## Introduction to Bayesian methods and Bayesian Neural Networks

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**Task:** for a biased (=unfair) coin, find the probability of heads  $\theta$ :



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**Task:** for a biased (=unfair) coin, find the probability of heads  $\theta$ :

2. Observations  $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, H, T, H, H, T, H\}$ 



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**Task:** for a biased (=unfair) coin, find the probability of heads  $\theta$ :

3. Observations  $\mathcal{D} = \{H, H, H, T\}$ 



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**Task:** for a biased (=unfair) coin, find the probability of heads  $\theta$ :

#### 4. Observations $\mathcal{D} = \{T, T\}$



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## Maximum Likelihood Estimate

- 1. Specify model.
- 2. Select loss.
- Find parameters minimizing loss (=maximizing data likelihood).

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- 2. Select loss.
- 3. Find parameters minimizing loss (=maximizing data likelihood).

Coin tossing example:

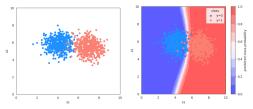
- Parameter: θ
- Option 1: MSE loss:  $\mathbb{L}(D, \theta) = \sum_{y \in D} (y \theta)^2$
- Option 2: Bernoulli negative log-likelihood:  $\mathbb{L}(D, \theta) = -\sum_{y \in D} \log p(y|\theta) \text{ where } p = \text{Bernoulli pmf}$

Solution: 
$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \mathbb{L}(D, \theta)$$
  
 $\implies \hat{\theta} = 0.75 \text{ for } 1.,2.,3.$   
 $\implies \hat{\theta} = 0.0 \text{ for } 4.$ 

## Few problems with MLE

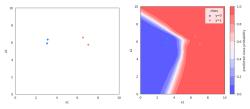
- Overfitting with Small Sample Size: If we toss the coin a very small number of times (e.g., once or twice), MLE can give misleading results.
- Bias in Estimation with Limited Data: MLE is highly sensitive to the sample size. With few observations, the estimation can be heavily biased.
- Zero Probability Issue: If an outcome is not observed in the sample, MLE assigns it a probability of zero.
- Doesn't Account for Prior Knowledge: MLE only uses the observed data and does not incorporate any prior knowledge or beliefs.
- Variance in Estimates: The variance of the MLE estimate is high for small sample sizes, leading to unstable predictions.
- Sensitivity to Outliers: Outliers or rare events can disproportionately affect the MLE.

# MLE solution p(y|x, D) for a NN trained on 1k data points



Based on: https://github.com/wiseodd/last\_layer\_laplace

# MLE solution p(y|x, D) for a NN trained on 4 data points



Based on: https://github.com/wiseodd/last\_layer\_laplace

We want ML models that:

- are uncertain about unseen things
- become more certain with more data

#### MLE vs Bayes: Latent variable inference

 point-wise - find one value θ̂, e.g., by minimizing loss = maximizing likelihood (MLE) / maximum a posteriori (MAP): θ̂ = argmin<sub>θ</sub> L(D, θ)
 distributional - find a posterior p(θ|D)
 we get uncertainty about θ

(e.g., variance in addition to the mean)

#### Everything follows from two basic rules:

- Sum rule:  $p(A) = \sum_{b} p(A, B = b)$
- Product rule:  $p(A, B) = p(B|A) \cdot p(A) = p(A|B) \cdot p(B)$

#### Everything follows from two basic rules:

• Sum rule: 
$$p(A) = \sum_b p(A, B = b)$$

• Product rule:  $p(A, B) = p(B|A) \cdot p(A) = p(A|B) \cdot p(B)$ Bayes' Theorem:

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(B|A) \cdot p(A)}{p(B)} = \frac{p(B|A) \cdot p(A)}{\sum_{a} p(B, A = a)} = \frac{p(B|A) \cdot p(A)}{\sum_{a} p(B|A = a)p(A = a)}$$

## Basic Concepts of Bayesian Methods

$$p(A|B) = rac{p(B|A) \cdot p(A)}{p(B)}$$

Let's rename  $A \rightarrow \theta$ ,  $B \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ :

$$p( heta | \mathcal{D}) = rac{p(\mathcal{D} | heta) \cdot p( heta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

- Prior  $p(\theta)$ : Initial belief on parameters before seeing data
- Likelihood p(D|θ): Probability of data given parameters of the model
- **Posterior**  $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ : Updated belief after seeing (more) data

Bayes Theorem Example: Determining Stroke Type Based on MRI Scan Intensity

► The MRI scan of a patient shows an intensity value of y = 140 units (D = {140}).

# Bayes Theorem Example: Determining Stroke Type Based on MRI Scan Intensity

- ► The MRI scan of a patient shows an intensity value of y = 140 units (D = {140}).
- Ischemic Stroke (Ischemic): In an ischemic stroke, affected brain areas may show lower signal intensity due to reduced blood flow. Assume these intensity values follow a normal distribution with a mean of 100 units and a standard deviation of 20:

 $y \sim \mathcal{N}(100, 20^2)|_{\theta=I}.$ 

• Hemorrhagic Stroke (Hemorrhagic): In a hemorrhagic stroke, affected areas show higher signal intensity due to bleeding. Assume these intensity values follow a normal distribution with a mean of 180 units and a standard deviation of:  $y \sim \mathcal{N}(180, 30^2)|_{\theta=H}$ . Bayes Theorem Example: likelihood

 $p(y|\theta) = \mathcal{N}(y|100, 20^2) \cdot \mathbb{I}[\theta = I] + \mathcal{N}(y|180, 30^2) \cdot \mathbb{I}[\theta = H]$ 

## Bayes Theorem Example: priors

Prior Beliefs about Parameters:

- Ischemic Stroke (Ischemic): This is the most common type of stroke, accounting for about 85% of all strokes (prior probability = 0.85):
   p(θ = I) = 0.85
- Hemorrhagic Stroke (Hemorrhagic): Less common, these strokes account for the remaining 15% of stroke cases (prior probability = 0.15).

 $p(\theta = H) = 0.15$ 

#### Bayes Theorem Example: solution

- ▶ Data: *D* = {140}
- ► Likelihood:  $\mathcal{N}(y|100, 20^2)|_{\theta=1}$ ,  $\mathcal{N}(y|180, 30^2)|_{\theta=H}$
- Priors:  $p(\theta = I) = 0.85$ ,  $p(\theta = H) = 0.15$

#### Bayes Theorem Example: solution

▶ Data: D = {140}

- ► Likelihood:  $\mathcal{N}(y|100, 20^2)|_{\theta=1}$ ,  $\mathcal{N}(y|180, 30^2)|_{\theta=H}$
- Priors:  $p(\theta = I) = 0.85$ ,  $p(\theta = H) = 0.15$
- Computation:
  - $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta = I) = \mathcal{N}(140|100, 20^2) = 0.0027$
  - $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta = H) = \mathcal{N}(140|180, 30^2) = 0.0055$

#### Bayes Theorem Example: solution

▶ Data: D = {140}

- ► Likelihood:  $\mathcal{N}(y|100, 20^2)|_{\theta=1}$ ,  $\mathcal{N}(y|180, 30^2)|_{\theta=H}$
- Priors:  $p(\theta = I) = 0.85$ ,  $p(\theta = H) = 0.15$
- Computation:
  - $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta = I) = \mathcal{N}(140|100, 20^2) = 0.0027$
  - $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta = H) = \mathcal{N}(140|180, 30^2) = 0.0055$
  - $p(\mathcal{D}) = 0.0027 * 0.85 + 0.15 * 0.0055 = 0.002295 + 0.000825 = 0.00312$
  - $p(\theta = I | D) = 0.0027 * 0.85 / 0.00312 = 0.736$
  - ▶  $p(\theta = H|\mathcal{D}) = 0.15 * 0.0055/0.00312 = 0.264$

Understanding priors: posteriors as priors

$$p( heta | \mathcal{D}_0) = rac{p(\mathcal{D}_0 | heta) \cdot p( heta)}{p(\mathcal{D}_0)} \; \; .$$

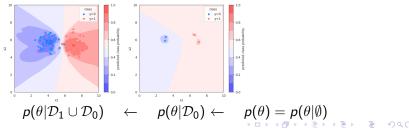
Understanding priors: posteriors as priors

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}_0) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_0|\theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D}_0)}$$
$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}_1 \cup \mathcal{D}_0) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_1 \cup \mathcal{D}_0|\theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D}_1 \cup \mathcal{D}_0)} =$$
$$= \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta)p(\mathcal{D}_0|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D}_1)p(\mathcal{D}_0)} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta)p(\theta|\mathcal{D}_0)}{p(\mathcal{D}_1)}$$

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Understanding priors: posteriors as priors

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$$= \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta)p(\mathcal{D}_0|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D}_1)p(\mathcal{D}_0)} = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta)p(\theta|\mathcal{D}_0)}{p(\mathcal{D}_1)}$$



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Bayes Theorem Example: repeated measurement

Previous solution for  $\mathcal{D}_0 = \{140\}$ :

• 
$$p(\theta = I | D) = 0.0027 * 0.85 / 0.00312 = 0.736$$

▶  $p(\theta = H|D) = 0.15 * 0.0055/0.00312 = 0.264$ 

After additional measurement y = 160:  $D_1 = \{160\}$ ;  $D = D_0 \cup D_1 = \{140, 160\}$ :

•  $p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta = I) = \mathcal{N}(160|100, 20^2) = 0.0002$ 

• 
$$p(\mathcal{D}_1|\theta = H) = \mathcal{N}(160|180, 30^2) = 0.0106$$

 $\blacktriangleright p(\mathcal{D}) = 0.0002 * 0.736 + 0.0106 * 0.264 = 0.0029456$ 

▶ 
$$p(\theta = I | D) = 0.0002 * \frac{0.736}{0.0029456} = 0.05$$

▶ 
$$p(\theta = H|D) = 0.0106 * 0.264/0.0029456 = 0.95$$

## Conjugate priors

- ▶ Problem: how to find  $p(\theta|D)$ ?
- For some pairs of prior+likelihood, the posterior takes the same form as prior

#### Conjugate priors: whiteboard example

#### Back to the coin-tossing example:

Let's consider Beta-Bernoulli model:

▶ prior 
$$p(\theta) = Beta(\theta | \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\theta^{\alpha-1} \cdot (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha,\beta)}$$

likelihood

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_{y \in \mathcal{D}} Bernoulli(y|\theta) = \prod_{y} \left( \theta^{y} \cdot (1-\theta)^{(1-y)} \right)$$

• example data: 
$$\mathcal{D} = \{T, T\}$$

### Conjugate priors: whiteboard example

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▶ prior 
$$p(\theta) = Beta(\theta | \alpha, \beta) = \frac{\theta^{\alpha-1} \cdot (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha,\beta)}$$

likelihood

$$p(\mathcal{D}| heta) = \prod_{y \in \mathcal{D}} \textit{Bernoulli}(y| heta) = \prod_y \left( heta^y \cdot (1- heta)^{(1-y)} 
ight)$$

• example data: 
$$\mathcal{D} = \{T, T\}$$

Find  $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ :

1. Let's start with  $p( heta | \mathcal{D}) \propto p(\mathcal{D} | heta) p( heta)$ 

2. . . .

- https://homepage.divms.uiowa.edu/~mbognar/ applets/beta.html
- 4. Importance of priors:  $\alpha = \beta = 1$  vs  $\alpha = \beta = 10$

#### Conjugate priors

# Conjugate priors:

#### https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conjugate\_prior

Likelihood $p(x_i \theta)$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Model} \\ \text{parameters} \\ \theta \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Conjugate prior (and} \\ \mbox{posterior) distribution} \\ p(\theta \Theta), p(\theta \mathbf{x},\Theta) = p(\theta \Theta') \end{array}$	Prior hyperparameters $\Theta$	Posterior hyperparameters <sup>[note 1]</sup> $\Theta'$	Interpretation of hyperparameters	$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Posterior predictive}^{[\text{note 2}]}\\ p(\tilde{x} \mathbf{x},\Theta) = p(\tilde{x} \Theta') \end{array}$
Bernoulli	p (probability)	Beta	$lpha,eta\in\mathbb{R}$	$\alpha+\sum_{i=1}^n x_i,\beta+n-\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$	$\alpha$ successes, $\beta$ failures[note 3]	$p( ilde{x}=1)=rac{lpha'}{lpha'+eta'}$ (Bernoulli)

## Finding latent variable vs predictive distribution

Two tasks:

- ▶ find latent variables  $\theta$  (e.g. clusters in data) i.e. find  $p(\theta|D)$
- make predictions for a new y (often based on features x) i.e. find p(y|D,x)

## NNs: Typical Regression/Classification Setting

- Data: D = {(x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub>)} but x<sub>i</sub> (e.g., features vector) are not modeled (=are fixed)
- Task: predict unknown y for some input x
- Model:
  - > parameters vector:  $\theta$
  - likelihood i.i.d.:  $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_i p(y_i|\theta, x_i)$

NNs: likelihood  $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_i p(y_i|\theta, x_i)$ 

NN structure (layers, activations etc.) may be hidden inside of likelihood or we can write explicitly:
 p(y|θ,x) = p(y|NN(θ<sup>NN</sup>,x), θ<sup>lik</sup>)
 θ = θ<sup>NN</sup> ∪ θ<sup>lik</sup>

NNs: likelihood  $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) = \prod_i p(y_i|\theta, x_i)$ 

- NN structure (layers, activations etc.) may be hidden inside of likelihood or we can write explicitly:
   p(y|θ,x) = p(y|NN(θ<sup>NN</sup>, x), θ<sup>lik</sup>)
  - $\mathbf{P} = \theta^{\text{NN}} \cup \theta^{lik}$
  - where NN is the network
  - p "interprets" logits as parameters of a probability distribution e.g. softmax, sigmoid, normal
  - $\theta^{lik}$  are additional likelihood parameters not included in NN
- $\blacktriangleright \mathsf{NN}(\theta, x) = \phi^{L}(\theta^{L}, \phi^{L-1}(\theta^{L-1}, \dots, \phi^{1}(\theta^{1}, x)))$ 
  - where  $\theta^{NN} = \theta^1 \cup \cdots \cup \theta^L$  consists of weights and biases in NN
  - $\phi'$  are layers e.g.  $\phi'(\text{weights} \cup \text{biases}, \text{inputs}) = a'(\text{weights} \cdot \text{inputs} + \text{biases})$
  - a<sup>l</sup> are activations

Point-wise (MLE/MAP) solution

Parameters: find one value θ̂,
 e.g., by minimizing loss = maximizing likelihood (MLE) / maximum a posteriori (MAP):

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \mathbb{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$$

Predictions:

$$\underbrace{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}_{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})} = \underbrace{p(y|\hat{\theta},x)}_{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}$$

predictive distribution

likelihood

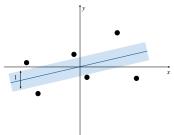
### Example: Homoscedastic Gaussian regression

▶ 
$$p(y_i|NN(\theta, x_i), \sigma) = \mathcal{N}(y_i|\mu_i, \sigma)$$
  
▶  $\mu_i := NN(x_i, \theta) = \phi^L(\theta^L, \phi^{L-1}(\theta^{L-1}, \dots, \phi^1(\theta^1, x_i)))$   
▶  $\theta^{lik} = \{\sigma\}$   
▶  $a^L = \text{identity (i.e., } a^L(v) = v)$   
Note: we look for  $\mathbb{E}_{p(y_i|NN(\theta, x_i), \sigma)}[y_i] = \mu_i$ , and it is coincide

Note: we look for  $\mathbb{E}_{p(y_i|NN(\theta,x_i),\sigma)}[y_i] = \mu_i$ , and it is coincidental that (for Gaussian regression) the NN is returning exactly  $\mu_i$ .

1D linear regression:  $NN(x, \theta) = \theta \cdot x$  and  $\sigma = 1$ (i.e.  $y = \theta \cdot x + \epsilon, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ )

point-wise - find θ̂,
 e.g., maximizing likelihood (MLE) or maximum a posteriori (MAP)



# Bayesian (distributional) solution

Parameters: find a posterior  $p(\theta | D)$ 

• we get uncertainty about  $\theta$  (e.g., variance in addition to mean)

Predictions: Bayesian Model Averaging (average of all possible models weighted by the posterior):

 $\underbrace{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}_{p(y|\theta,x)} = \int \underbrace{p(y|\theta,x)}_{p(\theta|\mathcal{D})} d\theta$ 

posterior predictive

likelihood posterior

# Bayesian (distributional) solution

• Parameters: find a posterior  $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ 

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Predictions: Bayesian Model Averaging (average of all possible models weighted by the posterior):

$$\underbrace{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior predictive}} = \int \underbrace{p(y|\theta,x)}_{\text{likelihood posterior}} \underbrace{p(\theta|\mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior}} d\theta$$

ultimate goal: find posterior predictive p(y|x, D)
 intermediate goal: find posterior p(θ|D) ∝ p(D|θ)p(θ)

Bayesian solution: Making predictions with MC

Bayesian Model Averaging (average of all possible models weighted by the posterior):

$$\underbrace{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}_{\text{posterior predictive}} = \int \underbrace{p(y|\theta,x)}_{\text{likelihood posterior}} \underbrace{p(\theta|\mathcal{D})}_{\text{osterior}} d\theta$$

Statistics of p(y|x, D) can be obtained using the Monte-Carlo estimates by two-step sampling:

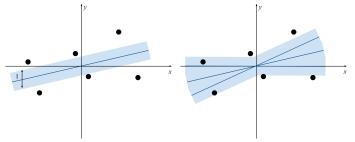
- **>** sample  $\theta \sim p(\theta | D)$
- for the fixed  $\theta$ , sample  $y \sim p(y|\theta, x)$

For example,  $\mathbb{E}_{p(y|x,\mathcal{D})}[y] \approx \frac{1}{S_{\theta}} \frac{1}{S_{y}} \sum_{\theta \sim p(\theta|\mathcal{D})} \sum_{y \sim p(y|\theta,x)} y$ 

1D linear regression:  $NN(x, \theta) = \theta \cdot x$  and  $\sigma = 1$ (i.e.  $y = \theta \cdot x + \epsilon, \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ )

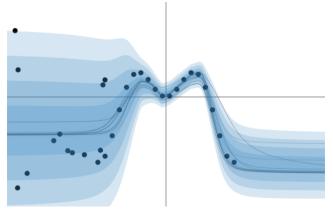
point-wise - find θ̂,
 e.g., maximizing likelihood (MLE) or maximum a posteriori (MAP)

• distributional - find a posterior  $p(\theta|D)$ 



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### 1D non-linear regression example



http://mlg.eng.cam.ac.uk/yarin/blog\_2248.html#demo

Figure: Multiple draws of a regression model.

### Example: Classification

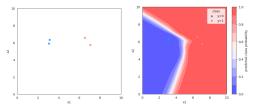
$$p(y_i|\mathsf{NN}(\theta, x_i)) = \mathsf{Bernoulli}(y_i|p_i) 
 p_i := \mathsf{NN}(x_i, \theta) = \phi^L(\theta^L, \phi^{L-1}(\theta^{L-1}, \dots, \phi^1(\theta^1, x_i))) 
 \theta^{lik} = \emptyset 
 a^L(y) = \mathsf{sigmoid}(y)$$

sigmoid makes sure  $p_i \in [0, 1]$ 

### MLE (likelihood=Bernoulli) for a NN Classifier

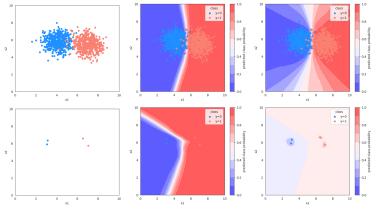
```
class Model(nn.Module):
    def __init_(self):
        super(Model, self), init ()
        self.layers = nn.Sequential(
            nn.Linear(n, h),
            nn.BatchNorm1d(h),
            nn.ReLU(),
            nn.Linear(h, h),
            nn.BatchNorm1d(h),
            nn.ReLU(),
            nn.Linear(h, 1),
    def forward(self. x):
        x = self.layers(x)
        return self.torch.sigmoid(x)
model = Model()
opt = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr=1e-3, momentum=0.9, weight_decay=5e-4)
for it in range(5000):
    y pred = model(X train).squeeze()
    l = F.binary_cross_entropy(y_pred, y_train)
    l.backward()
    opt.step()
    opt.zero grad()
```

# MLE solution p(y|x, D) for 4 data points



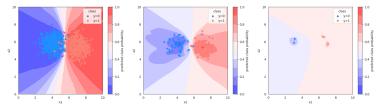
Based on: https://github.com/wiseodd/last\_layer\_laplace accompanying: Kristiadi et al. "Being bayesian, even just a bit, fixes overconfidence in relu networks." ICML 2020.

### Classification: MLE vs Bayesian (LLLA) solution



Based on: https://github.com/wiseodd/last\_layer\_laplace

# Classification: Bayesian (LLLA) solution for varying data sizes



Based on: https://github.com/wiseodd/last\_layer\_laplace

### Challenges in Bayesian learning

#### Design:

- likelihood and network structure
- priors  $p(\theta)$

Learning:

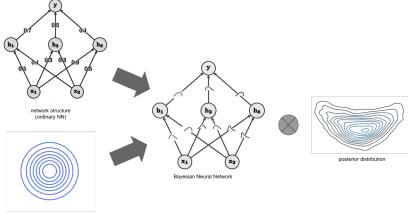
- posterior  $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D},\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$
- evidence  $p(\mathcal{D}) = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta$
- posterior predictive  $p(y|\mathcal{D}) = \int p(y|\theta)p(\theta|\mathcal{D})d\theta$
- model selection = hyperparameters

### Priors

$$\blacktriangleright \ \theta = \theta^L \cup \dots \theta^1$$

• often 
$$p(\theta_d) = N(\theta_d|0, 1)$$

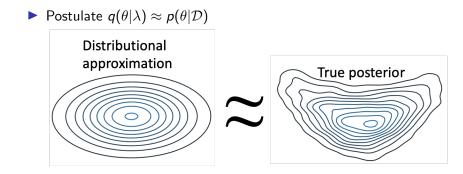
### (Basic Feed-Forward) Bayesian Neural Network



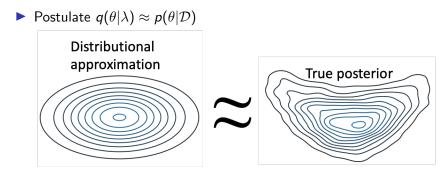
prior distribution

**Objective**: find the posterior distribution  $p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$ 

Finding posterior: Variational Inference



Finding posterior: Variational Inference



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Minimize KL between the approximation and the true posterior:
 M: g(A|) = argmin KI(g|a)

**VI:**  $q(\theta|\lambda) = \operatorname{argmin}_{q} KL(q|p)$ 

Approximate inference: variational objective - ELBO

$$KL(q|p) = \int q(\theta|\lambda) \log\left(\frac{q(\theta|\lambda)}{p(\theta|D)}\right) d\theta = \int q(\theta|\lambda) \log\left(\frac{q(\theta|\lambda)p(D)}{p(\theta|D)p(D)}\right) d\theta$$
$$= \int q(\theta|\lambda) \log\left(\frac{q(\theta|\lambda)}{p(\theta,D)}\right) d\theta + \log p(D)$$
$$= -\int q(\theta|\lambda) \left[\log\left(p(D|\theta)p(\theta)\right) - \log q(\theta|\lambda)\right] d\theta + \log p(D)$$
$$ELBO$$
$$= -\left(\mathbb{E}_q \log\left(p(D|\theta)p(\theta)\right) - \mathbb{E}_q \log q(\theta|\lambda)\right) + \log p(D)$$
$$ELBO$$
Since log  $p(D) = const$ :  $\operatorname{argmin}_q KL(q|p) = \operatorname{argmax}_q ELBO$ 

Summary: variational inference for practitioners

We look for  $q(\theta|\lambda) \approx p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ :

- 1. Choose model: likelihood  $p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)$  and prior  $p(\theta)$
- 2. Assume  $q(\theta|\lambda)$  in some family parametrized by  $\lambda$ ; often:  $q(\theta|\lambda) \equiv N(\mu, diag(\sigma))$  so  $\lambda \equiv \{\mu\} \cup \{\sigma\}$
- 3. Optimize with gradients:  $\lambda_{next} := \lambda + \eta \nabla_{\lambda} \mathcal{L}$ ; usually  $\mathcal{L} \equiv ELBO$
- 4. Use  $q(\theta|\lambda)$  in place of  $p(\theta|D)$  wherever needed

# Appendix

### Disclaimer on notation

Continuous r.v.-s  $\longleftrightarrow$  Discrete r.v.-s:

• integral 
$$\int \longleftrightarrow$$
 sum  $\sum$ 

• probability density  $p \leftrightarrow$  probability mass P

We may abuse notation by writing e.g.  $r.v. \sim p(r.v.|params)$ (instead of  $r.v. \sim p(params)$ ) to explicitly inform about r.v.

Loss:  $\mathbb{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta) = \text{negative log-likelihood: } -\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$ 

Distributions:  $q \equiv q(\theta|\lambda)$ ,  $p \equiv p(\theta|D)$ e.g.  $KL(q|p) \equiv KL(q(\theta|\lambda)|p(\theta|D)) = \int q(\theta|\lambda) \log \frac{q(\theta|\lambda)}{p(\theta|D)} d\theta$ ,  $H(q) \equiv H(q(\theta|\lambda)) = -\int q(\theta|\lambda) \log q(\theta|\lambda) d\theta$ 

### Some useful identities