

Machine Learning - MT 2017

7 Bayesian Approach to Machine Learning

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Frequentist vs Bayesian Approaches

Different views on **probability**:

- ▶ **Frequentists**: Probability of an event represents long-run frequency over a large number of repetitions of an experiment
- ▶ **Bayesians**: Probability of an event represents a degree of belief about the event

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Different views on **statistics**:

- ▶ Frequentists: **Parameters are fixed**, data are a repeatable random sample, underlying parameters remain constant at every repetition
- ▶ Bayesians: **Data are fixed**, parameters are unknown and described probabilistically, repetition adds knowledge about parameters

Frequentist vs Bayesian Approaches

DID THE SUN JUST EXPLODE?
(IT'S NIGHT, SO WE'RE NOT SURE.)



FREQUENTIST STATISTICIAN:



BAYESIAN STATISTICIAN:



Bayes' Theorem

Recall basic laws of probability:

$$p(A \cap B)$$

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Viewing A as a proposition and B as evidence:

- ▶ $p(A)$ is the **prior** representing initial belief about A
- ▶ $p(A|B)$ is the **posterior** representing belief about A after learning about B
- ▶ **Posterior is proportional to prior times likelihood** if we fix B :

$$p(A|B) \propto p(B|A) \cdot p(A)$$

Priors Matter

Suppose we have a test for a disease:

- ▶ test is 95% effective, i.e., $p(T|D) = 0.95$
- ▶ rate of false positives is 1%, i.e., $p(T|\bar{D}) = 0.01$
- ▶ the disease occurs in 0.5% of the population, i.e., $p(D) = 0.005$

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Suppose the test is positive, what is $p(D|T)$:

$$\begin{aligned} p(D|T) &= \frac{p(T|D) \cdot p(D)}{p(T)} \\ &= \frac{p(T|D) \cdot p(D)}{p(T|D) \cdot p(D) + p(T|\bar{D}) \cdot p(\bar{D})} \\ &= \frac{0.95 \cdot 0.005}{0.95 \cdot 0.005 + 0.01 \cdot 0.995} \\ &\approx 0.32 \end{aligned}$$

Bayesian Machine Learning

In the **discriminative framework**, we model the output y as a probability distribution given the input \mathbf{x} and the parameters \mathbf{w} , say $p(y | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})$

In Bayesian machine learning, we assume a prior on the parameters \mathbf{w} , say $p(\mathbf{w})$

This prior represents a “belief” about the model; the uncertainty in our knowledge is expressed mathematically as a probability distribution

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When observations, $\mathcal{D} = \langle (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \rangle_{i=1}^N$ are made the belief about the parameters \mathbf{w} is updated using Bayes’ rule

As before, the posterior distribution on \mathbf{w} given the data \mathcal{D} is:

$$p(\mathbf{w} | \mathcal{D}) \propto p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) \cdot p(\mathbf{w})$$

Coin Toss Example

Let us consider the Bernoulli model for a coin toss, for $\theta \in [0, 1]$

$$p(\mathbf{H} \mid \theta) = \theta$$

Suppose after three independent coin tosses, you get T, T, T. What is the maximum likelihood estimate for θ ?

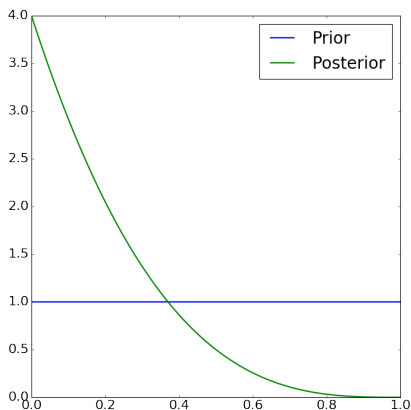
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What is the posterior distribution over θ , assuming a uniform prior on θ ?



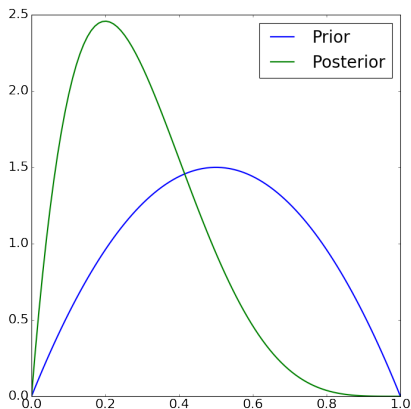
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What is the posterior distribution over θ , assuming a Beta(2, 2) prior on θ ?



Least Squares and MLE (Gaussian Noise)

Least Squares

Objective Function

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^2$$

MLE (Gaussian Noise)

Likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{N/2}} \prod_{i=1}^N \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

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Alternatively, we can model the data (only y_i -s) as being generated from a distribution defined by exponentiating the negative of the objective function

What Data Model Produces the Ridge Objective?

We have the Ridge Regression Objective, let $\mathcal{D} = \langle (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \rangle_{i=1}^N$ denote the data

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{ridge}}(\mathbf{w}; \mathcal{D}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

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Let's rewrite this objective slightly, scaling by $\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}$ and setting $\lambda = \frac{\sigma^2}{\tau^2}$. To avoid ambiguity, we'll denote this by $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}$

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Let $\Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_N$ and $\Lambda = \tau^2 \mathbf{I}_D$, where \mathbf{I}_m denotes the $m \times m$ identity matrix

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{ridge}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^\top \Lambda^{-1} \mathbf{w}$$

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Taking the negation of $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{\text{ridge}}(\mathbf{w}; \mathcal{D})$ and exponentiating gives us a non-negative function of \mathbf{w} and \mathcal{D} which after normalisation gives a density function

$$f(\mathbf{w}; \mathcal{D}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})\right) \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^\top \Lambda^{-1} \mathbf{w}\right)$$

Bayesian Linear Regression (and connections to Ridge)

Let's start with the form of the density function we had on the previous slide and factor it.

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We'll treat σ as **fixed** and not as a parameter. Up to a constant factor (which doesn't matter when optimising w.r.t. \mathbf{w}), we can rewrite this as

$$\underbrace{p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})}_{\text{posterior}} \propto \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}, \Sigma)}_{\text{Likelihood}} \cdot \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, \Lambda)}_{\text{prior}}$$

where $\mathcal{N}(\cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ denotes the density of the multivariate normal distribution with mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance matrix Σ

- ▶ What the ridge objective is actually finding is the **maximum a posteriori** or (MAP) estimate which is a mode of the posterior distribution
- ▶ The linear model is as described before with Gaussian noise
- ▶ The prior distribution on \mathbf{w} is assumed to be a spherical Gaussian

Connections to Lasso

Similarly, the lasso objective finds MAP with Laplacian prior:

- ▶ Recall that $\text{Lap}(x; \mu, \gamma) = (1/2\gamma) \cdot \exp(-|x - \mu|/\gamma)$
- ▶ Lasso objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{lasso}}(\mathbf{w}; \mathcal{D}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^D |w_i|$$

- ▶ Setting $\lambda = 4$, multiplying by $-1/2$, and exponentiating:

$$g(\mathbf{w}, \mathcal{D}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^\top \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})\right) \cdot \exp\left(-2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^D |w_i|\right)$$

- ▶ Observe that

$$\exp\left(-2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^D |w_i|\right) = \prod_{i=1}^D \exp(-2 \cdot |w_i|)$$

- ▶ That's a product of Laplacian distributions:
 $\text{Lap}(x; 0, 1/2) = \exp(-2 \cdot |x|)$

Full Bayesian Prediction

The posterior distribution over parameters \mathbf{w} in the Bayesian approach is

$$\underbrace{p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})}_{\text{posterior}} \propto \underbrace{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})}_{\text{likelihood}} \cdot \underbrace{p(\mathbf{w})}_{\text{prior}}$$

- ▶ If we use the MAP estimate, as we get more samples the posterior peaks at the MLE
- ▶ When, data is scarce rather than picking a single estimator (like MAP) we can sample from the full posterior

For \mathbf{x}_{new} , we can output the entire distribution over our prediction \hat{y} as

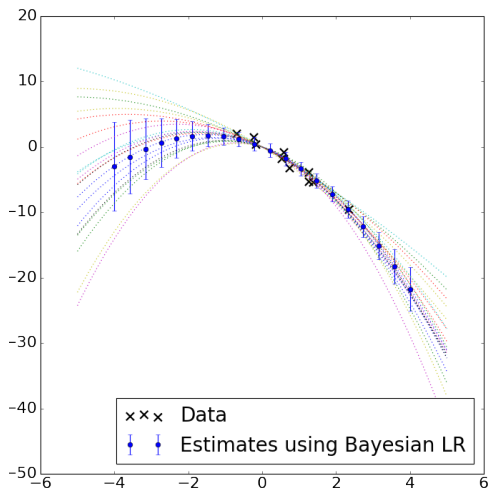
$$p(y \mid \mathcal{D}) = \int_{\mathbf{w}} \underbrace{p(y \mid \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}})}_{\text{model}} \cdot \underbrace{p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior}} d\mathbf{w}$$

This **integration** is often computationally very hard!

Full Bayesian Approach for Linear Regression

For the linear model with Gaussian noise and a Gaussian prior on w , the full Bayesian prediction distribution for a new point x_{new} can be expressed in closed form.

$$p(y | \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}_{\text{map}}^T \mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}, (\sigma(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}))^2)$$



See Murphy Sec 7.6 for calculations

Remarks on Prior Distribution

- ▶ Presence of prior point of criticism in Bayesian approach
- ▶ Prior should incorporate all reasonable **background information** (e.g. domain-specific information, previous knowledge)
- ▶ If no background information available choose **non-informative prior** (uniform over expected range of possible values)
- ▶ **Conjugate priors** allow for analytical solutions
- ▶ **Bernstein-von Mises Theorem**: For sufficiently large sample size, posterior distribution becomes independent of prior distribution

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- ▶ **Conjugate priors** allow for analytical solutions
- ▶ **Bernstein-von Mises Theorem**: For sufficiently large sample size, posterior distribution becomes independent of prior distribution (terms and conditions apply)

Summary : Bayesian Machine Learning

In the Bayesian view, in addition to modelling the output y as a random variable given the parameters \mathbf{w} and input \mathbf{x} , we also encode prior belief about the parameters \mathbf{w} as a probability distribution $p(\mathbf{w})$.

- ▶ If the prior has a parametric form, they are called **hyperparameters**
- ▶ The posterior over the parameters \mathbf{w} is updated given data
- ▶ Either pick point (plugin) estimates, *e.g.*, **maximum a posteriori**
- ▶ Or as in the full Bayesian approach use the entire posterior to make prediction (this is often computationally intractable)
- ▶ Choice of prior can be difficult?