

Statisztikai tanulás az idegrendszerben

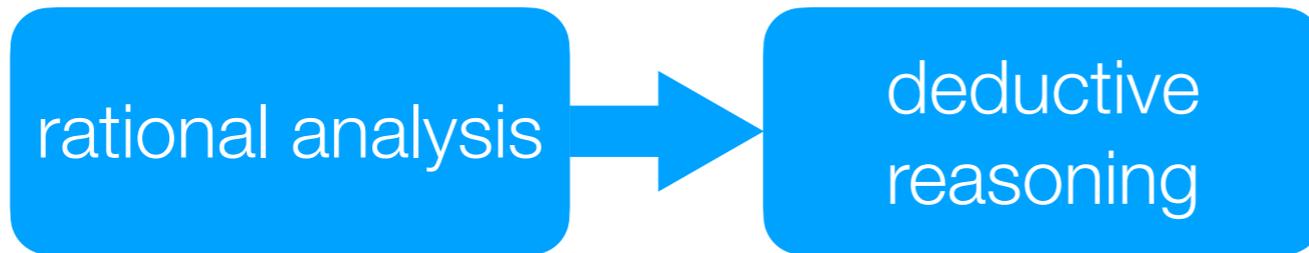
Közelítő inferencia, mintavételezés

Orbán Gergő
golab.wigner.mta.hu

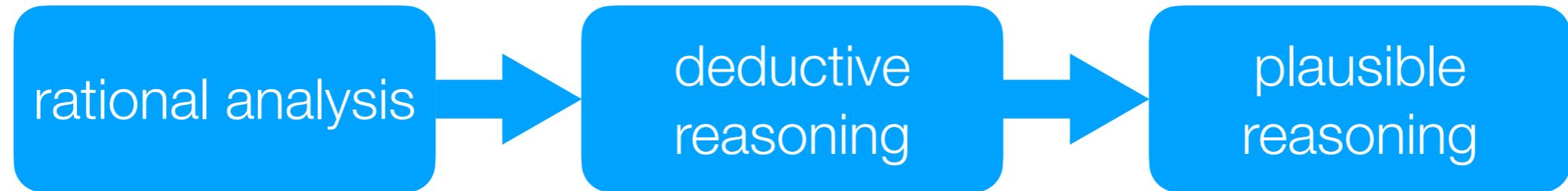
Recap: graphical models

rational analysis

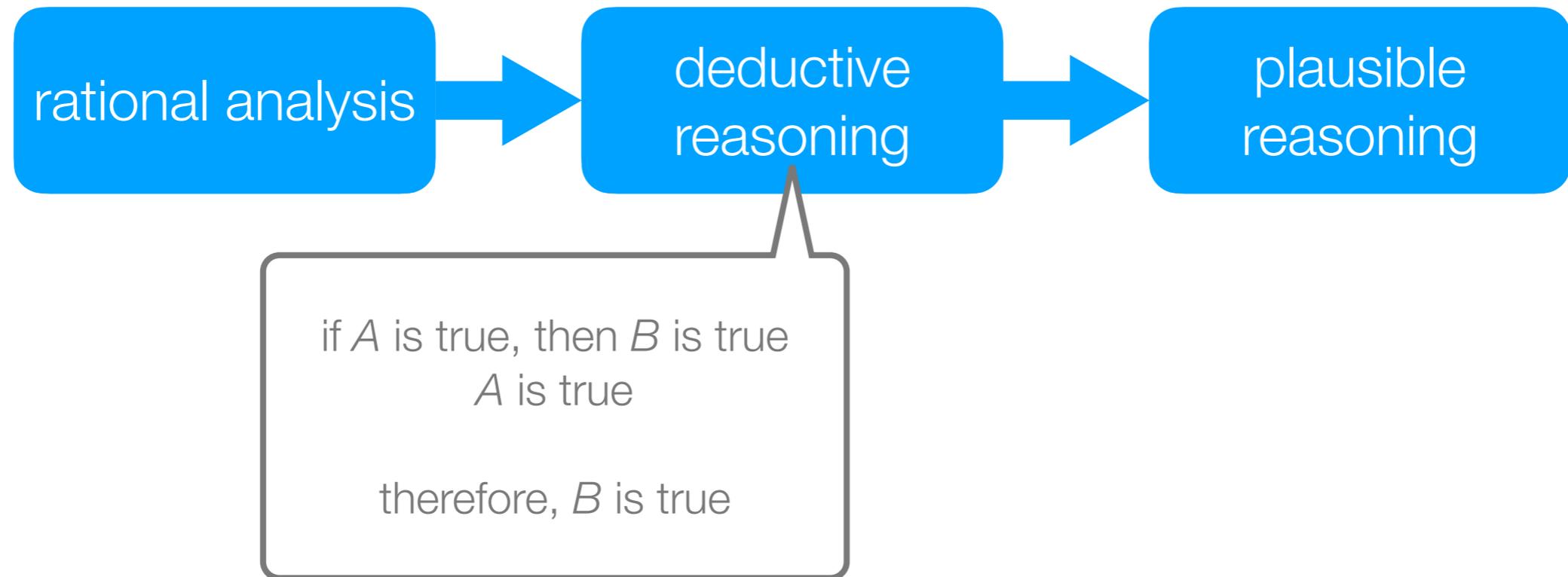
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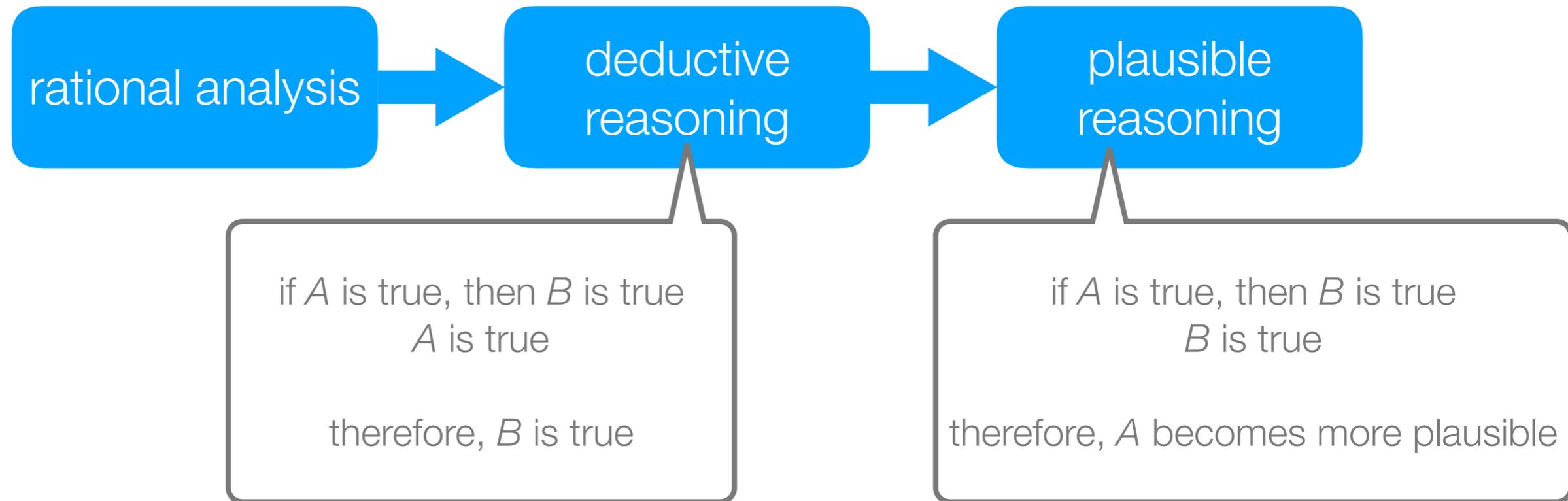
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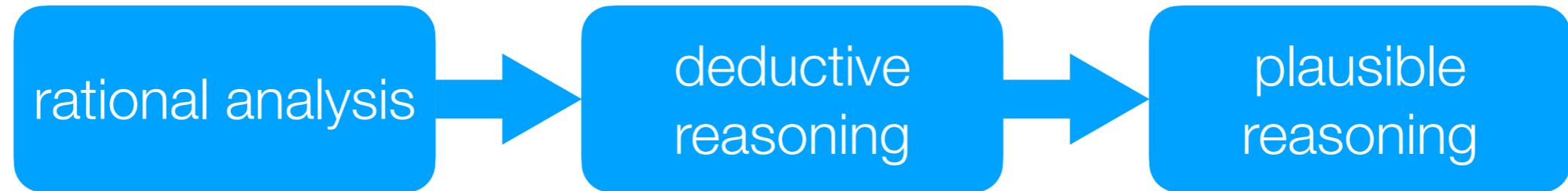
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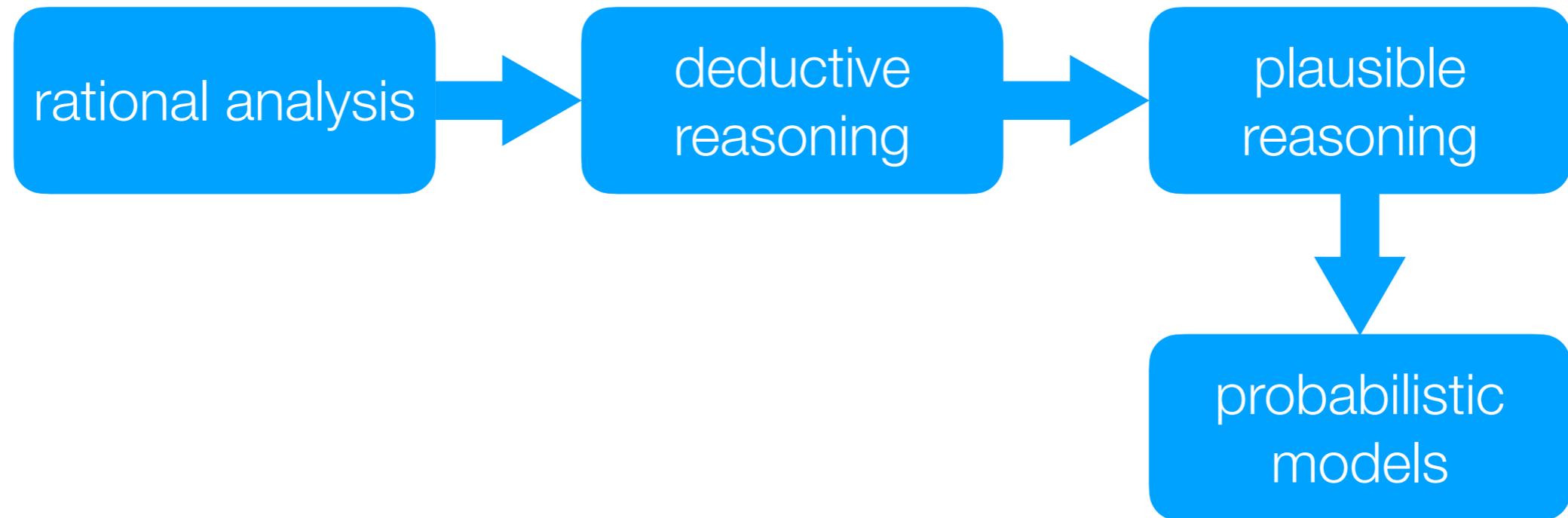
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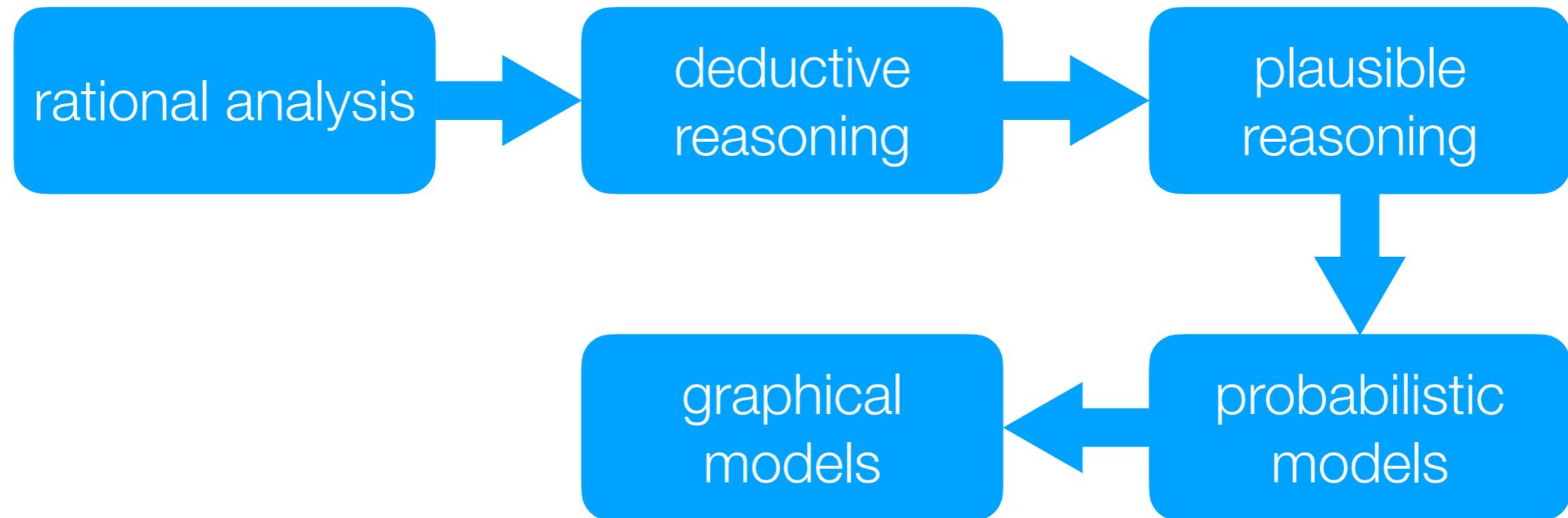
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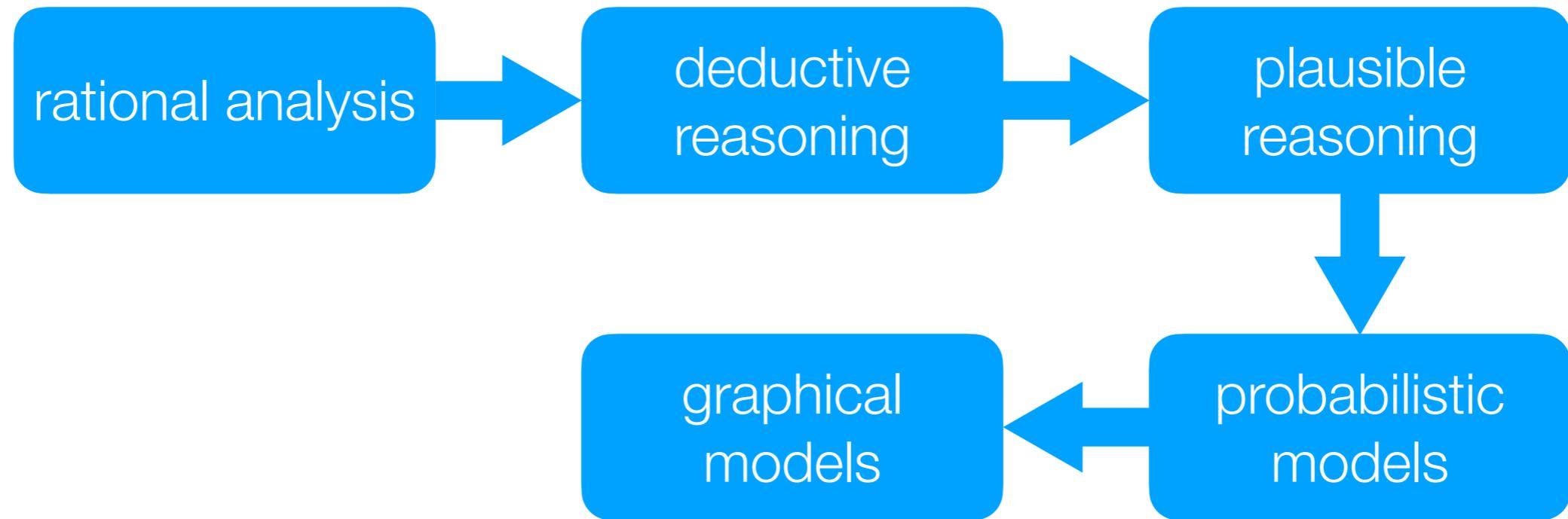
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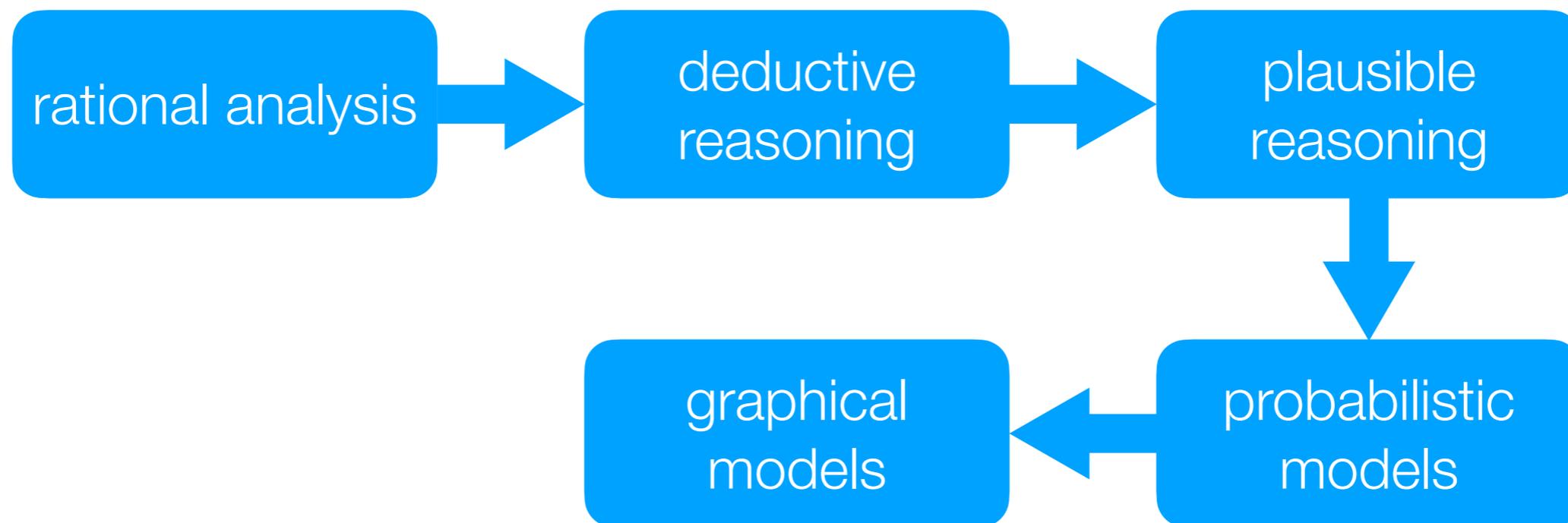


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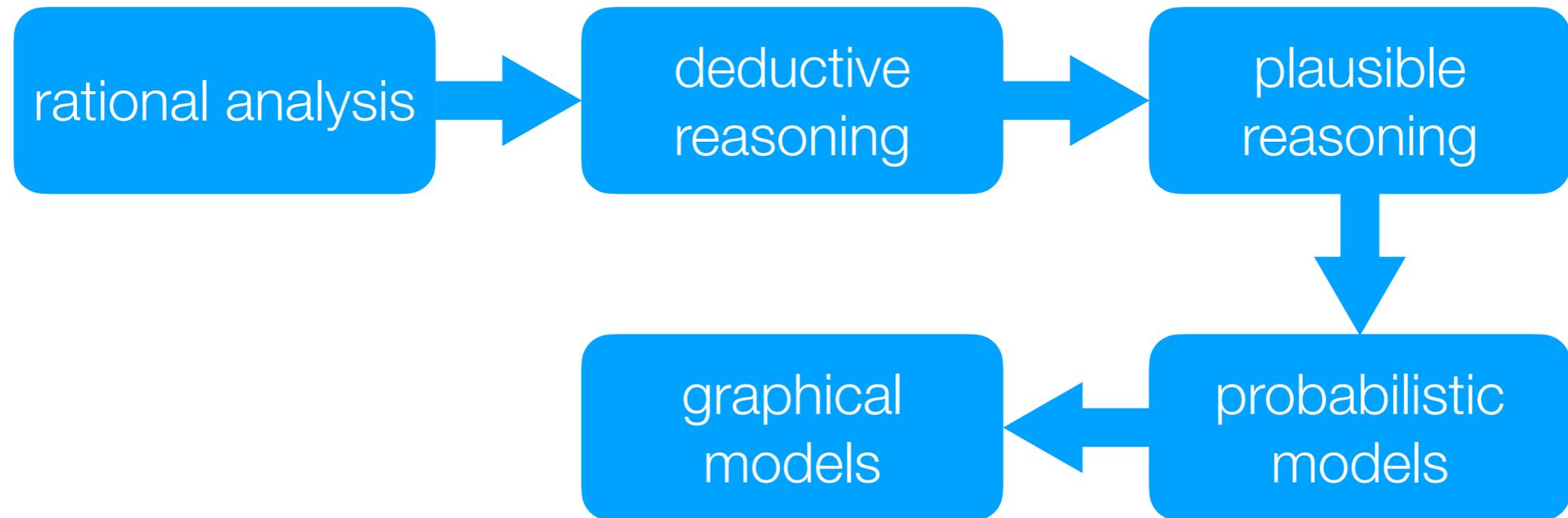
- intuitive parametrization of the probabilistic model (probability table)

Recap: graphical models



- intuitive parametrization of the probabilistic model (probability table)
- independence or conditional independence of variables can be conveniently identified

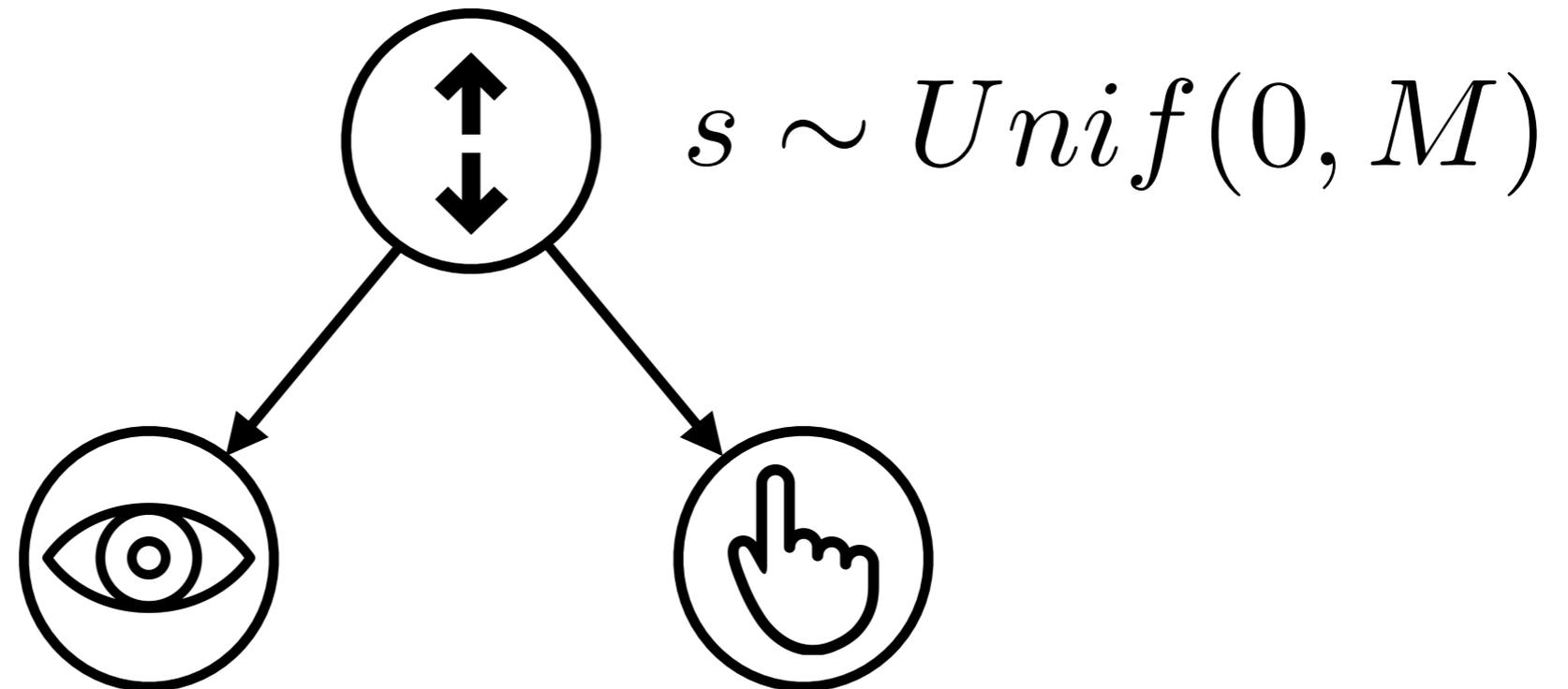
Recap: graphical models



- intuitive parametrization of the probabilistic model (probability table)
- independence or conditional independence of variables can be conveniently identified
- breaks down the joint distribution into simpler conditional

Recap: cue integration

CUE INTEGRATION



$$X_v | s \sim N(s, \sigma_v) \quad X_h | s \sim N(s, \sigma_h)$$

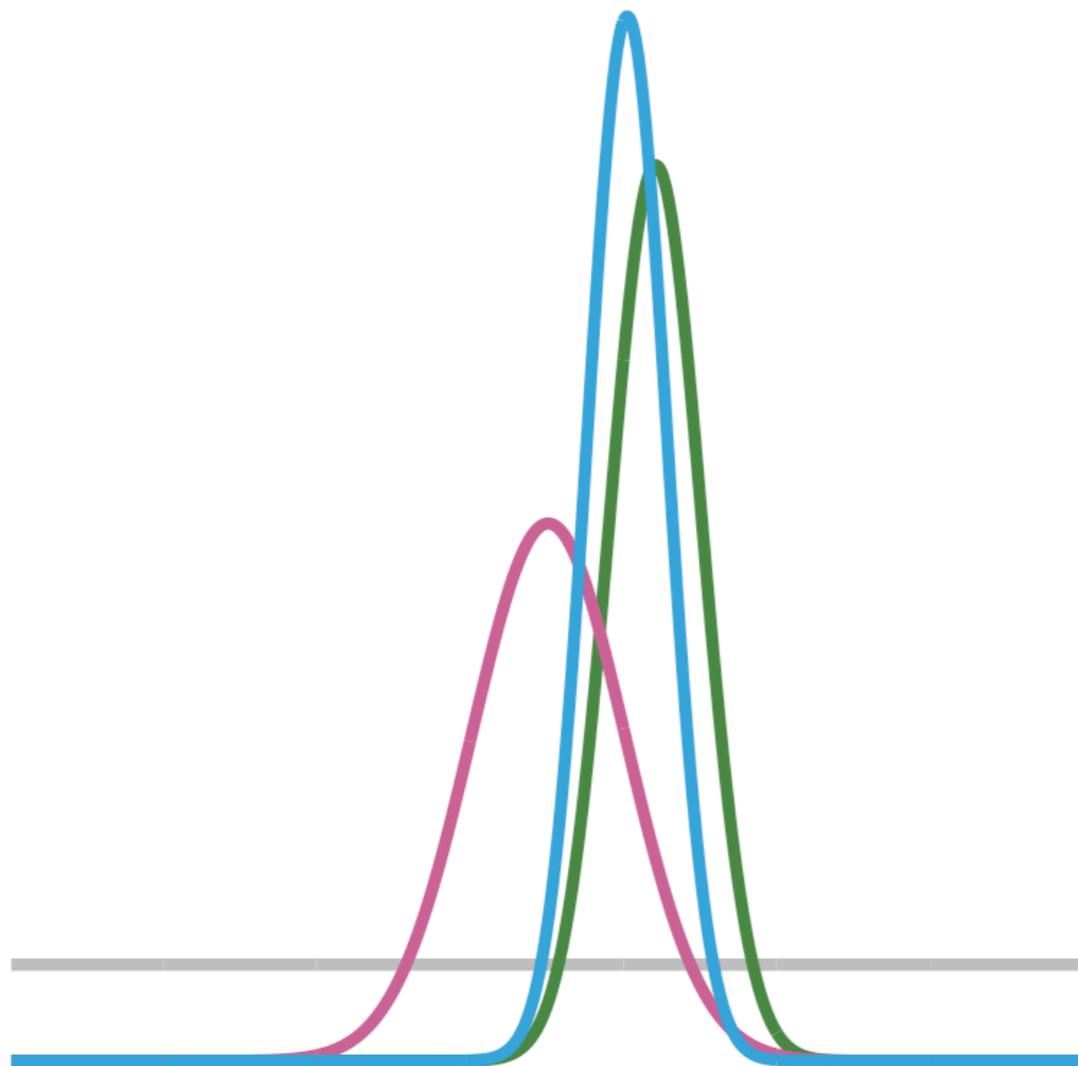
Recap: cue integration

CUE INTEGRATION

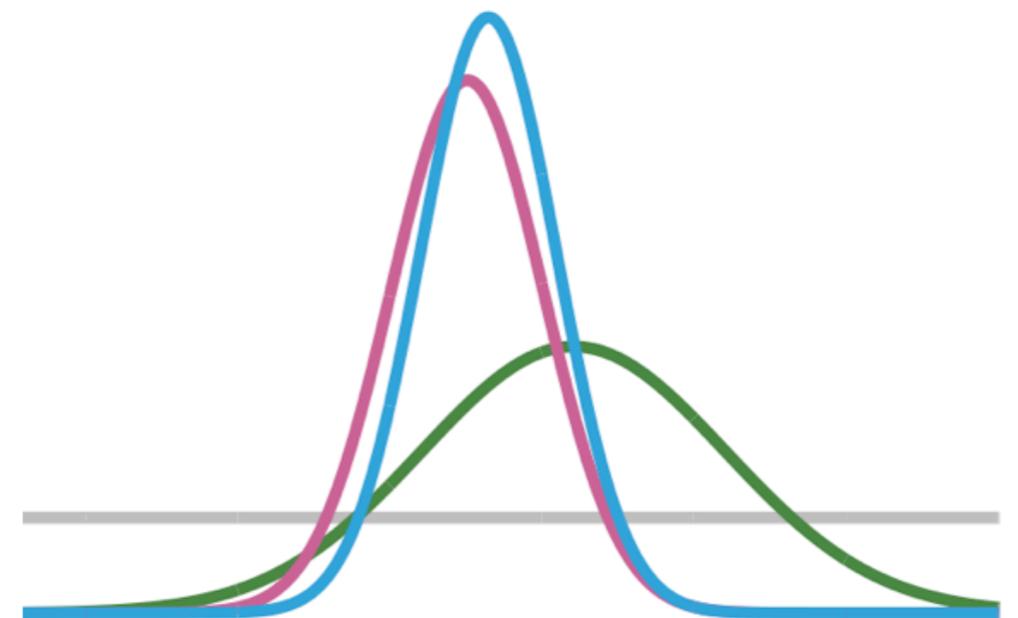
$$\hat{s} \sim \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma}^2)$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{\frac{X_v}{\sigma_v^2} + \frac{X_h}{\sigma_h^2}}{\frac{1}{\sigma_h^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_v^2}}$$

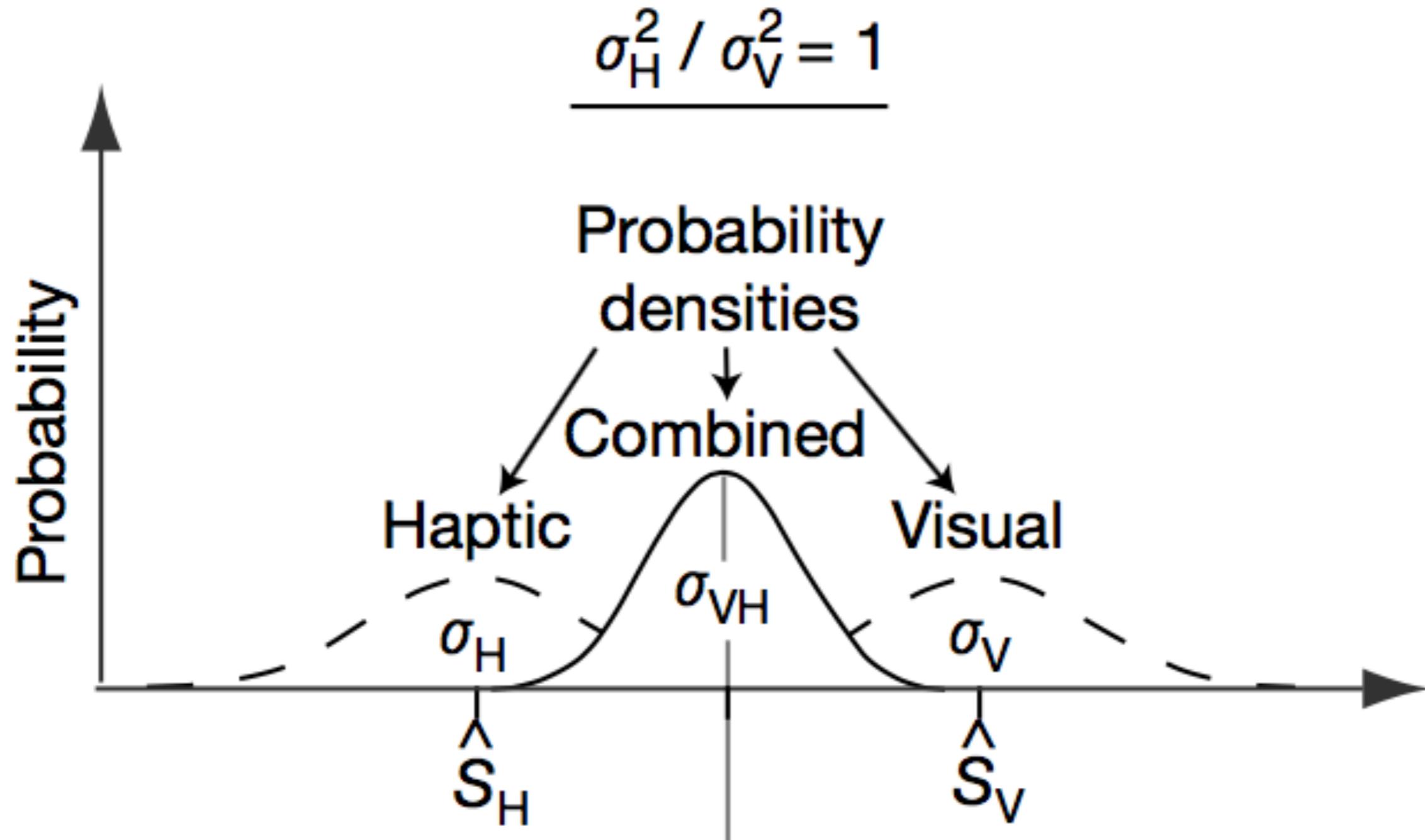
$$\frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_h^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_v^2}$$

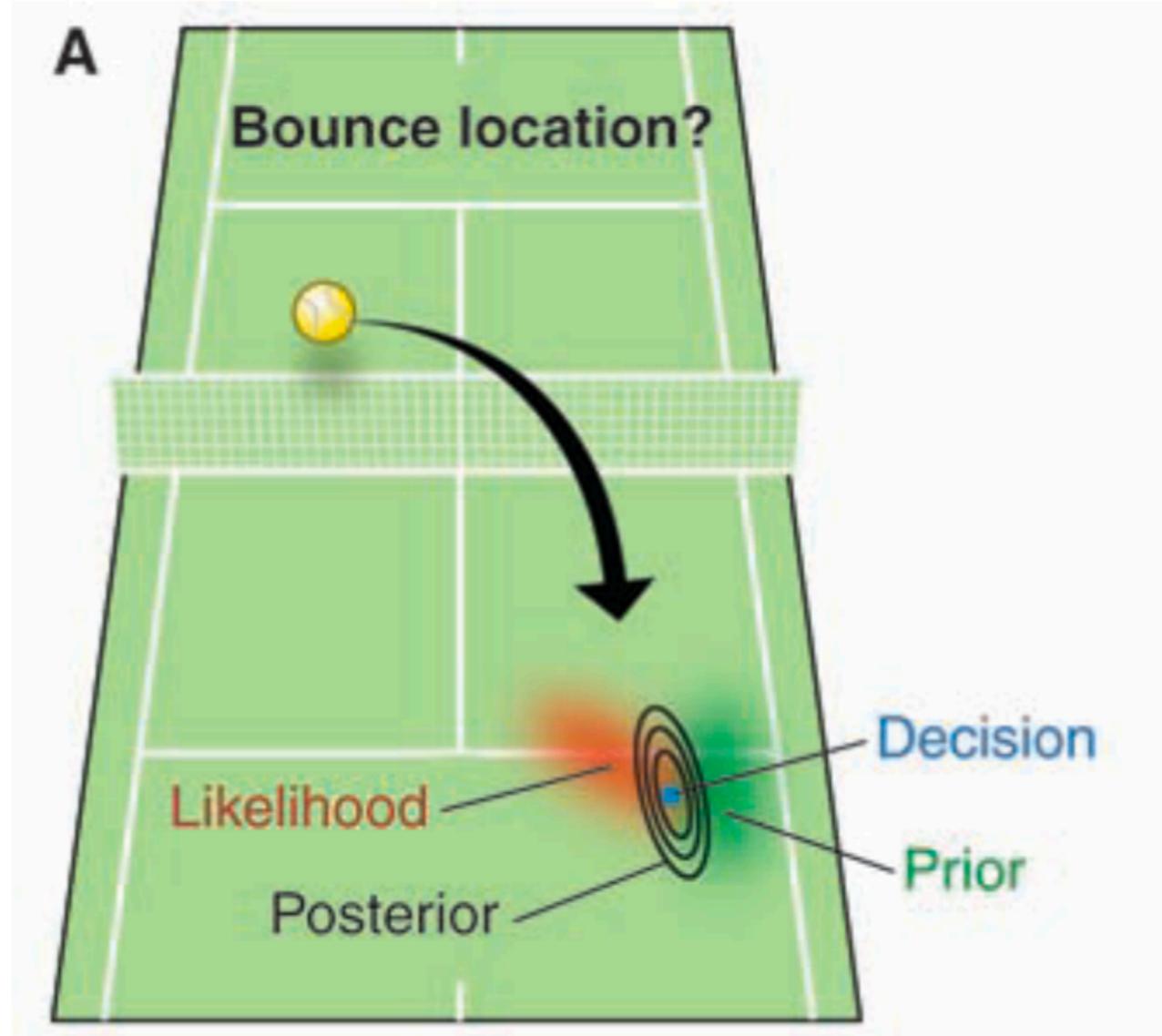


- prior
- visual
- haptic
- posterior



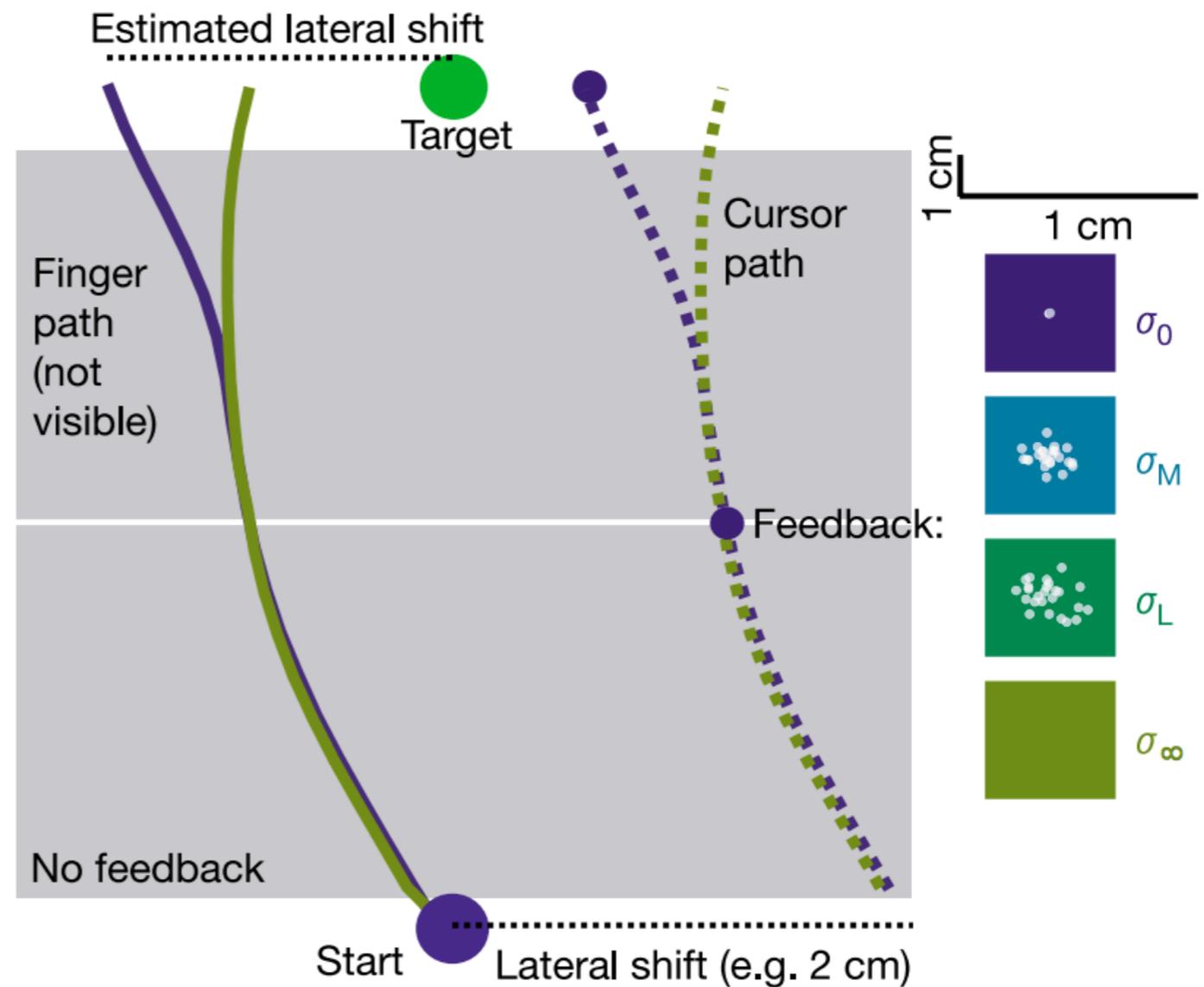
Recap: cue integration





BAYESIAN INTEGRATION IN SENSORIMOTOR LEARNING

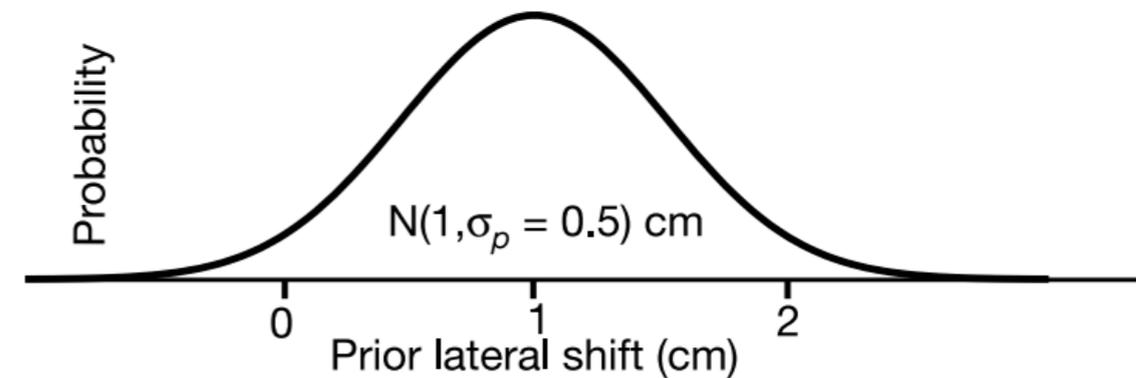
- ▶ Mutatóujj két pont közötti mozgása
- ▶ VR setup: nem valódi helyzet, ráadásul csaknéha látható
 - ▶ tréning: félúton és út végén
 - ▶ többi kondíció: csak félúton



TASK VARIABILITY

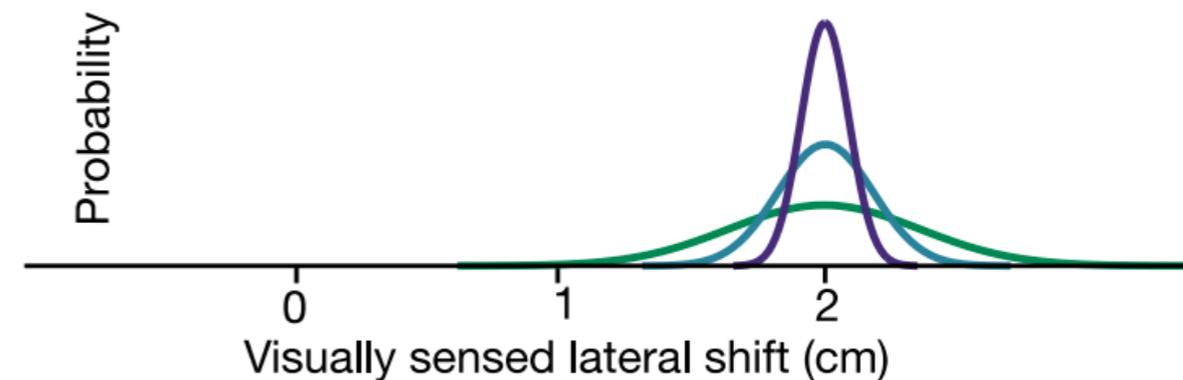
- ▶ a megjelenő kurzor eltolása a megadott priorból lett generálva véletlenszerűen
- ▶ ezt 1000 tréning próba alatt lehetett kikövetkeztetni

$$p(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(x | \mu = 1\text{cm}, \sigma_0 = 0.5\text{cm})$$

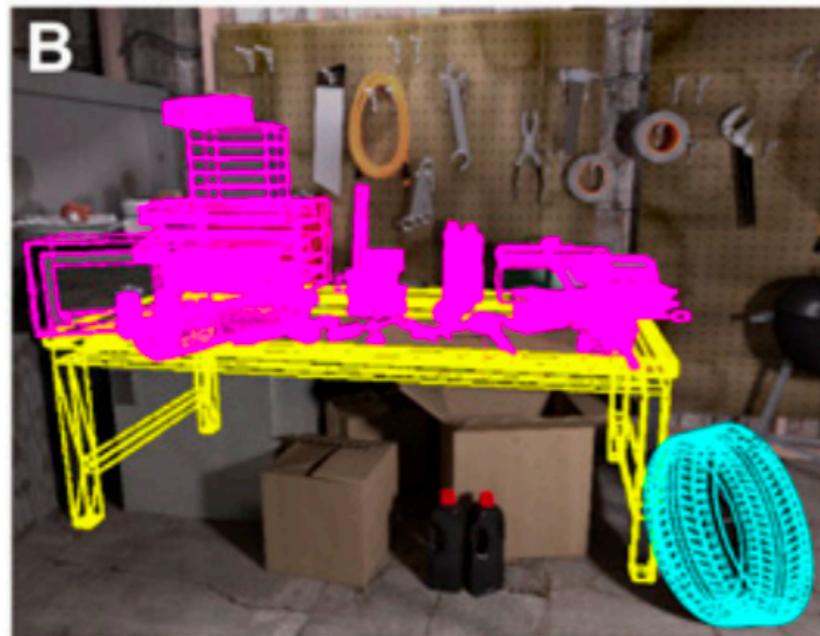


SENSORY VARIABILITY

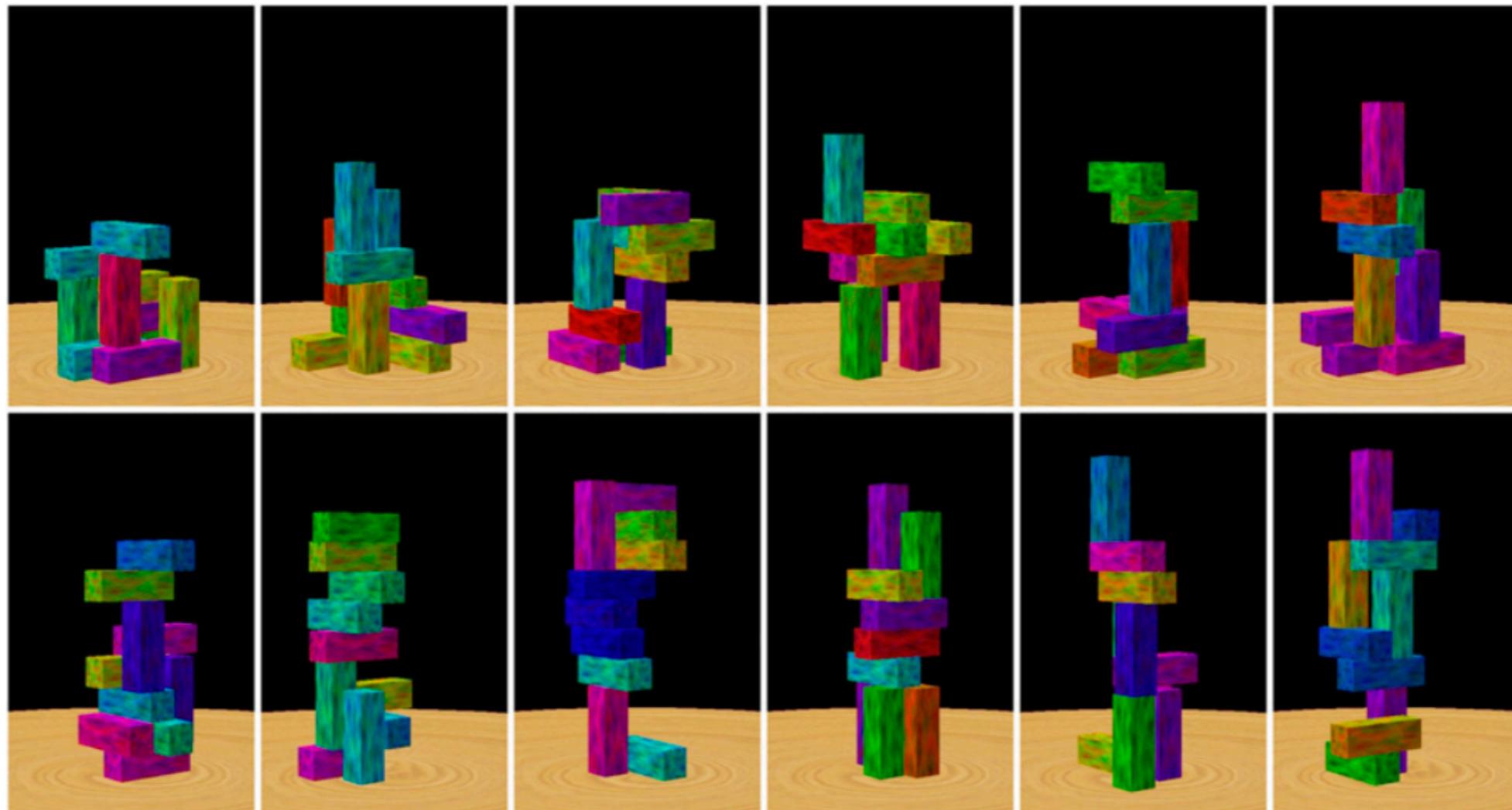
- ▶ A különböző kondíciókban a kurzor különböző mértékben volt elmosódva:

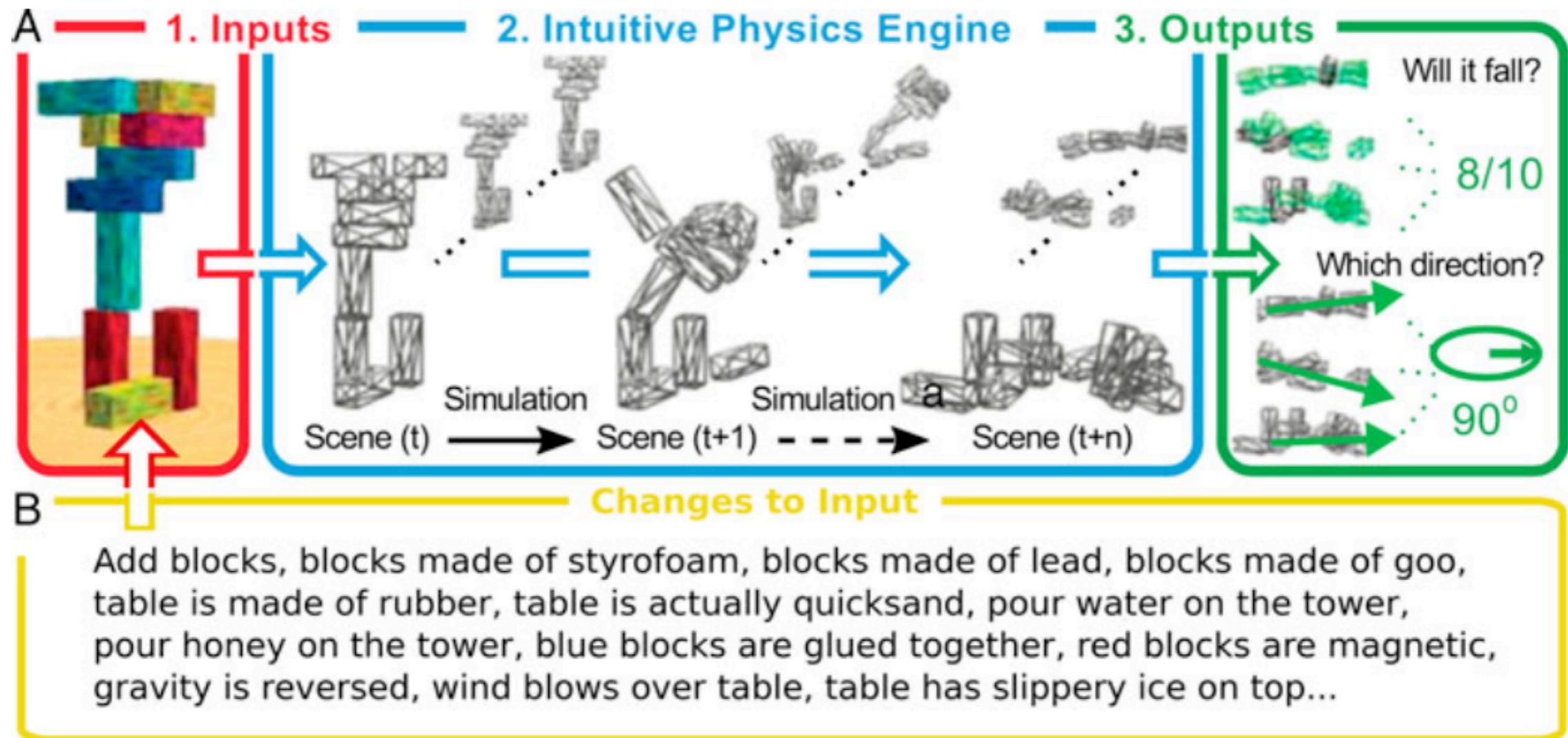


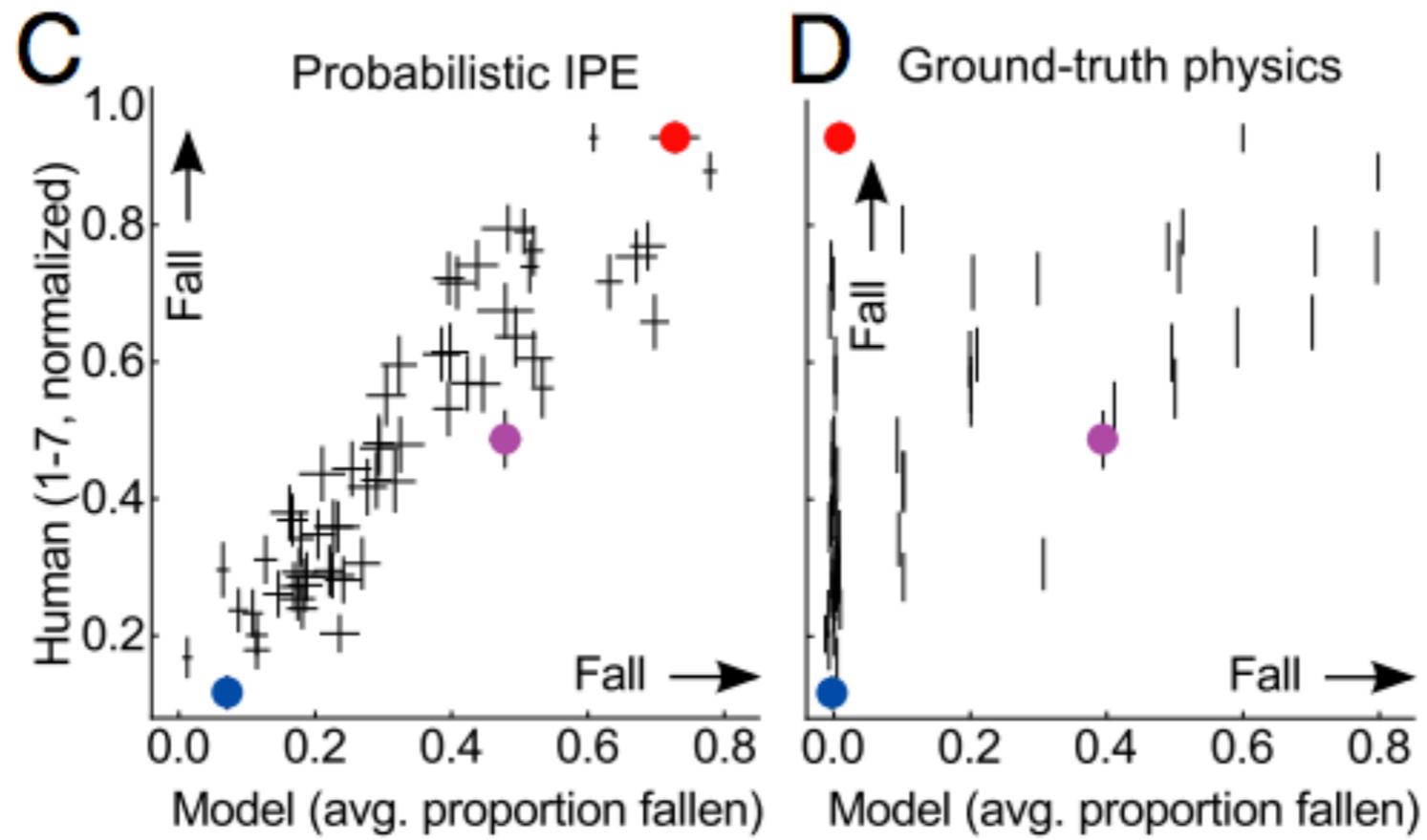
INTUITIVE PHYSICS



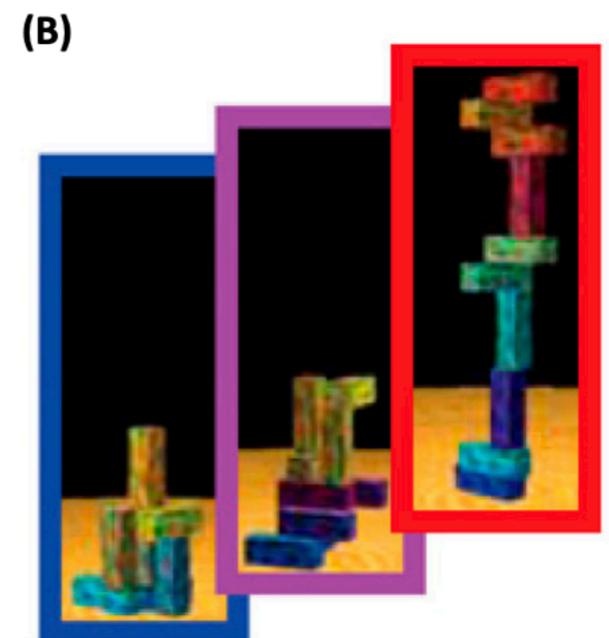
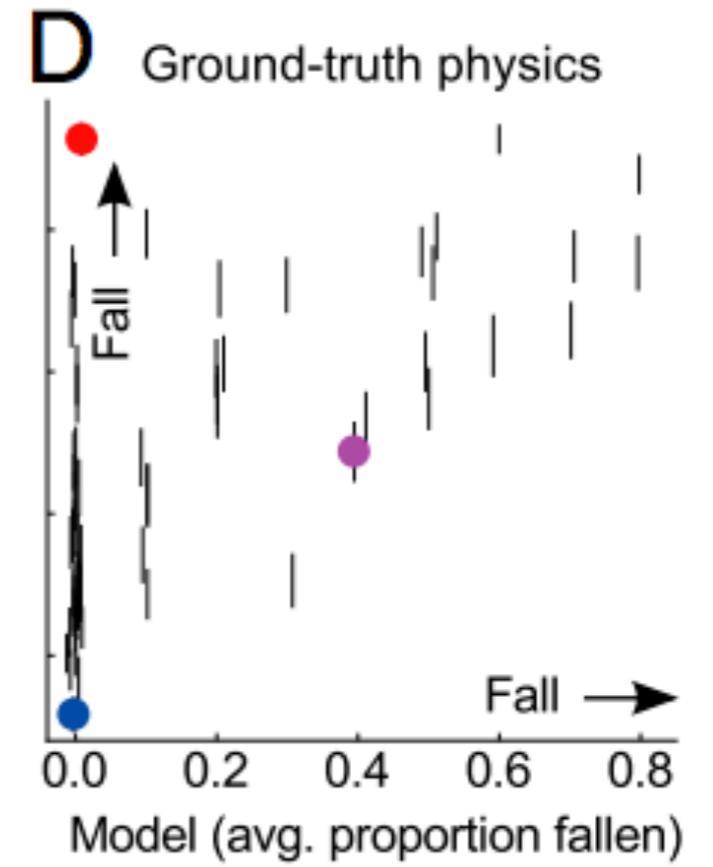
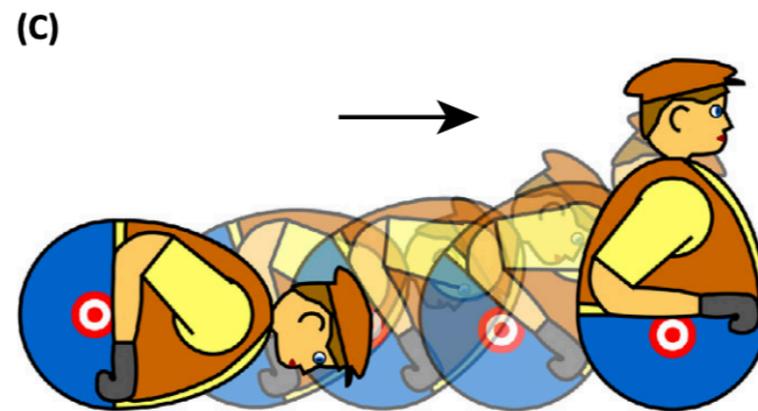
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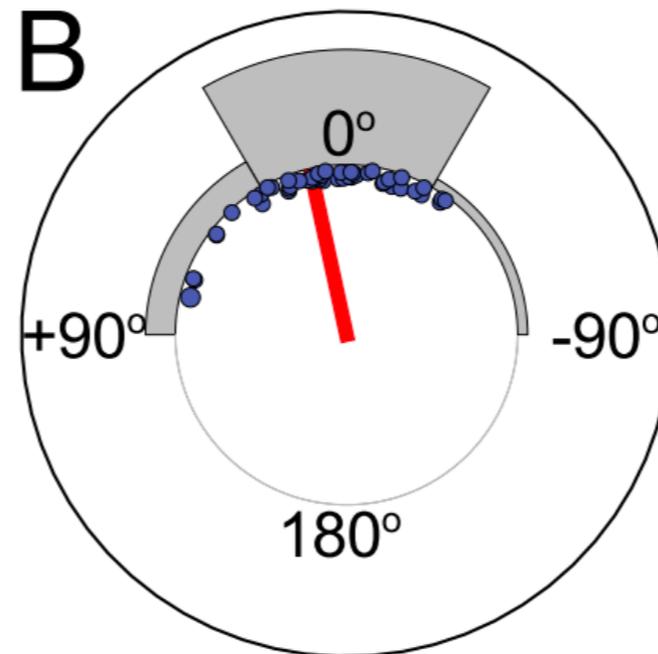
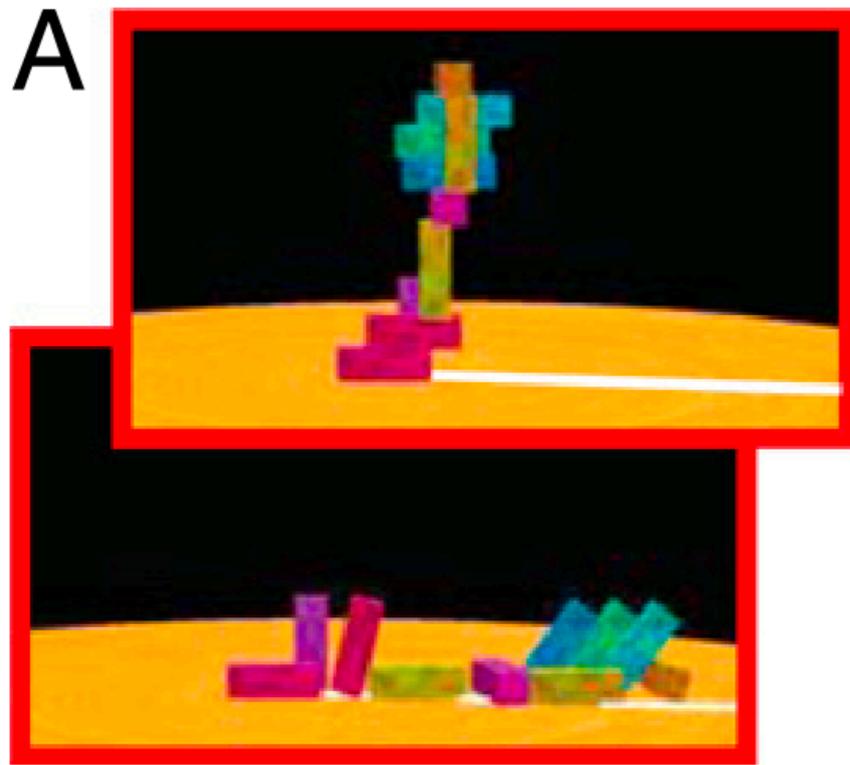




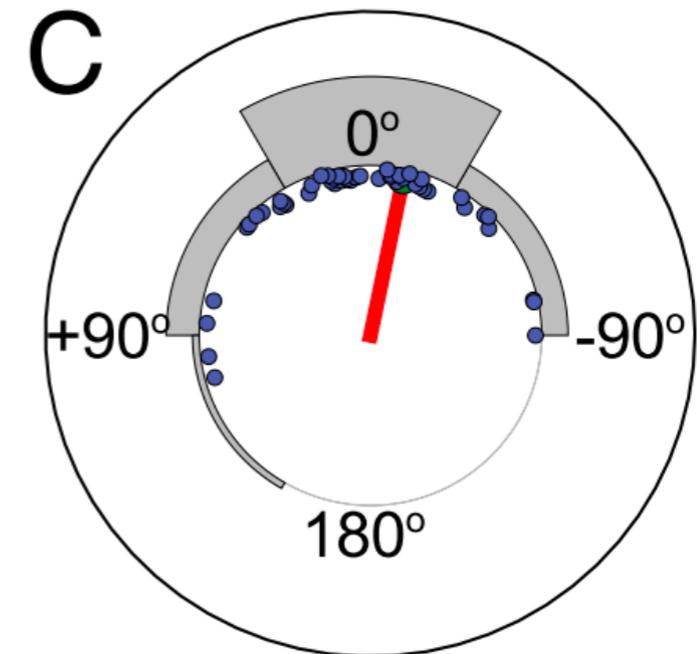
PHYSICAL ILLUSIONS



WHICH DIRECTION?



Difference between
model & human



Difference between
model & human

Graphical model example

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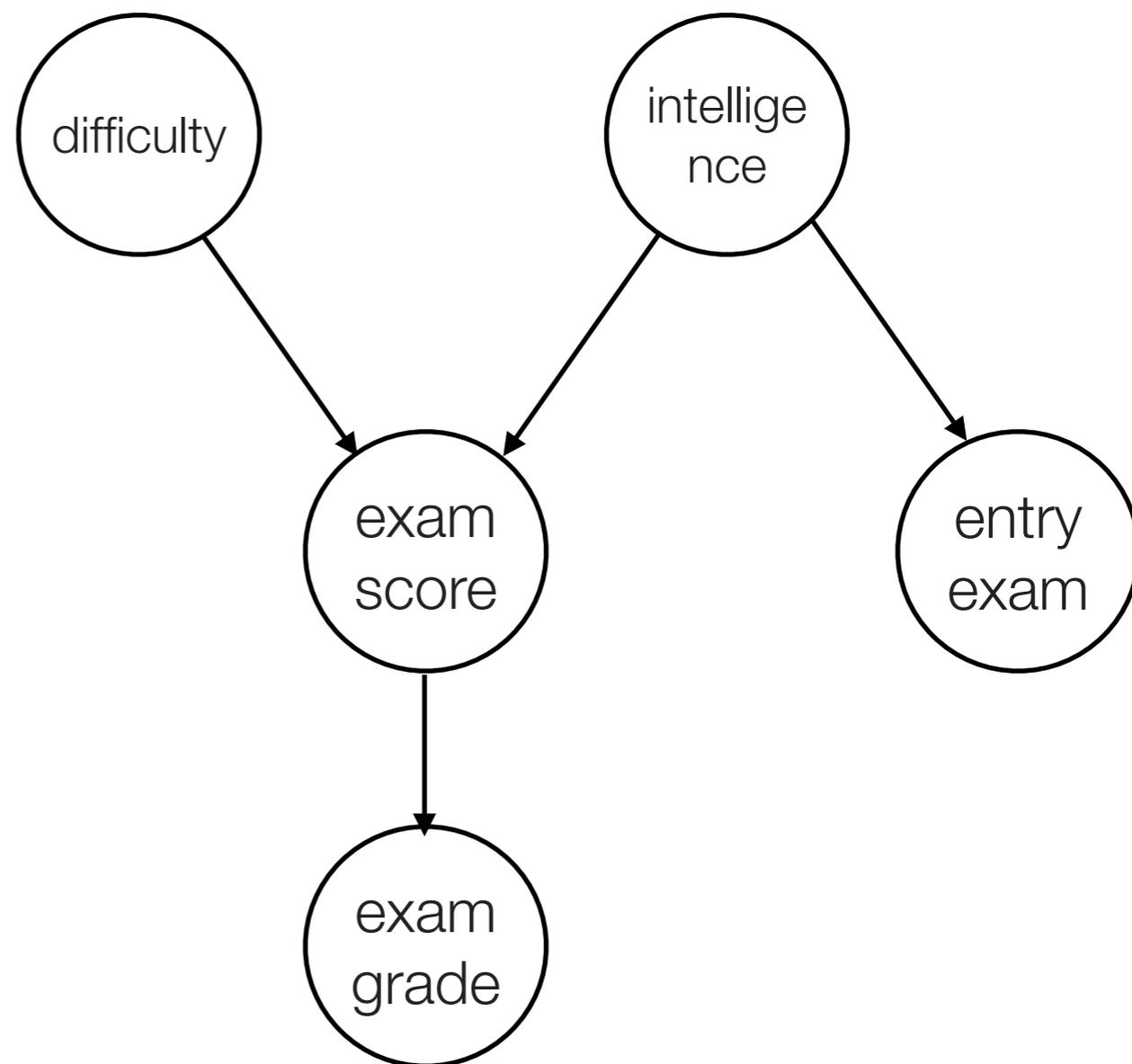
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 - exam difficulty (d)
 - intellectual capacity (i)
 - entry exam quality (y)
 - exam score obtained (s)
 - exam grade obtained (g)

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 $P(g, s, y, d, i)$

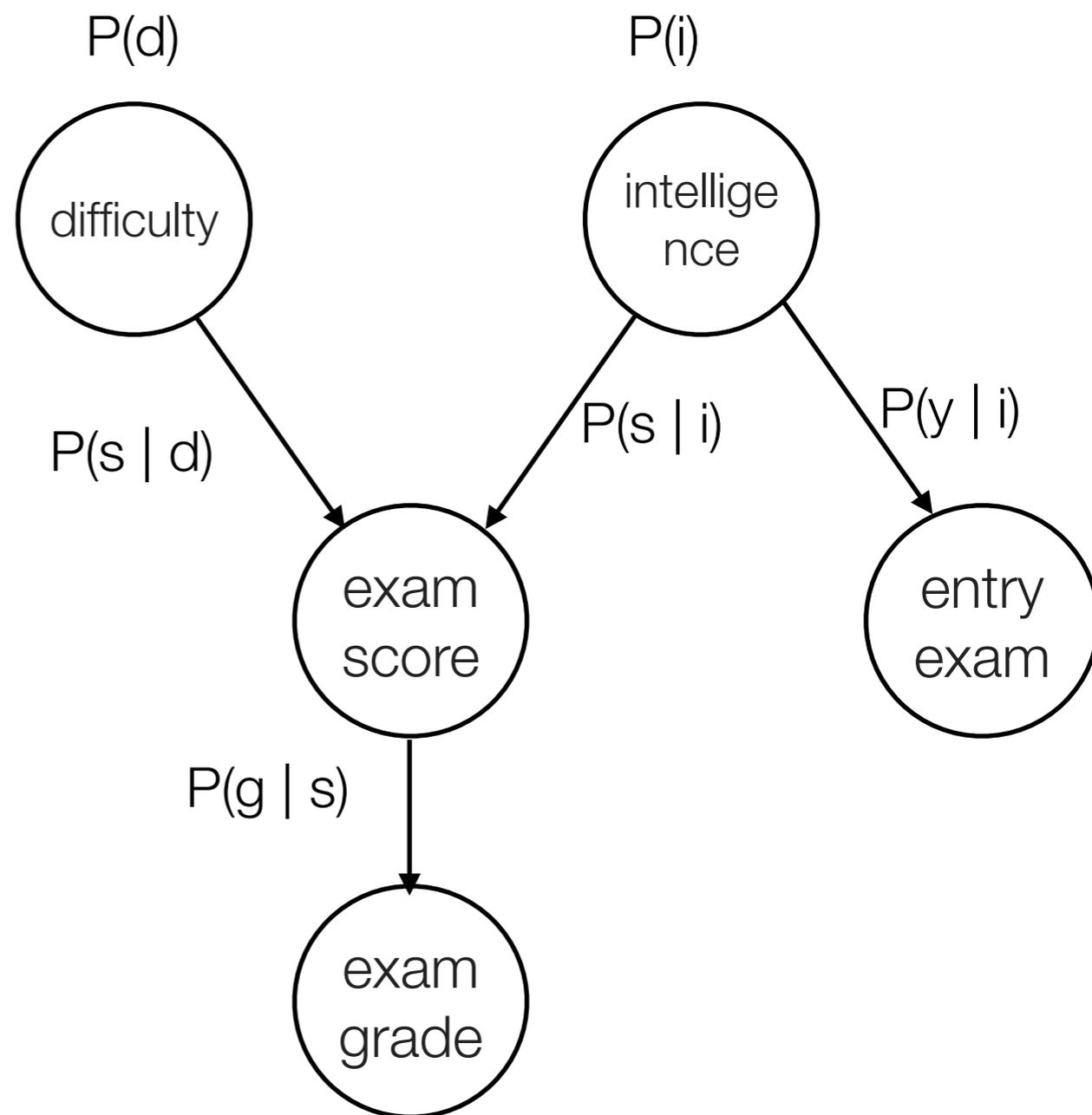
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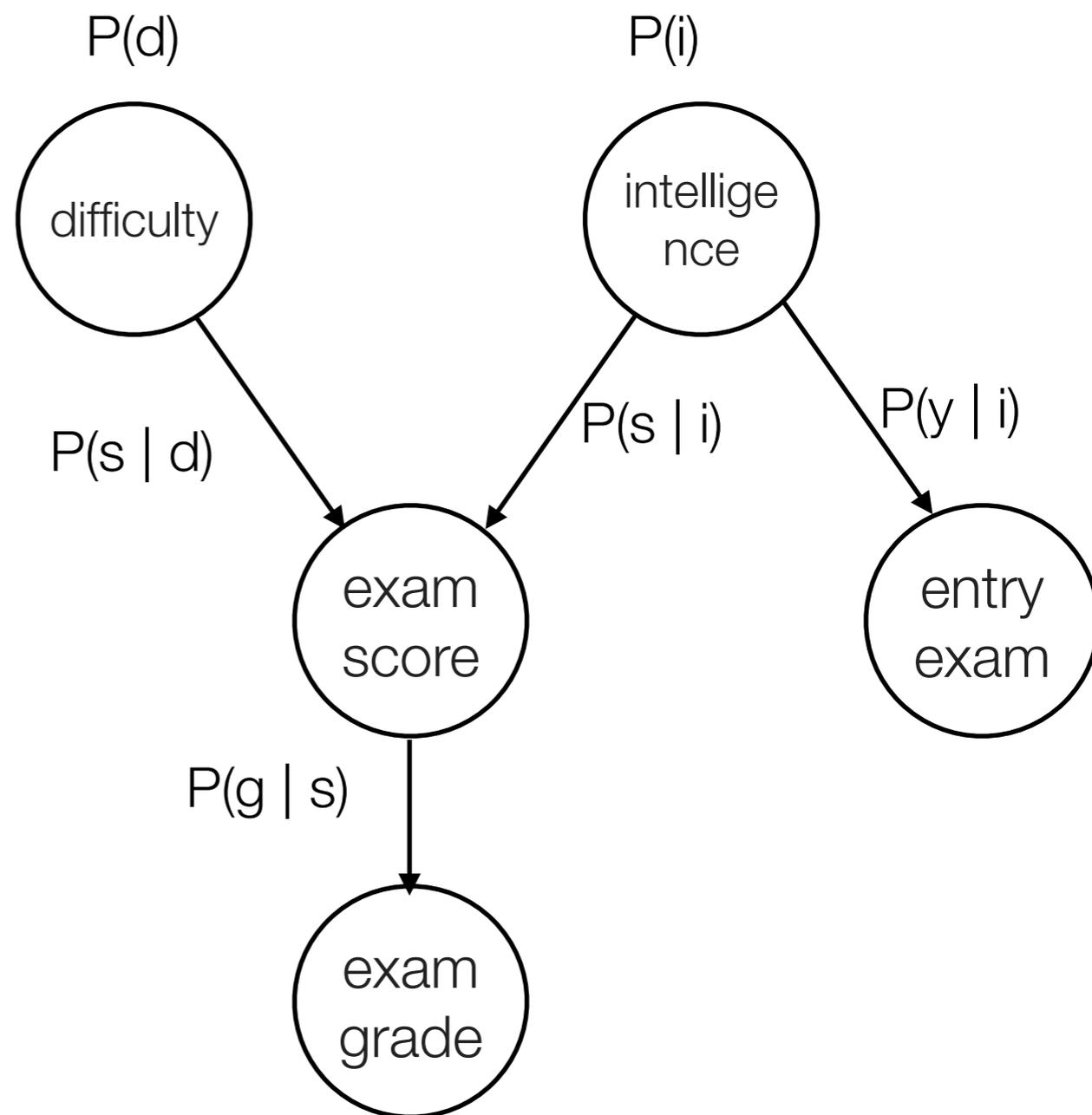
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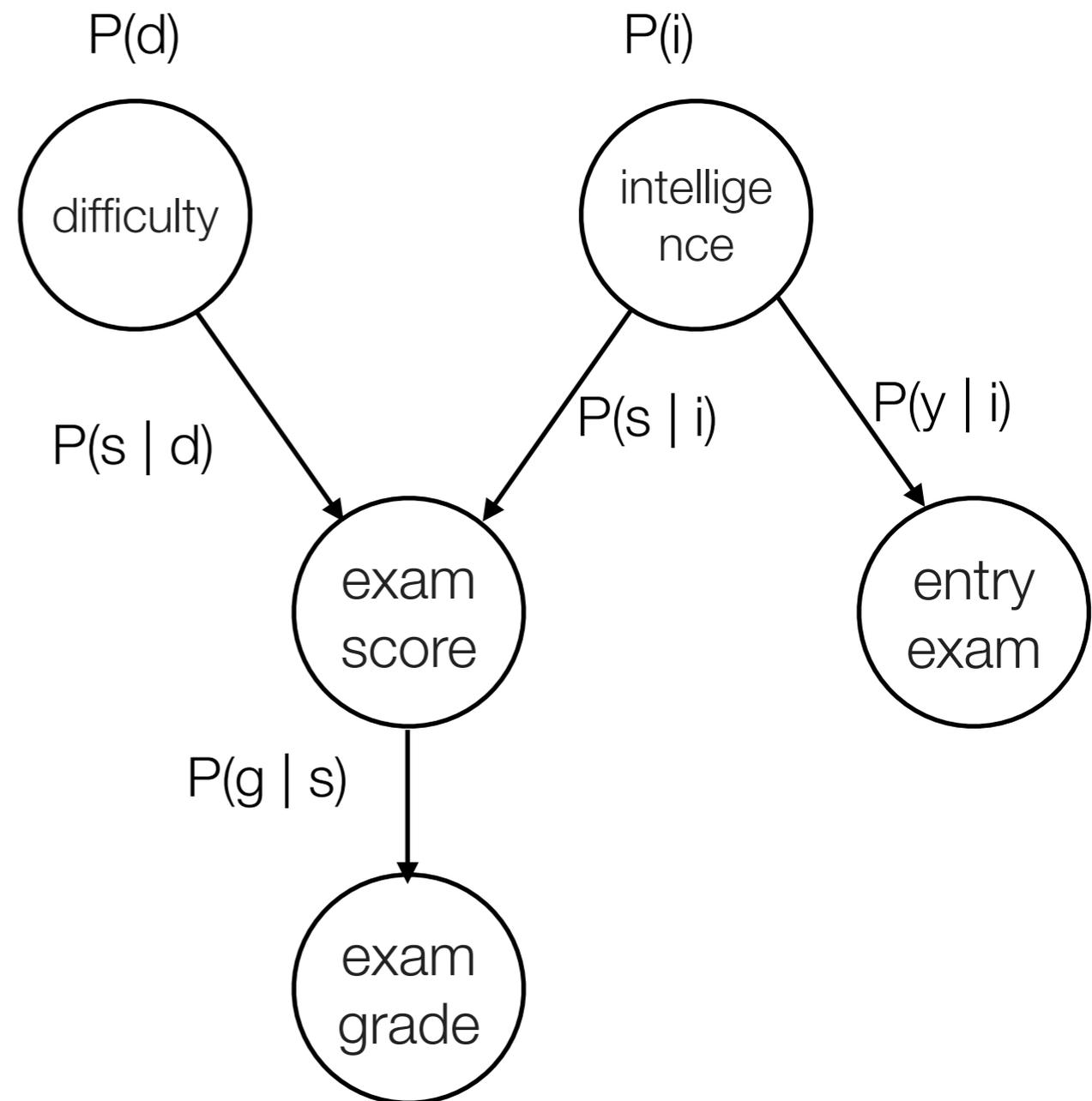
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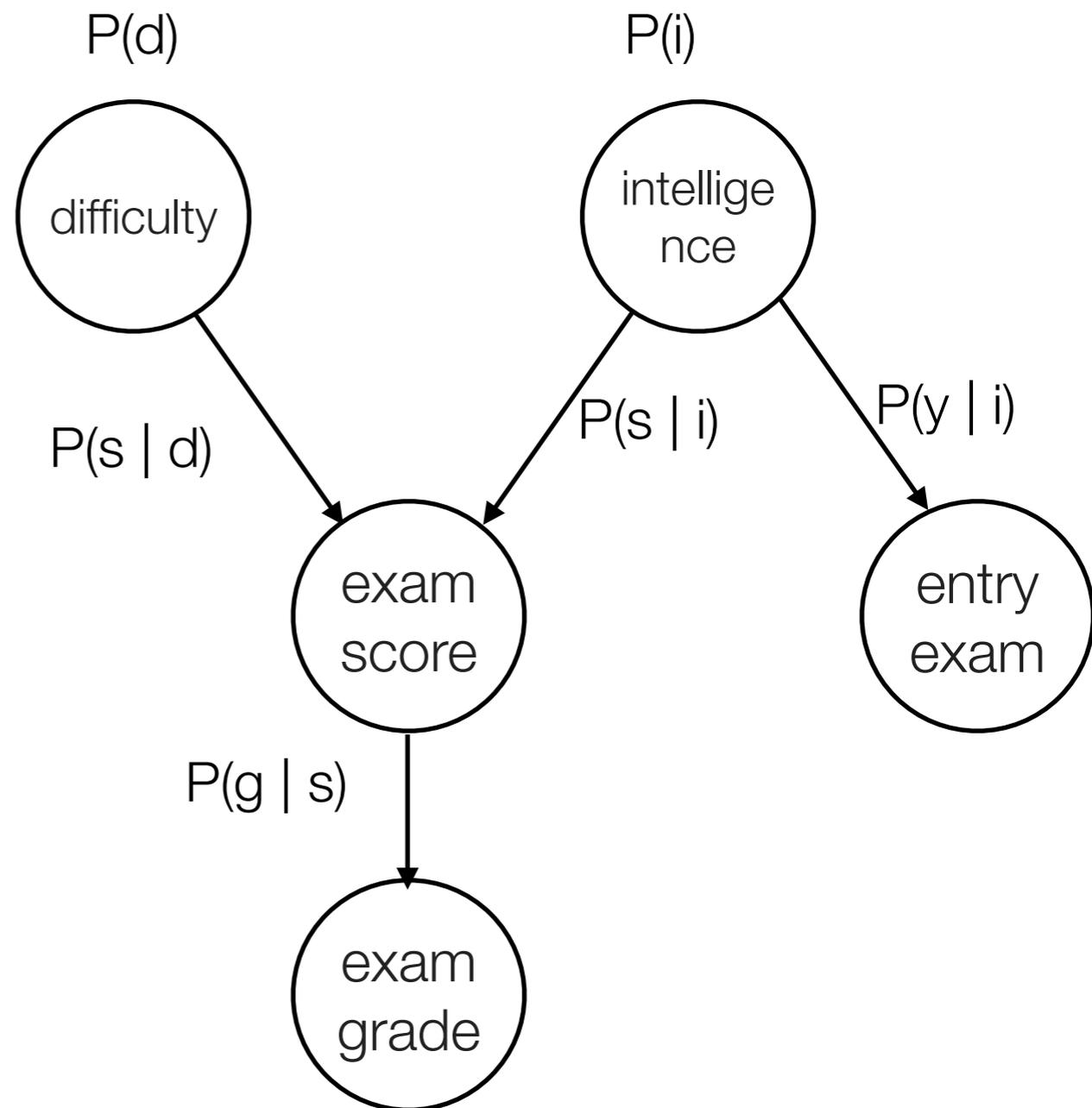
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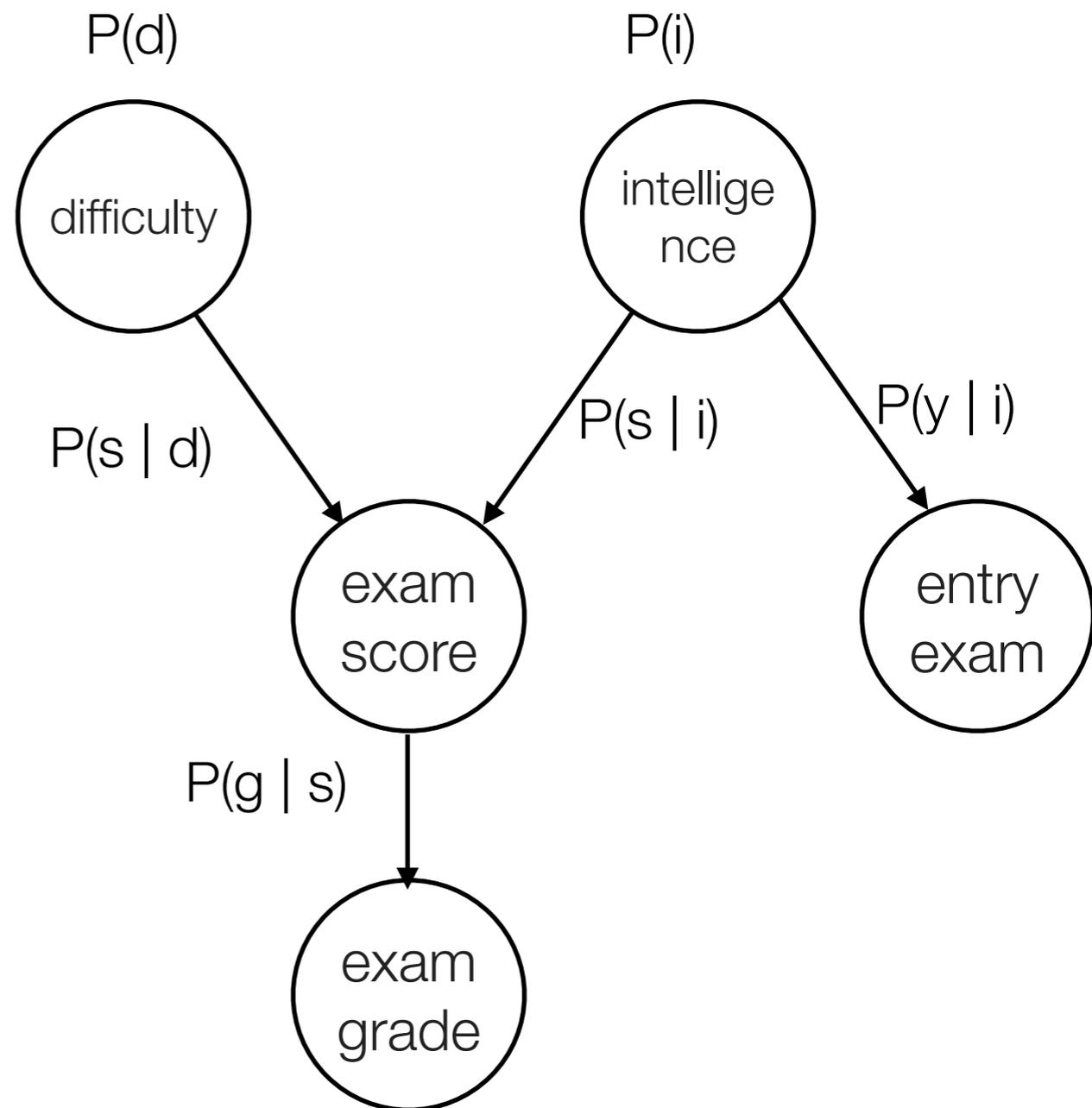
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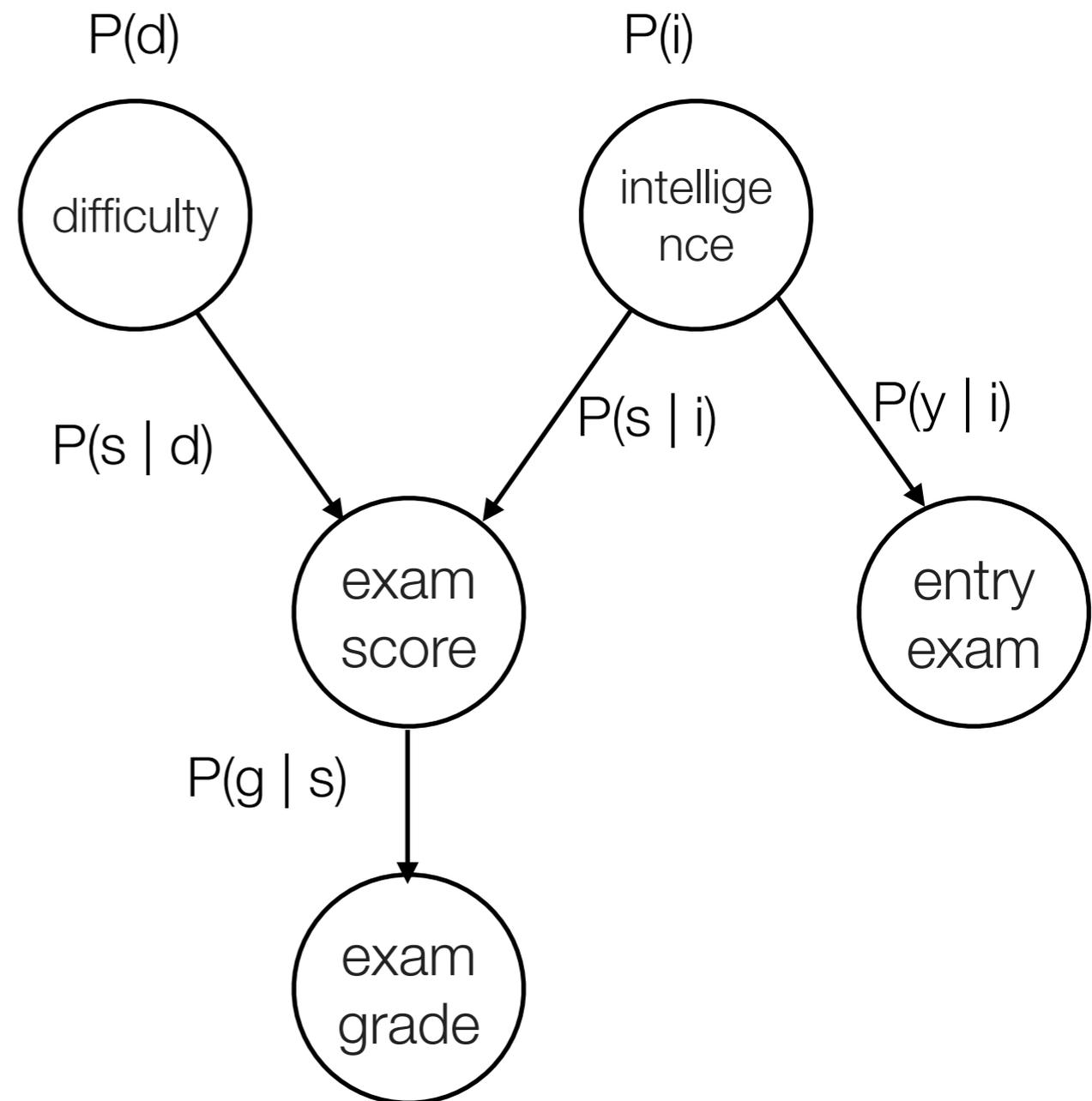
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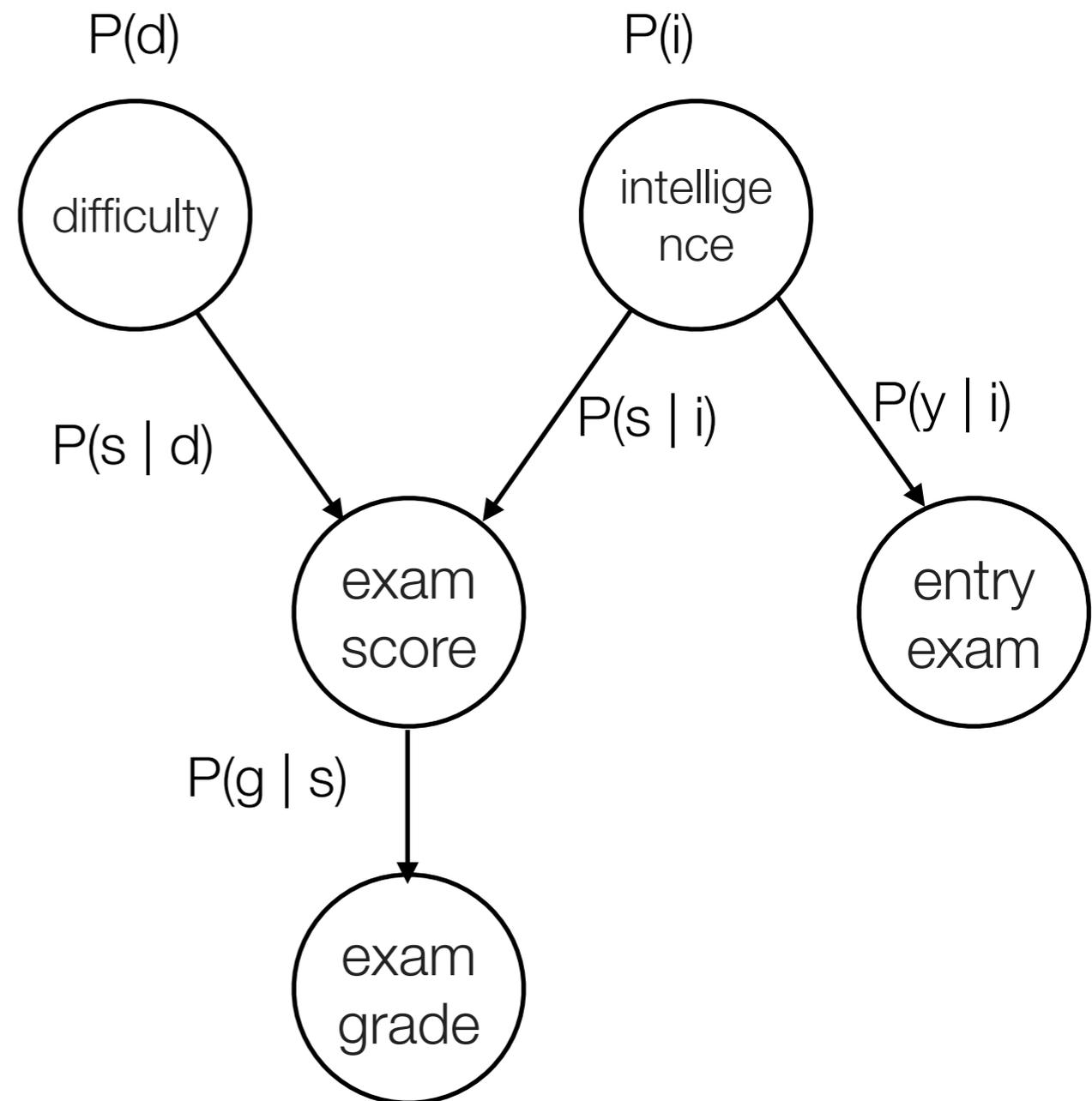
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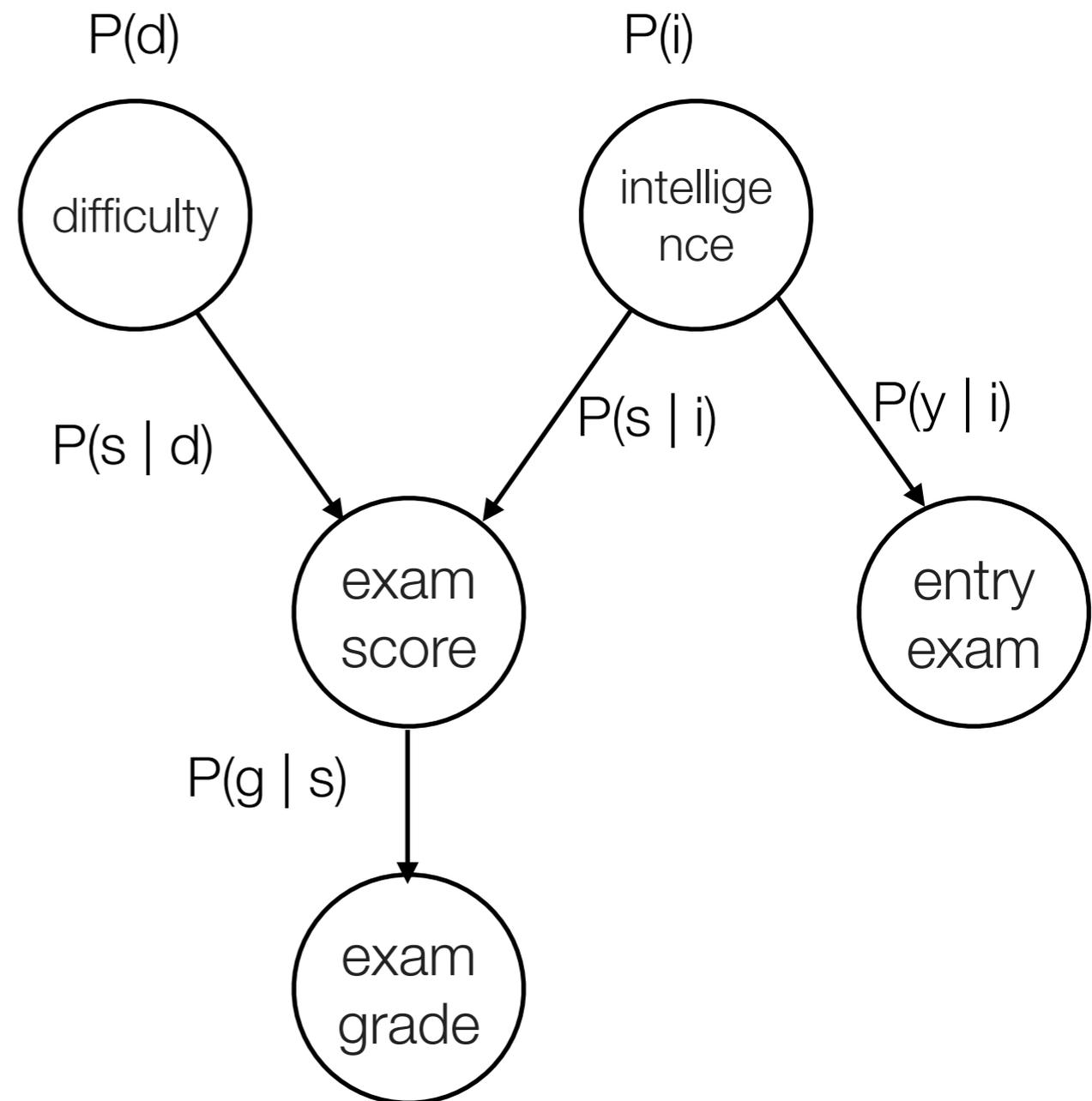
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Graphical models vs probability tables

Assignment The following probabilistic model is learned in Japan about occurrence of earthquakes, public radio announcements on tsunami alerts, and car alarms setting off

earthquake	radio announcement	alarm	P(E,R,A)
1	1	1	0.036
1	1	0	0.054
1	0	1	0.004
1	0	0	0.006
0	1	1	0.00045
0	1	0	0.00855
0	0	1	0.04455
0	0	0	0.84645

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We would like to answer the following questions:

*What is the probability of earthquakes to happen?

*Is the radio announcement independent of the alarm turning on?

*If not, can a conditional independence relationship be established?

*Can you write up a graphical model of this data?

*What are the parameters of the graphical model?

Application: Causal learning in infants

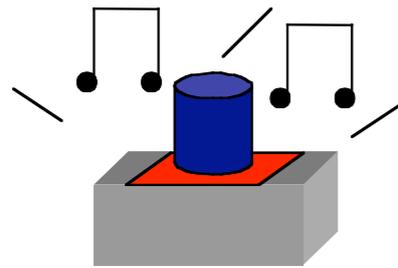
Gopnik et al (2004) Cog Sci

- Representation of causal structure is through graphical models (directed acyclic graphs, DAGs)
- Causal structure imply conditional independencies (causal Markov assumption)

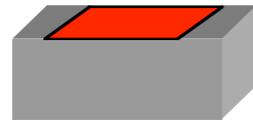
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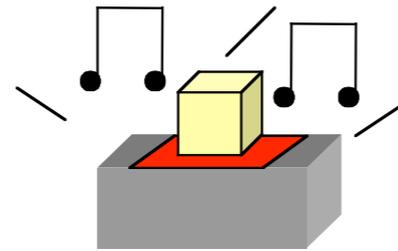
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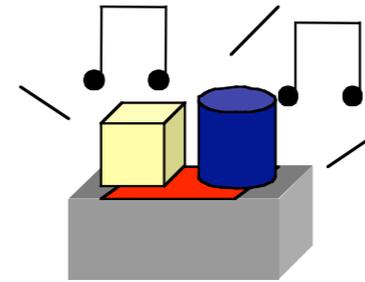
Object B is placed on the detector and the detector activates



Object B is removed. The detector stops activating



Object A is placed on the detector by itself and the detector activates

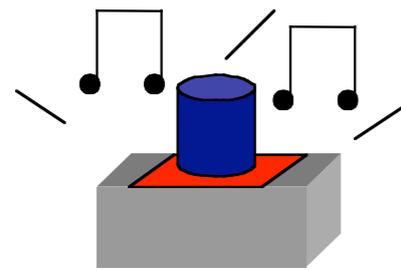


Object B is added to the detector with Object A. The detector continues to activate. Children are asked to make it stop

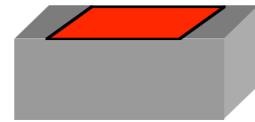
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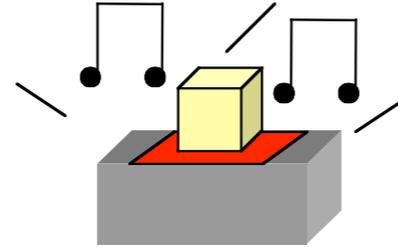
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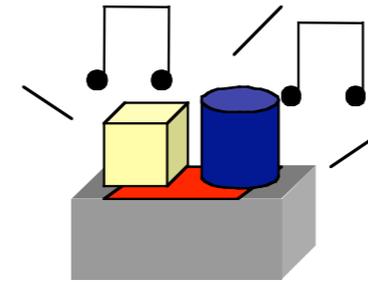
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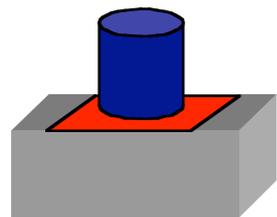
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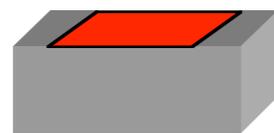
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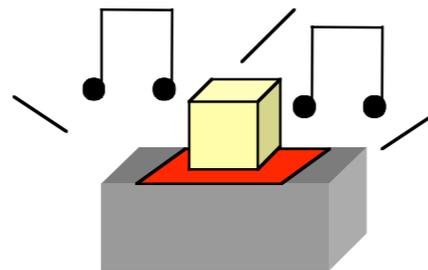
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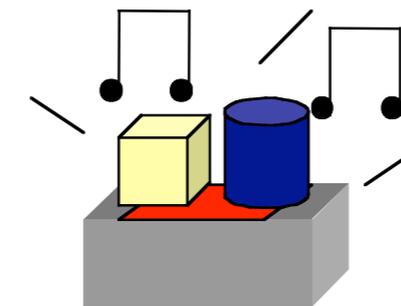
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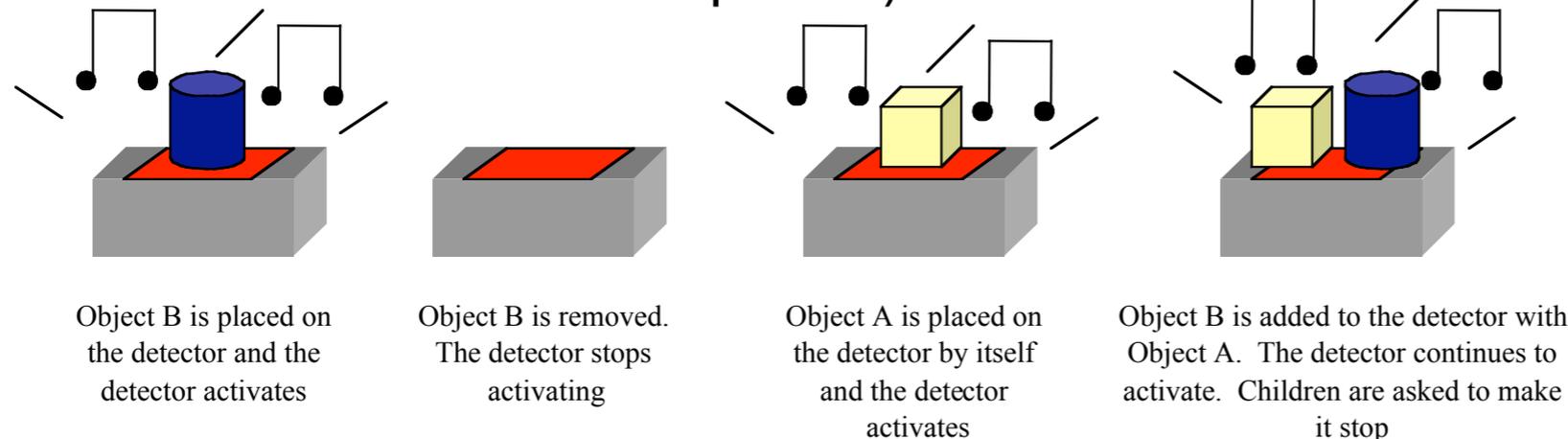
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Application: Causal learning in infants

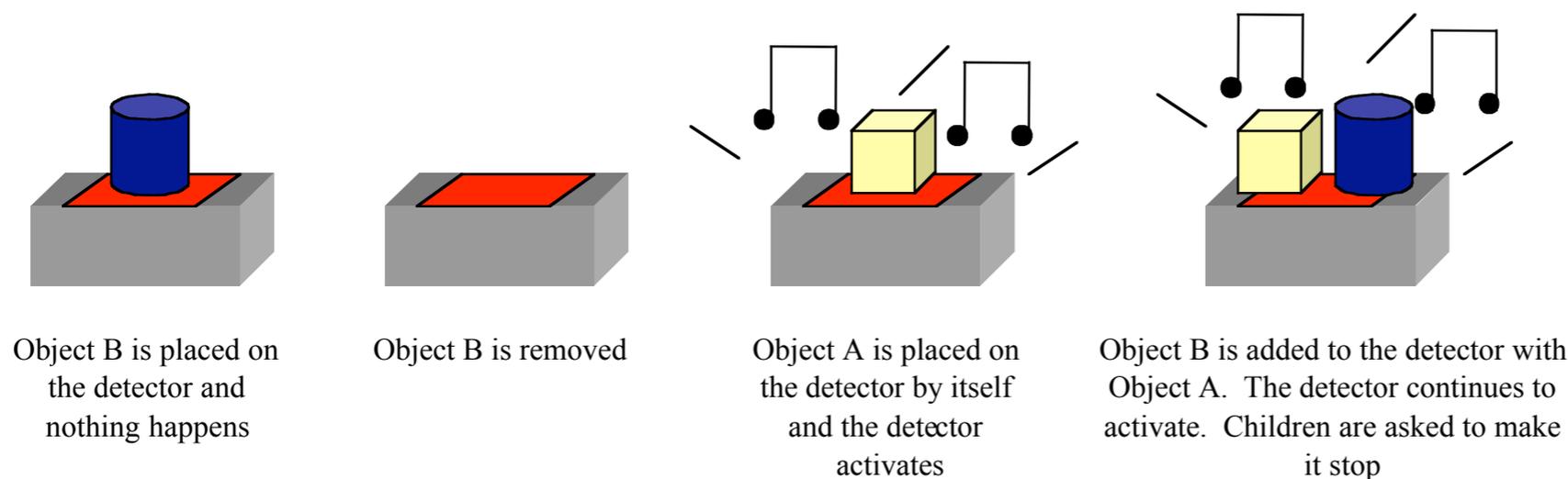
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hypothesis #1



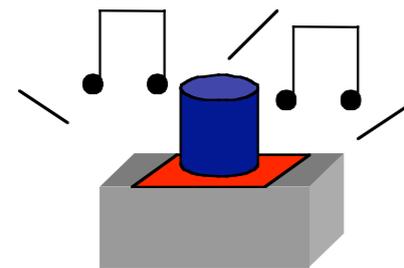
hypothesis #2



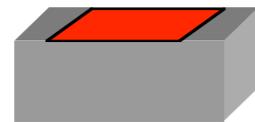
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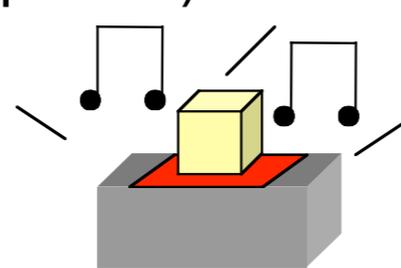
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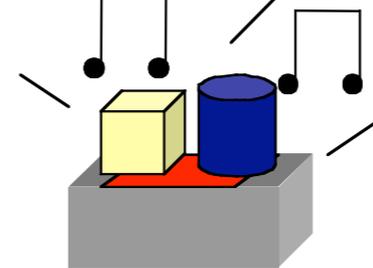
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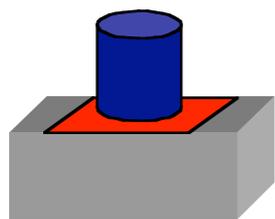
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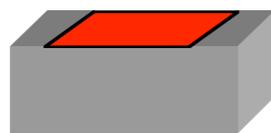
Object A is placed on the detector by itself and the detector activates



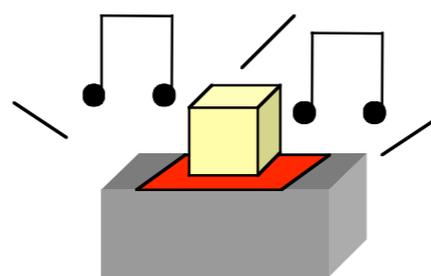
Object B is added to the detector with Object A. The detector continues to activate. Children are asked to make it stop



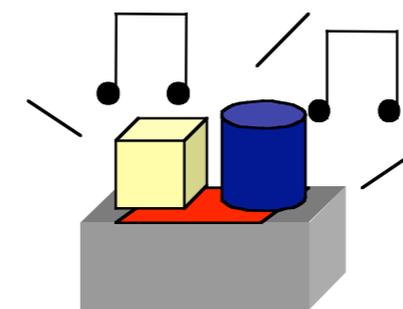
Object B is placed on the detector and nothing happens



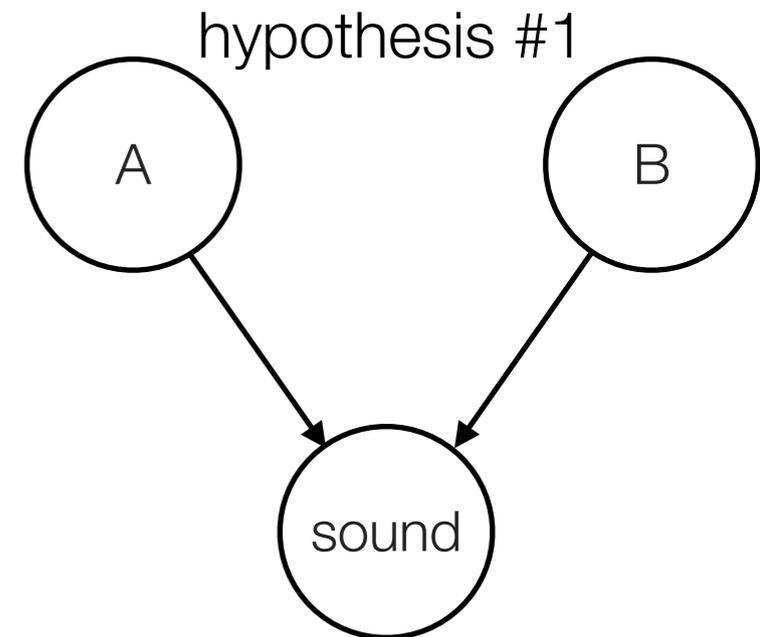
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Object A is placed on the detector by itself and the detector activates



Object B is added to the detector with Object A. The detector continues to activate. Children are asked to make it stop

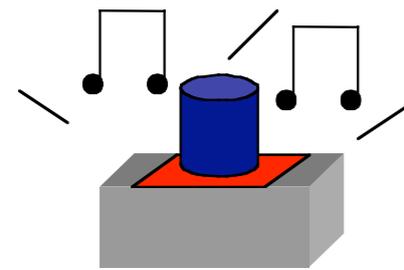


hypothesis #2

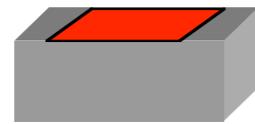
Application: Causal learning in infants

Gopnik et al (2004) Cog Sci

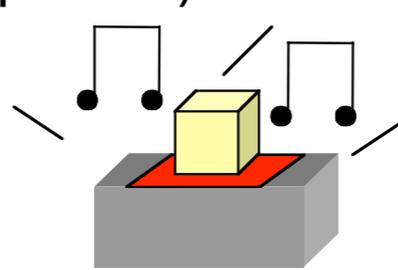
- Representation of causal structure is through graphical models (directed acyclic graphs, DAGs)
- Causal structure imply conditional independencies (causal Markov assumption)



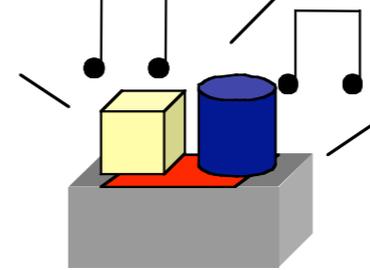
Object B is placed on the detector and the detector activates



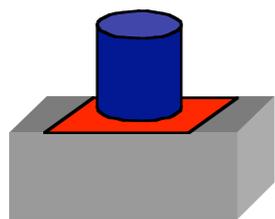
Object B is removed. The detector stops activating



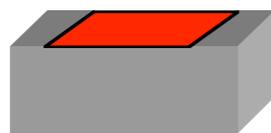
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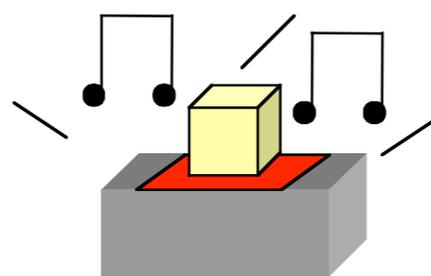
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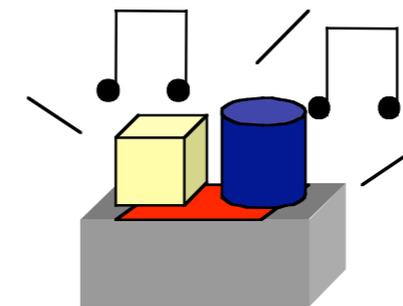
Object B is placed on the detector and nothing happens



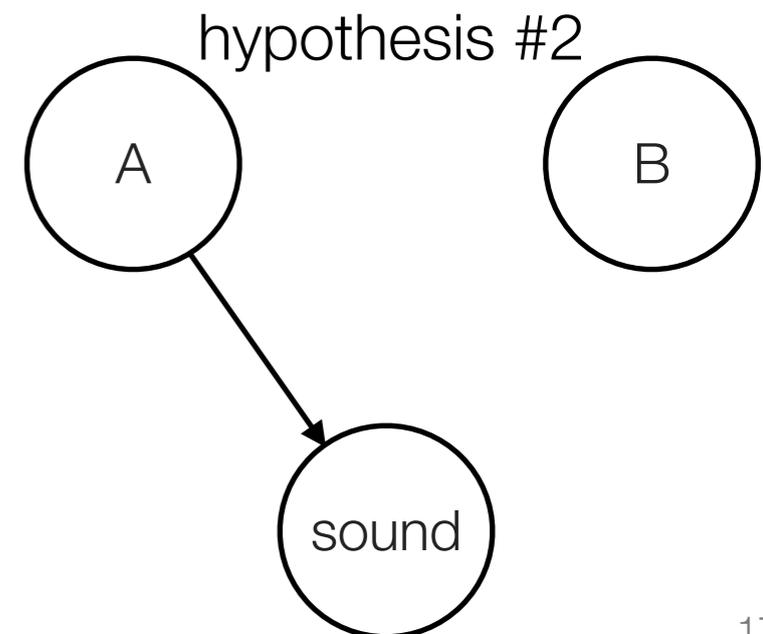
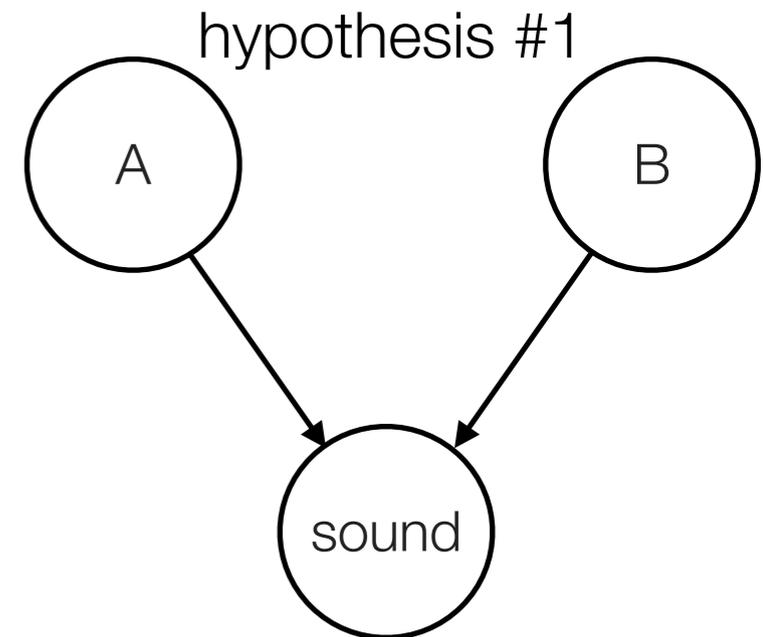
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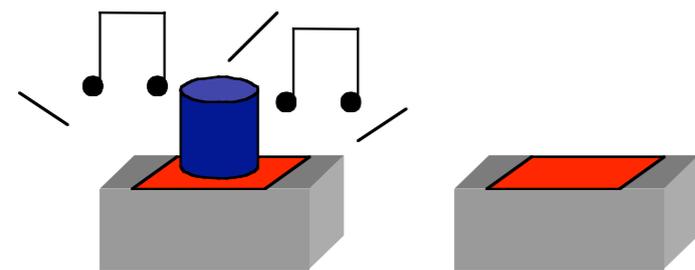
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Application: Causal learning in infants

Gopnik et al (2004) Cog Sci

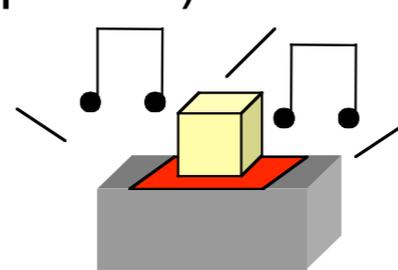
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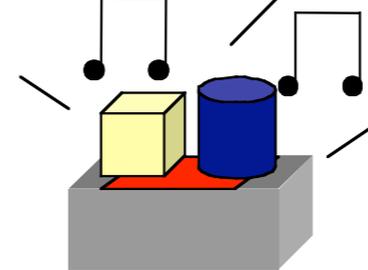
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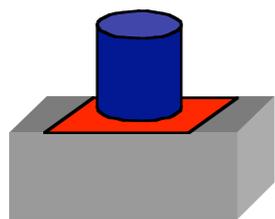
Object B is removed. The detector stops activating



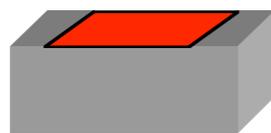
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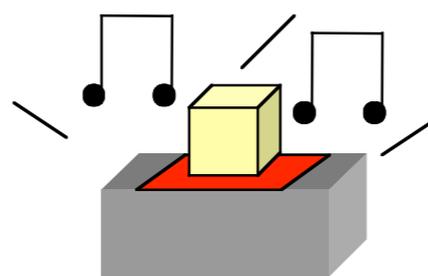
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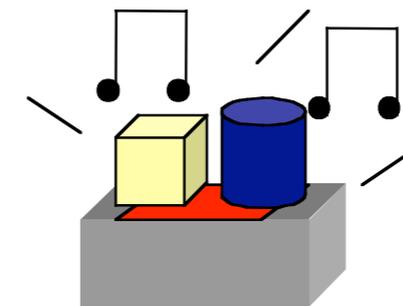
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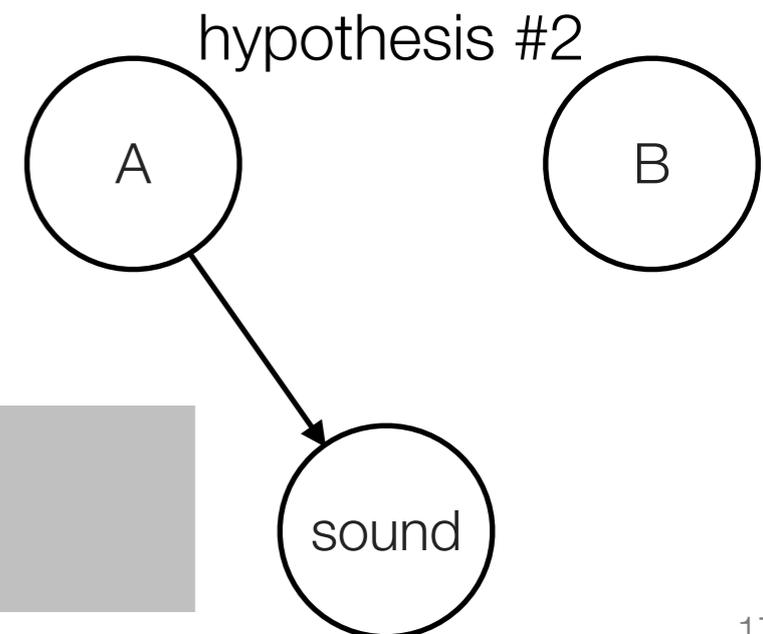
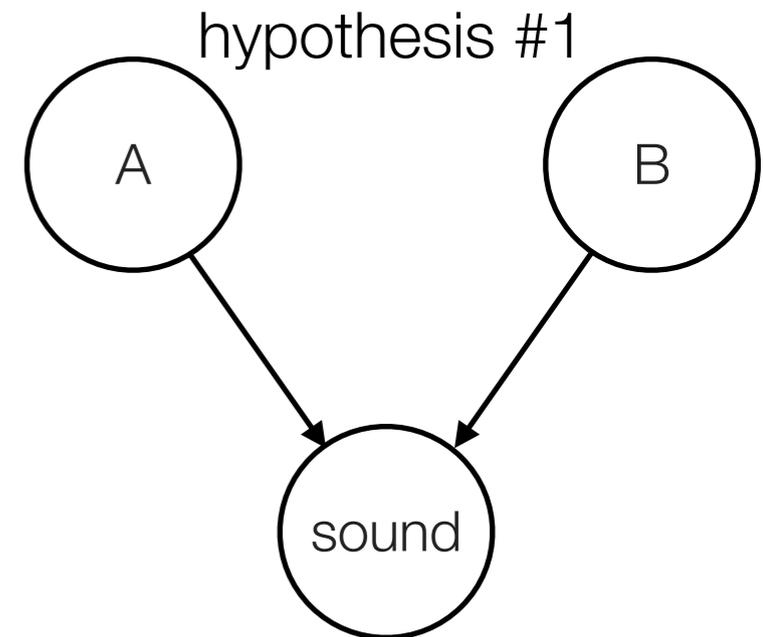
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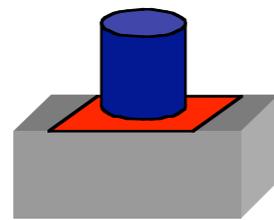
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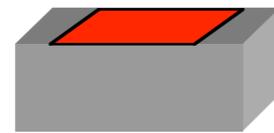
discovering causal structure → screening-off:
assessment of conditional probabilities

Application: Causal learning in infants

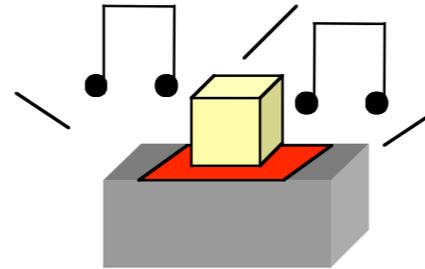
Gopnik et al (2004) Cog Sci



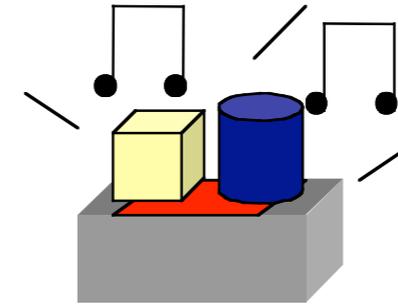
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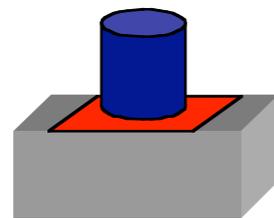


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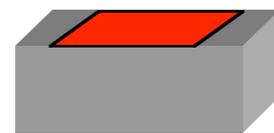
- A, B, S are correlated
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Application: Causal learning in infants

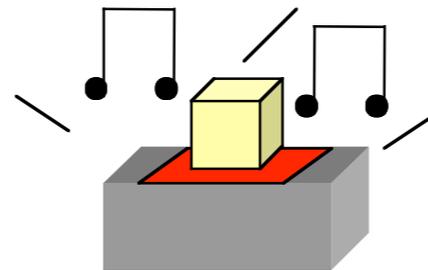
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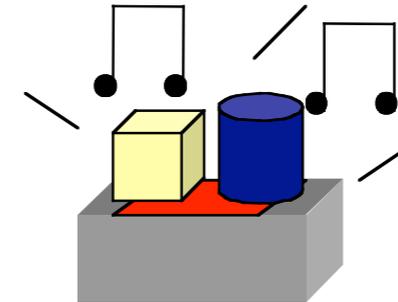
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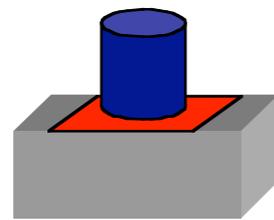


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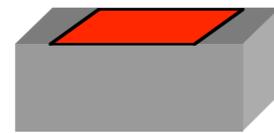
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Application: Causal learning in infants

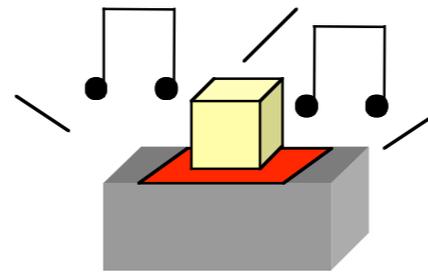
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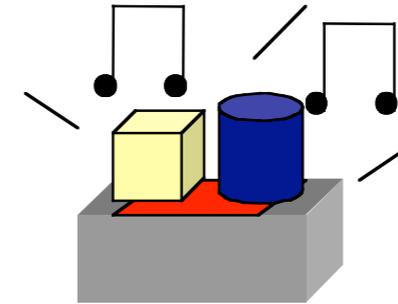
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associative accounts solely rely on this measurement (e.g. Rescola Wagner)

- A, B, S are correlated
- A & B are potential causes of S
- S is independent of B conditional on A
- S is not independent of A conditional on B
- A causes S and B does not

Assignment

- Mini-esszé: végezzetek kutatást Shepard Universal Law of Generalization kapcsán: miről szól ez, mennyire univerzális, milyen következményei vannak; s: mi köze a Bayes-i infrenciához? (hint: Tenenbaum & Griffiths)

Recap: Bayes rule

measurement and **inference**

Recap: Bayes rule

measurement and **inference**

measurement:

measuring the probability of coughing when having a flu or not

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$$P(\text{coughing} = 1 \mid \text{flu} = 1)$$

Recap: Bayes rule

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infer the (posterior) probability of a hypothesis

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what is the connection between the two quantities?

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remember: **multiplication rule:** $P(x, y) = P(x \mid y)P(y)$

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Bayes rule: ‘inverts’ a probabilistic relationship

Recap: Bayes rule

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Bayes rule: ‘inverts’ a probabilistic relationship

if the inferred variable is continuous, then the posterior assigns probabilities to all possible hypotheses

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0	Result
Tail: 1	

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result

0

Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result

0 0

Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result

0 0 0

Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result

0 0 0 1

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result

0 0 0 1 1

Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result

0 0 0 1 1 0

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result

0 0 0 1 1 0 1

Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result

0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result

0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result

0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0							

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
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Coin tossing: an example

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Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0					

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25				

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4			

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33		

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i x_i$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias								

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Variance of bias								

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$
$$\text{Var}(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \langle \vartheta \rangle)^2$$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias	0							

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Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias		0	0	.25				

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

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Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias		0	0	.25	.3			

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Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias		0	0	.25	.3	.26		

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

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Coin tossing: an example

Head:	0
Tail:	1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias		0	0	.25	.3	.26	.28	

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

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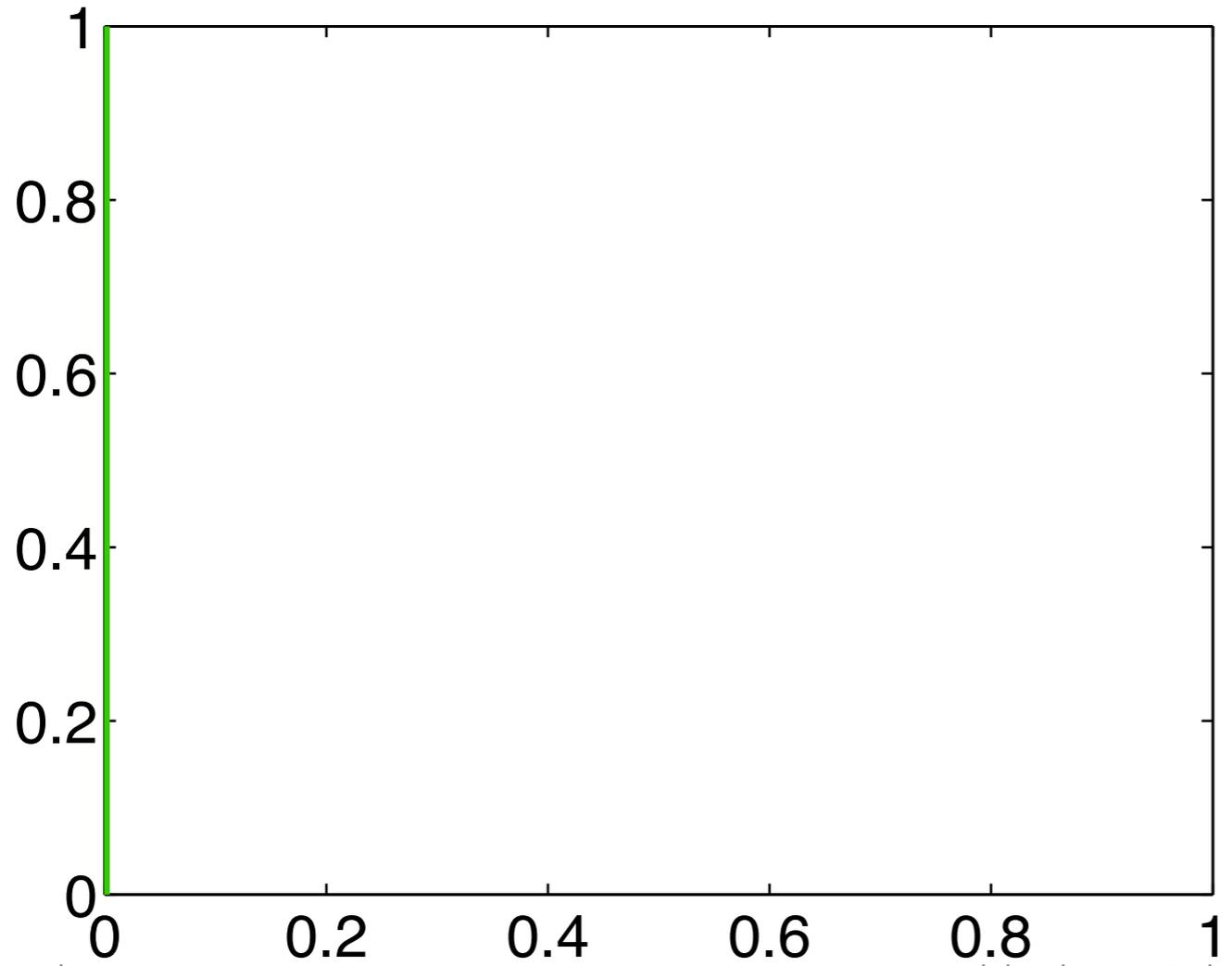
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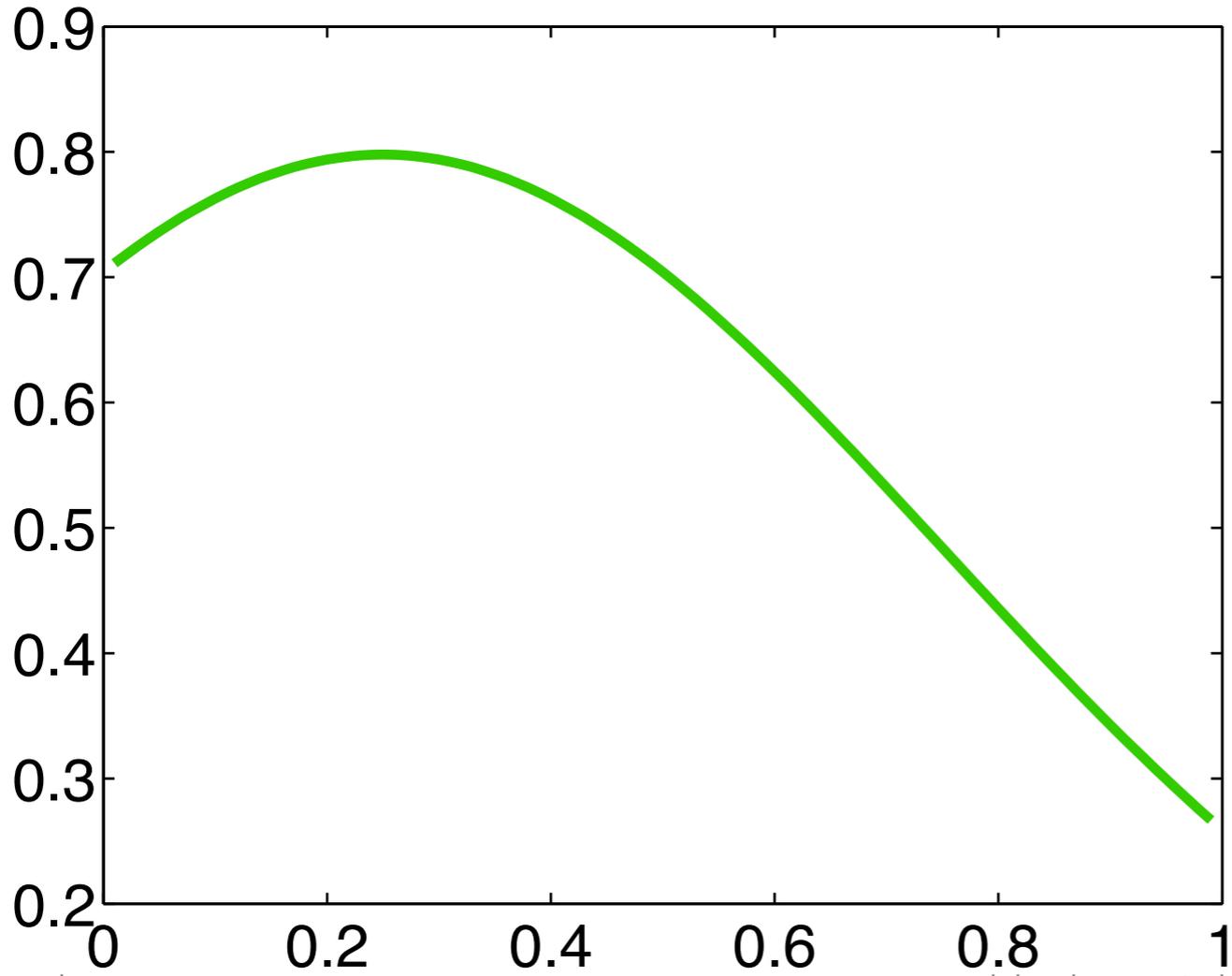
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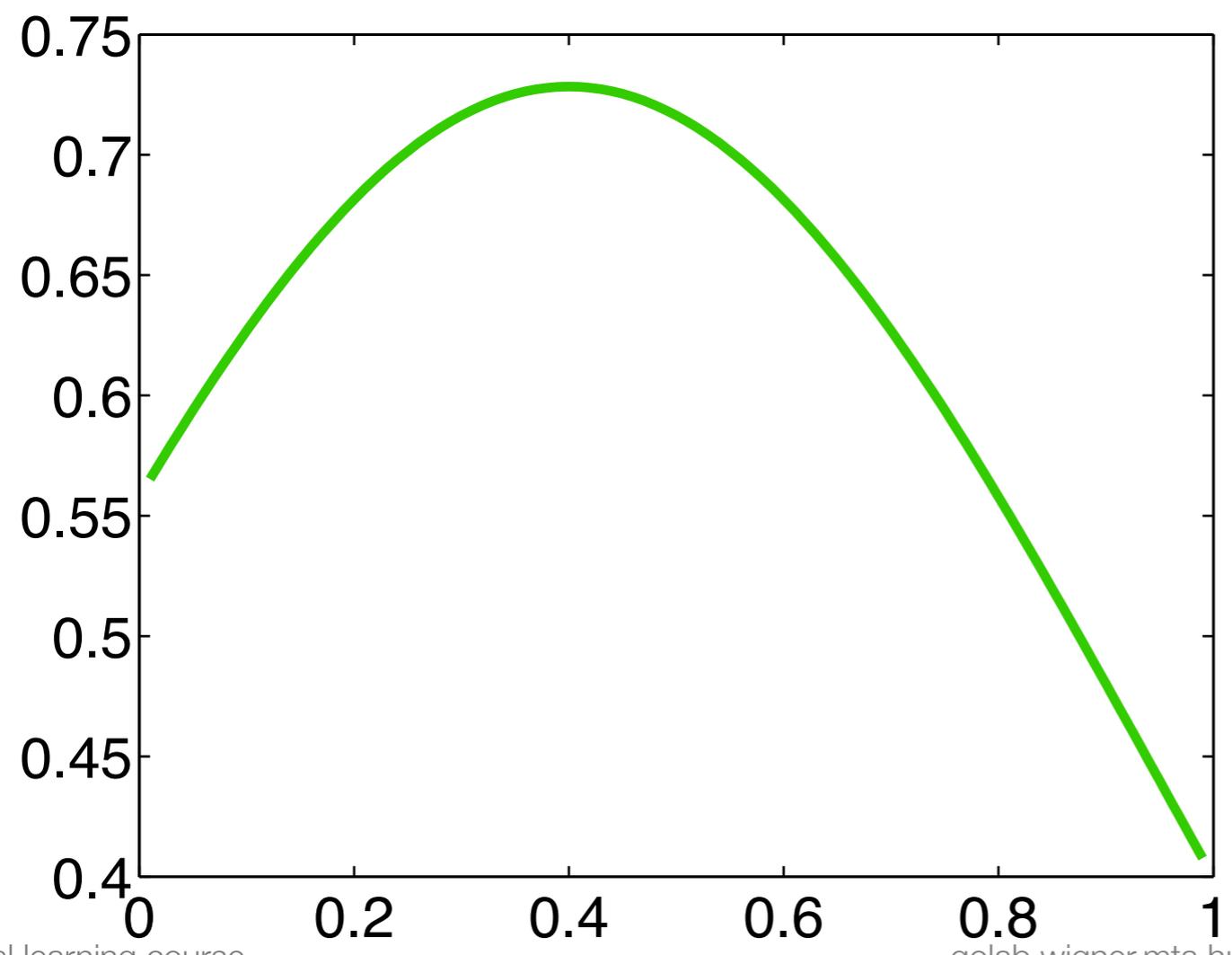
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Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
Variance of bias		0	0	.25	.3	.26	.28	

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

$$\text{Var}(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \langle \vartheta \rangle)^2$$



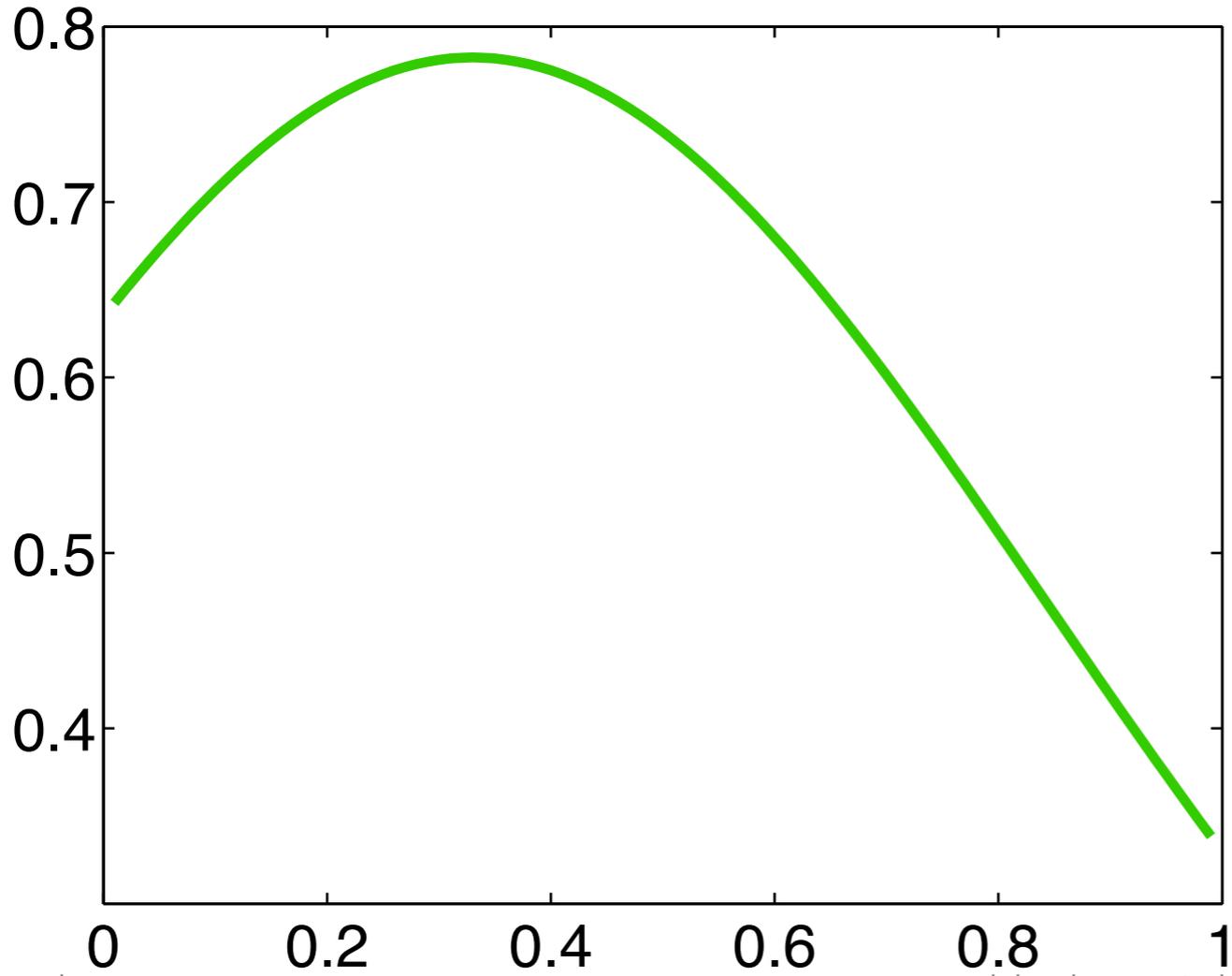
Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
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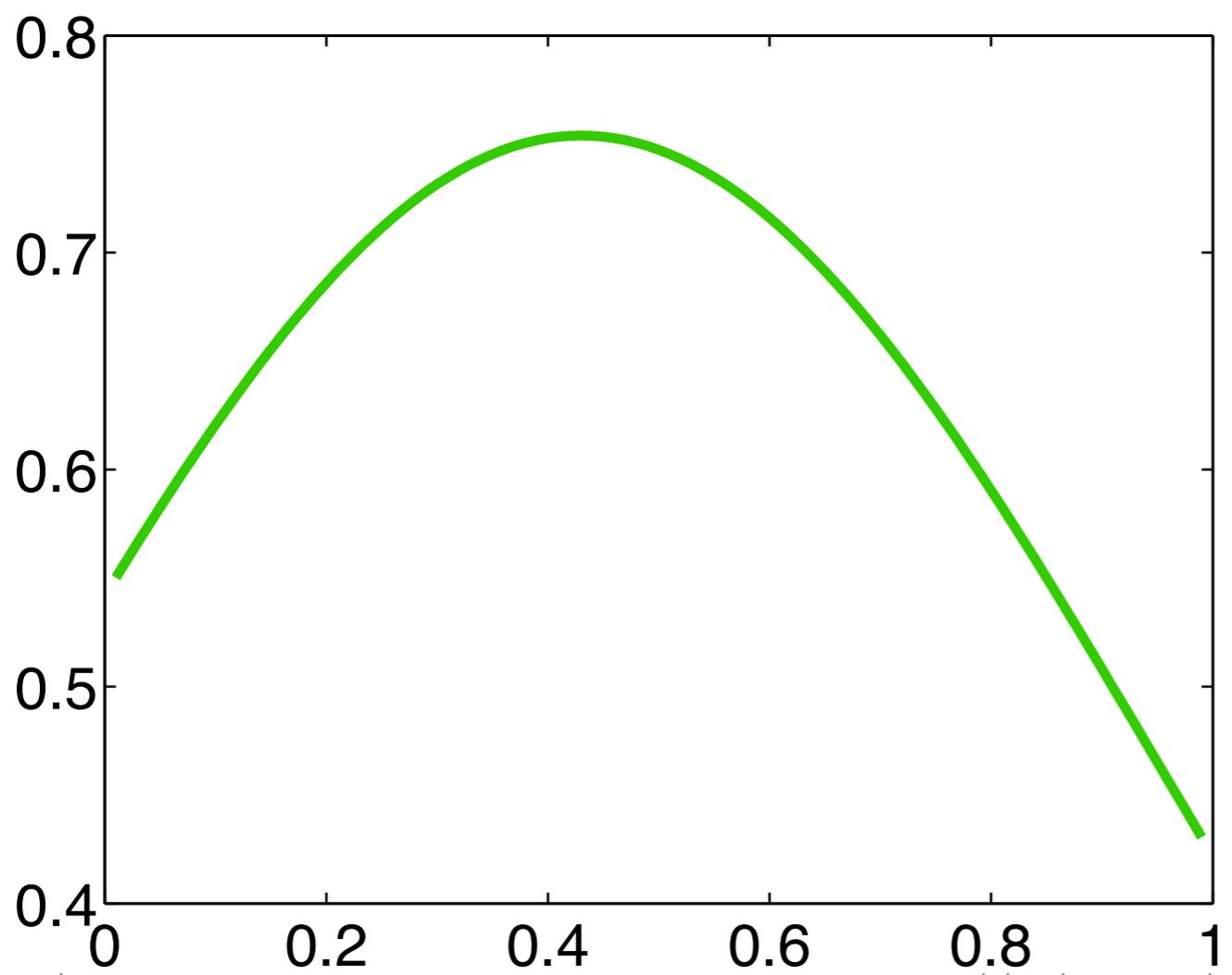
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Coin tossing: an example

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Tail:	1

Result	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	...
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Trial likelihood	$P(x \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta)$							

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Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

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Coin tossing: an example

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Trial likelihood

Data likelihood

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Coin tossing: an example

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Trial likelihood $P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$

Data likelihood $P(\text{data}|\vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t|\vartheta)$

Coin tossing: an example

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Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

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Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data}|\vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t|\vartheta)$$

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Is this the important quantity?

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

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Data likelihood

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Is this the important quantity? $P(\vartheta|\text{data})$

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
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Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

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Trial likelihood

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Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta|\text{data}) = P(\text{data}|\vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

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Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta|\text{data}) = P(\text{data}|\vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

Coin tossing: an example

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Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta|\text{data}) = P(\text{data}|\vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

Posterior

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data}|\vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t|\vartheta)$$

$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

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Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta|\text{data}) = P(\text{data}|\vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

Posterior

Likelihood

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data}|\vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t|\vartheta)$$

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Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta|\text{data}) = P(\text{data}|\vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

Posterior

Likelihood

Prior

Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

Estimated bias 0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43

Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data}|\vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t|\vartheta)$$

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Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

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Tail: 1

Result 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...

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$$P(\vartheta | \text{data}) = P(\text{data} | \vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

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$$P(\vartheta | \text{data}) = \text{Beta}\left(\vartheta; \alpha^{(t)}, \beta^{(t)}\right)$$

$$\alpha^{(t)} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^t x_i$$

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Estimated bias	0	0	0	.25	.4	.33	.43	
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$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

$$\text{Var}(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum (x_i - \langle \vartheta \rangle)^2$$

Trial likelihood
Data likelihood

conjugate prior

$$P(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

$$P(x_t | \vartheta)$$

Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta | \text{data}) = P(\text{data} | \vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$

$$P(\vartheta) = \text{Beta}(\vartheta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \vartheta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \vartheta)^{\beta-1}$$

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Trial likelihood

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Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data} | \vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t | \vartheta)$$

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Bayes rule

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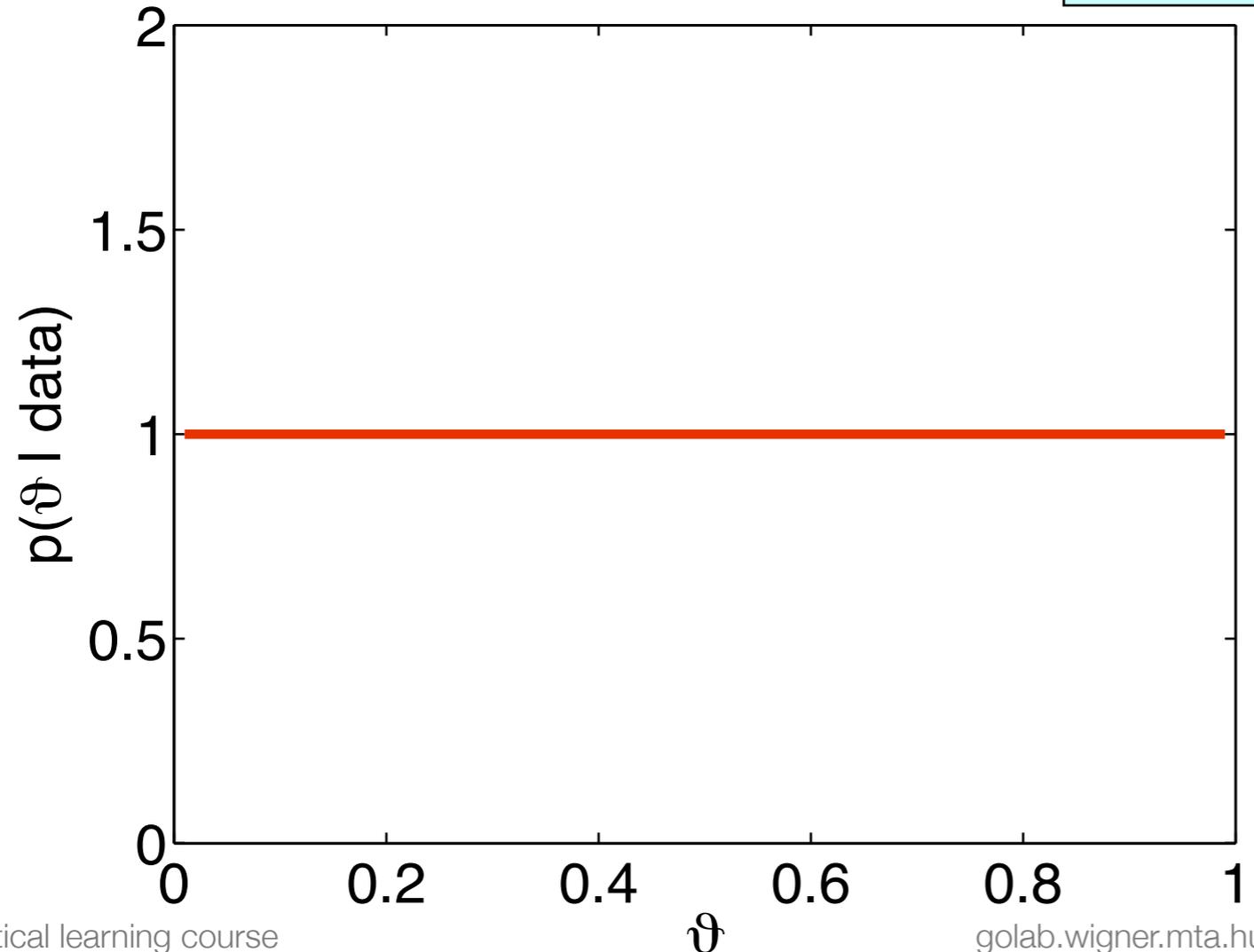
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Bayes rule

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Coin tossing: an example

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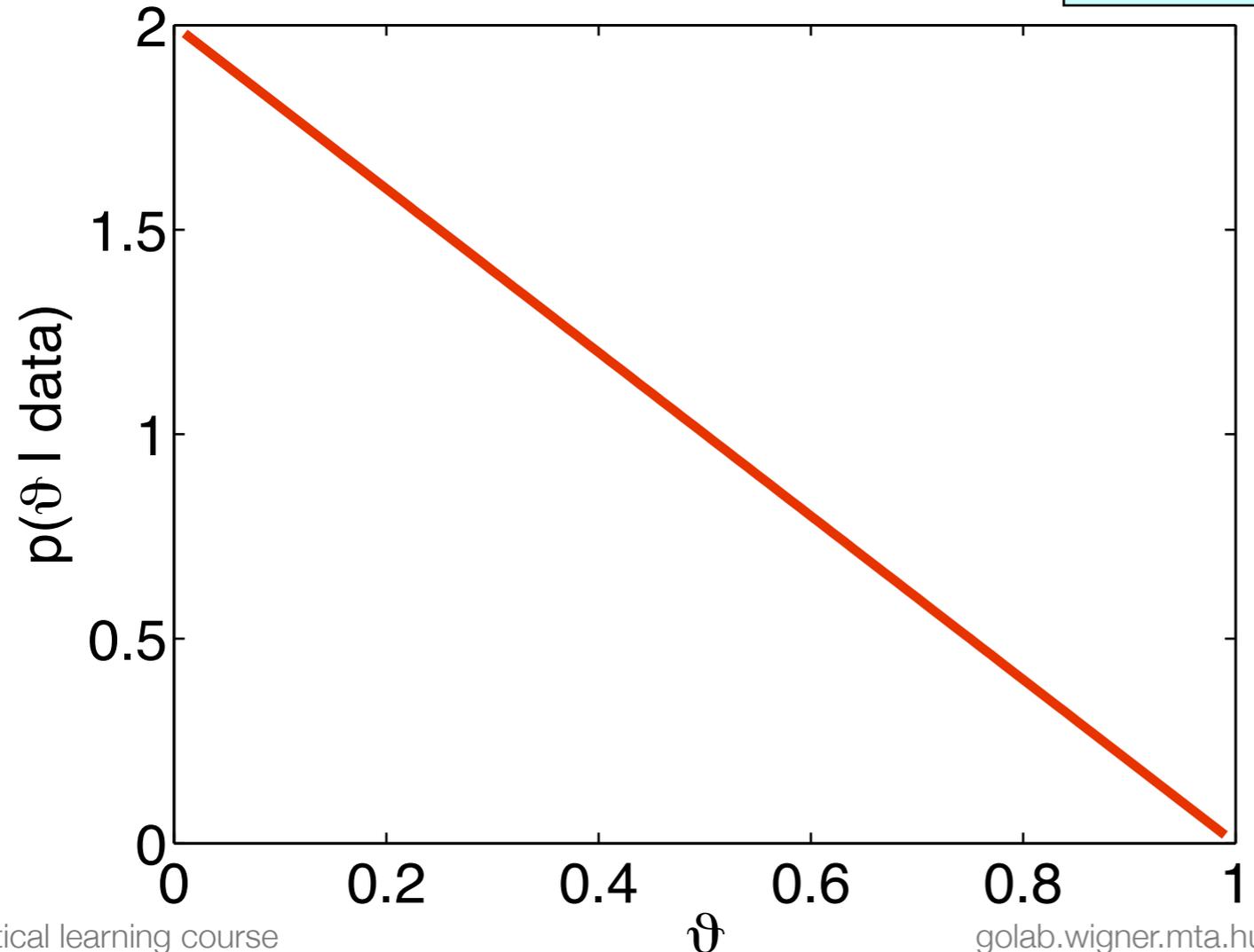
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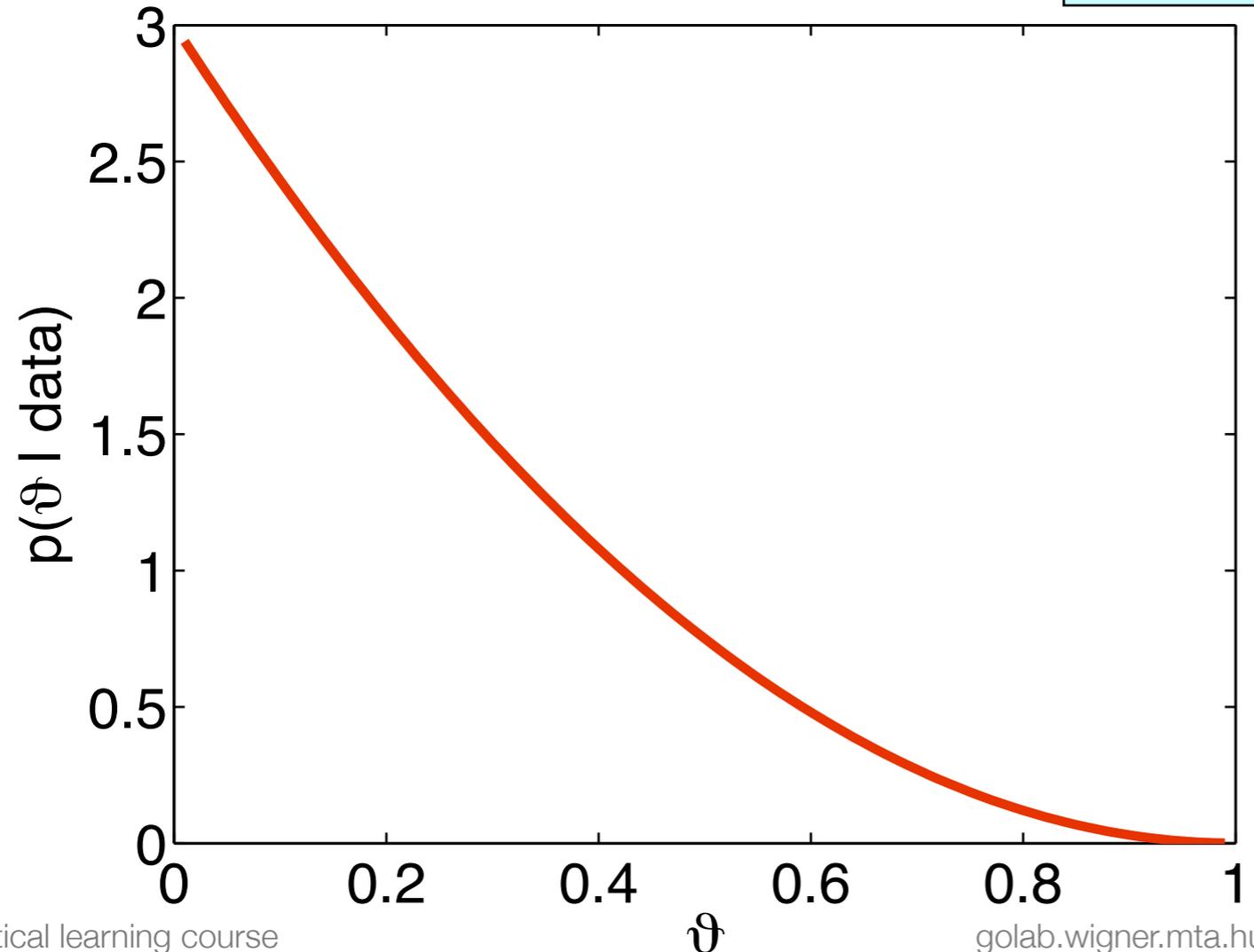
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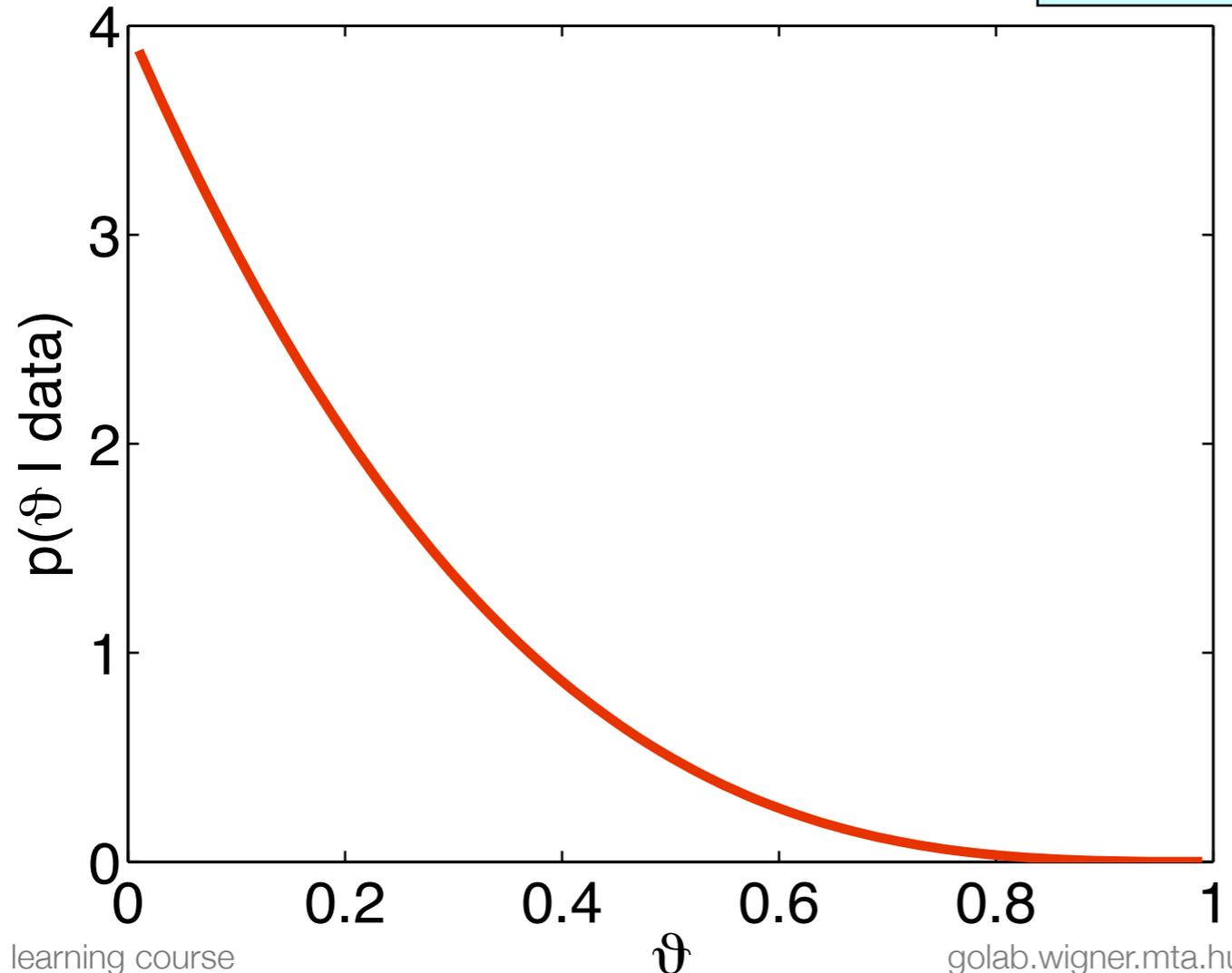
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Coin tossing: an example

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Trial likelihood $P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$

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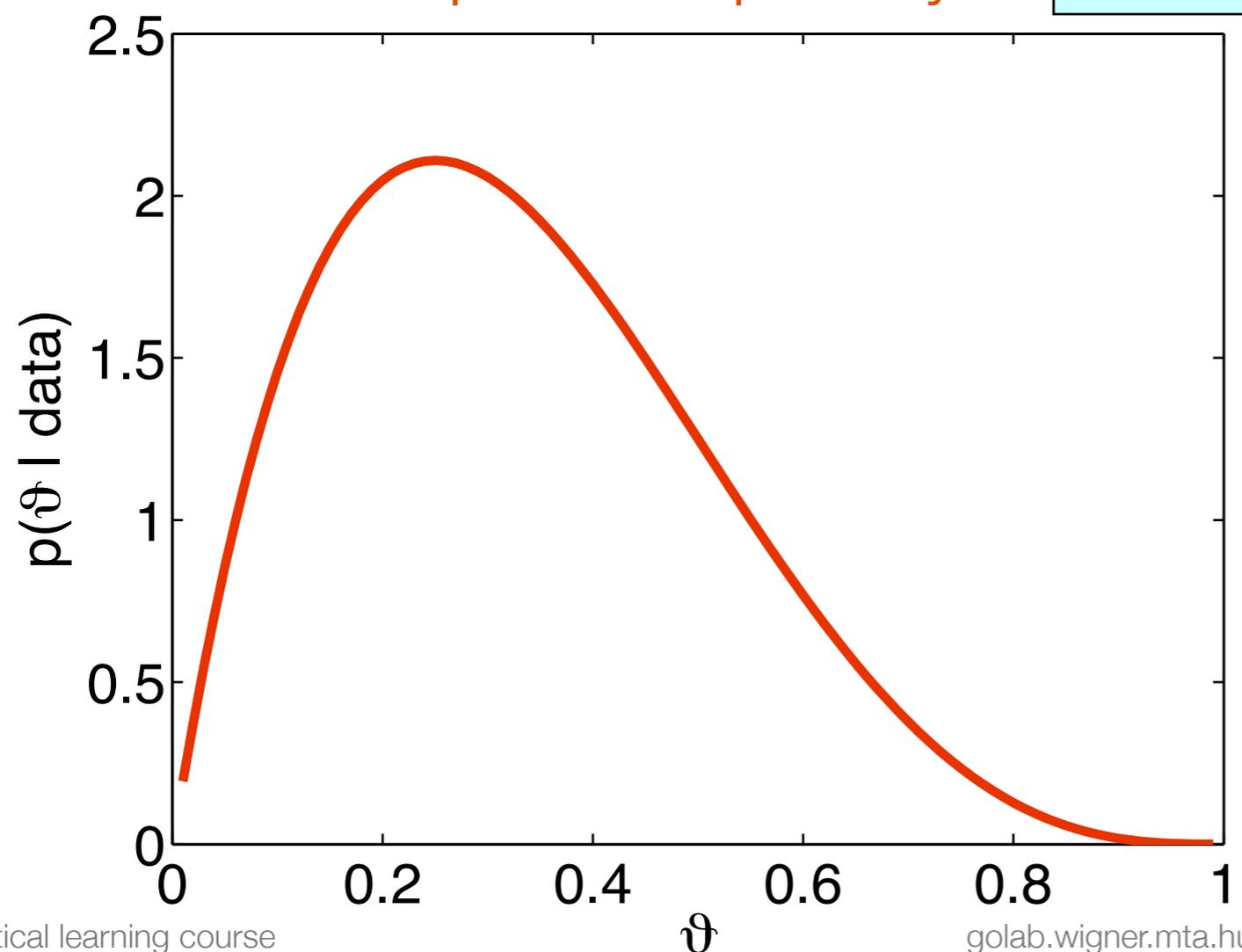
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Bayes rule

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Coin tossing: an example

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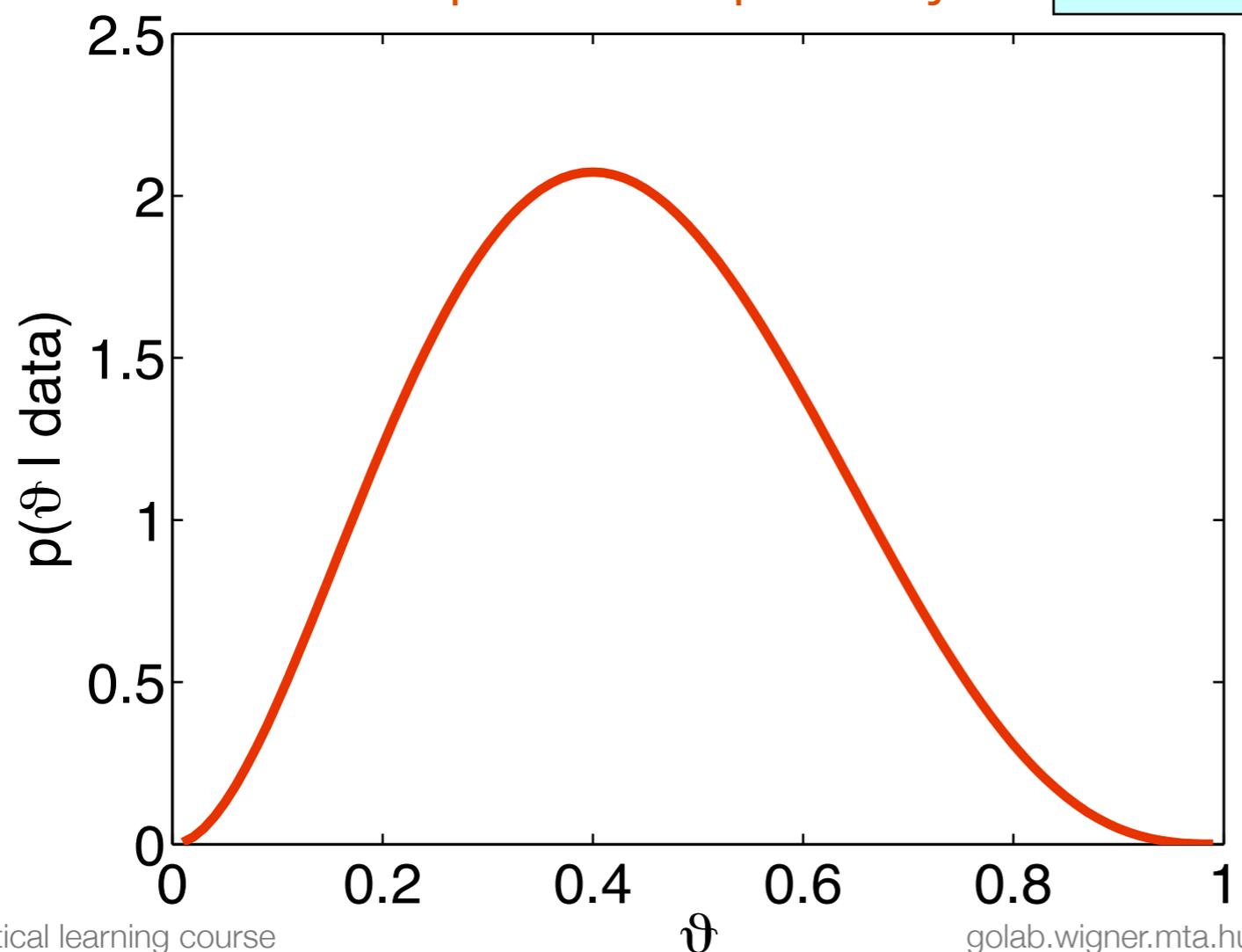
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Coin tossing: an example

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Variance of bias 0 0 .25 .3 .26 .28

Trial likelihood

$$P(x | \vartheta) = \text{Bernoulli}(x; \vartheta) = \vartheta^x \cdot (1 - \vartheta)^{(1-x)}$$

Data likelihood

$$P(\text{data} | \vartheta) = \prod_t P(x_t | \vartheta)$$

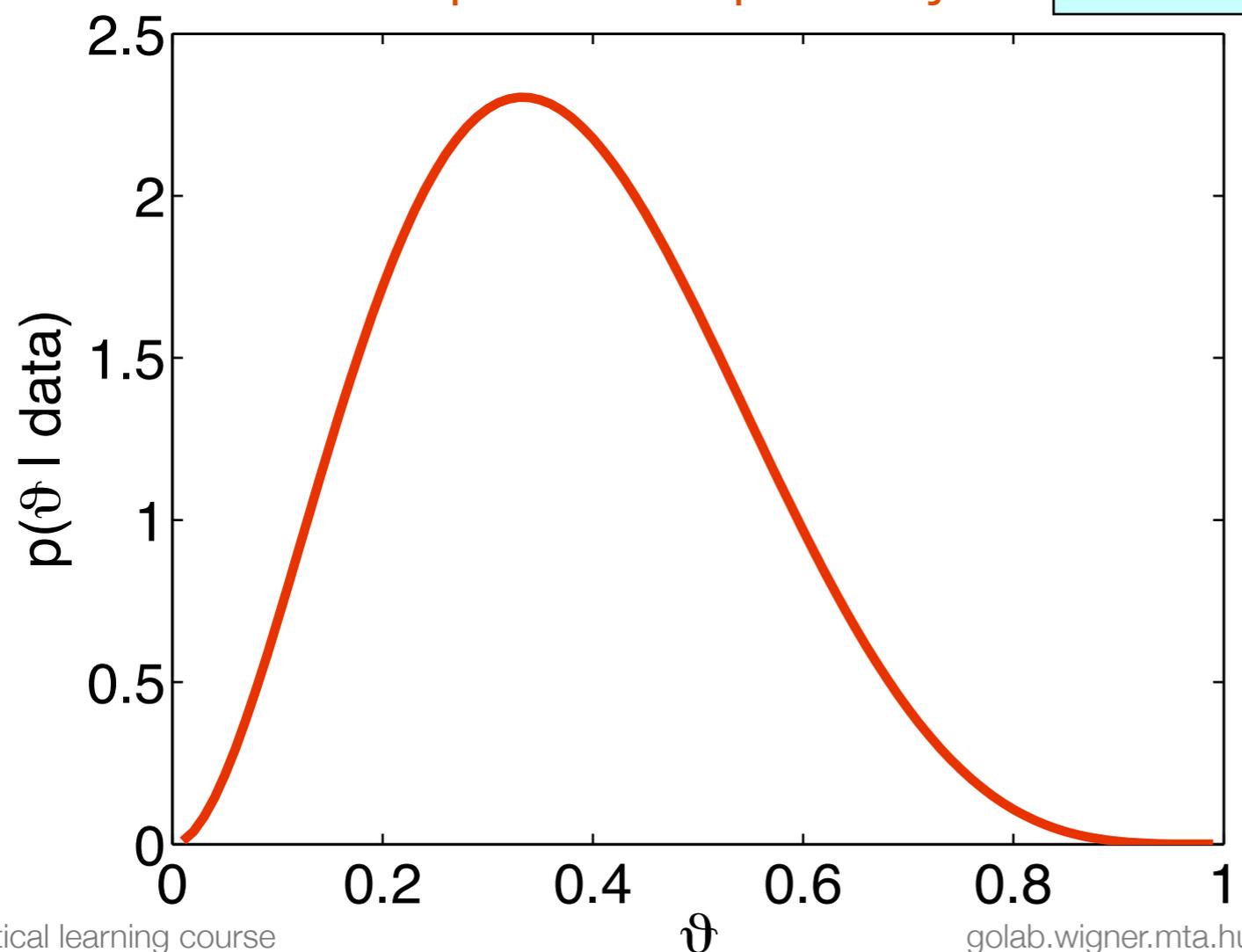
$$\langle \vartheta \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

$$\text{Var}(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum (x_i - \langle \vartheta \rangle)^2$$

Bayes rule

Is this the important quantity?

$$P(\vartheta | \text{data}) = P(\text{data} | \vartheta) P(\vartheta) / P(\text{data})$$



$$P(\vartheta) = \text{Beta}(\vartheta; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \vartheta^{\alpha-1} (1 - \vartheta)^{\beta-1}$$

$$P(\vartheta | \text{data}) = \text{Beta}(\vartheta; \alpha^{(t)}, \beta^{(t)})$$

$$\alpha^{(t)} = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^t x_i$$

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Coin tossing: an example

Head: 0
Tail: 1

Result **0 0 0 1 1 0 1 ...**

Estimated bias **0 0 0 .25 .4 .33 .43**

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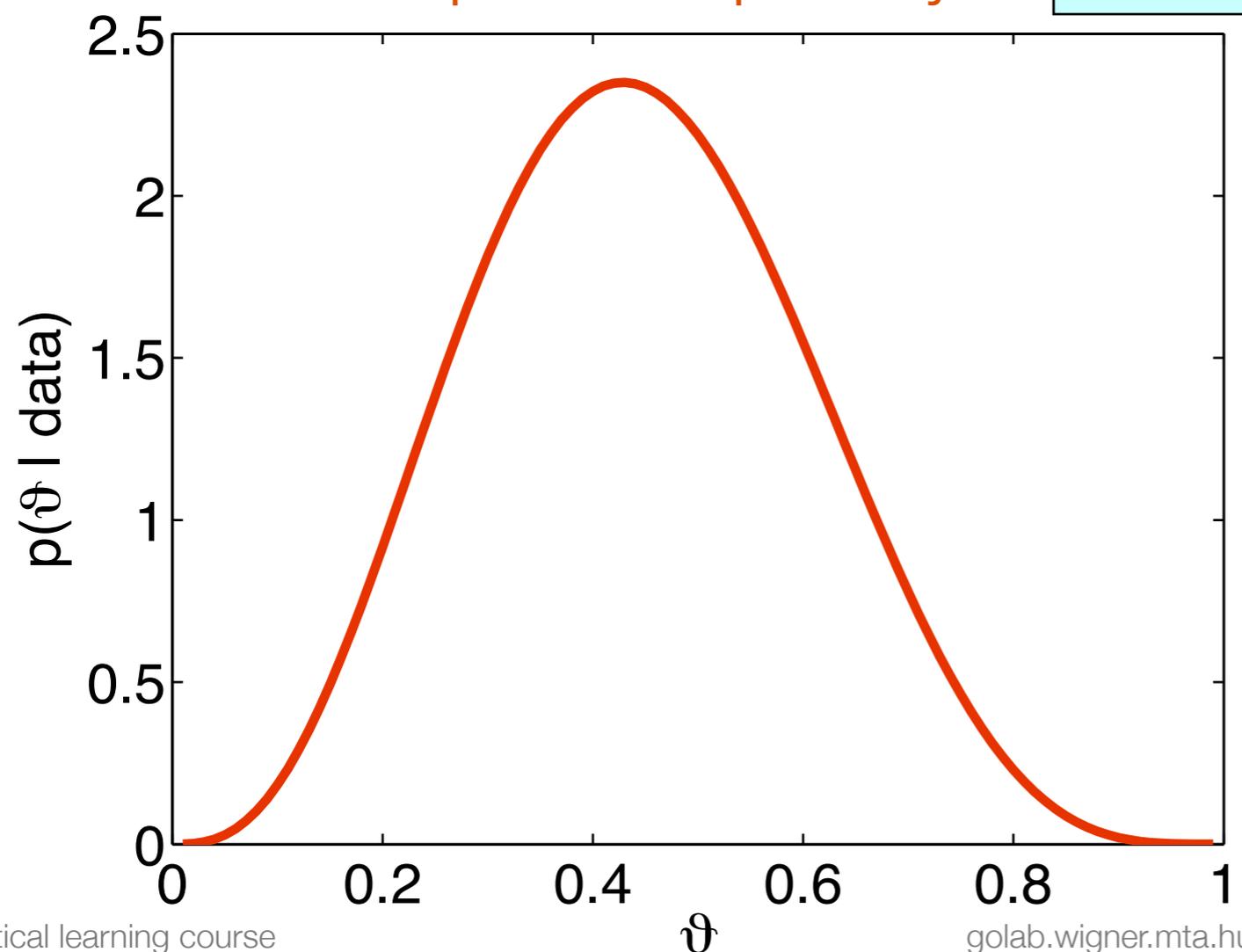
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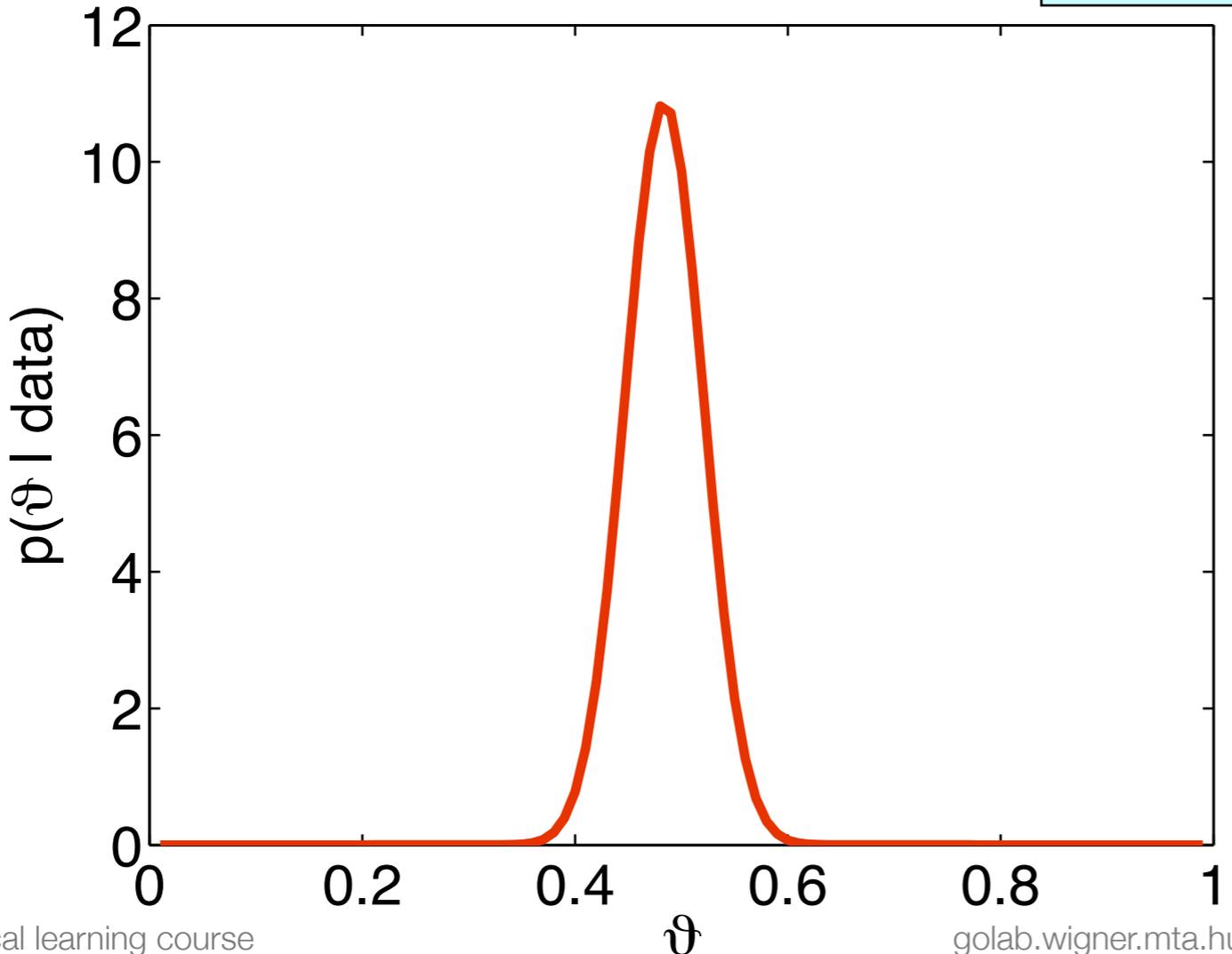
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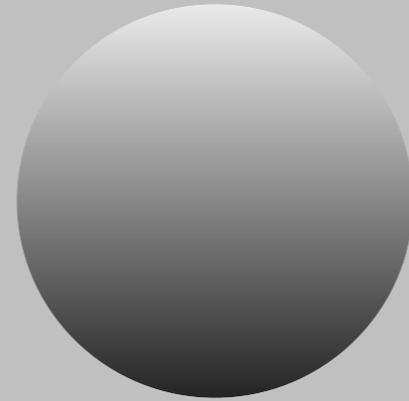
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Bayesian inference



Bayesian inference

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Where is the sun?

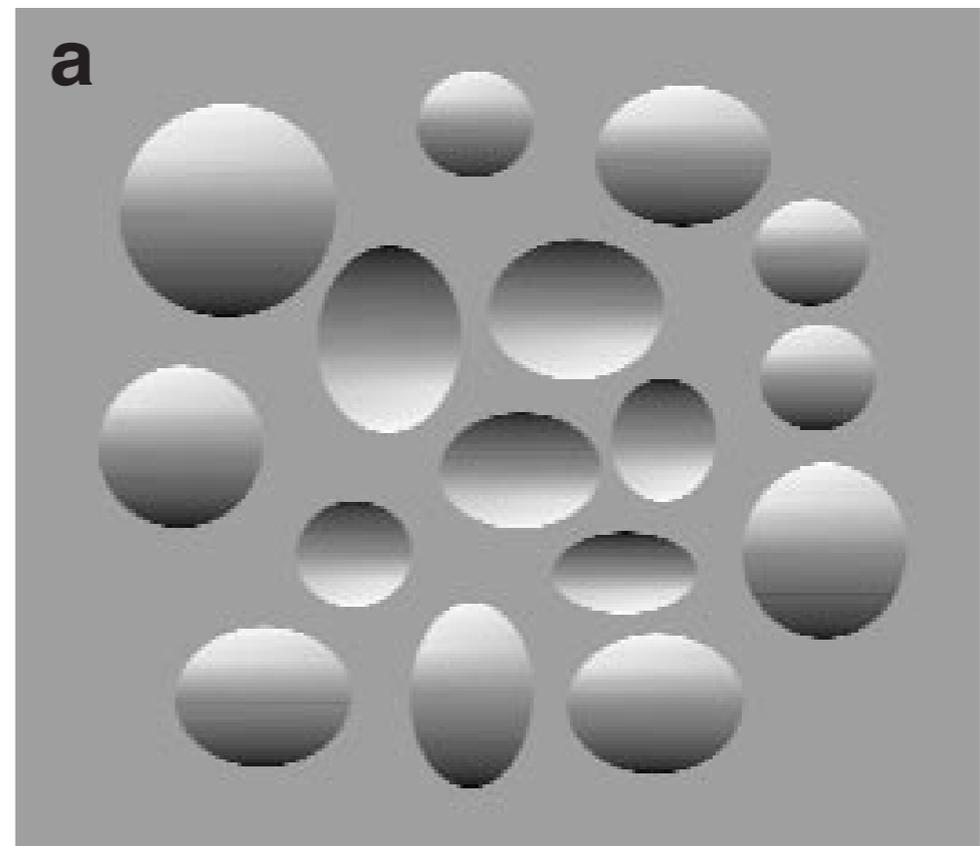
Jennifer Sun¹ and Pietro Perona^{1,2}

¹ *California Institute of Technology 136-93, Pasadena, California 91125, USA*

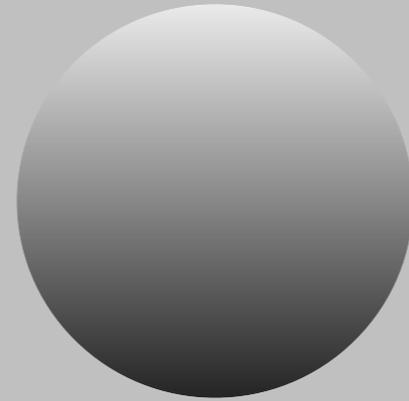
² *Universita di Padova, Via Ognissanti 72, 35131 Padova, Italy*

Correspondence should be addressed to P.P. (perona@vision.caltech.edu)

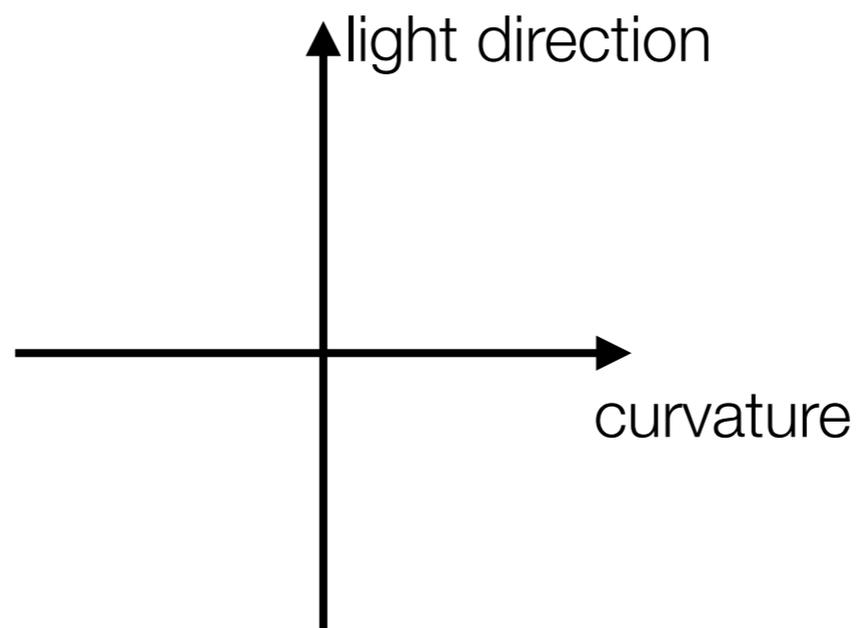
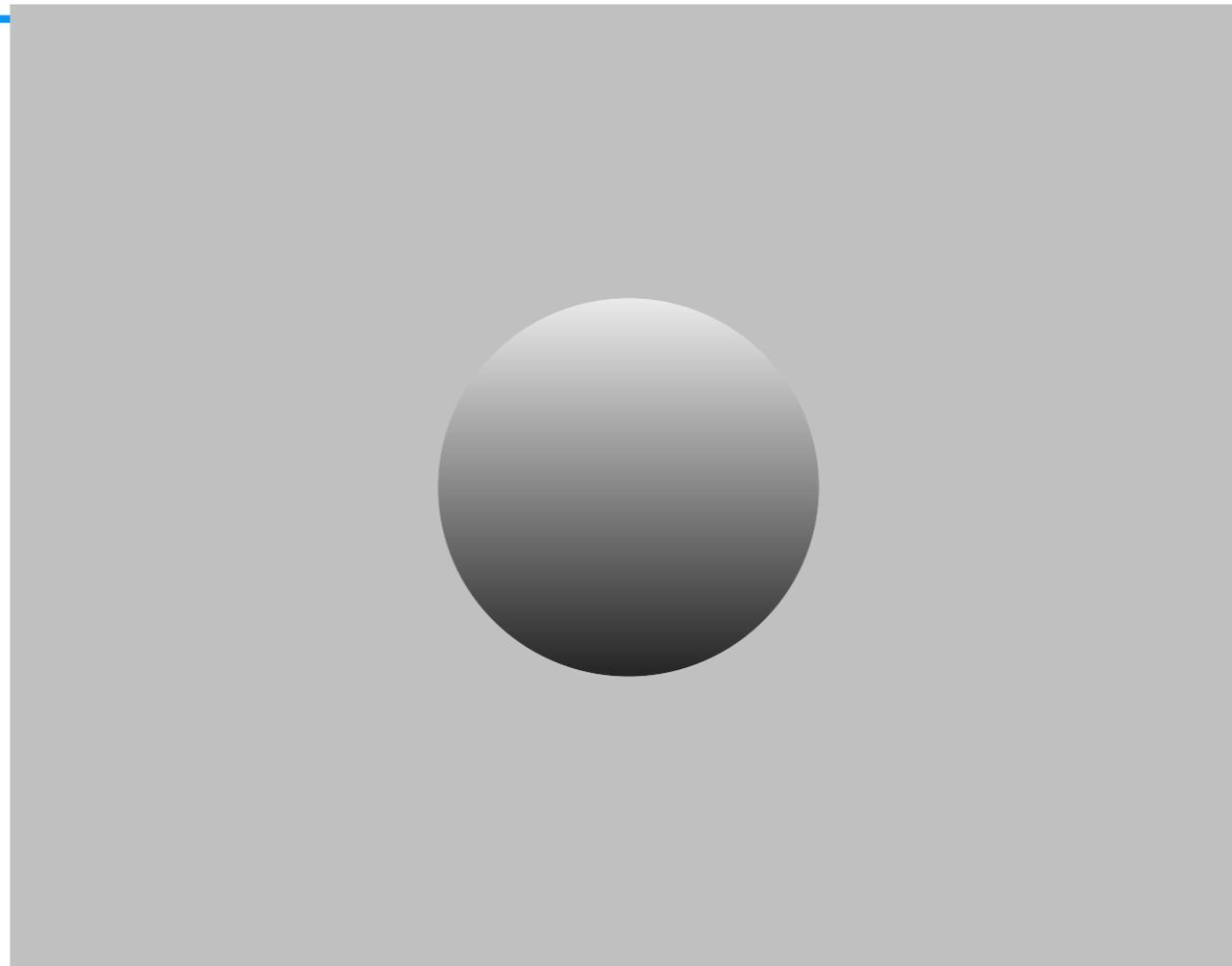
nature neuroscience • volume 1 no 3 • july 1998



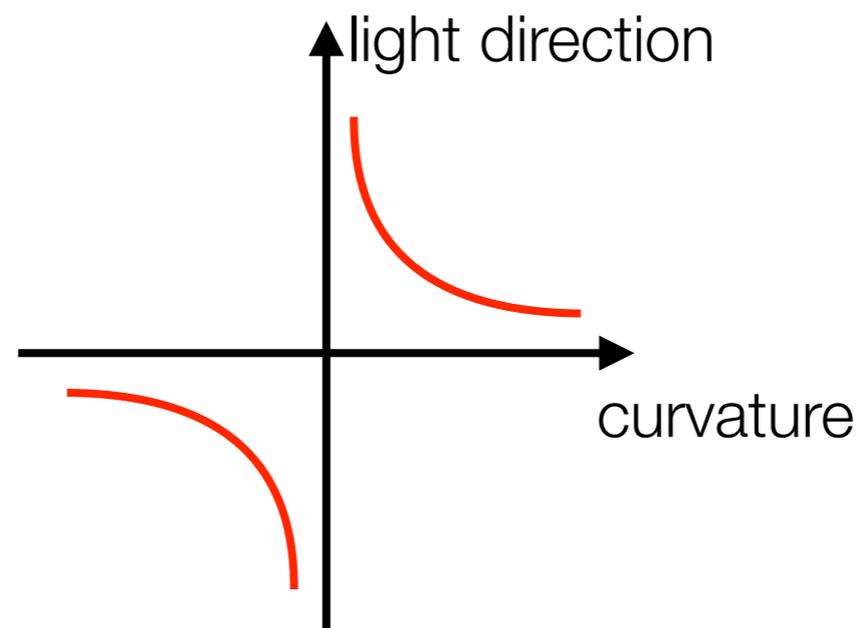
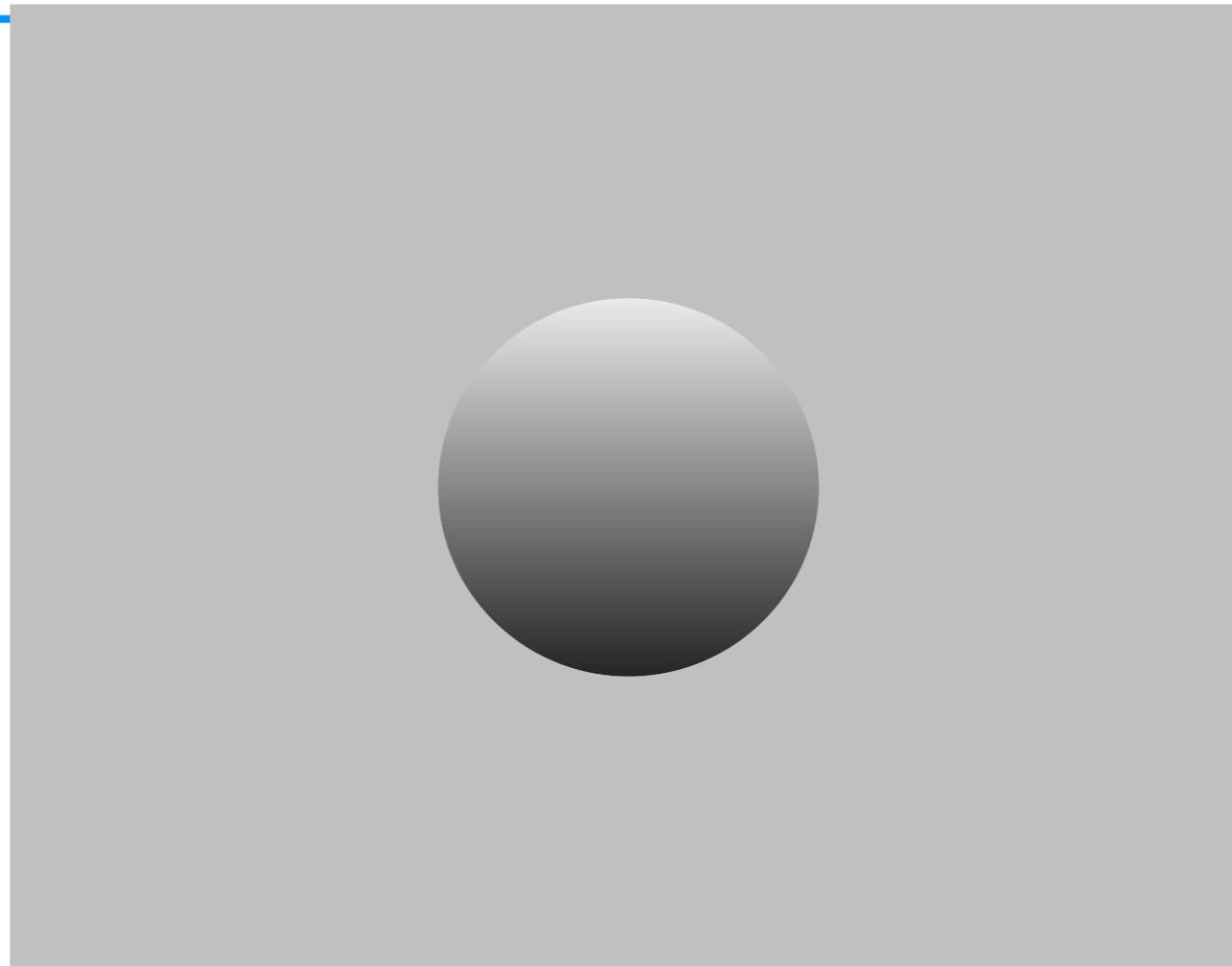
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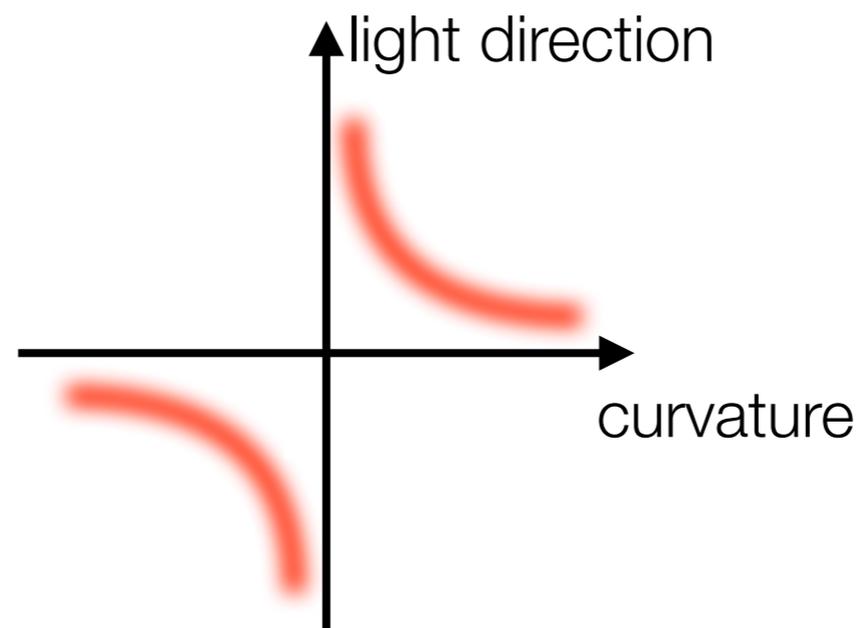
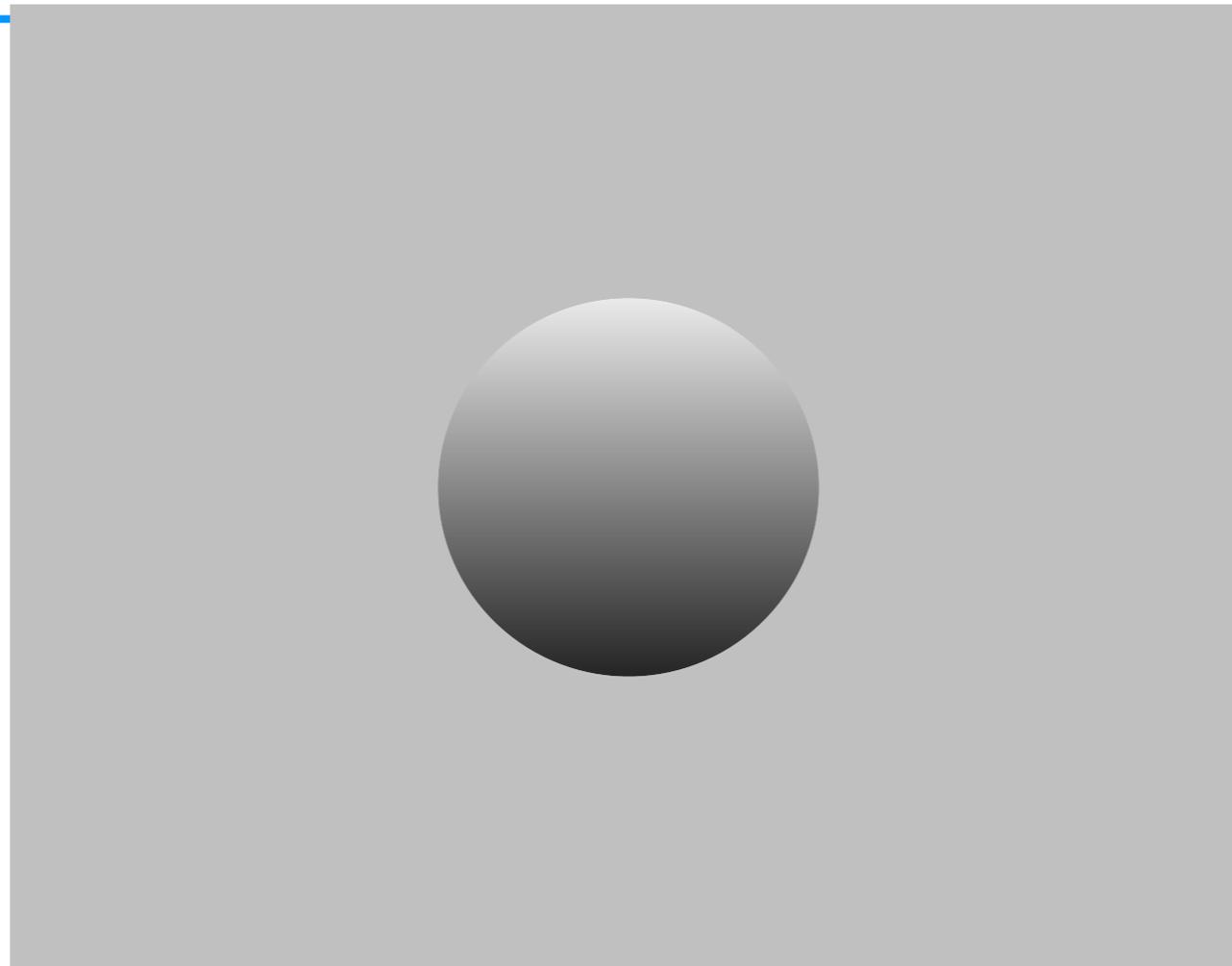
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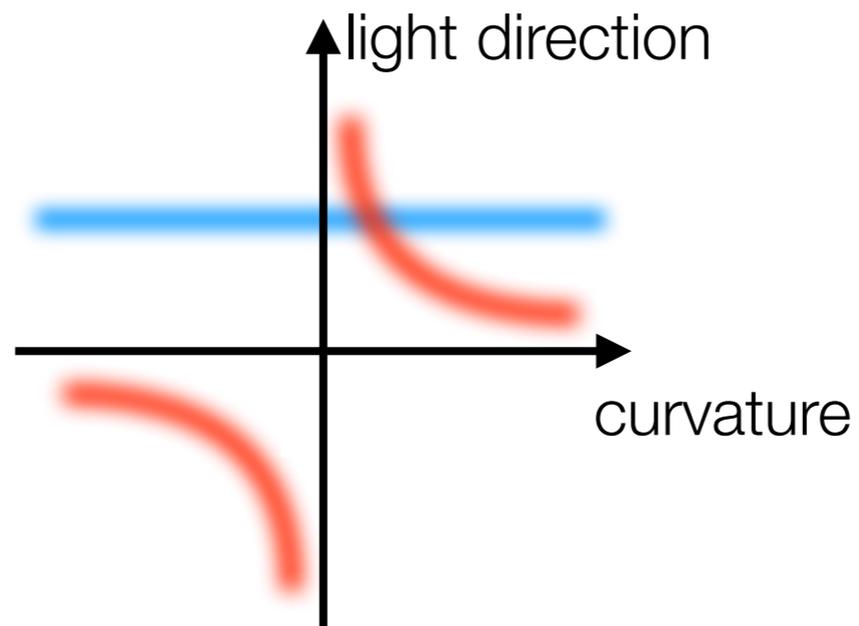
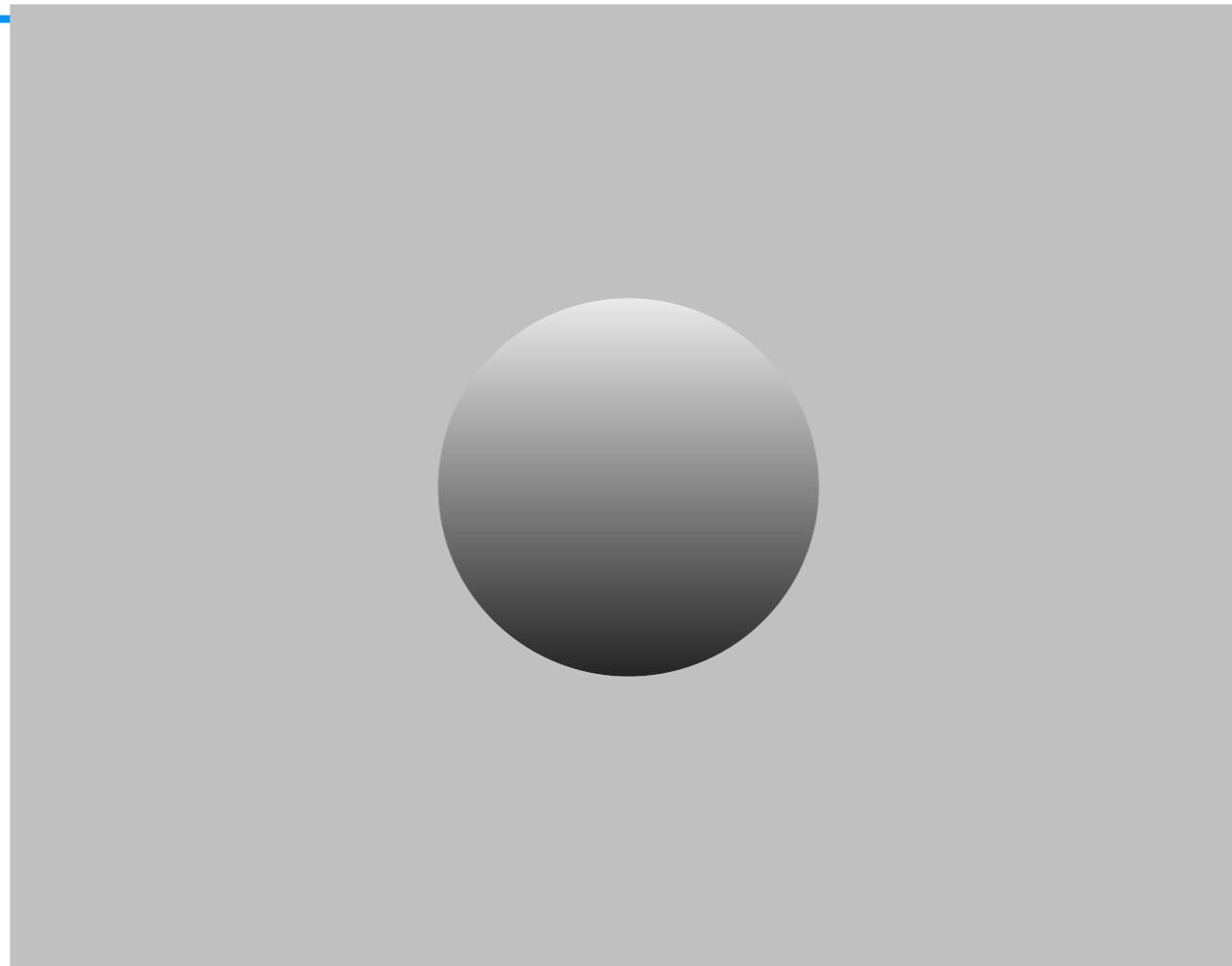


Bayesian inference



evidence

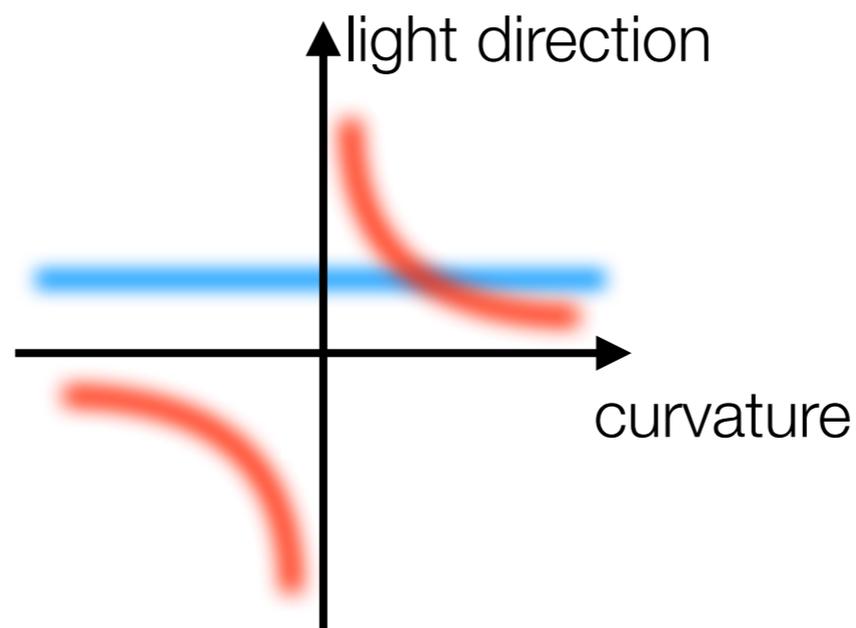
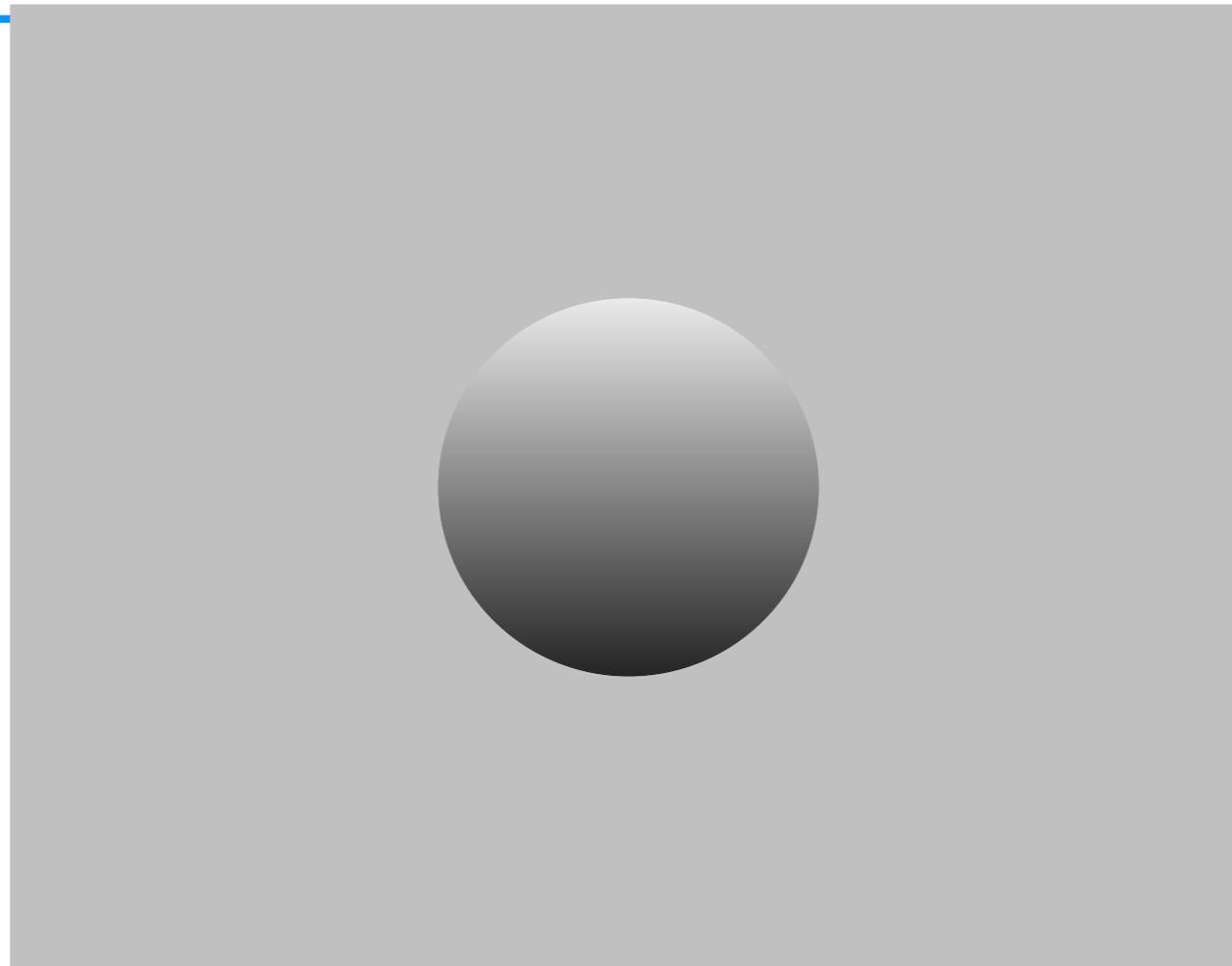
Bayesian inference



evidence

expectation

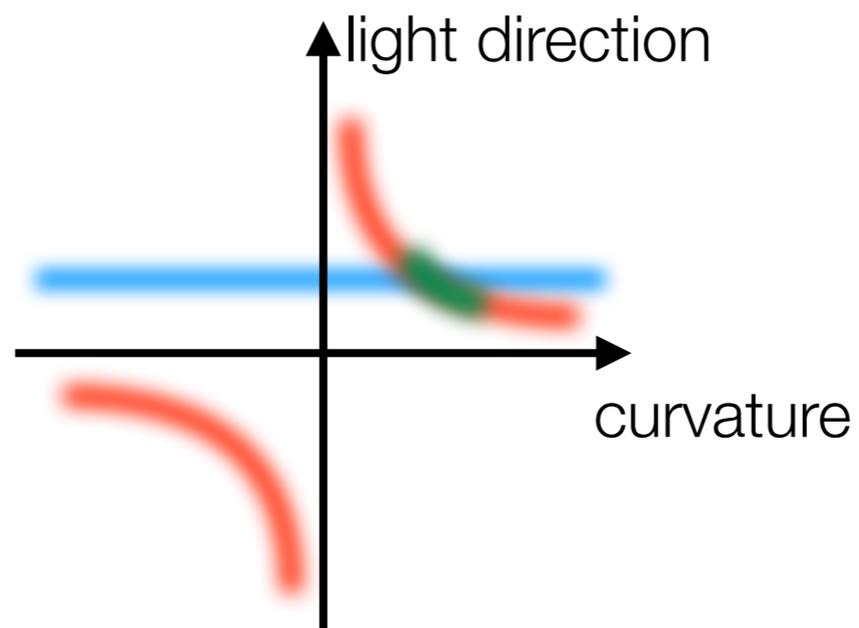
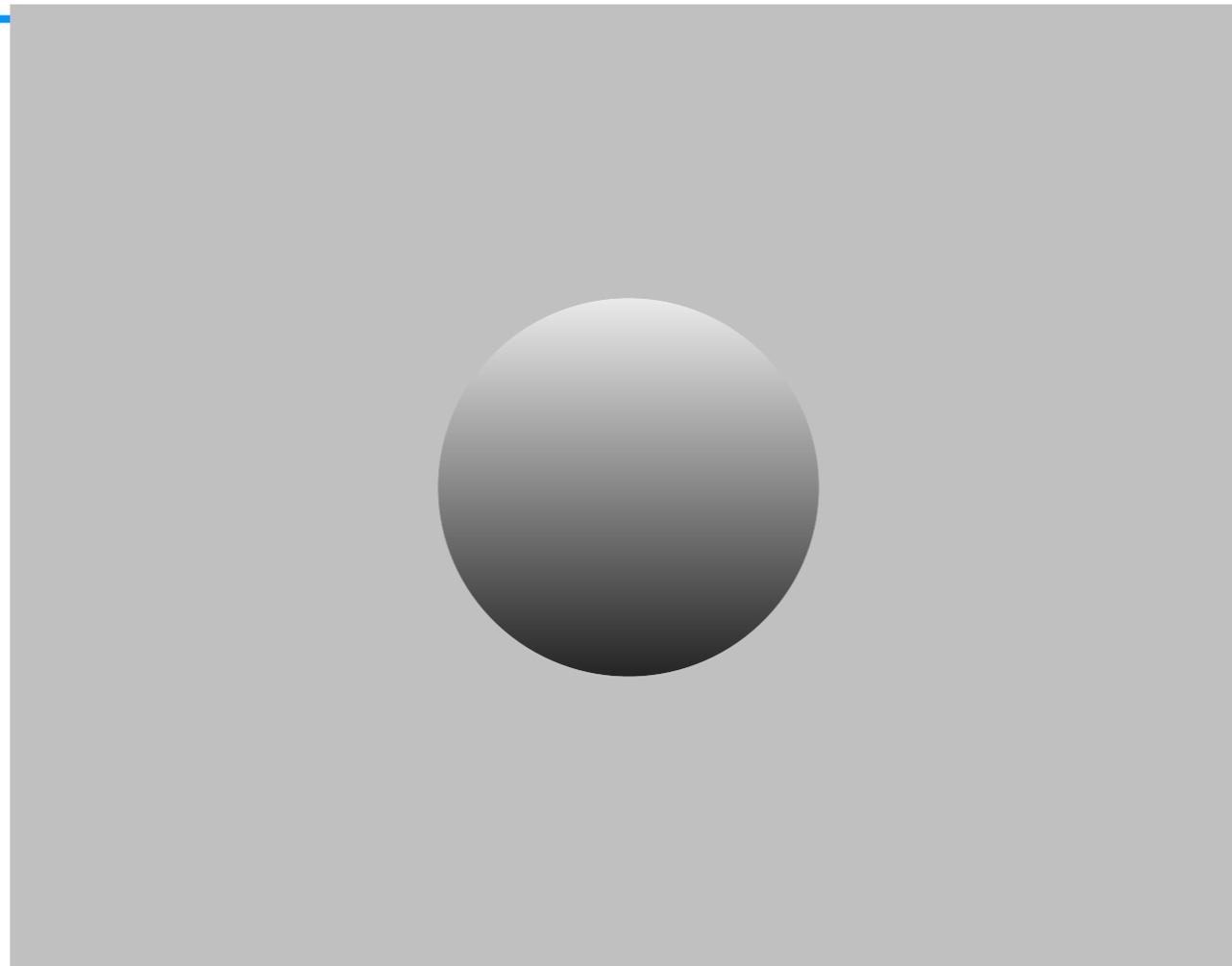
Bayesian inference



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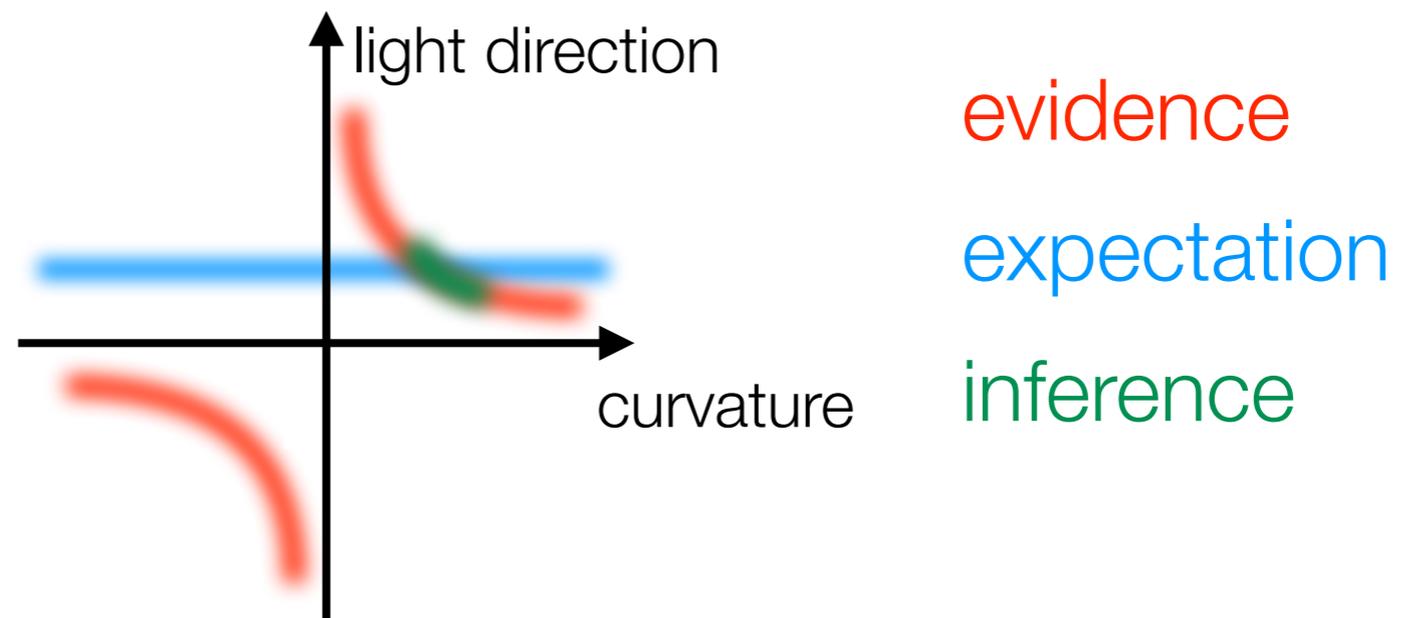


evidence

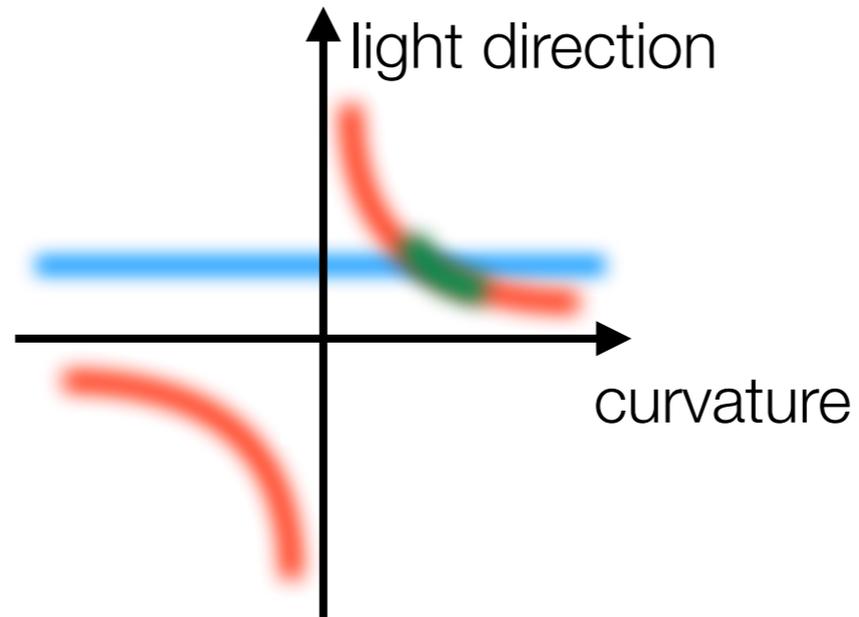
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Bayesian inference

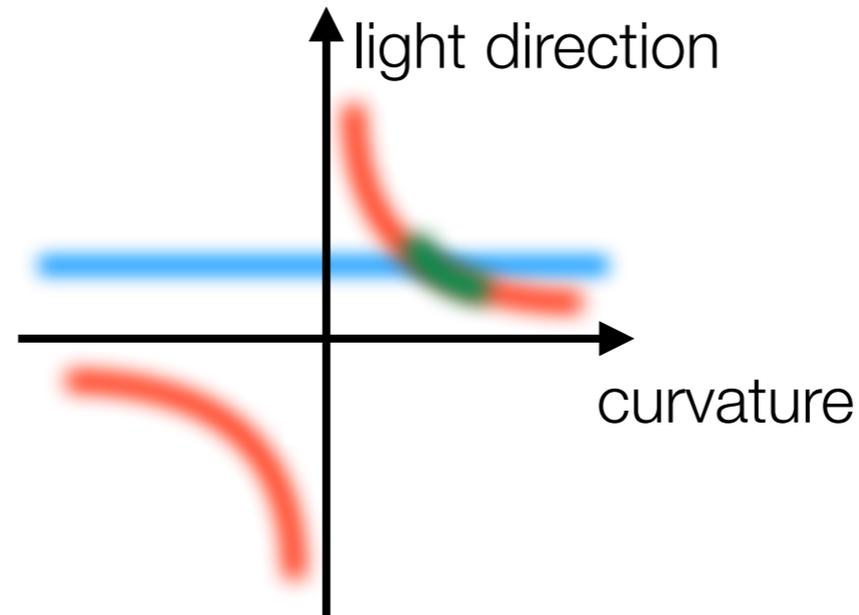


evidence

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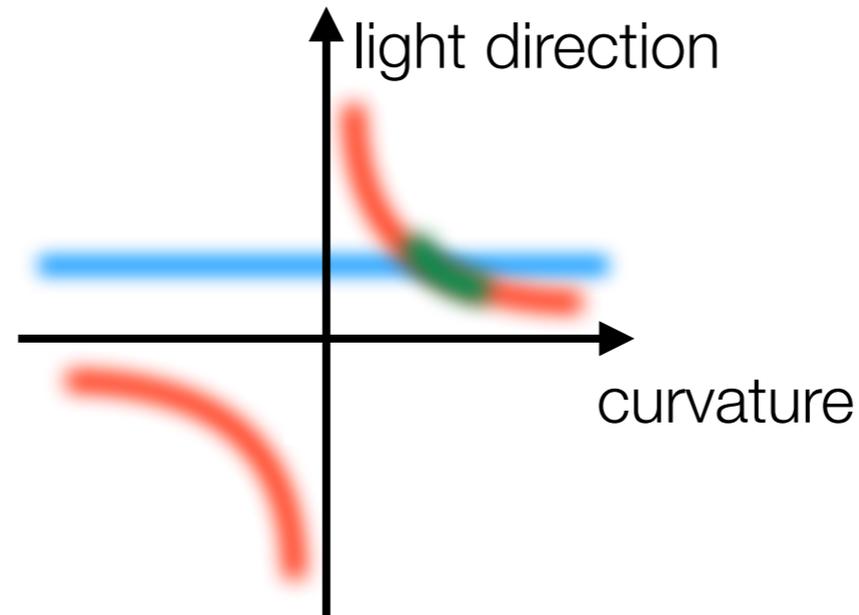
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evidence

expectation

inference

Bayesian inference



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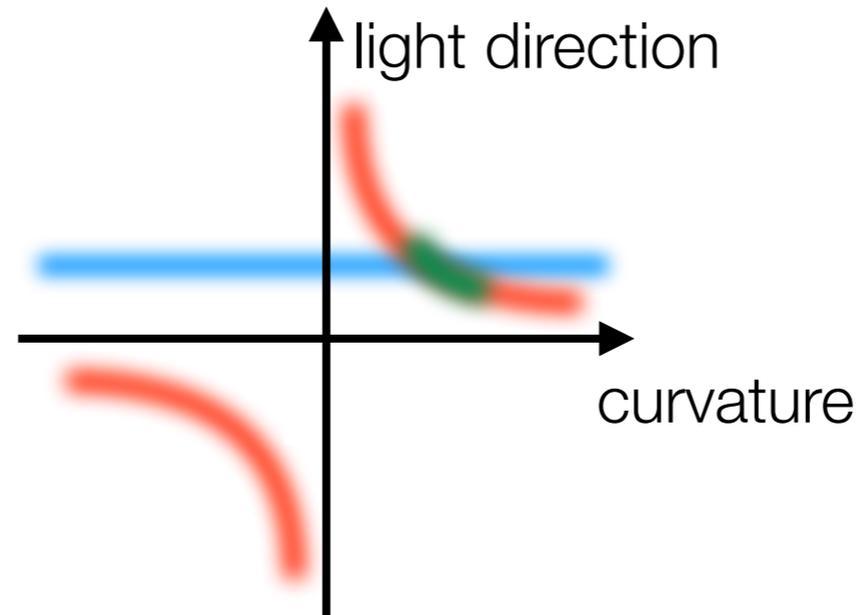
posterior: inference

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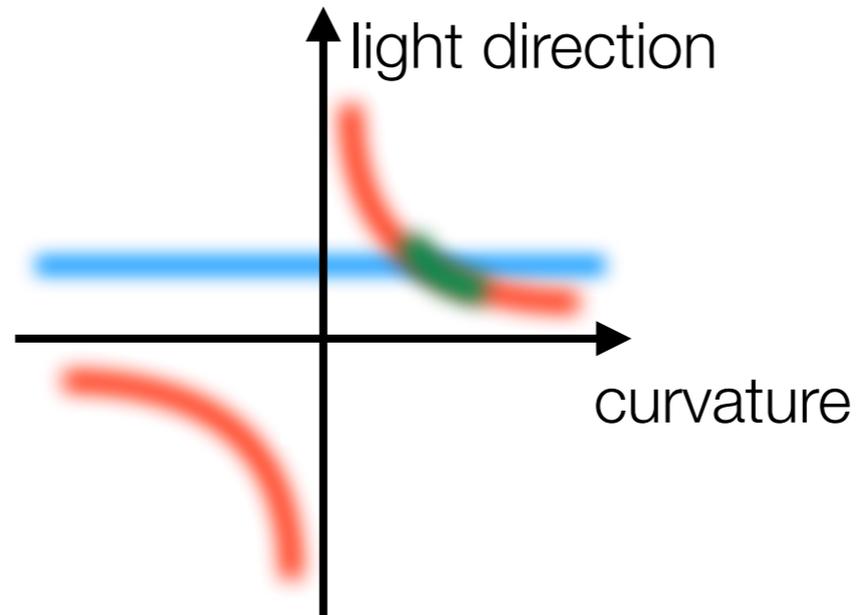
likelihood: evidence

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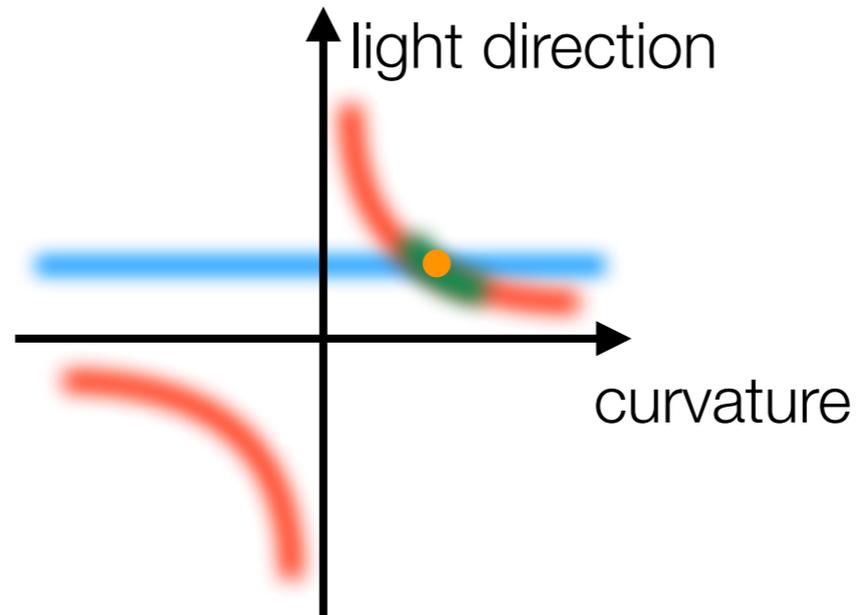
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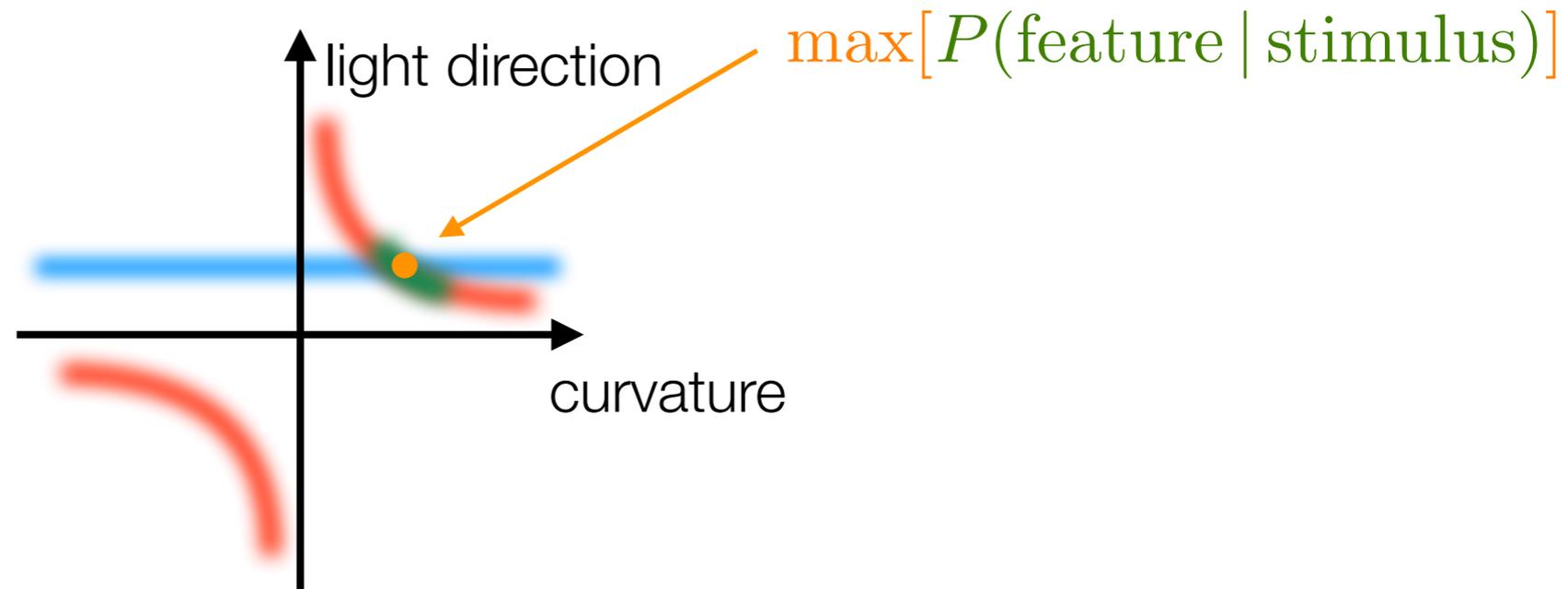
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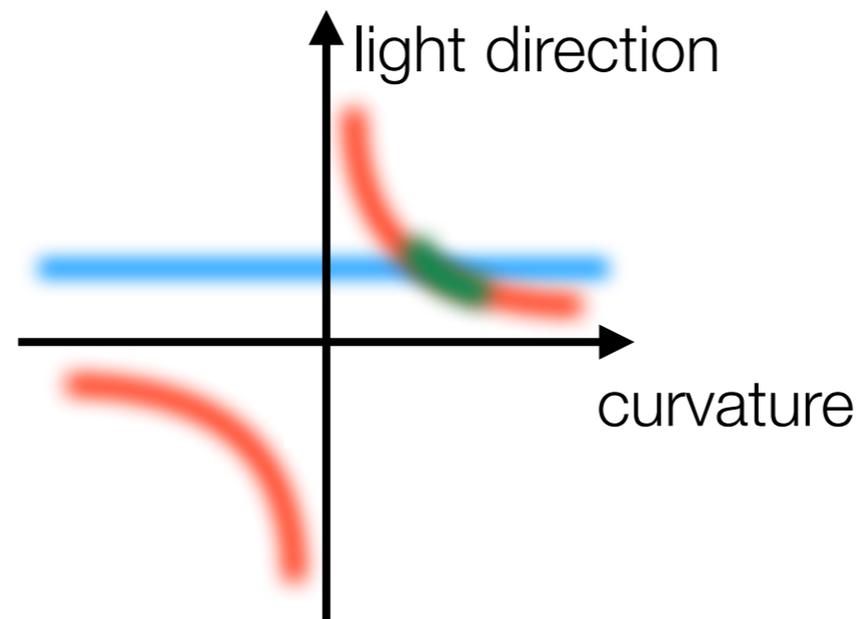
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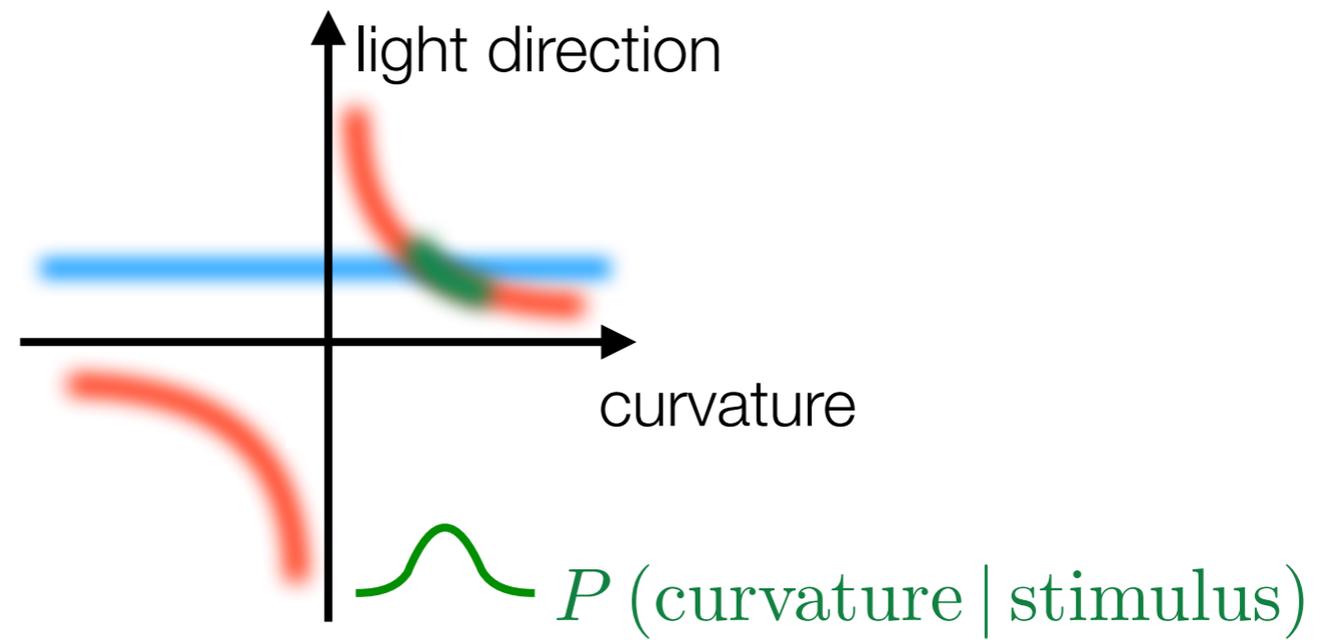
Mathematical challenges

Marginalization



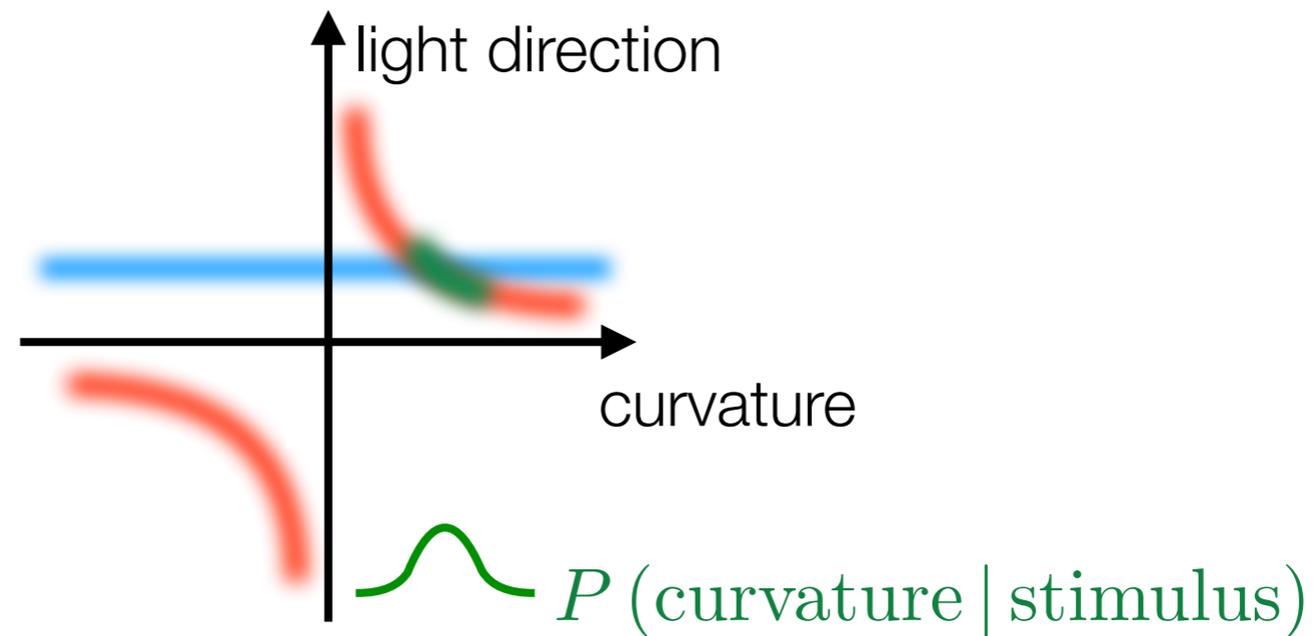
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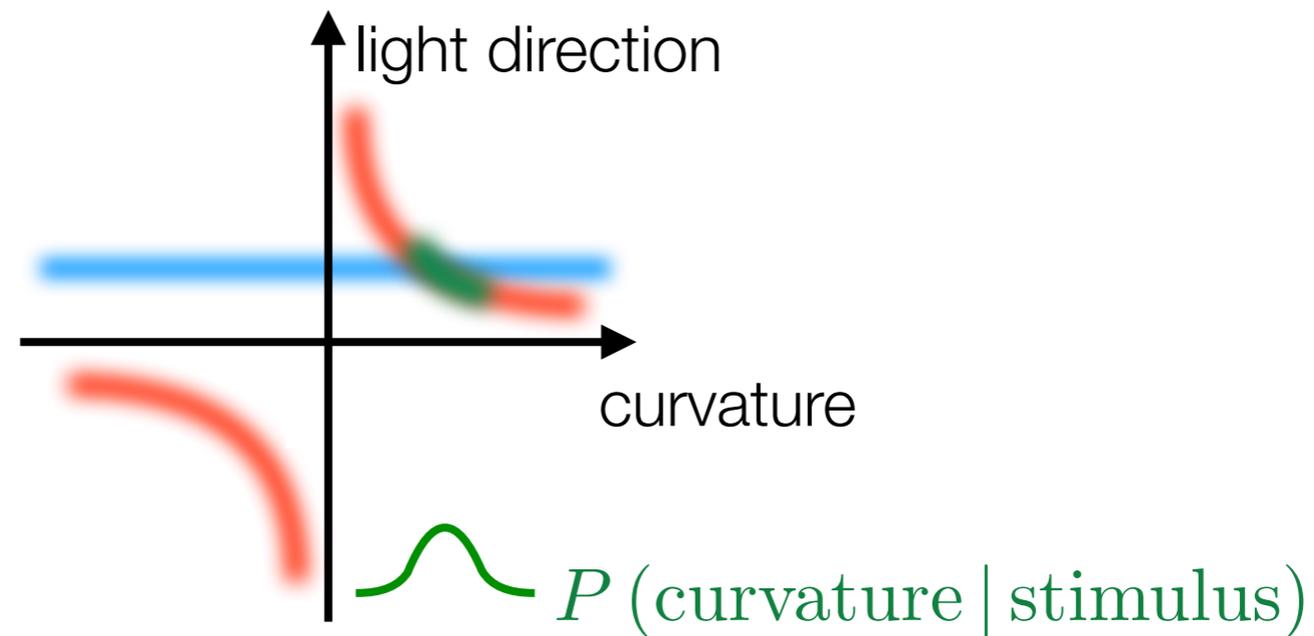
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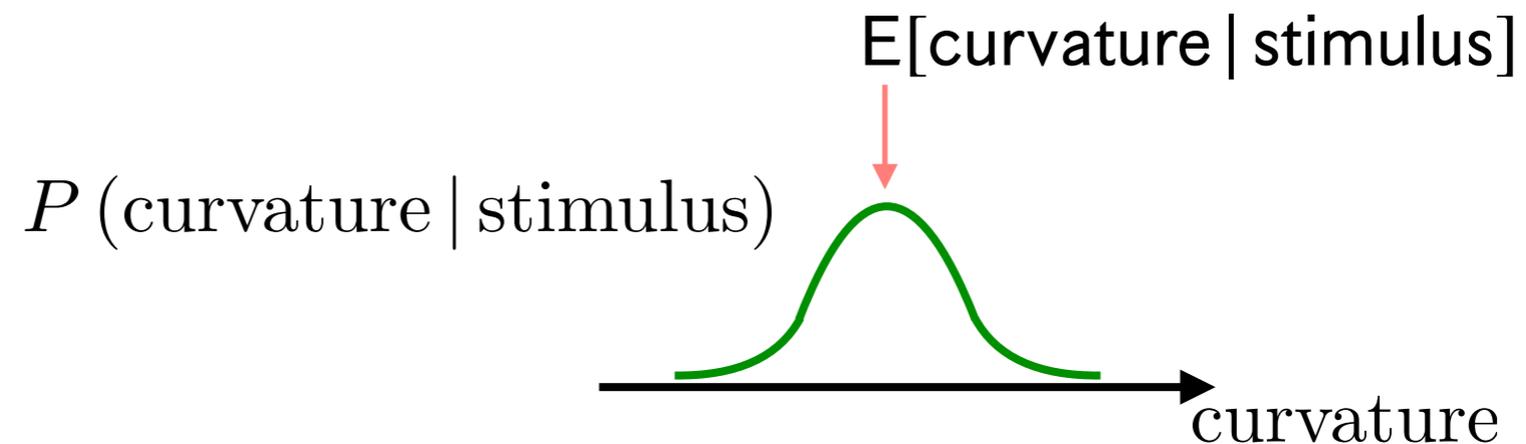
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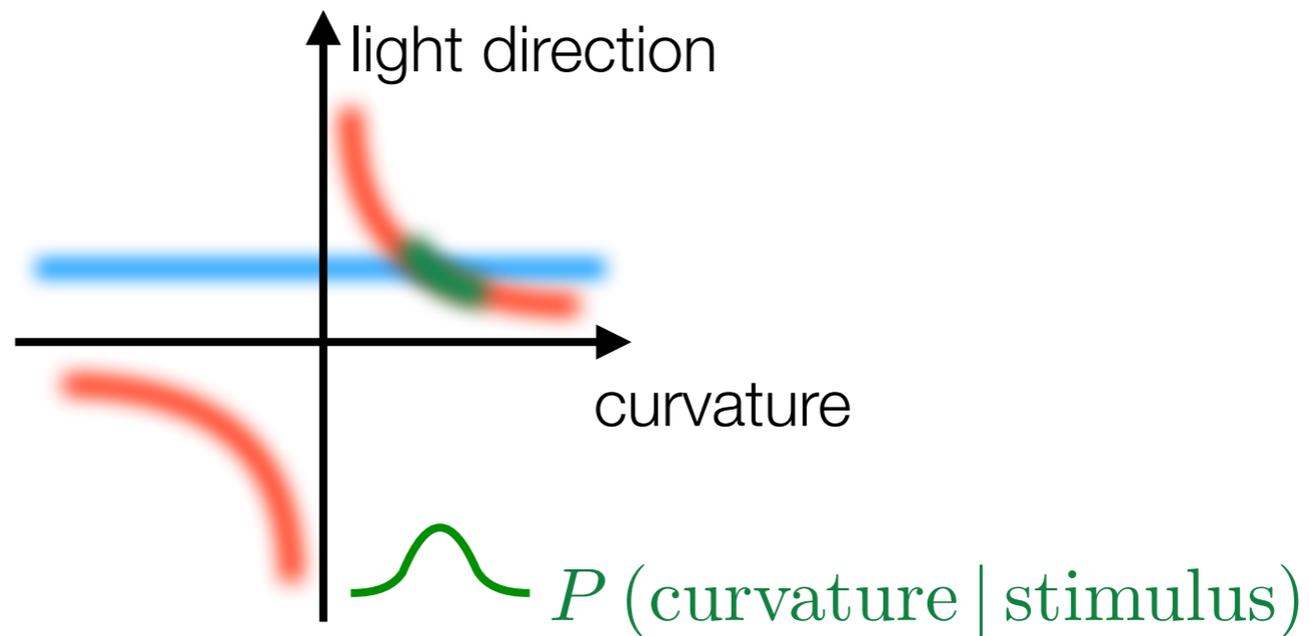
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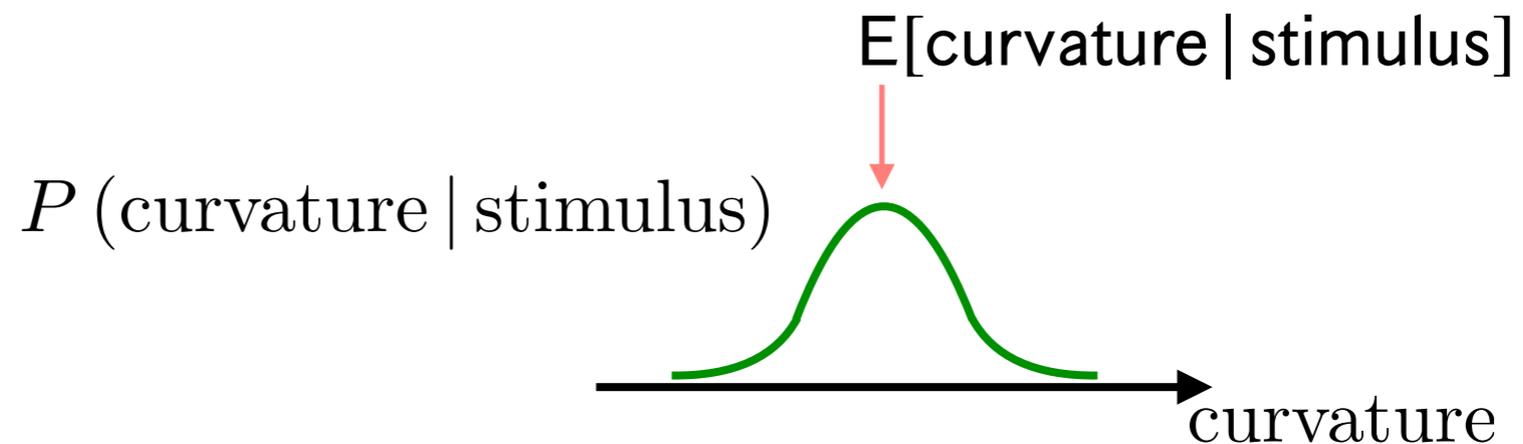
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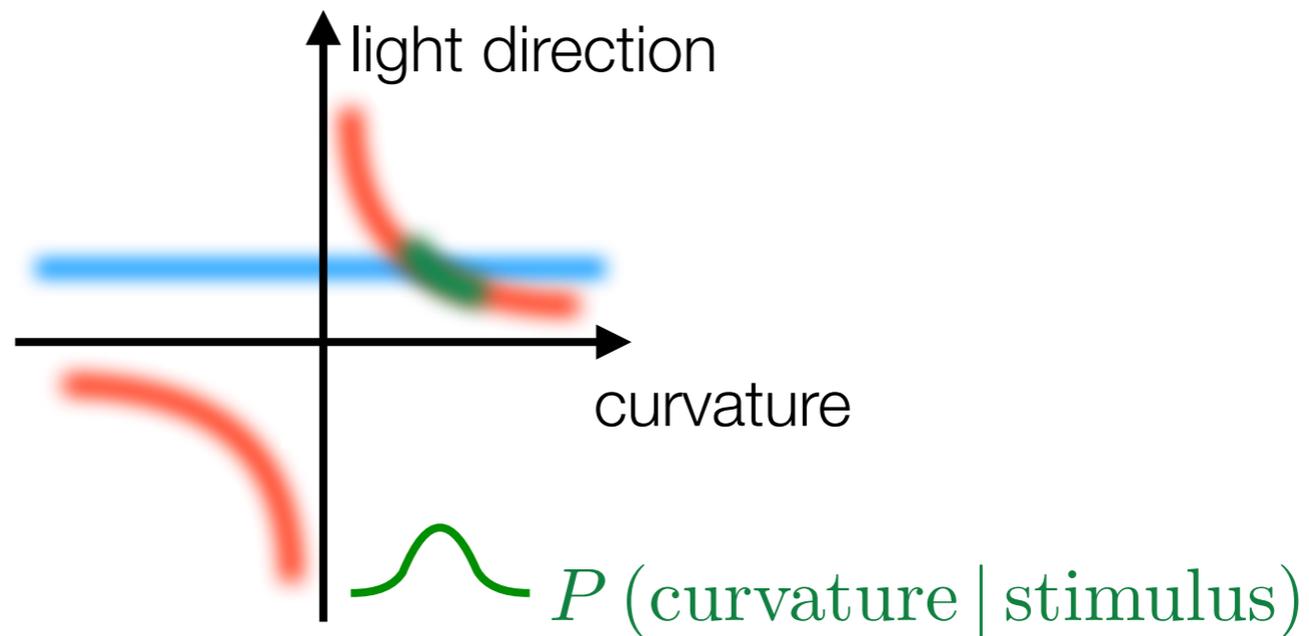
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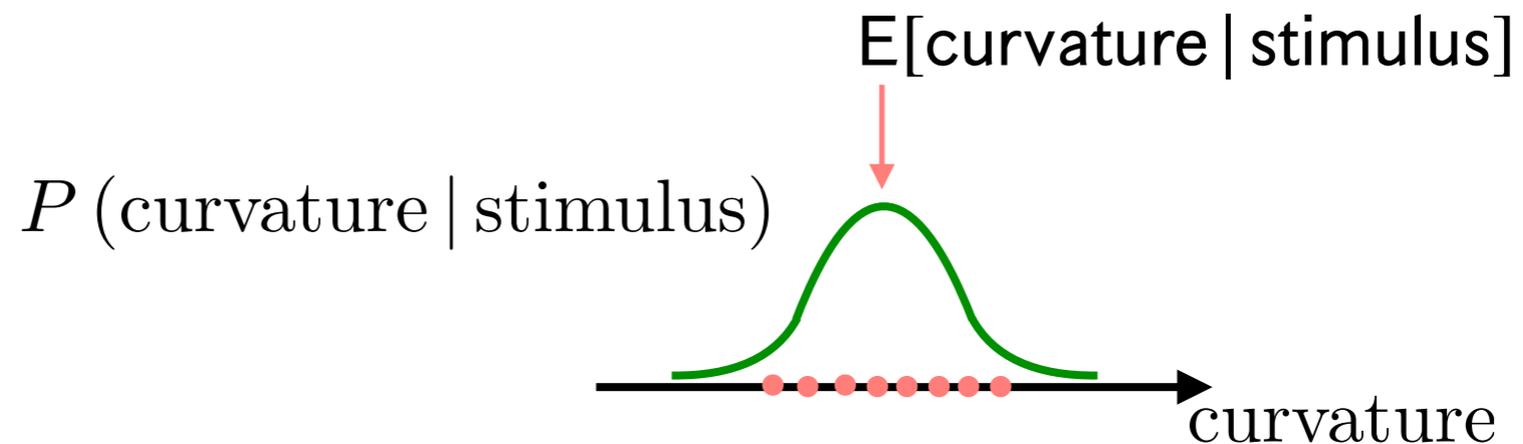
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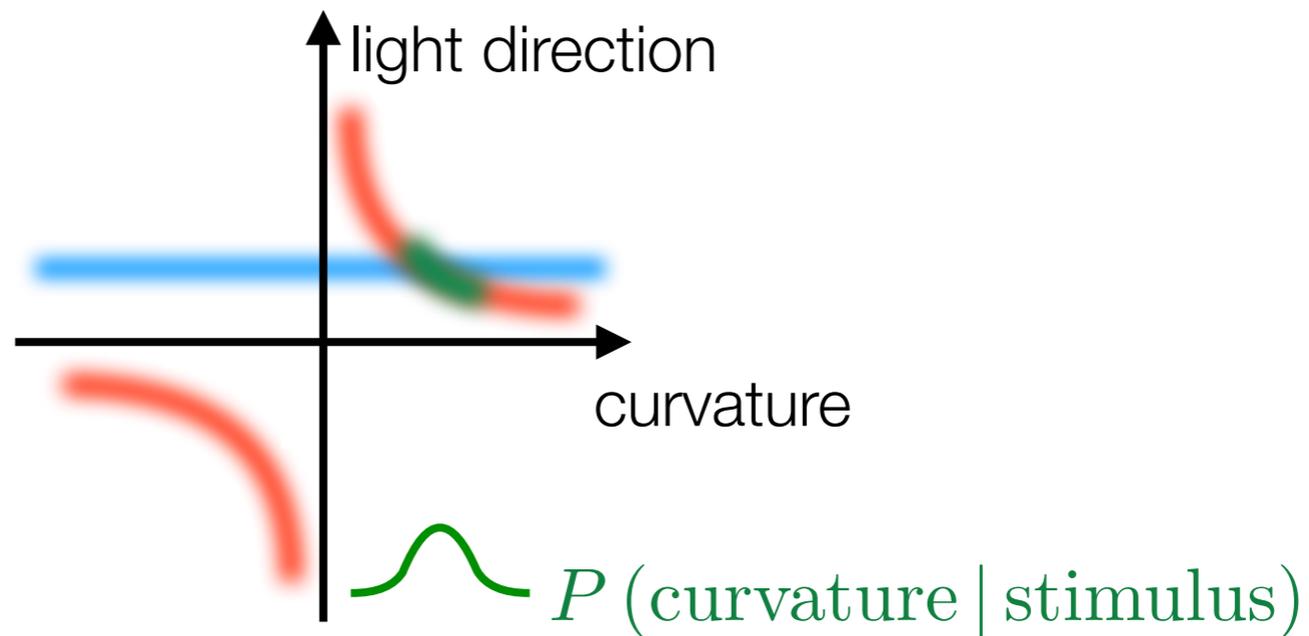
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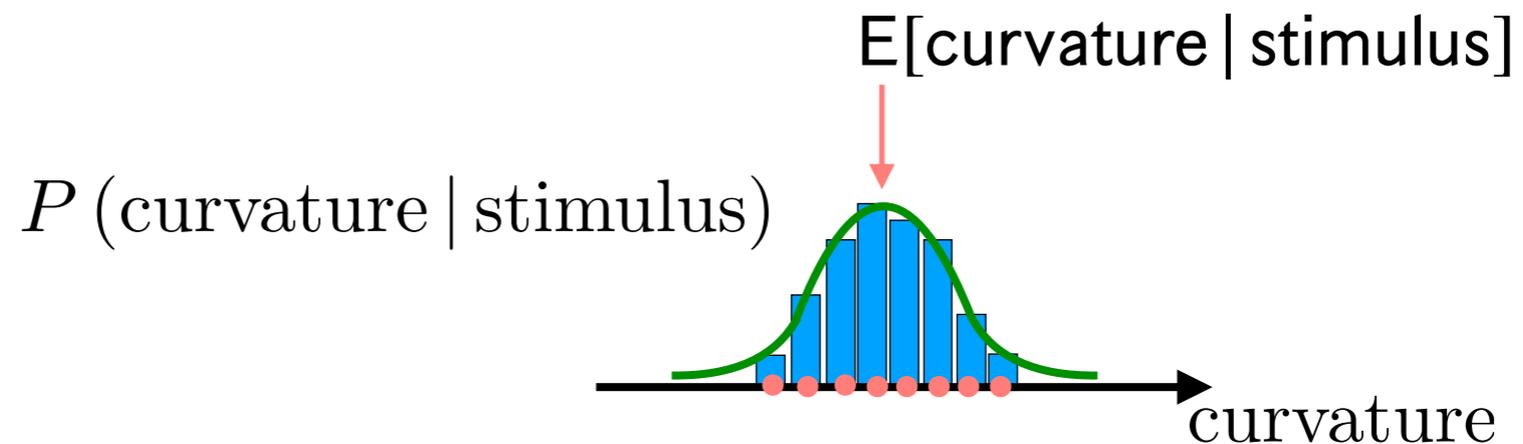
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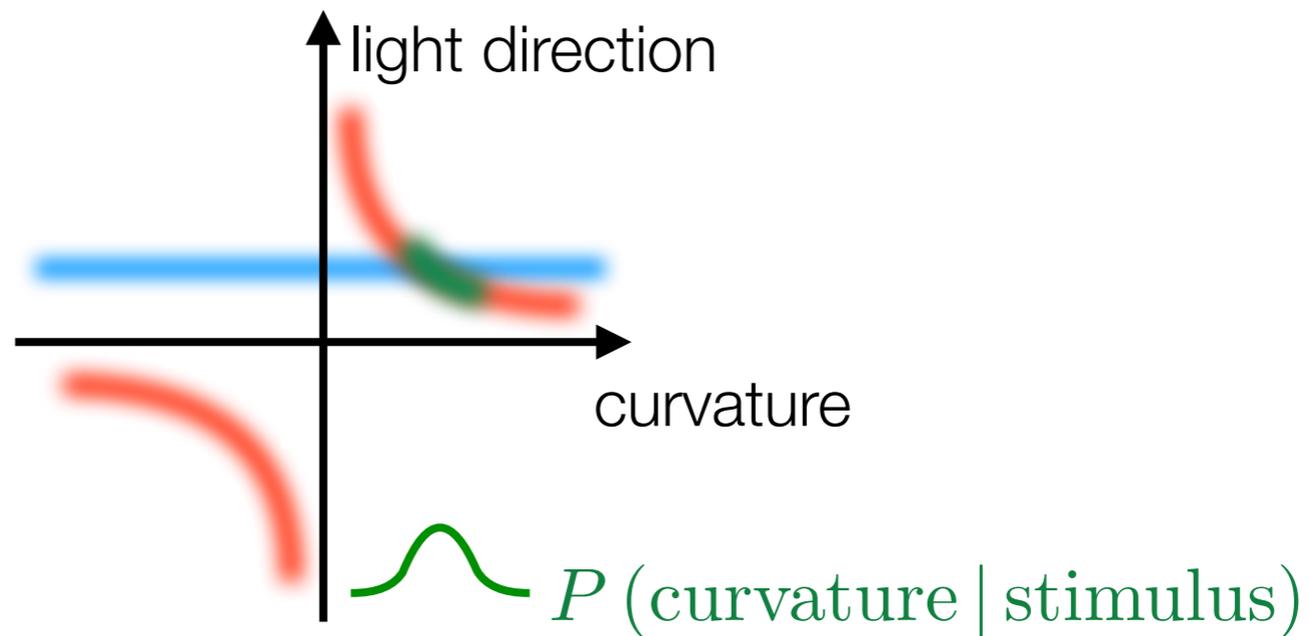
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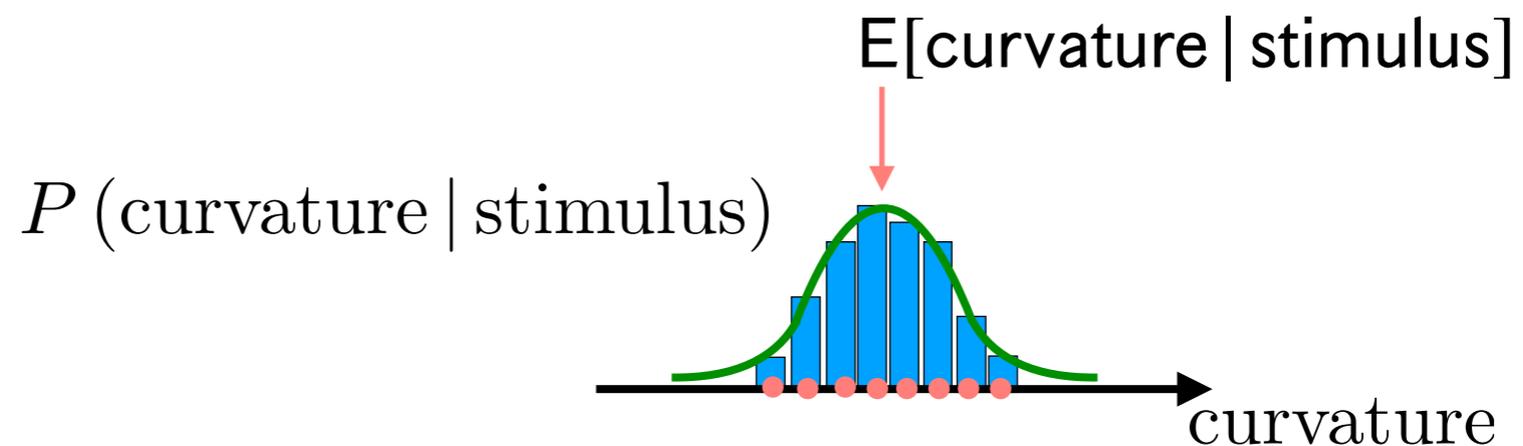
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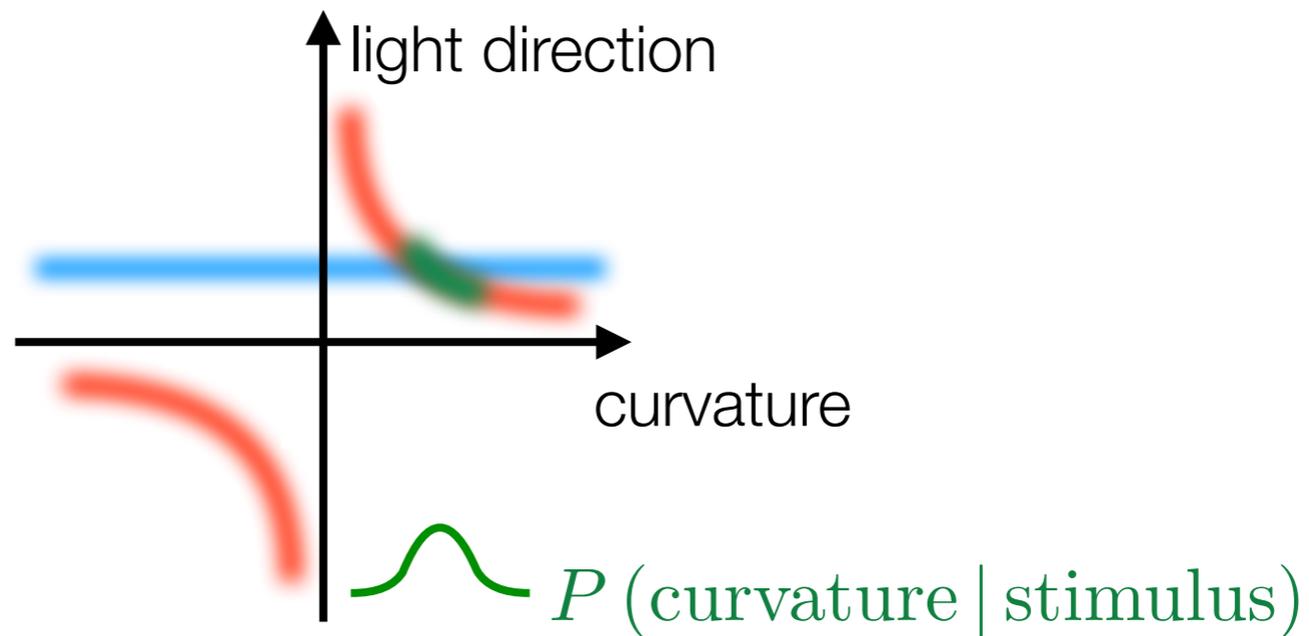


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OK, if $P(\cdot)$ is a Normal distribution (Gaussian)

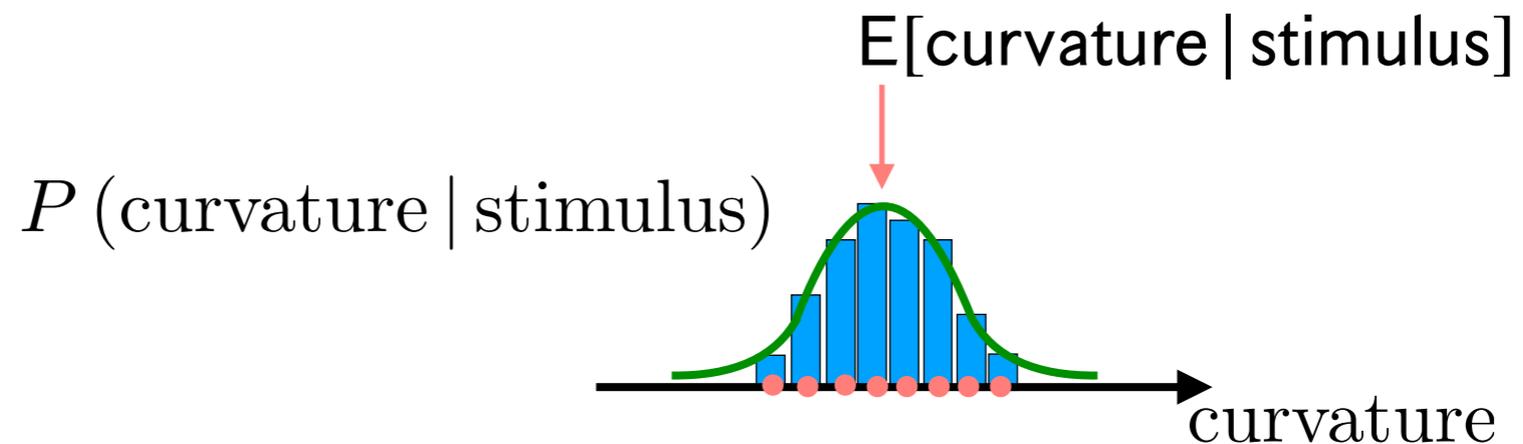
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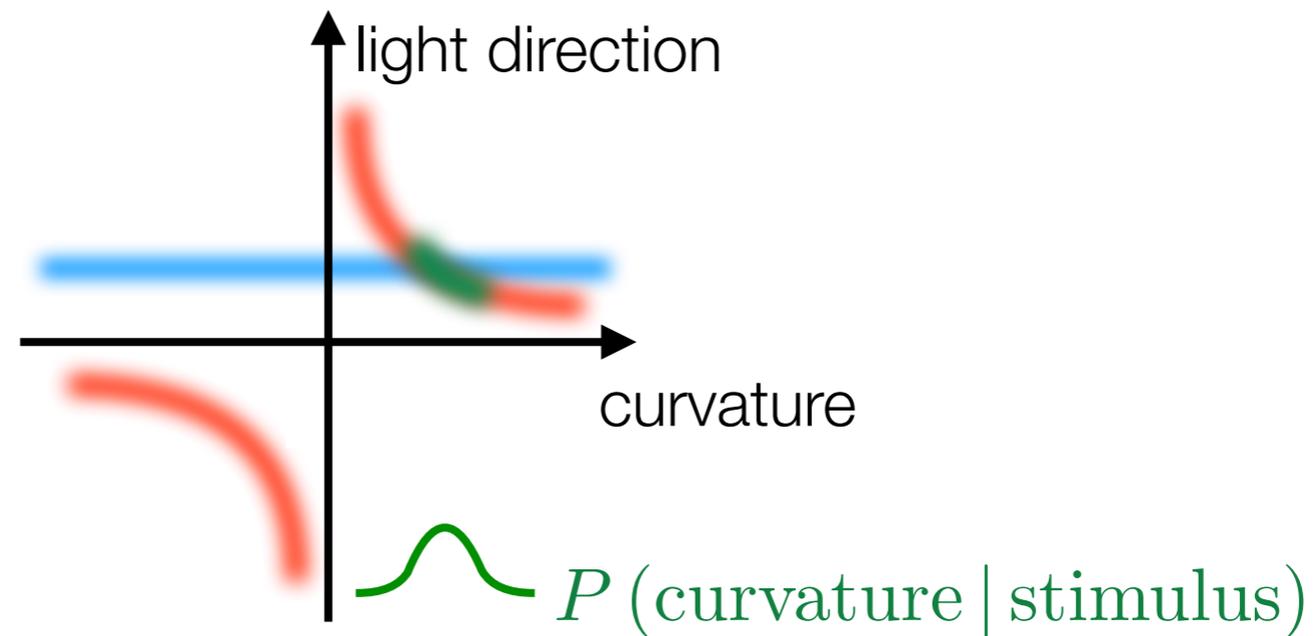
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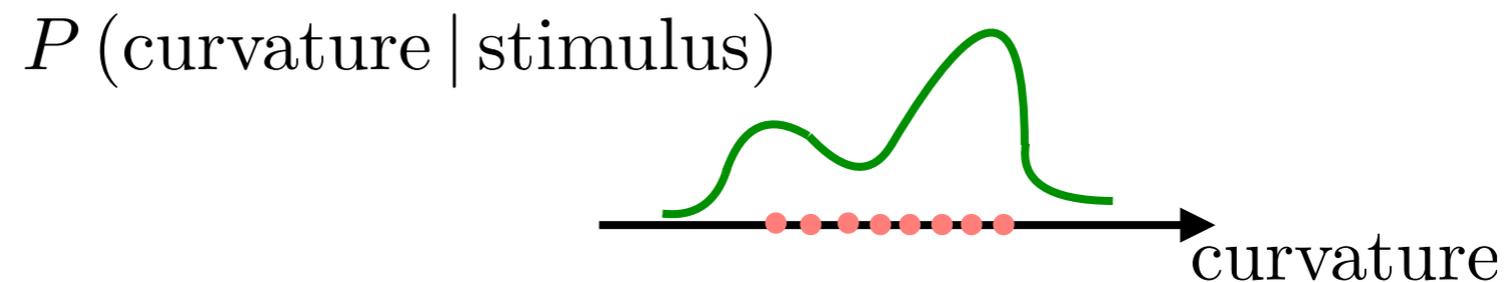
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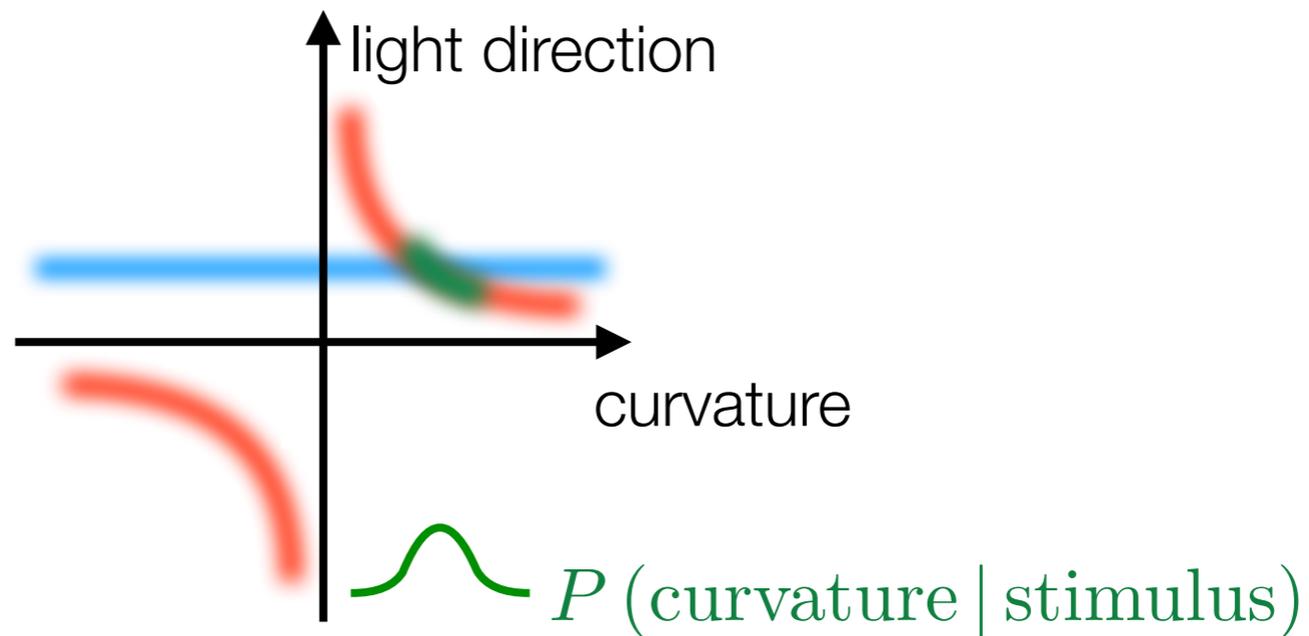
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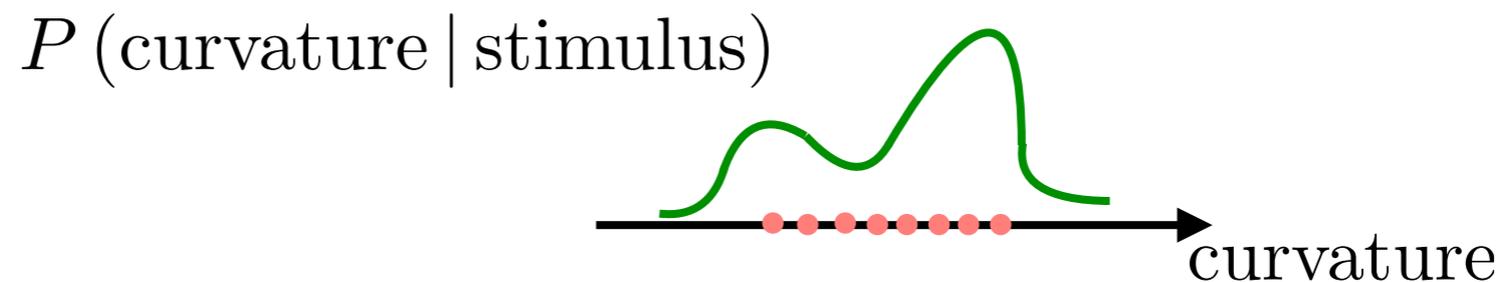
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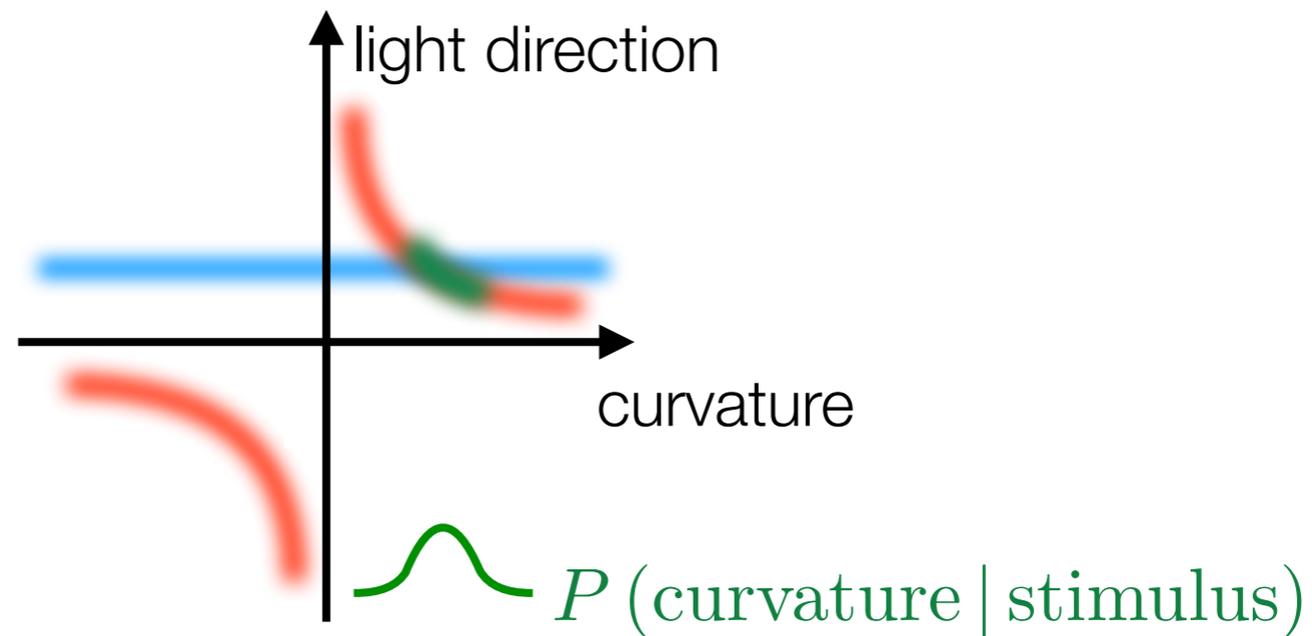


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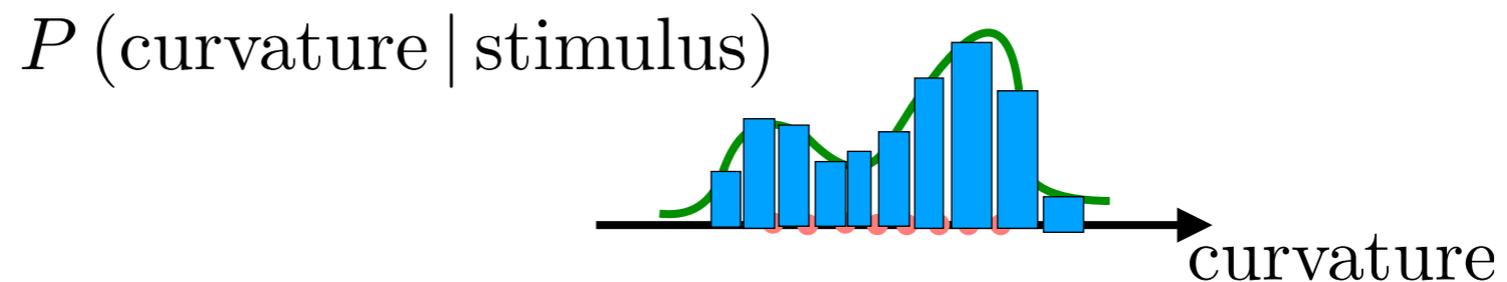
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3. sampling (Monte Carlo methods)

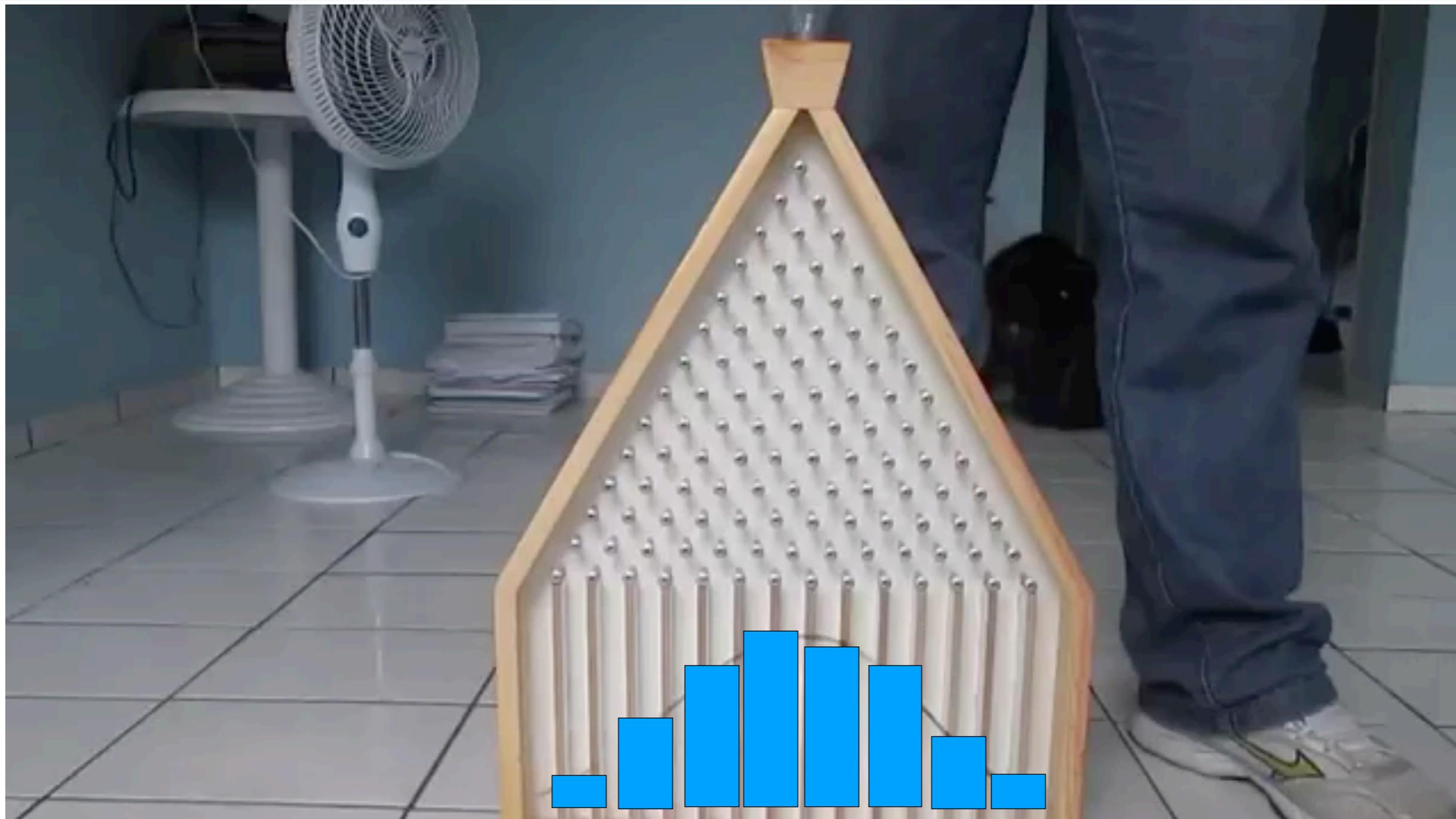
Sampling



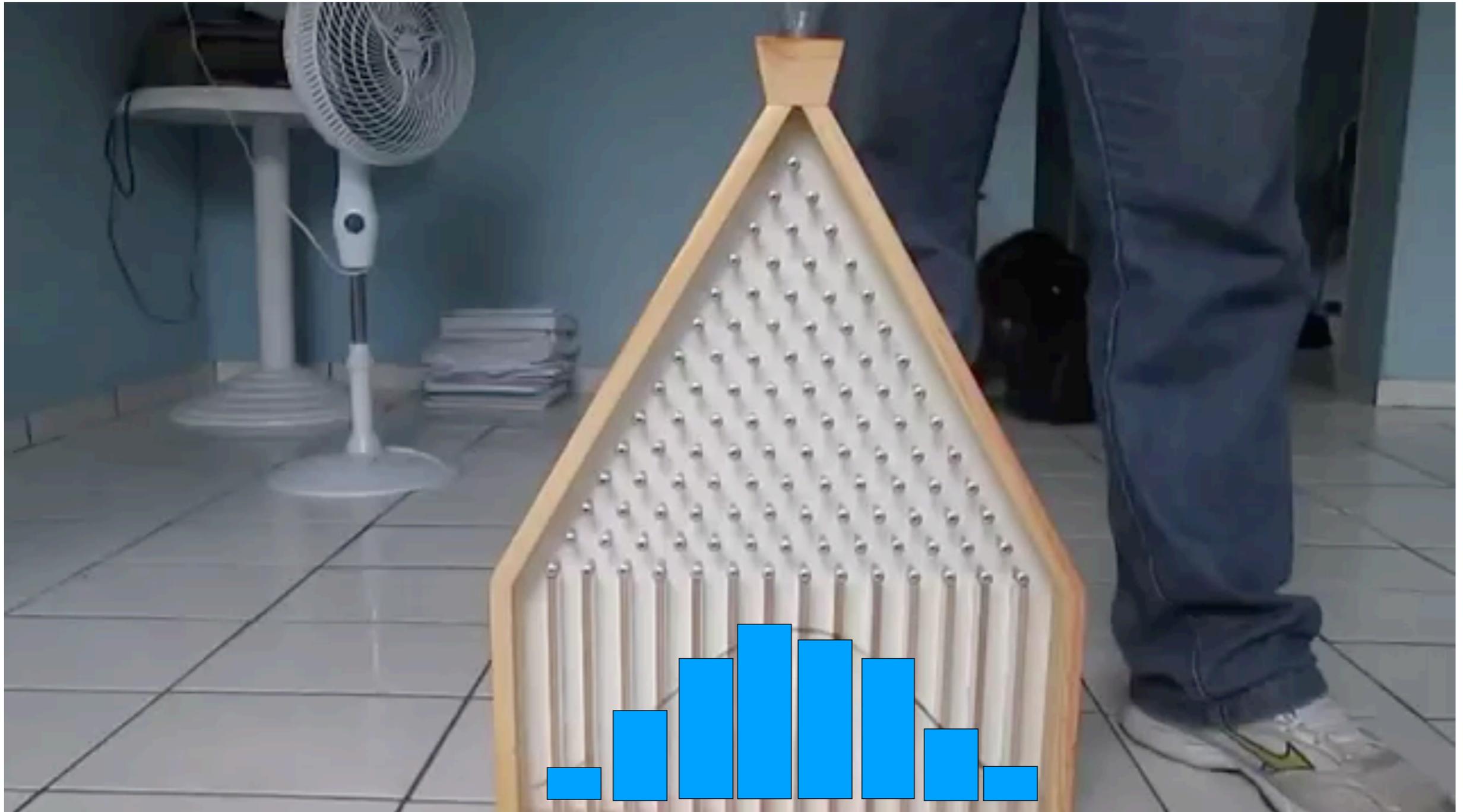
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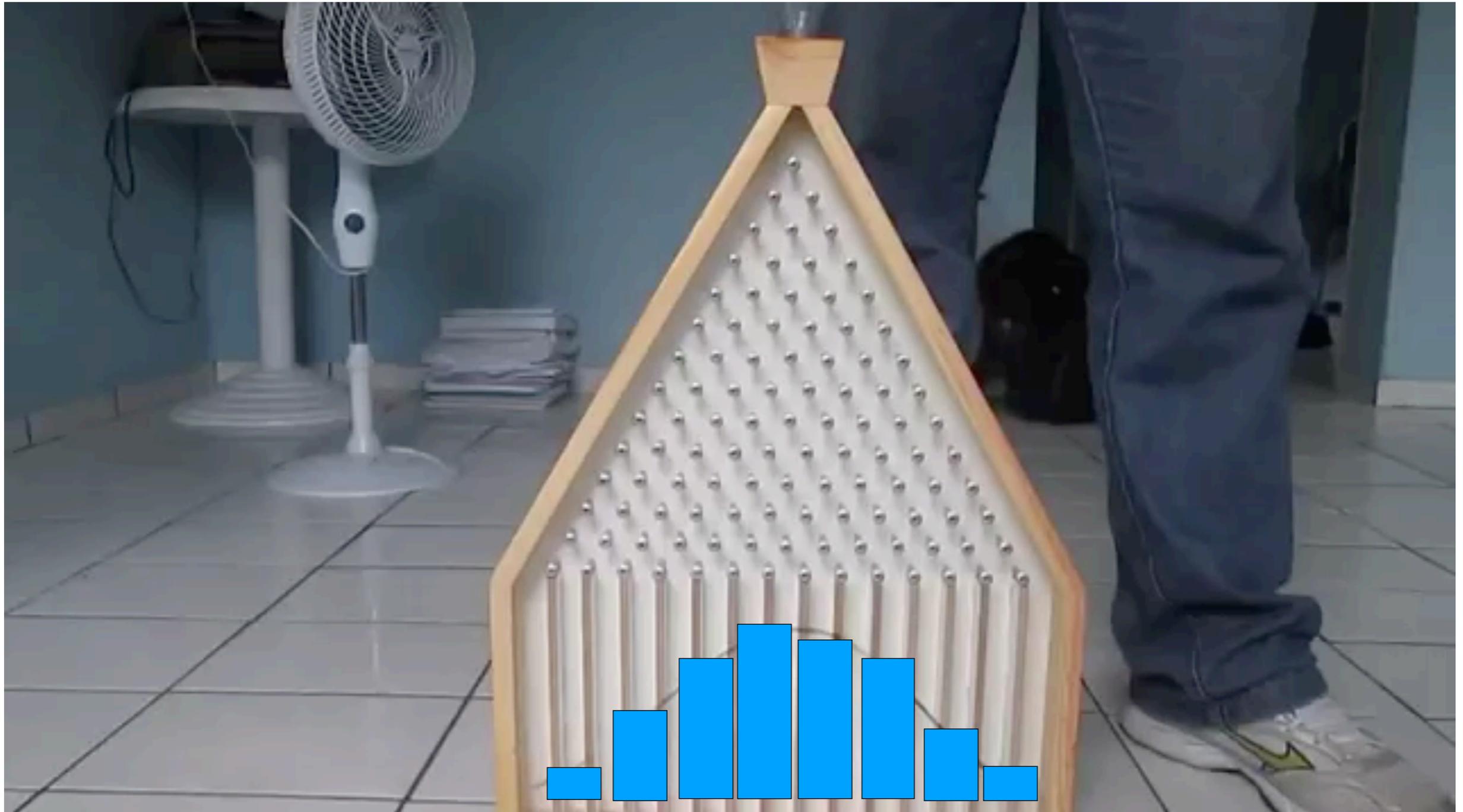


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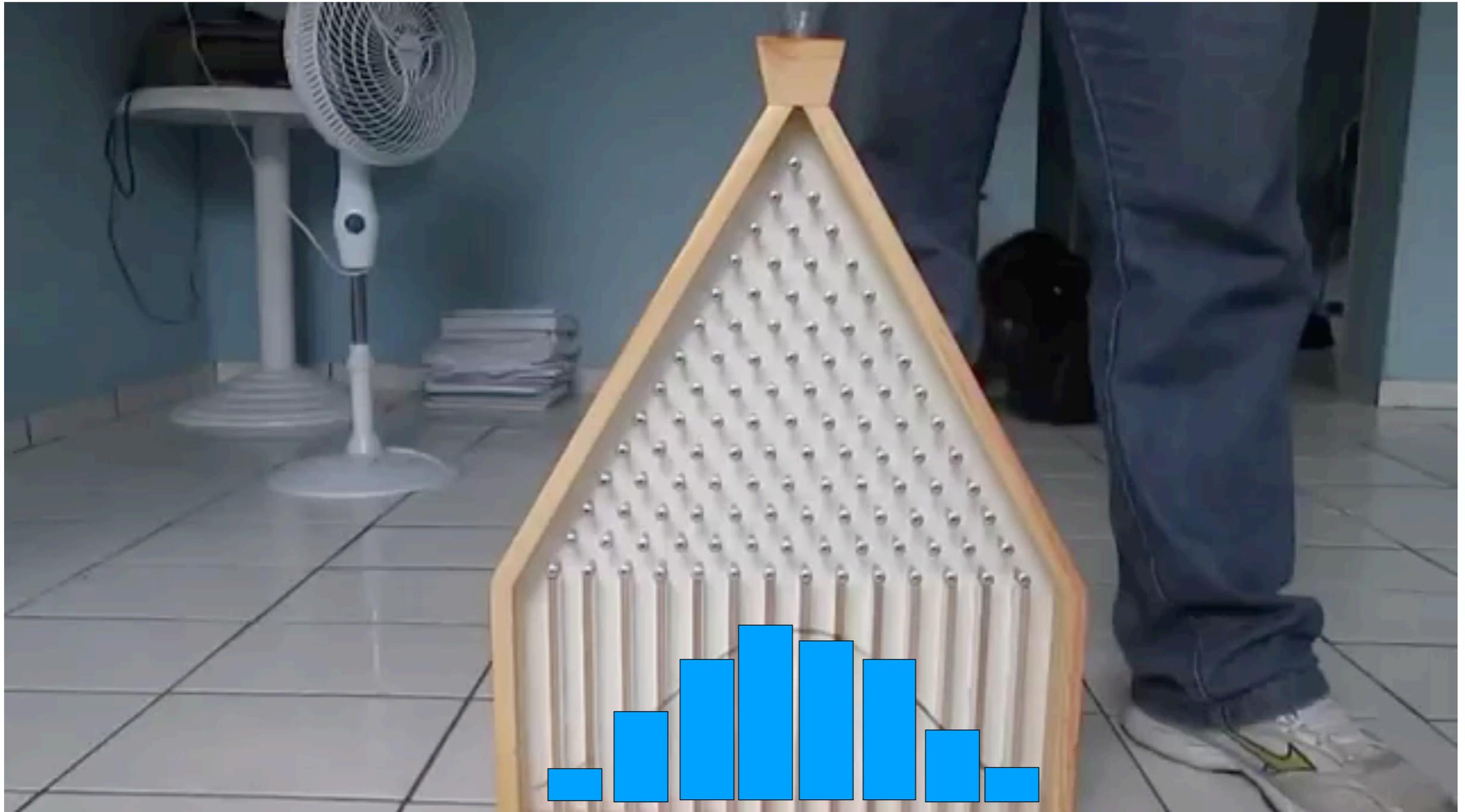
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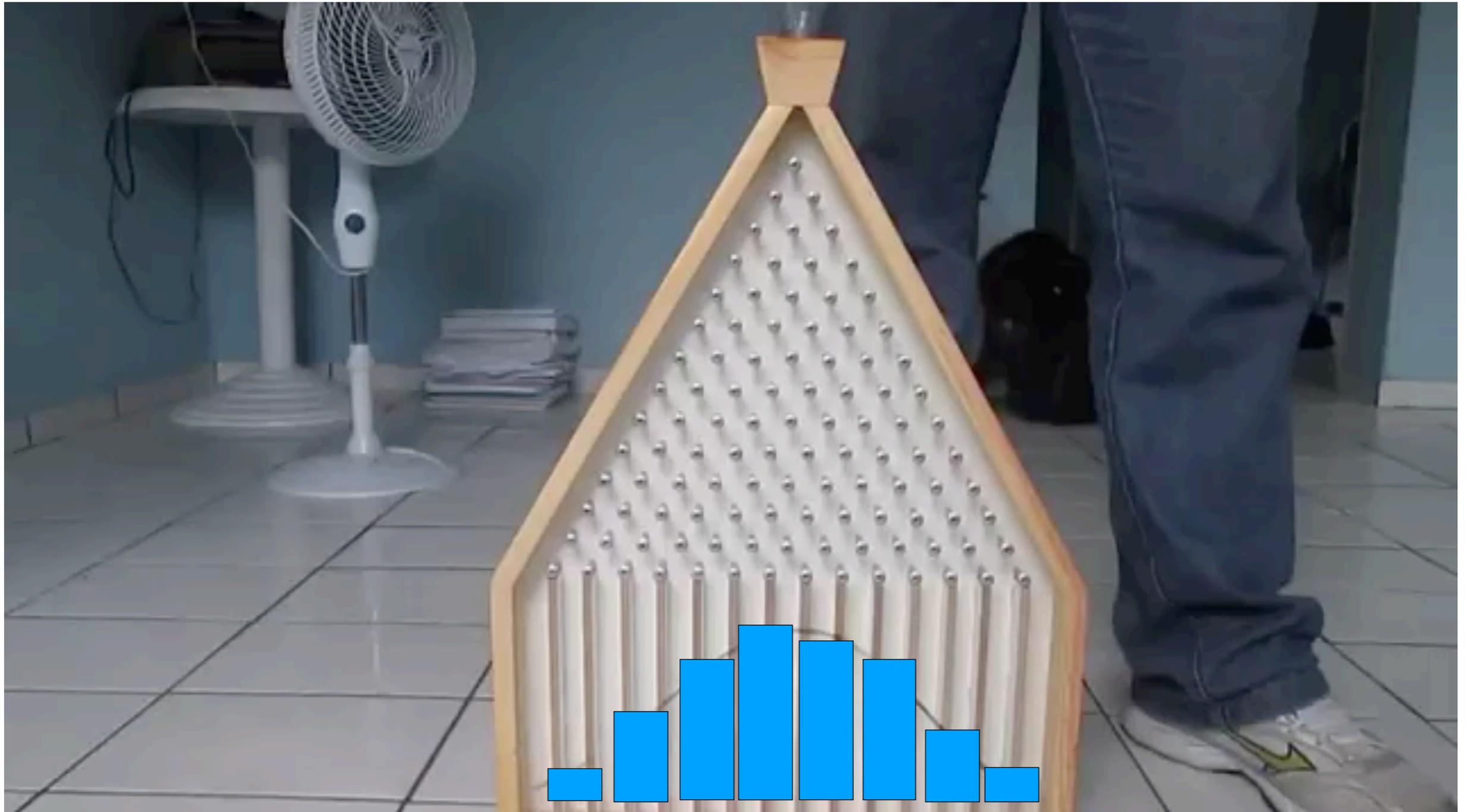
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- the proportion of balls at different possible positions is proportional to the distribution
- skimming through these examples we can approximate the distribution
- (one can think of building a histogram instead of specifying the parameters of a distribution)

Sampling methods

- Assumption: we can access a scaled version of the probability distribution: $P^*(x) = c P(x)$
- Motivation: inferring the posterior with Bayes rule:

$$P(x | \text{Data}) = \frac{P(\text{Data} | x)P(x)}{P(\text{Data})} \propto c \cdot P(\text{Data} | x)P(x)$$

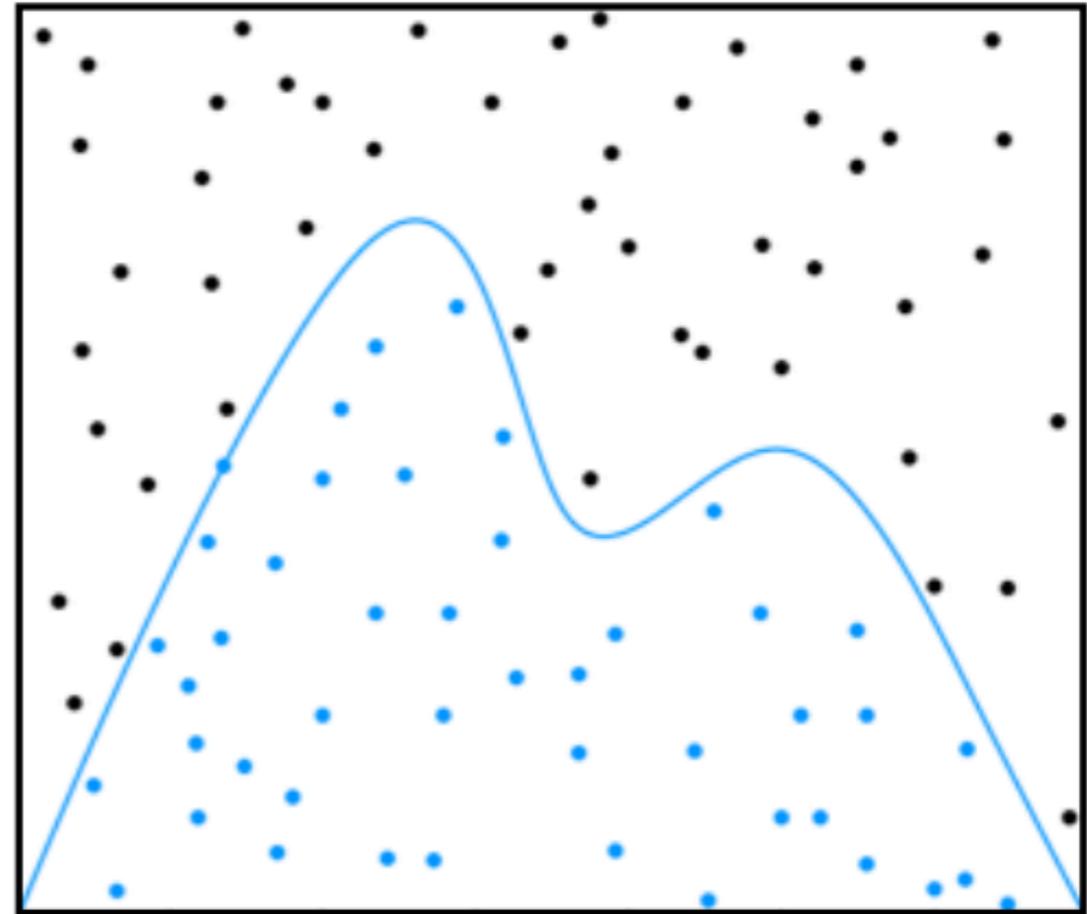
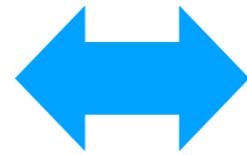
Sampling methods

- Assumption: we can access a scaled version of the probability distribution: $P^*(x) = c P(x)$
- Motivation: inferring the posterior with Bayes rule:

$$P(x | \text{Data}) = \frac{P(\text{Data} | x)P(x)}{P(\text{Data})} \propto c \cdot P(\text{Data} | x)P(x)$$

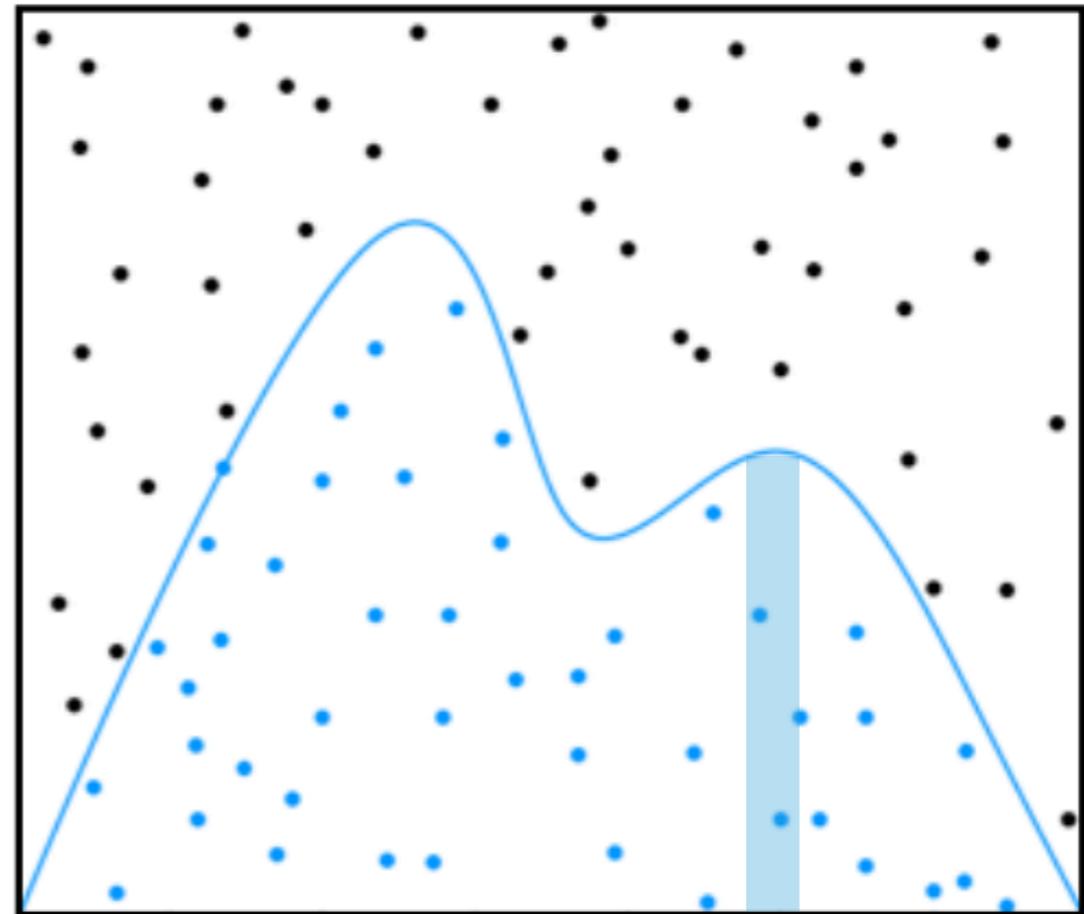
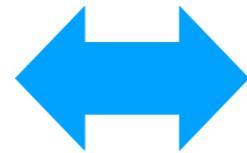
marginal distribution —
invokes complicated integrals,
costly to calculate

Rejection sampling



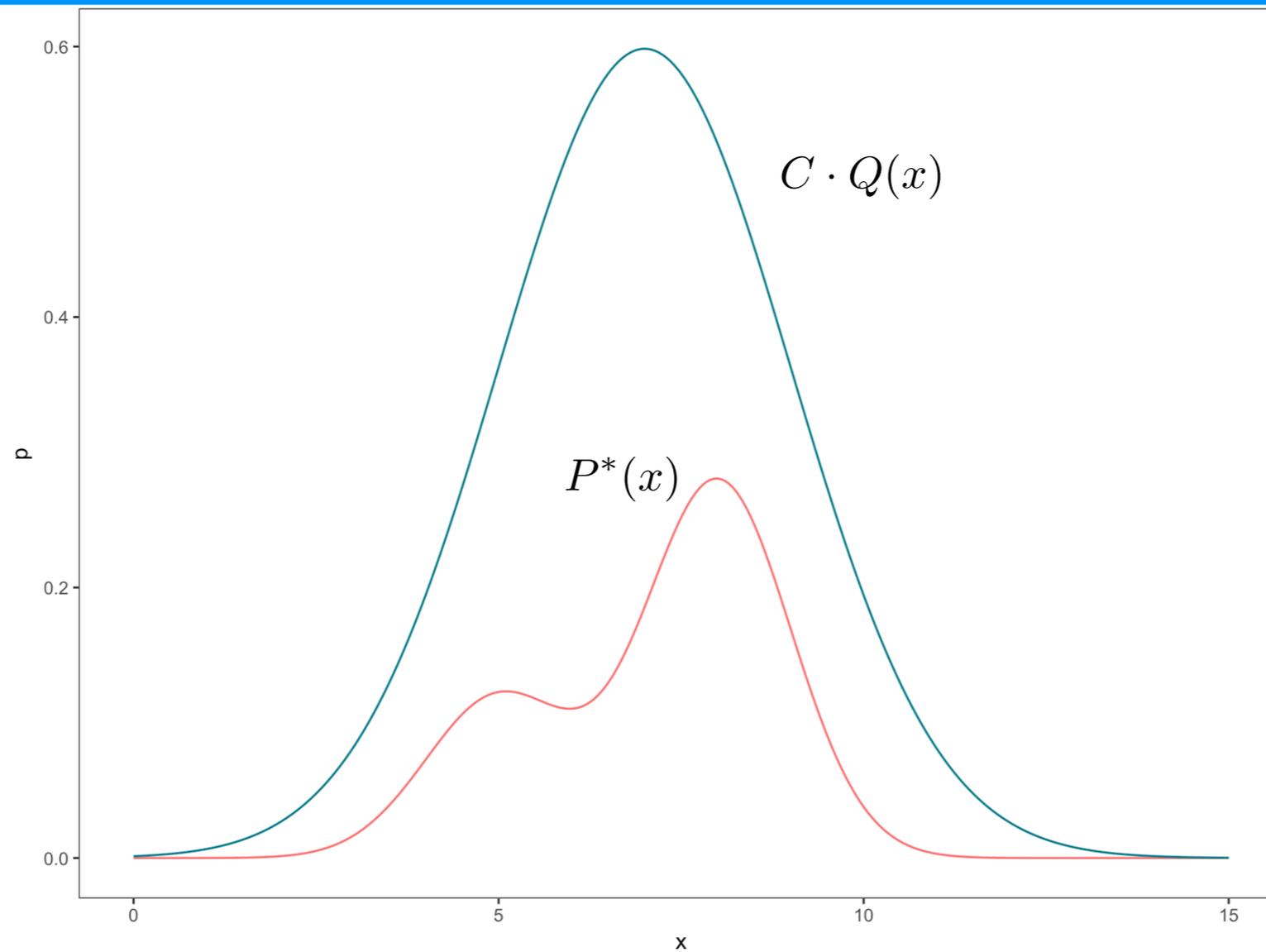
$P^*(x)$

Rejection sampling

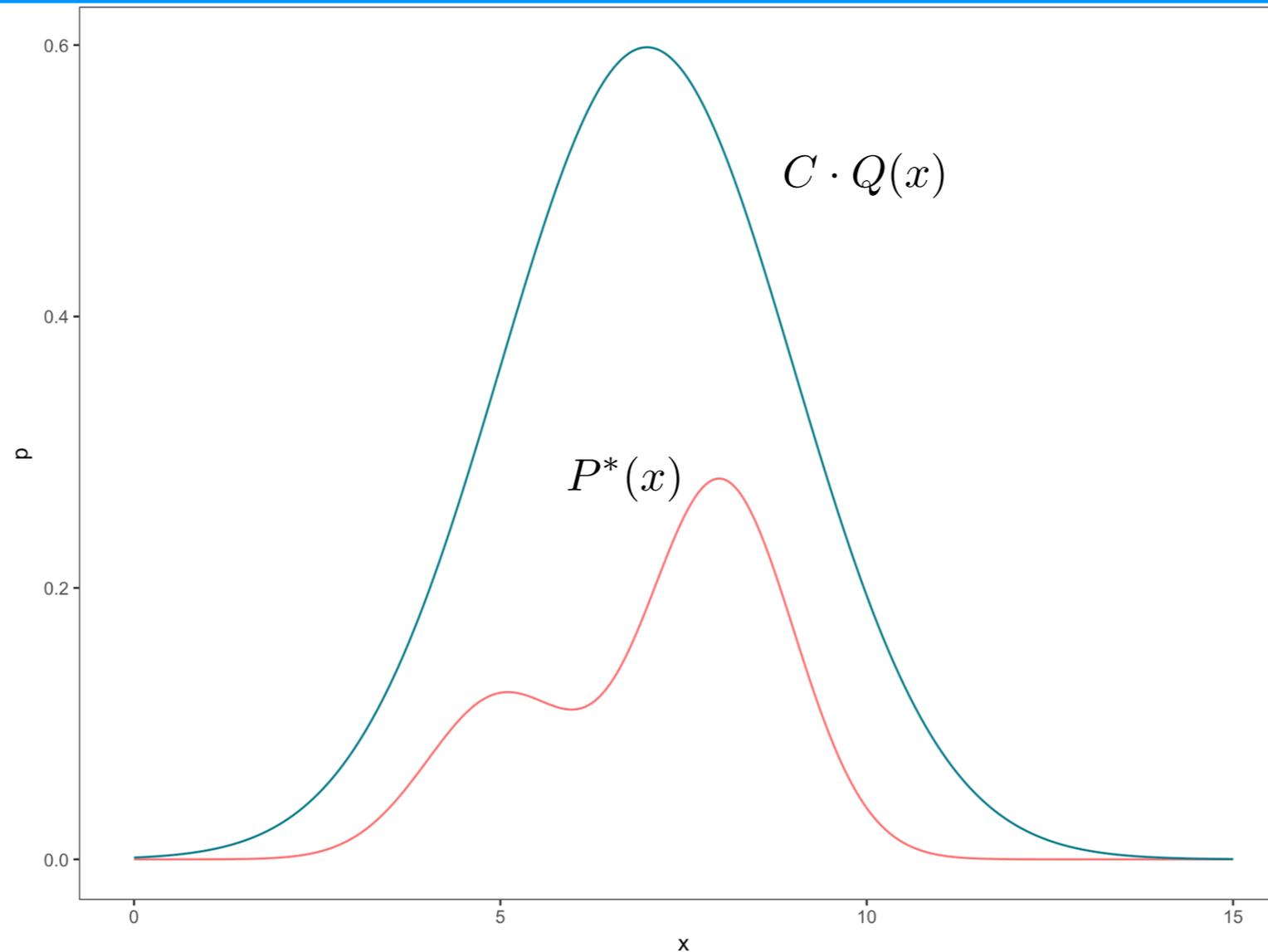


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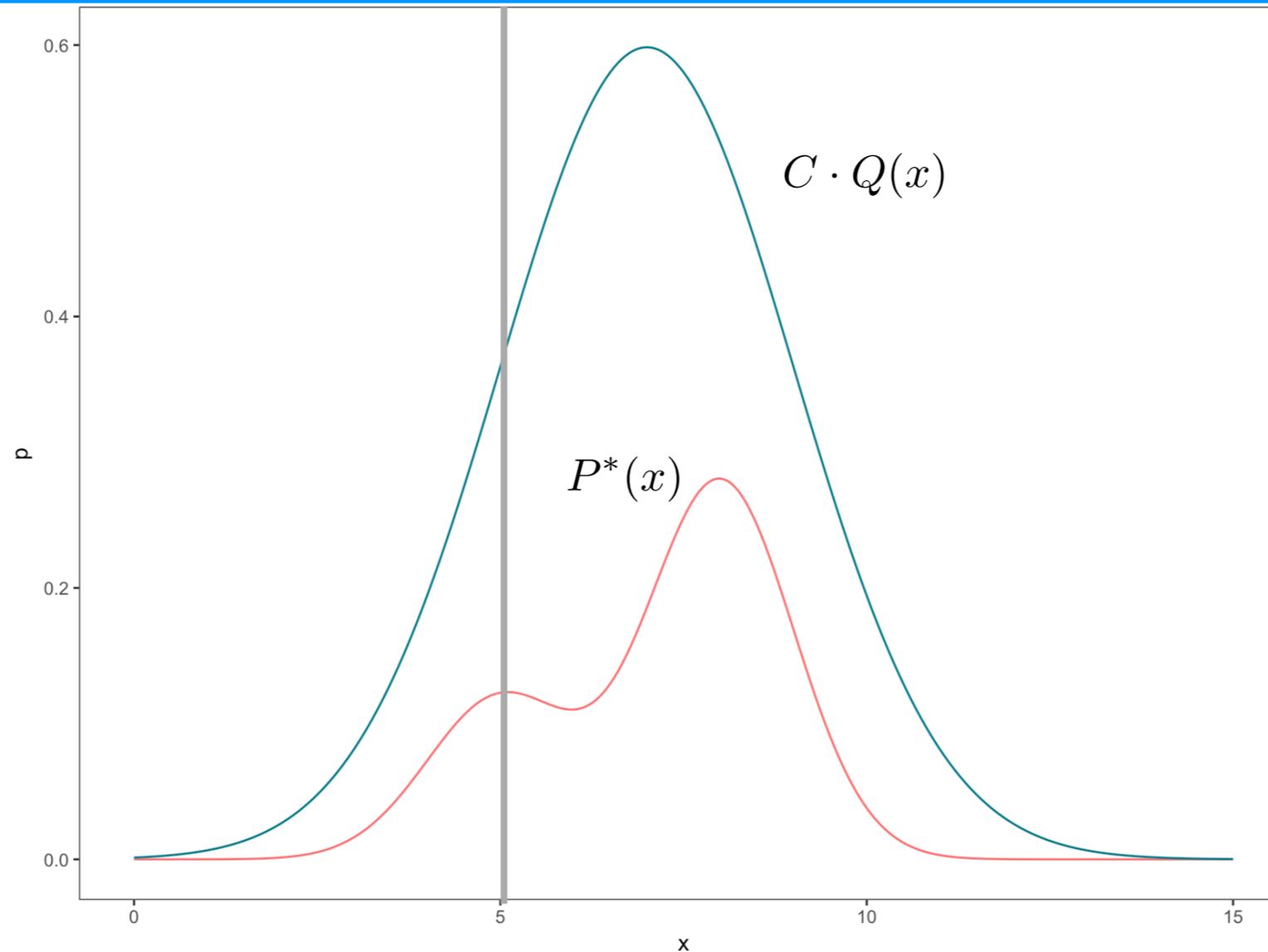
Rejection sampling



- the proposal density, $Q(x)$, is a distribution from which we can obtain samples (have a random generator for it, e.g. Gaussian)

$$x \sim Q(x)$$

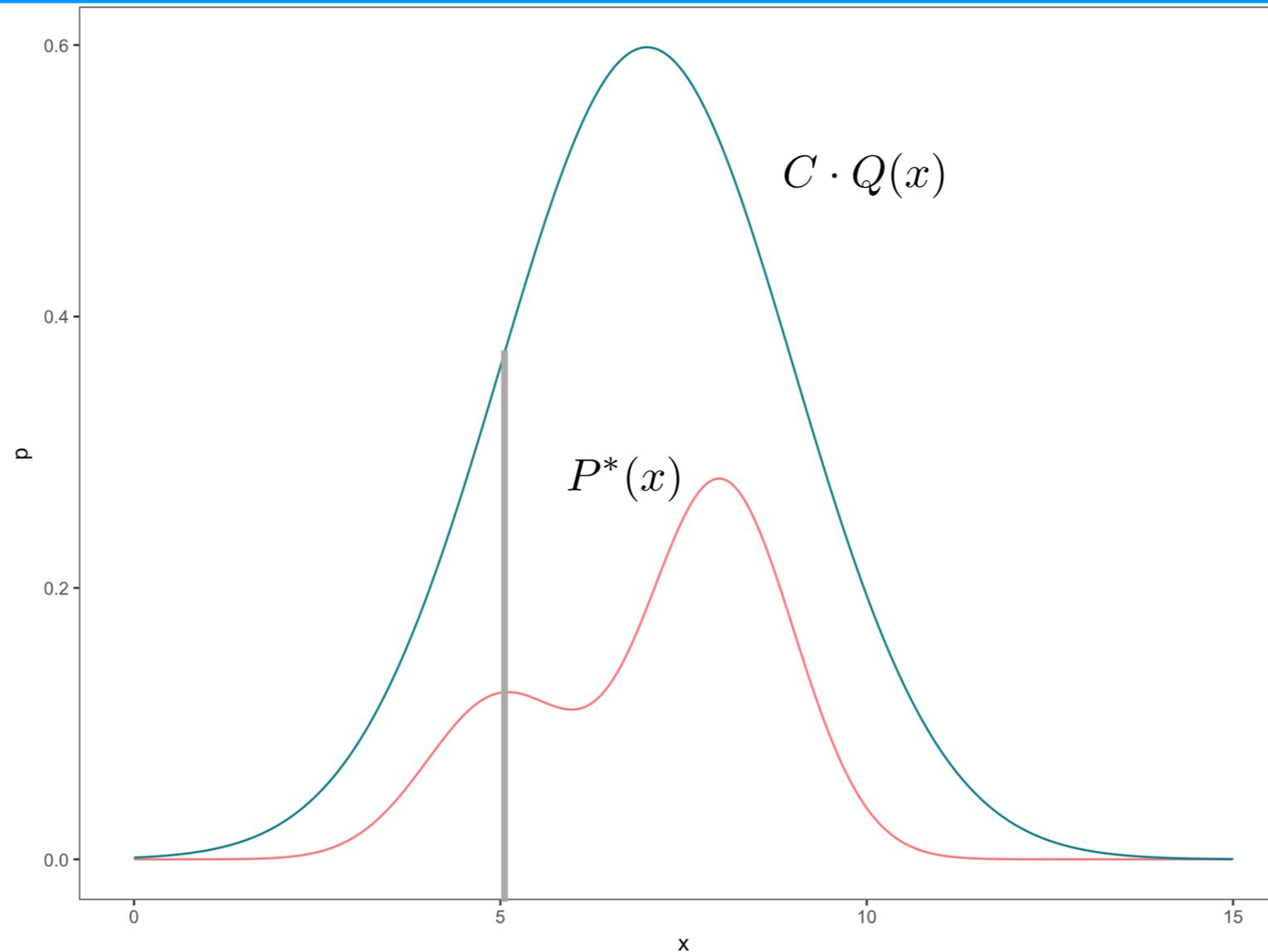
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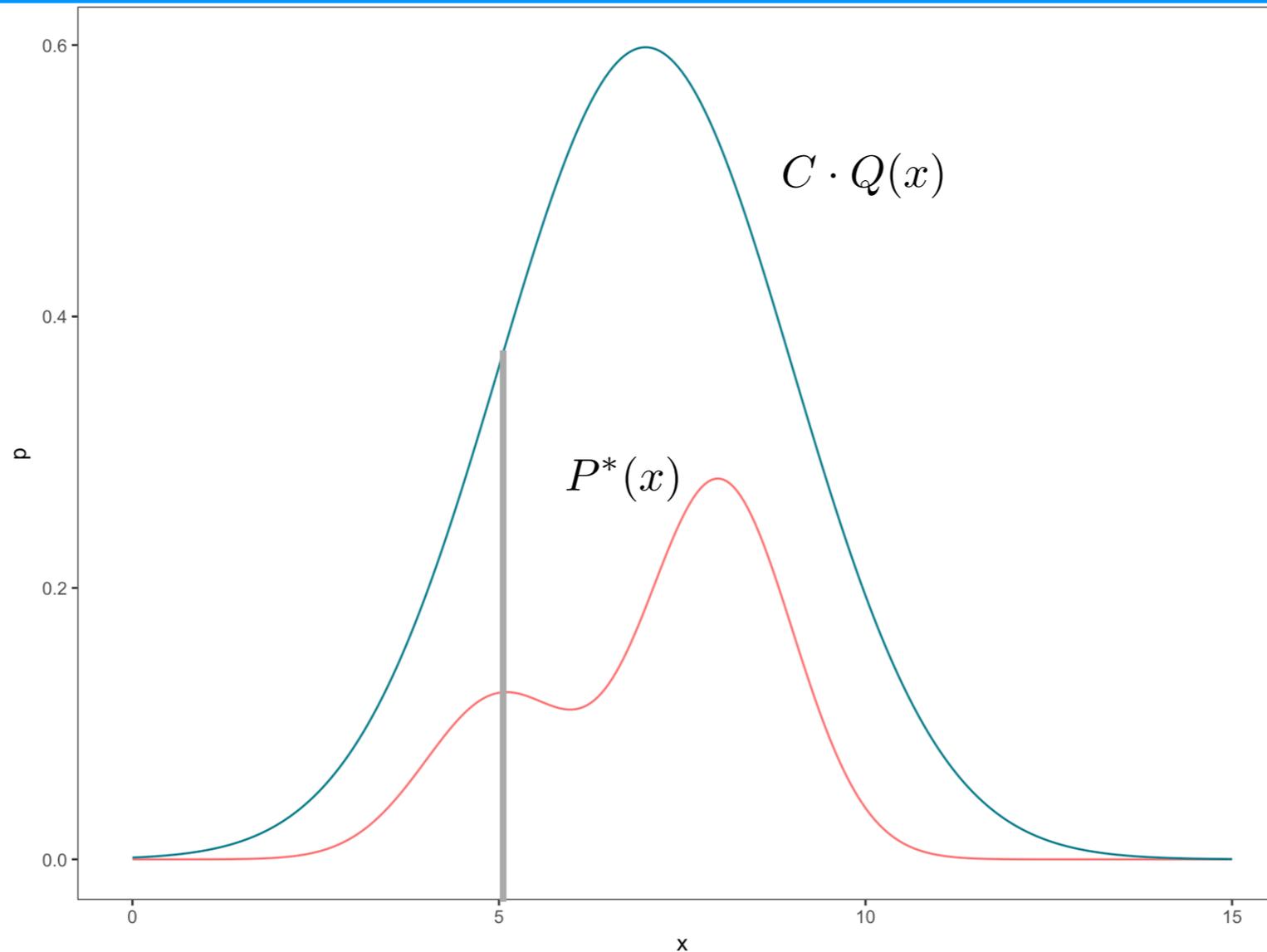
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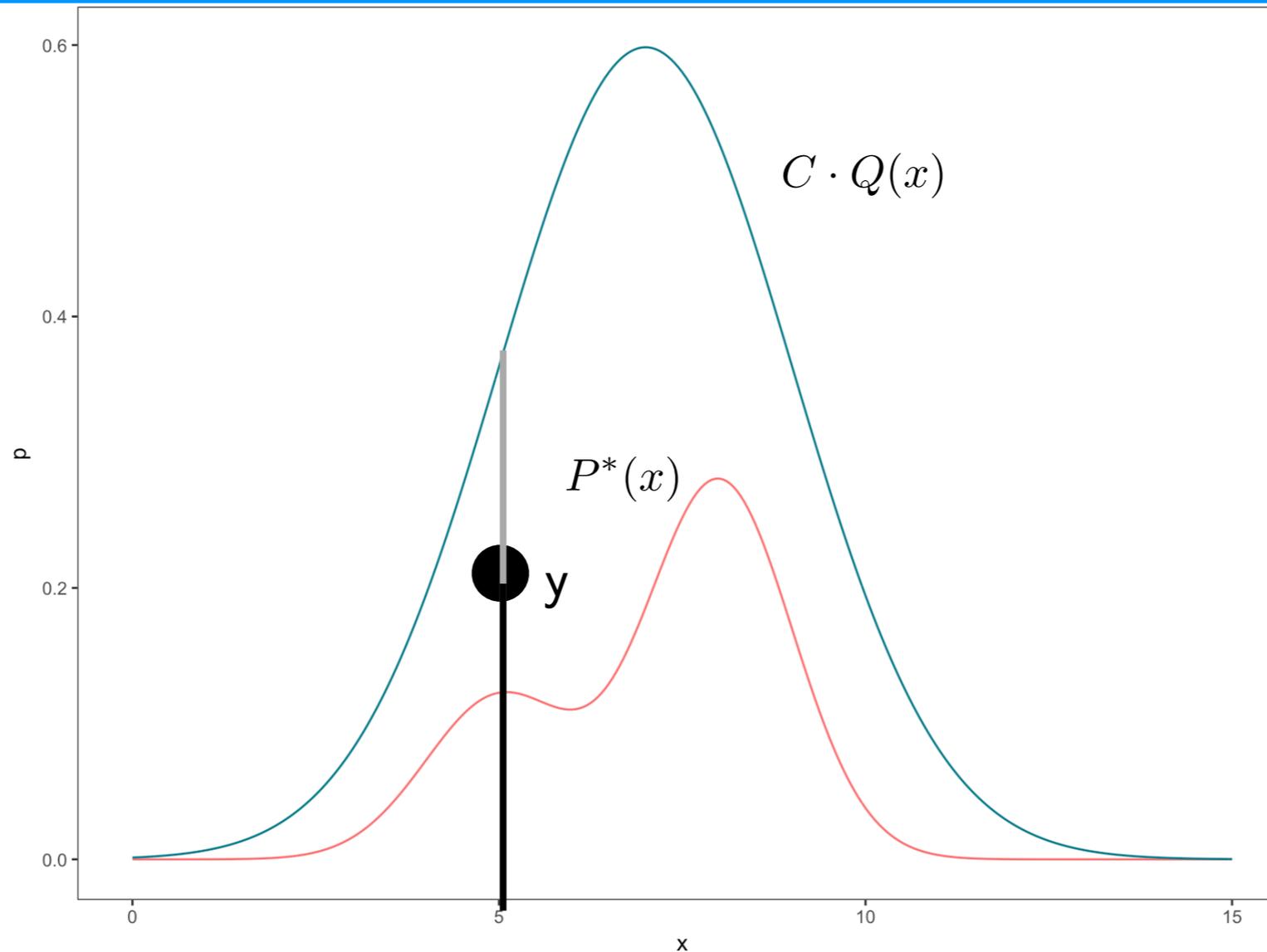
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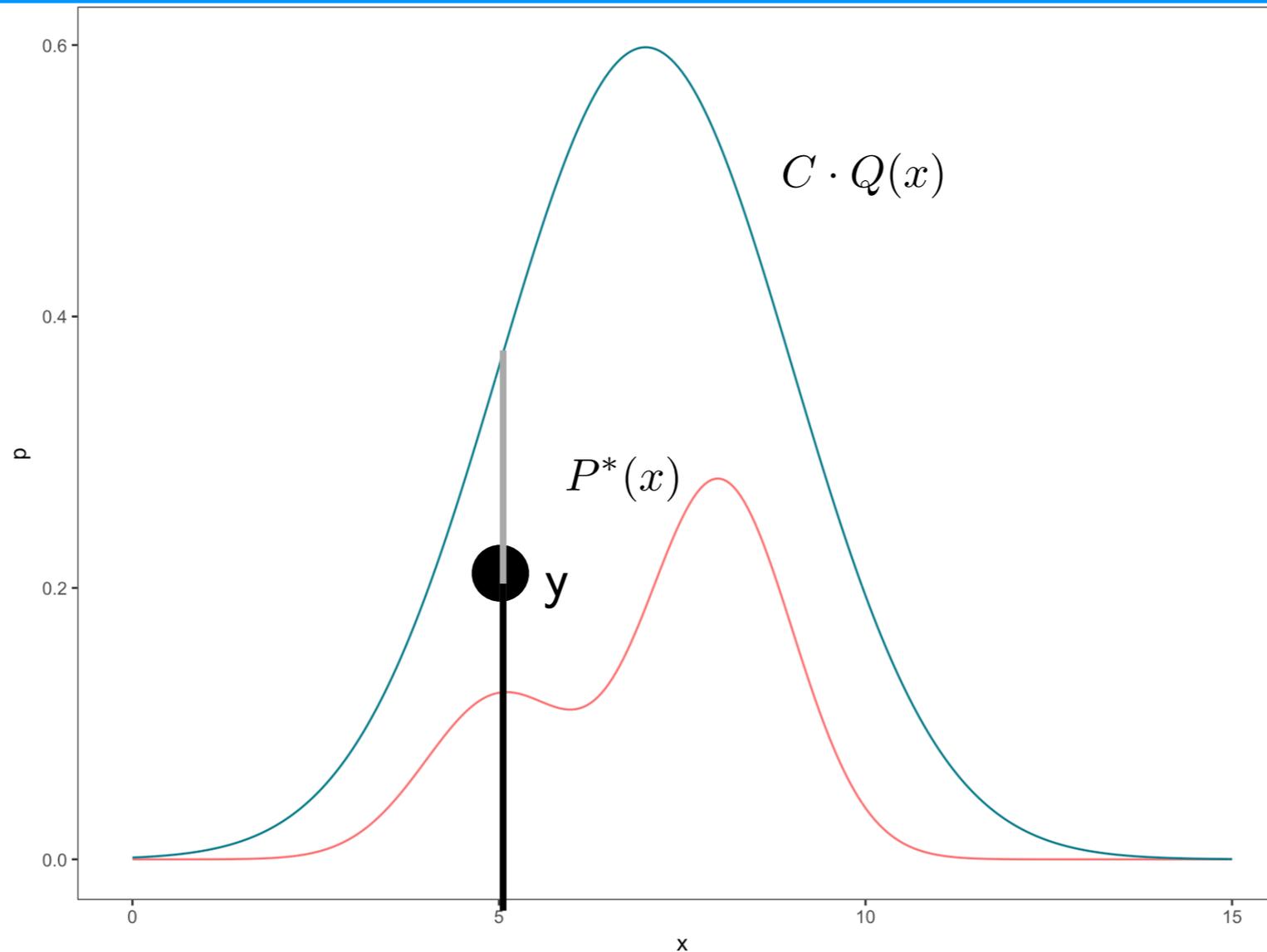
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- a point along the vertical axis is sampled between 0 and the $Q(x)$ is a distribution from which we can obtain samples (have a random generator for it, e.g. Gaussian)
 $y \sim \text{uniform}(0, cQ(x))$

Rejection sampling



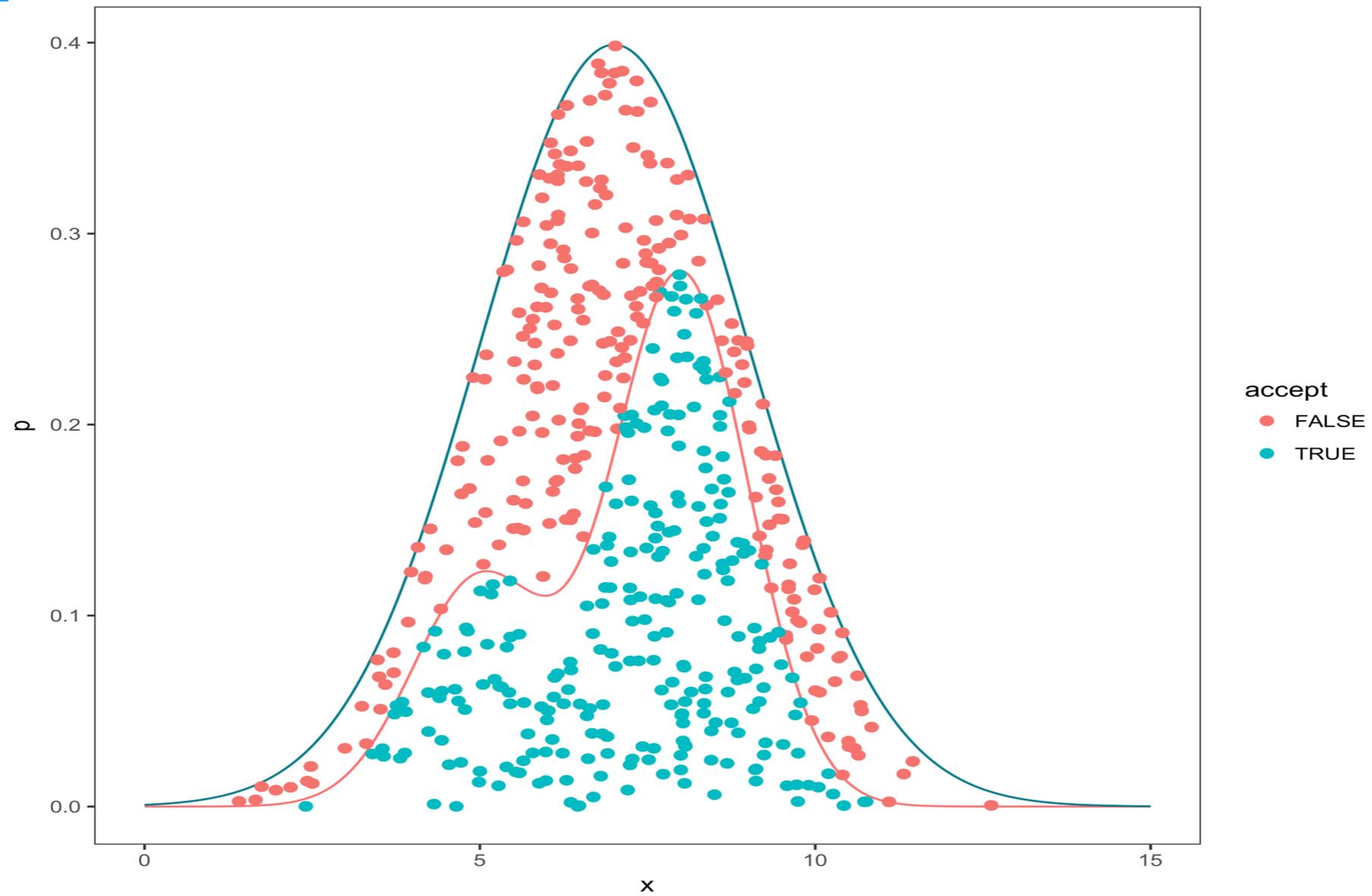
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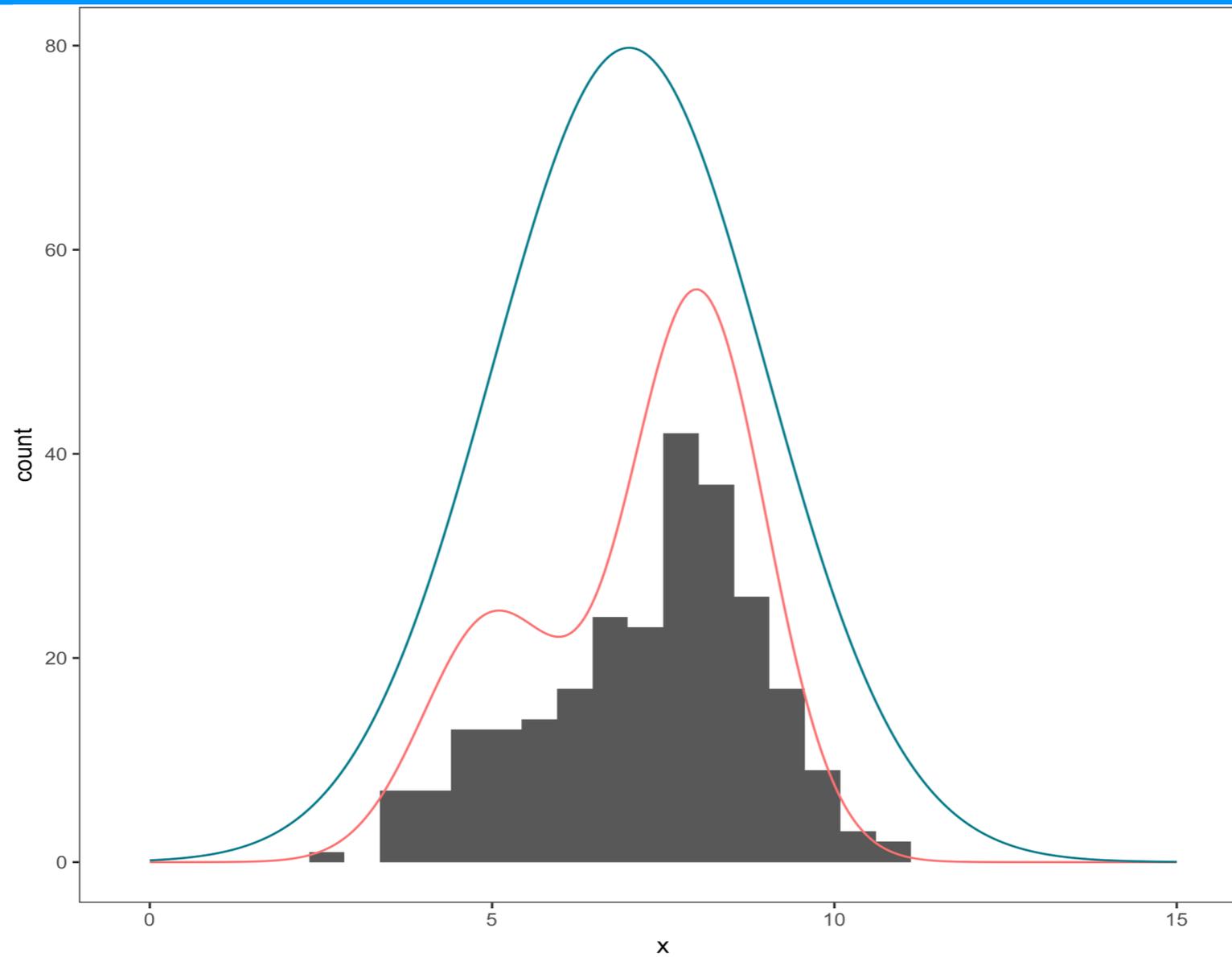


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- proposal is accepted if y is lower than $P^*(x)$

Rejection sampling



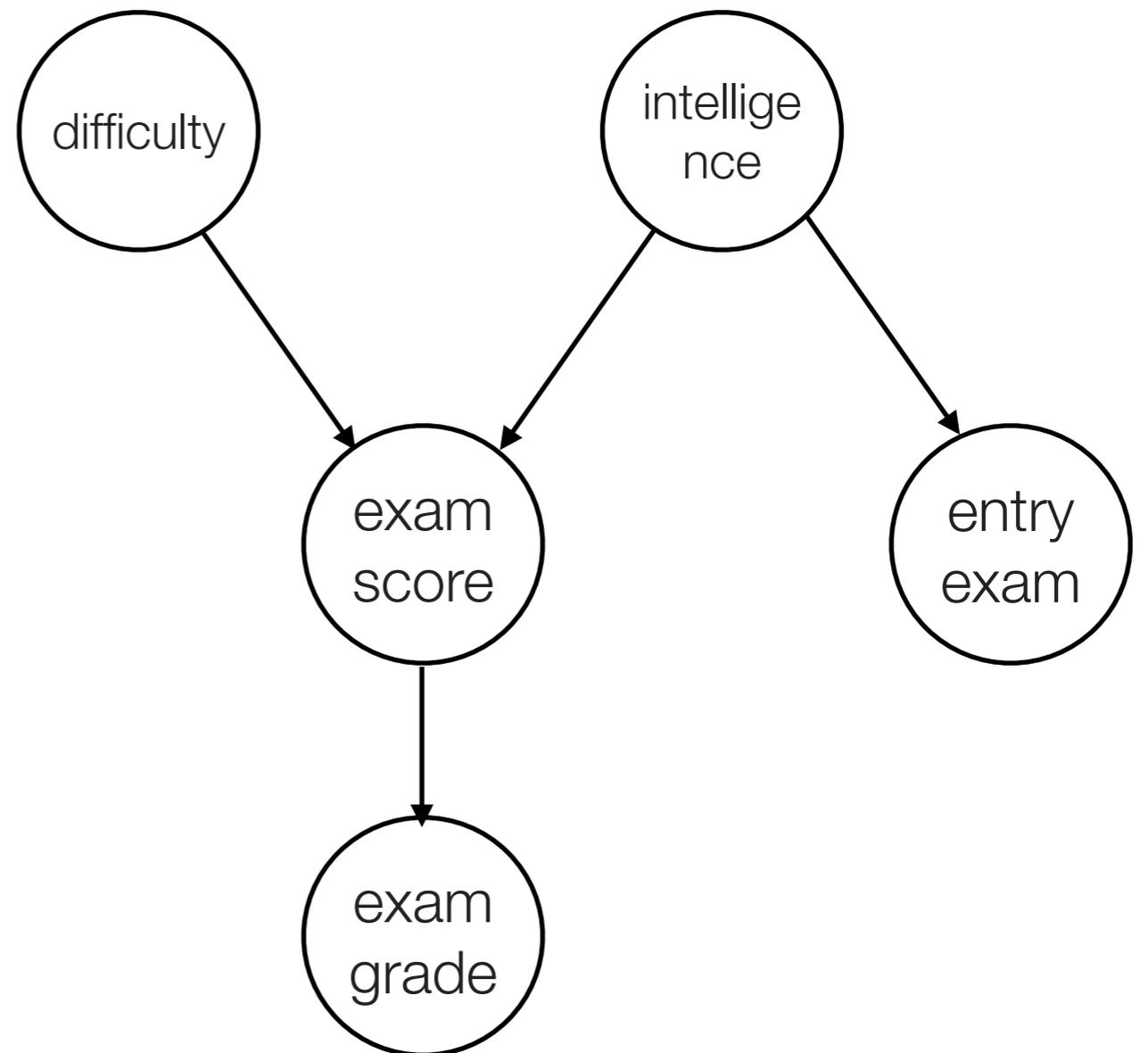
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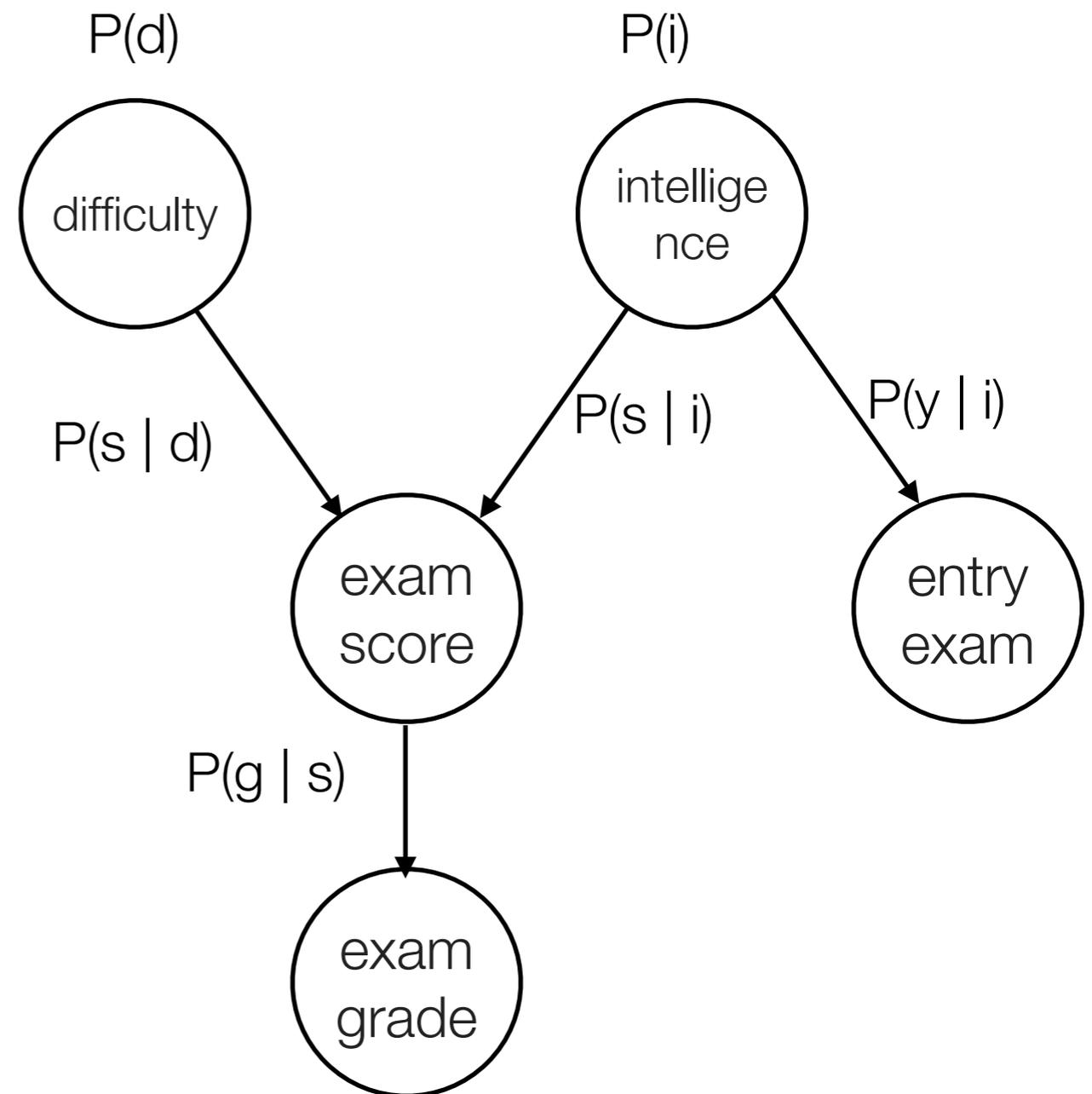
Rejection sampling problems

- $c \cdot Q(x)$ needs to be larger than $P^*(x)$, otherwise sampling will be biased (do not come from the target distribution)
- If $c \cdot Q(x)$ is too large then proportion of failed samples will increase
- It is not effective in high dimensions

Ancestral sampling

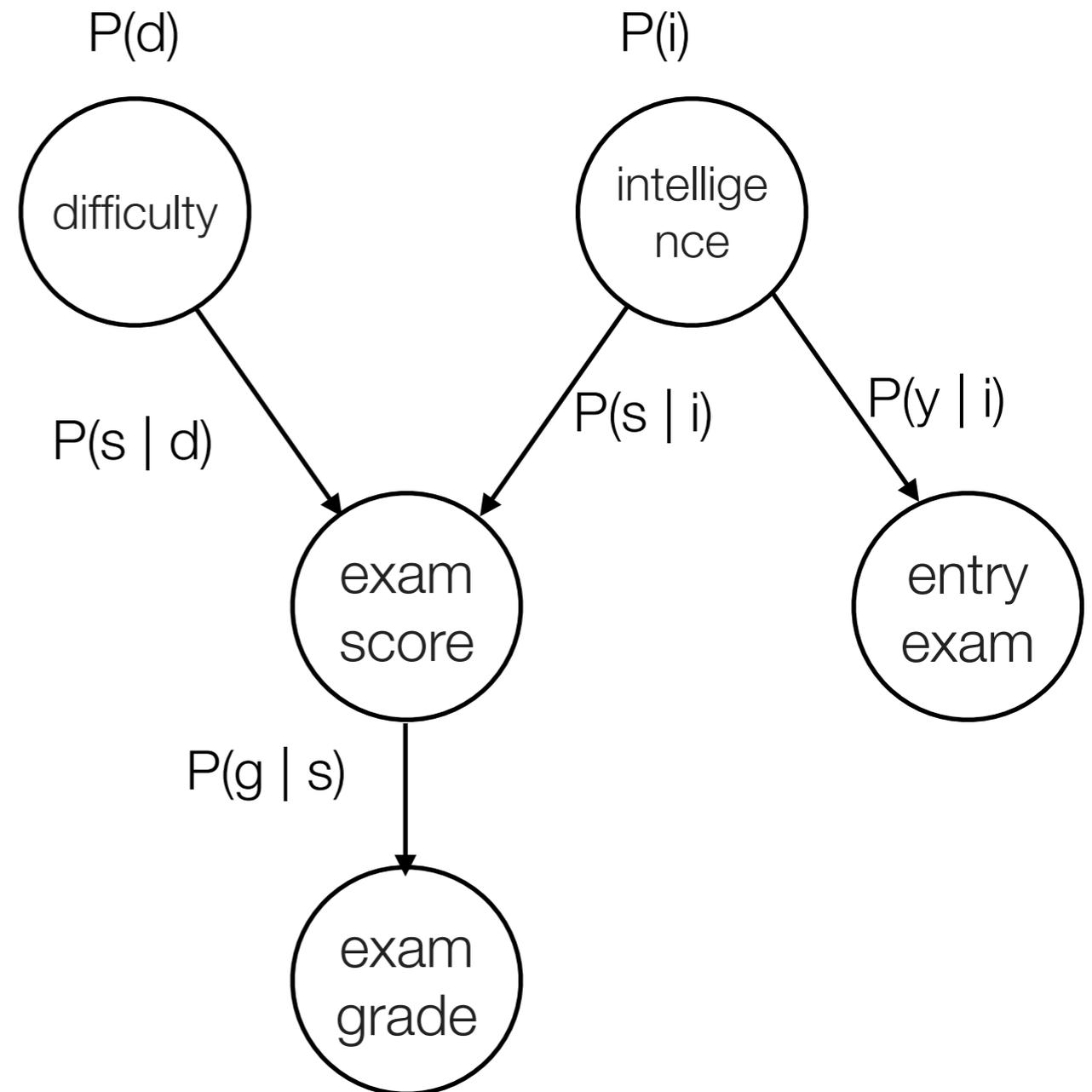


Ancestral sampling



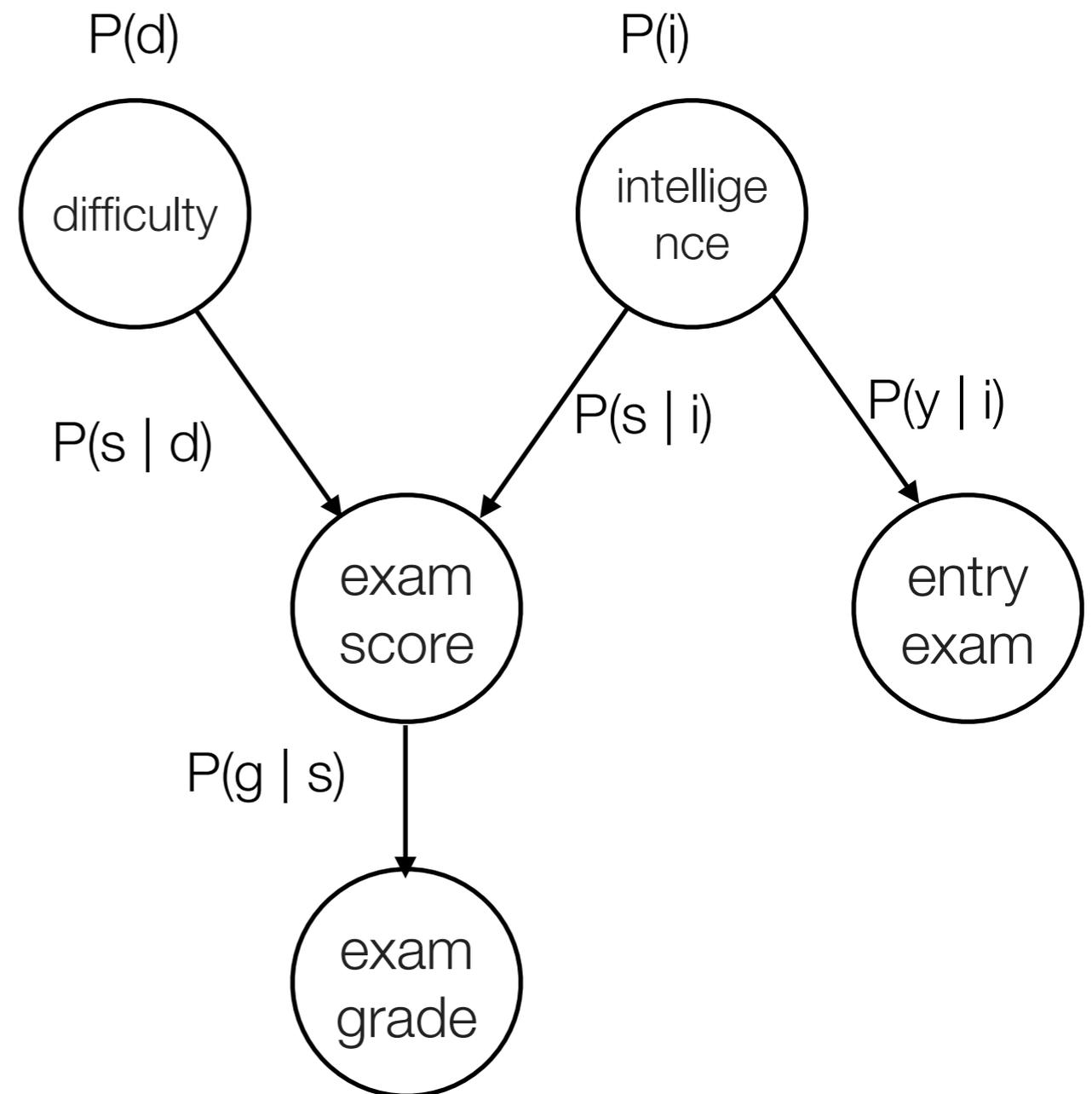
Ancestral sampling

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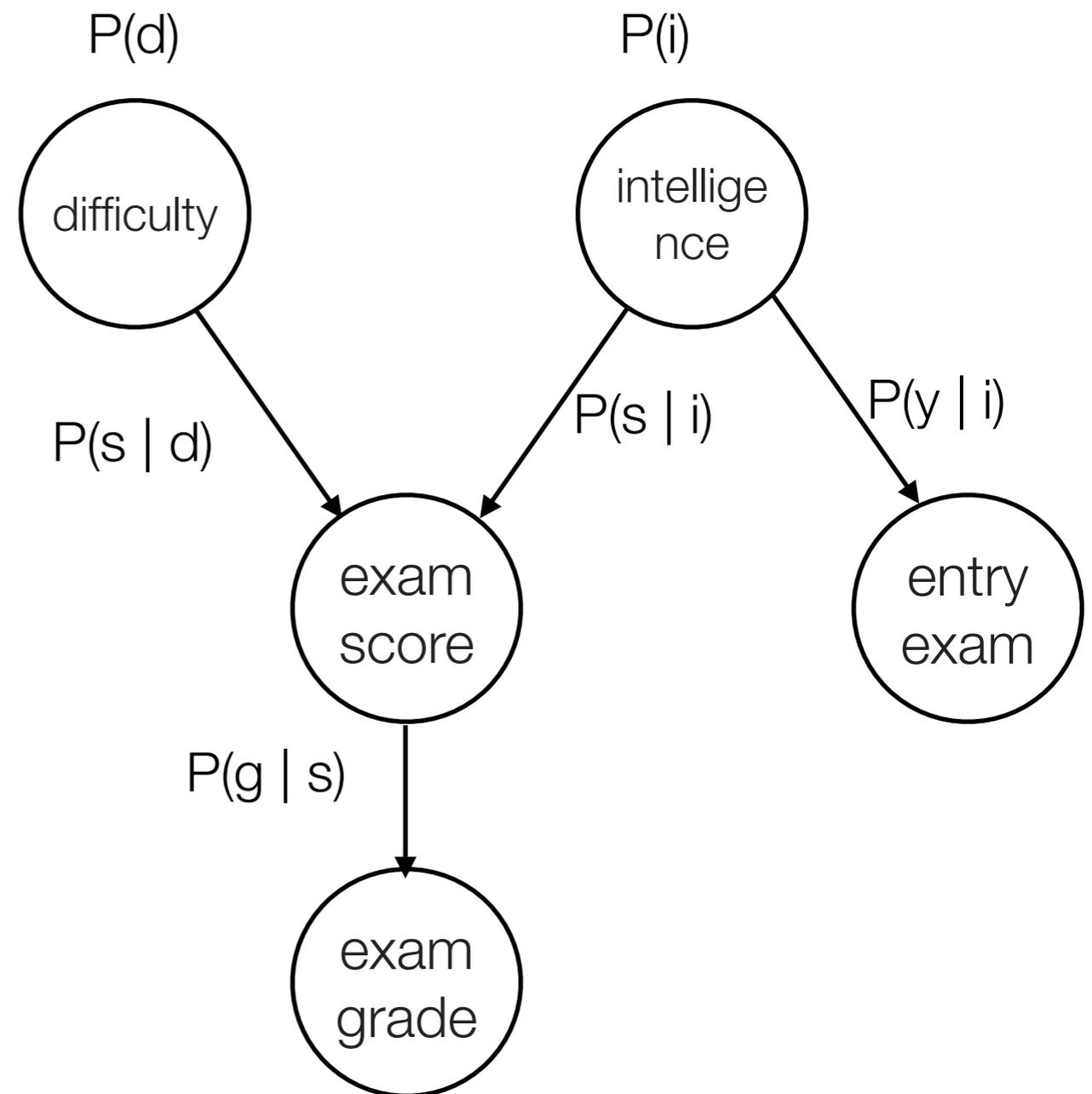
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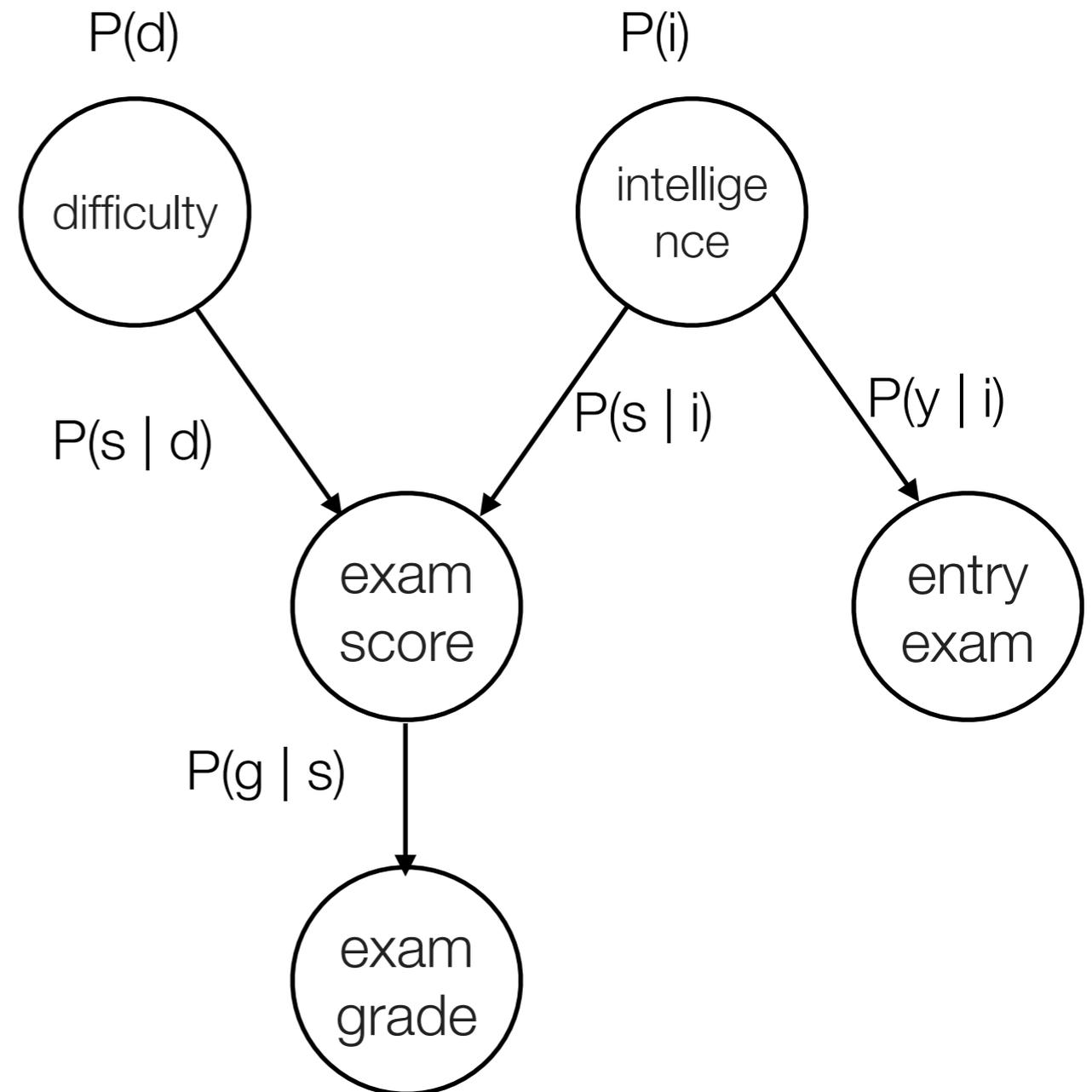
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Ancestral sampling

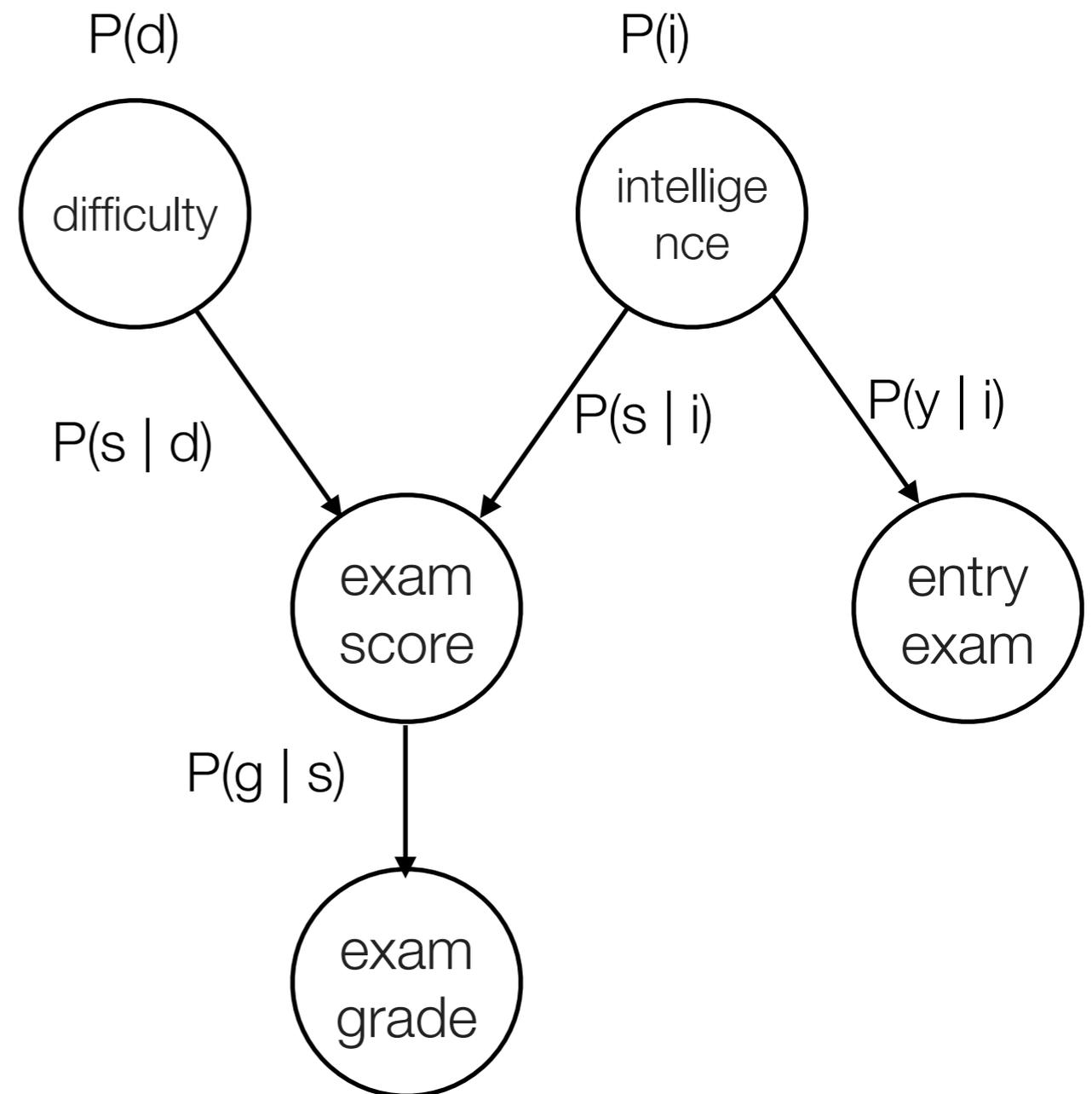
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How can we make inferences?
(obtain samples for arbitrary conditional distributions)

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How can we make inferences?

(obtain samples for arbitrary conditional distributions)

-> rejection sampling: drop those samples that are inconsistent with the conditions

Importance sampling

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- Instead of obtaining samples from the target distribution, $P(x)$, we only want to calculate expectations over this distribution

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- The estimate is a weighted sum over samples

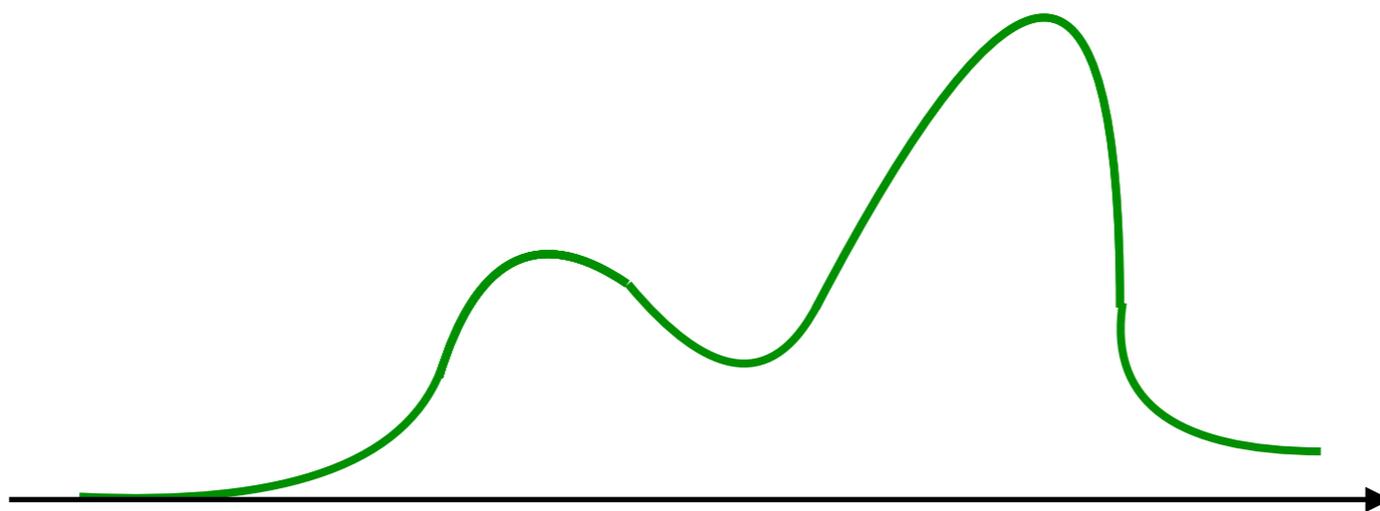
$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{\sum_t w_t f(x)}{\sum_t w_t}$$

Importance sampling challenges

- Regions where $Q^*(x)$ is small but $P(x)$ is high are problematic
- The variance of the estimator cannot be reliably estimated
- In high dimensions (unless $Q^*(x)$ is a very good estimator) a very large number of samples is needed for a good estimate

Efficient Monte Carlo methods

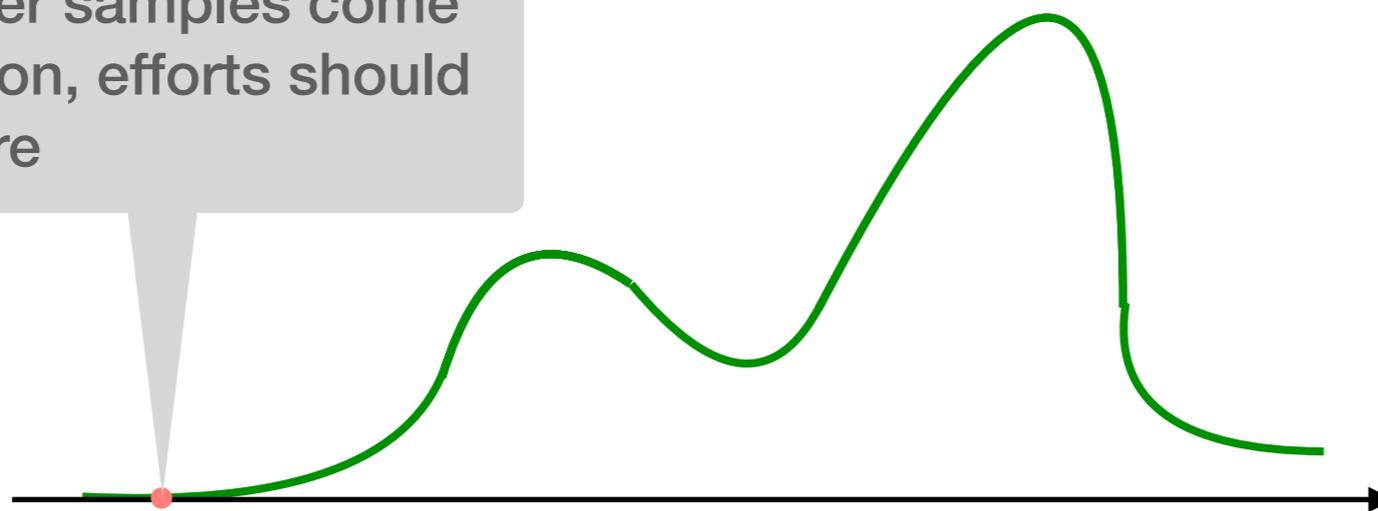
- Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods:
 - Samples are generated sequentially:
 - Subsequent samples rely on earlier ones so that we sample regions where the probability mass is substantial



Efficient Monte Carlo methods

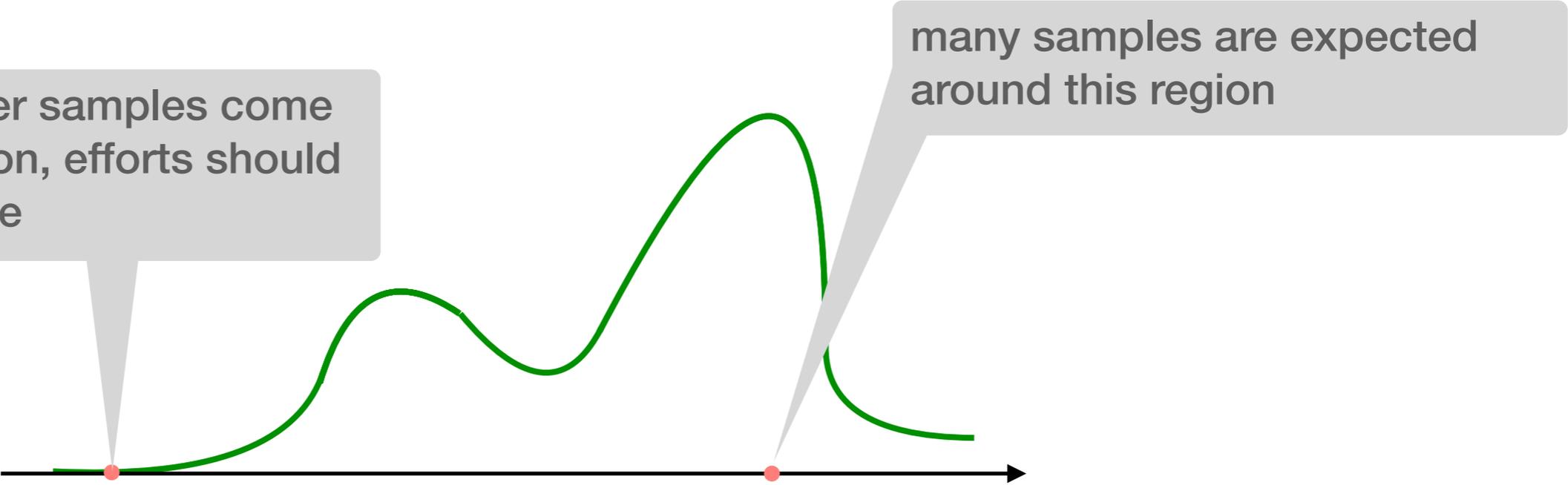
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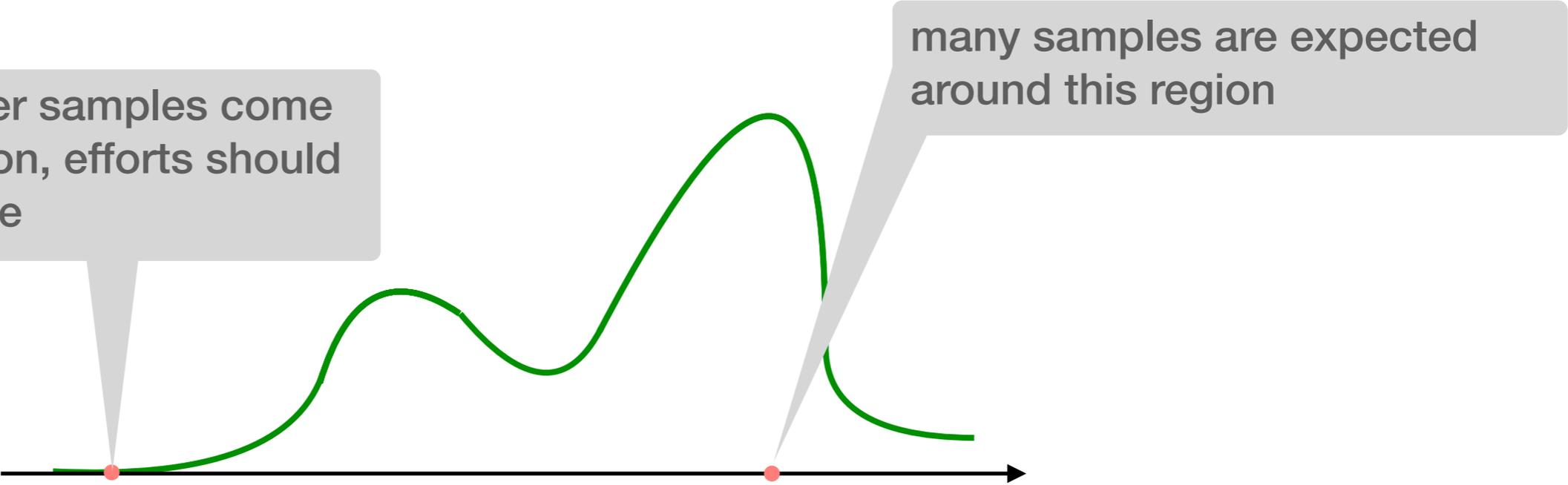


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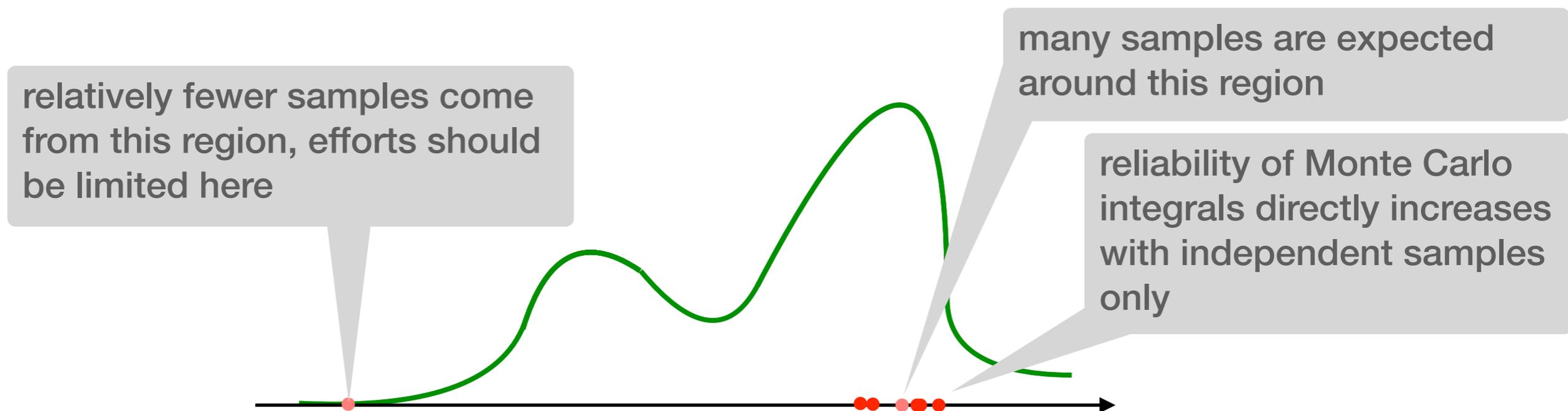


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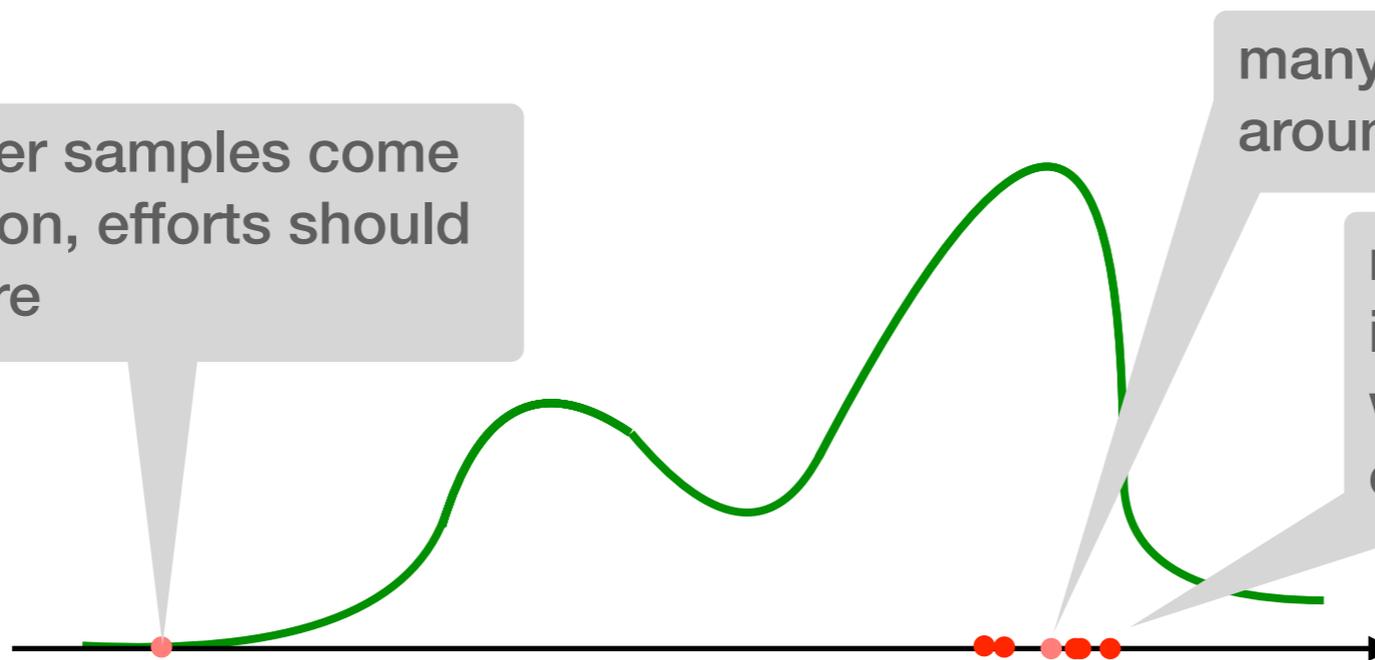
Efficient Monte Carlo methods

- Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods:
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 - Drawback: we abandon independence of samples
 - ‘Slow mixing’: Multiple Markov chain Monte Carlo samples equal to the contribution of an independent sample

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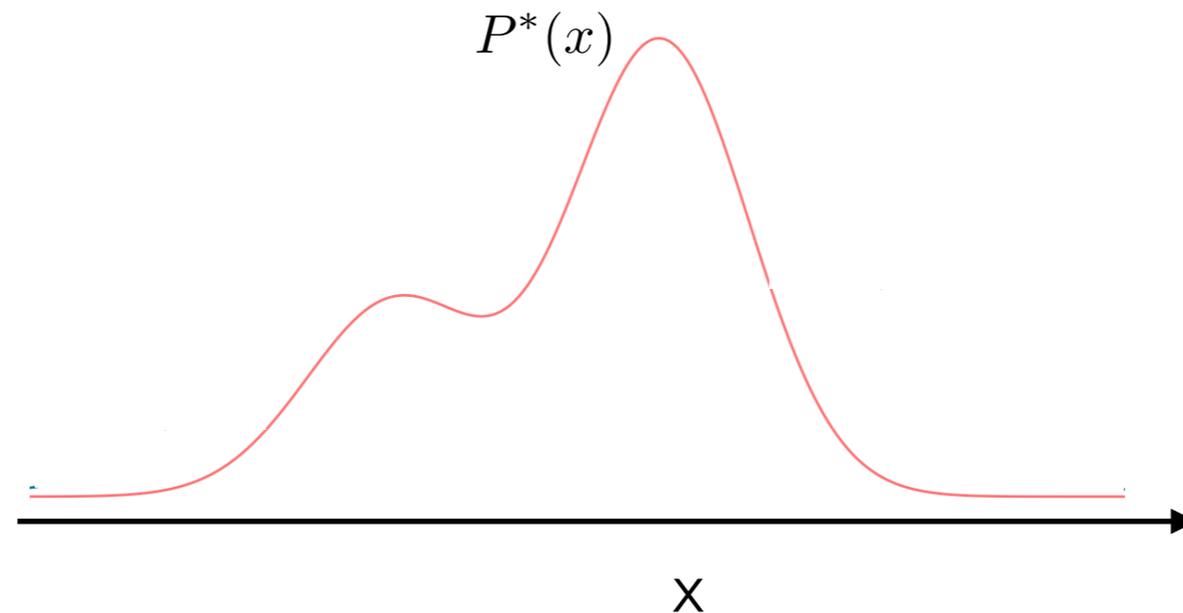
many samples are expected around this region

reliability of Monte Carlo integrals directly increases with independent samples only



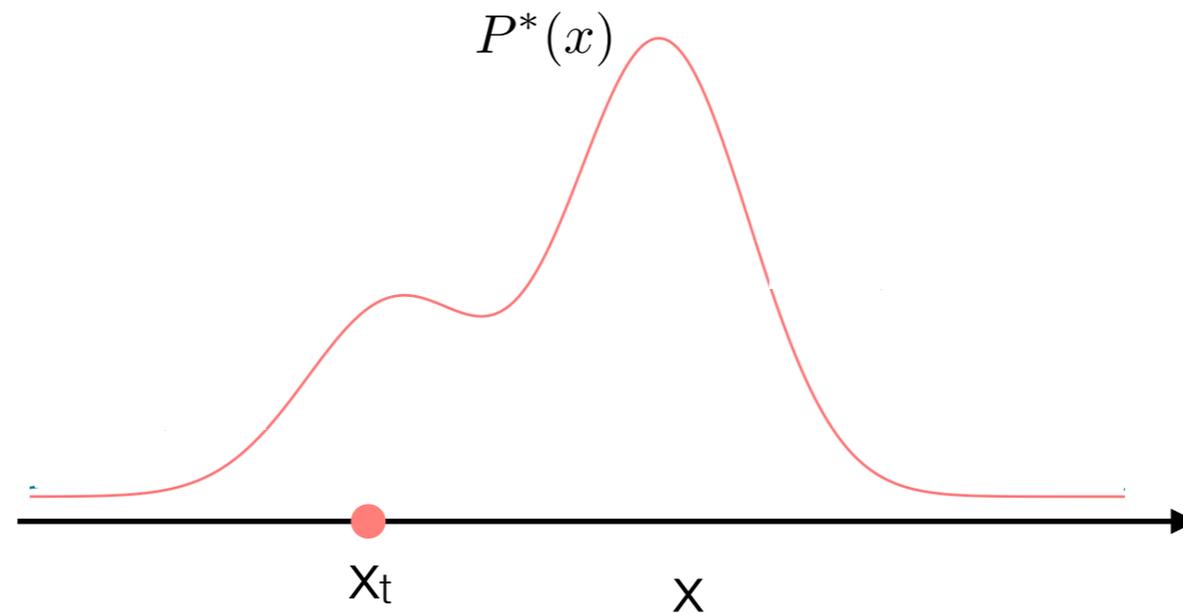
Metropolis Hastings algorithm

- Effective, general purpose algorithm to do integrals, inference, everything one needs



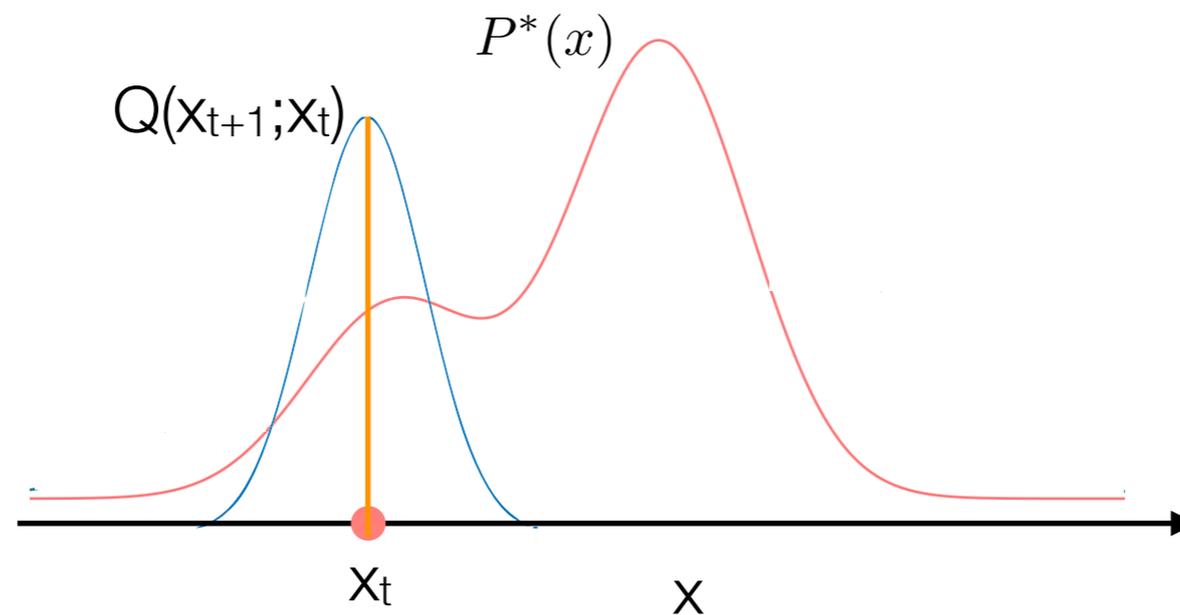
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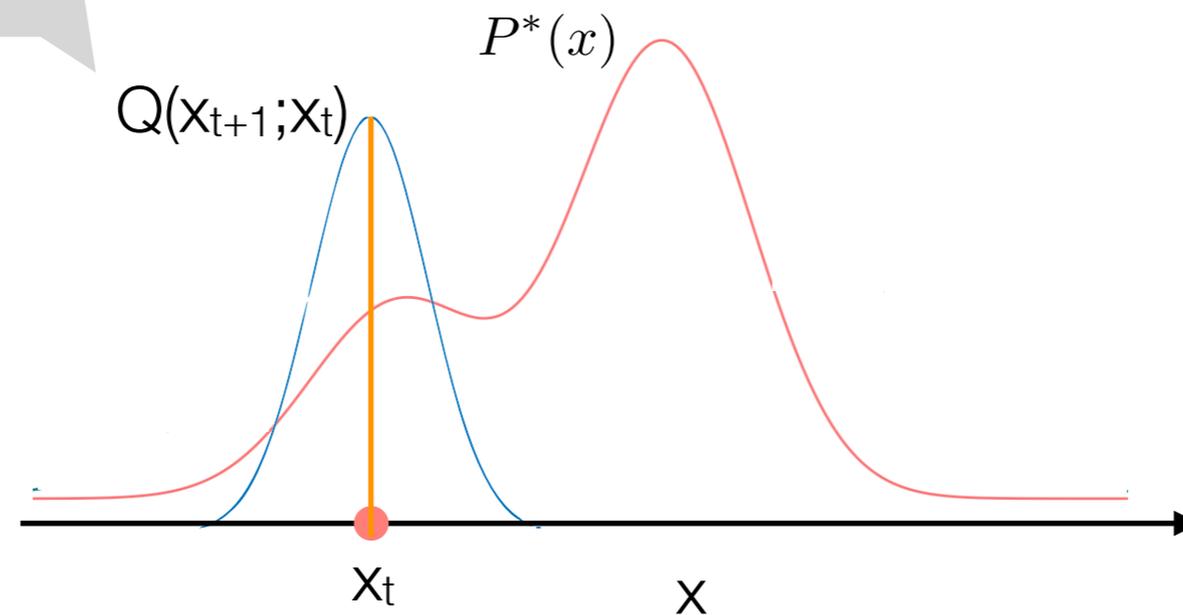
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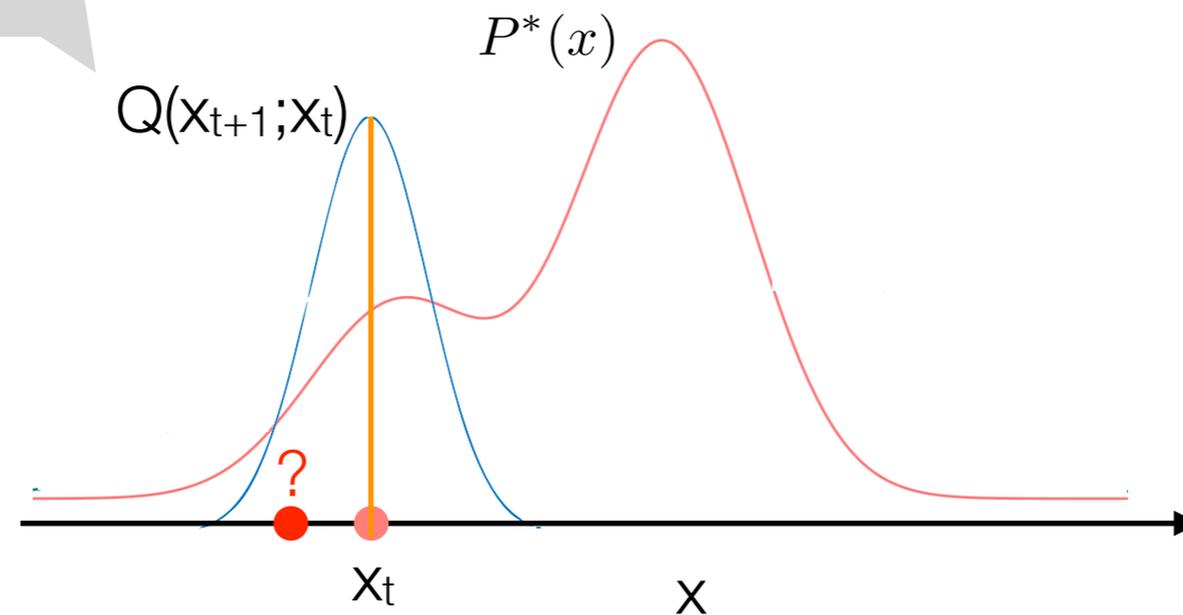
proposal distribution



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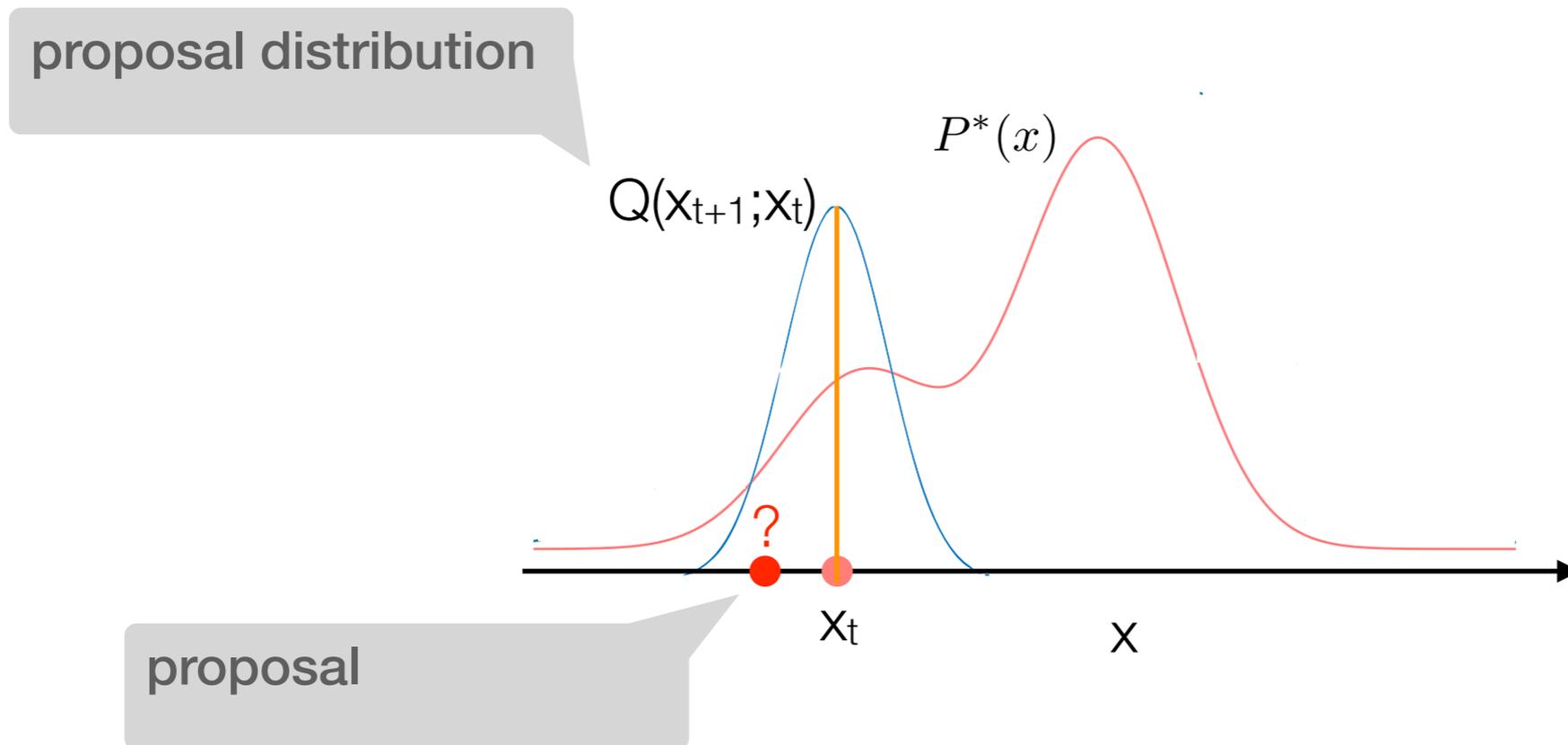
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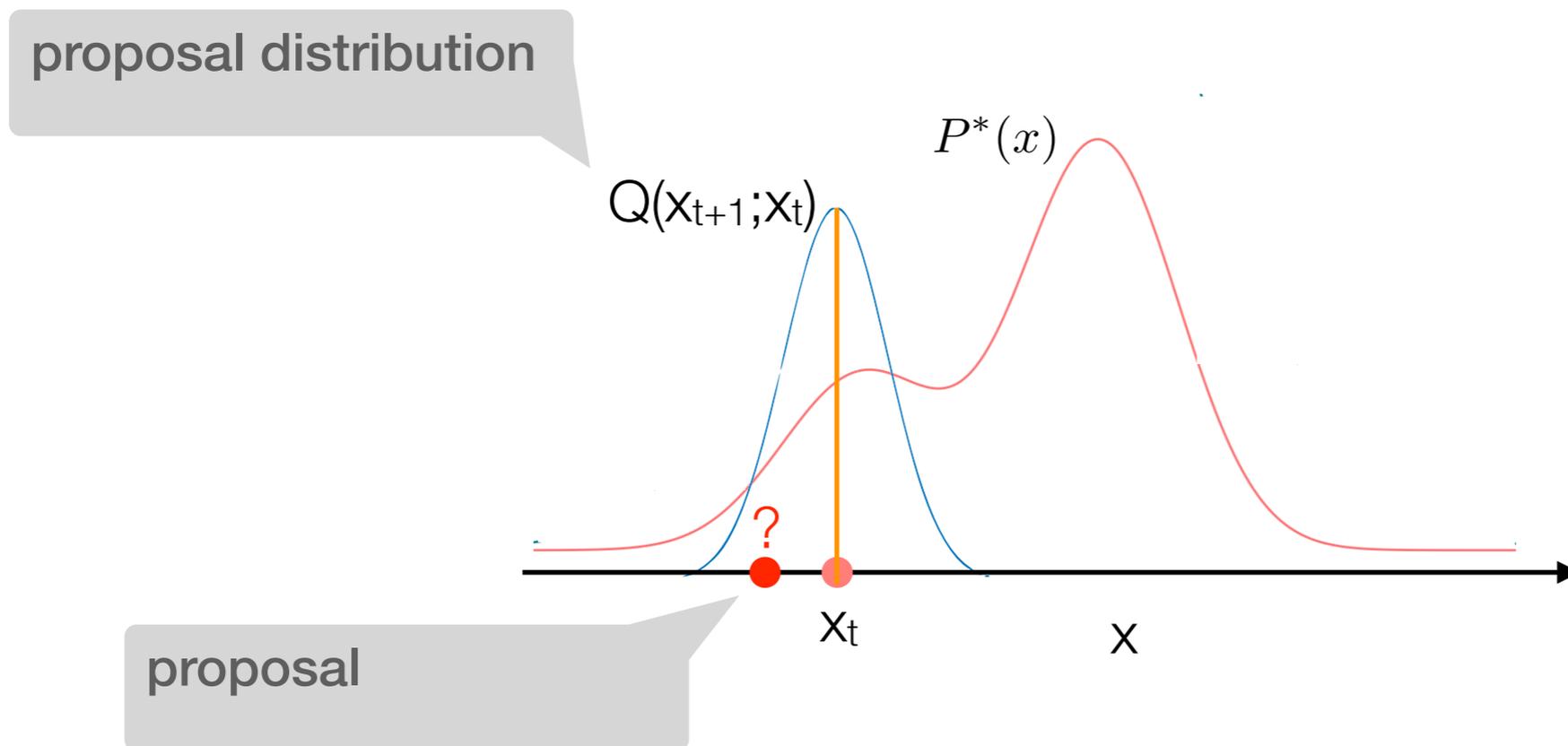
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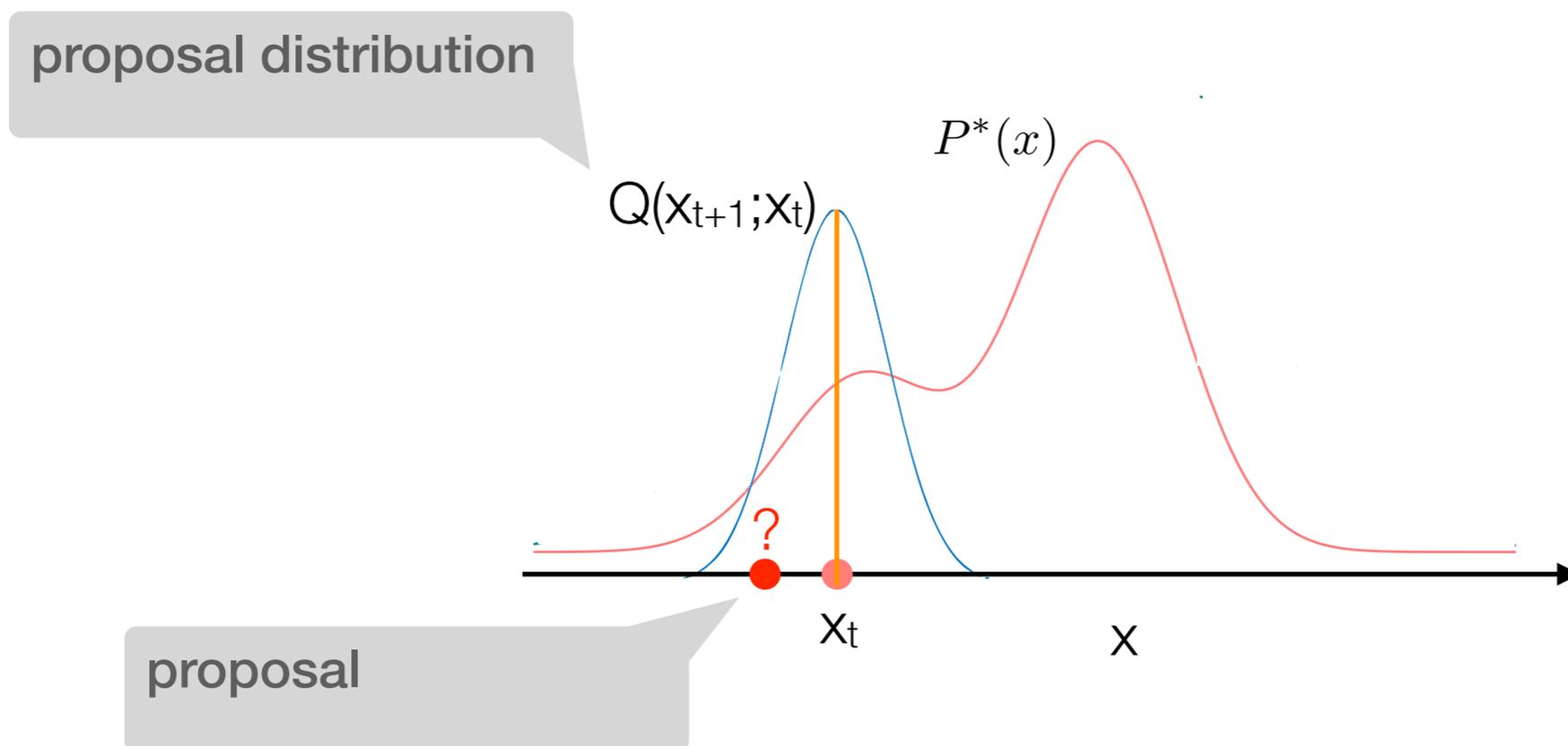
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acceptance probability is proportional to $\frac{P^*(x_{t+1})}{P^*(x_t)}$

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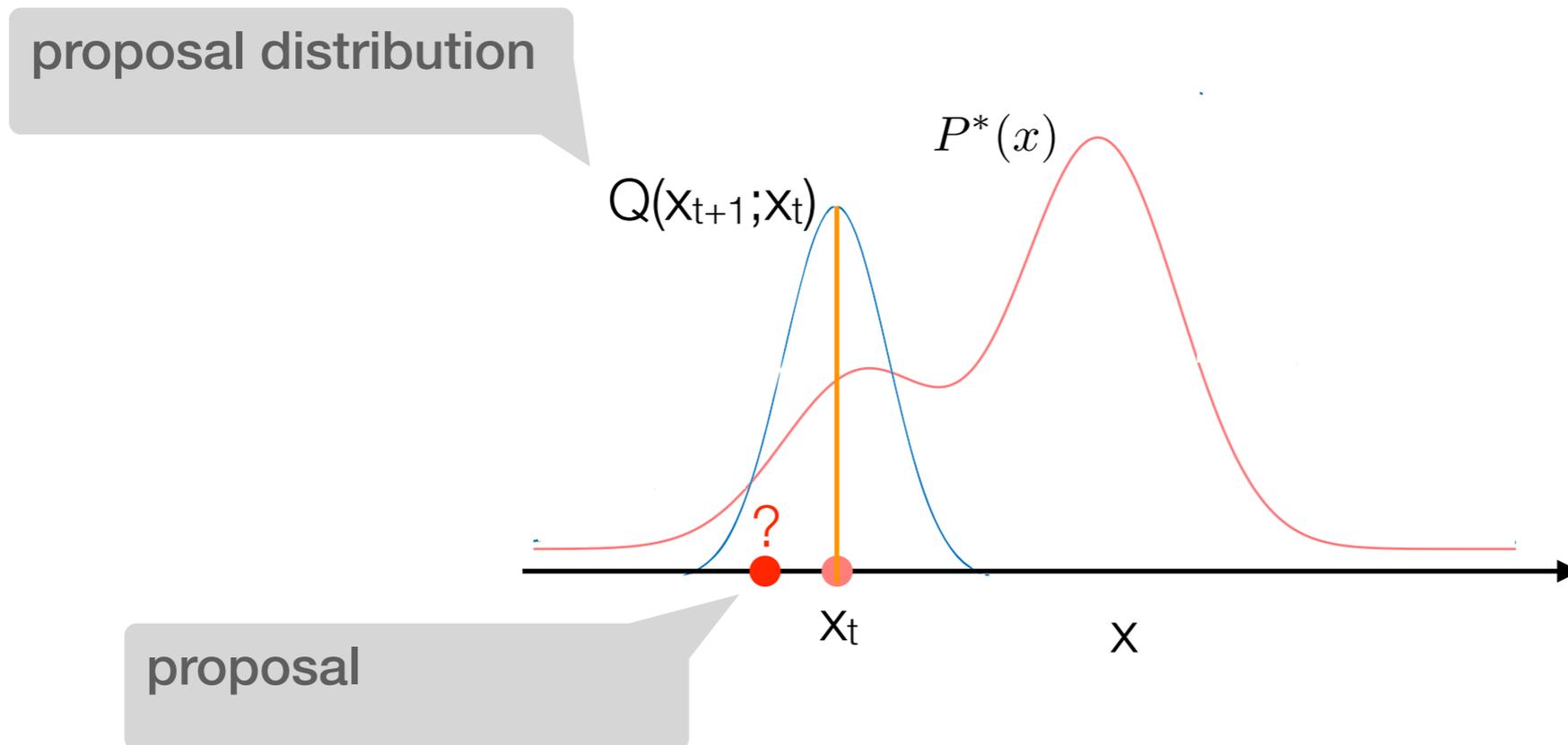


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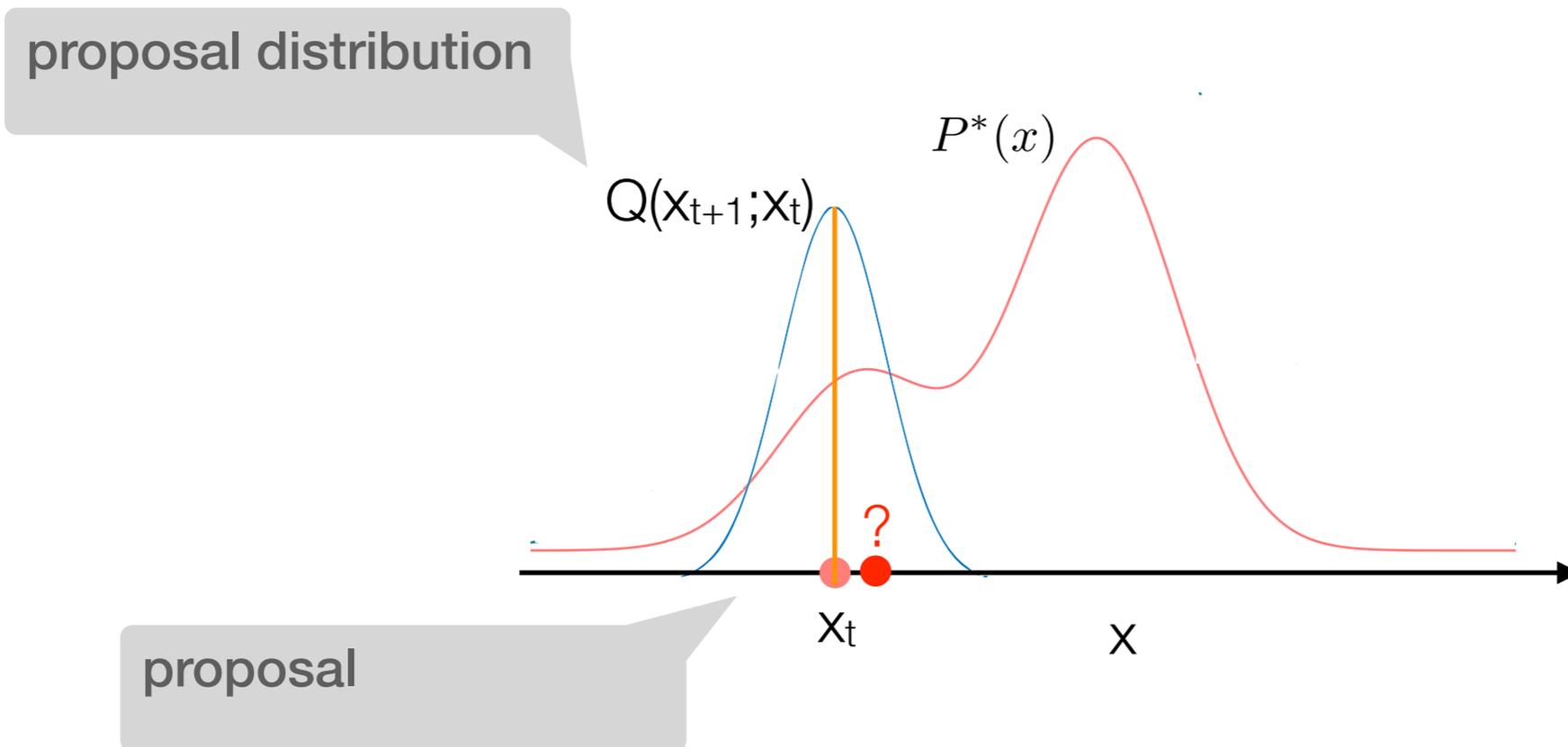
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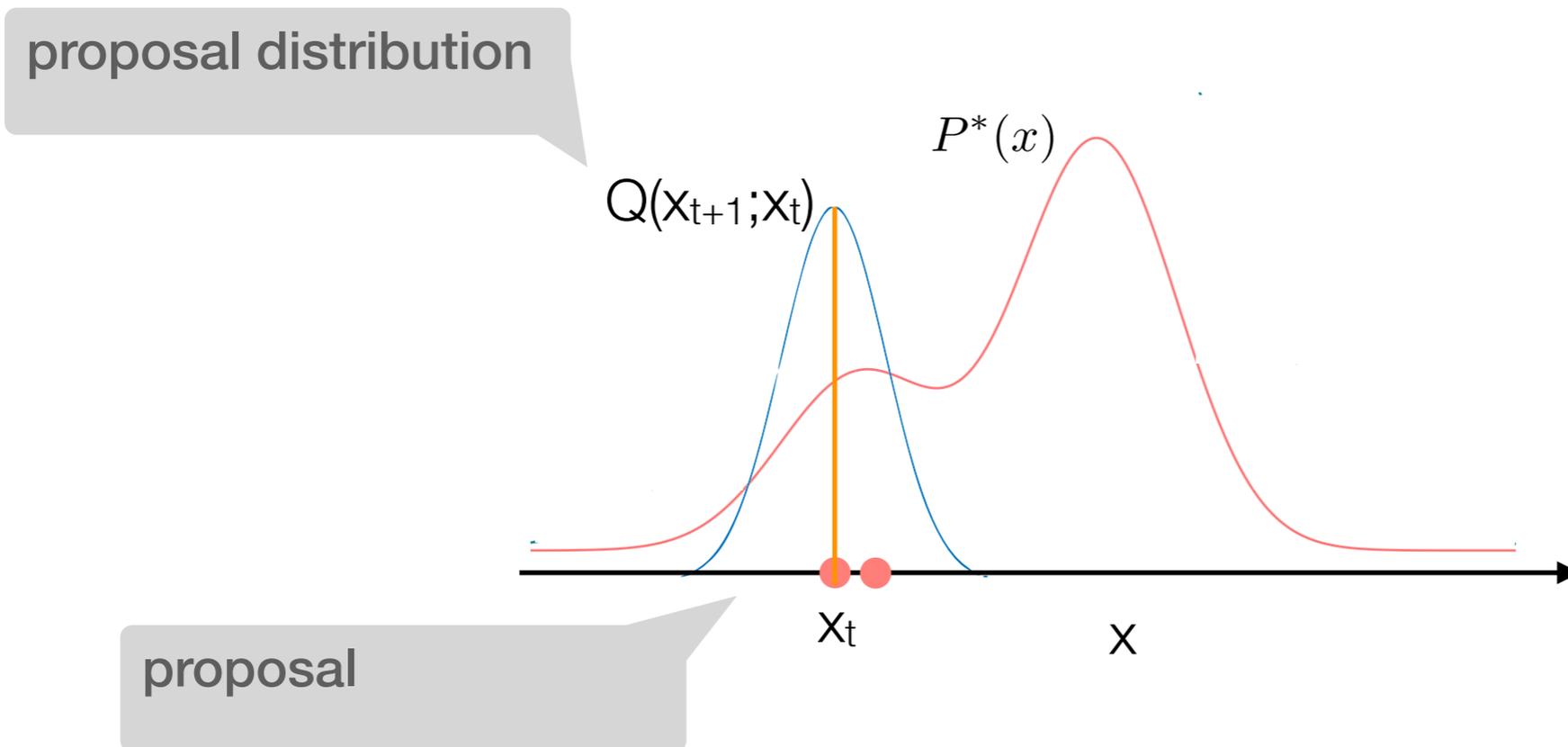
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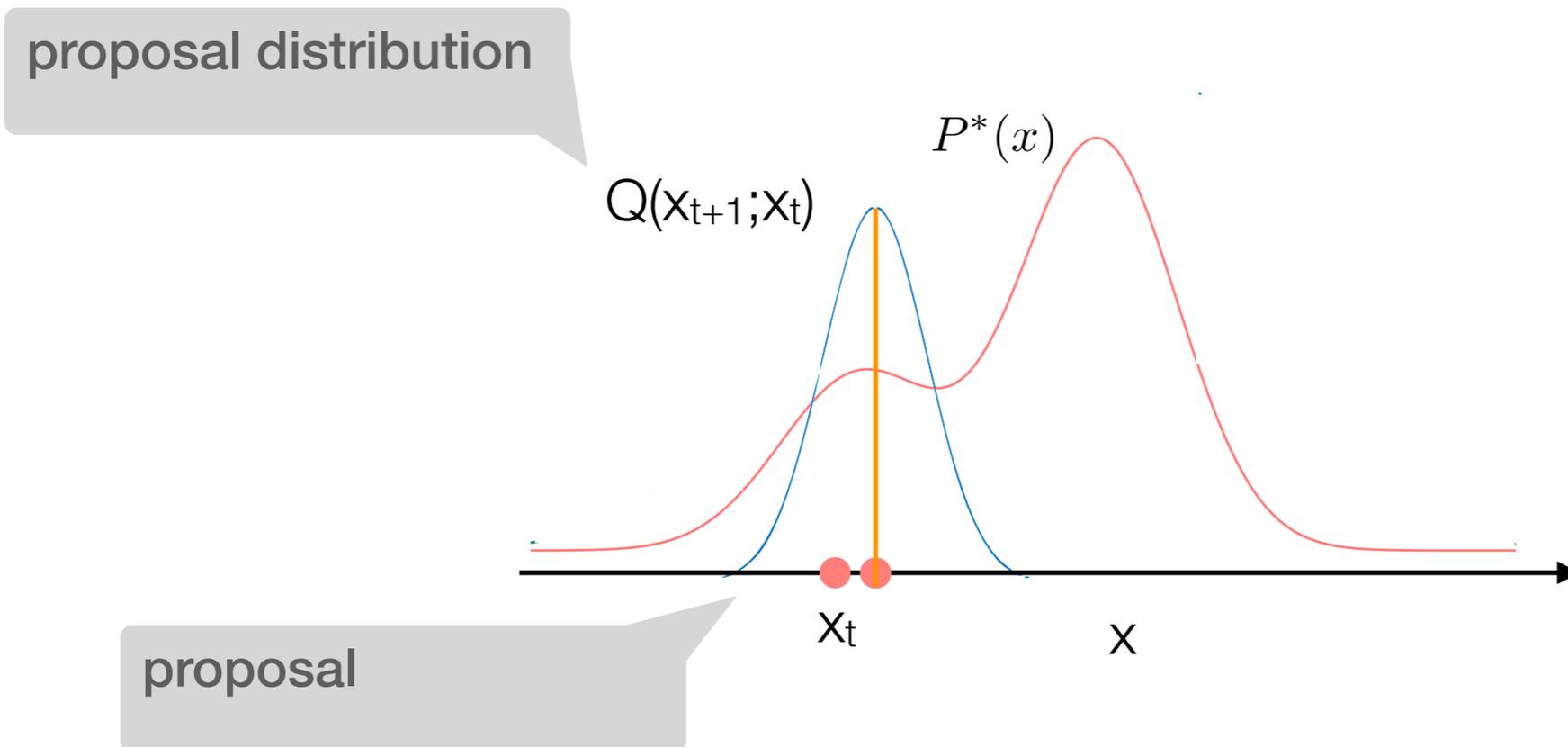
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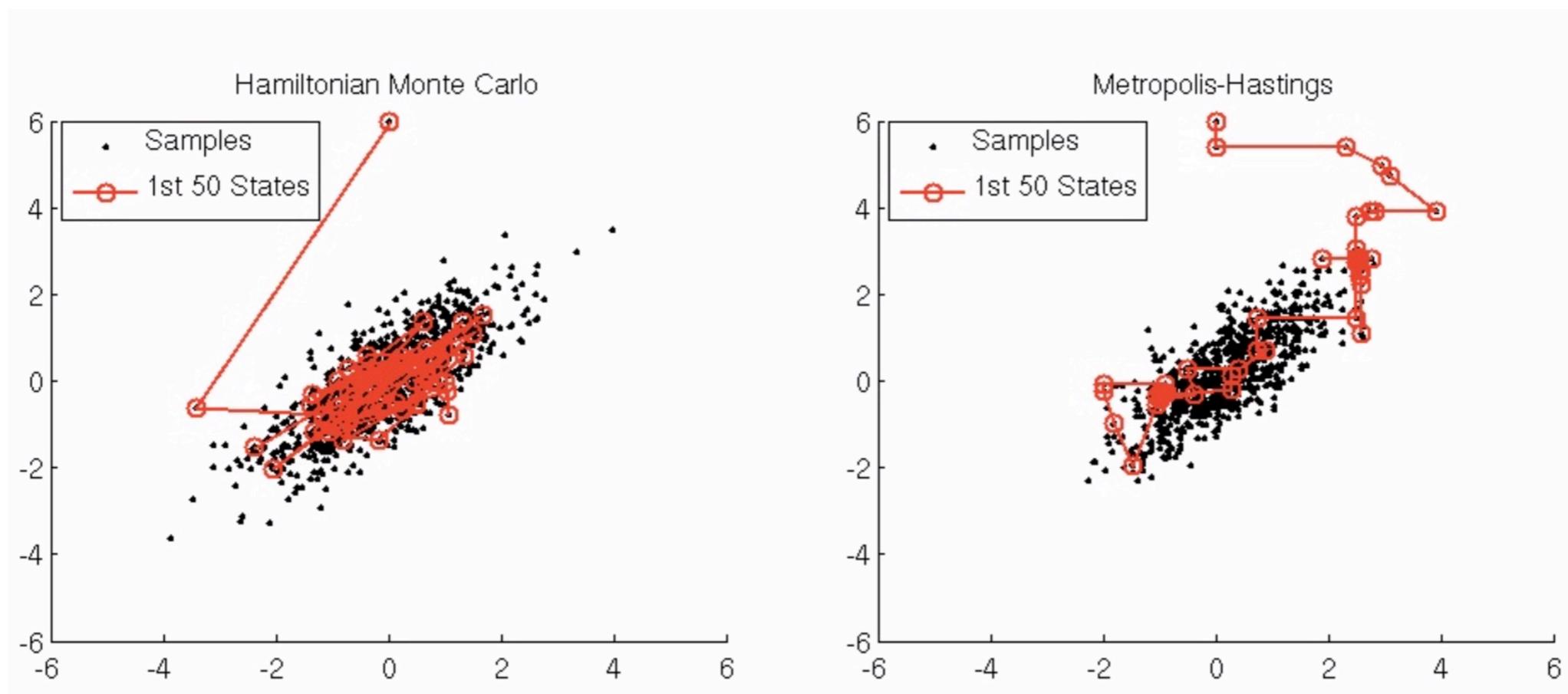
- After a large number of steps $x_t \sim P(x)$,
i.e. the histogram of x_t is faithfully representing $P(x)$
- Initial samples depend on the initial choice:
samples in the burn-in period need to be discarded
- Since samples are not independent, closely samples can be discarded: thinning

Alternative MCMC methods

- Hamiltonian Monte Carlo — exploits the shape of the probability distribution to design proposals

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shorter burn-in & faster mixing

Alternative MCMC methods

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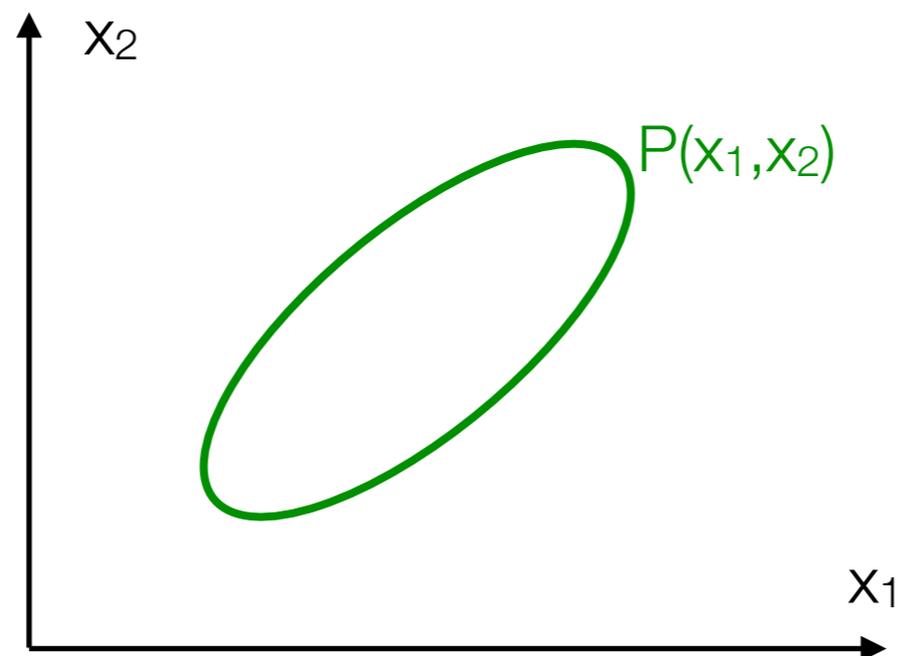
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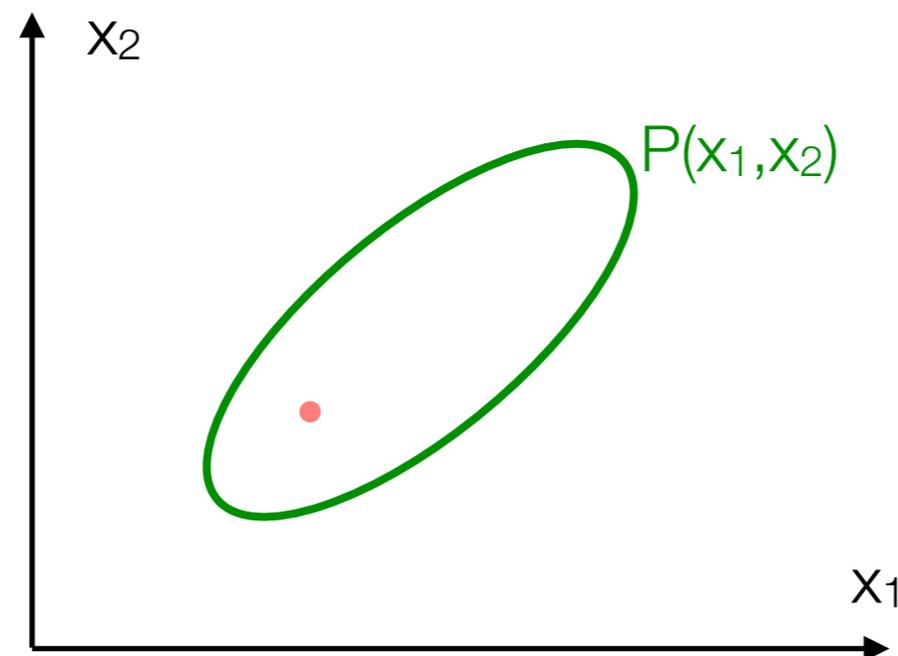
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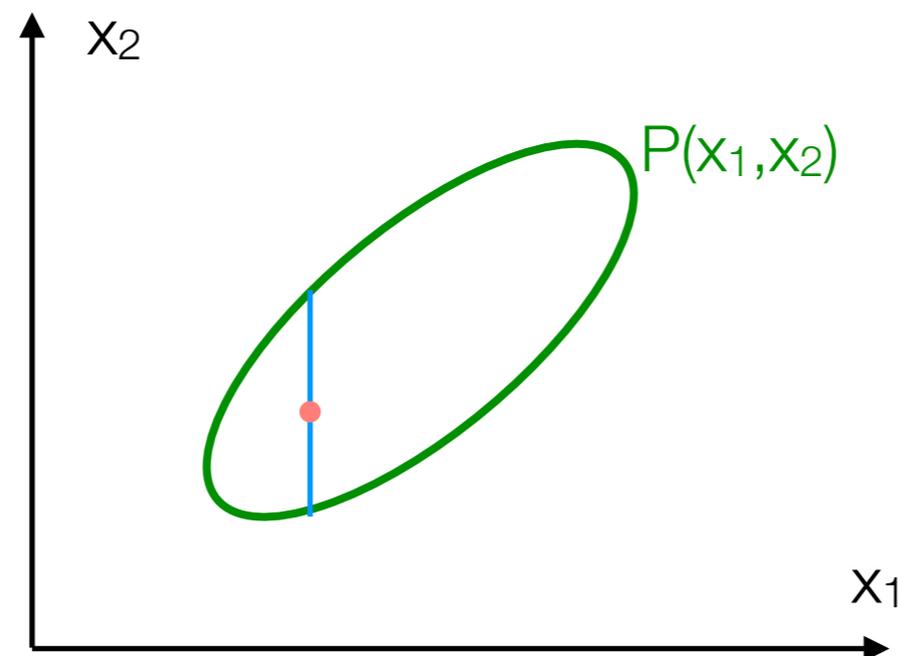
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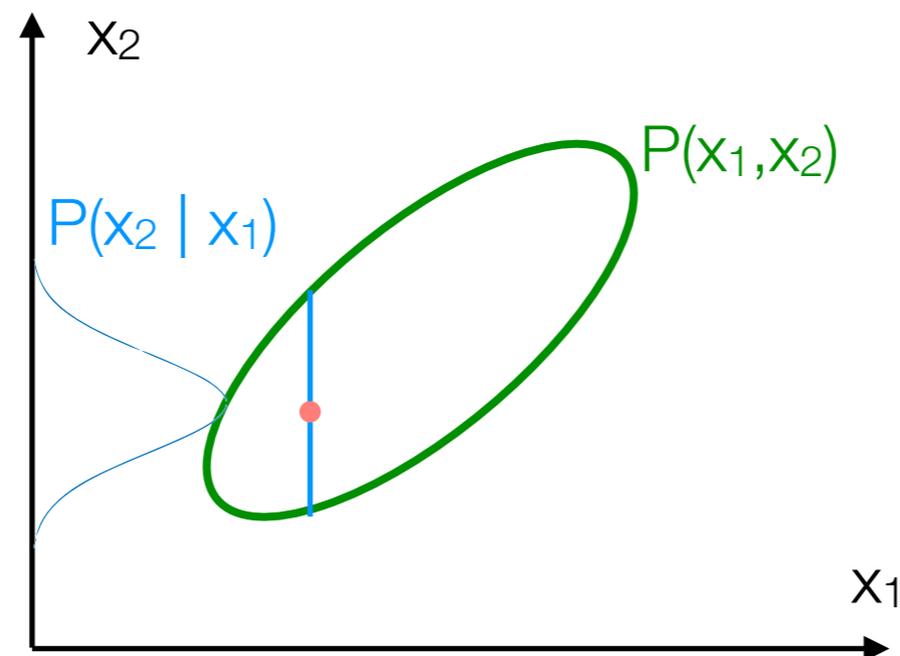
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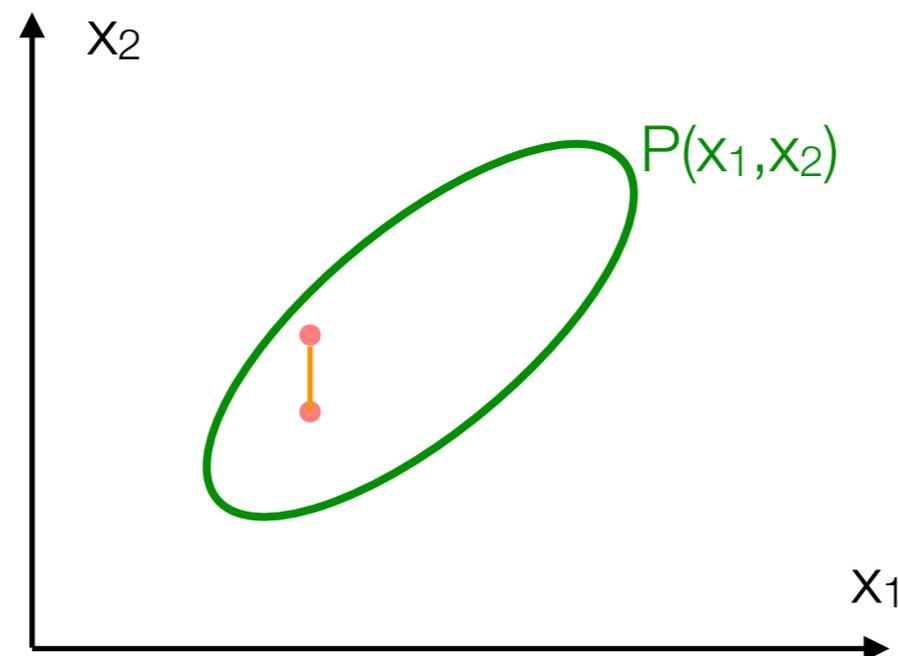
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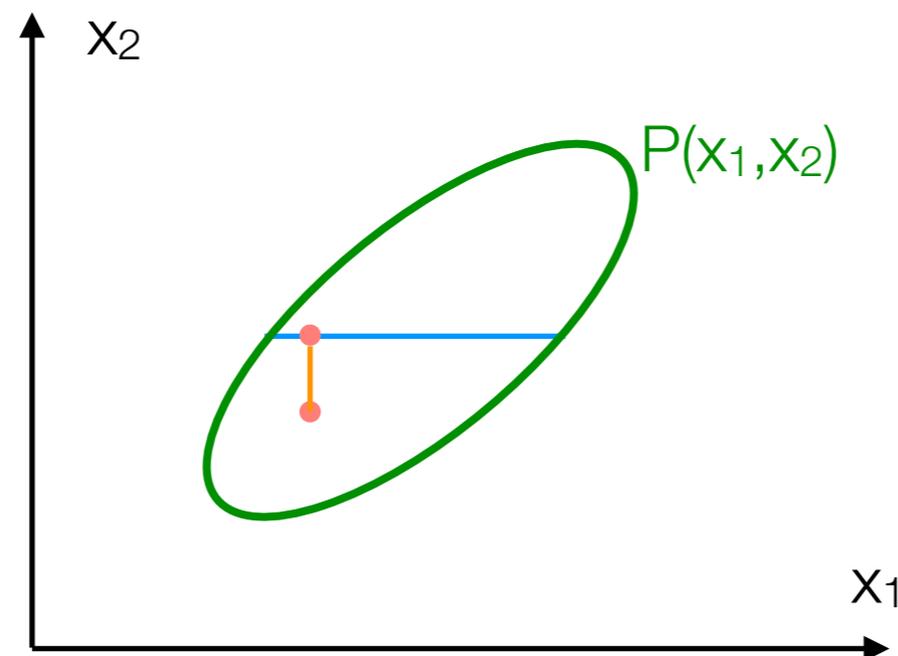
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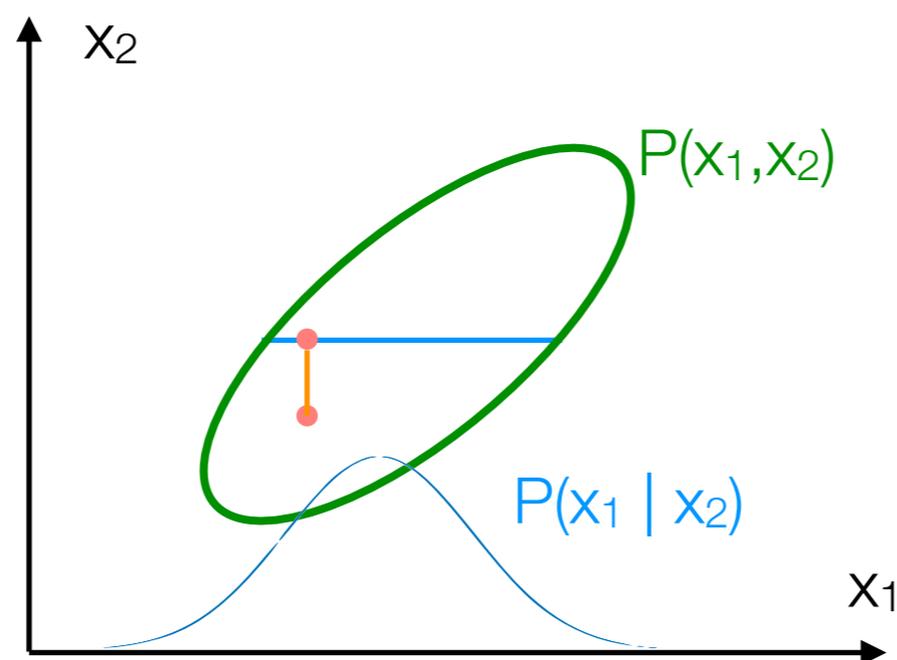
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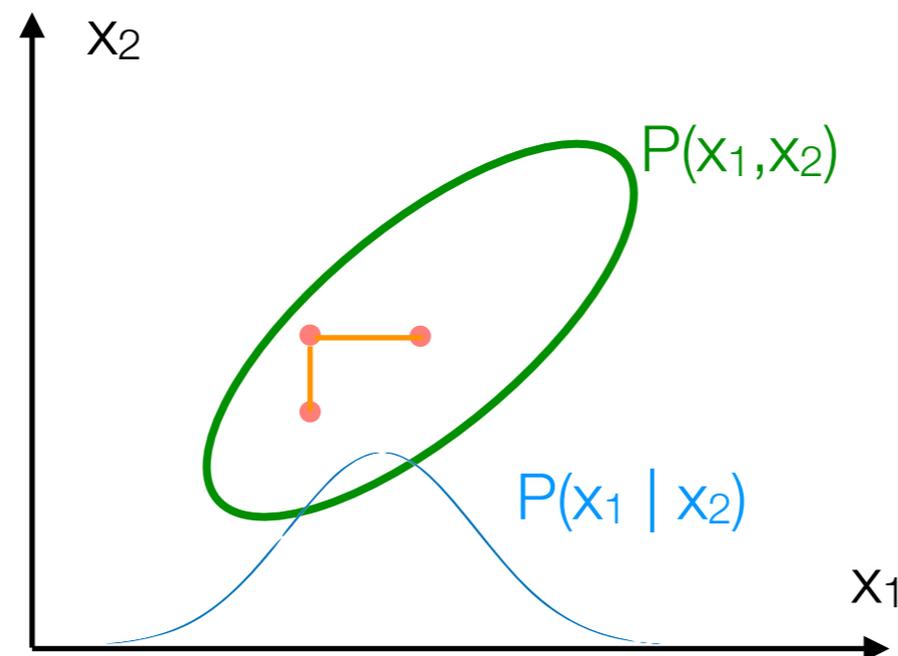
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- Hamiltonian Monte Carlo — exploits the shape of the probability distribution to design proposals
- Slice sampling — adjusts the properties of the proposal distribution automatically
- Gibbs sampling — having a multi-dimensional distribution over x_1, \dots, x_n , if conditional distributions, e.g. $P(x_1|x_2, \dots, x_n)$, can be sampled then they are sequentially sampled



Significance of sampling

- An efficient sampling architecture can save us from scary integrals: we can side step the bizarre math
- Sampling bridges the gap between the mathematical transparency of inference on discrete variables and the cumbersome inference on continuous variables
- Sampling, as an approximate strategy to perform plausible reasoning might be used by humans to make inferences

