STAT 576 Bayesian Analysis

Lecture 13: Nonparametric Models

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Given a set of paired data $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, we often assume that the expected value of y is a function of x :

$$
y_i = \mu(x_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,
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- In state-space models, the prior is placed on the state variables (x_1, \ldots, x_n) through a transition model.

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 \blacktriangleright In this lecture, we will discuss nonparametric models, where the prior is placed directly on the function μ within a function space.

 \triangleright A stochastic process is a collection of random variables indexed by some set, e.g. time or space.

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- \blacktriangleright Random walk: r.v.s. indexed by time.
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▶ Specifically, if $\{\mu(x): x \in \mathcal{X}\}\)$ is a Gaussian process, then for any finite set of indices $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}$, the random vector $(\mu(x_1), \ldots, \mu(x_n))$ has a multivariate normal distribution.

As a special case, for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$, $\mu(x)$ is a normal random variable.

A Gaussian process is completely specified by its mean function $m(x) = E[\mu(x)]$ and covariance function $k(x, x') = \text{Cov}(\mu(x), \mu(x')).$

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- In The joint distribution of $\mu(x_1), \ldots, \mu(x_n)$ is given by

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\begin{pmatrix} \mu(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \mu(x_n) \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} m(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ m(x_n) \end{pmatrix}, K(x_1, \dots, x_n) \right).
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where $K(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ is the covariance matrix with (i,j) -th element $k(x_i,x_j).$

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If Consistent defintion: the distribution of $\mu(x_1), \ldots, \mu(x_m)$ derived from the joint distribution of $\mu(x_1), \ldots, \mu(x_n)$ is the same for any choice of x_{m+1}, \ldots, x_n .

 $I \blacktriangleright K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is positive definite for any choice of x_1, \ldots, x_n .

Gaussian Process — Covariance

A common choice for $k(x, x^{\prime})$ is

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k(x, x') = \tau^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2l^2}\right),\,
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Show that the covariance matrix $K(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is positive definite.

WLOG, we assume $\tau^2=l^2=1.$ To show K is positive definite, we need to show that for any vector $u=(u_1,\ldots,u_n)$, $u^TKu\geq 0$.

 \blacktriangleright Notice that

$$
k(x_i, x_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}|x_i - x_j|^2\right) = \mathbb{E}\left[e^{i|x_i - x_j|Z}\right]
$$

for $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

 \blacktriangleright Therefore.

$$
u^T Ku = \sum_{i,j} u_i u_j k(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{i,j} u_i u_j \mathbb{E}\left[e^{i|x_i - x_j|Z}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\sum_i u_i e^{ix_i Z}\right)^2\right] \geq 0.
$$

The Gaussian Process can also be constructed by basis functions:

$$
\mu(x) = \sum_{h=1}^{H} \beta_h b_h(x), \quad \beta = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_H) \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0, \Sigma_{\beta})
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Then μ is a Gaussian process with

$$
m(x) = \mathbf{b}(x)^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \quad k(x, x') = \mathbf{b}(x)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\beta} \mathbf{b}(x').
$$

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Suppose, we have observed the data $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, and we assume that

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y_i = \mu(x_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2).
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Given a new point \tilde{x} , we want to estimate the expected value of y at \tilde{x} , i.e. $\mu(\tilde{x})$.

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$$
\begin{pmatrix} y \\ \mu(\tilde{x}) \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} K(x,x) + \sigma^2 I & K(x,\tilde{x}) \\ K(\tilde{x},x) & K(\tilde{x},\tilde{x}) \end{pmatrix} \right).
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$$

 \triangleright With the properties of conditional distribution of multivariate normal, we can derive the posterior distribution of $\mu(\tilde{x})$ given y.

$$
\mu(\tilde{x}) \mid x, y, \tau^2, \sigma^2, l^2
$$

\$\sim \mathcal{N} \left(K(\tilde{x}, x) (K(x, x) + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} y, K(\tilde{x}, \tilde{x}) - K(\tilde{x}, x) (K(x, x) + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} K(x, \tilde{x}) \right)\$

Gaussian Process — Example

For a Bayesian procedure, we need to specify the prior distributions for the hyperparameters τ^2 , σ^2 , and l^2 .

For a Bayesian procedure, we need to specify the prior distributions for the hyperparameters τ^2 , σ^2 , and l^2 . A common choice is

 $p(\log \tau) \propto 1$, $p(\log \sigma) \propto 1$, $p(\log l) \propto 1$.

The log-likelihood is

$$
\log p(y \mid x, \tau^2, \sigma^2, l^2) = -\frac{1}{2} y^T (K(x, x) + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} y - \frac{1}{2} \log |K(x, x) + \sigma^2 I| - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi).
$$

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The posterior is now straightforward.

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In this example, we analyze the patterns of birthdays in the United States. The data is the number of births on each day of the year from 1969 to 1988.

 \blacktriangleright This is a time series data, where the index is the number of days from 1969-01-01.

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- \triangleright The series contains periodic patterns, e.g. yearly and weekly patterns.
- \blacktriangleright The series also contains long term trends.

We model the time series as an additive model:

$$
y(t) = f_1(t) + f_2(t) + f_3(t) + f_4(t) + f_5(t) + \epsilon_t,
$$

In Long-term trend:

$$
f_1(t) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_1), \quad k_1(t, t') = \sigma_1^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|t - t'|^2}{2l_1^2}\right)
$$

 \blacktriangleright Short-term trend:

$$
f_2(t) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_2), \quad k_2(t, t') = \sigma_2^2 \exp\left(-\frac{|t - t'|^2}{2l_2^2}\right)
$$

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 \blacktriangleright Weekly pattern:

$$
f_3(t) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_3),
$$
 $k_3(t, t') = \sigma_3^2 \exp\left(-\frac{2\sin^2(\pi(t - t')/7)}{l_{3,1}^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{|t - t'|^2}{2l_{3,2}^2}\right)$

▶ Yearly pattern:

$$
f_4(t) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k_4), \quad k_4(t, t') = \sigma_4^2 \exp\left(-\frac{2\sin^2(\pi(t - t')/365.25)}{l_{4,1}^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{|t - t'|^2}{2l_{4,2}^2}\right)
$$

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y(t) = f_1(t) + f_2(t) + f_3(t) + f_4(t) + f_5(t) + \epsilon_t,
$$

 \triangleright Special days and its interaction with weekends:

$$
f_5(t) = I_{s.d.}(t)\beta_a + I_{s.d.}(t)I_{w.e.}(t)\beta_b
$$

where $I_{s,d}(t)$ is an indicator function for special days (13 holidays), and $I_{w,e}(t)$ is an indicator function for weekends.

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 $\blacktriangleright \epsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ is the residual.

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- \triangleright The model can be further extended by considering weekdays v.s. weekends. See textbook Ch. 21.2.

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- \triangleright For the distribution space, we consider probabilites of any finite partitions of the sample space.

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Consider a finite partition of the sample space:

$$
\Omega=B_1\cup B_2\cup\cdots\cup B_k, \text{ and } B_i\cap B_j=\varnothing\ \forall\ i\neq j
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Let P be a probaility measure on Ω with density function f. The probability measures of the partitions are

$$
(P(B_1),\ldots,P(B_k)) = \left(\int_{B_1} f(y)dy,\ldots,\int_{B_k} f(y)dy\right)
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with

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(B_i) = 1.
$$

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A natural probability measure on $(P(B_1), \ldots, P(B_k))$ is the Dirichlet distribution:

 $(P(B_1), \ldots, P(B_k)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha P_0(B_1), \ldots, \alpha P_0(B_k))$

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where P_0 is some baseline measure on Ω .

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Now we assume P is a random measure, and the distribution of P is the Dirichlet **process**, denoted by $\mathcal{DP}(\alpha P_0)$ if:

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Now we assume P is a random measure, and the distribution of P is the Dirichlet **process**, denoted by $\mathcal{DP}(\alpha P_0)$ if:

for any finite partition B_1, \ldots, B_k of Ω , the probability measures $(P(B_1), \ldots, P(B_k))$ follows the Dirichlet distribution with parameters $(\alpha P_0(B_1), \dots, \alpha P_0(B_k)).$

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To check the consistency of the defition of a Dirichlet process, consider two partitions B_1, \ldots, B_k and B'_1, \ldots, B'_{k-1} with

 $B_i=B_i'$ for $1\leq i\leq k-2$, and $B_{k-1}'=B_{k-1}\cup B_k$

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 \triangleright On the one hand, the distribution of $(P(B_1), \ldots, P(B_k))$ is Dirichlet with parameters $(\alpha P_0(B_1), \ldots, \alpha P_0(B_k))$. Therefore, the distribution of $(P(B_1)', \ldots, P(B_{k-1}'))$ is Dirichlet with parameters $(\alpha P_0(B_1), \ldots, \alpha P_0(B_{k-2}), \alpha P_0(B'_{k-1}) + \alpha P_0(B'_k)).$

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(\alpha P_0(B'_1), \ldots, \alpha P_0(B'_{k-2}), \alpha P_0(B'_{k-1})).
$$

 \blacktriangleright They are equal because

 $B_i = B'_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k-2$ $1 \leq i \leq k-2$ $1 \leq i \leq k-2$, and $P_0(B'_{k-1}) = P_0(B_{k-1}) + P_0(B_k)$ $P_0(B'_{k-1}) = P_0(B_{k-1}) + P_0(B_k)$ $P_0(B'_{k-1}) = P_0(B_{k-1}) + P_0(B_k)$

Let B be a measurable subset of Ω . Then its probability measure follows a Dirichlet process:

 $(P(B), P(\Omega \setminus B)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha P_0(B), \alpha(1-P_0(B))) \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha P_0(B), \alpha(1-P_0(B)))$

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Therefore, the expectation of $P(B)$ is

$$
E[P(B)] = \frac{\alpha P_0(B)}{\alpha P_0(B) + \alpha(1 - P_0(B))} = P_0(B)
$$

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 $(P(B), P(\Omega \setminus B)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha P_0(B), \alpha(1-P_0(B))) \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha P_0(B), \alpha(1-P_0(B)))$

Therefore, the expectation of $P(B)$ is

$$
E[P(B)] = \frac{\alpha P_0(B)}{\alpha P_0(B) + \alpha (1 - P_0(B))} = P_0(B)
$$

and the variance is

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Var[P(B)] = \frac{\alpha P_0(B)\alpha(1 - P_0(B))}{(\alpha P_0(B) + \alpha(1 - P_0(B))^2)(\alpha P_0(B) + \alpha(1 - P_0(B)))} = \frac{P_0(B)(1 - P_0(B))}{\alpha + 1}
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Therefore, in the Dirichlet process, P_0 controls the mean measure and α controls the variance.

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$$
\left(\alpha P_0(B_1) + \sum_i \mathbb{I}\{y_i \in B_1\}, \ldots, \alpha P_0(B_k) + \sum_i \mathbb{I}\{y_i \in B_k\}\right)
$$

The argument on the previous page holds for any finite partition of Ω . Therefore, the posterior distribution of P given y is still a Dirichlet process.

$$
\mathcal{DP}\left(\alpha P_0 + \sum_i \delta_{y_i}\right)
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\mathbb{E}[P(B) | y] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + n} P_0(B) + \frac{n}{\alpha + n} \sum_{i} \delta_{y_i}(B)
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In the special case that $\alpha = 0$, we have

$$
P \mid y \sim \mathcal{DP}\left(\sum_i \delta_{y_i}\right)
$$

We can construct the Dirichlet process through a stick-breaking process:

$$
P(\cdot) = \sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \pi_h \delta_{\theta_h}(\cdot)
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It is easy to verify that:

$$
\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} \pi_h = 1
$$

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The process can be described as follows:

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- \triangleright The length of the remaining stick is $(1 V_1)V_2$.
- \blacktriangleright Repeat the process.

The major drawback of the Dirichlet process is that it is discrete.

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To overcome this, we can use the Dirichlet process as a prior for the mixing distribution in a mixture model.

$$
p(y | P) = \int \mathcal{K}(y | \theta) dP(\theta)
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where K is the kernel of the mixture model.

The model can be written as

$$
y_i \sim \mathcal{K}(\theta_i), \quad \theta_i \sim P, \quad P \sim \mathcal{DP}(\alpha P_0)
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Suppose we have observed $\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_{i-1}$, then the predictive distribution of θ_i is

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p(\theta_i \mid \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_{i-1}) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + i - 1} P_0(\theta_i) + \frac{1}{\alpha + i - 1} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \delta_{\theta_j}(\theta_i)
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This is called "Polya urn predictive rule".

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This is called "Polya urn predictive rule".

Polya urn model:

- \blacktriangleright We start with a urn with x red balls and y blue balls.
- \triangleright At each step, we draw a ball from the urn and put it back with an additional ball of the same color.

It is also connect to the Chinese restaurant process.

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Chinese restaurant process:

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- ▶ The *i*-th customer sits at the *j*-th table with probability $\frac{n_j}{\alpha+i-1}$, where n_j is the number of customers at the i -th table.

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- **►** The *i*-th customer sits at a new table with probability $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha+i-1}$.
- \blacktriangleright The number of customers at each table follows a Polya urn model.
- \blacktriangleright The process is exchangeable.

The hyperprior for α is often chosen to be a gamma distribution:

 $\alpha \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$

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Then the model is a hierarchical model. The posterior distribution of α can be derived through MCMC.

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 \triangleright See marginal Gibbs sampling and block Gibbs sampling in textbook Ch. 23.3.