Machine Learning CSE 6363 (Fall 2016)

Lecture 4 Bayesian Learning

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Probability Distribution

- Let's start from a question
- A billionaire from the suburbs of Seattle asks you a question:
 - He says: I have thumbtack, if I flip it, what's the probability it will fall with the nail up?
 - You say: Please flip it a few times
 - You say: The probability is:
 - He says: Why???
 - You say: Because...

Thumbtack – Binomial Distribution

- $P(Heads) = \theta$, $P(Tails) = 1 \theta$
- Flips are:
 - Independent events
 - Identically distributed according to Binomial distribution
- Sequence D of $\alpha_{\rm H}$ Heads and $\alpha_{\rm T}$ Tails

$$P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- **Data:** Observed set D of $\alpha_{\rm H}$ Heads and $\alpha_{\rm T}$ Tails
- Hypothesis: Binomial distribution
- Learning θ is an optimization problem
 What's the objective function?
- MLE: Choose θ that maximizes the probability of observed data:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$
$$= \arg \max_{\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$$

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Your First Learning Algorithm

$$egin{arggammatrix} \widehat{ heta} &= rgmax & \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid heta) \ &= rgmax & rgmax & \ln heta^{lpha_H} (1- heta)^{lpha_T} \end{split}$$

• Set derivative to zero:

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \ln P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = 0$$

$$\widehat{\theta} = \frac{\alpha_H}{\alpha_H + \alpha_T}$$

- Billionaire says: I flipped 3 heads and 2 tails.
- You say: $\theta = 3/5$, I can prove it!
- Billionaire says: Wait, I know that the thumbtack is "close" to 50-50. What can you?
- You say: I can learn it the Bayesian way...
- Rather than estimating a single θ , we obtain a distribution over possible values of θ

Bayesian Learning

• Use Bayes rule:

$$P(\theta \mid D) = \frac{P(D \mid \theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$

• Or equivalently:

$P(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) P(\theta)$

Bayesian Learning for Thumbtack

$P(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \propto P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) P(\theta)$

• Likelihood function is simply Binomial:

$$P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 - \theta)^{\alpha_T}$$

- What about prior?
 - Represent expert knowledge
 - Simple posterior form
- Conjugate priors:
 - Closed-form representation of posterior
 - For Binomial, conjugate prior is Beta distribution

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Beta Prior Distribution – $P(\theta)$

$$P(\theta) = \frac{\theta^{\beta_H - 1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta_T - 1}}{B(\beta_H, \beta_T)} \sim Beta(\beta_H, \beta_T)$$



- Likelihood function: $P(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{\alpha_H} (1 \theta)^{\alpha_T}$
- Posterior: $P(\theta \mid D) \propto P(D \mid \theta)P(\theta)$

Posterior Distribution

- Prior: $Beta(\beta_H, \beta_T)$
- Data: $\alpha_{\rm H}$ Heads and $\alpha_{\rm T}$ Tails
- Posterior distribution:

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P(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) \sim Beta(\beta_H + \alpha_H, \beta_T + \alpha_T)
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Conjugate Priors

- A Bayesian estimate of μ requires a prior $p(\mu)$.
- A prior is called conjugate if, when multiplied by the likelihood $p(D|\mu)$, the resulting posterior is in the same parametric family as the prior. (Closed under Bayesian updating.)
- The Beta prior is conjugate to the Bernoulli likelihood

$$P(\mu|D) \propto P(D|\mu)P(\mu) \\ \propto [\mu^{n}(1-\mu)^{m}][\mu^{a-1}\mu^{b-1}] \\ = \mu^{n+a-1}(1-\mu)^{m+b-1}$$

where n is the number of heads and m is the number of tails.

• a, b are hyperparameters (parameters of the prior) and correspond to the number of "virtual" heads/tails (pseudo counts). $N_0 = a + b$ is called the effective sample size (strength) of the prior. a = b = 1 is a uniform prior (Laplace smoothing).

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The Beta Distribution

• To ensure the prior is normalized, we define

$$P(\mu|a,b) = \mathsf{Beta}(\mu|a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}\mu^{a-1}(1-\mu)^{b-1}$$

where the gamma function is defined as

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty u^{x-1} e^{-u} du$$

Note that $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$ and $\Gamma(1) = 1$. Also, for integers, $\Gamma(x+1) = x!$.

• The normalization constant $1/Z(a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}$ ensures

$$\int_0^1 \mathsf{Beta}(\mu|a,b) d\mu = 1$$

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The Beta Distribution



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Bayesian Updating in Pictures

• Start with $Be(\mu|a=2, b=2)$ and observe x = 1, so the posterior is $Be(\mu|a=3, b=2)$.

thetas = 0:0.01:1; alphaH = 2; alphaT = 2; Nh=1; Nt=0; N = Nh+Nt; prior = betapdf(thetas, alphaH, alphaT); lik = choose(N,Nh) * thetas.^Nh .* (1-thetas).^Nt; post = betapdf(thetas, alphaH+Nh, alphaT+Nt);



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Posterior Predictive Distribution

• The posterior predictive distribution is

$$\begin{split} p(X = 1|D) &= \int_0^1 p(X = 1|\mu) p(\mu|D) d\mu \\ &= \int_0^1 \mu p(\mu|D) d\mu = E[\mu|D] = \frac{n+a}{n+m+a+b} \end{split}$$

• With a uniform prior a = b = 1, we get Laplace's rule of succession

$$p(X = 1 | N_h, N_t) = \frac{N_h + 1}{N_h + N_t + 2}$$

• Start with $Be(\mu|a=2, b=2)$ and observe x = 1 to get $Be(\mu|a=3, b=2)$, so the mean shifts from $E[\mu] = 2/4$ to $E[\mu|D] = 3/5$.



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Effect of Prior Strength

- Let $N = N_h + N_t$ be number of samples (observations).
- Let N' be the number of pseudo observations (strength of prior) and define the prior means

$$\alpha_h = N' \alpha'_h, \quad \alpha_t = N' \alpha'_t, \quad \alpha'_h + \alpha'_t = 1$$

• Then posterior mean is a convex combination of the prior mean and the MLE (where $\lambda = N'/(N + N')$):

$$P(X = h | \alpha_h, \alpha_t, N_h, N_t) = \frac{\alpha_h + N_h}{\alpha_h + N_h + \alpha_t + N_t}$$
$$= \frac{N' \alpha'_h + N_h}{N + N'}$$
$$= \frac{N'}{N + N'} \alpha'_h + \frac{N}{N + N'} \frac{N_h}{N}$$
$$= \lambda \alpha'_h + (1 - \lambda) \frac{N_h}{N}$$

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Effect of Prior Strength

- Suppose we have a uniform prior $\alpha'_h = \alpha'_t = 0.5$, and we observe $N_h = 3$, $N_t = 7$.
- Weak prior N' = 2. Posterior prediction:

$$P(X = h | \alpha_h = 1, \alpha_t = 1, N_h = 3, N_t = 7) = \frac{3+1}{3+1+7+1} = \frac{1}{3} \approx 0.33$$

• Strong prior N' = 20. Posterior prediction:

$$\frac{3+10}{3+10+7+10} = \frac{13}{30} \approx 0.43$$

- However, if we have enough data, it washes away the prior. e.g., $N_h = 300$, $N_t = 700$. Estimates are $\frac{300+1}{1000+20}$ and $\frac{300+10}{1000+20}$, both of which are close to 0.3
- As $N \to \infty$, $P(\theta|D) \to \delta(\theta, \hat{\theta}_{ML})$, so $E[\theta|D] \to \hat{\theta}_{ML}$.

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Parameter Posterior – Small Sample, Uniform Prior



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Parameter Posterior – Small Sample, Strong Prior



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Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Estimation

• MAP estimation picks the mode of the posterior

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} p(D|\theta) p(\theta)$$

 \bullet If $\theta \sim Be(a,b)\text{, this is just}$

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = (a-1)/(a+b-2)$$

• MAP is equivalent to maximizing the penalized maximum log-likelihood

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg\max_{\theta} \log p(D|\theta) - \lambda c(\theta)$$

where $c(\theta) = -\log p(\theta)$ is called a *regularization term*. λ is related to the strength of the prior.

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Integrate Out or Optimize

- $\hat{\theta}_{MAP}$ is not Bayesian (even though it uses a prior) since it is a point estimate.
- Consider predicting the future. A Bayesian will integrate out all uncertainty:

$$p(x_{new}|X) = \int p(x_{new}, \theta|X) d\theta$$
$$= \int p(x_{new}|\theta, X) p(\theta|X) d\theta$$
$$\propto \int p(x_{new}|\theta) p(X|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta$$



• A frequentist will use a "plug-in" estimator eg ML/MAP:

$$p(x_{new}|X) = p(x_{new}|\hat{\theta}), \quad \hat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} p(X|\theta)$$

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From Coin to Dice

- Suppose we observe N iid die rolls (K-sided): $D=3,1,K,2,\ldots$
- Let $[x] \in \{0, 1\}^K$ be a one-of-K encoding of x eg. if x = 3 and K = 6, then $[x] = (0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0)^T$.
- Multinomial distribution: $p(X = k) = \theta_k$ $\sum_k \theta_k = 1$
- Likelihood

$$\ell(\theta; D) = \log p(D|\theta) = \sum_{m} \log \prod_{k} \theta_{k}^{[x^{m}=k]}$$
$$= \sum_{m} \sum_{k} [x^{m}=k] \log \theta_{k} = \sum_{k} N_{k} \log \theta_{k}$$

• We need to maximize this subject to the constraint $\sum_k \theta_k = 1$, so we use a Lagrange multiplier.

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MLE for Multinomial

• Constrained cost function:

$$\tilde{l} = \sum_{k} N_k \log \theta_k + \lambda \left(1 - \sum_{k} \theta_k \right)$$

• Take derivatives wrt θ_k :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \tilde{l}}{\partial \theta_k} &= \frac{N_k}{\theta_k} - \lambda = 0\\ N_k &= \lambda \theta_k\\ \sum_k N_k &= N = \lambda \sum_k \theta_k = \lambda\\ \hat{\theta}_{k,ML} &= \frac{N_k}{N} \end{aligned}$$

• $\hat{\theta}_{k,ML}$ is the fraction of times k occurs.

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Dirichlet Priors

- Let $X \in \{1, \dots, K\}$ have a multinomial distribution $P(X|\theta) = \theta_1^{I(X=1)} \theta_2^{I(X=2)} \cdots \theta_K^{I(X=k)}$
- \bullet For a set of data X^1,\ldots,X^N , the sufficient statistics are the counts $N_i=\sum_n I(X_n=i).$
- \bullet Consider a Dirichlet prior with hyperparameters α

$$p(\theta|\alpha) = \mathcal{D}(\theta|\alpha) = \frac{1}{Z(\alpha)} \cdot \theta_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} \cdot \theta_2^{\alpha_2 - 1} \cdots \theta_K^{\alpha_K - 1}$$

where $Z(\alpha)$ is the normalizing constant

$$Z(\alpha) = \int \cdots \int \theta_1^{\alpha_1 - 1} \cdots \theta_K^{\alpha_K - 1} d\theta_1 \cdots d\theta_K$$
$$= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^K \Gamma(\alpha_i)}{\Gamma(\sum_{i=1}^K \alpha_i)}$$

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Gaussian Density in 1-D

• If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, the probability density function (pdf) of X is defined as

$$p_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

We will often use the precision $\lambda = 1/\sigma^2$ instead of the variance σ^2 .

- Note that a density evaluated at a point can be bigger than 1!
- Here is how we plot the pdf in matlab

xs=-3:0.01:3; plot(xs,normpdf(xs,mu,sigma))



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Multivariate Gaussian

1-dimensional Gaussian

$$p(x|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

2-dimensional Gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = rac{1}{2\pi |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} e^{-rac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

d-dimensional Gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

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Multivariate Gaussian

• If $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a jointly gaussian random vector, then its pdf is

$$p(x) = N(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} \frac{1}{|\Sigma|^{1/2}|} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right\}$$

- The quantity $\Delta^2 = (x \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x \mu)$ is called the Mahalanobis distance between x and μ .
- The first and second moments are

$$E[X] = \mu, \quad \operatorname{Cov}[X] = \Sigma$$

• Sometimes we will use the precision matrix Σ^{-1} instead of the covariance matrix Σ .



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Conditional Gaussian

• Suppose $x = (x_a, x_b)$ is jointly Gaussian with parameters

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_a \\ \mu_b \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{aa} & \Sigma_{ab} \\ \Sigma_{ba} & \Sigma_{bb} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Lambda = \Sigma^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \Lambda_{aa} & \Lambda_{ab} \\ \Lambda_{ba} & \Lambda_{bb} \end{pmatrix},$$

 \bullet It can be shown that $P(X_a|x_b) = N(X_a; \mu_{a|b}, \Sigma_{a|b})$ where

$$\mu_{a|b} = \mu_a + \Sigma_{ab} \Sigma_{bb}^{-1} (x_b - \mu_b)$$

$$\Sigma_{a|b} = \Sigma_{aa} - \Sigma_{ab} \Sigma_{bb}^{-1} \Sigma_{ba}$$

- Note that the new mean is a linear function of x_b , and the new covariance is independent of x_a .
- Similarly, the marginal $P(X_a) = N(X_a; \mu_a, \Sigma_{aa})$.
- You should memorize these equations!