Probabilistic Machine Learning Monte Carlo inference

Alexandre Graell i Amat alexandre.graell@chalmers.se https://sites.google.com/site/agraellamat

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Bayesian (probablistic) machine learning

In this course we consider problems of the form:

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

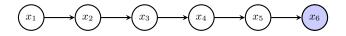
- D: Observed data
- θ : parameters of some model explaining the data

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

- Can be found exactly in some cases (conjugate priors)
- Computation complexity can be alleviated when $p(\mathcal{D}, \theta)$ defined by specific classes of probabilistic graphical models (BNs, MRFs, FGs)

And when computing $p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$ is intractable?

A simple(?) example



$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1) &= \mathcal{U}(x_1; [a_1, b_1]) \\ p(x_2|x_1) &= \mathcal{N}(x_1; x_1, \sigma_2^2) \\ p(x_3|x_2) &= \mathcal{N}(x_3; [x_2, \sigma_3^2]) \\ p(x_4|x_3) &= \mathcal{U}(x_4; [x_3 - a_4, x_3 + a_4]) \\ p(x_5|x_4) &= \mathcal{U}(x_5; [x_4 - a_5, x_4 + a_5]) \\ p(x_6|x_5) &= \mathcal{N}(x_6; x_5, \sigma_6^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$p(x_1|x_6) = \frac{p(x_1, x_6)}{p(x_6)}$$

$$= \int \cdots \int \frac{p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6)}{p(x_6)} dx_2 dx_3 dx_4 dx_5$$

$$= \int \cdots \int \frac{p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_2)p(x_4|x_3)p(x_5|x_4)p(x_6|x_5)}{p(x_6)} dx_2 dx_3 dx_4 dx_5$$

Approximate inference

Need to resort to approximations:

Stochastic methods:

Monte Carlo approximation (numerical sampling)

Deterministic approximate inference methods:

- Variational inference
- Expectation propagation

Monte Carlo inference

Idea: Generate samples $\theta^{(\tau)}$ from posterior, $\theta^{(\tau)} \sim p(\theta|\mathcal{D})$, and use them to compute any quantity of interest, e.g., $p(\theta_1|\mathcal{D})$.

Can achieve any desired level of accuracy by generating enough samples

Main issue: How do we efficiently generate samples from a probability distribution, particularly in high dimensions?

We will use Bishop's notation:

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p(z): probability density
(in the learning case, z = \theta and p(z) = p(\theta|\mathcal{D}))
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We will focus on evaluating expectations

Monte Carlo inference

Why expectations?

Example: Making predictions

$$p(t|\mathcal{D}) = \int p(t|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D}) p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \sim p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D})} [p(t|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{D})]$$

Monte Carlo inference

Goal: Finding the expectation of a function f(z) with respect to a probability distribution p(z).

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{z})] = \int f(\boldsymbol{z}) p(\boldsymbol{z}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z}$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}) \int f(\boldsymbol{z}) d\boldsymbol{z}$$

Idea: Replacing ensemble averages with empirical averages over randomly generated samples.

Monte Carlo methods

Basic formulation:

- 1. M i.i.d. samples $\mathbf{z}^{(m)} \sim p(\mathbf{z})$ are generated from $p(\mathbf{z})$
- 2. $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{z}]$ approximated by the empirical average

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{z}] pprox rac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} oldsymbol{z}^{(m)} = (ar{z}_1, \dots, ar{z}_K)^\mathsf{T}$$

with

$$\bar{z}_j = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} z_j^{(m)}, \quad j = 1, \dots, K, \qquad \mathbf{z}_j^{(m)} \sim p(\mathbf{z}_j)$$

3. $\mathbb{E}[f(z)]$ approximated by

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim p(\mathbf{z})}[f(\mathbf{z})] = \int f(\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{z}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{z} pprox rac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} f(\mathbf{z}^{(m)})$$

How do we sample from p(z)?

Sampling from a Bayesian network: Ancestral sampling

Assume:

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(z_k | x_{\mathcal{P}(z_k)})$$

(ordered variables $\{z_1,\ldots,z_K\}$, with no arrow from any node to any lower numbered node)

Goal: Draw samples from $p(z_1, \ldots, z_K)$

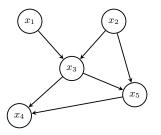
Ancestral sampling:

- 1. Draw sample for $z_1 \sim p(z_1)$
- 2. Draw sample for $\mathbf{z}_2 \sim p(z_2|z_{\mathcal{P}(2)})$

K. Draw sample for $z_K \sim p(z_K|z_{\mathcal{P}(K)})$

We have obtained a sample from the joint distribution.

Sampling from a Bayesian network: Ancestral sampling



Sampling:

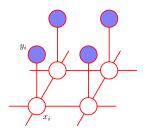
 $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{x}_1 \sim p(x_1) \\ & \mathbf{x}_2 \sim p(x_2) \\ & \mathbf{x}_3 \sim p(x_3|x_1, x_2) \\ & \mathbf{x}_5 \sim p(x_5|x_2, x_3) \\ & \mathbf{x}_4 \sim p(x_4|x_3, x_5) \end{aligned}$

We obtain a sample of

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

Sampling in Markov random fields

Example: Ising model



Factorization:

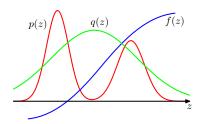
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{i,j} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_i \psi_i(x_i, y_i)$$

• We would like to derive p(x|y) or sample from it

Ancestral sampling not possible!

Importance sampling: Approximate expectations with respect to an intractable distribution p(z).

Idea: For distributions p(z) from which it is difficult to sample (but we can evaluate), resort to a simpler distribution q(z) (proposal distribution) from which sampling is easy.



$$\mathbb{E}[f(oldsymbol{z})] = \int f(oldsymbol{z}) p(oldsymbol{z}) \mathsf{d}oldsymbol{z}$$

Observation:

Expectation can be expressed as an ensemble average over RV $\mathbf{z} \sim q(\mathbf{z})$,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[f(z)] &= \int f(z) p(z) \mathrm{d}z \\ &= \int f(z) \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} q(z) \mathrm{d}z \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q(z)} \left[f(z) \frac{p(z)}{q(z)} \right] \end{split}$$

if support of q(z) contains that of p(z)

$$\mathbb{E}[f(oldsymbol{z})] = \mathbb{E}_{oldsymbol{z} \sim q(oldsymbol{z})} \left[f(oldsymbol{z}) rac{p(oldsymbol{z})}{q(oldsymbol{z})}
ight]$$

Importance sampling:

- 1. Generate M i.i.d. samples $\mathbf{z}^{(m)} \sim q(\mathbf{z})$
- 2. Compute the empirical approximation

$$\mathbb{E}[f(oldsymbol{z})] pprox rac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} rac{p(oldsymbol{z}^{(m)})}{q(oldsymbol{z}^{(m)})} f(oldsymbol{z}^{(m)})$$

We express expectation in the form of a finite sum over samples $\{z^{(m)}\}$ drawn from q(z).

 $\omega_m = p(z^{(m)})/q(z^{(m)})$: Importance weights (correct bias introduced by sampling from wrong distribution)

Importance sampling: Example

Want to compute the marginal

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \int p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{z}$$

Can be rewritten as

$$p(oldsymbol{x}) = \int p(oldsymbol{z}) p(oldsymbol{x}|oldsymbol{z}) \mathsf{d}oldsymbol{z} = \mathbb{E}_{oldsymbol{z} \sim p(oldsymbol{z})}[p(oldsymbol{x}|oldsymbol{z})]$$

Importance sampling:

We express the marginal as an ensemble average over RV $\mathbf{z} \sim q(\mathbf{z})$:

$$\begin{split} p(\boldsymbol{x}) &= \int p(\boldsymbol{z}) p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}) \frac{q(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z} \\ &= \int p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}) \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} q(\boldsymbol{z}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{z})} \left[p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{z}) \frac{p(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \right] \end{split}$$

Sometimes p(z) can only be evaluated up to a normalization constant,

$$p(z) = \frac{\tilde{p}(z)}{Z}$$

with $\tilde{p}(z)$ easy to evaluate but Z unknown

Importance sampling:

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\boldsymbol{z})] = \frac{1}{Z} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{z})} \left[f(\boldsymbol{z}) \frac{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \right]$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{Z} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})}{q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})} f(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \tilde{\omega}_m f(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})$$

$$\mathbb{E}[f(z)] pprox rac{1}{Z} rac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} ilde{\omega}_m f(z^{(m)})$$

Constant Z can be approximated as:

$$\begin{split} Z &= \int \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z} = \int \frac{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} q(\boldsymbol{z}) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{z} \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim q(\boldsymbol{z})} \left[\frac{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z})}{q(\boldsymbol{z})} \right] \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \frac{\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})}{q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})} \\ &= \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \tilde{\omega}_{m} \end{split}$$

A few remarks:

- How well importance sampling works depends on how well q(z) matches p(z)
- Requires evaluation of p(z) (but not sampling from it)
- Weights more regions where p(z) and |f(z)| are large
- Method can be very efficient (need less samples) than sampling from p(z).

Example: Want to estimate the probability of a rare event \mathcal{E} .

• Define $f(z) = 1\{z \in \mathcal{E}\}$, for some set \mathcal{E}

Better to sample from $q(z) \propto f(z)p(z)$ than from p(z)!

Markov chain Monte Carlo

Pitfall: Importance sampling may perform poorly in high dimensional spaces.

Alternative: Markov chain Monte Carlo

Markov chains

Markov chain: A sequence of RVs $\mathbf{z}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{z}^{(M)}$ form a first-order Markov chain if

$$p(z^{(i+1)}|z^{(1)},...,z^{(i)}) = p(z^{(i+1)}|z^{(i)})$$

Hence.

$$p(z^{(1)},...,z^{(M)}) = p(z^{(1)}) \prod_{m=1}^{M-1} p(z^{(m+1)}|z^{(m)})$$

• Can be specified by $p(z^{(1)})$ and transition probabilities

$$T_m(z^{(m)}, z^{(m+1)}) = p(z^{(m+1)}|z^{(m)})$$

Homogeneous Markov chain: Transition probabilities are the same for all m(independent of time), $T_m(z^{(m)}, z^{(m+1)}) = T(z', z)$.

Markov chains

Marginal probability:

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m+1)}) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)}} p(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)}) p(\boldsymbol{z}^{(m)})$$

Invariant stationary distribution: A distribution is invariant with respect to a Markov chain if each step in the chain leaves the distribution invariant.

• Let $\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_M)$ be a probability distribution. π is stationary if

$$\pi = \pi P$$

• For a homogeneous Markov chain with transition probabilities T(z',z), $p^{\star}(z)$ is stationary if

$$p^{\star}(\boldsymbol{z}) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{z}'} T(\boldsymbol{z}', \boldsymbol{z}) p^{\star}(\boldsymbol{z}')$$

Markov chain Monte Carlo

Goal: Sample from p(z)

Idea: Construct a Markov chain whose stationary distribution is target posterior density p(z), then use Markov Chain to sample from its stationary distribution.

Idea (2): For a given p(z), find a transition p(z'|z) which has p(z) as its stationary distribution, i.e., for $m \to \infty$, $p(z^{(m)})$ converges to p(z)(irrespective of choice of $p(z^{(1)})$ (ergodicity)).

- Can draw samples from Markov chain by ancestral sampling and take these as samples from p(z):
 - 1. Initialization: Set $z^{(1)}$
 - 2. At each time au, draw sample $z^{(\tau+1)}$ from $\mathbf{z}^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(z^{(\tau+1)}|z^{(\tau)})$

After a large τ all the values of $\mathbf{z}^{(\tau)}$ may be viewed as samples from $p(\mathbf{z})$.

Markov chain Monte Carlo

For every p(z), more than one p(z'|z) with p(z) as stationary distribution \longrightarrow different MCMC sampling methods

- Gibbs sampling
- Metropolis-Hastings sampling
- Slice sampling
- Hamiltonian Monte Carlo

Idea: Sample each variable in turn, conditioned on values of all other variables, i.e., given joint sample $z^{(\tau)}$, generate new sample $z^{(\tau+1)}$ by sampling each component in turn.

RVs z_1, \ldots, z_M with joint distribution $p(z) = (z_1, \ldots, z_M)$,

$$p(z) = p(z_i|z_1,\ldots,z_{i-1},z_{i+1},\ldots,z_M)p(z_1,\ldots,z_{i-1},z_{i+1},\ldots,z_M)$$

Suppose we can easily sample from

$$p(z_i|z_1,\ldots,z_{i-1},z_{i+1},\ldots,z_M) \triangleq p(z_i|z_{\setminus i})$$

Gibbs sampling: At each step τ we replace value of one variable z_i by a value drawn from $p(z_i|\boldsymbol{z}_{\setminus i}^{(\tau)})$.

Gibbs sampling: Algorithm

Initialization: $\{z_i : i = 1, ..., M\}$ to some initial values $\{z_i^{(1)}\}$

For $\tau = 1, \dots, T$ repeat:

- 1. Sample $z_1^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(z_1|z_2^{(\tau)}, z_2^{(\tau)}, \dots, z_M^{(\tau)})$
- 2. Sample $z_2^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(z_2|z_1^{(\tau+1)}, z_3^{(\tau)}, \dots, z_M^{(\tau)})$
- M. Sample $z_M^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(z_M | z_1^{(\tau+1)}, z_2^{(\tau+1)}, \dots, z_{M-1}^{(\tau+1)})$

After procedure reaches stationarity, marginal density of any subset of variables can be approximated by a density estimate applied to sample values.

Need to choose initial state $z_2^{(1)}, \dots, z_M^{(1)}$. As $T \to \infty$ effect of initialization vanishes ... but affects convergence.

Gibbs sampling samples from required distribution:

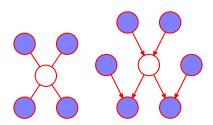
- p(z) invariant of each of Gibbs sampling steps \longrightarrow of whole Markov chain Follows from:
 - 1. When sampling from $p(z_i|z \setminus i)$, marginal $p(z \setminus i)$ invariant
 - 2. We sample from correct distribution $p(z_i|z\rangle i)$
- Must be ergodic (sufficient condition: conditional distributions not zero)

Observations:

- Gibbs sampling (generally) straightforward to implement
- Drawback: Samples are strongly dependent (strong dependencies between successive samples)
- Provided marginal of sampling distribution is correct, still a valid sampler
- Applicability depends on ability to sample from $p(z_i|z \setminus i)$
- No need to know explicit form of $p(z_i|z \setminus i)$, but need to be able to sample from them

For graphical models:

Conditional distributions for individual nodes (variables) depend only on variables in Markov blanket \longrightarrow to sample z_i only need to know values of neighbors



Gibbs sampling as a Markov chain

Facts:

- ullet At sampling stage au, we have a sample of joint variables, $z^{(au)}$
- Based on $z^{(\tau)}$, we produce new joint sample $z^{(\tau+1)}$

Can write Gibbs sampling as a procedure that draws from

$$\mathbf{z}^{(\tau+1)} \sim q(\mathbf{z}^{(\tau+1)}|\mathbf{z}^{(\tau)})$$

for some $q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau)})$

If we update variable z_i , chosen at random from distribution q(i), Gibbs sampling corresponds to drawing samples using Markov transition

$$\begin{split} q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau)}) &= \sum_{i} q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau)}, i) q(i) \\ q(\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau)}, i) &= p(z_{i}^{(\tau+1)}|\boldsymbol{z}^{(\tau)}_{\backslash i}) \prod_{i \neq i} \delta\left(z_{j}^{(\tau+1)}, z_{j}^{(\tau)}\right) \end{split}$$

Want to show stationary distribution of $q(z^*|z)$ is p(z) irrespective of $p(z^{(1)})$.

Gibbs sampling as a Markov chain

Need to prove:

$$\int_{z'} q(z|z')p(z') = p(z)$$

We proceed:

$$\begin{split} \int_{\mathbf{z}'} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{z}') p(\mathbf{z}') &= \sum_{i} q(i) \int_{\mathbf{z}'} q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{z}', i) p(\mathbf{z}') \\ &= \sum_{i} q(i) \int_{\mathbf{z}'} \prod_{j \neq i} \delta\left(z_{j}, z_{j}'\right) p(z_{i}|\mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}') p(z_{i}', \mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}') \\ &= \sum_{i} q(i) \int_{z_{i}'} p(z_{i}|\mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}) p(z_{i}', \mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}) \\ &= \sum_{i} q(i) p(z_{i}|\mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}) p(\mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}) \\ &= \sum_{i} q(i) p(z_{i}, \mathbf{z}_{\backslash i}) \\ &= p(\mathbf{z}) \sum_{i} q(i) = p(\mathbf{z}) \end{split}$$

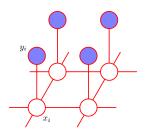
Gibbs sampling as a Markov chain

We have proven stationary distribution of $q(z^*|z)$ is p(z) irrespective of $p(z^{(1)})$.

• If we draw samples according to q(z|z'), in the limit we will tend to draw (dependent) samples from p(z)

Gibbs sampling generates a sequence of correlated samples $\mathbf{z}^{(1)}, \mathbf{z}^{(2)}, \dots$ from an easy-to-sample Markov chain $\mathbf{z}^{(1)} - \mathbf{z}^{(2)} - \dots$ with desired distribution p(z) as stationary distribution.

Gibbs sampling for the Ising model



$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{i,j} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_i \psi_i(x_i, y_i)$$

- $x_i, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}$ (Ising model)
- $\psi_i(x_i, y_i) = e^{\eta x_i y_i}$ and $\psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = e^{\beta x_i x_j}$

Gibbs sampling for the Ising model

Goal:

$$\hat{x} = \arg \max_{x} p(x|y)$$
$$= \arg \max_{x} p(x, y)$$

Not feasible directly!

Idea: Sample from p(x, y), then count the number of +1 and -1 for each x_i and make a decision --- Gibbs sampling!

We can write:

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = p(x_i | x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_M, \boldsymbol{y}) p(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_M, \boldsymbol{y})$$

= $p(x_i | \boldsymbol{x}_{\setminus i}, \boldsymbol{y}) p(\boldsymbol{x}_{\setminus i}, \boldsymbol{y})$

Due to the graphical model:

$$p(x_i|\boldsymbol{x}_{\setminus i},\boldsymbol{y}) = p(x_i|\mathcal{N}(x_i),y_i)$$

Gibbs sampling: Algorithm

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Initialization: \{x_i: i=1,\ldots,M\} to some initial values \{x_i^{(1)}\}, e.g., x_i^{(1)}=+1
and x_i^{(1)} = -1 with probability 1/2.
```

For $\tau = 1, \dots, T$ repeat:

- 1. Sample $x_1^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(x_1|x_2^{(\tau)}, x_2^{(\tau)}, \dots, x_M^{(\tau)}, y_1)$
- 2. Sample $x_2^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(x_2|x_1^{(\tau+1)}, x_3^{(\tau)}, \dots, x_M^{(\tau)}, y_2)$
- M. Sample $x_M^{(\tau+1)} \sim p(x_M | x_1^{(\tau+1)}, x_2^{(\tau+1)}, \dots, x_{M-1}^{(\tau+1)}, y_M)$

Gibbs sampling for the Ising model

And the conditional probabilities $p(x_i|x_{\setminus i}, y)$?

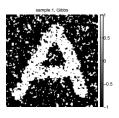
$$p(x_{i} = +1 | \boldsymbol{x}_{\setminus i}, \boldsymbol{y})$$

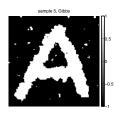
$$= \frac{\prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \psi_{i,j}(+1, x_{j}) \psi(+1, y_{i})}{\prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \psi_{i,j}(+1, x_{j}) \psi(+1, y_{i}) + \prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \psi_{i,j}(-1, x_{j}) \psi(-1, y_{i})}$$

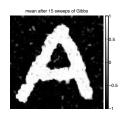
$$= \frac{\exp \left(\beta \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} x_{j}\right) + \eta y_{i}\right)}{\exp \left(\beta \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} x_{j}\right) + \eta y_{i}\right) + \exp \left(-\beta \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} x_{j}\right) - \eta y_{i}\right)}$$

$$= \sigma \left(2 \left(\eta y_{i} + \beta \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} x_{j}\right)\right)$$

Gibbs sampling applied to the Ising model







- $\beta = \eta = 1$
- $y_i = x_i + n_i$, with $n_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, $\sigma = 2$

left: sample from posterior after one sweep center: sample from posterior after 5 sweeps

right: posterior mean, computed averaging over 15 sweeps

Back to Bayesian inference

Goal: Draw samples from joint posterior of parameters w given data \mathcal{D} , $p(w|\mathcal{D})$

Gibbs sampling helpful if easy to sample from conditional distribution of each parameter given all other parameters and \mathcal{D} .

Reading

"Pattern recognition and machine learning," Chapter 11 (Intro, 11.1.4, 11.2, 11.3)