Slides modified from: PATTERN RECOGNITION AND MACHINE LEARNING CHRISTOPHER M. BISHOP

#### Predictive Distribution (1)

Predict t for new values of x by integrating over W:

0

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) = \int p(t|\mathbf{w}, \beta) p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \alpha, \beta) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}$$
$$= \mathcal{N}(t|\mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_N^2(\mathbf{x}))$$

where

$$\begin{split} \sigma_N^2(\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{1}{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{S}_N \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}). \\ \mathbf{m}_N &= \beta \mathbf{S}_N \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t} \\ \mathbf{S}_N^{-1} &= \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}. \end{split}$$

## The Evidence Approximation (1)

The fully Bayesian predictive distribution is given by

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}) = \iiint p(t|\mathbf{w},\beta)p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t},\alpha,\beta)p(\alpha,\beta|\mathbf{t})\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}\,\mathrm{d}\alpha\,\mathrm{d}\beta$$

but this integral is intractable. Approximate with

$$p(t|\mathbf{t}) \simeq p\left(t|\mathbf{t}, \widehat{\alpha}, \widehat{\beta}\right) = \int p\left(t|\mathbf{w}, \widehat{\beta}\right) p\left(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \widehat{\alpha}, \widehat{\beta}\right) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}$$

where  $(\widehat{\alpha}, \widehat{\beta})$  is the mode of  $p(\alpha, \beta | \mathbf{t})$ , which is assumed to be sharply peaked; a.k.a. *empirical Bayes, type II* or *generalized maximum likelihood,* or *evidence approximation*.

### The Evidence Approximation (2)

From Bayes' theorem we have

$$p(\alpha, \beta | \mathbf{t}) \propto p(\mathbf{t} | \alpha, \beta) p(\alpha, \beta)$$

#### and if we assume $p(\alpha,\beta)$ to be flat we see that

$$p(\alpha,\beta|\mathbf{t}) \propto p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha,\beta)$$
$$= \int p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w},\beta)p(\mathbf{w}|\alpha) \,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}.$$

### The Evidence Approximation (3)

Cont.: 
$$p(\alpha, \beta | \mathbf{t}) \propto p(\mathbf{t} | \alpha, \beta)$$
  
=  $\int p(\mathbf{t} | \mathbf{w}, \beta) p(\mathbf{w} | \alpha) \, d\mathbf{w}.$ 

#### Evidence function:

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha,\beta) = \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi}\right)^{N/2} \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^{M/2} \int \exp\left\{-E(\mathbf{w})\right\} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}$$

with 
$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \beta E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \alpha E_W(\mathbf{w})$$
  
 $= \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}$ 

### The Evidence Approximation (4)

Cont.: 
$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \beta E_D(\mathbf{w}) + \alpha E_W(\mathbf{w})$$
  
 $= \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w}\|^2 + \frac{\alpha}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}$ 

#### Completing the square over w:

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = E(\mathbf{m}_N) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_N)^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_N)$$

with

h  

$$E(\mathbf{m}_{N}) = \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{m}_{N}\|^{2} + \frac{\alpha}{2}\mathbf{m}_{N}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{m}_{N}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S}_{N}^{-1}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{m}}_{N} = \beta \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{t}$$

### The Evidence Approximation (5)

Evaluate integral over w

$$\int \exp\{-E(\mathbf{w})\} d\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \exp\{-E(\mathbf{m}_N)\} \int \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_N)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{m}_N)\} d\mathbf{w}$$

$$= \exp\{-E(\mathbf{m}_N)\}(2\pi)^{M/2} |\mathbf{A}|^{-1/2}.$$

Thus, log of marginal likelihood (evidence function):  $\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha,\beta) = \frac{M}{2}\ln\alpha + \frac{N}{2}\ln\beta - E(\mathbf{m}_N) + \frac{1}{2}\ln|\mathbf{S}_N| - \frac{N}{2}\ln(2\pi).$ 

#### The Evidence Approximation (6)

Example: sinusoidal data, M <sup>th</sup> degree polynomial,  $\alpha = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ 



# Maximizing the Evidence Function (1)

To maximise  $\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha,\beta)$  w.r.t.  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we define the eigenvector equation

$$\left(eta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}
ight) \mathbf{u}_{i} = \lambda_{i} \mathbf{u}_{i}.$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S}_N^{-1} = \alpha \mathbf{I} + \beta \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{\Phi}$$

has eigenvalues  $\lambda_i + \alpha$ .

## Maximizing the Evidence Function (2)

Derivative of  $\ln|\mathbf{A}|$  with respect to  $\alpha$ 

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha}\ln|\mathbf{A}| = \frac{d}{d\alpha}\ln\prod_{i}(\lambda_{i} + \alpha) = \frac{d}{d\alpha}\sum_{i}\ln(\lambda_{i} + \alpha) = \sum_{i}\frac{1}{\lambda_{i} + \alpha}$$

Stationary points of log marginal likelihood

$$0 = \frac{M}{2\alpha} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{m}_N - \frac{1}{2}\sum_i \frac{1}{\lambda_i + \alpha}$$

Thus  

$$\alpha \mathbf{m}_{N}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{m}_{N} = M - \alpha \sum_{i} \frac{1}{\lambda_{i} + \alpha} = \gamma$$
  
and therefore  
 $\gamma = \sum_{i} \frac{\lambda_{i}}{\alpha + \lambda_{i}}$ 

## Maximizing the Evidence Function (3)

#### Example: sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions, $\beta = 11.1$ .



## Maximizing the Evidence Function (4)

Thus differentiating  $\ln p(\mathbf{t}|\alpha,\beta)$  w.r.t.  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , and set the results to zero, to get

$$\alpha = \frac{\gamma}{\mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{m}_N}$$
$$\frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{1}{N-\gamma} \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2$$

where

$$\gamma = \sum_{i} \frac{\lambda_i}{\alpha + \lambda_i}.$$

Note  $\gamma$  depends on both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

# Effective Number of Parameters (1)



## Effective Number of Parameters (3)

Example: sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions,  $\beta = 11.1$ .



### Effective Number of Parameters (4)

#### Example: sinusoidal data, 9 Gaussian basis functions, $\beta = 11.1$ .



### Effective Number of Parameters (5)

In the limit  $N \gg M$ ,  $\gamma = M$  and we can consider using the easy-to-compute approximation

$$\alpha = \frac{M}{\mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{m}_N}$$
$$\frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{m}_N^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\}^2$$

### Limitations of Fixed Basis Functions

- Class of nonlinearities may be insufficient
- M basis function along each dimension of a D-dimensional input space requires M<sup>D</sup> basis functions: the curse of dimensionality.
- Choosing basis functions using the training data.

#### Classification



#### Linear models for classification

Assign input vector **x** to one of k discrete classes C<sub>k</sub>, k=1,...,K.

#### D-dimensional input space

Decision boundary/surface: (D-1)-dimensional hyperplane

#### **Regression vs. Classification**

**Regression:** 

$$x \in [-\infty, \infty], t \in [-\infty, \infty]$$

Classification (two classes):

$$x \in [-\infty, \infty], t \in \{0, 1\}$$

### **Regression vs. Classification**

Linear regression model prediction (y real)

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + w_0$$

Classification: y in range (0,1) (posterior probabilities)

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = f\left(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + w_0\right)$$

f: Activation function (nonlinear) Decision surface:  $\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + w_0 = \text{constant}$ (Generalized linear models)

### **Binary Variables (1)**

#### Coin flipping: heads=1, tails=0

$$p(x=1|\mu) = \mu$$

#### **Bernoulli Distribution**

$$Bern(x|\mu) = \mu^{x}(1-\mu)^{1-x}$$
$$\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$$
$$var[x] = \mu(1-\mu)$$

# **Binary Variables (2)**

N coin flips:

 $p(m \text{ heads}|N,\mu)$ 

**Binomial Distribution** 

$$\operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = \binom{N}{m} \mu^m (1-\mu)^{N-m}$$
$$\mathbb{E}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^N m \operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = N\mu$$
$$\operatorname{var}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^N (m - \mathbb{E}[m])^2 \operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = N\mu(1-\mu)$$

### **Binomial Distribution**



#### Parameter Estimation (1)

#### ML for Bernoulli

Given:  $D = \{x_1, ..., x_N\}, m$  heads (1), N - m tails (0)

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|\mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mu^{x_n} (1-\mu)^{1-x_n}$$

$$\ln p(\mathcal{D}|\mu) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln p(x_n|\mu) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{x_n \ln \mu + (1 - x_n) \ln(1 - \mu)\}$$

$$\mu_{\rm ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n = \frac{m}{N}$$

#### Parameter Estimation (2)

**Example:** 
$$\mathcal{D} = \{1, 1, 1\} \rightarrow \mu_{ML} = \frac{3}{3} = 1$$

Prediction: all future tosses will land heads up

#### Overfitting to D

#### **Decision Theory**

Inference step

Determine either  $p(t|\mathbf{x})$  or  $p(\mathbf{x}, t)$ .

Decision step

For given x, determine optimal t.

## Minimum Misclassification Rate

$$p(\text{mistake}) = p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_1, \mathcal{C}_2) + p(\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{R}_2, \mathcal{C}_1)$$
$$= \int_{\mathcal{R}_1} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_2) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} + \int_{\mathcal{R}_2} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{C}_1) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}.$$

We are free to choose the decision rule that assigns each point x to one of the two classes. This defines the decision regions Rk.

To minimize integrand:  $p(\mathbf{x}, C_k) = p(C_k | \mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x})$  must be small Assign x to class for which the posterior  $p(C_k | \mathbf{x})$  is larger!