EE613

Machine Learning for Engineers

Generative models. Introduction to Graphical models

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overview

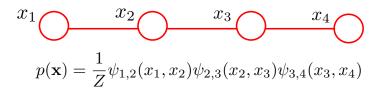
- Graphical models fundamentals
 - bayesian networks, representations
 - probability factorization
 - conditional independence
 - undirected graphical models
- Learning
 - Maximum Likelihood, Bayesian learning, Maximum a Posteriori (MAP)
 - the EM algorithm, latent variable models (GMM)
- Continuous Latent variable
 - Principle Component Analysis (PCA)
 - Probabilistic PCA
- Inference algorithms

Graphical models: inference

- given a factorized form of the distribution
 - directed graphical model (product of probability of each node given its parents)
 - undirected graphical model (product over cliques)

- $p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{k=1}^{L} p(x_k | \mathbf{pa}_k)$
- $p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{C} \psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$
- inference: given a learned model, compute posterior of one or more subset of the nodes given other nodes
- approach
 - use factorized form to do this efficiently
 - inference will appear as
 - propagation of local messages
 - local updates
- remaining of lecture :
 - exact inference inference on chain + derive general algorithm for trees
 - approximate inference: sampling methods

Inference on a chain: example



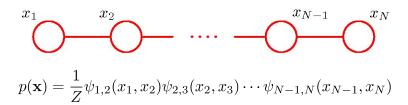
- How to infer the marginal $p(x_3)$?
- We consider discrete variables, each with K states
 - each potential $\psi_{i-1,i}(x_{i-1},x_i)$ can be presented by a K x K table
- Note: we focus on undirected models: directed chains can be easily transformed in undirected versions

Inference on a chain: example

1) compute
$$\mu_{\alpha}(x_2) = \sum_{x_1} \psi_{1,2}(x_1,x_2) \qquad \mu_{\beta}(x_3) = \sum_{x_4} \psi_{3,4}(x_3,x_4)$$
 2) compute
$$\mu_{\alpha}(x_3) = \sum_{x_1} \psi_{2,3}(x_2,x_3) \mu_{\alpha}(x_2)$$

marginal as product of two "messages" coming from the left and the right

Inference on a chain: generalisation (1)



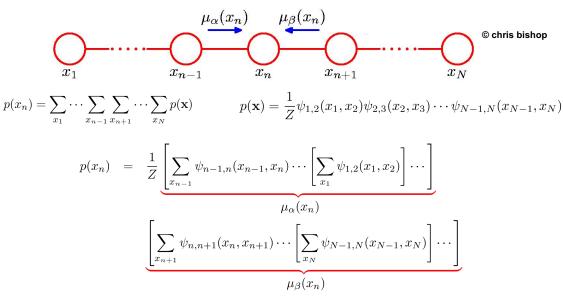
Similarly, infer marginal of one of the node

$$p(x_n) = \sum_{x_1} \cdots \sum_{x_{n-1}} \sum_{x_{n+1}} \cdots \sum_{x_N} p(\mathbf{x})$$

Brute force evaluation - complexity exponential in number of steps

- KN-1 summation
- K products per summation term
 around K^N operations

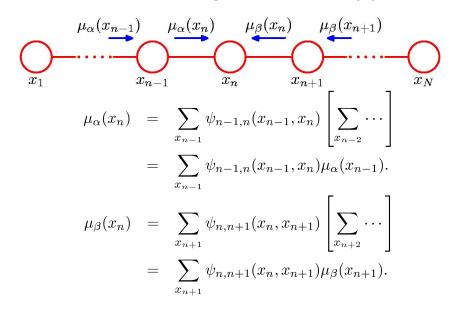
Inference on a chain : generalisation (2)



The marginal can be interpreted as the product of local messages coming from

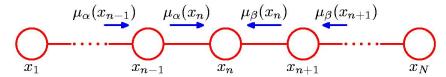
- the left summarizing the marginalization on the nodes on the left
- the right summarizing the marginalization involving the right nodes

Inference on a chain: generalisation (3)



The messages can be computed recursively

Inference on a chain: generalisation (4)



Initial conditions

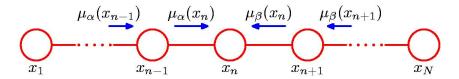
$$\mu_{\alpha}(x_2) = \sum_{x_1} \psi_{1,2}(x_1, x_2)$$

$$\mu_{\beta}(x_{N-1}) = \sum_{x_N} \psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1}, x_N)$$

- Normalization constant given by $Z = \sum_{x_n} \mu_{\alpha}(x_n) \mu_{\beta}(x_n)$
- Summary: to compute local marginals
 - compute and store all forward messages $\mu_{\alpha}(x_n)$
 - compute and store all backward messages $\mu_{\beta}(x_n)$
 - compute Z at any node
 - for all variables required, compute $p(x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_{\alpha}(x_n) \mu_{\beta}(x_n)$
- Complexity
 - each recursion step K² operations
 - 2 recursions with N steps

Complexity: $N \times K^2$ - linear in the number of steps

Inference on a chain: generalisation (5)



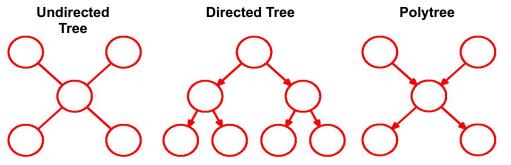
- Computation of marginals given some observed nodes (evidence)
 - apply exactly the same procedure
 - sums over observed nodes 'disappear'
 clamp all terms involving evidence to their values
- Example : compute $p(x_n|x_4=a)$
 - assume n > 4 then, in alpha recursion

$$\mu_{\alpha}(x_4) = \sum_{x_3} \psi_{3,4}(x_3, x_4) \mu_{\alpha}(x_3)$$

=> needs to be computed only for $x_4 = a$

and
$$\mu_{\alpha}(x_5) = \sum_{x_4 \in \{a\}} \psi_{4,5}(x_4, x_5) \mu_{\alpha}(x_4) = \psi_{4,5}(a, x_5) \mu_{\alpha}(x_4 = a)$$

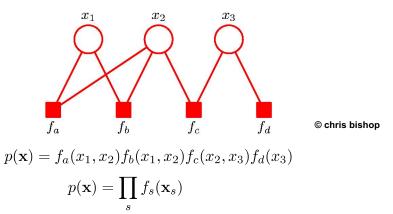
Generalization of principle to other graph structures



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- Undirected graphs : Trees = no loop (or cycles)
 - existence of a unique path from any node to any other node
- Directed graphs
 - Trees: one root, all other nodes have one parent at most
 - Polytrees :
 - unique path from any node to any other node (not taking into account arrow directions)

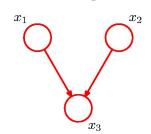
Factor graphs

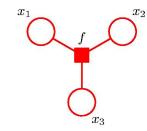


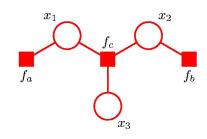
- Probability distributions: product over factors
- Factor graphs
 - explicit representation of this fact
 - bipartite graph with variables as one node type; factors as the other nodes edges: link between variable node x_i and factor node f_s iif x_i is a variable of f_s
 - useful to generalize message passing algorithms

Factor graphs from directed graphs









$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(x_1)p(x_2)$$
$$p(x_3|x_1, x_2)$$

$$p(x_1)p(x_2)$$
 $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3|x_1, x_2)$ $p(x_1)p(x_2)p(_3|x_1, x_2)$

$$f_a(x_1) = p(x_1)$$

$$f_b(x_2) = p(x_2)$$

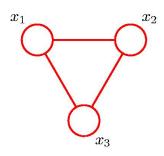
$$f_c(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3|x_1, x_2)$$

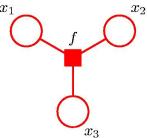
- Allows to be more explicit about the factorization (when transforming a directed graph to an undirected one)
- Note: above sample
 - polytree
 - resulting factor graph has a tree structure

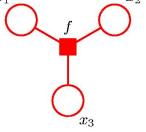
Factor graphs from undirected graphs



 f_b







$$f_a(x_1, x_2, x_3) f_b(x_2, x_3)$$

$$= \psi(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

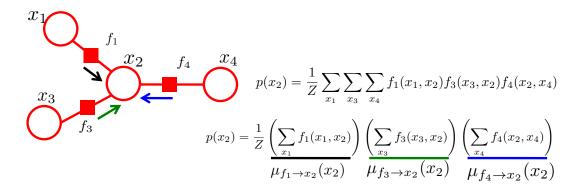
$$\psi(x_1, x_2, x_3) \qquad f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \psi(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

example with the same clique structure but a different factorization

Exact inference on trees: sum product algorithm

- Assumption: factor graph has a tree structure
 - => can be applied to directed/undirected trees, directed polytrees
- Objectives
 - obtain an efficient, exact inference algorithm for finding marginals;
 - in situations where several marginals are required, allow computations to be shared efficiently
- Key principles
 - use factorized expression
 - distributive law: interchange summation and produc => ab+ac = a(b+c)
 - => generalizes principle seen on chains to more 'branches'
- Note: belief propagation is a special case of sum-product algorithm

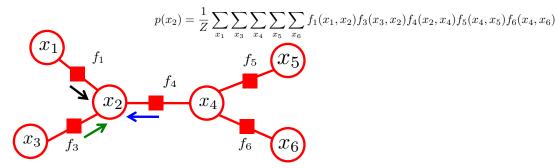
Sum product algorithm: example (1)



$$p(x_2) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_{f_1 \to x_2}(x_2) \mu_{f_3 \to x_2}(x_2) \mu_{f_4 \to x_2}(x_2)$$

- Factor-to-variable messages $\mu_{f_i \to x_i}(x_i)$
 - summarizes **marginalization** in subtree associated with factor f_j not comprising node x_i

Sum product algorithm: example (2)

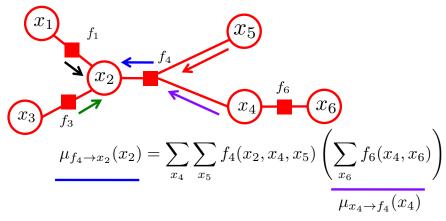


$$p(x_2) = \frac{1}{Z} \left(\sum_{x_1} f_1(x_1, x_2) \right) \left(\sum_{x_3} f_3(x_3, x_2) \right) \left(\sum_{x_4} f_4(x_2, x_4) \left(\sum_{x_5} f_5(x_4, x_5) \right) \left(\sum_{x_5} f_6(x_4, x_6) \right) \right)$$

$$\mu_{f_4 \to x_2} \left(x_2 \right)$$

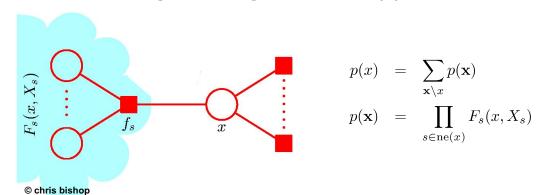
- Only subtree where nodes were added is affected
 - message has to be computed recursively from subtree

Sum product algorithm: example (3)



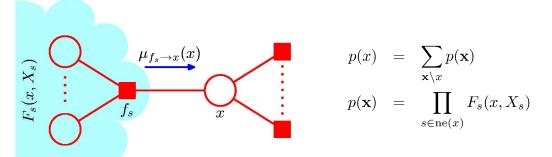
- At factor node f: to propagate message to a given node
 - combine using the factor term messages coming from all the other subtrees
 of the factor f => involves variable-to-factor messages
- Variable-to-factor message $\mu_{x_i \to f_i}(x_i)$
 - summarizes marginalization in subtree associated with variable x_i not comprising factor f_i and node x_i

Sum product algorithm : general case (1)



Tree structure: partition factors in different subgroups related to neighbors

Sum product algorithm : general case (2)



$$p(x) = \prod_{s \in ne(x)} \left[\sum_{X_s} F_s(x, X_s) \right]$$

$$= \prod_{s \in ne(x)} \mu_{f_s \to x}(x).$$

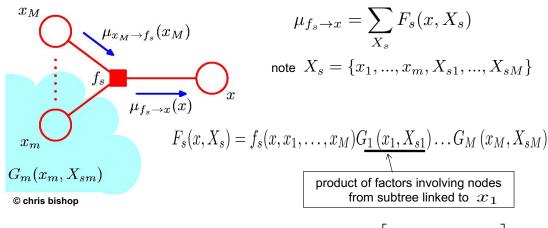
$$\prod_{\substack{\in \mathrm{ne}(x)\\ \mathrm{ct\ of\ incoming}}} \mu_{f_s \to x}(x). \qquad \qquad \mu_{f_s \to x}(x) \equiv \sum_{X_s} F_s(x, X_s)$$

factor-to-variable message = marginalization over all variables in subtree linked to

 f_s that are not x

How to compute these messages recursively?

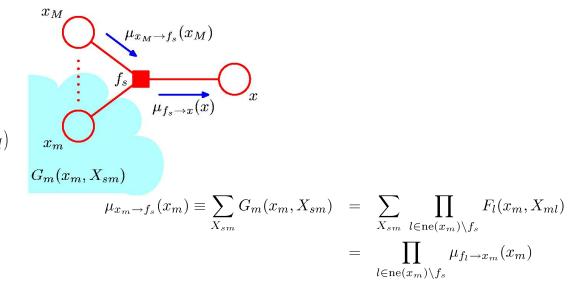
Sum product algorithm: general case (3)



thus
$$\mu_{f_s o x}(x) = \sum_{x_1} \ldots \sum_{x_M} f_s(x, x_1, \ldots, x_M) \prod_{m \in \operatorname{ne}(f_s) \backslash x} \left[\sum_{X_{sm}} G_m(x_m, X_{sm}) \right]$$

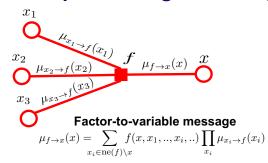
$$= \sum_{x_1} \ldots \sum_{x_M} f_s(x, x_1, \ldots, x_M) \prod_{m \in \operatorname{ne}(f_s) \backslash x} \mu_{x_m o f_s}(x_m)$$
variable-to-factors messages

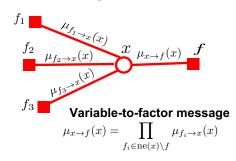
Sum-product algorithm: general case (4)

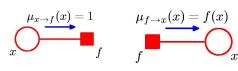


Variable-to-factor message = product of incoming factor-to-variable messages

Sum product algorithm: update summary

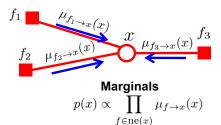






Initialisation

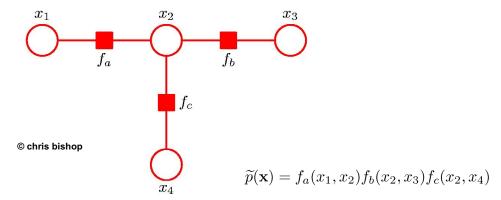
 Message schedule: a message can be sent from a node only if it has received all requested messages from its neighbours



Sum-product algorithm: general case (5)

- To compute all local marginals
 - (1) Pick an arbitrary node as root
 - (2) Collect evidence: compute and propagate messages from the leaf nodes to the root, storing received messages at every node
 - (3) Distribute evidence: Compute and propagate messages from the root to the leaf nodes, storing received messages at every node (Warning: this can include using messages from tep 2)
 - (4) Compute the product of received messages at each node for which the marginal is required, and normalize if necessary.
- Dealing with evidence/observations
 - as in the chain case, when nodes are observed, summation is not needed

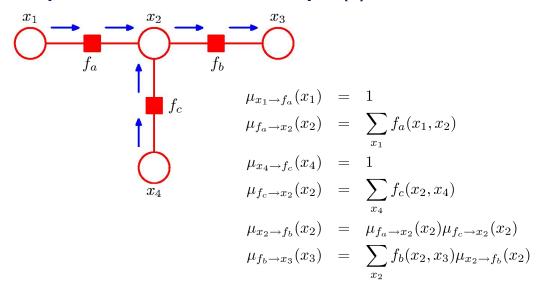
Sum-product : worked out example (1)



First step

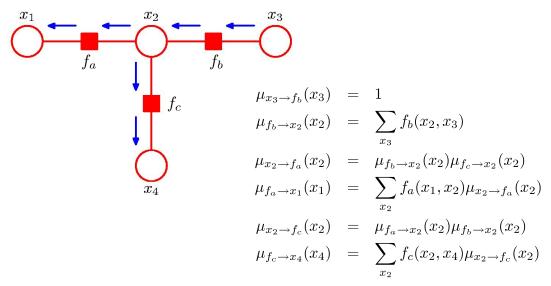
select x_3 as root node $\Rightarrow x_1$ and x_4 are leaves

Sum-product: worked out example (2)



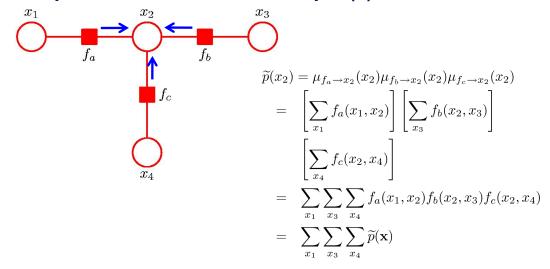
 Forward sequence of messages (leaves to root)

Sum-product : worked out example (3)



 Backward sequence of messages (root to leaves)

Sum-product: worked out example (4)



- Compute marginal (e.g. at node 2)
 - note: we need messages from both the forward and backward pass
- Verify that it corresponds to the definition

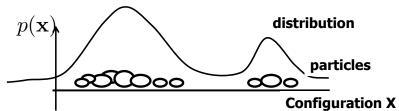
Remarks and discussions

- Continuous variables
 - algorithm also works on Gaussian networks
- General graphs : junction tree
 - Message-passing algorithm can be generalized to do exact inference
 - Needs first to turn initial graph into a Junction Tree, and then run a sum-product like algorithm on it
 - Intractable on graphs with large cliques/loops
- Loopy belief propagation
 - apply sum-product algorithm on general graphs
 - initially, pass message across all links; then messages are passed around until convergence (not guaranteed)
 - Approximate but tractable for large graphs
 - sometimes works well, sometimes not at all

Graphical models: inference

- Exact inference
 - inference on chain
 - derive general algorithm for trees
- Approximate inference: sampling methods
 - importance sampling
 - Markov Chain Monte-Carlo (MCMC)

Sampling approaches



• Intuition:

approximate distribution using a set of M weighted samples

$$\{(\mathbf{x}^{(m)},\pi^{(m)})\}_{m=1,..,M} \qquad \sum_m \pi^{(m)} = 1 \qquad \qquad p(\mathbf{x}) \simeq \sum_m \pi^{(m)} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(m)})$$
 age:

- Usage:
 - compute expectation of function f

$$E_p[f] = \int f(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \simeq \sum_m \pi^{(m)}f(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})$$

- In particular, mean expectation of state (f(x)=x) $E_p[\mathbf{x}] \simeq \sum_m \pi^{(m)} \mathbf{x}^{(m)}$ find max of distributions

- find max of distributions
- How do we get these samples?

Perfect sampling

Target distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x})$$

Draw M samples

$$\mathbf{x}^{(m)} \sim p(\mathbf{x}), \ m = 1 \cdots M$$

Approximation

$$p(\mathbf{x}) pprox \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{M} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(m)})$$
 weight of sample

Expectation w.r.t. p

$$\mathbb{E}_p[f] = \int f(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})d\mathbf{x} \longrightarrow I_M(f) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M f(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})$$

- Approximation: unbiased, converges when M goes to infinity
- Usually (case of interest)
 - difficult to sample from p directly!
 - however, we assume that we can evaluate p(x) easily

Importance sampling

- Use a 'proposal' auxiliary function q
 - q : as close as possible to p (and supp(p) included in supp(q)) (i.e. $q(x) = 0 \Rightarrow p(x) = 0$)
 - Draw the samples from q instead of p

$$\mathbf{x}^{(m)} \sim q(\mathbf{x}), \ m = 1 \cdots M$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}_p[f] = \int f(\mathbf{x}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x})}{q(\mathbf{x})} q(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} f(\mathbf{x}^{(m)}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}$$

Importance weights

$$\pi^{(m)} \propto \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})} \qquad \sum_{m=1}^{M} \pi^{(m)} = 1$$

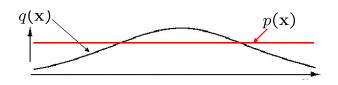
⇒ correction factor: samples were drawn from q instead of p

Importance sampling

Importance weights

$$\pi^{(m)} \propto \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})} \qquad \sum_{m=1}^{M} \pi^{(m)} = 1$$

- ⇒ large weight if q is smaller than p
- ⇒ larger weights where q will simulate less samples than p would



samples generated from q(x), and reweighted

Approximation of p

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{m=1}^{M} \pi^{(m)} \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(m)})$$

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Comment

$$E_p[f] = \int f(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \simeq \sum_m \pi^{(m)} f(\mathbf{x}^{(m)}) \qquad \qquad \pi^{(m)} \propto \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}$$

- Expectation is well approximated if samples are drawn where
 - p(x) is large
 - f(x) is large
- Consequence
 - approximation works well if q(x) draws samples where p(x) is large, which indirectly means that q(x) should be as close as possible to p(x)
 - or if q(x) draws samples where f(x) is large

Example 1: likelihood weighted sampling

- For p(x) given by a Directed Acyclic Graph $p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{k=1}^{L} p(x_k | \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{pa}(k)})$
- Assume that there is no evidence (i.e. all x_k are unknown)
 - ⇒ just draw samples using ancestral sampling (i.e. draw them when parents are known, cf first course)
- Assume that some x_k are observed (k in Ev : evidence set)
 - use ancestral sampling for unobserved variables
 - use observed values for the others
 - ⇒ equivalent to draw sample from

$$q(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{k \notin Ev} p(x_k | \mathbf{x}_{pa(k)}) \prod_{k \in Ev} \delta(x_k - x_k^{obs})$$

easy to show that the weights are given by

$$\pi^{(m)} \propto \frac{p(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})} = \frac{\prod_{k \notin Ev} p(x_k^{(m)} | \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{pa}(k)}^{(m)}) \prod_{k \in Ev} p(x_k^{(m)} | \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{pa}(k)}^{(m)})}{\prod_{k \notin Ev} p(x_k^{(m)} | \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{pa}(k)}^{(m)})} = \prod_{k \in Ev} p(x_k^{(m)} | \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{pa}(k)}^{(m)})$$

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Example 2: importance sampling and EM

- In EM algorithm, approximate the E step when E step can not be performed analytically or is costly (e.g. when latent space is large)
- Model: Z latent variables X observed ones parameters θ
- EM: we are optimizing the Expected Log-likelihood

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old}) = \int p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old}) \ln p(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\mathbf{Z}$$

 Rather than computing the full posterior of latent variables, we can draw samples from it to approximate Q, which is then optimized in the usual way in the M step

$$Z^{(m)} \sim p(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old})$$
 $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old}) \simeq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \ln p(\mathbf{Z}^{(m)}, \mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

- Special cases:
 - stochastic EM: draw only a single Z from the posterior (hard assignment)
 - extract the value of Z for which the posterior is maximum
 often used with HMM (when having enough training data),
 i.e. use Viterbi decoding to find optimal path and only keep this one for M step

Graphical models: inference

- Exact inference
 - inference on chain
 - derive general algorithm for trees
- Approximate inference: sampling methods
 - importance sampling
 - Markov Chain Monte-Carlo (MCMC)

Often used in

- undirected models (especially image processing)
- graphs with continuous variables (untractable exact inference)

Gibbs sampling (1)

- Get samples from $p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
- Basic idea to get a chain of samples
 - initialize x⁰
 - then generate new samples by
 - selecting x_i in turn
 - sampling x_i from the local posterior
 - keeping the other x_i unchanged (i.e. just recopy them)
- After some time, the samples of the chain are true samples from the distribution

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (x_1^{(0)}, x_2^{(0)}, x_3^{(0)})$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (x_1^{(1)}, x_2^{(1)}, x_3^{(1)}) \text{ with } x_1^{(1)} \sim p(x_1 | x_2^{(0)}, x_3^{(0)}), x_2^{(1)} = x_2^{(0)}, x_3^{(1)} = x_3^{(0)}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} \text{ with } x_2^{(2)} \sim p(x_2 | x_1^{(1)}, x_3^{(1)}), x_1^{(2)} = x_1^{(1)}, x_3^{(2)} = x_3^{(1)}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} \text{ with } x_3^{(3)} \sim p(x_3 | x_1^{(2)}, x_2^{(2)}), x_1^{(3)} = x_1^{(2)}, x_2^{(3)} = x_2^{(2)}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(4)} \text{ with } x_1^{(4)} \sim p(x_1 | x_2^{(3)}, x_3^{(3)}), x_2^{(4)} = x_2^{(3)}, x_3^{(4)} = x_3^{(3)}$$

Gibbs sampling (2)

Note: full conditional distribution

$$x_i \sim p(x_i|\mathbf{x}_{-i})$$
 all components except i

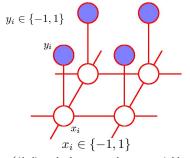
often, its computation depends only on some variables

e.g. graphical model: we only need to know the neighbors in the graph (Markov properties, i.e. conditional indepedance)

Gibbs sampling applied to the Ising model







Original Image x (hidden)

$$\mathbf{x} = \{x_i, i = 1 \dots N\}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \{y_i, i = 1 \dots N\}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \{y_i, i = 1 \dots N\}$$
 $\mathcal{N} = \{(k, l) \text{ such that } x_k \text{ and } x_l \text{ are neighbors } \}$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \propto \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{N}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \text{ with } \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = \exp(\beta x_i x_j)$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) \propto \prod_i \psi^d(y_i, x_i) \text{ with } \psi^d(y_i, x_i) = \exp(\alpha y_i x_i)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \propto \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{N}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_i \psi^d(y_i, x_i)$$

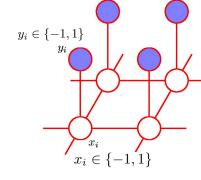
Notes:

- factors are higher when arguments are the same
- computing full posterior $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})$ (i.e. for all values of x) is intractable
- get samples to approximate distribution, eg use gibbs samplings

Gibbs sampling applied to the Ising model







$$\mathbf{x} = \{x_i, i = 1...N\}$$
 $\mathbf{y} = \{y_i, i = 1...N\}$

$$p(x_i|\mathbf{x}_{-i},\mathbf{y}) = p(x_i|\mathbf{x}_{nei(i)}, y_i) \propto \exp(\eta x_i y_i) \prod_{j \in nei(i)} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)$$
$$p(x_i|\mathbf{x}_{nei(i)}, y_i) \propto h(x_i)$$

with
$$h(x_i) = \exp(\eta x_i y_i + \sum_{j \in nei(i)} \beta x_i x_j) = \exp(x_i (\eta y_i + \beta \lambda_i))$$
 with $\lambda_i = \sum_{j \in nei(i)} x_j$

$$p(x_i = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{nei(i)}, y_i) = \frac{h(x_i = 1)}{h(x_i = 1) + h(x_i = -1)} = \frac{\exp(\eta y_i + \beta \lambda_i)}{\exp(\eta y_i + \beta \lambda_i) + \exp(-\eta y_i - \beta \lambda_i)}$$

Gibbs sampling applied to the Ising model





Original Image x (hidden) $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i, i = 1 \dots N\}$



Noisy Image y (observed)
$$\mathbf{y} = \{y_i, i = 1 \dots N\}$$

$$x_i \in \{-1, 1\}$$

 $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$

$$p(x_i = 1 | \mathbf{x}_{nei(i)}, y_i) = \frac{h(x_i = 1)}{h(x_i = 1) + h(x_i = -1)} = \frac{\exp(\eta y_i + \beta \lambda_i)}{\exp(\eta y_i + \beta \lambda_i) + \exp(-\eta y_i - \beta \lambda_i)}$$

- so, sampling x_i =1 will be favored by having a y_i =+1 observation and $\lambda_i > 0$, i.e. having more neighbors with +1 than -1
- we can run the algorithms for enough iterations, and keep the samples (after removing initial samples, i.e. a burn-in period)
- we can use them to compute the mean of x according to the posterior

Markov Chains Monte Carlo

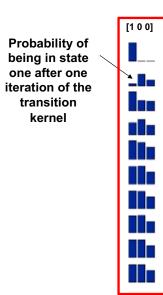
- Goal: sample from target distribution
- Approach: use Markov Chain
- Why?

$$0.1$$
 0.6
 0.3
 0.5
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3
 0.3

 $p(\mathbf{X})$ noted here $\pi(\mathbf{X})$

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Markov Chains: stationary distribution



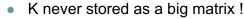
$$\begin{array}{l} {q_0} \\ {q_0} \\ {q_1} = K \; {q_0} \\ {q_2} = K \; {q_1} = K^2 \; {q_0} \\ {q_3} = K \; {q_2} = K^2 \; {q_1} = K^3 \; {q_0} \end{array}$$

$$q_{10} = K q_9 = \dots K^{10} q_0$$

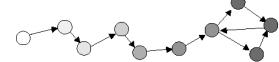
• the state distribution converges to a **stationary distribution**, whatever the starting distribution $K\pi=\pi$

Metropolis-Hasting

- Metropolis-Hasting algorithm: published in 1953
- Idea:
 - set-up a Markov Chain
 - run the chain until stationary
 - all subsequent samples are from stationary distribution
 - If the stationary distribution is our target, we get our samples!
- In high dimension space
 - start at $x_0 \sim q_0$
 - propose a move K(x_t,x_{t+1})

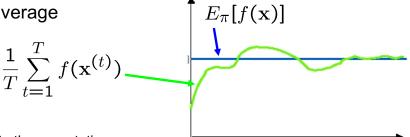


K can be seen as a function/search operator



MCMC inference

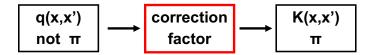
• Empirical average



- converges to the expectation with respect to the stationary distribution
- $E_{\pi}[f(\mathbf{x})]$
- Reason: the chain is **ergodic**
 - we can forget the initial state value x₀

How do we get the right chain? $K\pi=\pi$

- In practice, we are given the target distribution π
- How do we construct the kernel K such that the target distribution is the stationary distribution of K?
- Idea: similar to importance sampling
 - select a proposal transition kernel q(x,x')
 - irreductible: you can reach any state from anywhere
 - recurrent: you will visit any state infinitely often
 - modify it to get the right stationary distribution
 - schematically



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Detailed balance

ullet a sufficient condition to converge to $\pi(\mathbf{x})$

$$\pi(\mathbf{x})K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \pi(\mathbf{x}')K(\mathbf{x}',\mathbf{x})$$

"detailed balance"

- given q(x,x'), the detail balance is usually not satisfied
 - correction factor
 - reject a fraction of the moves to satisfy the detailed balance
 - insert a **factor a** in detailed balance

$$\pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') \times a = \pi(\mathbf{x}')q(\mathbf{x}',\mathbf{x})$$

Metropolis-Hasting algorithm

- Metropolis algorithm produces a Markov Chain given our target distribution
 - generated set of samples $\{\mathbf{x}^{(m)}\}$
 - 1) Start with x⁽⁰⁾ then iterate
 - 2) propose x' from $q(x^{(m)}, x')$
 -) calculate acceptance ratio a
- $a = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}')q(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{x}^{(m)})}{\pi(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})q(\mathbf{x}^{(m)}, \mathbf{x}')}$
- accept new sample with probability min(a,1) if accepted set: x^(m+1) = x' else if rejected: set x^(m+1) = x^(m)

$$a = \frac{\pi(\mathbf{x}')}{\pi(\mathbf{x}^{(m)})}$$

- Note special case if q is symmetric, i.e. q(x,x')=q(x',x)
 - x' more probable than x: definitively accept (move to) the new sample
 - x' less probable than x: we may move there (not forbidden) depending on relative probabilities.

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Special case: Gibbs sampling

- Notations:
 - \mathbf{x} variable $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$
 - all components except the ith one: $\mathbf{x}_{-i} = (x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_N)$
- Basic idea:
 - visit in turns each component x_i
 - draw sample from the local posterior of x_i given the all other variables
- More formally: define sequence of proposals

$$q(\mathbf{x}'|\mathbf{x}) = p(x_i'|\mathbf{x}_{-i})\delta(\mathbf{x}'_{-i} - \mathbf{x}_{-i})$$

given the other component, draw component i from local

all components different than \mathbf{x}_i need to be unchanged in new sample

 it can be shown that under this assumption, a = 1, so the new sample is always accepted

Some notes on sampling methods

- Advantages
 - often easier to implement than alternative methods
 - applicable to a broader range of models (e.g. models in which the number of components can vary)
 - sampling can be faster than other methods when applied to really huge models or datasets
- Notes
 - Issue: consecutive samples are correlated so the chain can be slow at exploring well the state space
 - Improved methods: block sampling, collapsed gibbs sampling, Rao-Blackwellization
 - can be used to find optimum of function (simulated annealing)

Conclusion

- Exact inference in Graphical Model
 - Possible for tree-structured graphs
 - Efficient algorithms existing that work with local message-passing algorithms (analog to dynamic programming)
 - Sum-product (and max-product) algorithms useful for computing marginal (and most likely) inference
 - => useful for learning algorithms (cf HMM case)
 - Also possible when working with continuous variables (Gaussian)
- Approximate inference techniques
 - Sampling techniques : cf previous slide
 - Variational methods