

Introduction to Advanced Probability for Graphical Models

CSC 412

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*Many slides based on Kaustav Kundu's, Kevin Swersky's, Inmar Givoni's, Danny Tarlow's, Jasper Snoek's slides, Sam Roweis 's review of probability, Bishop's book, and some images from Wikipedia

Outline

- Basics
- Probability rules
- Exponential families
- Maximum likelihood
- Bayesian inference
 - Conjugate priors (time permitting)

Why Represent Uncertainty?

- The world is full of uncertainty
 - “What will the weather be like today?”
 - “Will I like this movie?”
 - “Is there a person in this image?”
- We’re trying to build systems that understand and (possibly) interact with the real world
- We often can’t *prove* something is true, but we can still ask how likely different outcomes are or ask for the most likely explanationx

Why Use Probability to Represent Uncertainty?

- Write down simple, reasonable criteria that you'd want from a system of uncertainty (common sense stuff), and you always get probability.
- Cox Axioms (Cox 1946); See Bishop, Section 1.2.3
- We will restrict ourselves to a relatively informal discussion of probability theory.

Notation

- A **random variable X** represents outcomes or states of the world.
- We will write $p(x)$ to mean $\text{Probability}(X = x)$
- **Sample space**: the space of all possible outcomes (may be discrete, continuous, or mixed)
- $p(x)$ is the **probability mass (density) function**
 - Assigns a number to each point in sample space
 - Non-negative, sums (integrates) to 1
 - Intuitively: how often does x occur, how much do we believe in x .

Joint Probability Distribution

- $\text{Prob}(X=x, Y=y)$
 - “Probability of $X=x$ and $Y=y$ ”
 - $p(x, y)$

Conditional Probability Distribution

- $\text{Prob}(X=x | Y=y)$
 - “Probability of $X=x$ given $Y=y$ ”

The Rules of Probability

- Sum Rule (marginalization/summing out):

$$p(x) = \sum_y p(x, y)$$

$$p(x_1) = \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_3} \dots \sum_{x_N} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N)$$

- Product/Chain Rule:

$$p(x, y) = p(y | x) p(x)$$

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_N) = p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) \dots p(x_N | x_1, \dots, x_{N-1})$$

Bayes' Rule

- One of the most important formulas in probability theory

$$p(x | y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(y)} = \frac{p(x, y)}{\sum_{x'} p(y | x') p(x')}$$

- This gives us a way of “reversing” conditional probabilities

Independence

- Two random variables are said to be **independent** iff their joint distribution factors

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

- Two random variables are **conditionally independent** given a third if they are independent after conditioning on the third

$$p(x, y | z) = p(y | x, z)p(x | z) = p(y | z)p(x | z) \quad \forall z$$

- i.i.d. observations are an example of conditional independence

$$p(x_1 \dots x_n | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i | \theta)$$

Continuous Random Variables

- Outcomes are real values. Probability density functions define distributions.
 - E.g.,

$$P(x \mid \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\}$$

- Continuous joint distributions: replace sums with integrals, and everything holds
 - E.g., Marginalization and conditional probability

$$P(x, z) = \int_y P(x, y, z) = \int_y P(x, z \mid y)P(y)$$

Summarizing Probability Distributions

- It is often useful to give summaries of distributions without defining the whole distribution (E.g., mean and variance)

- Mean: $E[x] = \langle x \rangle = \int_x x \cdot p(x) dx$

- Variance:
$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(x) &= E[(x - E[x])^2] \\ &= \int_x (x - E[x])^2 \cdot p(x) dx = E[x^2] - E[x]^2 \end{aligned}$$

Exponential Families

- Families of distributions with nice properties
 - *e.g.* They have a conjugate prior (we'll get to that later. Important for Bayesian statistics)
- Includes many standard distributions
 - Bernoulli, binomial/multinomial, Poisson, Normal (Gaussian), beta/Dirichlet,...
- But not all
 - Uniform, Cauchy

Definition

- All exponential families of distributions over x , given parameter η (eta) take the form

$$p(x | \eta) = h(x)g(\eta) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}$$

- To get a particular family of dist'ns, we specify
 - x -scalar/vector, discrete/continuous
 - η – ‘natural parameters’
 - $u(x)$ – some function of x (natural statistic)
 - $h(x)$ – base measure (often constant)
 - $g(\eta)$ – normalizer

Why “exponential”? Note:

$$p(x | \eta) = \exp\{\eta^T u(x) + \ln h(x) + \ln g(\eta)\}$$

$$1 = \int g(\eta)h(x) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}dx = g(\eta) \int h(x) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}dx$$

Sufficient Statistics

- Vague definition: called so because they completely summarize a distribution.
- Less vague: they are the only part of the distribution that interacts with the parameters and are therefore sufficient to estimate the parameters.
- $\mu(x)$, the natural statistic in an exponential family, is also *sufficient*

Example 1: Bernoulli

- Binary random variable -
- $p(\text{heads}) = \mu$
- Coin toss

$$X \in \{0,1\}$$

$$\mu \in [0,1]$$

$$p(x \mid \mu) = \mu^x (1 - \mu)^{1-x}$$

Example 1: Bernoulli

$$p(x | \eta) = h(x)g(\eta) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}$$

$$p(x | \mu) = \mu^x (1 - \mu)^{1-x}$$

$$= \exp\{\ln\{\mu^x (1 - \mu)^{1-x}\}\}$$

$$= \exp\{x \ln \mu + (1 - x) \ln(1 - \mu)\}$$

$$= (1 - \mu) \exp\left\{\ln\left(\frac{\mu}{1 - \mu}\right)x\right\}$$

$$p(x | \eta) = \sigma(-\eta) \exp(\eta x)$$

$$h(x) = 1$$

$$u(x) = x$$

$$\eta = \ln\left(\frac{\mu}{1 - \mu}\right) \Rightarrow \mu = \sigma(\eta) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\eta}}$$

$$g(\eta) = \sigma(-\eta)$$

Example 2: Multinomial

- $p(\text{value } k) = \mu_k$ $\mu_k \in [0,1], \sum_{k=1}^M \mu_k = 1$
- For a single observation – e.g., die toss
 - Sometimes called Categorical
- For multiple observations
 - integer counts on N trials
 - Prob(1 came out 3 times, 2 came out once,...,6 came out 7 times if I tossed a die 20 times)
 - = Prob($x_1=3, x_2=1, \dots, x_6=7$) with N=20

$$x_i \in \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet & \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^M x_k = N$$

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_M \mid \mu) = \frac{N!}{\prod_k x_k!} \prod_{k=1}^M \mu_k^{x_k}$$

Example 2: Multinomial (1 observation)

$$p(x | \eta) = h(x)g(\eta) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}$$

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_M | \mu) = \prod_{k=1}^M \mu_k^{x_k}$$

$$= \exp\left\{\sum_{k=1}^M x_k \ln \mu_k\right\}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \eta) = \exp(\eta^T \mathbf{x})$$

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = 1$$

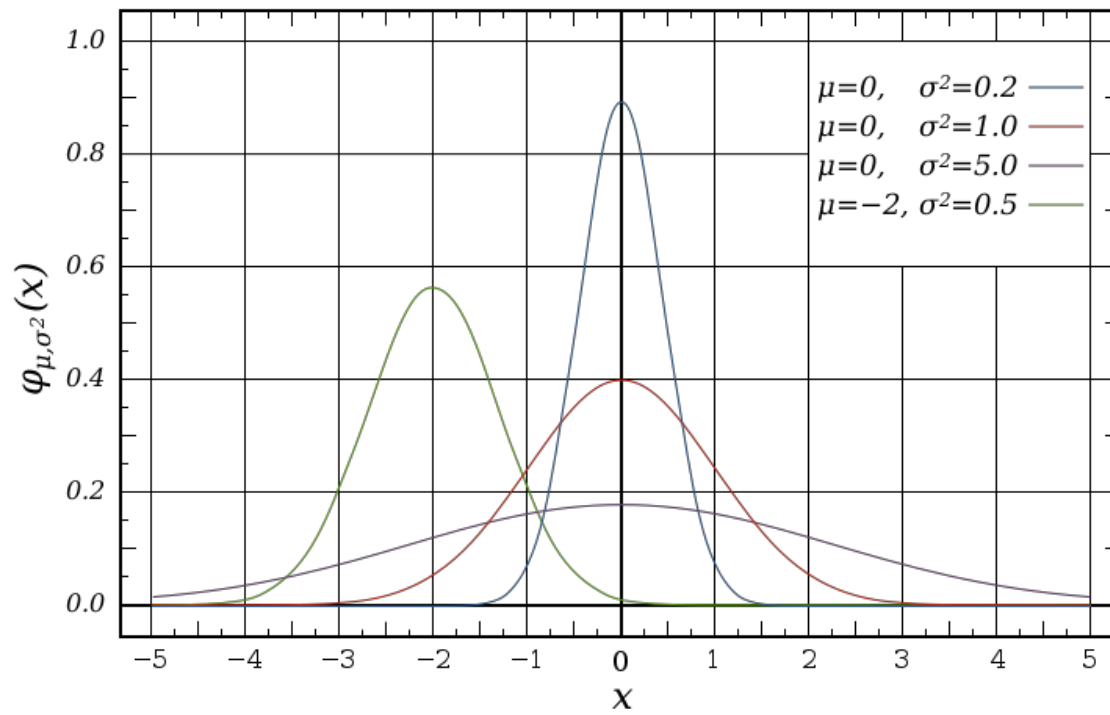
$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$$

Parameters are not independent due to constraint of summing to 1, there's a slightly more involved notation to address that, see Bishop 2.4

Example 3: Univariate Gaussian

- Gaussian (Normal)

$$p(x | \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x - \mu)^2\right\}$$



Example 3: Univariate Gaussian

$$p(x \mid \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\}$$

- μ is the mean
- σ^2 is the variance
- Can verify these by computing integrals. E.g.,

$$\int_{x \rightarrow -\infty}^{x \rightarrow \infty} x \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\} dx = \mu$$

Univariate Gaussian as Exp. Family

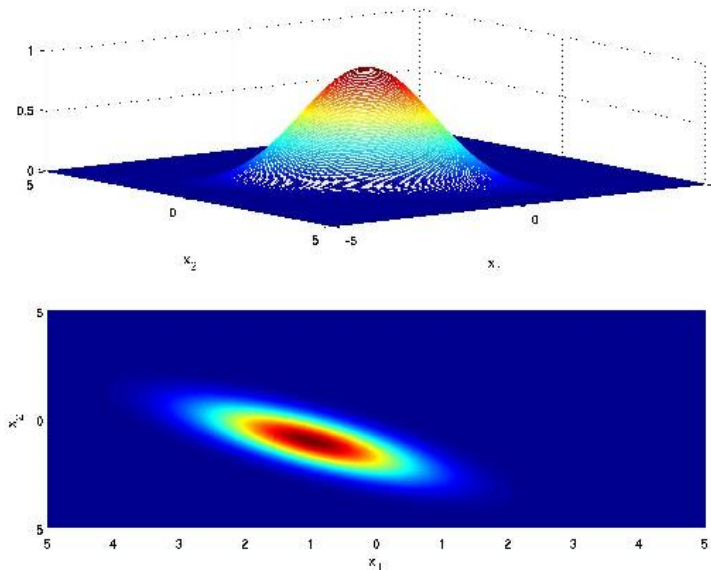
$$p(x | \eta) = h(x)g(\eta) \exp\{\eta^T u(x)\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} p(x | \mu, \sigma) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x - \mu)^2\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} x^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} x + \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} \mu^2\right\} = \\ &= \underbrace{(2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}}_{h(x)} \underbrace{(-2\eta_2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp(\frac{\eta_1^2}{4\eta_2})}_{g(\eta)} \exp\left\{\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} & \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} \end{bmatrix}}_{\eta^T} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}}_{u(x)}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Example 4: Multivariate Gaussian

- Multivariate Gaussian

$$P(x | \mu, \Sigma) = |2\pi \Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right\}$$



Example 4: Multivariate Gaussian

- Multivariate Gaussian

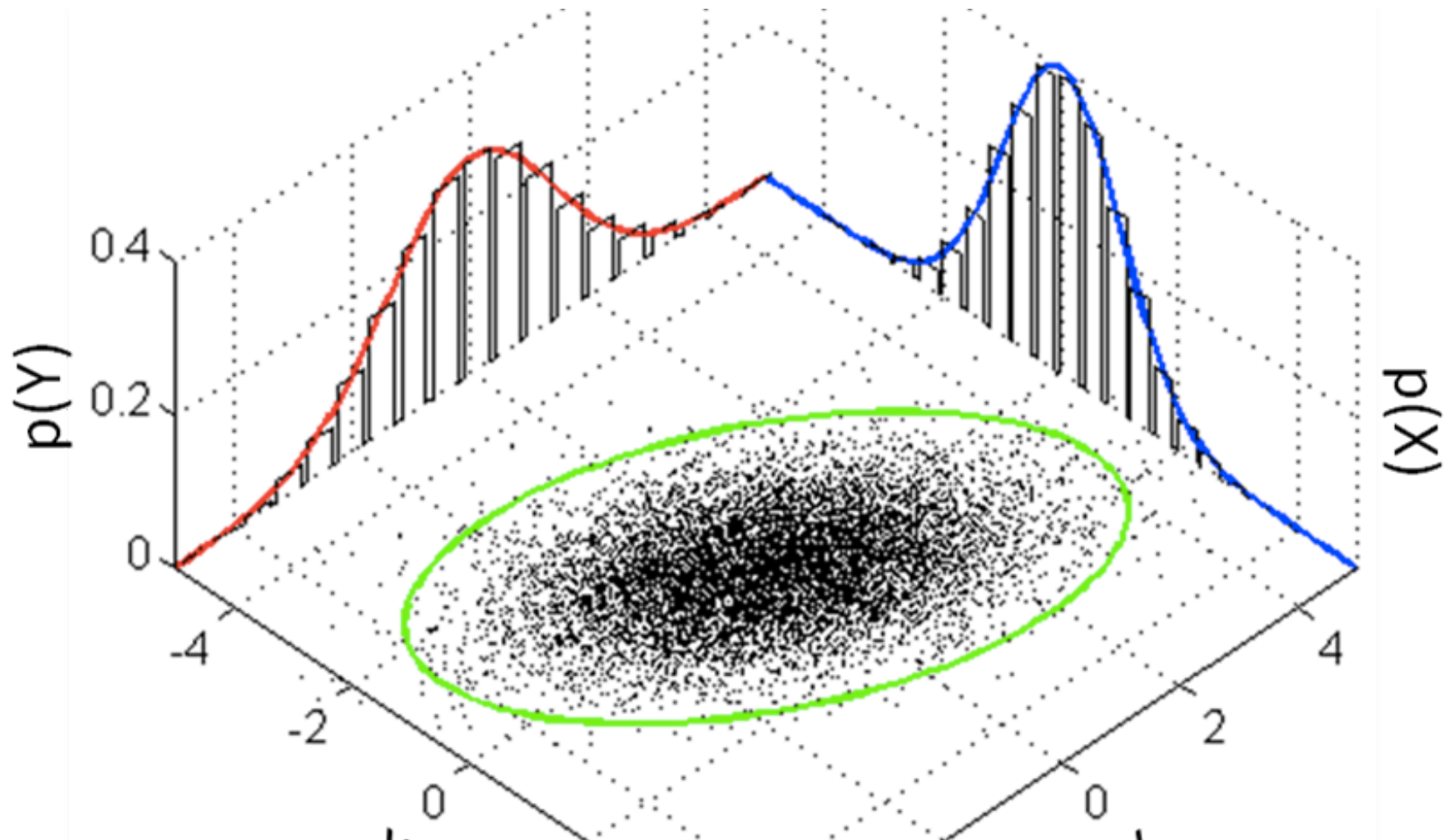
$$p(x | \mu, \Sigma) = |2\pi \Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right\}$$

- x is now a vector
- μ is the **mean vector**
- Σ is the **covariance matrix**

Important Properties of Gaussians

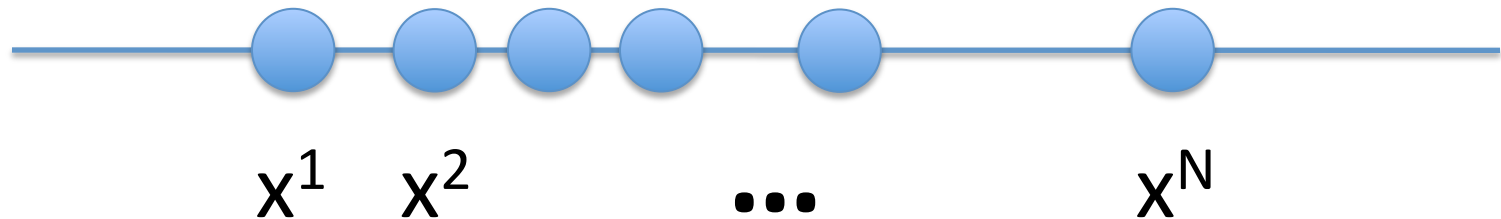
- All marginals of a Gaussian are again Gaussian
- Any conditional of a Gaussian is Gaussian
- The product of two Gaussians is again Gaussian
- Even the sum of two independent Gaussian RVs is a Gaussian.
- Beyond the scope of this tutorial, but **very** important: marginalization and conditioning rules for multivariate Gaussians.

Gaussian marginalization visualization



Example 5: Maximum Likelihood For a 1D Gaussian

- Suppose we are given a data set of samples of a Gaussian random variable X , $D=\{x^1, \dots, x^N\}$ and told that the variance of the data is σ^2



What is our best guess of μ ?

*Need to assume data is independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.)

Example 5: Maximum Likelihood For a 1D Gaussian

What is our best guess of μ ?

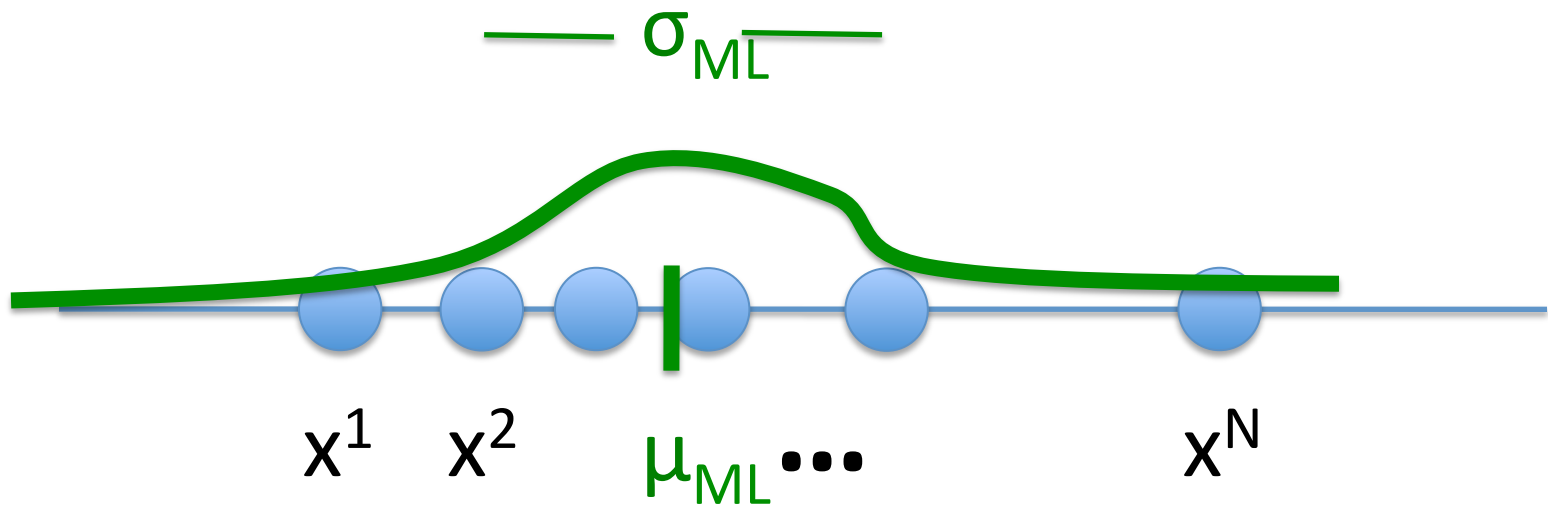
- We can write down the **likelihood function**:

$$p(d \mid \mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(x^i \mid \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x^i - \mu)^2\right\}$$

- We want to choose the μ that maximizes this expression
 - Take log, then basic calculus: differentiate w.r.t. μ , set derivative to 0, solve for μ to get **sample mean**

$$\mu_{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

Example 5: Maximum Likelihood For a 1D Gaussian



Maximum Likelihood

ML estimation of model parameters for Exponential Family

$$p(D | \eta) = p(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \left(\prod h(x_n) \right) g(\eta)^N \exp\left\{ \eta^T \sum_n u(x_n) \right\}$$

$$\partial \frac{\ln(p(D | \eta))}{\partial \eta} = \dots, \text{set to 0, solve for } \nabla g(\eta)$$

$$-\nabla \ln g(\eta_{ML}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N u(x_n)$$

- Can in principle be solved to get estimate for η .
- The solution for the ML estimator depends on the data only through sum over u , which is therefore called **sufficient statistic**
- What we need to store in order to estimate parameters.

Bayesian Probabilities

$$p(\theta | d) = \frac{p(d | \theta)p(\theta)}{p(d)}$$

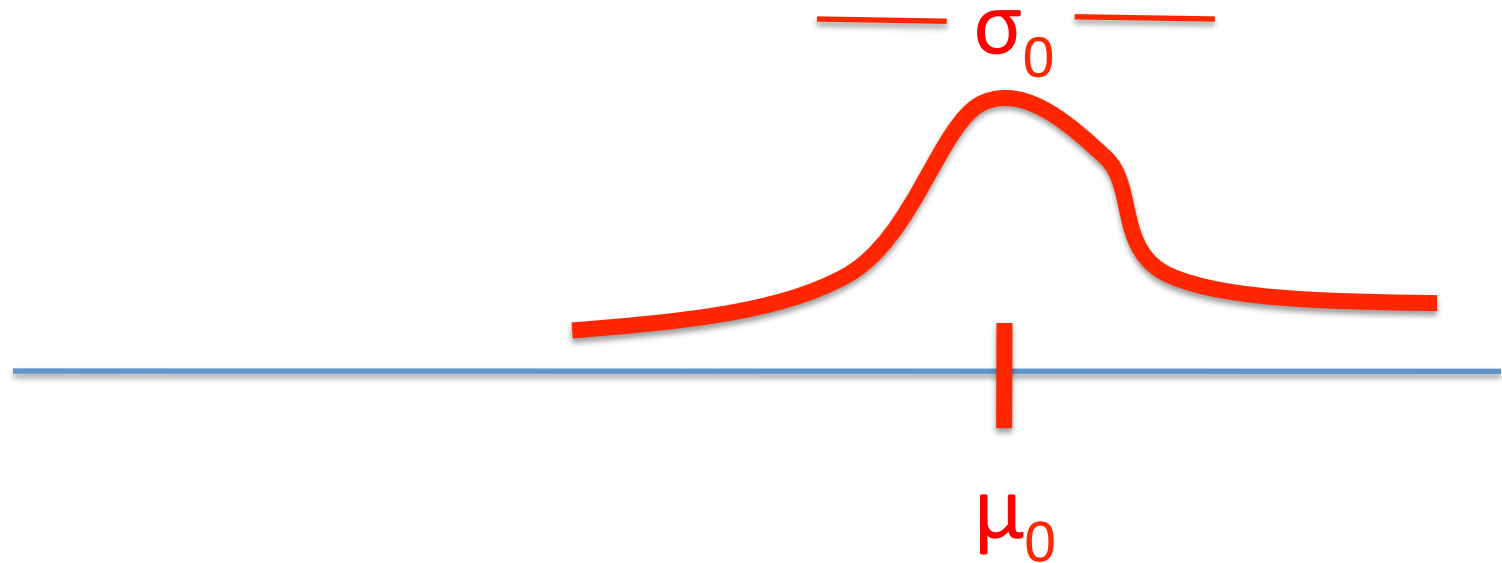
- $p(d | \theta)$ is the **likelihood function**
- $p(\theta)$ is the **prior probability** of (or our **prior belief** over) θ
 - our beliefs over what models are likely or not *before seeing any data*
- $p(d) = \int p(d | \theta)P(\theta)d\theta$ is the **normalization constant** or **partition function**
- $p(\theta | d)$ is the **posterior distribution**
 - Readjustment of our prior beliefs in the face of data

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian

- Suppose we have a prior belief that the mean of some random variable X is μ_0 and the variance of our belief is σ_0^2
- We are then given a data set of samples of X , $d=\{x^1, \dots, x^N\}$ and somehow know that the variance of the data is σ^2

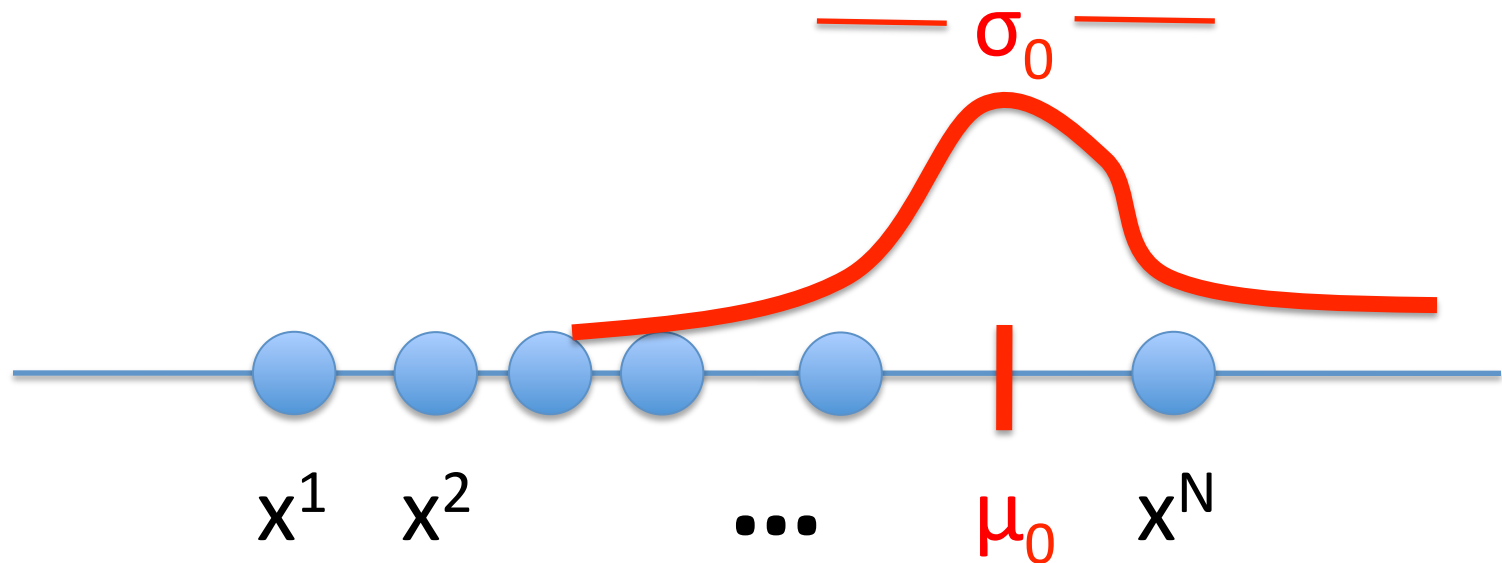
What is the posterior distribution over (our belief about the value of) μ ?

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian



Prior belief

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian



Prior belief

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian

- Remember from earlier $p(\mu | d) = \frac{p(d | \mu) p(\mu)}{p(d)}$

- $p(d | \mu)$ is the **likelihood function**

$$p(d | \mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N P(x^i | \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (x^i - \mu)^2\right\}$$

- $p(\mu)$ is the **prior probability** of (or our **prior belief** over) μ

$$p(\mu | \mu_0, \sigma_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_0} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2} (\mu - \mu_0)^2\right\}$$

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian

$$p(\mu | D) \propto p(D | \mu)p(\mu)$$

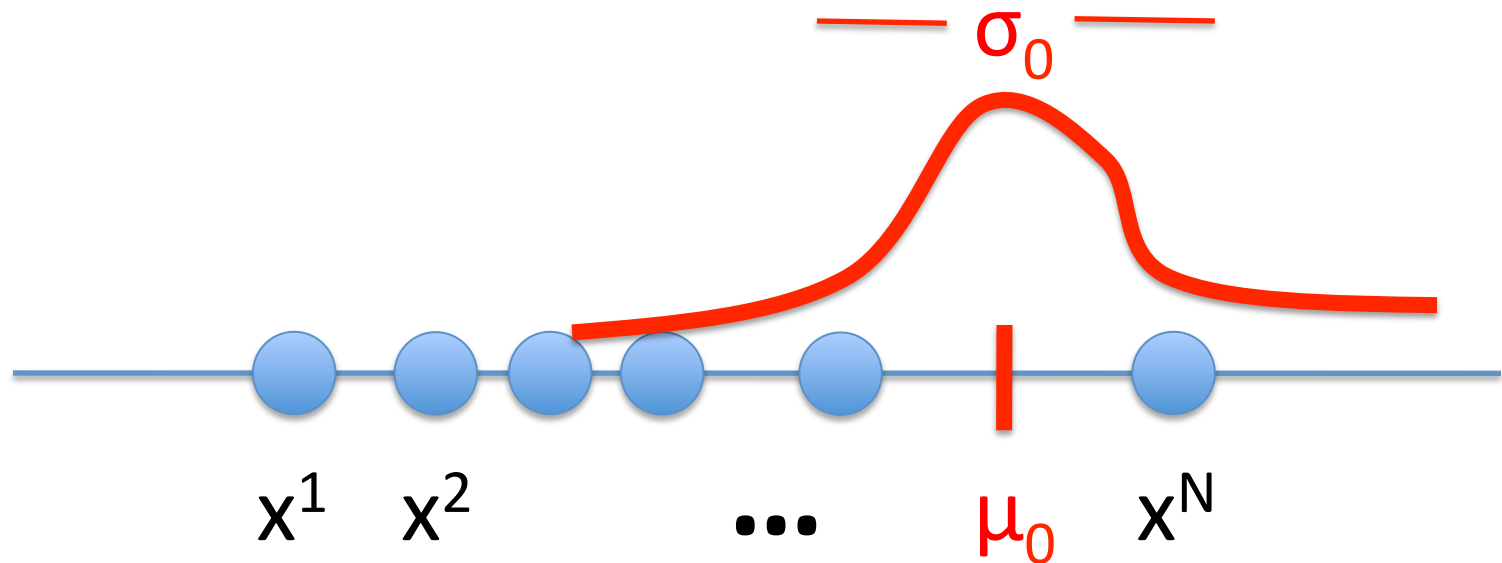
$$p(\mu | D) = \mathbf{Normal}(\mu | \mu_N, \sigma_N)$$

where

$$\mu_N = \frac{\sigma^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}\mu_0 + \frac{N\sigma_0^2}{N\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2}\mu_{ML}$$

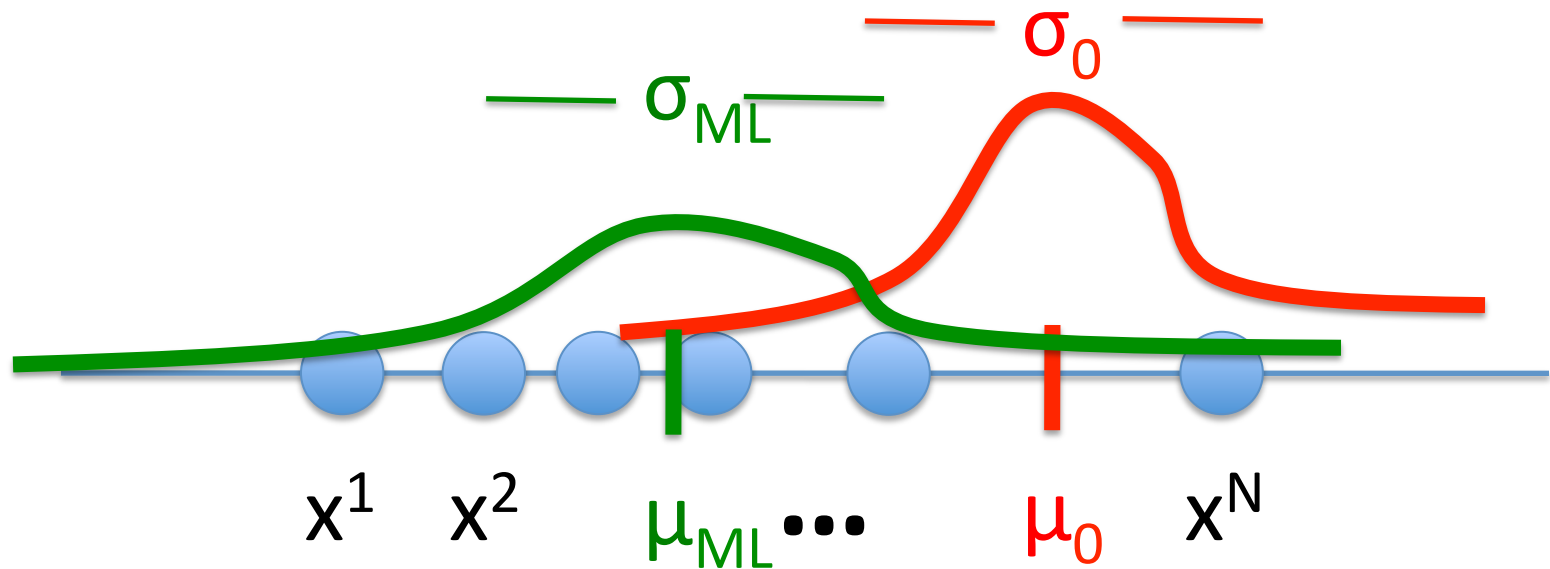
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} + \frac{N}{\sigma^2}$$

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian



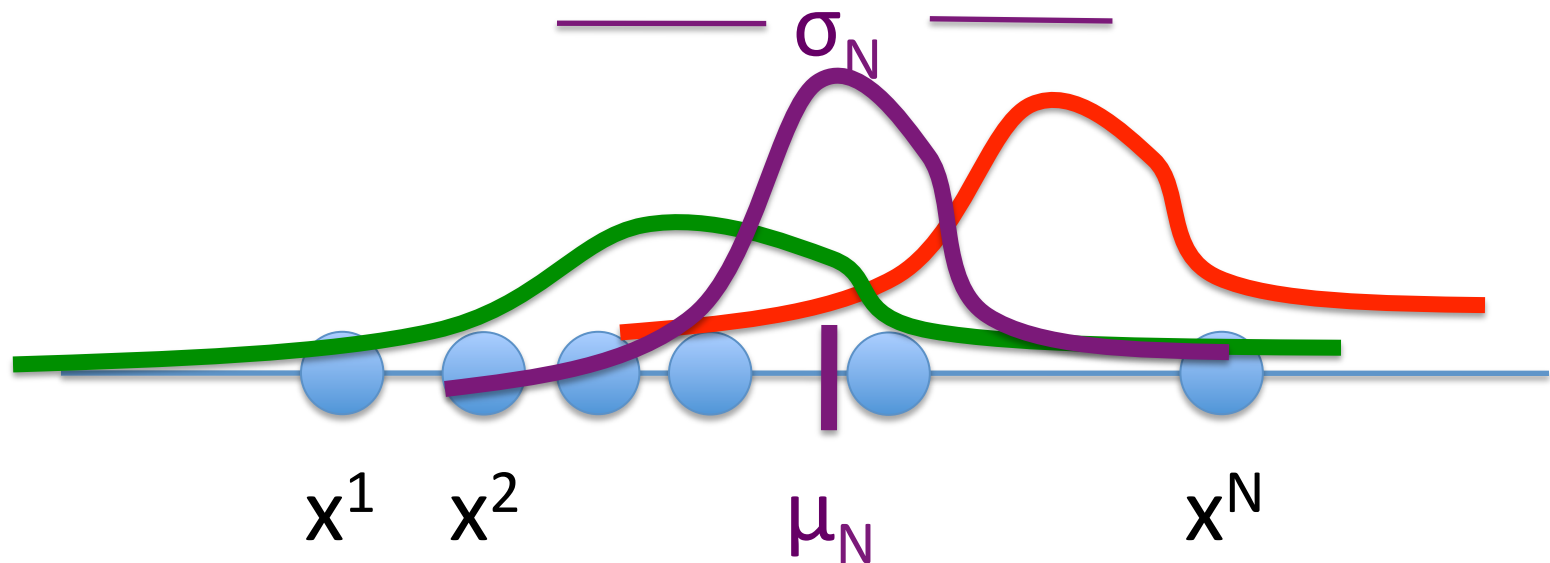
Prior belief

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian



Prior belief
Maximum Likelihood

Example 6: Bayesian Inference For a 1D Gaussian



Prior belief
Maximum Likelihood
Posterior Distribution

Conjugate Priors

- In the previous example, the prior, likelihood and posterior were all Gaussian. The Gaussian dist'n is *self-conjugate*.
- More generally, *conjugate priors induce a posterior of the same form* (the likelihood need not take this form).
 - E.g., Gamma is the conjugate prior of a Poisson likelihood
- For any member of the exponential family there exists a conjugate prior that can be written like

$$p(\eta | \chi, \nu) = f(\chi, \nu) g(\eta)^\nu \exp\{\nu \eta^T \chi\}$$

- Multiply by likelihood to obtain posterior (up to normalization) of the form

$$p(\eta | D, \chi, \nu) \propto g(\eta)^{\nu+N} \exp\{\eta^T (\nu \chi + \sum_{n=1}^N u(x_n))\}$$

- Notice the addition to the sufficient statistic ^{$n=1$}
- ν is the effective number of pseudo-observations.

Conjugate Priors - Examples

- Beta for Bernoulli/binomial
- Dirichlet for categorical/multinomial
- Normal for mean of Normal
- And many more...