

ECE-271A  
Statistical Learning I:  
Bayesian parameter  
estimation

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# Bayesian estimation

- ▶ last class we considered the **Gaussian problem**

$$P_{x|\mu}(x | \mu) = G(x, \mu, \sigma^2), \quad \sigma^2 \text{ known} \qquad P_{\mu}(\mu) = G(\mu, \mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$$

and showed that

$$P_{\mu|T}(\mu | D) = G(x, \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$$

$$P_{x|T}(x | D) = G(x, \mu_n, \sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2)$$

with

$$\mu_n = \frac{n\sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \hat{\mu}_{ML} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2}$$

- ▶ good example of various **properties** that are typical of **Bayesian parameter estimates**

# Properties

## ► regularization:

- if  $\sigma_0^2 = \sigma^2$  then 
$$\mu_n = \frac{n}{n+1} \hat{\mu}_{ML} + \frac{1}{n+1} \mu_0$$
$$= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} X_i, \quad \text{with } X_{i+1} = \mu_0$$

## ► Bayes is equal to ML on a virtual sample with extra points

- in this case, one additional point equal to the mean of the prior
- for large  $n$ , extra point is irrelevant
- for small  $n$ , it regularizes the Bayes estimate by
  - directing the posterior mean towards the prior mean
  - reducing the variance of the posterior 
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2}$$

# Conjugate priors

► note that

- the prior  $P_\mu(\mu) = G(\mu, \mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$  is Gaussian
- the posterior  $P_{\mu|T}(\mu | D) = G(\mu, \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$  is Gaussian

► whenever this is the case (posterior in the same family as prior) we say that

- $P_\mu(\mu)$  is a conjugate prior for the likelihood  $P_{X|\mu}(X | \mu)$
- posterior  $P_{\mu|T}(\mu | D)$  is the reproducing density

► HW: a number of likelihoods have conjugate priors

Likelihood	Conjugate prior
Bernoulli	Beta
Poisson	Gamma
Exponential	Gamma
Normal (known $\sigma^2$ )	Gamma

# Priors

- ▶ potential **problem** of the Bayesian framework
  - “I don’t really have a strong belief about what the most likely parameter configuration is”
- ▶ in these cases it is usual to adopt a **non-informative prior**
- ▶ the most obvious choice is the **uniform distribution**

$$P_{\Theta}(\theta) = \alpha$$

- ▶ there are, however, **problems with this choice**
  - if  $\theta$  is unbounded this is an **improper distribution**

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_{\Theta}(\theta) d\theta = \infty \neq 1$$

- the prior is **not invariant to all reparametrizations**

# Example

- ▶ consider  $\Theta$  and a new random variable  $\eta$  with  $\eta = e^\Theta$
- ▶ since this is a 1-to-1 transformation it should not affect the outcome of the inference process
- ▶ we check this by using the change of variables theorem
  - if  $y = f(x)$  then

$$P_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{x=f^{-1}(y)}} P_X(f^{-1}(y))$$

- ▶ in this case

$$P_\eta(\eta) = \frac{1}{\left| \frac{\partial e^\theta}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\log \eta}} P_\Theta(\log \eta) = \frac{1}{|\eta|} P_\Theta(\log \eta)$$

# Invariant non-informative priors

- ▶ for uniform  $\eta$  this means that  $P_{\eta}(\eta) \propto \frac{1}{|\eta|}$ , i.e. not constant
- ▶ this means that
  - there is no consistency between  $\Theta$  and  $h$
  - a 1-to-1 transformation changes the non-informative prior into an informative one
- ▶ to avoid this problem the non-informative prior has to be invariant
- ▶ e.g. consider a location parameter:
  - a parameter that simply shifts the density
  - e.g. the mean of a Gaussian
- ▶ a non-informative prior for a location parameter has to be invariant to shifts, i.e. the transformation  $Y = \mu + c$

# Location parameters

► in this case

$$P_Y(y) = \frac{1}{\left| \frac{\partial(\mu + c)}{\partial \mu} \right|_{\mu=y-c}} P_\mu(y - c) = P_\mu(y - c)$$

and, since this has to be valid for all  $c$ ,

$$P_Y(y) = P_\mu(y)$$

► hence

$$P_\mu(y - c) = P_\mu(y)$$

► which is valid for all  $c$  if and only if  $P_\mu(\mu)$  is uniform

► non-informative prior for location is  $P_\mu(\mu) \propto 1$



# Scale parameters

- ▶ a scale parameter is one that controls the scale of the density

$$\sigma^{-1} f\left(\frac{x}{\sigma}\right)$$

e.g. the variance of a Gaussian distribution

- ▶ it can be shown that, in this case, the non-informative prior invariant to scale transformations is

$$P_{\sigma}(\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

- ▶ note that, as for location, this is an improper prior

# Selecting priors

- ▶ non-informative priors are the end of the spectrum where we don't know what parameter values to favor
- ▶ at the other end, i.e. when we are absolutely sure, the prior becomes a **delta function**

$$P_{\Theta}(\theta) = \delta(\theta - \theta_0)$$

- ▶ in this case

$$P_{\Theta|T}(\theta | D) \propto P_{T|\Theta}(D | \theta) \delta(\theta - \theta_0)$$

and the predictive distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} P_{X|T}(x | D) &\propto \int P_{X|\Theta}(x | \theta) P_{T|\Theta}(D | \theta) \delta(\theta - \theta_0) d\theta \\ &= P_{X|\Theta}(x | \theta_0) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ this is identical to ML if  $\theta_0 = \theta_{ML}$

# Selecting priors

► hence,

- ML is a special case of the Bayesian formulation,
- where we are absolutely confident that the ML estimate is the correct value for the parameter

► but we could use other values for  $\theta_0$ . For example the value that maximizes the posterior

$$\theta_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} P_{\Theta|T}(\theta | D) = \arg \max_{\theta} P_{T|\Theta}(D | \theta) P_{\Theta}(\theta)$$

► this is called the **MAP estimate** and makes the **predictive distribution** equal to

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = P_{X|\Theta}(x | \theta_{MAP})$$

► it can be useful when the true predictive distribution has no closed-form solution

# Selecting priors

## ► the natural question is then

- “what if I don’t get the prior right?”; “can I do terribly bad?”
- “how robust is the Bayesian solution to the choice of prior?”
- let’s see how much the solution changes between the two extremes

## ► for the Gaussian problem

- absolute certainty priors:  $P_\mu(\mu) = \delta(\mu - \mu_p)$ 
  - MAP estimate: since  $P_{\mu|T}(\mu | D) = G(x, \mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$  we have

$$\mu_p = \mu_n = \frac{n\sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{ML} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0$$

- ML estimate is  $\mu_p = \mu_{ML}$
- we have seen already that these are similar unless the sample is small (MAP = ML on sample with extra point)

# Selecting priors

## ► for the Gaussian problem

- non-informative prior:
  - in this case it is  $P_\mu(\mu) \propto 1$  or

$$P_\mu(\mu) = \lim_{\sigma_0^2 \rightarrow \infty} G(\mu, \mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$$

- from which

$$\mu_n = \lim_{\sigma_0^2 \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n\sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{ML} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0 \right) = \mu_{ML}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} = \lim_{\sigma_0^2 \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} \right) = \frac{n}{\sigma^2} \Leftrightarrow \sigma_n^2 = \sigma_{ML}^2$$

- and

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = G(x, \mu_n, \sigma^2 + \sigma_n^2) = G\left(x, \mu_{ML}, \sigma^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

# Selecting priors

► in summary, for the two prior extremes

- delta prior centered on MAP:

$$P_{X|T}(X | D) = G(X, \mu_{MAP}, \sigma^2)$$

$$\mu_{MAP} = \frac{n\sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_{ML} + \frac{\sigma^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \mu_0$$

- delta prior centered on ML:

$$P_{X|T}(X | D) = G(X, \mu_{ML}, \sigma^2)$$

- non-informative prior

$$P_{X|T}(X | D) = G\left(X, \mu_{ML}, \sigma^2\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

► all Gaussian, “qualitatively the same”:

- somewhat different parameters for small  $n$ ; equal for large  $n$

► this indicates **robustness** to “incorrect” priors!

# Selecting priors

▶ another example, problem 3.5.17 DHS (HW prob 3)

- multivariate Bernoulli ( $d$  independent Bernoulli variables)
- since Bernoulli is

$$P_{X|\Theta}(x|\theta) = \begin{cases} \theta, & x=1 \\ 1-\theta, & x=0 \end{cases} = \theta^x (1-\theta)^{1-x}$$

- multivariate likelihood is:

$$P_{X|\Theta}(x|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^d \theta_i^{x_i} (1-\theta_i)^{1-x_i}$$

- in (a) you show that if  $D = \{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}\}$  is a set of  $n$  iid samples, then

$$P_{T|\Theta}(D|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^d \theta_i^{s_i} (1-\theta_i)^{n-s_i}, \quad s_i = \sum_{j=1}^n x_i^{(j)}$$

# Selecting priors

- ▶ another example, problem 3.5.17 DHS (HW prob 3)
  - in (b) you then show that if  $\Theta$  is uniform (non-informative) the predictive distribution is

$$P_{X|T}(X | D) = \prod_{i=1}^d \left( \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 2} \right)^{x_i} \left( 1 - \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 2} \right)^{1-x_i}$$

- in (d) you show that comparing with

$$P_{X|\Theta}(X | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^d \theta_i^{x_i} (1 - \theta_i)^{1-x_i}$$

- this can be interpreted as:
  - under Bayes, with a uniform prior, the predicted distribution is the same as the likelihood, with the parameter estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 2}$$



# Selecting priors

► let's now consider the **extreme** of  $P_{\Theta}(\theta) = \delta(\theta - \hat{\theta})$

- ML: we know that

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i}{n}$$

- and

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = \prod_{i=1}^d \left( \frac{s_i}{n} \right)^{x_i} \left( 1 - \frac{s_i}{n} \right)^{1-x_i}$$

- this can be interpreted as:
  - the predicted distribution is the same as the likelihood, with the parameter estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i}{n}$$

# Selecting priors

- MAP: given prior  $P_{\Theta} = \prod_i P_{\Theta_i}(\theta_i)$

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \{ \log P_{T|\Theta}(D | \theta) + \log P_{\Theta}(\theta) \}$$

- and since

$$P_{T|\Theta}(D | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^d \theta_i^{s_i} (1 - \theta_i)^{n - s_i}, \quad s_i = \sum_{j=1}^n x_i^{(j)}$$

- this is

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \arg \max_{\theta} \{ s_i \log \theta_i + (n - s_i) \log(1 - \theta_i) + \log P_{\Theta_i}(\theta_i) \}$$

- i.e. the solution of

$$\frac{s_i}{\theta_i} - \frac{(n - s_i)}{1 - \theta_i} + \frac{1}{P_{\Theta_i}(\theta_i)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} P_{\Theta_i}(\theta_i) = 0$$

- let's consider some specific priors

# Selecting priors

- prior that favors “1”s

$$P_{\Theta_i}(\theta) = 2\theta$$

- MAP solution:

$$\frac{s_i}{\theta_i} - \frac{(n-s_i)}{1-\theta_i} + \frac{1}{\theta_i} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 1}$$

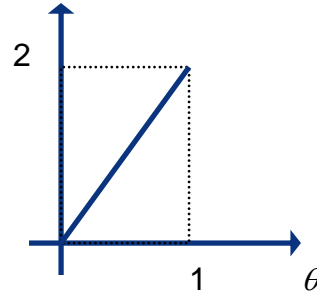
- and

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = \prod_{i=1}^d \left( \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 1} \right)^{x_i} \left( 1 - \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 1} \right)^{1-x_i}$$

- this can be interpreted as:

- the predicted distribution is the same as the likelihood, with the parameter estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i + 1}{n + 1}$$



# Selecting priors

- prior that favors “0”s

$$P_{\Theta_i}(\theta) = 2(1 - \theta)$$

- MAP solution:

$$\frac{s_i}{\theta_i} - \frac{(n - s_i)}{1 - \theta_i} - \frac{1}{1 - \theta_i} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i}{n + 1}$$

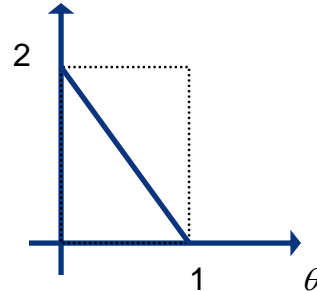
- and

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = \prod_{i=1}^d \left( \frac{s_i}{n + 1} \right)^{x_i} \left( 1 - \frac{s_i}{n + 1} \right)^{1 - x_i}$$

- this can be interpreted as:

- the predicted distribution is the same as the likelihood, with the parameter estimate

$$\hat{\theta}_i = \frac{s_i}{n + 1}$$



# Selecting priors

► in summary

- all cases are of the form
- with

$$P_{X|T}(x | D) = \prod_{i=1}^d \hat{\theta}^{x_i} (1 - \hat{\theta})^{1-x_i}$$

Estimator	$\hat{\theta}_i$	# tosses	# “1”s	interpretation
ML	$s_i/n$	$n$	$s_i$	
MAP non-informative	$s_i/n$	$n$	$s_i$	“the same”
MAP favor “1”s	$(s_i + 1)/(n + 1)$	$n + 1$	$s_i + 1$	“add one 1”
MAP favor “0”s	$s_i/(n + 1)$	$n + 1$	$s_i$	“add one 0”
Bayes non-informative	$(s_i + 1)/(n + 2)$	$n + 2$	$s_i + 1$	“add one of each”

- all cases qualitatively the same: “ML estimate on an extended sample with extra points that reflect the bias of the prior”.

# Regularization

- ▶ these are all examples of regularization
- ▶ Q: what is the point of “adding one of each?” by Bayes non-informative?
  - the main problem of ML ( $s_i/n$ ) is the “empty bin” problem
  - for small  $n$ ,  $s_i$  is likely to be zero independently of the value of  $\theta_i$
  - this can lead to all sorts of problems, e.g. a likelihood ratio that goes to infinity
  - by adding “one of each” Bayes eliminates this problem
  - for richly populated bins it makes no difference, but it matters for empty bins
- ▶ note that this is consistent with the non-informative prior
  - empty bins are as likely as any other value
  - if we see a lot of them, we need to correct this

# Regularization

## ▶ “empty bin” problem

- “why should I care?” this is unlikely if I have a large sample
- remember that “large” is always relative
- 10 bins in 1D transforms into 100 in 2D, 1000 in 3D, and  $10^d$  in a d-dimensional space
- when d is large, we are always in the “small sample” regime
- regularization usually makes a tremendous difference

## ▶ example:

- histogram estimates in high-dimensional spaces
- e.g. histogram of English words for indexing web-pages
  - for each page, compute histogram  $C = (c_1, \dots, c_w)$  where  $c_i$  is the # of times word  $i^{\text{th}}$  word appeared in page
  - measure similarity between pages  $i, j$  with some function  $d(C^i, C^j)$

# Regularization

## ► histogram similarity:

- natural measure is the Kullback-Leibler divergence

$$d(C^i, C^j) = \sum_{k=1}^w p_k^i \log \left( \frac{p_k^i}{p_k^j} \right)$$

- where the probabilities are the counts after normalization

$$p_k^i = \frac{c_k^i}{\sum_k c_k^i}$$

- problem: log goes to infinity when  $p_k^j = 0$ !
- for low-frequency words the noisy estimates are amplified by the ratio of probabilities
- the distance measure has a large variance



# Regularization

## ► Prob 3 on HW

- the count vector  $C$  is distributed according to a **multinomial distribution**

$$P_C(c_1, \dots, c_W) = \frac{n!}{\prod_{k=1}^W c_k!} \prod_{j=1}^W \pi_j^{c_j}$$

- where  $\pi_j$  is the probability of word  $j$ .
- since the  $\pi_j$  are probabilities, we **can't use any prior** here.
- distribution over vectors  $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_W)$  must satisfy the constraints of a probability mass function

$$\pi_j > 0$$
$$\sum_j \pi_j = 1$$

# Regularization

## ► Prob 3 on HW

- one such distribution is the Dirichlet distribution

$$P_{\Pi}(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_W) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\sum_{j=1}^W u_j\right)}{\prod_{k=1}^W \Gamma(u_k)} \prod_{j=1}^W \pi_j^{u_j-1}$$

- $u_j$  are hyper-parameters
- $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is the gamma function

# Regularization

## ► Prob 3 on HW

- on HW you will show that the posterior is

$$P_{\Pi|C}(\pi | c) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\sum_{j=1}^W c_j + u_j\right)}{\prod_{k=1}^W \Gamma(c_k + u_k)} \prod_{j=1}^W \pi_j^{c_j + u_j - 1}$$

- i.e. Dirichlet of hyper-parameters  $c_j + u_j$
- the prior parameters can be seen as additional counts that regularize the predictive distribution!

**Any questions?**