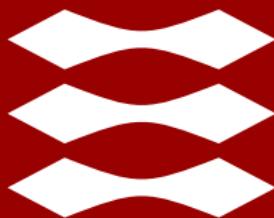


DTU



Model-based Machine Learning

PGM foundations II

Outline

PGMs in continuous domain

Generative processes

(Based on Michael Jordan, David Blei)

Road to MBML: where are we?

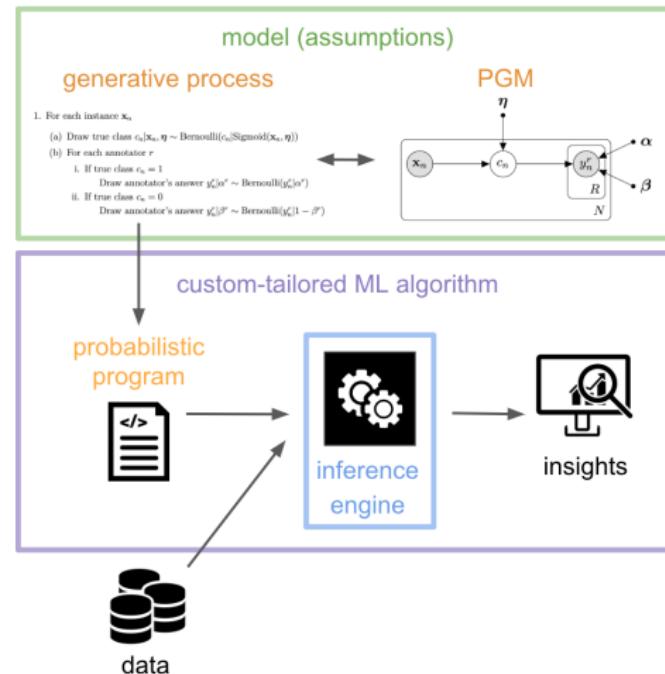
Foundations of PGMs and probabilistic programming

Probabilistic modelling in various contexts - your modelling toolbox

Bayesian inference (exact and approximate)

Week	Topic
1	Intro to the course + Prob. review
2	PGM foundations
3	PGM foundations II
4	Freq. vs Bayesian + Prob. Prog. + Mixture models
5	Regression models
6	Classification and Hierarchical models
7	Temporal models
8	Topic Models
9	Markov-chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
10	Variational inference
11	Generative models
12	Gaussian processes
13	Project support

Model-based Machine Learning



Learning objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

- Explain the concept of continuous random variable and its specification in a PGM
- Explain the concept of Bayesian inference and its relation to Bayes' theorem
- Explain the role of the likelihood, prior and model evidence in Bayes' theorem
- Explain the role of the prior, the importance of its form, and the concept of conjugate prior in inference
- Apply the generative process principles in the creation of a PGM and perform ancestral sampling with it

- Thus far, we've been using only discrete variables
- Conditional Probability Tables
- Extension to continuous domain is intuitive...

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- But with it, some concepts become more relevant
 - Prior
 - Conjugate prior

PGMs in continuous domain

- General form:
 - We use functions f instead of tables to describe relationships between variables
 - We typically assume that each random variable follows a well-known distribution (or combination of them) parameterized by a set θ . For example:

$$x \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$$



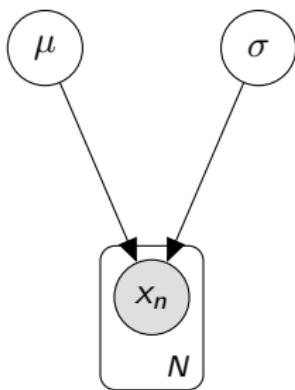
PGMs in continuous domain

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 - We typically assume that each random variable follows a well-known distribution (or combination of them) parameterized by a set θ . For example:
$$x \sim \text{Exponential}(\theta)$$
 - The parameters of that distribution are a function of their “parent” variables z
$$\theta = f(z)$$
 - f can be any function (albeit ideally differentiable - *why?*) of its inputs (identity, linear, polynomial, neural network, etc.)



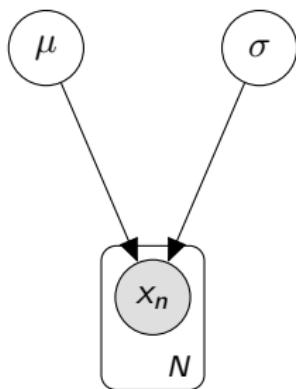
PGMs in continuous domain

- A concrete well-known example: Gaussian distribution
 - In this PGM, we assume to have observations x_n , that follow a Gaussian distribution
 - It has two parameters (mean μ , variance σ^2)



PGMs in continuous domain

- A concrete well-known example: Gaussian distribution
 - In this PGM, we assume to have observations x_n , that follow a Gaussian distribution
 - It has two parameters (mean μ , variance σ^2)
 - Fitting (parameter estimation):
 - It has a well-known likelihood function



$$L(\mu, \sigma) = \prod_i^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

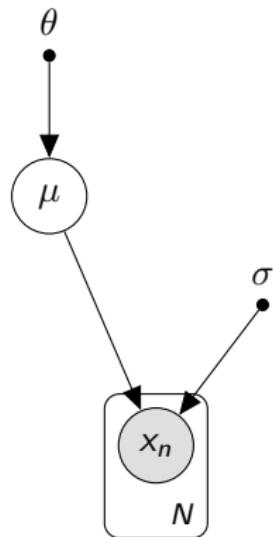
- Corresponding log version

$$LL(\mu, \sigma) = -\frac{N}{2}(\log(2\pi) + \log(\sigma^2)) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2$$

- A Graphical Model allows for a full Bayesian treatment
 - We can assign *priors* to the parameters
 - We can use domain knowledge
 - Good to prevent overfitting

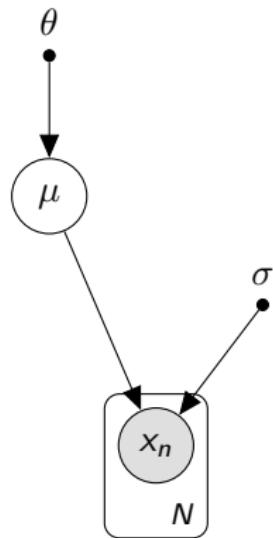
- A Graphical Model allows for a full Bayesian treatment
 - We can assign *priors* to the parameters
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 - Good to prevent overfitting
 - What would be the form of those *priors*?

Gaussian distribution case



- To simplify, let's assume we know σ but not μ

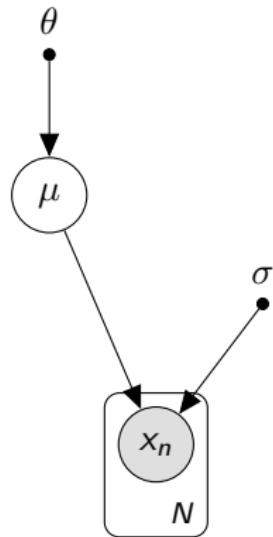
Gaussian distribution case



- To simplify, let's assume we know σ but not μ
- Can we pick *any* distribution, $p(\mu|\theta)$?
- Our joint distribution would become:

$$p(\mu, \mathbf{x}|\theta, \sigma) = p(\mu|\theta) \prod_{n=1}^N p(x_n|\mu, \sigma)$$

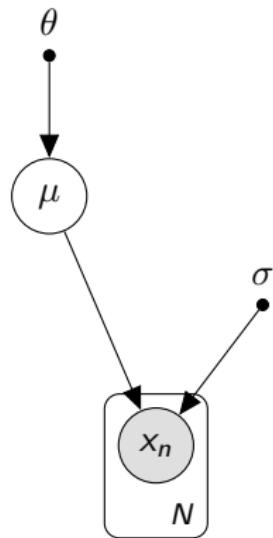
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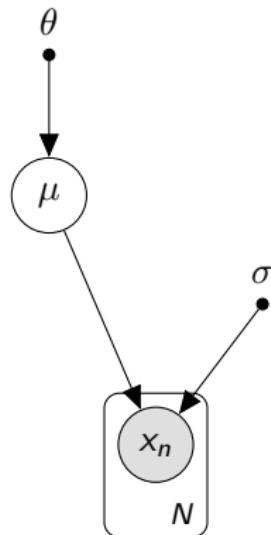
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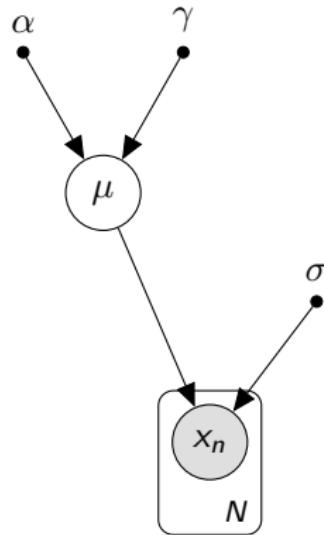


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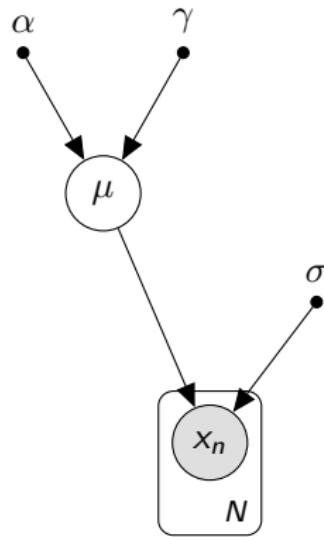
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- the log probability of our PGM would be:

$$\begin{aligned} LL(\mu, \alpha, \gamma, \sigma) &= -\frac{N}{2}(\log(2\pi) + \log(\sigma)) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 \\ &\quad - \frac{\log(2\pi)}{2} - \frac{\log(\gamma^2)}{2} - \frac{(\alpha - \mu)^2}{2\gamma^2} \end{aligned}$$

Playtime!

- Open notebook "03 - PGM fundamentals.ipynb"
- Do part 1 (est. duration=30 min)

Conjugate priors

- For many known distributions, there is a corresponding *conjugate prior*, P , that preserves its form under multiplication. I.e., if we have distribution L and its conjugate prior P_0 , we should have

$$P_1 = L \times P_0,$$

where P_1 has the same form as P_0

- For example, the Beta distribution is the conjugate prior of Bernoulli; and we've seen that the Normal is the conjugate for the mean of the Normal (when variance is known).
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- This is great for online learning (why?)!**

Parameter inference: Beta–Bernoulli (coin bias)

A concrete example: Beta–Bernoulli (coin bias)

- **Model.** Unknown coin bias $\theta \in [0, 1]$. Observations $x_1, \dots, x_N, x_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$\text{Prior: } p(\theta) = \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta), \quad \text{Likelihood: } p(x_{1:N} | \theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N \text{Bernoulli}(x_n | \theta)$$

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- Let $s = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ be #heads, and $f = N - s$ be #tails. Then:

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- **Interpretation (pseudo-counts):**

α acts like “prior heads + 1”, β acts like “prior tails + 1”

- So the data simply *adds* counts to the prior

Beta–Bernoulli is not magic: derive the posterior

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- **Bayes rule (up to proportionality):**

$$p(\theta | x_{1:N}) \propto p(x_{1:N} | \theta) p(\theta)$$

Derivation: multiply and collect exponents

- Likelihood for i.i.d. Bernoulli flips:

$$p(x_{1:N} \mid \theta) = \prod_{n=1}^N \theta^{x_n} (1 - \theta)^{1-x_n} = \theta^{\sum_n x_n} (1 - \theta)^{\sum_n (1-x_n)}$$

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- Posterior (unnormalized):

$$\begin{aligned} p(\theta \mid x_{1:N}) &\propto \underbrace{\theta^s (1 - \theta)^f}_{\text{likelihood}} \underbrace{\theta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \theta)^{\beta-1}}_{\text{prior}} \\ &= \theta^{(\alpha+s)-1} (1 - \theta)^{(\beta+f)-1} \end{aligned}$$

- Key step: exponents add \Rightarrow same functional family

Normalization: identify the Beta form

- We just showed

$$p(\theta \mid x_{1:N}) \propto \theta^{(\alpha+s)-1} (1-\theta)^{(\beta+f)-1}$$

- But a Beta density has the form

$$\text{Beta}(\theta|a, b) = \frac{1}{B(a, b)} \theta^{a-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1}$$

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- So we can *read off* the posterior parameters:

$$\boxed{\theta \mid x_{1:N} \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha + s, \beta + f)}$$

Beta–Bernoulli: strength of the prior (same data, different priors)

Assume we observe $N = 10$ flips with $s = 8$ heads and $f = 2$ tails

Prior	(α, β)	Posterior $(\alpha + s, \beta + f)$	Posterior mean $\mathbb{E}[\theta x]$
Weak-ish, centered	(2,2)	(10,4)	$\frac{10}{14} \approx 0.714$
Strong, centered	(20,20)	(28,22)	$\frac{28}{50} = 0.56$
Strong, skewed	(20,5)	(28,7)	$\frac{28}{35} = 0.80$

(recall that, if $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$, then $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta}$)

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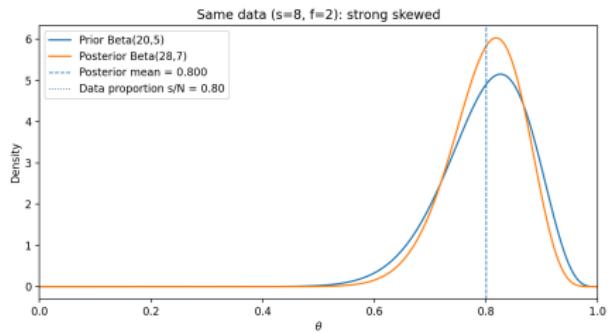
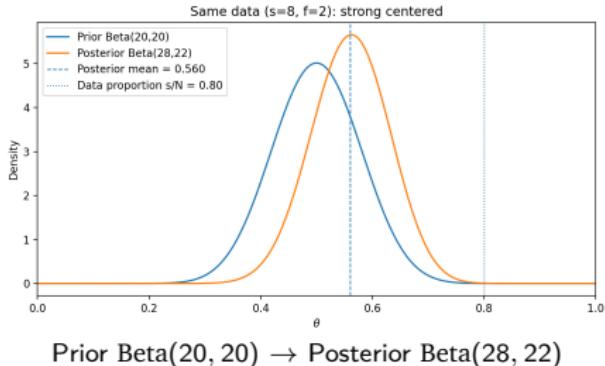
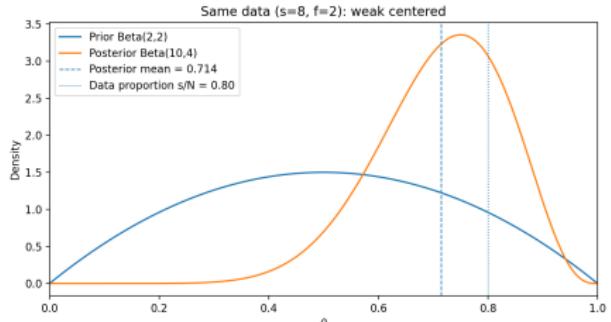
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Discussion points:

- Which prior moves the least, and why?
- What does “prior strength” means?

Same data, different priors: prior vs posterior shapes



- Weak prior \Rightarrow posterior tracks the data closely
- Strong prior \Rightarrow posterior moves less (needs more data)
- Skewed strong prior \Rightarrow posterior remains biased unless data is overwhelming

Conjugate priors

- We usually use a table

Discrete distributions <small>[edit]</small>						
Likelihood	Model parameters	Conjugate prior distribution	Prior hyperparameters	Posterior hyperparameters	Interpretation of hyperparameters <small>[note 1]</small>	Posterior predictive <small>[note 2]</small>
Bernoulli	p (probability)	Beta	α, β	$\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \beta + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$	$\alpha - 1$ successes, $\beta - 1$ failures <small>[note 1]</small>	$p(\tilde{x} = 1) = \frac{\alpha'}{\alpha' + \beta'}$
Binomial	p (probability)	Beta	α, β	$\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \beta + \sum_{i=1}^n N_i - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$	$\alpha - 1$ successes, $\beta - 1$ failures <small>[note 1]</small>	BetaBin($\tilde{x} \alpha', \beta'$) (beta-binomial)
Negative binomial with known failure number, r	p (probability)	Beta	α, β	$\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \beta + rn$	$\alpha - 1$ total successes, $\beta - 1$ failures <small>[note 1]</small> (i.e., $\frac{\beta - 1}{r}$ experiments, assuming r stays fixed)	
Poisson	λ (rate)	Gamma	k, θ	$k + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \frac{\theta}{n\theta + 1}$	k total occurrences in $\frac{1}{\theta}$ intervals	NB($\tilde{x} k', \theta'$) (negative binomial)
			$\alpha, \beta^{[note 3]}$	$\alpha + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \beta + n$	α total occurrences in β intervals	NB($\tilde{x} \alpha', \frac{1}{1 + \beta'}$) (negative binomial)
Categorical	p (probability vector), k (number of categories; i.e., size of p)	Dirichlet	α	$\alpha + (c_1, \dots, c_k)$, where c_i is the number of observations in category i	$\alpha_i - 1$ occurrences of category i <small>[note 1]</small>	$p(\tilde{x} = i) = \frac{\alpha'_i}{\sum_i \alpha'_i} = \frac{\alpha_i + c_i}{\sum_i \alpha_i + n}$

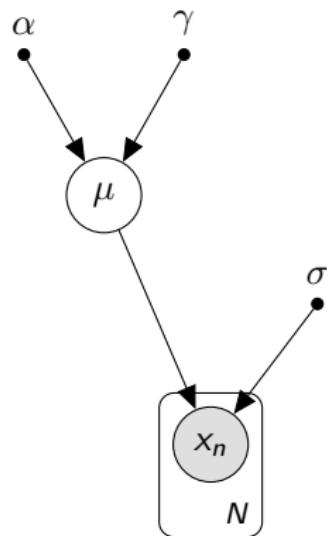
Figure: From Wikipedia

Some conjugate priors to remember...

Likelihood	Prior
Normal with known variance	Normal
Normal with known mean	Inverse Gamma
Multivariate normal, known mean	Inverse Wishart
Multivariate normal, unknown mean and variance	Normal-inverse-Wishart
Exponential	Gamma
Bernoulli	Beta
Mulitnomial	Dirichlet
Poisson	Gamma

Gaussian distribution case

- For our Gaussian example, the posterior $p(\mu|x) = \mathcal{N}(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\gamma})$ will be directly



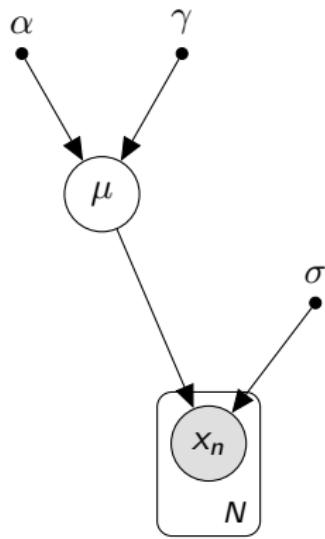
$$\tilde{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\gamma^{-2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2}} \left(\frac{\alpha}{\gamma^2} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N x_i}{\sigma^2} \right)$$

$$\tilde{\gamma} = \sqrt{\left(\gamma^{-2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2} \right)^{-1}}$$

- We just followed the conjugate priors table
- Calculation in constant time, no need to optimize anything!
- We could use this as the next prior!...

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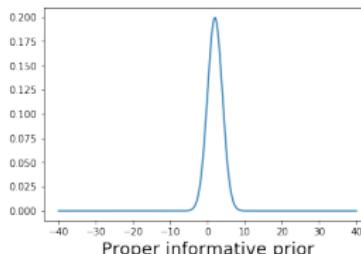
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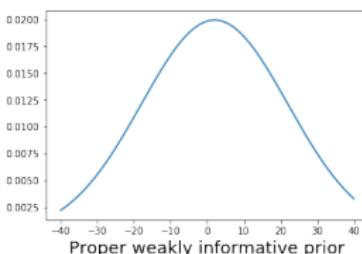
- We just followed the conjugate priors table
- Calculation in constant time, no need to optimize anything!
- We could use this as the next prior!...
- BUT if $p(\mu, x)$ is not a known distribution, we may have trouble deriving it (analytically)...

Last note on priors

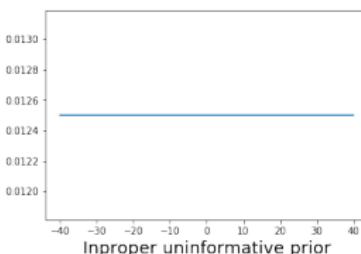
- Depending on what you know of the problem (or the constraints you want to impose...):



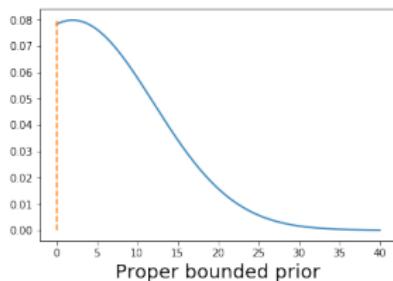
Proper informative prior



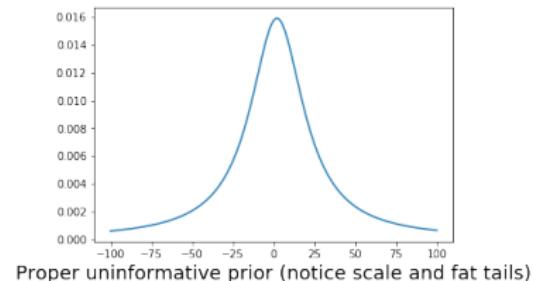
Proper weakly informative prior



Improper uninformative prior



Proper bounded prior



Proper uninformative prior (notice scale and fat tails)

Generative processes

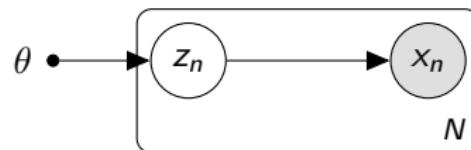
- By now, you understand that you can combine variables in multiple ways in your graphical model
- On the other hand, you may be overwhelmed about where to start doing your own
 - Small models, with few variables, are simple
 - What if you have a lot of variables, assumptions, domain knowledge?...

Generative processes

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- On the other hand, you may be overwhelmed about where to start doing your own
 - Small models, with few variables, are simple
 - What if you have a lot of variables, assumptions, domain knowledge?...
- You need to think from a generative perspective...

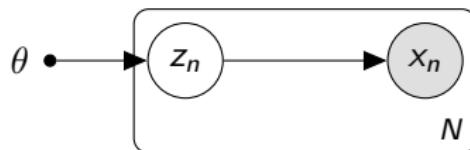
"Generative story" of data

- How is a data point generated?



"Generative story" of data

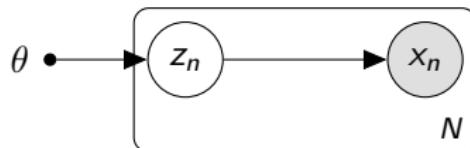
- How is a data point generated?



- Set parameter θ (fixed - not a random variable!)
- For $n = 1..N$, do
 - ➊ Draw a random latent variable, $z_n \sim p(z_n|\theta)$

"Generative story" of data

- How is a data point generated?



- Set parameter θ (fixed - not a random variable!)
- For $n = 1..N$, do
 - ① Draw a random latent variable, $z_n \sim p(z_n|\theta)$
 - ② Given z_n , draw x_n such that $x_n \sim p(x_n|z_n)$
- In fact, this resembles a program structure!

A more complex example - Dwell time prediction

For a given bus stop, that serves a single line, can we predict the amount of time the next bus will be stopped there to load/unload passengers (the *dwell* time)?

- Our dataset contains $\{x_n = \{0, 1\}\}$ -representing peak/non-peak hour, dt_n - dwell time}.
- Notice that, sometimes, the bus does not stop at all!
- When it stops, we measure the duration as dt
- When it doesn't stop, $dt = 0$

Dwell time prediction

Given fixed parameters: σ_β , σ_ϵ and π

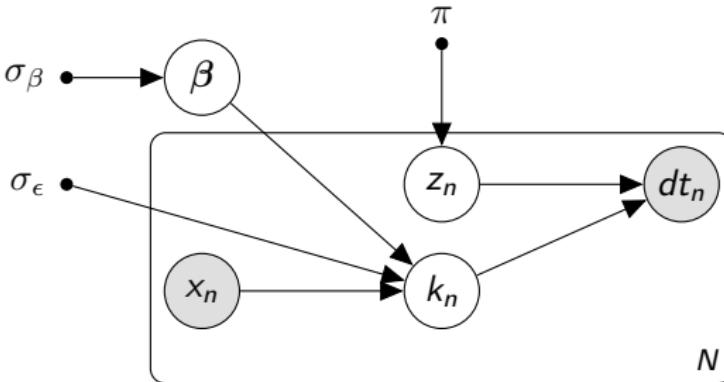
- ① Draw a pair of parameters¹: $\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_\beta \mathbf{I})$
- ② For $n = \{1, \dots, N\}$
 - ① Draw one value for k_n , such that $k_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n, \sigma_\epsilon)$
 - ② Draw $z_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\pi)$ - (you can think of this as flipping a biased coin)
 - ③ If $z_n = 1$, then bus has stopped
 - The bus has stopped, so set dwell-time $dt_n = k_n$
 - ④ Else:
 - The bus didn't stop, so set dwell-time $dt_n = 0$

¹We need two values for β , one for the intercept, another for the peak/non-peak information.

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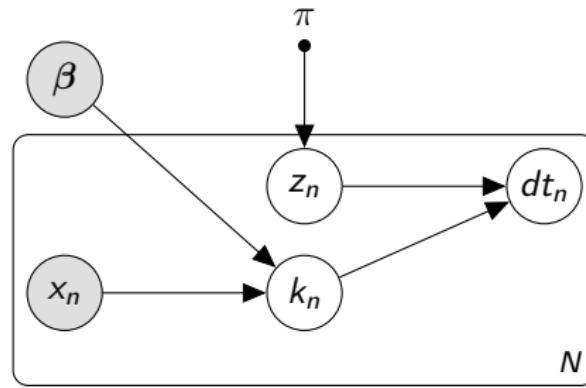
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Dwell time prediction

- After you define your model, you need to estimate it. I.e. infer the following:
 - Distribution of β
 - Optimal values of σ_ϵ , σ_β , and π (we defined them as constants!)
- Of course, when you have them, you can make your predictions!
- Your model will look different:

Dwell time prediction

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"Generative story" of data

- Set up the building blocks, as per available knowledge
- Easy to change data distributions inside the model
- Can be used to *actually* generate data!
 - Ancestral sampling
 - Do *prior predictive checks*!

Playtime!

- Open notebook "03 - PGM fundamentals.ipynb"
- Do part 2 (est. duration=30 min)

- **Main reading:** Chapter 8: “Graphical Models”, pages 359-366 and pages 372-379 of Chris Bishop’s book, “Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning” (PRML) URL: <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/uploads/prod/2006/01/Bishop-Pattern-Recognition-and-Machine-Learning-2006.pdf>)
- “D-separation: How to determine which variables are independent in a Bayes net”. Jessica Noss. EECS MIT.
<http://web.mit.edu/jmn/www/6.034/d-separation.pdf>
- Chapter 10: “Directed graphical models”, pages 307-311 and pages 324-327 of Kevin Murphy’s book “Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective”
- Koller, D., and Friedman, N. (2009). Probabilistic graphical models: principles and techniques. MIT press.