COMS30035, Machine learning: PGMs for Bayesian Machine Learning

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25th September 2023

The Bayesian approach

- Conceptually the Bayesian approach is easy: the goal is to compute the posterior distribution $P(\theta|D = d)$ where θ is the parameter vector and *d* is the observed value of the data.
- ▶ We choose a prior $P(\theta)$ and assume a particular likelihood $P(D|\theta)$ and then Bayes theorem gives us $P(\theta|D = d) \propto P(\theta)P(D = d|\theta)$.
- If we choose a *conjugate prior* for P(θ), then representing and computing P(θ|D = d) is easy.

Problems for the Bayesian approach

- "For most probabilistic models of practical interest, exact inference is intractable, and so we have to resort to some form of approximation." [Bis06, p. 523].
- We want to be able to just construct whatever joint distribution $P(\theta, D)$ we think best models the data-generating process and then compute $P(\theta|D = d)$.
- However, with this flexibility there is a price: we may not even be able to represent P(θ|D = d) easily, let alone compute it.

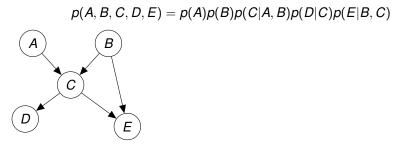
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- However, with this flexibility there is a price: we may not even be able to represent P(θ|D = d) easily, let alone compute it.
- ► The solution is to give up on getting $P(\theta|D = d)$ exactly and instead draw samples (of θ) from $P(\theta|D = d)$ which will allow us to approximately compute any posterior quantities, e.g. the mean of $P(\theta|D = d)$.

Univariate sampling

- We will assume throughout that we have some mechanism for sampling from any *univariate* distribution.
- There are functions for sampling from a bunch of different distributions in Python's random module. Also, to sample from a Gaussian you can use numpy.random.normal.
- If a multivariate distribution is described by a Bayesian network then we can use *ancestral sampling* to sample a joint instantiation of the variables.

Ancestral sampling



- Just ensure that we sample values for all parents of a node before we sample a value for that node (this is always possible due to acyclicity).
- So to sample from p(A, B, C, D, E) we first sample values for A and B, suppose we get the values A = 0, B = 1. We then sample a value for C from the conditional distribution P(C|A = 0, B = 1), and so on. [Bis06, §8.1.2].

Sampling from marginal and conditional distributions

p(A,B,C,D,E) = p(A)p(B)p(C|A,B)p(D|C)p(E|B,C)

- We can approximate any marginal distribution (say, P(B, E)) by sampling full joint instantiations (by e.g. ancestral sampling) and then only keeping the values of the variables in the marginal.
- We can use rejection sampling to sample from conditional distributions.
- For example, to sample from P(B, D|E = 1) we sample from the marginal distribution P(B, D, E) and throw away those samples where E ≠ 1.
- Rejection sampling is typically inefficient.

Approximating expectations

 Often we want to compute expected values with respect to some posterior distribution [Bis06, p. 524].

$$\boldsymbol{E}[f] = \int f(\mathbf{z}) \boldsymbol{\rho}(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} \tag{1}$$

If we draw independent samples z^(l), l = 1,..., L from p(z) then we can approximate E[f] as follows:

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^{L} f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$
 (2)

Markov chain Monte Carlo

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Markov chain Monte Carlo

- If we can sample from a distribution then we have a simple way to compute approximate values. But what if we cannot?
- If we can sample from a sequence of distributions which eventually reaches (or gets very close to) the desired distribution, then we can adopt the following strategy:
 - 1. Draw a sample from each distribution in this sequence.
 - 2. Only keep the samples once we get 'close enough' to the desired distribution.
- This is the approach of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC).

Markov chains

"A first-order Markov chain is defined to be a series of random variables $\mathbf{z}^{(1)}, \ldots, \mathbf{z}^{(M)}$ such that the following conditional independence property holds for $m \in \{1, \ldots, M-1\}$ " [Bis06, p. 539].

$$\rho(\mathbf{z}^{(m+1)}|\mathbf{z}^{(1)},...,\mathbf{z}^{(m)}) = \rho(\mathbf{z}^{(m+1)}|\mathbf{z}^{(m)})$$
(3)

- z^(m) often represents (or can be imagined to represent) the *m*th state of some dynamic system so that p(z^(m+1)|z^(m)) is a *state transition* probability.
- ▶ If $p(\mathbf{z}^{(m+1)}|\mathbf{z}^{(m)})$ is the same for all *m* then the chain is *homogeneous*.
- (We also need an *initial distribution* $p(\mathbf{z}^{(1)})$.)
- Here's the Bayesian network representation of a Markov chain where M = 4.



 Sampling from a Markov chain is easy: it's just a special case of ancestral sampling.

Markov chain Monte Carlo



- A Markov chain defines a sequence of marginal distributions; for the BN above these are P(x₁), P(x₂), P(x₃) and P(x₄).
- The goal of MCMC is to design a Markov chain so that this sequence of marginal distributions converges on the distribution we want.
- Then we can just sample from the Markov chain and only keep the sampled values of the 'later' random variables.
- The sampled values we draw are **not** independent, but this is a price we have to pay.

How to get MCMC to work?

- We have a clear goal: given a target probability distribution p(z), construct a Markov chain z⁽¹⁾,..., z⁽ⁱ⁾... such that lim_{i→∞} p(z⁽ⁱ⁾) = p(z).
- ► (For Bayesian machine learning the target distribution will be P(θ|D = d), the posterior distribution of the model parameters given the observed data.)
- One solution to this is the *Metropolis-Hastings* algorithm.

The Metropolis-Hastings (MH) algorithm

- We define a single transition probability distribution for a homogeneous Markov chain.
- Let the current state be z⁽⁷⁾. When using the MH algorithm sampling the next state happens in two stages:
 - 1. We generate a value z^* by sampling from a *proposal distribution* $q(z|z^{(\tau)})$.
 - We then accept z* as the new state with a certain acceptance probability. If we don't accept z* then we 'stay where we are', so that z^(τ) is both the old and new state.

The Metropolis-Hastings acceptance probability

Let $p(\mathbf{z})$ be the *target distribution*. The acceptance probability is: [Bis06, p. 541].

$$A(\mathbf{z}^*, \mathbf{z}^{(\tau)}) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(\mathbf{z}^*)q(\mathbf{z}^{(\tau)}|\mathbf{z}^*)}{p(\mathbf{z}^{(\tau)})q(\mathbf{z}^*|\mathbf{z}^{(\tau)})}\right)$$
(4)

- If p(z) = p̃(z)/Z then we have p(z*)/p(z^(τ)) = p̃(z*)/p̃(z^(τ)), so we only need p up to normalisation. This is a big win!
- If the proposal distribution is symmetric then the 'q' terms cancel out: a special case known as the *Metropolis algorithm*.
- Note that for the Metropolis algorithm if p(z^{*}) ≥ p(z^(τ)) then we always accept and 'move' to z^{*}.

Does Metropolis-Hastings (always) work?

- It can be shown [Bis06, p. 541] that the target distribution is an invariant distribution of the Markov chain: if the sequence of distributions p(z⁽ⁱ⁾) reaches the target distribution then it stays there.
- Also, typically the Markov chain does converge to the target distribution.
- The rate at which we converge to the target distribution is greatly influenced by the choice of proposal distribution.

MCMC in practice

- Straightforward Metropolis-Hastings is not the state-of-the-art in MCMC.
- Probabilistic programming systems like PyMC by default use more sophisticated MCMC algorithms (to avoid getting stuck).
- From the PyMC intro overview: "Probabilistic programming (PP) allows flexible specification of Bayesian statistical models in code. PyMC is a PP framework with an intuitive and readable, yet powerful, syntax that is close to the natural syntax statisticians use to describe models. It features next-generation Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling algorithms such as the No-U-Turn Sampler"
- When using MCMC we (1) throw away early samples ('burn-in') and (2) 'run independent chains' to check for convergence.
- PyMC uses (r_hat) to check for convergence; this value should be close to 1.

Let's do some Bayesian machine learning with PyMC!

- I've found the easiest way to get the introductory Jupyter notebooks mentioned in the PyMC website is to clone the PyMC github repo.
- You can then find them in pymc/docs/source/learn/core_notebooks



Christopher M. Bishop. Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning. Springer, 2006.