Probabilistic Machine Learning: Foundations and Frontiers

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Machine Learning

Many Related Terms

Statistical Modelling

Artificial Intelligence

Neural Networks

Machine Learning

Data Mining

Data Analytics

Deep Learning

Pattern Recognition

Data Science

Many Related Fields

Computer Science

Engineering

Statistics

Machine Learning

Computational Neuroscience

Applied Mathematics

Economics

Cognitive Science

Physics

Many Many Applications

Bioinformatics

Robotics

Scientific Data Analysis Natural Language

Machine Learning

Information Retrieval

Speech Recognition

Processing

Computer Vision

Recommender Systems

Signal Processing

Machine Translation

Medical Informatics

Targeted Advertising

Finance Data Compression

Machine Learning

• Machine learning is an interdisciplinary field that develops both the mathematical foundations and practical applications of systems that learn from data.

Main conferences and journals: NIPS, ICML, AISTATS, UAI, KDD, JMLR, IEEE TPAMI

Canonical problems in machine learning

- **Task:** predict discrete class label from input data
- Applications: face recognition, image recognition, medical diagnosis...
- **Methods:** Logistic Regression, Support Vector Machines (SVMs), Neural Networks, Random Forests, Gaussian Process Classifiers...

- Task: predict continuous quantities from input data
- **Applications:** financial forecasting, click-rate prediction, …
- **Methods:** Linear Regression, Neural Networks, Gaussian Processes, …

- **Task:** group data together so that similar points are in the same group
- **Applications:** bioinformatics, astronomy, document modelling, network modelling, …
- **Methods:** k-means, Gaussian mixtures, Dirichlet process mixtures, …

Dimensionality Reduction

- **Task:** map high-dimensional data onto low dimensions while preserving relevant information
- **Applications:** any where the raw data is high-dimensional
- **Methods:** PCA, factor analysis, MDS, LLE, Isomap, GPLVM,…

- **Task:** learn from both labelled and unlabelled data
- **Applications:** any where labelling data is expensive, e.g. vision,speech…
- **Methods:** probabilistic models, graph-based SSL, transductive SVMs…

Reinforcement Learning, Adaptive Control, and Sequential Decision Making

- Task: learn to interact with an environment, making sequential decisions so as to maximise future rewards
- Applications: robotics, control, games, trading, dialogue systems,...
- Methods: Q-learning, direct-policy methods, PILCO, etc...

Computer Vision: Object, Face and Handwriting Recognition, **Image Captioning**

"man in black shirt is playing guitar."

"construction worker in orange safety vest is working on road."

"two young girls are playing with legos toy."

"boy is doing backflip on wakeboard."

Computer Games

Autonomous Vehicles

Autonomous driving

• ALVINN - Drives 70mph on highways

Neural networks and deep learning

NEURAL NETWORKS

Neural networks Data: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^{N} = (X, \mathbf{y})$ Parameters θ are weights of neural net.

Neural nets model $p(y^{(n)}|\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ as a nonlinear function of θ and **x**, e.g.:

$$
p(y^{(n)} = 1 | x^{(n)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sigma(\sum_{i} \theta_{i} x_{i}^{(n)})
$$

Multilayer neural networks model the overall function as a composition of functions (layers), e.g.:

$$
y^{(n)} = \sum_{j} \theta_j^{(2)} \sigma(\sum_{i} \theta_{ji}^{(1)} x_i^{(n)}) + \epsilon^{(n)}
$$

Usually trained to maximise likelihood (or penalised likelihood) using variants of stochastic gradient descent (SGD) optimisation.

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DEEP LEARNING

Deep learning systems are neural network models similar to those popular in the '80s and '90s, with:

- \triangleright some architectural and algorithmic **innovations** (e.g. many layers, ReLUs, dropout, LSTMs)
- \rightarrow vastly larger **data** sets (web-scale)
- \triangleright vastly larger-scale **compute** resources (GPU, cloud)
- ► much better **software** tools (Theano, Torch, TensorFlow)
- \rightarrow vastly increased industry **investment** and **media hype**

figure from http://www.andreykurenkov.com/

LIMITATIONS OF DEEP LEARNING

Neural networks and deep learning systems give amazing performance on many benchmark tasks but they are generally:

- \triangleright very data hungry (e.g. often millions of examples)
- \triangleright very compute-intensive to train and deploy (cloud GPU) resources)
- \rightarrow poor at representing uncertainty
- \triangleright easily fooled by adversarial examples
- \triangleright finicky to optimise: non-convex + choice of architecture, learning procedure, initialisation, etc, require expert knowledge and experimentation
- \triangleright uninterpretable black-boxes, lacking in trasparency, difficult to trust

Beyond deep learning

MACHINE LEARNING AS PROBABILISTIC MODELLING

- \triangleright A model describes data that one could observe from a system
- \triangleright If we use the mathematics of probability theory to express all forms of uncertainty and noise associated with our model...
- ◮ ...then *inverse probability* (i.e. Bayes rule) allows us to infer unknown quantities, adapt our models, make predictions and learn from data.

$P(\text{hypothesis}|\text{data}) = \frac{P(\text{hypothesis})P(\text{data}|\text{hypothesis})}{P(\text{data})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}|\text{poteasis})P(\text{data}$ $\sum_{\mathbf{h}} P(\mathbf{h}) P(\text{data}|\mathbf{h})$

- \triangleright Bayes rule tells us how to do inference about hypotheses (uncertain quantities) from data (measured quantities).
- \blacktriangleright Learning and prediction can be seen as forms of inference.

Reverend Thomas Bayes (1702-1761)

ONE SLIDE ON BAYESIAN MACHINE LEARNING

Everything follows from two simple rules: **Sum rule:** $P(x) = \sum_{y} P(x, y)$ **Product rule:** $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y|x)$

Learning:

$$
P(\theta|\mathcal{D},m) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|\theta,m)P(\theta|m)}{P(\mathcal{D}|m)} \quad \begin{array}{ll} P(\mathcal{D}|\theta,m) & \text{likelihood of parameters } \theta \text{ in model } m \\ P(\theta|m) & \text{prior probability of } \theta \\ P(\theta|\mathcal{D},m) & \text{posterior of } \theta \text{ given data } \mathcal{D} \end{array}
$$

Prediction:

$$
P(x|D,m) = \int P(x|\theta, D,m) P(\theta|D,m) d\theta
$$

Model Comparison:

$$
P(m|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|m)P(m)}{P(\mathcal{D})}
$$

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Calibrated model and prediction uncertainty: getting systems that know when they don't know.

Automatic model complexity control and structure learning (Bayesian Occam's Razor)

Let's return to the example of neural networks / deep learning: Dealing with all sources of **parameter uncertainty** Also potentially dealing with **structure uncertainty**

Feedforward neural nets model $p(y^{(n)}|\mathbf{x}^{(n)},\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Parameters θ are weights of neural net.

Structure is the choice of architecture, number of hidden units and layers, choice of activation functions, etc.

BAYESIAN DEEP LEARNING

Bayesian deep learning can be implemented in many ways:

- Laplace approximations (MacKay, 1992) ▶
- variational approximations (Hinton and van Camp, 1993; Graves, 2011) ▶
- **MCMC** (Neal, 1993) ь
- Stochastic gradient Langevin dynamics (SGLD; Welling and Teh, 2011) ▶
- ▶ Probabilistic back-propagation (Hernandez-Lobato et al, 2015, 2016)
- Dropout as Bayesian averaging (Gal and Ghahramani, 2015) ▶

Figure from Yarin Gal's thesis "Uncertainty in Deep Learning" (2016) \rightarrow NIPS 2016 workshop on Bayesian Deep Learning

When do we need probabilities?

WHEN IS THE PROBABILISTIC APPROACH ESSENTIAL?

Many aspects of learning and intelligence depend crucially on the careful probabilistic representation of *uncertainty*:

- \blacktriangleright Forecasting
- \triangleright Decision making
- \blacktriangleright Learning from limited, noisy, and missing data
- \blacktriangleright Learning complex personalised models
- \triangleright Data compression
- \blacktriangleright Automating scientific modelling, discovery, and experiment design

Automating model discovery: The automatic statistician

THE AUTOMATIC STATISTICIAN

Problem: Data are now ubiquitous; there is great value from understanding this data, building models and making predictions... however, *there aren't enough data scientists, statisticians, and machine learning experts.*

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Solution: Develop a system that automates model discovery from data:

► processing data, searching over models, discovering a good model, and explaining what has been discovered to the user.

INGREDIENTS OF AN AUTOMATIC STATISTICIAN

An open-ended language of models ь

- Expressive enough to capture real-world phenomena...
- \triangleright ... and the techniques used by human statisticians
- \triangleright A search procedure
	- \triangleright To efficiently explore the language of models
- \triangleright A principled method of evaluating models
	- \triangleright Trading off complexity and fit to data
- \blacktriangleright A procedure to automatically explain the models
	- \triangleright Making the assumptions of the models explicit...
	- \bullet ... in a way that is intelligible to non-experts

BACKGROUND: GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

Consider the problem of nonlinear regression: You want to learn a function *f* with error bars from data $\mathcal{D} = \{X, y\}$

A Gaussian process defines a distribution over functions $p(f)$ which can be used for Bayesian regression:

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

Definition: $p(f)$ is a Gaussian process if for *any* finite subset ${x_1, \ldots, x_n} \subset \mathcal{X}$, the marginal distribution over that subset *p*(**f**) is multivariate Gaussian.

GPs can be used for regression, classification, ranking, dim. reduct... Zoubin Ghahramani 31 / 53

A PICTURE: GPS, LINEAR AND LOGISTIC **REGRESSION, AND SVMS**

Automatic Statistician for Regression and Time-Series Models

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THE ATOMS OF OUR LANGUAGE OF MODELS

Five base kernels

Encoding for the following types of functions

THE COMPOSITION RULES OF OUR LANGUAGE

 \blacktriangleright Two main operations: addition, multiplication

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EXAMPLE: AN ENTIRELY AUTOMATIC ANALYSIS

Four additive components have been identified in the data

- \blacktriangleright A linearly increasing function.
- \triangleright An approximately periodic function with a period of 1.0 years and with linearly increasing amplitude.
- ◮ A smooth function.
- Uncorrelated noise with linearly increasing standard deviation.

EXAMPLE REPORTS

An automatic report for the dataset : 07-call-centrd An automatic report for the dataset : 02-solar The Astomatic Statistician The Automatic Statistician Abstract This report was produced by the Automatic Bayesian Covariance Discovery **Abstract** (ABCD) algorithm. This report was produced by the Automatic Buyesian Covariance Discovery 1 Executive summary (ABCD) algorithm. The tax data and full model postprior with extrapolations are shown in figure 1. 1 Executive summary The raw data and full model posterior with extrapolations are shown in figure 1. Figure 1: Raw data (kd1) and model posterior with extrapolation (right) The structure search algorithm has identified six additive components in the data. The first 2 add Figure 1: Raw data (left) and model posterior with extrapolation (right) components anglain 94.5% of the variation in the data as shown by the coefficient of determi-(IP) values in table 1. The first 3 additive components explain 99.1% of the variation in the After the first 4 components the cross validated mean absolute owner (MAE) does not decreas The structure search algorithm has identified eight additive components in the data. The first 4 more than 0.1%. This suggests that subsequent terms are modelling very short term trends, an additive componers explain 92.9% of the variation in the data as shown by the coefficient of detriand rolet or are anciacts of the model or search procedure. Short summaries of the addtensimples (R') values in table 1. The first 6 additive components explain 99.7% of the variation components are as follows: in the data. After the first 5 components the cross validated mean absolute cross (MAE) does not decrease by more than 0.1%. This suggests that subsequent terms are modelling very short term · A linearly increasing function. This function applies until Feb 1974. trends, uncorrelated noise or are artefacts of the model or search procedure. Short summaries of the . A very smooth monotonically increasing function. This function applies from Feb 1. addition components are as follows: consumb. · A smooth function with marginal standard deviation increasing linearly away from A denotes 1964. This function applies until Feb 1974. . A constant, This function applies from 1643 until 1716. . An exactly periodic function with a period of 1.6 years. This function applies until . A smooth function. This function applies until 1643 and from 1716 century 7974 . An approximately periodic function with a period of 50.8 years. This function applies until · Uncorrelated noise. This function applies until May 1973 and from Oct 1973 contacts. 1643 and from 1716 cewards. · Uncombard noise. This function applies from May 1973 until Oct 1973. · A rapidly varying smooth function. This function applies until 1643 and from 1716 onwands. Model checking statistics are summarised in table 2 in section 4. These statistics have not rev · Cocorrelated mine with standard deviation increasing linearly away from 1837. This funcany inconsistencies herween the model and observed data. tion applies and 1643 and from 1716 operation The rost of the document is constrated as follows. In section 2 the forms of the additive comp . Uncorrelated noise with standard deviation increasing linearly wway from 1952. This funcare described and their posterior diverbusions are displayed. In section 7 the modelling avusts tion applies until 1643 and from 1716 opports. of each component are discussed with reference to how this affects the extrapolations made b · Uncorrelated noise. This function graties from 1643 until 1716. Model checking statistics are summarised in table 2 in section 4. These statistics have revealed statistically significant discrepancies between the data and model in component 8.

See http://www.automaticstatistician.com

GOOD PREDICTIVE PERFORMANCE AS WELL

Standardised RMSE over 13 data sets

- \triangleright Tweaks can be made to the algorithm to improve accuracy or interpretability of models produced. . .
- ◮ . . . but both methods are *highly competitive* at extrapolation

THE AUTOML COMPETITION

 \triangleright New algorithms for building machine learning systems that learn under strict time, CPU, memory and disk space constraints, making decisions about where to allocate computational resources so as to maximise statistical performance.

ChaLearn Automatic Machine Learning Challenge (AutoML)

Second and First place in the first two rounds of the AutoML classification challenge to "design machine learning methods" capable of performing all model selection and parameter tuning without any human intervention."

Automating Inference: Probabilistic Programming

Problem: Probabilistic model development and the derivation of inference algorithms is time-consuming and error-prone.

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- ► Develop **Probabilistic Programming Languages** for expressing probabilistic models as computer programs that generate data (i.e. simulators).
- \triangleright Derive Universal Inference Engines for these languages that do inference over program traces given observed data (Bayes rule on computer programs).

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Example languages: BUGS, Infer.NET, BLOG, STAN, Church, Venture, Anglican, Probabilistic C, Stochastic Python*, Haskell*, Turing*, ...

Example inference algorithms: Metropolis-Hastings, variational inference, particle filtering, particle cascade, slice sampling*, particle MCMC, nested particle inference*, austerity MCMC*

Probabilistic programming could revolutionise scientific modelling, machine learning, and AI.

 \rightarrow NIPS 2015 tutorial by Frank Wood

 \rightarrow Turing: https://github.com/yebai/Turing.jl

Automating Optimisation: Bayesian optimisation

BAYESIAN OPTIMISATION

Problem: Global optimisation of black-box functions that are expensive to evaluate

$$
x^* = \arg\max_x f(x)
$$

BAYESIAN OPTIMISATION

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 x^* = arg max $f(x)$

Solution: treat as a problem of sequential decision-making and model uncertainty in the function.

This has myriad applications, from robotics to drug design, to learning neural network hyperparameters.

Probabilistic modelling offers a framework for building systems that reason about uncertainty and learn from data, going beyond traditional pattern recognition problems.

I have *briefly* reviewed some of the frontiers of our research, centred around the theme of automating machine learning, including:

- \blacktriangleright The automatic statistician
- \triangleright Probabilistic programming
- \triangleright Bayesian optimisation

Ghahramani, Z. (2015) Probabilistic machine learning and artificial intelligence. *Nature* 521:452–459.

http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v521/n7553/full/nature14541.html

Ryan P. Adams Yutian Chen David Duvenaud Yarin Gal Hong Ge Michael A. Gelbart Roger Grosse José Miguel Hernández-Lobato Matthew W. Hoffman

James R. Lloyd David J. C. MacKay Adam Scibior ´ Amar Shah Emma Smith Christian Steinruecken Joshua B. Tenenbaum Andrew G. Wilson

PAPERS

General:

Ghahramani, Z. (2013) Bayesian nonparametrics and the probabilistic approach to modelling. *Philosophical Trans. Royal Society A* 371: 20110553.

Ghahramani, Z. (2015) Probabilistic machine learning and artificial intelligence *Nature* 521:452–459. http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v521/n7553/full/nature14541.html

Automatic Statistician:

Website: http://www.automaticstatistician.com

Duvenaud, D., Lloyd, J. R., Grosse, R., Tenenbaum, J. B. and Ghahramani, Z. (2013) Structure Discovery in Nonparametric Regression through Compositional Kernel Search. ICML 2013.

Lloyd, J. R., Duvenaud, D., Grosse, R., Tenenbaum, J. B. and Ghahramani, Z. (2014) Automatic Construction and Natural-language Description of Nonparametric Regression Models AAAI 2014. http://arxiv.org/pdf/1402.4304v2.pdf

Lloyd, J. R., and Ghahramani, Z. (2015) Statistical Model Criticism using Kernel Two Sample Tests. http://mlg.eng.cam.ac.uk/Lloyd/papers/kernel-model-checking.pdf. NIPS 2015.

Bayesian Optimisation:

Hernández-Lobato, J. M., Hoffman, M. W., and Ghahramani, Z. (2014) Predictive entropy search for efficient global optimization of black-box functions. NIPS 2014

Hernández-Lobato, J.M., Gelbart, M.A., Adams, R.P., Hoffman, M.W., Ghahramani, Z. (2016) A General Framework for Constrained Bayesian Optimization using Information-based Search. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*. 17(160):1–53.

PAPERS II

Probabilistic Programming:

Turing: https://github.com/yebai/Turing.jl

Chen, Y., Mansinghka, V., Ghahramani, Z. (2014) Sublinear-Time Approximate MCMC Transitions for Probabilistic Programs. arXiv:1411.1690

Ge, Hong, Adam Scibior, and Zoubin Ghahramani (2016) Turing: rejuvenating probabilistic programming in Julia. (In preparation).

Bayesian neural networks:

José Miguel Hernández-Lobato and Ryan Adams. Probabilistic backpropagation for scalable learning of Bayesian neural networks. ICML, 2015.

Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. Dropout as a Bayesian approximation: Representing model uncertainty in deep learning. ICML, 2016.

Yarin Gal and Zoubin Ghahramani. A theoretically grounded application of dropout in recurrent neural networks. NIPS, 2016.

José Miguel Hernández-Lobato, Yingzhen Li, Daniel Hernández-Lobato, Thang Bui, and Richard E Turner. Black-box alpha divergence minimization. ICML, 2016.

BAYESIAN NEURAL NETWORKS AND GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

Bayesian neural network Data: $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^{N} = (X, \mathbf{y})$ Parameters θ are weights of neural net

prior $p(\theta|\alpha)$ posterior $p(\theta|\alpha, \mathcal{D}) \propto p(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta)p(\theta|\alpha)$ prediction $p(y' | \mathcal{D}, \mathbf{x}', \alpha) = \int p(y' | \mathbf{x}', \theta) p(\theta | \mathcal{D}, \alpha) d\theta$

A neural network with one hidden layer, infinitely many hidden units and Gaussian priors on the weights \rightarrow a GP (Neal, 1994). He also analysed infinitely deep networks.

MODEL CHECKING AND CRITICISM

- \triangleright Good statistical modelling should include model criticism:
	- ◮ *Does the data match the assumptions of the model?*
- \triangleright Our automatic statistician does posterior predictive checks, dependence tests and residual tests
- \triangleright We have also been developing more systematic nonparametric approaches to model criticism using kernel two-sample testing:

 \rightarrow Lloyd, J. R., and Ghahramani, Z. (2015) Statistical Model Criticism using Kernel Two Sample Tests. *NIPS 2015.*

BAYESIAN OPTIMISATION

Figure 4. Classification error of a 3-hidden-layer neural network constrained to make predictions in under 2 ms.

(work with J.M. Hernández-Lobato, M.A. Gelbart, M.W. Hoffman, & R.P. Adams) arXiv:1511.09422 arXiv:1511.07130 arXiv:1406.2541