

CPSC 540: Machine Learning

Conjugate Priors and Monte Carlo Methods

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Admin

- Nothing exciting?

Last Time: Bayesian Statistics

- In **Bayesian statistics** we work with **posterior** over parameters,

$$p(\theta|x, \alpha, \beta) = \frac{p(x|\theta)p(\theta|\alpha, \beta)}{p(x|\alpha, \beta)}.$$

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- Can be used to optimize λ_j , polynomial degree, RBF σ_i , polynomial vs. RBF, etc.
- We also considered **hierarchical Bayes**, where you put a **prior on the prior**,

$$p(\alpha, \beta|x, \gamma) = \frac{p(x|\alpha, \beta)p(\alpha, \beta|\gamma)}{p(x|\gamma)}.$$

- But is the hyper-prior really needed?

Hierarchical Bayes as Graphical Model

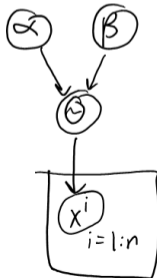
- Let x^i be a binary variable, representing if treatment works on patient i ,

$$x^i \sim \text{Ber}(\theta).$$

- As before, let's assume that θ comes from a beta distribution,

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{B}(\alpha, \beta).$$

- We can visualize this as a graphical model:

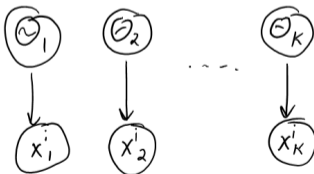


Hierarchical Bayes for Non-IID Data

- Now let x^i represent if treatment works on patient i in hospital j .
- Let's assume that treatment depends on hospital,

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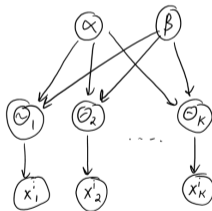
- The x_j^i are IID given the hospital.
- But we may have more data for some hospitals than others:
 - Can we use data from one hospital to learn about others?
 - Can we say anything about a hospital with no data?

Hierarchical Bayes for Non-IID Data

- Common approach: assume θ_j drawn from common prior,

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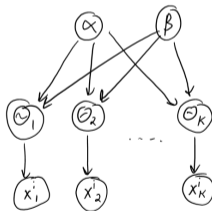


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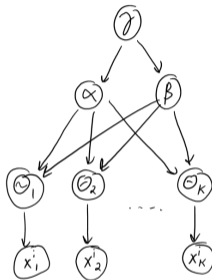
- This ties the parameters from the different hospitals together:



- But, if you fix α and β then you can't learn across hospitals:
 - The θ_j and x_j are **d-separated** given α and β .

Hierarchical Bayes for Non-IID Data

- If α and β are random variables and you use a hyperprior:

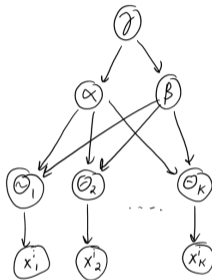


- You can now consider posterior over both types of variables given data and γ :

$$p(\theta, \alpha, \beta | x, \gamma).$$

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- You can now consider posterior over both types of variables given data and γ :

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- Now there is a dependency between the different θ_j .
- You combine the non-IID data across different hospitals.
- Data-rich hospitals inform posterior for data-poor hospitals.
- You even consider the posterior for new hospitals.

Outline

- 1 Hierarchical Bayes for Non-IID Data
- 2 Conjugate Priors**
- 3 Monte Carlo Methods

Conjugate Priors

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- We've seen this is possible in some special cases:
 - Bernoulli likelihood with **discrete prior gives discrete posterior** ($\theta = 0.5$ or $\theta = 1$).
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 - Gaussian likelihood with **Gaussian prior gives Gaussian posterior** (linear regression).

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 - Gaussian likelihood with **Gaussian prior** gives **Gaussian posterior** (linear regression).
- These are easy because the **posterior is in the same 'family' as the prior**:
 - This is called a **conjugate prior** to the likelihood.

Conjugate Priors

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and in particular if we see h heads and t tails then the posterior is $\mathcal{B}(h + \alpha, t + \beta)$.

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- If Σ is also a random variable:
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- For the conjugate priors of many standard distributions, see:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conjugate_prior#Table_of_conjugate_distributions

Existence of Conjugate Priors

- Conjugate priors make Bayesian inference easier:
 - Posterior involves updating parameters of prior.
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 - In many cases posterior predictive also has a nice form.

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- Conjugate priors make Bayesian inference easier:
 - Posterior involves updating parameters of prior.
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 - In many cases posterior predictive also has a nice form.
- Do conjugate priors always exist?
 - **No**, only exist for **exponential family** likelihoods.
 - If you aren't in the exponential family (e.g., student t), Bayesian inference gets ugly.

Exponential Family

- **Exponential family** distributions can be written in the form

$$p(x|\theta) \propto h(x) \exp(\theta^T \phi(x)).$$

- We often have $h(x) = 1$, and $\phi(x)$ are called the **sufficient statistics**.
 - If you have $\phi(x)$ for a dataset x , you don't need data x^1, x^2, \dots, x^n .

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- If $\phi(x) = x$, we say that the θ are the canonical parameters.
 - For Bernoulli, write it as

$$\begin{aligned} p(x|\pi) &= \pi^x (1 - \pi)^{1-x} = \exp(\log(\pi^x (1 - \pi)^{1-x})) \\ &= \exp(x \log \pi + (1 - x) \log(1 - \pi)) \\ &= \exp\left(x \log\left(\frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}\right) + \log(1 - \pi)\right) \\ &\propto \exp\left(x \log\left(\frac{\pi}{1 - \pi}\right)\right), \end{aligned}$$

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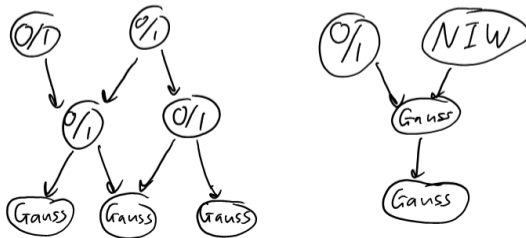
and parameterize in terms of log-odds, $\theta = \log(\pi/(1 - \pi))$.
(solve for π using sigmoid function, $\pi = 1/(1 + \exp(-\theta))$)

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 - Posterior will be discrete, although it still might be NP-hard to use.
- Conjugacy also helps in more complex situations.
- Consider DAGs where marginal of parent is conjugate prior for child:
 - Unconditional inference and sampling will be easy.
- Examples:
 - Gaussian graphical models.
 - Discrete graphical models.
 - Hybrid Gaussian/discrete, where discrete nodes can't have Gaussian parents.
 - Gaussian graphical model with normal-inverse-Wishart parents.



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Need for Approximate Integration

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- Two main strategies:
 - ① Variational methods.
 - ② Monte Carlo methods.
- Both are classic ideas from statistical physics, but in 90s revolutionized Bayesian stats/ML.
- Also used extensively in graphical models and deep learning.

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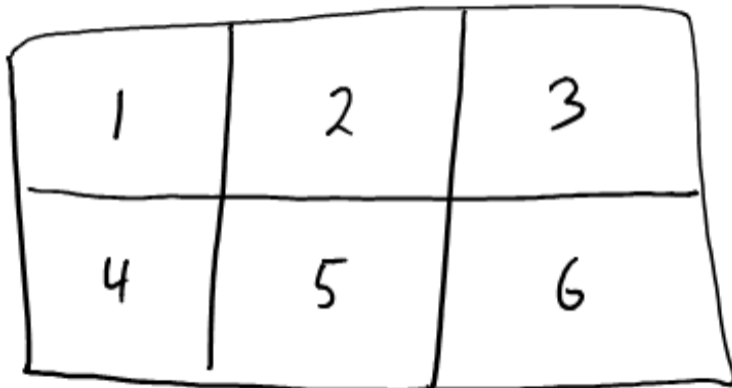
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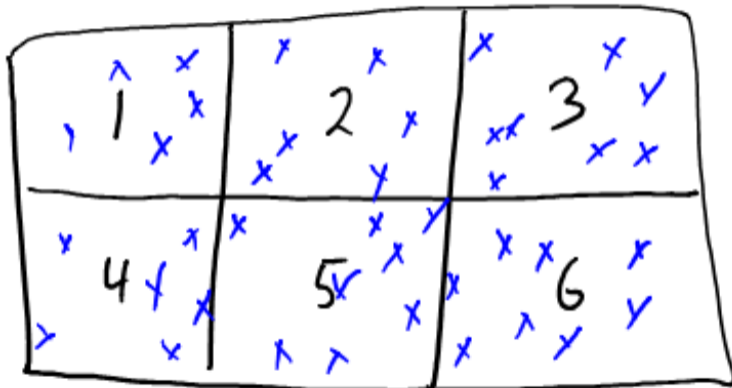
- As $n \rightarrow \infty$, “converges” to the true distribution.
- We can use this “empirical measure” to approximate the original probability.
 - E.g., if you want $\mathbb{E}[f(x)]$, compute $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x)$.
 - Converges to expectation as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by law of large numbers.

Monte Carlo Methods Example: Rolling di



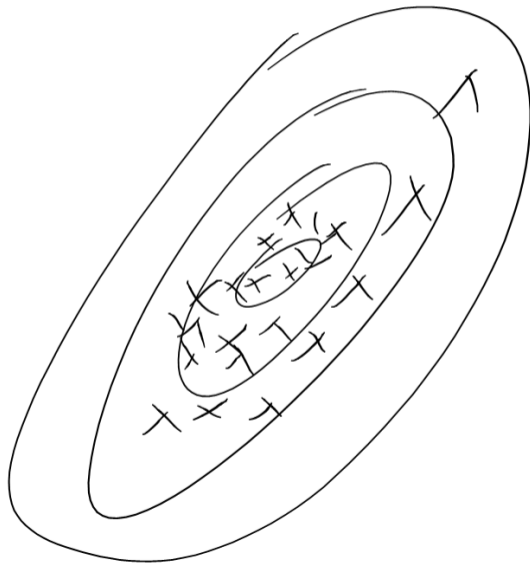
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Monte Carlo Methods Example: Gaussian distribution



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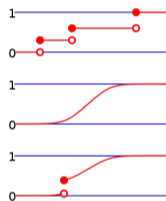
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- Second class of Monte Carlo methods generate dependent samples:
 - 1 Markov chain Monte Carlo.
 - Gibbs sampling, Metropolis-Hastings.
 - 2 Sequential Monte Carlo.
 - AKA sequential importance sampling or particle filtering.

Inverse Transform Method (Exact 1D Sampling)

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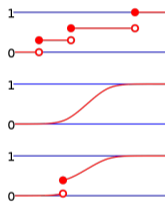
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- The **cumulative distribution function** (CDF) F is $p(X \leq x)$.
 - $F(x)$ is between 0 and 1 and gives proportion of times X is below x .



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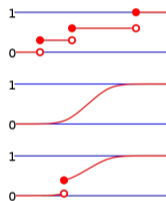


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- The **inverse CDF** (or **quantile function**) F^{-1} is its inverse:
 - Given a number u between 0 and 1, gives x such that $p(X \leq x) = u$.
- Inverse transform** method for exact sampling in 1D:
 - Sample $u \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
 - Compute $x = F^{-1}(u)$.

Inverse Transform Method (Exact 1D Sampling)

- Consider a discrete distribution:

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- 1 Generate $u \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
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- 3 If $u \leq p(X = 1) + p(X = 2)$, output 2.
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- 5 Otherwise, output 4.

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- With k states, cost to generate a sample is $O(k)$.
- If you are generating multiple samples, store the sums and do binary search:
 - $O(k)$ pre-processing cost, then $O(\log k)$ cost per sample.

Inverse Transform Method (Exact 1D Sampling)

- Consider a Gaussian distribution,

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2).$$

- CDF has the form

$$F(x) = p(X \leq x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma\sqrt{2}} \right) \right],$$

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- Inverse CDF has the form

$$F^{-1}(u) = \mu + \sigma\sqrt{2}\operatorname{erf}^{-1}(2u - 1).$$

- To sample from a Gaussian:

- ① Generate $u \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
- ② Compute $F^{-1}(u)$.

Ancestral Sampling (Exact Multidimensional Sampling)

- We've seen already for DAG models.
- If you want to sample from $p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$,
 - Sample x_1 from $p(x_1)$.
 - Using x_1 , sample x_2 from $p(x_2|x_1)$.
 - Using x_1 and x_2 , sample x_3 from $p(x_3|x_1, x_2)$.

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 - Using x_1 and x_2 , sample x_3 from $p(x_3|x_1, x_2)$.
- If **children are conjugate to parents** this is easy.
 - You might be able to build distribution out of conjugate parts.
- For non-conjugate models, hard to characterize all these conditionals.

Beyond Inverse Transform and Conjugacy

- We can't sample exactly from many distributions.
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- But, we can use simple distributions to sample from complex distributions.
- Method 1: [Rejection sampling](#).
 - Example: sampling from a Gaussian subject to $x \in [-1, 1]$.



Rejection Sampling

- Ingredients of rejection sampling:
 - 1 Ability to evaluate unnormalized $\tilde{p}(x)$,

$$p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}.$$

- 2 A distribution q that is easy to sample from.
- 3 An upper bound M on $\tilde{p}(x)/q(x)$.

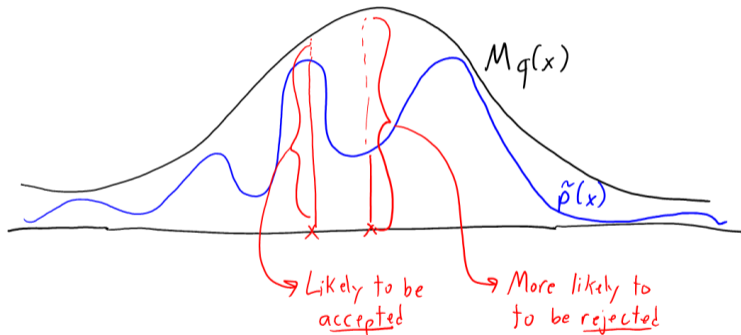
Rejection Sampling

- Ingredients of rejection sampling:
 - 1 Ability to evaluate unnormalized $\tilde{p}(x)$,

$$p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}.$$

- 2 A distribution q that is easy to sample from.
 - 3 An upper bound M on $\tilde{p}(x)/q(x)$.
- Rejection sampling algorithm:
 - 1 Sample x from $q(x)$.
 - 2 Sample u from $\mathcal{U}(0, 1)$.
 - 3 Keep the sample if $u \leq \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Mq(x)}$.
 - The accepted samples will be from $p(x)$.

Rejection Sampling



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- Extension in 1D for convex $-\log p(x)$:

- **Adaptive** rejection sampling refines q after each rejection.

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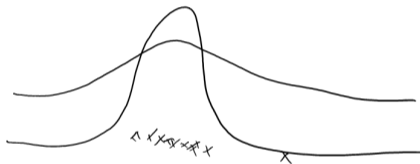
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and similarly for continuous distributions.

- We can sample from q , and reweight by $p(x)/q(x)$ to sample from p .
- Only assumption is that q is non-zero when p is non-zero.
- If you only know unnormalized $\tilde{p}(x)$, variant gives approximation of Z .

Importance Sampling

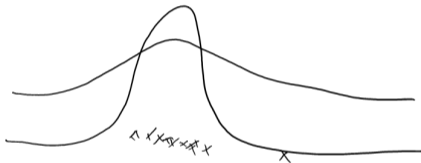
- As with rejection sampling, only efficient if q is close to p .
- Otherwise, weights will be huge for a small number of samples.
 - Even though unbiased, variance will be huge.



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- In high-dimensions, these methods tend not to work well.
- For high dimensions, we often resort to methods based on dependent samples:
 - 1 Markov chain Monte Carlo.
 - Gibbs sampling, Metropolis-Hastings.
 - 2 Sequential Monte Carlo.
 - AKA sequential importance sampling or particle filtering.

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- **Monte Carlo** methods approximate distributions by samples.
- **Inverse transform** generates exact samples based on uniform samples.
- **Rejection sampling** and **importance sampling** use other distributions.

- Next time: MCMC, non-parametric Bayes, and the Automatic Statistician.