

Bayesian Methods

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Frequentist or “Classical” Statistics

- Probability model with parameter $\theta \in \Theta$

$$\{p(y; \theta) \mid \theta \in \Theta\},$$

where $p(y; \theta)$ is either a PDF or a PMF.

- Assume that $p(y; \theta)$ governs the world we are observing.
- In **frequentist statistics**, the **parameter** θ is a
 - **fixed constant** (i.e. not random) and is
 - **unknown** to us.
- If we knew θ , there would be no need for statistics.
- Instead of θ , we have a **sample** $\mathcal{D} = \{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ i.i.d. $p(y; \theta)$.
- Statistics is about how to use \mathcal{D} in place of θ .

Point Estimation

- One type of statistical problem is **point estimation**.
- A **statistic** $s = s(\mathcal{D})$ is any function of the data.
- A statistic $\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(\mathcal{D})$ is a **point estimator** if $\hat{\theta} \approx \theta$.
- Desirable statistical properties of point estimators:
 - **Consistency:** As data size $n \rightarrow \infty$, we get $\hat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta$.
 - **Efficiency:** (Roughly speaking) For large n , $\hat{\theta}$ achieves accuracy at least as good as any other estimator.
 - e.g. **maximum likelihood estimation** is consistent and efficient under reasonable conditions.
- In frequentist statistics, you can make up any estimator you want.
 - Justify its use by showing it has desirable properties.

Bayesian Statistics

- Major viewpoint change In **Bayesian statistics**:
 - parameter $\theta \in \Theta$ is a **random variable**.
- New ingredient: the **prior distribution**:
 - a distribution on parameter space Θ .
 - Reflects our belief about θ .
 - Must be chosen before seeing any data.

The Bayesian Method

- 1 Define the model:
 - Choose a distribution $p(\theta)$, called the **prior distribution**.
 - Choose a probability model or “**likelihood model**”, now written as:

$$\{p(y | \theta) | \theta \in \Theta\}.$$

- 2 After observing \mathcal{D} , compute the **posterior distribution** $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$.
- 3 Decide the **action** based on $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$.

The Posterior Distribution

- By Bayes rule, can write the posterior distribution as

$$p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}.$$

- **likelihood:** $p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)$
- **prior:** $p(\theta)$
- **marginal likelihood:** $p(\mathcal{D})$.
- Note: $p(\mathcal{D})$ is just a normalizing constant for $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$. Can write

$$\underbrace{p(\theta | \mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior}} \sim \underbrace{p(\mathcal{D} | \theta)}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}}.$$

Recap and Interpretation

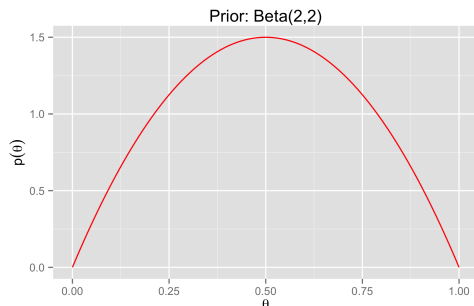
- Prior represents belief about θ before observing data \mathcal{D} .
- Posterior represents the rationally “updated” beliefs after seeing \mathcal{D} .
- All inferences and action-taking are based on the posterior distribution.
- In the Bayesian approach,
 - No issue of “choosing a procedure” or justifying an estimator.
 - Only choices are the **prior** and the **likelihood model**.
 - For decision making, need a **loss function**.
 - Everything after that is **computation**.

Example: Coin Flipping

- Suppose we have a coin, possibly biased

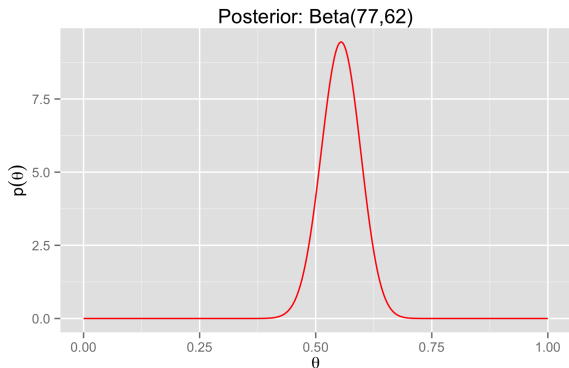
$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads} \mid \theta) = \theta.$$

- **Parameter space** $\theta \in \Theta = [0, 1]$.
- **Prior distribution:** $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(2, 2)$.



Example: Coin Flipping

- Next, we gather some data $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, T, T, T, T, T, H, \dots, T\}$:
- Heads: 75 Tails: 60
 - $\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} = \frac{75}{75+60} \approx 0.556$
- **Posterior distribution:** $\theta \mid \mathcal{D} \sim \text{Beta}(77, 62)$:



What to do with the Posterior Distribution?

- Look at it.
- Extract a point estimate of θ (e.g. mean or mode of posterior).
- Extract “**credible set**” for θ (a Bayesian confidence interval).
 - e.g. Interval $[a, b]$ is a 95% **credible set** if

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta \in [a, b] \mid \mathcal{D}) \geq 0.95$$

- The most “Bayesian” approach is **Bayesian decision theory**:
 - Choose a loss function.
 - Find action minimizing “posterior risk”.

Bayesian Decision Theory

- Ingredients:
 - **Action space** \mathcal{A} .
 - **Parameter space** Θ .
 - **Loss function**: $\ell : \mathcal{A} \times \Theta \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$.
 - **Prior**: Distribution $p(\theta)$ on Θ .
- The **posterior risk** of an action $a \in \mathcal{A}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} r(a) &:= \mathbb{E}[\ell(\theta, a) \mid \mathcal{D}] \\ &= \int \ell(\theta, a) p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

- It's the **expected loss under the posterior**.
- A **Bayes action** a^* is an action that minimizes posterior risk:

$$r(a^*) = \min_{a \in \mathcal{A}} r(a)$$

Bayesian Point Estimation

- General Setup:
 - Data \mathcal{D} generated by $p(y | \theta)$, for unknown $\theta \in \Theta$.
 - Want to produce a **point estimate** for θ .
- Choose the following:
 - **Loss** $\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2$
 - **Prior** $p(\theta)$ on Θ .
- Find **action** $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ that minimizes **posterior risk**:

$$\begin{aligned}r(\hat{\theta}) &= \mathbb{E} \left[(\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 \mid \mathcal{D} \right] \\ &= \int (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta\end{aligned}$$

Bayesian Point Estimation: Square Loss

- Find **action** $\hat{\theta} \in \Theta$ that minimizes **posterior risk**

$$r(\hat{\theta}) = \int (\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta.$$

- Differentiate:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} &= - \int 2(\theta - \hat{\theta}) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \\ &= -2 \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta} \underbrace{\int p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta}_{=1} \\ &= -2 \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta} \end{aligned}$$

Bayesian Point Estimation: Square Loss

- Derivative of posterior risk is

$$\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = -2 \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta + 2\hat{\theta}.$$

- First order condition $\frac{dr(\hat{\theta})}{d\hat{\theta}} = 0$ gives

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\theta} &= \int \theta p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\theta | \mathcal{D}]\end{aligned}$$

- **Bayes action for square loss** is the posterior mean.

Bayesian Point Estimation: Absolute Loss

- **Loss:** $\ell(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = |\theta - \hat{\theta}|$
- **Bayes action for absolute loss is the posterior median.**
 - That is, the median of the distribution $p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$.
 - Show with approach similar to what was used in Homework #1.

Bayesian Point Estimation: Zero-One Loss

- Suppose Θ is discrete (e.g. $\Theta = \{\text{english, french}\}$)
- **Zero-one loss:** $\ell(\theta, \hat{\theta}) = 1(\theta \neq \hat{\theta})$
- **Posterior risk:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 r(\hat{\theta}) &= \mathbb{E} \left[1(\theta \neq \hat{\theta}) \mid \mathcal{D} \right] \\
 &= \mathbb{P} \left(\theta \neq \hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D} \right) \\
 &= 1 - \mathbb{P} \left(\theta = \hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D} \right) \\
 &= 1 - p(\hat{\theta} \mid \mathcal{D})
 \end{aligned}$$

- **Bayes action is**

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$$

- This $\hat{\theta}$ is called the **maximum a posteriori (MAP)** estimate.
- The MAP estimate is the **mode** of the posterior distribution.

Bayesian Point Estimation: Custom Loss Function

- Suppose Θ is discrete (e.g. $\Theta = \{\text{english, french}\}$)
- **Loss function** $\ell(\hat{\theta}, \theta)$:

$$\ell(\text{french, english}) = 10$$

$$\ell(\text{english, french}) = 1$$

$$\ell(\text{english, english}) = 0$$

$$\ell(\text{french, french}) = 0$$

- **Posterior risk:**

$$r(\text{french}) = 10p(\text{english} | \mathcal{D}) + 0p(\text{french} | \mathcal{D})$$

$$r(\text{english}) = 1p(\text{french} | \mathcal{D}) + 0p(\text{english} | \mathcal{D})$$

- **Bayes action** is french iff $r(\text{french}) > r(\text{english})$, i.e. when

$$\frac{p(\text{english} | \mathcal{D})}{p(\text{french} | \mathcal{D})} > \frac{1}{10}.$$

Bayesian Conditional Models

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$ Output space $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- **Conditional probability model, or likelihood model:**

$$\{p(y | x, \theta) | \theta \in \Theta\}$$

- Conditional here refers to the conditioning on the input x .
- Means that x 's are known and not governed by our probability model.

Gaussian Regression Model

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$ Output space $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- **Conditional probability model, or likelihood model:**

$$y | x, \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x, \sigma^2),$$

for some known $\sigma^2 > 0$.

- **Parameter space** $\Theta = \mathbf{R}^d$.
- **Data:** $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$
 - Write $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ and $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$.
 - Assume y_i 's are **conditionally independent**, given x and θ .

Gaussian Likelihood

- The **likelihood** of $\theta \in \Theta$ for the data \mathcal{D} is

$$\begin{aligned} p(y | x, \theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i | x_i, \theta) \quad \text{by conditional independence.} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Recall from the GLM lecture¹ that the **MLE** is

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_{\text{MLE}}^* &= \arg \max_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} p(y | x, \theta) \\ &= \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2 \end{aligned}$$

¹<https://davidrosenberg.github.io/ml2015/docs/8.Lab.glm.pdf>, slide 5.

Priors and Posteriors

- Choose a Gaussian **prior distribution** $p(\theta)$ on Θ :

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$$

for some **covariance matrix** $\Sigma_0 \succ 0$ (i.e. Σ_0 is spd).

- Posterior distribution**

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) &= p(\theta | x, y) \\ &= p(y | x, \theta) p(\theta) / p(y) \\ &\propto p(y | x, \theta) p(\theta) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right] \quad \text{(likelihood)} \\ &\quad \times |2\pi \Sigma_0|^{-1/2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \theta^T \Sigma_0^{-1} \theta \right) \quad \text{(prior)} \end{aligned}$$

Example in 1-Dimension

- Input space $\mathcal{X} = [-1, 1]$ Output space $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- Basic Gaussian regression model:

$$y = w_0 + w_1x + \varepsilon,$$

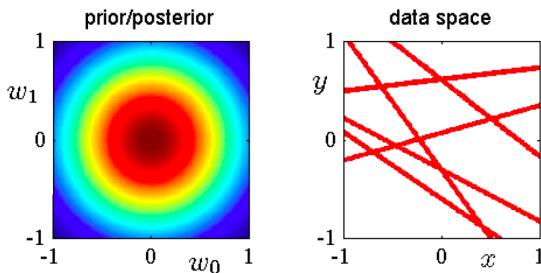
where $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.2^2)$.

- Written another way, the **likelihood model** is

$$y | x, \theta = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1x, 0.2^2).$$

Example in 1-Dimension

- **Prior distribution:** $\theta = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$



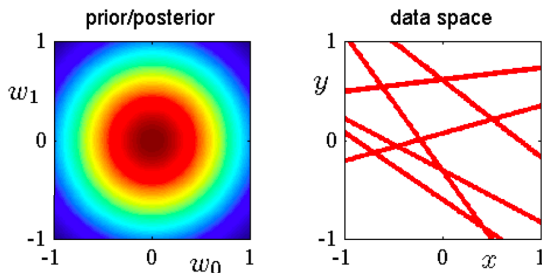
- On right, plots of $y = w_0 + w_1x$ for random $(w_0, w_1) \sim p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$.

Example in 1-Dimension

- Consider y and x related as $y = w_0 + w_1x + \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.2^2)$.
- Conditional probability model, or likelihood model:**

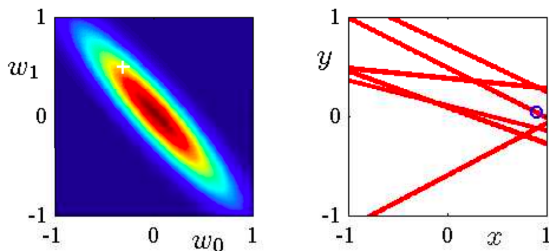
$$y | x, \theta = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(w_0 + w_1x, 0.2^2).$$

- Prior distribution:** $\theta = (w_0, w_1) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$



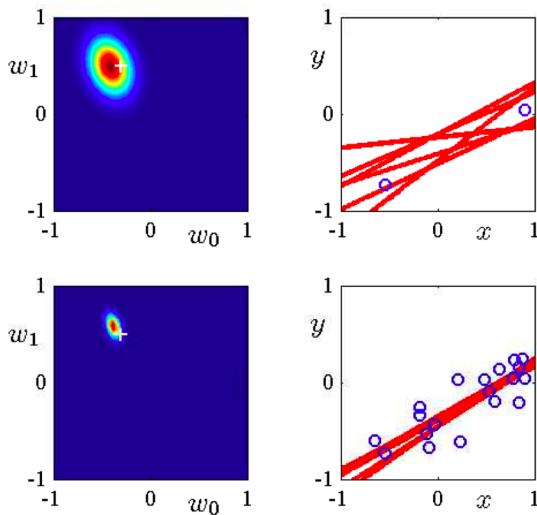
- On right, plots of $y = w_0 + w_1x$ for random $(w_0, w_1) \sim p(\theta) = \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{2}I)$.

Example in 1-Dimension: 1 Observation



- On left, the white cross indicates the true parameter values.
- On right, the blue circle indicates the training observation.

Example in 1-Dimension: 2 and 20 Observations



Bishop's PRML Fig 3.7

Predictive Distribution

- Given a new input point x_{new} , how to predict y_{new} ?
- **Predictive distribution**

$$\begin{aligned} & p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D}) \\ &= \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \theta, \mathcal{D}) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \\ &= \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

- For Gaussian regression, posterior and predictive distributions have closed forms.

Closed Form for Posterior

- Model:

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0)$$

$$y_i | x_i, \theta \text{ i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x_i, \sigma^2)$$

- Design matrix X Response column vector y
- Posterior distribution is a Gaussian distribution:**

$$\theta | \mathcal{D} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_P, \Sigma_P)$$

$$\Sigma_P = (\sigma^{-2} X^T X + \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$\mu_P = \sigma^{-2} \Sigma_P X^T y$$

- Posterior Variance Σ_P gives us a natural uncertainty measure.**

See Rasmussen and Williams' *Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning*, Ch 2.1.

<http://www.gaussianprocess.org/gpml/chapters/RW2.pdf>

Closed Form for Posterior

- Posterior distribution is a **Gaussian distribution**:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta | \mathcal{D} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_P, \Sigma_P) \\ \Sigma_P &= (\sigma^{-2} X^T X + \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1} \\ \mu_P &= \sigma^{-2} \Sigma_P X^T y\end{aligned}$$

- The **MAP estimator** and the **posterior mean** are given by

$$\mu_P = (X^T X + \sigma^2 \Sigma_0^{-1})^{-1} X^T y$$

- Look familiar?
- For the prior variance $\Sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} I$, we get

$$\mu_P = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T y,$$

which is of course the ridge regression solution.

Posterior Mean and Posterior Mode (MAP)

- Posterior density for $\Sigma_0 = \frac{\sigma^2}{\lambda} I$:

$$p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) \propto \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2\sigma^2} \|\theta\|^2\right)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^n \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)}_{\text{likelihood}}$$

- To find MAP, sufficient to minimize the log posterior:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\theta}_{\text{MAP}} &= \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} [-\log p(\theta | \mathcal{D})] \\ &= \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta^T x_i)^2}_{\text{log-likelihood}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|\theta\|^2}_{\text{log-prior}} \end{aligned}$$

- Which is the ridge regression objective.

Closed Form for Predictive Distribution

- Model:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_0) \\ y_i | x, \theta &\text{ i.i.d. } \mathcal{N}(\theta^T x_i, \sigma^2)\end{aligned}$$

- Predictive Distribution

$$p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D}) = \int p(y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) d\theta.$$

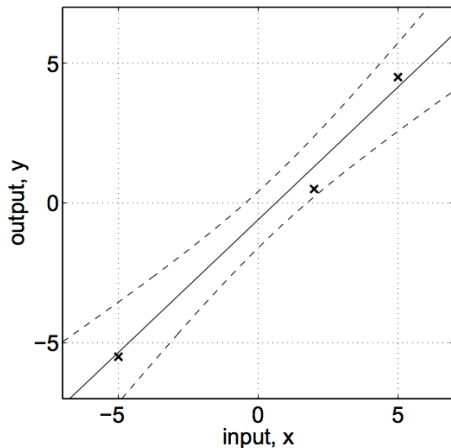
- Averages over prediction for each θ , weighted by posterior distribution.

- Closed form:

$$\begin{aligned}y_{\text{new}} | x_{\text{new}}, \mathcal{D} &\sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_{\text{new}}, \sigma_{\text{new}}^2) \\ \mu_{\text{new}} &= \mu_P^T x_{\text{new}} \\ \sigma_{\text{new}}^2 &= \underbrace{x_{\text{new}}^T \Sigma_P x_{\text{new}}}_{\text{from variance in } \theta} + \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{inherent variance in } y}\end{aligned}$$

Predictive Distributions

- With predictive distributions, can draw error bands:



Rasmussen and Williams' *Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning*, Fig.2.1(b)

Bayesian Predictive Distributions vs GLMs

- Gaussian regression with MLE, from our GLM lecture:
 - produces a Gaussian for each input x .

$$x \mapsto \mathcal{N}\left(x^T \theta_{\text{MLE}}, \sigma^2\right)$$

- Bayesian predictive distributions:
 - produce a Gaussian for each input x

$$x \mapsto \mathcal{N}\left(\theta_{\text{ridge}}^T x, \underbrace{x_{\text{new}}^T \Sigma_P x_{\text{new}}}_{\text{from variance in } \theta} + \underbrace{\sigma^2}_{\text{inherent variance in } y}\right)$$

- In Bayesian version
 - equivalent to using a **regularized** least squares fit
 - variance has additional piece from uncertainty in θ

Coin Flipping

- **Parameter space** $\theta \in \Theta = [0, 1]$:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Heads} \mid \theta) = \theta.$$

- **Data** $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, T, T, T, T, T, H, \dots, T\}$

- n_h : number of heads
- n_t : number of tails

- **Conditional Independence Assumption:**

- Conditioned on θ , repeated flips are independent

- **Likelihood model** (Bernoulli Distribution):

$$p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta) = \theta^{n_h} (1 - \theta)^{n_t}$$

- (probability of getting the flips in the order they were received)

Coin Flipping: Beta Prior

- **Prior:**

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \text{Beta}(h, t) \\ p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- **Mean of Beta distribution:**

$$\mathbb{E}\theta = \frac{h}{h+t}$$

- Interpret h and t as the number of heads/tails received in a prior experiment.
 - Then $\mathbb{E}\theta$ is the obvious MLE and plug-in estimate for θ .
- For fixed $\mathbb{E}\theta$, $\text{Var}(\theta)$ decreases as number of flips $n = h + t$ grows.

Coin Flipping: Posterior

- **Prior:**

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \text{Beta}(h, t) \\ p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- **Likelihood model:**

$$p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) = \theta^{n_h} (1-\theta)^{n_t}$$

- **Posterior density:**

$$\begin{aligned}p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) &\propto p(\theta)p(\mathcal{D} | \theta) \\ &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1} \times \theta^{n_h} (1-\theta)^{n_t} \\ &= \theta^{h-1+n_h} (1-\theta)^{t-1+n_t}\end{aligned}$$

Posterior is Beta

- **Prior:**

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &\sim \mathbf{Beta}(h, t) \\ p(\theta) &\propto \theta^{h-1} (1-\theta)^{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- **Posterior density:**

$$p(\theta | \mathcal{D}) \propto \theta^{h-1+n_h} (1-\theta)^{t-1+n_t}$$

- So

$$\theta | \mathcal{D} \sim \mathbf{Beta}(h + n_h, t + n_t)$$

- It's as though we continued our experiment by adding more flips.

Conjugate Prior Examples

- A prior is conjugate for a likelihood model if the posterior is in the same “family” as the prior.
- ① If prior is a beta distribution, and likelihood model is a Bernoulli distribution, then posterior is a beta distribution.
 - Prior and posterior in the same family \implies **Beta is a conjugate prior for Bernoulli**
- ② If prior is a Gaussian distribution, and likelihood model is a Gaussian distribution, then posterior is a Gaussian distribution.
 - Prior and posterior in the same family \implies **Gaussian is a conjugate prior for Gaussian**

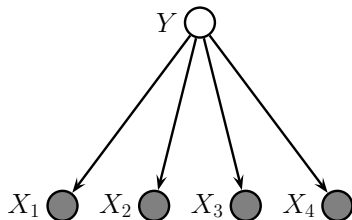
Conjugacy of the prior is really a statement about the prior **family**.

Conjugate Prior Family

- Let π be a family of prior distributions on Θ .
- Let P be likelihood model with parameter space Θ .
- We say that π is **conjugate to** P if for any prior in π , the posterior is always in π .
- Trivial Example:
 - The family of all probability distributions is conjugate to any likelihood model.
- Every exponential family has a nontrivial conjugate prior family. (KPM Section 9.2)

Naive Bayes: A Generative Model for Classification

- $\mathcal{X} = \left\{ (X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4) \in \{0, 1\}^4 \right\}$ $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$ be a class label.
- Consider the Bayesian network depicted below:



- BN structure implies joint distribution factors as:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, y) = p(y)p(x_1 | y)p(x_2 | y)p(x_3 | y)p(x_4 | y)$$

- Features X_1, \dots, X_4 are independent given the class label Y .

Parameterized Expression for Joint Distribution

- Parameters:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = \theta_y \quad \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 | Y = 1) = \theta_{i1} \quad \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 | Y = 0) = \theta_{i0}$$

- Joint distribution is

$$\begin{aligned} & p(x_1, \dots, x_d, y) \\ = & p(y) \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | y) \\ = & (\theta_y)^y (1 - \theta_y)^{1-y} \\ & \times \prod_{i=1}^n (\theta_{i1})^{yx_i} (1 - \theta_{i1})^{y(1-x_i)} (\theta_{i0})^{(1-y)x_i} (1 - \theta_{i0})^{(1-y)(1-x_i)} \end{aligned}$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimators for Naive Bayes

- Training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\}$.
- Obvious “plug-in” estimators for the Naive Bayes model are also MLEs:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) \approx \hat{\theta}_y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1(y^i = 1)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 \mid Y = 1) \approx \hat{\theta}_{i1} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n 1(y^j = 1 \text{ and } x_i^j = 1)}{\sum_{j=1}^n 1(y^j = 1)}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 \mid Y = 0) = \hat{\theta}_{i0} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n 1(y^j = 0 \text{ and } x_i^j = 1)}{\sum_{j=1}^n 1(y^j = 0)}$$

Example: SPAM Classification

- Label $Y \in \mathcal{Y} = \{\text{SPAM}, \text{HAM}\}$.
- Features $X_i \in \{0, 1\}$.
- Bag of words representation:

$$X_i = 1(\text{Email contains word "Private_Jet"})$$

- After parameter estimation, prediction done with

$$p(\text{SPAM}|x) \propto p(\text{SPAM}) \prod_{i=1}^d \hat{p}(x_i | \text{SPAM}).$$

- Each $\hat{p}(x_i | y)$ is the estimated probability that x_i would be observed (or not) in a SPAM message.
- Issue: What if we never see $X_1 = 1$ when $Y = \text{SPAM}$ in \mathcal{D} ?
 - Then whenever we see $X_1 = 1$, we will predict $p(\text{SPAM} | x) = 0$.

The Zero Count Issue

- If any conditional probabilities $\mathbb{P}(X_i = x_i | y)$ get estimated as 0,
 - we'll predict 0 probability for some y whenever x_i is observed.
- This is bad:
 - Never want to predict probability 0 if something is possible.
- Worse: This occurrence is not unusual at all for small sample sizes or rare features.

Laplace Smoothing

- One traditional fix to the 0 count issue is called **Laplace Smoothing**.
- Idea is to add 1 to every empirical count.
- To estimate $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 \mid Y = 1)$, use

$$\hat{\theta}_{i1} = \frac{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(y^j = 1 \text{ and } x_i^j = 1)}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \mathbb{1}(y^j = 1)}.$$

- The added 1 is called a **pseudocount**.
- Like assuming every outcome that can occur was observed at least once.
- Seems to solve the problem – but is there a more principled approach?

Bayesian Naive Bayes

- **Parameters:**

$$\mathbb{P}(Y = 1) = \theta_y \quad \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 | Y = 1) = \theta_{i1} \quad \mathbb{P}(X_i = 1 | Y = 0) = \theta_{i0}$$

- Put a Beta prior distribution on each parameter.
- **Option 1:** Use posterior mean as point estimate for each parameter, then continue as before.
 - Laplace smoothing is a special case, in which priors are all Beta(1, 1).
- **Option 2: Go full Bayesian.**
 - No parameter estimates. Base everything on posterior $\theta | \mathcal{D}$.
- Predict with the predictive distribution:

$$y | x, \mathcal{D}$$

- Recall, this is integrating out the parameter θ w.r.t. the posterior distribution.