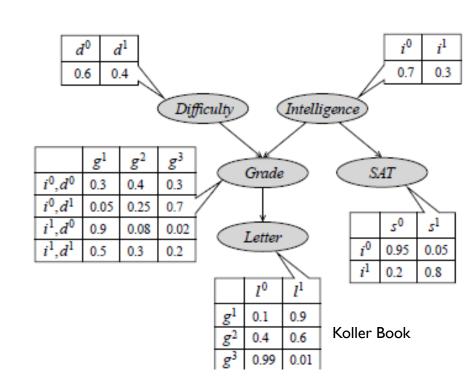
Probabilistic graphical models Exact and approximate inference

22-808: Generative models Sharif University of Technology Fall 2024

Fatemeh Seyyedsalehi

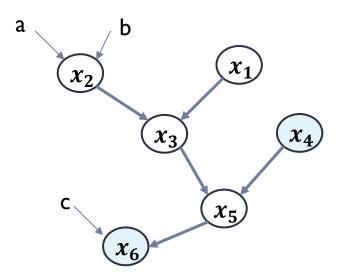
- Inference: answering conditional or marginal probabilities in a joint distribution
 - The graph structure and CPDs (in BNs) or potential functions (in MRFs) are known.
- Example:

p(Difficulty|Letter = 1) = ? p(Letter|Intelligence = 1) = ?p(SAT) = ?



Notation:

- Colored nodes: observed random variables
- White nodes: latent/hidden/unobserved random variables
- Others not in a circle: parameters of CPDs



Consider the following joint distribution

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_6)$$

over discrete random variables with k possible values.

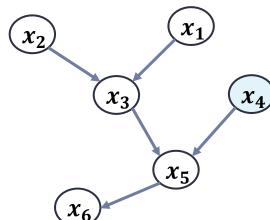
An inference query:

$$p(x_2|x_4=\overline{x_4})=?$$

A naïve solution:

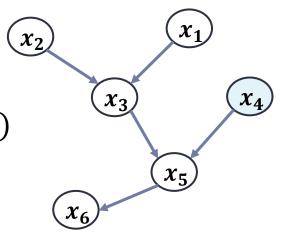
$$p(x_2|x_4 = \overline{x_4}) = \frac{p(x_2, \overline{x_4})}{\sum_{x_2} p(x_2, \overline{x_4})}$$

$$p(x_2, \overline{x_4}) = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \overline{x_4}, x_5, x_6)$$



However, this distribution is factorized Over this graph and we have:

$$p(x_1, x_2, ..., x_6) = p(x_2)p(x_1)p(x_3|x_1, x_2)p(x_5|x_4, x_3)p(x_6|x_5)$$



A better solution:

$$p(x_2, \overline{x_4}) = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \overline{x_4}, x_5, x_6)$$

$$= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} p(x_2) p(x_1) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_5 | \overline{x_4}, x_3) p(x_6 | x_5)$$

A better solution:

$$p(x_2, \overline{x_4}) = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \overline{x_4}, x_5, x_6)$$

$$= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} p(x_2) p(x_1) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_5 | \overline{x_4}, x_3) p(x_6 | x_5)$$

• $O(k^4)$ computation!

Distributive law: If $X \notin scope(\phi_1)$ then $\sum_X \phi_1 \phi_2 = \phi_1 \sum_X \phi_2$

Therefore, we can perform summation over the product of only a subset of factors

A better solution:

$$p(x_{2}, \overline{x_{4}}) = \sum_{x_{1}} \sum_{x_{3}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{6}} p(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \overline{x_{4}}, x_{5}, x_{6})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{1}} \sum_{x_{3}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{6}} p(x_{2}) p(x_{1}) p(x_{3}|x_{1}, x_{2}) p(x_{5}|\overline{x_{4}}, x_{3}) p(x_{6}|x_{5}) =$$

$$p(x_{2}) \sum_{x_{1}} p(x_{1}) \sum_{x_{3}} p(x_{3}|x_{1}, x_{2}) \sum_{x_{5}} p(x_{5}|\overline{x_{4}}, x_{3}) \sum_{x_{6}} p(x_{6}|x_{5})$$

• $O(4k^3)$ computation!

Variable elimination

Generally, when a distribution is factorized, Variable elimination algorithm can decrease the computational complexity.

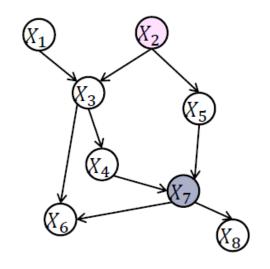
- Variable elimination algorithm for exact inference:
 - We select an elimination order of random variables
 - For each random variable, all factors containing that variable are removed from the set of factors and multiplied
 - The selected random variable is summed out from the product of factors and a new factor is obtained
 - The resulted factor is multiplied to others and algorithm is continued.

Exact inference: variable elimination Example

- Query: $P(X_2|X_7 = \bar{x}_7)$
- $P(X_2|\bar{x}_7) \propto P(X_2,\bar{x}_7)$

$$P(x_2, \bar{x}_7)$$

$$= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_6} \sum_{x_8} P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, \bar{x}_7, x_8)$$



Consider the elimination order $X_1, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_8$ $P(x_2, \bar{x}_7)$

$$=\sum_{x_8}\sum_{x_6}\sum_{x_5}\sum_{x_4}\sum_{x_3}\sum_{x_1}P(x_1)P(x_2)P(x_3|x_1,x_2)P(x_4|x_3)P(x_5|x_2)P(x_6|x_3,\bar{x}_7)P(\bar{x}_7|x_4,x_5)P(x_8|\bar{x}_7)$$

Exact inference: variable elimination Example

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$$P(x_{2},\bar{x}_{7}) = \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \sum_{x_{3}} P(x_{2})P(x_{4}|x_{3})P(x_{5}|x_{2})P(x_{6}|x_{3},\bar{x}_{7})P(\bar{x}_{7}|x_{4},x_{5})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{\underline{x}_{1}} P(x_{1})P(x_{3}|x_{1},x_{2})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \sum_{x_{3}} P(x_{2})P(x_{4}|x_{3})P(x_{5}|x_{2})P(x_{6}|x_{3},\bar{x}_{7})P(\bar{x}_{7}|x_{4},x_{5})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) m_{1}(x_{2},x_{3})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} P(x_{2})P(x_{5}|x_{2})P(\bar{x}_{7}|x_{4},x_{5})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{\underline{x_{3}}} P(x_{4}|x_{3})P(x_{6}|x_{3},\bar{x}_{7})m_{1}(x_{2},x_{3})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} P(x_{2})P(x_{5}|x_{2})P(\bar{x}_{7}|x_{4},x_{5})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7})m_{3}(x_{2},x_{6},x_{4})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} P(x_{2})P(x_{5}|x_{2})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{\underline{x_{4}}} P(\bar{x}_{7}|x_{4},x_{5})m_{3}(x_{2},x_{6},x_{4})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} P(x_{2})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{\underline{x_{5}}} P(x_{5}|x_{2})m_{4}(x_{2},x_{5},x_{6})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} P(x_{2})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{\underline{x_{5}}} P(x_{5}|x_{5})m_{5}(x_{2},x_{6})$$
Example from Soleymani pgm-sharif
$$1 (\sum_{x_{6}} P(x_{2})P(x_{8}|\bar{x}_{7}) \sum_{x_{6}} m_{5}(x_{2},x_{6})$$

Exact inference: variable elimination Example

- Query: $P(X_2|X_7 = \bar{x}_7)$
- $P(X_2|\bar{x}_7) \propto P(X_2,\bar{x}_7)$

$$\chi_3$$
 χ_5 χ_6 χ_8

$$P(x_2, \bar{x}_7)$$

$$=\sum_{x_1}\sum_{x_3}\sum_{x_4}\sum_{x_5}\sum_{x_6}\sum_{x_8}P(x_1,x_2,x_3,x_4,x_5,x_6,\bar{x}_7,x_8)$$

Consider the elimination order $X_1, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_8$ $P(x_2, \bar{x}_7)$

$$=\sum_{x_8}\sum_{x_6}\sum_{x_5}\sum_{x_4}\sum_{x_3}\sum_{x_1}\phi(x_3,x_4)\phi(x_2,x_5)\phi(x_3,x_6,\bar{x}_7)\phi(x_4,x_5,\bar{x}_7)\phi(\bar{x}_7,x_8)\phi(x_1,x_2,x_3)$$

Exact inference: variable elimination Example

$$P(x_{2}, \bar{x}_{7}) = \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \sum_{x_{3}} \phi(x_{3}, x_{4}) \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(x_{3}, x_{6}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(x_{4}, x_{5}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) \sum_{x_{4}} \phi(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \sum_{x_{3}} \phi(x_{3}, x_{4}) \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(x_{3}, x_{6}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(x_{4}, x_{5}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) m_{1}(x_{2}, x_{3})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(x_{4}, x_{5}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) \sum_{x_{3}} \phi(x_{3}, x_{4}) \phi(x_{3}, x_{6}, \bar{x}_{7}) m_{1}(x_{2}, x_{3})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{4}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(x_{4}, x_{5}, \bar{x}_{7}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) m_{3}(x_{2}, x_{6}, x_{4})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{5}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) \sum_{x_{4}} \phi(x_{4}, x_{5}, \bar{x}_{7}) m_{3}(x_{2}, x_{6}, x_{4})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \sum_{x_{5}} \sum_{x_{5}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) m_{4}(x_{2}, x_{5}, x_{6})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) \sum_{x_{5}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) m_{4}(x_{2}, x_{5}, x_{6})$$

$$= \sum_{x_{8}} \sum_{x_{6}} \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) \sum_{x_{5}} \phi(x_{2}, x_{5}) m_{4}(x_{2}, x_{5}, x_{6})$$
From Soleymani pgm-sharif
$$= \left(\sum_{x_{6}} \phi(\bar{x}_{7}, x_{8}) m_{6}(x_{2})\right) m_{6}(x_{2})$$

Example from Soleymani pgm-sharif 12

Exact inference: variable elimination

- In each elimination step, we need $O(k^m)$ computations where m is the number of variables is the product of factors containing the variable
 - $\triangleright k$ is the size of the largest scope of random variables
- With a system with n random variables, we need $O(nk^m)$ computations

Inference algorithms

- Exact inference :
 - Variable elimination
 - Can be applied on any graph
 - Responds only one query
 - Message passing
 - Sum-product
 - Only for trees
 - Junction tree
 - ☐ Can be applied on any graph
- In many real world applications these algorithms are computationally too complex to be applied

Inference algorithms

- Approximate inference:
 - - Variational inference
 - Stochastic simulation/sampling methods

- The calculus of variations (or variational calculus) is a field of mathematical analysis that uses variations, which are small changes in functions and functionals, to find maxima and minima of functionals
 - ► Functionals: functions of functions ©
- Variational Bayesian methods are a family of techniques for approximating intractable integrals arising in Bayesian inference and machine learning.

- Generally, consider two sets of random variables in a joint distribution p:
 - X: Observed random variables
 - Z: Latent random variables

calculate p(Z|X)?

$$p(Z|X) = \frac{p(X,Z)}{p(X)}, \text{ where } p(X) = \int p(X,Z)$$

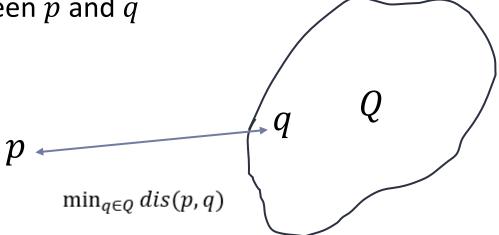
- We usually have the joint distribution p(X, Z).
- However, calculating the marginal distribution p(X) is interactable.

- Generally, consider two sets of random variables in a joint distribution p:
 - ▶ X: Observed random variables
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Solution: we select a family distribution Q in which the inference query is tractable. Then we find the best approximate of p in Q.

- Solution: we select a family distribution Q in which the inference query is tractable. Then we find the best approximate of p in Q.
- Converting inference to optimization over a functional (variational calculus)
 - ▶ A family distribution Q
 - lacksquare A similarity metric between p and q
 - KL-divergence



Kullback-Leibler divergence between two distribution:

$$KL(p \parallel q) = \int p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

- This is positive for any two distributions
- KL(p||q) = 0 if and only if $p \equiv q$
- It is not symmetric
 - we call it divergence not distance

KL-divergence

- \blacktriangleright Suppose p is the target distribution we want to approximate it,
- ▶ I-projection: $KL(q \parallel p)$
- ▶ M-projection: $KL(p \parallel q)$
- Obviously, when $p \notin Q$ the result of following optimizations is different

$$\min_{q} KL(p \parallel q)$$

$$\min_{q} KL(q \parallel p)$$

KL-divergence

 $\blacktriangleright p$ is a mixture of gaussian, Q is the family of gaussian distributions.

M-projection $\min_{q} KL(p \parallel q)$

 $\min_{a} KL(q \parallel p)$

I-projection

Bishop Book

- In variational inference we use the I-projection because of the computational complexity of p.
- lacktriangle Therefore, we should solve the following optimization to find the best q

$$\min_{q} KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z|X))$$

$$KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z|X)) = \int q(Z) \log \frac{q(Z)}{p(Z|X)} dZ = \int q(Z) \log \frac{q(Z)p(X)}{p(Z,X)} dZ$$

$$= \int q(Z) \log \frac{q(Z)p(X)}{p(Z,X)} dZ = \int q(Z) \log \frac{q(Z)}{p(Z,X)} dZ + \int q(Z) \log p(X) dZ$$

$$= KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X)) + \log p(X)$$

$$KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z|X)) = KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X)) + \log p(X)$$

- Two facts:
 - $KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z|X)) > 0 \to \log p(x) > -KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X))$

Evidence lower bound (ELBO)

▶
$$\log p(x) < 0 \rightarrow KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X)) > KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z|X))$$

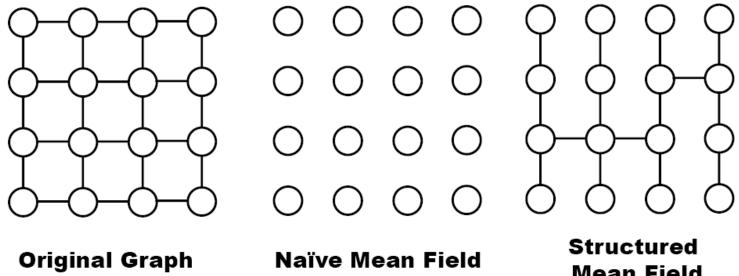
The upper bound

In variational inference, we minimize the above upper bound

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{q \in Q} \mathit{KL}(q(Z) \parallel p(Z, X))$$

A common type of variational Bayes

Mean-field assumption: the unknown variables can be partitioned so that each partition is independent of the others



Mean Field

Naïve mean field: the family distribution Q is fully factorized as follows:

$$q(Z) = \prod_{i} q_i(z_i)$$

Variational mean field inference:

$$\underset{q \in Q}{\operatorname{argmin}} KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X)) = \underset{q_1,q_2,\dots,q_n}{\operatorname{argmin}} KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X))$$

Naïve mean field: the family distribution Q is fully factorized as follows:

$$q(Z) = \prod_{j} q_{j}(z_{j})$$

 We iteratively optimizing over one coordinate (factor) at a time, as follows,

$$\frac{\partial \mathit{KL}(q(\mathit{Z}) \| p(\mathit{Z}, \mathit{X}))}{\partial q_j} = 0 \ \text{to obtain } q_j^*$$

In variational naïve mean field inference, optimum factors are obtained as follows:

$$\log q_j^*(z_j) \propto \mathrm{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)]$$

As each $q_i^*(z_i)$ depends on others, q_{-i} :

- 1. We initialize q_j^* s
- 2. We iteratively update each q_i^* until convergence!

In variational naïve mean field inference, optimum factors are obtained as follows:

$$\log q_j^*(z_j) \propto \mathrm{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)]$$

Proof:

$$KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X)) = \int q(Z) \log \frac{q(Z)}{p(Z,X)} dZ$$

$$= \operatorname{E}_{q(Z)} \left[\log \frac{q(Z)}{p(X,Z)} \right] = \operatorname{E}_{q(Z)} [\log q(Z)] - \operatorname{E}_{q(Z)} [\log p(X,Z)]$$

Variational mean filed approximation proof cont.

We know,

$$q(Z) = \prod_{i} q_i(z_i) \to \log q(Z) = \sum_{i} \log q_i(z_i)$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbf{I}: \mathbf{E}_{q(Z)}[\log q(Z)] = \sum_{i} \mathbf{E}_{q_{i}(z_{i})}[\log q_{i}(z_{i})]$$

Also,

2:
$$E_{q(Z)}[\log p(X,Z)] = E_{q_j(z_j)}[E_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)]]$$

Variational mean filed approximation proof cont.

Therefore, $KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X))$ $= \sum_{i} E_{q_{i}(z_{i})}[\log q_{i}(z_{i})] - E_{q_{j}(z_{j})}\left[E_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)]\right]$

and

$$\frac{\partial KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X))}{\partial q_{j}} = \frac{\partial \int_{z_{j}} q_{j}(z_{j}) \left(-E_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)] + \log q_{j}(z_{j})\right) dz_{j} + const}{\partial q_{j}}$$

Variational mean filed approximation proof cont.

According to "Euler-Lagrange equation" we can write,

$$\frac{\partial KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z,X))}{\partial q_j} = \frac{\partial q_j(z_j) \left(-\mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)] + \log q_j(z_j)\right)}{\partial q_j}$$

Remember the goal is:

$$q_j^* = \underset{q_j}{\operatorname{argmin}} KL(q(Z) \parallel p(Z, X))$$

Therefore:

$$\frac{\partial q_{j}(z_{j})\left(\mathrm{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)] - \log q_{j}(z_{j})\right)}{\partial q_{j}} = 0$$

$$\to \log q_{j}^{*}(z_{j}) = \mathrm{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log p(X,Z)] + const$$

Inference algorithms

- Approximate inference:
 - Deterministic approximation
 - Variational inference
 - Stochastic simulation/sampling methods

Sampling based approximation

• Consider the following set of i.i.d. samples from the distribution p(x):

$$D = \{x^1, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$$

Monte Carlo method: for an arbitrary function f(x) of random variable x, we can estimate $\mathrm{E}_p[f]$ as follows (empirical expectation),

$$E_p[f] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x^i)$$

Sampling based approximation

Monte Carlo method: for an arbitrary function f(x) of random variable x, we can estimate $\mathrm{E}_p[f]$ as follows (empirical expectation),

$$E_p[f] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x^i)$$

- ▶ Marginal probability: $p(x_1 = k) \rightarrow f = I(x_1 = k)$
- Mean of a distribution: f = x
- ...

Forward sampling in a BN

```
Given a BN, and number of samples N

Choose a topological order on variables: x_1, x_2, ..., x_M

For i = 1 to N

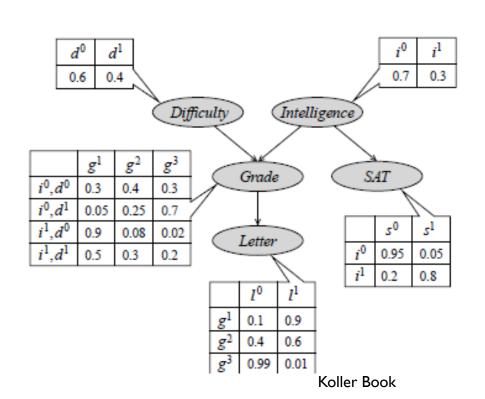
For j = 1 to M

Sample x_j^i from the distribution p(x_j|parent(x_j))

Add \{x_1^i, x_2^i, ..., x_M^i\} to the sample set
```

Forward sampling in a BN

- Sample D from p(D)
- Sample I from p(I)
- Sample G from p(G|D,I)
- ightharpoonup Sample S from p(S|I)
- Sample L from p(L|G)



Forward sampling in a BN

Problems:

- When the evidence rarely happens, we would need lots of samples, and most would be wasted
- Overall probability of accepting a sample rapidly decreases when the number of observed variables and states that those variables can take increases
- This approach is very slow and rarely used in practice.

Importance sampling

- lacktriangle When sampling from the target distribution p is hard, we use a proposal distribution q
 - q should dominates $p \rightarrow q(x) > 0$ whenever p(x) > 0
- We sample from the proposal distribution q and consider a weight for each sample:

$$E_p[f] = \int f(x) p(x) dx = \int f(x) \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} q(x) dx$$

$$E_p[f] \simeq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x^i) \frac{p(x^i)}{q(x^i)} \qquad x^i \sim q(x)$$

$$E_p[f] \simeq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x^i) w(x^i) \qquad w(x^i) = \frac{p(x^i)}{q(x^i)}$$

Importance sampling

- \blacktriangleright Importance sampling depends on how well q matches p.
 - For mismatch distributions, weights may be dominated by few samples having large weights, with the remaining weights being relatively insignificant
- It is common that P(x)f(x) is strongly varying and has a significant proportion of its mass concentrated in a small region

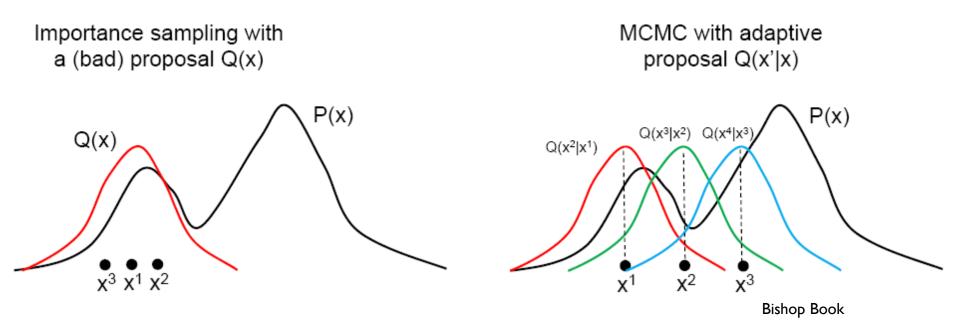
The problem is more severe if none of the samples falls in the regions where P(x)f(x) is large.

Bishop Book

Problems of naïve Monte Carlo method

- ▶ Direct sampling: only when we can sample from p(x)
 - Wasteful for rare evidences
- Importance sampling: when the proposal q(x) is very different from p(x) most samples have very low weights.
 - In fact finding a good proposal q(x) that is similar to p(x) usually requires knowledge of the analytic form of p(x) that is not available

- Using an adaptive distribution q(x'|x) instead of a fixed distribution q(x), where x is the last accepted sample and x' is the new sample.
 - During sampling process the proposal distribution changes as a function of previous sampled data



- Different methods
 - Metropolis-Hastings <-----</p>
 - Gibbs sampling

- Metropolis-Hastings
 - Sample from q(x'|x), where x is the previous sample
 - As x changes, q(x'|x) can also change
 - Accept this new sample with following probability

$$A(x'|x) = \min(1, \frac{p(x')/q(x'|x)}{p(x)/q(x|x')}) \xrightarrow{\text{importance}}$$

- The acceptance rate A(x'|x) guarantees that after sufficiently many draws, samples are generated from the target distribution p(x)
 - ▶ Burn-in samples: samples generated in initial iterations and hey are not from p(x)

Metropolis-Hastings algorithm:

Initialize starting point: x^0 , set t=0

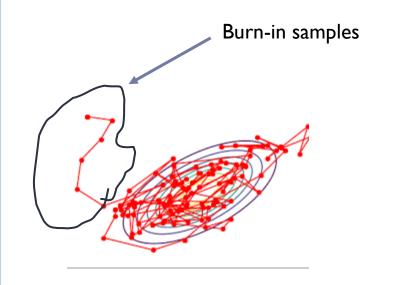
Repeat until convergence:

Sample
$$x^* \sim q(x^*|x)$$

$$A(x^*|x) = \min(1, \frac{p(x')/q(x'|x)}{p(x)/q(x|x')})$$
Sample $u \sim uniform(0,1)$
If $u < A(x^*|x)$:
$$x^{t+1} = x^*$$
Else:

 $x^{t+1} = x^t$

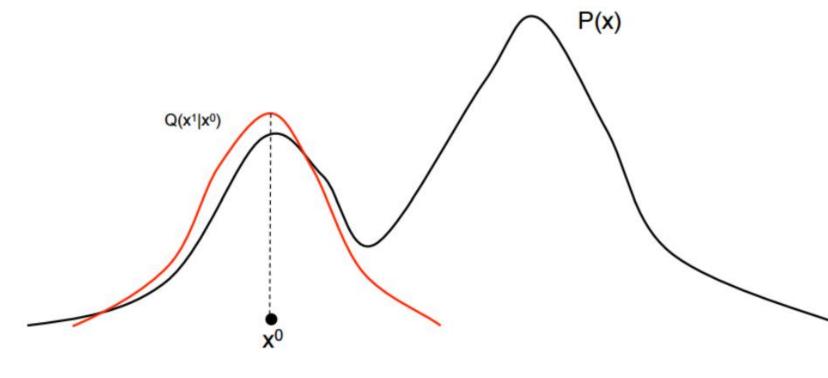
Discard Burn-in samples



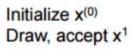
- Metropolis-Hastings example:
 - The proposal distribution q(x'|x) is a gaussian distribution
 - ▶ The true distribution p(x) is a bimodal with two peaks!

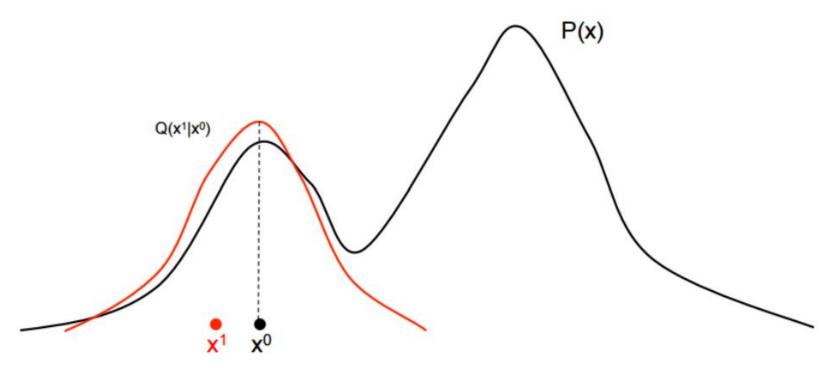
Initialize x(0)

muanzo



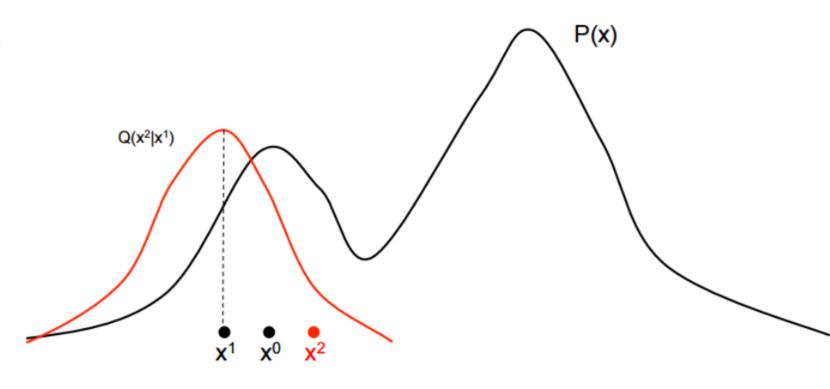
Metropolis-Hastings example:



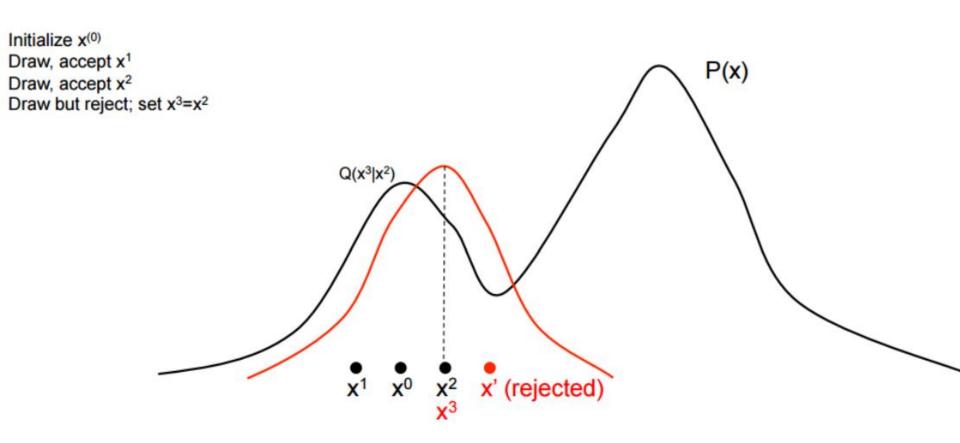


Metropolis-Hastings example:

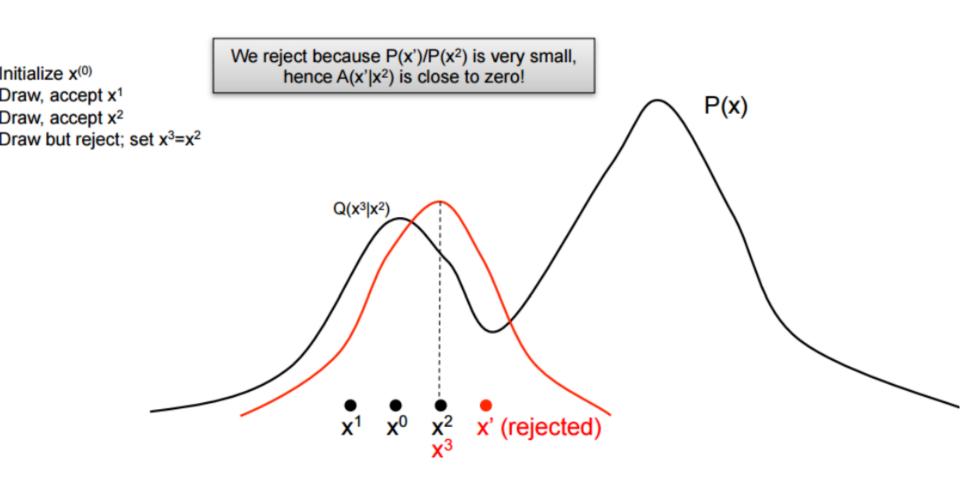
Initialize x⁽⁰⁾ Draw, accept x¹ Draw, accept x²



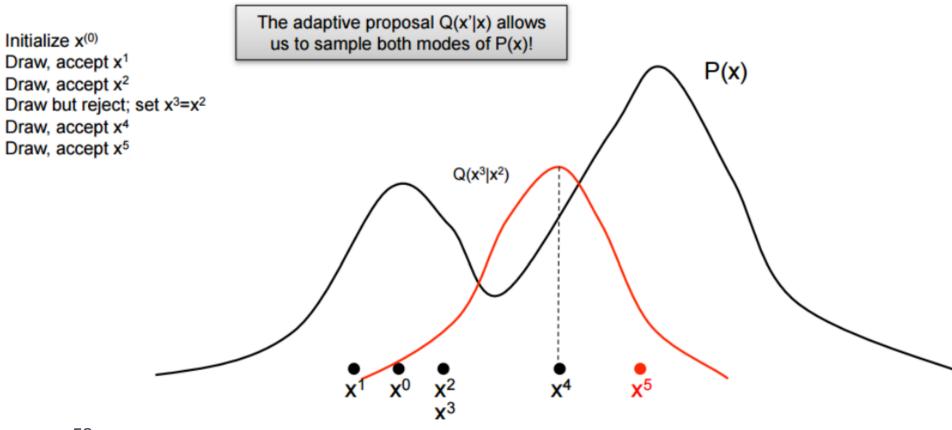
Metropolis-Hastings example:



Metropolis-Hastings example:



Metropolis-Hastings example:



52

Next topic

- Probabilistic graphical models
 - Learning