Back to Maximum Likelihood

► Given a generative model

 $f(x, y = k) = \pi_k f_k(x)$

- ▶ Using a generative modelling approach, we assume a parametric form for $f_k(x) = f(x; \phi_k)$ and compute the MLE $\hat{\theta}$ of $\theta = (\pi_k, \phi_k)_{k=1}^K$ based on the training data $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$.
- ▶ We then use a plug-in approach to perform classification

$$p(Y = k | X = x, \widehat{\theta}) = \frac{\widehat{\pi}_k f(x; \widehat{\phi}_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \widehat{\pi}_j f(x; \widehat{\phi}_j)}$$

- Even for simple models, this can prove difficult; e.g. for LDA, $f(x; \phi_k) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu_k, \Sigma)$, and the MLE estimate of Σ is not full rank for p > n.
- One answer: simplify even further, e.g. using axis-aligned covariances, but this is usually too crude.
- ► Another answer: regularization.

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Naïve Bayes

Return to the spam classification example with two-class naïve Bayes

$$f(x_i;\phi_k) = \prod_{j=1}^p \phi_{kj}^{x_{ij}} (1-\phi_{kj})^{1-x_{ij}}.$$

The MLE estimates are given by

$$\widehat{\phi}_{kj} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}(x_{ij} = 1, y_i = k)}{n_k}, \ \widehat{\pi}_k = \frac{n_k}{n}$$

where $n_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}(y_i = k)$.

- If a word *j* does not appear in class *k* by chance, but it does appear in a document x_∗, then p(x_∗|y_∗ = k) = 0 and so posterior p(y_∗ = k|x_∗) = 0.
- Worse things can happen: e.g., probability of document under all classes can be 0, so posterior is ill-defined.

The Bayesian Learning Framework

Bayes Theorem: Given two random variables X and Θ ,

$$p(\Theta|X) = \frac{p(X|\Theta)p(\Theta)}{p(X)}$$

- Likelihood: $p(X|\Theta)$
- ▶ Prior: *p*(Θ)

• **Posterior**: $p(\Theta|X)$

- Marginal likelihood: $p(X) = \int p(X|\Theta)p(\Theta)d\Theta$
- Treat parameters as random variables, and process of learning is just computation of posterior p(Θ|X).
- Summarizing the posterior:
 - Posterior mode: $\hat{\theta}^{MAP} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} p(\theta|X)$. Maximum a posteriori.
 - Posterior mean: $\hat{\theta}^{\text{mean}} = \mathbb{E}[\Theta|X]$.
 - Posterior variance: $Var[\Theta|X]$.
- How to make decisions and predictions? Decision theory.
- How to compute posterior?

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Simple Example: Coin Tosses

- ► A very simple example: We have a coin with probability *φ* of coming up heads. Model coin tosses as iid Bernoullis, 1 =head, 0 =tail.
- Learn about ϕ given dataset $D = (x_i)_{i=1}^n$ of tosses.

$$f(D|\phi) = \phi^{n_1}(1-\phi)^{n_0}$$

with $n_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(x_i = j)$.

Maximum likelihood

$$\hat{\phi}^{\mathsf{ML}} = \frac{n_1}{n}$$

► Bayesian approach: treat unknown parameter as a random variable Φ . Simple prior: $\Phi \sim U[0, 1]$. Posterior distribution:

$$p(\phi|D) = rac{1}{Z} \phi^{n_1} (1-\phi)^{n_0}, \qquad Z = \int_0^1 \phi^{n_1} (1-\phi)^{n_0} d\phi = rac{(n+1)!}{n_1! n_0!}$$

Posterior is a Beta $(n_1 + 1, n_0 + 1)$ distribution.

Simple Example: Coin Tosses



Simple Example: Coin Tosses

- Posterior distribution captures all learnt information.
 - Posterior mode:
- $\widehat{\phi}^{MAP} = \frac{n_1}{n}$
- Posterior mean:

$$\widehat{\phi}^{\text{mean}} = \frac{n_1 + 1}{n + 2}$$

Posterior variance:

$$\frac{1}{n+3}\widehat{\phi}^{\text{mean}}(1-\widehat{\phi}^{\text{mean}})$$

- Asymptotically, for large n, variance decreases as 1/n and is given by the inverse of Fisher's information.
- ▶ Posterior distribution converges to true parameter ϕ^* as $n \to \infty$.

Simple Example: Coin Tosses

- What about test data?
- The **posterior predictive distribution** is the conditional distribution of x_{n+1} given $(x_i)_{i=1}^n$:

$$p(x_{n+1}|(x_i)_{i=1}^n) = \int_0^1 p(x_{n+1}|\phi, (x_i)_{i=1}^n) p(\phi|(x_i)_{i=1}^n)) d\phi$$

=
$$\int_0^1 p(x_{n+1}|\phi) p(\phi|(x_i)_{i=1}^n)) d\phi$$

=
$$(\widehat{\phi}^{\text{mean}})^{x_{n+1}} (1 - \widehat{\phi}^{\text{mean}})^{1-x_{n+1}}$$

We predict on new data by **averaging** the predictive distribution over the posterior. Accounts for uncertainty about *\phi*.

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Simple Example: Coin Tosses

- Posterior distribution is a known analytic form. In fact posterior distribution is in the same beta family as the prior.
- An example of a **conjugate prior**.
- ► A beta distribution Beta(*a*, *b*) with parameters *a*, *b* > 0 is an exponential family distribution with density

$$p(\phi|a,b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}\phi^{a-1}(1-\phi)^{b-1}$$

where $\Gamma(t) = \int_0^\infty u^{t-1} e^{-u} du$ is the gamma function.

• If the prior is $\phi \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$, then the posterior distribution is

 $p(\phi|D, a, b) = \propto \phi^{a+n_1-1}(1-\phi)^{b+n_0-1}$

so is $Beta(a + n_1, b + n_0)$.

Hyperparameters a and b are pseudo-counts, an imaginary initial sample that reflects our prior beliefs about \u03c6.

Beta Distributions



Dirichlet Distributions



(A) Support of the Dirichlet density for K = 3. (B) Dirichlet density for $\alpha_k = 10$. (C) Dirichlet density for $\alpha_k = 0.1$.

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Bayesian Inference for Multinomials

▶ Suppose $x_i \in \{1, ..., K\}$ instead, and we model $(x_i)_{i=1}^n$ as iid multinomials:

$$p(D|\pi) = \prod_{i=1}^n \pi_{x_i} = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{n_k}$$

with $n_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(x_i = k)$ and $\pi_k > 0$, $\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$.

The conjugate prior is the Dirichlet distribution. Dir(α₁,..., α_K) has parameters α_k > 0, and density

$$p(\pi) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^{K} \Gamma(\alpha_k)} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{\alpha_k - 1}$$

on the probability simplex $\{\pi : \pi_k > 0, \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1\}.$

- The posterior is also Dirichlet, with parameters $(\alpha_k + n_k)_{k=1}^K$.
- Posterior mean is

$$\widehat{\pi}_k^{\text{mean}} = \frac{\alpha_k + n_k}{\sum_{j=1}^K \alpha_j + n_j}$$

Text Classification with (Less) Naïve Bayes

► Under the Naïve Bayes model, the joint distribution of labels $y_i \in \{1, ..., K\}$ and data vectors $x_i \in \{0, 1\}^p$ is

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i, y_i) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \left(\pi_k \prod_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{kj}^{x_{ij}} (1 - \phi_{kj})^{1 - x_{ij}} \right)^{\mathbb{1}(y_i = k)}$$
$$= \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{n_k} \prod_{j=1}^{p} \phi_{kj}^{n_{kj}} (1 - \phi_{kj})^{n_k - n_{kj}}$$

where $n_k = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(y_i = k), n_{kj} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}(y_i = k, x_{ij} = 1).$

- For conjugate prior, we can use Dir((α_k)^K_{k=1}) for π, and Beta(a, b) for φ_{kj} independently.
- ► Because the likelihood factorizes, the posterior distribution over π and (ϕ_{kj}) also factorizes, and posterior for π is $\text{Dir}((\alpha_k + n_k)_{k=1}^K)$, and for ϕ_{kj} is $\text{Beta}(a + n_{kj}, b + n_k n_{kj})$.

Text Classification with (Less) Naïve Bayes

► For prediction give $D = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ we can calculate

$$p(x_0, y_0 = k|D) = p(y_0 = k|D)p(x_0|y_0 = k, D)$$

with

$$p(y_0 = k|D) = \frac{\alpha_k + n_k}{n + \sum_{l=1}^{K} \alpha_l}$$
$$p(x_{0j} = 1|y_0 = k, D) = \frac{a + n_{kj}}{a + b + n_k}$$

Predicted class is

$$p(y_0 = k|x_0|D) = \frac{p(y_0 = k|D)p(x_0|y_0 = k, D)}{p(x_0|D)}$$

 Compared to ML plug-in estimator, pseudocounts help to regularize probabilities away from extreme values.

Bayesian Learning and Regularization

Consider a Bayesian approach to logistic regression: introduce a multivariate normal prior for *b*, and uniform (improper) prior for *a*. The prior density is:

$$p(a,b) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-\frac{p}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} ||b||_2^2}$$

The posterior is

$$p(a,b|D) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|b\|_2^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-y_i(a+b^\top x_i)))\right)$$

- The posterior mode is the parameters maximizing the above, equivalent to minimizing the L₂-regularized empirical risk.
- Regularized empirical risk minimization is (often) equivalent to having a prior and finding the maximum a posteriori (MAP) parameters.
 - L₂ regularization multivariate normal prior.
 - L₁ regularization multivariate Laplace prior.
- From a Bayesian perspective, the MAP parameters are just one way to summarize the posterior distribution.

Bayesian Learning – Discussion

- Clear separation between models, which frame learning problems and encapsulates prior information, and algorithms, which computes posteriors and predictions.
- Bayesian computations Most posteriors are intractable, and algorithms needed to efficiently approximate posterior:
 - Monte Carlo methods (Markov chain and sequential varieties).
 - Variational methods (variational Bayes, belief propagation etc).
- No optimization no overfitting (!) but there can still be model misfit.
- ► Tuning parameters Ψ can be optimized (without need for cross-validation).

$$p(X|\Psi) = \int p(X|\theta)p(\theta|\Psi)d\theta$$
$$p(\Psi|X) = \frac{p(X|\Psi)p(\Psi)}{p(X)}$$

- Be Bayesian about Ψ compute posterior.
- Type II maximum likelihood find Ψ maximizing $p(X|\Psi)$.

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Bayesian Learning – Further Readings

- Zoubin Ghahramani. Bayesian Learning. Graphical models. Videolectures.
- Gelman et al. Bayesian Data Analysis.
- ► Kevin Murphy. Machine Learning: a Probabilistic Perspective.

Gaussian Processes



- Suppose we are given a dataset consisting of *n* inputs **x** = (x_i)ⁿ_{i=1} and *n* outputs **y** = (y_i)ⁿ_{i=1}.
- Regression: learn the underlying function f(x).

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Gaussian Processes

We can model response as noisy version of an underlying function f(x):

 $y_i|f(x_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(f(x_i), \sigma^2)$

 Typical approach: parametrize f(x; β), and learn β, e.g.,

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \beta_d \phi_j(x)$$

More direct approach: since f(x) is unknown, we take a Bayesian approach, introduce a prior over functions, and compute a posterior over functions.

 Instead of trying to work with the whole function, just work with the function values at the inputs

 $\mathbf{f} = (f(x_1), \ldots, f(x_n))^{\top}$

Gaussian Processes

- The prior p(f) encodes our prior knowledge about the function.
- What properties of the function can we incorporate?
 - Multivariate normal assumption:

$\mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,G)$

• Use a kernel function κ to define G:

$G_{ij} = \kappa(x_i, x_j)$

Expect regression functions to be smooth: If x and x' are close by, then f(x) and f(x') have similar values, i.e. strongly correlated.

$\begin{pmatrix} f(x) \\ f(x') \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \kappa(x,x) & \kappa(x,x') \\ \kappa(x',x) & \kappa(x',x') \end{pmatrix} \right)$

In particular, want $\kappa(x, x') \approx \kappa(x, x) = \kappa(x', x').$

Gaussian Processes

- What does a multivariate normal prior mean?
- ► Imagine x forms a very dense grid of data space. Simulate prior draws

$\mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,G)$

Plot f_i vs x_i for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

> The prior over functions is called a Gaussian process (GP).



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 $\mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, G)$

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 $y_i | f_i \sim \mathcal{N}(f_i, \sigma^2)$

Model:

Gaussian Processes

Different kernels lead to different function characteristics.



Gaussian Processes



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Gaussian Processes

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{f} | \mathbf{x} &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, G) \\ \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{f} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2 I) \end{aligned}$$

Posterior distribution:

 $\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(G(G + \sigma^2 I)^{-1}\mathbf{y}, G - G(G + \sigma^2 I)G)$

• Posterior predictive distribution: Suppose \mathbf{x}' is a test set. We can extend our model to include the function values \mathbf{f}' at the test set:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}' \end{pmatrix} | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} K_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} & K_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}'} \\ K_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}} & K_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}'} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$
$$\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2 I)$$

where $K_{zz'}$ is matrix with *ij*th entry $\kappa(z_i, z'_j)$. $K_{xx} = G$. Some manipulation of multivariate normals gives:

$$\mathbf{f}'|\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(K_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}}(K_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1}\mathbf{y}, K_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}'} - K_{\mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x}}(K_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1}K_{\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}'}\right)$$