible Interval**: Region in which $1 - \alpha$ fraction of posterior's mass resides

$$C_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X}) = (\ell, u) : p(\ell \leq \theta \leq u | \mathbf{X}) = 1 - \alpha$$

Computing central interval or HPD usually requires inverting CDFs

- Credible Interval is not unique (there can be many $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ intervals)
- **Central Interval** is a symmetrized version of Credible Interval ($\alpha/2$ mass on each tail)
- Another useful interval: The $(1 - \alpha)$ **Highest Probability Density (HPD)** region

$$C_{\alpha}(\mathbf{X}) = \{\theta : p(\theta | \mathbf{X}) \geq p^*\} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad 1 - \alpha = \int_{\theta: p(\theta | \mathbf{X}) \geq p^*} p(\theta | \mathbf{X}) d\theta$$



Using Posterior for Making Predictions

- Posterior can be used to compute the **posterior predictive distribution** (PPD)
- PPD is essentially our test time prediction using the learned model
- The PPD of a new observation \mathbf{x}_* given previous observations

Prediction by averaging over the posterior distribution of the unknowns parameters

$$p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}, m) = \int p(\mathbf{x}_*, \theta|\mathbf{X}, m) d\theta = \int p(\mathbf{x}_*|\theta, \mathbf{X}, m)p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m) d\theta$$

Just a simple example. The actual form of PPD (e.g., what we are predicting and what we condition on, etc) will depend on the problem.

Assuming observations are i.i.d. given θ

$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_*|\theta, m)p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m) d\theta$$

This integral is only rarely tractable

- Computing PPD requires doing a posterior-weighted averaging over all values of θ
- A crude approximation: Instead of PPD, just use a plug-in predictive

However, this ignores all the uncertainty about θ

$$p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}, m) \approx p(\mathbf{x}_*|\hat{\theta}, m)$$

Here $\hat{\theta}$ is the ML or MAP estimate of the parameters

- Plug-in pred. is the same as PPD with $p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m)$ approximated by a point mass at $\hat{\theta}$
 - If we are using plug-in predictive, we are not really being Bayesian!



Marginal Likelihood

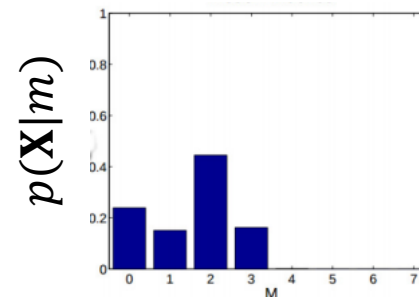
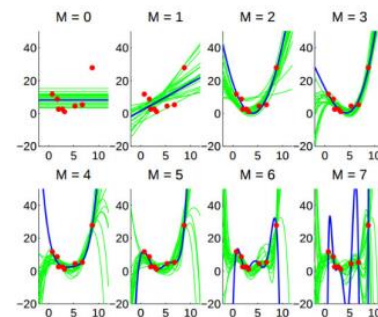
- Recall the Bayes rule for computing the posterior

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m) = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)}{p(\mathbf{X}|m)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)}{\int p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)d\theta} = \frac{\text{likelihood} \times \text{prior}}{\text{marginal likelihood}}$$

- The denominator in the Bayes rule is the marginal likelihood (a.k.a. “model evidence”)
- Marginal lik. is the same as expected likelihood (exp. under the prior distribution) since

$$p(\mathbf{X}|m) = \int p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)p(\theta|m)d\theta = \mathbb{E}_{p(\theta|m)}[p(\mathbf{X}|\theta, m)]$$

- For a good model m , we would expect marg. lik. to be large (most θ 's will be good)
 - Can thus compare two models m and m' by comparing the respective marg. lik.



This doesn't require a separate validation set unlike cross-validation



Model Selection and Model Averaging

- Marginal likelihood is hard-to-compute (due to integral) but a very useful quantity
- It can be used for doing **model selection**

- Choose model $m \in \{1, 2, \dots, M\}$ that has largest posterior probability

$$\hat{m} = \arg \max_m p(m|\mathbf{X}) = \arg \max_m \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|m)p(m)}{p(\mathbf{X})} = \arg \max_m p(\mathbf{X}|m)p(m)$$

Then, for prediction, we can report the PPD $p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}, \hat{m})$ of the best model \hat{m}

That is, simply comparing the marginal likelihoods

- Note: If all models are equally likely a priori then $\hat{m} = \arg \max_m p(\mathbf{X}|m)$
 - Note: If m denotes a hyperparam, then $\hat{m} = \arg \max_m p(\mathbf{X}|m)$ is the optimal hyperparameter
 - Called **MLE-II** for hyperparameter estimation (find hyperparams that maximize the marginal prob. of data)

- Using the model posterior $p(m|\mathbf{X})$, we can even average over models

Called Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA)

$$p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{m=1}^M p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}, m)p(m|\mathbf{X})$$

PPD of \mathbf{x}_* under model m

Posterior probability of model m

Posterior based averaging over all models $m = 1, 2, \dots, M$ and all possible param of each model

- Since $p(\mathbf{x}_*|\mathbf{X}, m) = \int p(\mathbf{x}_*|\theta, m)p(\theta|\mathbf{X}, m)d\theta$ BMA is like **double averaging** to make prediction

Coming Up Next

- Some simple examples of parameter estimation in probabilistic models
 - Estimating the bias of a coin given previous outcomes of tosses from a Bernoulli model
 - Estimating the mean of a Gaussian given observations from a Gaussian model

