

Bayesian Models in Machine Learning

Generative models

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Frequentist vs. Bayesian

- Frequentist point of view:
 - Probability is the frequency of an event occurring in a large (infinite) number of trials
 - E.g. When flipping a coin many times, what is the proportion of heads?
- Bayesian
 - Inferring probabilities for events that have never occurred or believes which are not directly observed
 - Prior believes are specified in terms of prior probabilities
 - Taking into account uncertainty (posterior distribution) of the estimated parameters or hidden variables in our probabilistic model.

Simple classification problem – I.

- Simple example of learning a probabilistic model for maximum a-posteriori classification
 - to introduce classification as a basic problem from machine learning field
 - to understand frequentist's view of "probability" and to show its limitations as compared to the Bayesian approaches
 - to refresh basics from probability theory
- The task is to classify an object (*grenade* or *apple*) given an observation (discrete weight category)
 - It is heavy. Is it grenade or apple?
- Lets have 150 observations as training data
 - Table of observation counts for each class and weight category



1	6	12	15	12	2	2	50
4	22	50	14	6	3	1	100
<i>lightest</i> 0.0 - 0.1	<i>lighter</i> 0.1 - 0.2	<i>light</i> 0.2 - 0.3	<i>middle</i> 0.3 - 0.4	<i>heavy</i> 0.4 - 0.5	<i>heavier</i> 0.5 - 0.6	<i>heaviest</i> 0.6 - 0.7	[kg]

Simple classification problem – II.

- Lets estimate joint probabilities $P(\text{class}, \text{observation})$
 - normalizing the counts by the total count gives **Maximum likelihood (ML) estimates** (see later): $P(\text{grenade}, \text{heavy}) = \frac{12}{150}$
 - We need many observations to obtain robust estimates this way.
 - How certain can we be about correctness of these estimates?
- Maximum a-posteriori classification rule:
 - given an observation select the most likely class
 - i.e. select class with highest posterior probability $P(\text{class}|\text{observation})$
 - ML estimate: $P(\text{grenade}|\text{heavy}) = \frac{12}{12+6}$



$\frac{1}{150}$	$\frac{6}{150}$	$\frac{12}{150}$	$\frac{15}{150}$	$\frac{12}{150}$	$\frac{2}{150}$	$\frac{2}{150}$	$\frac{50}{150}$
$\frac{4}{150}$	$\frac{22}{150}$	$\frac{50}{150}$	$\frac{14}{150}$	$\frac{6}{150}$	$\frac{3}{150}$	$\frac{1}{150}$	$\frac{100}{150}$
<i>lightest</i> 0.0 - 0.1	<i>lighter</i> 0.1 - 0.2	<i>light</i> 0.2 - 0.3	<i>middle</i> 0.3 - 0.4	<i>heavy</i> 0.4 - 0.5	<i>heavier</i> 0.5 - 0.6	<i>heaviest</i> 0.6 - 0.7	[kg]

Basic rules of probability theory – I.

Sum rule:

$$P(x) = \sum_y P(x, y)$$

Product rule:

$$P(x, y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(y|x)P(x)$$

Bayes rule:

$$P(y|x) = \frac{P(x|y)P(y)}{P(x)}$$

Basic rules of probability theory – II.

- Sum rule:

$$P(\text{heavy}) = P(\text{grenade, heavy}) + P(\text{apple, heavy}) = \frac{12}{150} + \frac{6}{150} = \frac{18}{150}$$

$$P(\text{grenade}) = \sum_x P(\text{grenade, } x) = \frac{50}{150}$$

- Product rule:

$$P(\text{grenade, heavy}) = P(\text{grenade}|\text{heavy})P(\text{heavy}) = \frac{12}{18} \frac{18}{150} = \frac{12}{150}$$

$$P(\text{grenade, heavy}) = P(\text{heavy}|\text{grenade})P(\text{grenade}) = \frac{12}{50} \frac{50}{150} = \frac{12}{150}$$



$\frac{1}{150}$	$\frac{6}{150}$	$\frac{12}{150}$	$\frac{15}{150}$	$\frac{12}{150}$	$\frac{2}{150}$	$\frac{2}{150}$	$\frac{50}{150}$
$\frac{4}{150}$	$\frac{22}{150}$	$\frac{50}{150}$	$\frac{14}{150}$	$\frac{6}{150}$	$\frac{3}{150}$	$\frac{1}{150}$	$\frac{100}{150}$
<i>lightest</i> 0.0 - 0.1	<i>lighter</i> 0.1 - 0.2	<i>light</i> 0.2 - 0.3	<i>middle</i> 0.3 - 0.4	<i>heavy</i> 0.4 - 0.5	<i>heavier</i> 0.5 - 0.6	<i>heaviest</i> 0.6 - 0.7	[kg]

Basic rules of probability theory – III.

- Bayes rule:

The diagram shows the Bayes' rule equation with four callout boxes. 'Posterior probability' points to the left side of the equation. 'Likelihood' points to the numerator. 'Prior probability' points to the second part of the numerator. 'Evidence' points to the denominator.

$$P(\text{grenade}|\text{heavy}) = \frac{P(\text{heavy}|\text{grenade})P(\text{grenade})}{P(\text{heavy})}$$

- The evidence can be evaluated using the sum and product rules in terms of likelihoods and priors:

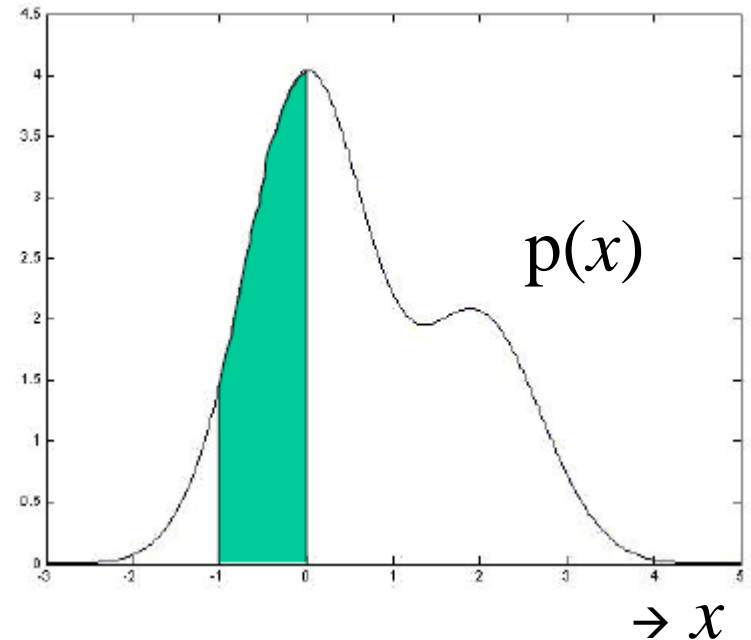
$$P(\text{heavy}) = P(\text{heavy}|\text{grenade})P(\text{grenade}) + P(\text{heavy}|\text{apple})P(\text{apple})$$

- Bayes rule for calculating the class posterior may not seem very useful now, but it will be useful in case continuous valued observations.

Continuous random variables

- $P(x)$ –probability
- $p(x)$ –probability density function

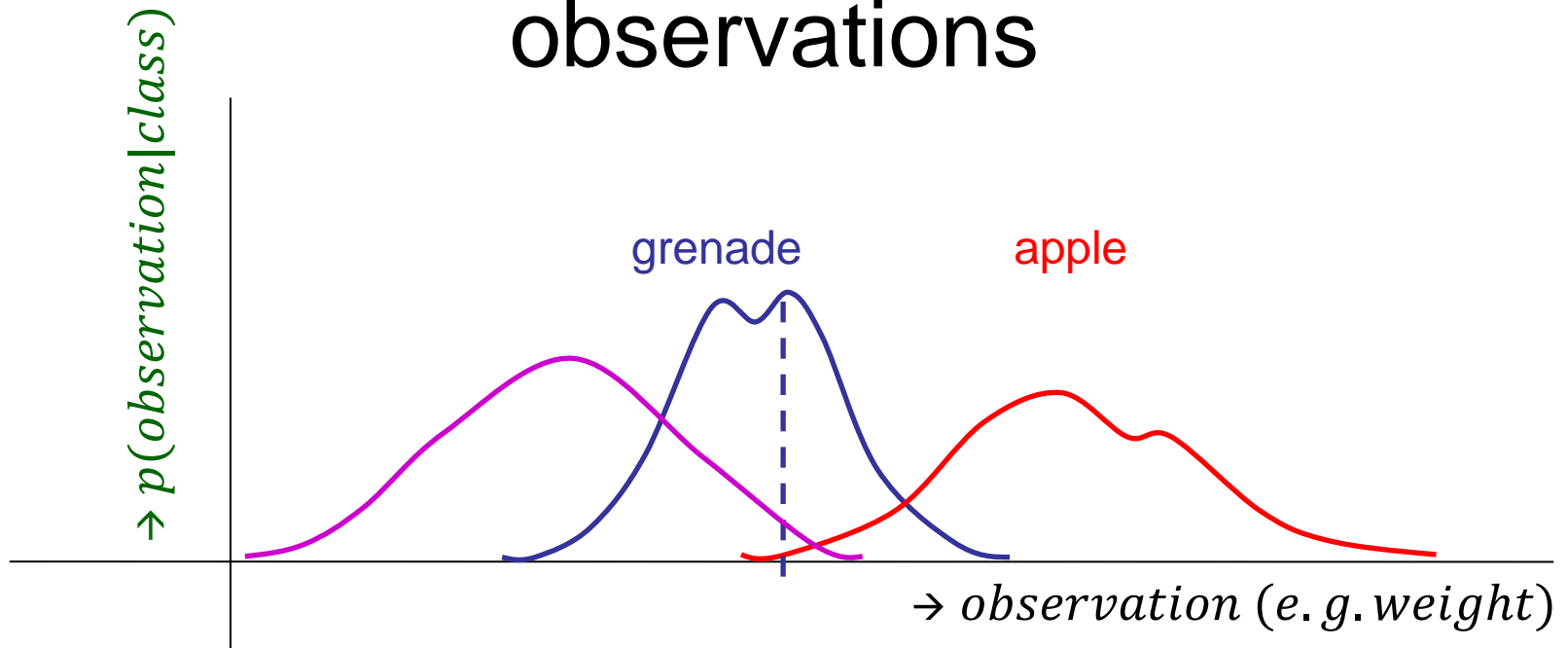
$$P(x \in (a, b)) = \int_a^b p(x) dx$$



Sum rule:

$$p(x) = \int p(x, y) dy$$

Classification with continuous observations



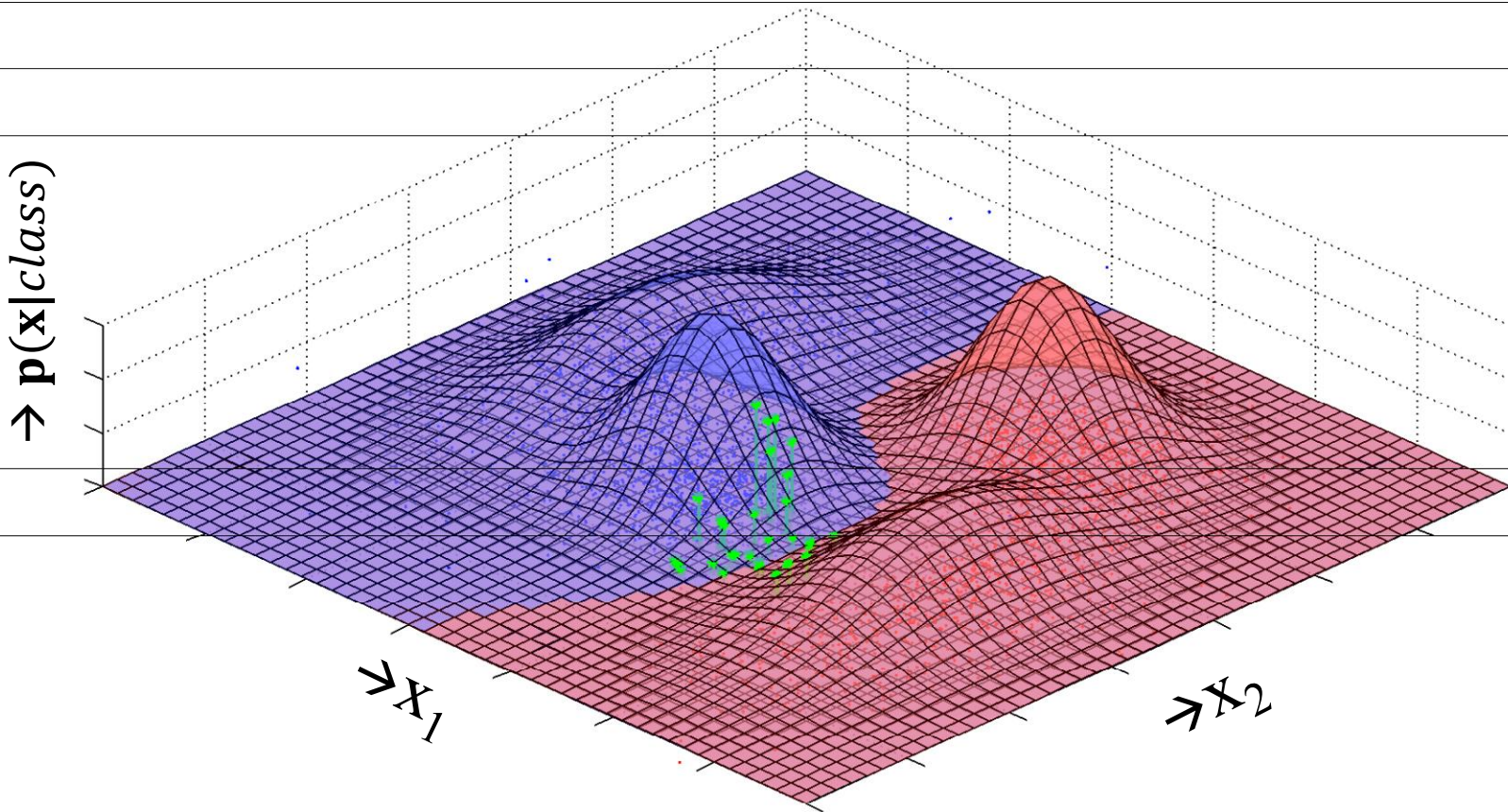
- Maximum a-posteriori classification rule says: select the more likely class

$$P(\text{class}|\text{observation}) = \frac{p(\text{observation}|\text{class})P(\text{class})}{p(\text{observation})}$$

$$P(\text{observation}) = \sum_{\text{class}} p(\text{observation}|\text{class})P(\text{class})$$

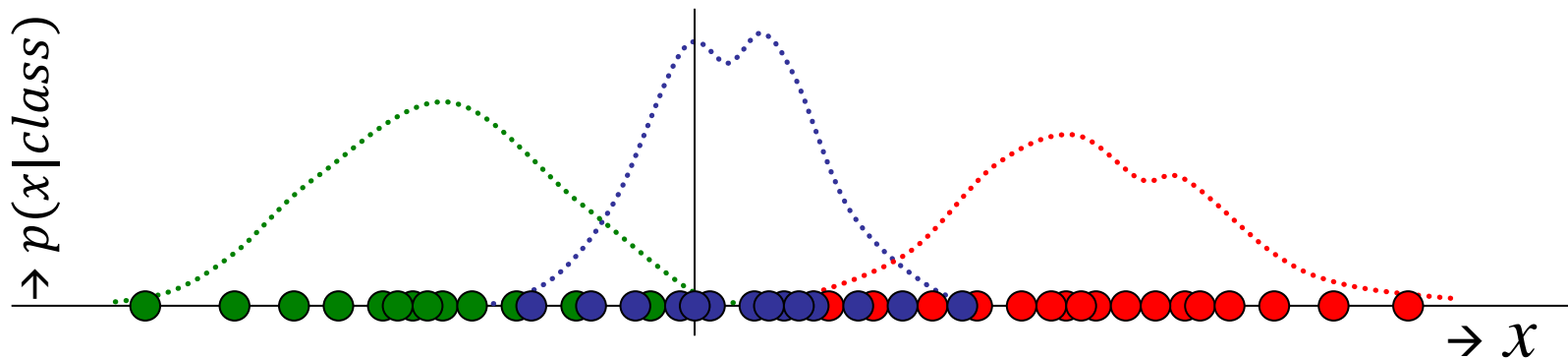
Multivariate observations

From now, univariate observations will be denoted as x and multivariate as $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D] = [\textit{weight}, \textit{diameter}, \dots]$



Estimation of parameters

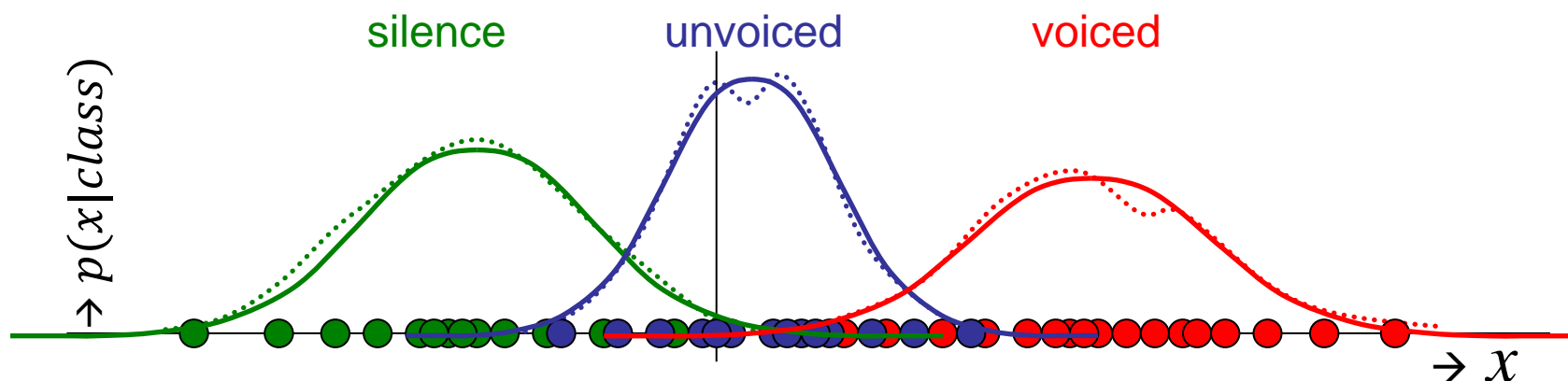
- Usually we do not know the true distributions $p(x|class)$



Estimation of parameters

... we only see some training examples.

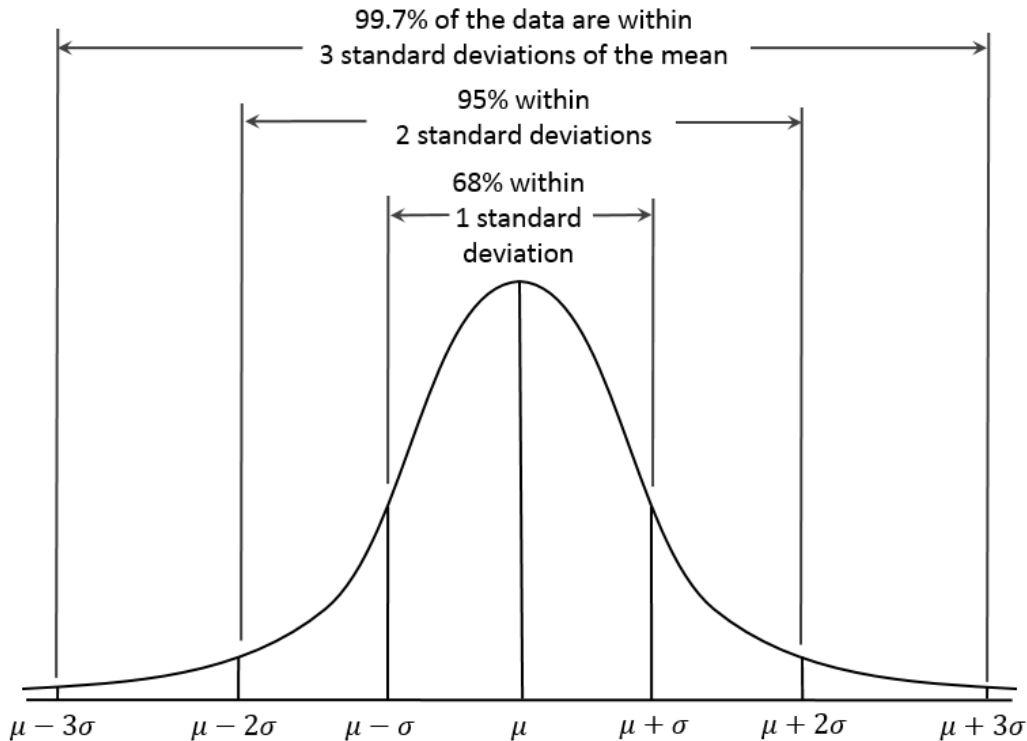
- Let's decide for some parametric model for $p(x|class)$ (e.g. Gaussian distribution) and estimate its parameters from the data.



- Here, we are using the **frequentist approach**: Estimated distributions tell us that observation x will be more likely as we see more similar observations in the training data.
- From now, let's forget about classes. We will concentrate just on estimating probability density functions (e.g. one for each class).

Gaussian distribution (univariate)

$$p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



ML estimates of parameters

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n x_n$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n - \mu)^2$$

Why Gaussian distribution?

- Simple and easy to deal with
 - Just a quadratic function in log domain

$$\log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mu, \sigma^2) = -\frac{\log(2\pi\sigma^2)}{2} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^2 = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \mathbf{x}^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{x} - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} + K$$

- Log likelihood of observed sequence $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_N]$ is

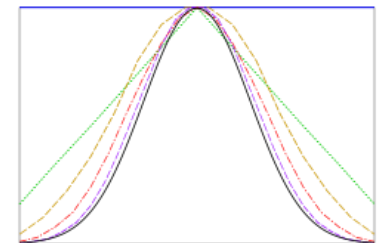
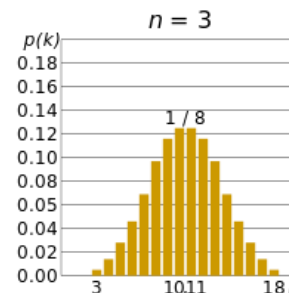
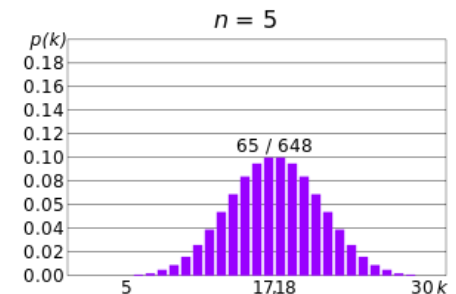
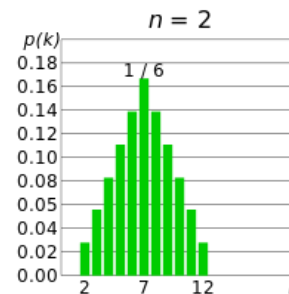
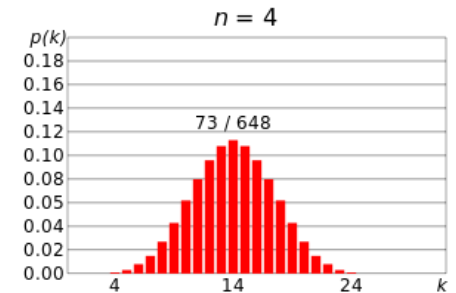
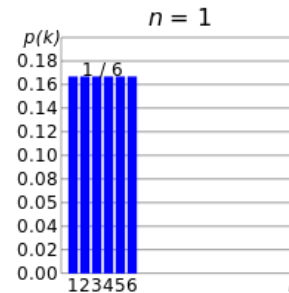
$$\log p(\mathbf{x} | \mu, \sigma^2) = \log \prod_n \mathcal{N}(x_n; \mu, \sigma^2) = \sum_n \log \mathcal{N}(x_n; \mu, \sigma^2)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n - N \left(\frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} + K \right)$$

Sufficient statistics
(second, first and zero order)

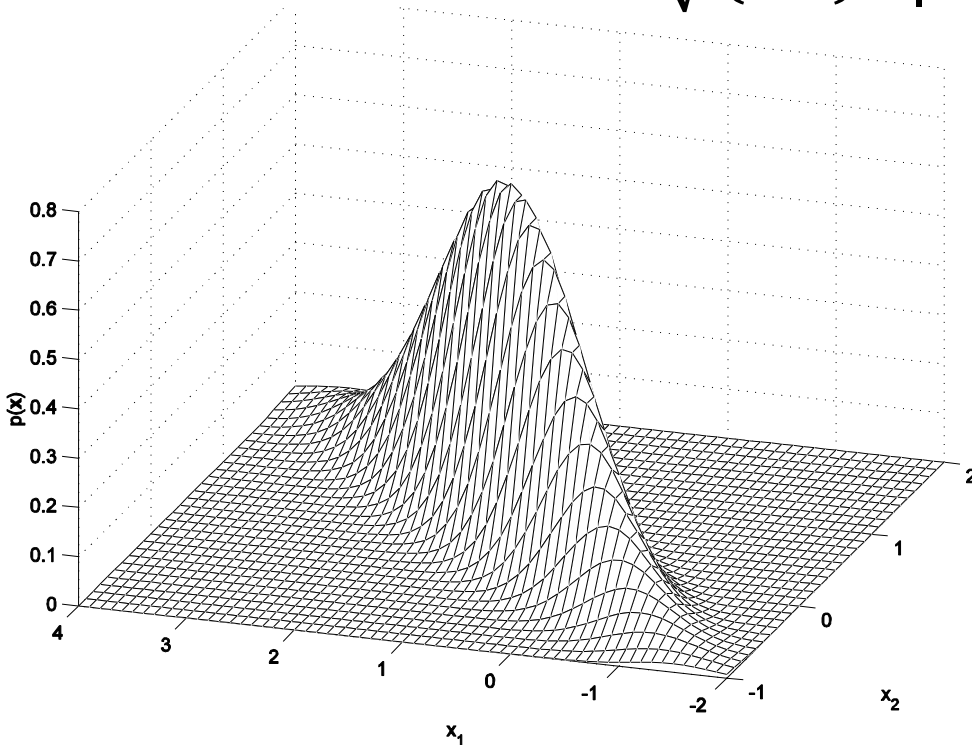
Why Gaussian distribution?

- Naturally occurring
- Central limit theorem: Summing values of many independently generated random variables gives Gaussian distributed observations
- Examples:
 - Summing outcome of N dices
 - Galton's board
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=03tx4v0i7MA>



Gaussian distribution (multivariate)

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_D) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})}$$



ML estimates of parameters

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \mathbf{x}_n$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T$$

Maximum likelihood estimation of parameters

- Let's choose a parametric distribution $p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\eta})$ with parameters $\boldsymbol{\eta}$
 - Gaussian distribution with parameters μ, σ^2
- ... and let's have some observed training data $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N]$, which we assume to be i.i.d. generated from this distribution.
- We might obtain maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters $\hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}}^{ML}$ by maximizing the likelihood of the observed data

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\eta}}^{ML} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\eta}} \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

- Later, we will see that, under some assumptions, this estimates gives us the most likely parameters.

ML estimate for Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned}\arg \max_{\mu, \sigma^2} p(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma^2) &= \arg \max_{\mu, \sigma^2} \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma^2) = \arg \max_{\mu, \sigma^2} \sum_n \log \mathcal{N}(x_n; \mu, \sigma^2) \\ &= \arg \max_{\mu, \sigma^2} \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n - N \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - N \frac{\log(2\pi\sigma^2)}{2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \log p(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma^2) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \sum_n x_n - N \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - N \frac{\log(2\pi\sigma^2)}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left(\sum_n x_n - N\mu \right) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \hat{\mu}^{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n x_n\end{aligned}$$

and similarly: $\hat{\sigma}^{2, ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (x_n - \mu)^2$

Categorical distribution



4	22	50	14	6	3	1	100
<i>lightest</i> 0.0 - 0.1	<i>lighter</i> 0.1 - 0.2	<i>light</i> 0.2 - 0.3	<i>middle</i> 0.3 - 0.4	<i>heavy</i> 0.4 - 0.5	<i>heavier</i> 0.5 - 0.6	<i>heaviest</i> 0.6 - 0.7	[kg]

$$p(x|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \text{Cat}(x|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \pi_x$$

- Also referred to as **Discrete distribution**
- Special binary case is **Bernoulli distribution**
- $x \in \{\textit{lightest}, \textit{lighter}, \textit{light}, \textit{middle}, \textit{heavy}, \textit{heavier}, \textit{heaviest}\}$
or x can be simply the index of a category $\mathbf{x} \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$
- $\boldsymbol{\pi} = [\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_C]$ - probabilities of the categories are the parameters
- Likelihood of an observed training set $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N]$

$$P(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_n \text{Cat}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_n \pi_{x_n} = \prod_c \pi_c^{m_c}$$

where m_c is number of observations from category c .

- (e.g. the numbers from the table)

ML estimate for Categorical

$$\begin{aligned}\arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\pi}} p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) &= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\pi}} \log p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\pi}} \log \prod_{n=1}^N \text{Cat}(x_n|\boldsymbol{\pi}) \\ &= \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\pi}} \log \prod_c \pi_c^{m_c} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\pi}} \sum_c m_c \log \pi_c\end{aligned}$$

We need to use Lagrange multiplier λ to enforce the constraint $\sum_k \pi_k = 1$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \pi_c} \left(\sum_k m_k \log \pi_k - \lambda \left(\sum_k \pi_k - 1 \right) \right) = \frac{m_c}{\pi_c} - \lambda = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \pi_c = \frac{m_c}{\lambda} = \frac{m_c}{\sum_k m_k} = \frac{m_c}{N}$$

