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with thanks to:

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Bayesian Machine Learning



Probabilistic Machine Learning

- Machine Learning is all about data.
 - Stochastic, chaotic and/or complex process
 - Noisily observed
 - Partially observed
- Probability theory is a rich language to express these uncertainties.
 - Probabilistic models
- Graphical tool to visualize complex models for complex problems.
- Complex models can be built from simpler parts.
- Computational tools to derive algorithmic solutions.
- Separation of modelling questions from algorithmic questions.

Probabilistic Modelling

- Data: $x_1, x_2,, x_n$.
- Latent variables: $y_1, y_2, ..., y_n$.
- Parameter: θ .
- A probabilistic model is a parametrized joint distribution over variables.

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n,y_1,\ldots,y_n|\theta)$$

- Typically interpreted as a generative model of data.
- Inference, of latent variables given observed data:

$$P(y_1,\ldots,y_n|x_1,\ldots,x_n,\theta) = \frac{P(x_1,\ldots,x_n,y_1,\ldots,y_n|\theta)}{P(x_1,\ldots,x_n|\theta)}$$

Probabilistic Modelling

• Learning, typically by maximum likelihood:

$$\theta^{\mathrm{ML}} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta} P(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta)$$

• Prediction:

$$P(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}|x_1, \dots, x_n, \theta)$$

• Classification:

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{c} P(x_{n+1}|\theta^{c})$$

- Visualization, interpretation, summarization.
- Standard algorithms: EM, junction tree, variational inference, MCMC...

Bayesian Modelling

• Prior distribution:

$$P(\theta)$$

Posterior distribution (both inference and learning):

$$P(y_1,\ldots,y_n,\theta|x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \frac{P(x_1,\ldots,x_n,y_1,\ldots,y_n|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)}$$

• Prediction:

$$P(x_{n+1}|x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \int P(x_{n+1}|\theta)P(\theta|x_1,\ldots,x_n)d\theta$$

• Classification:

$$P(x_{n+1}|x_1^c, \dots, x_n^c) = \int P(x_{n+1}|\theta^c) P(\theta^c|x_1^c, \dots, x_n^c) d\theta^c$$



Model-based Clustering

- Model for data from heterogeneous unknown sources.
- Each cluster (source) modelled using a parametric model (e.g. Gaussian).
- Data item *i*:

$$z_i | \pi \sim \text{Discrete}(\pi)$$

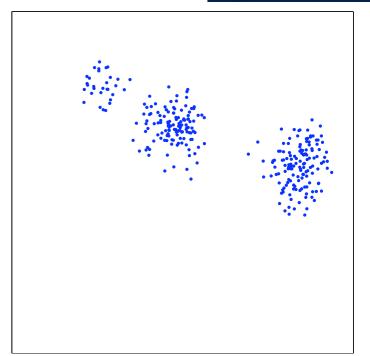
 $x_i | z_i, \theta_k^* \sim F(\theta_{z_i}^*)$

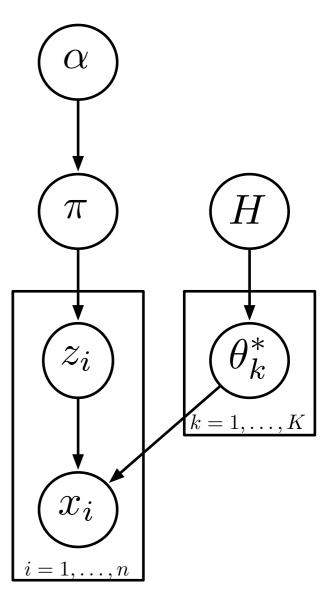
Mixing proportions:

$$\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) | \alpha \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K)$$

• Cluster *k*:

$$\theta_k^*|H \sim H$$

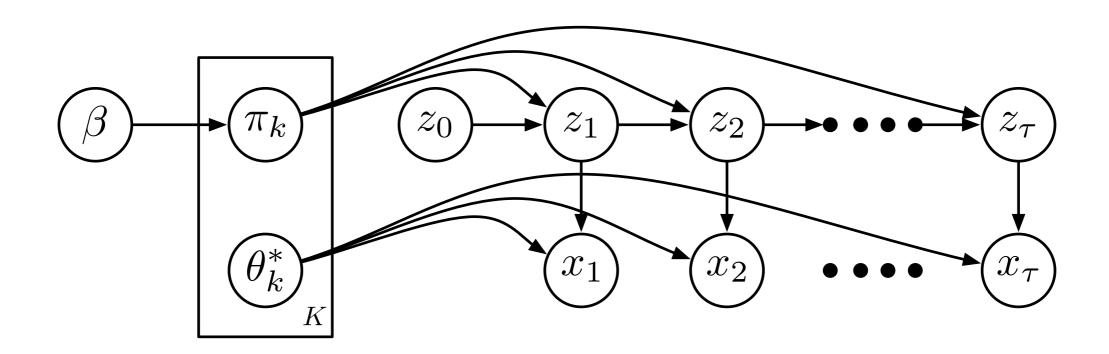






Hidden Markov Models

- Popular model for time series data.
- Unobserved dynamics modelled using a Markov model
- Observations modelled as independent conditioned on current state.

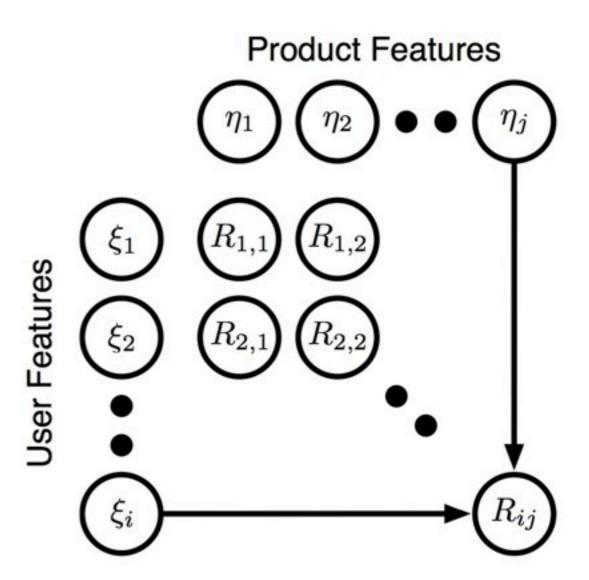




Collaborative Filtering

- Data: for each user *i* ratings R_{ij} for a subset of products *j*.
- Problem: predict how much users would like products that they haven't seen.

$$R_{ij}|\xi_i,\eta_j \sim \mathcal{N}(\xi_i^{\top}\eta_j,\sigma^2)$$







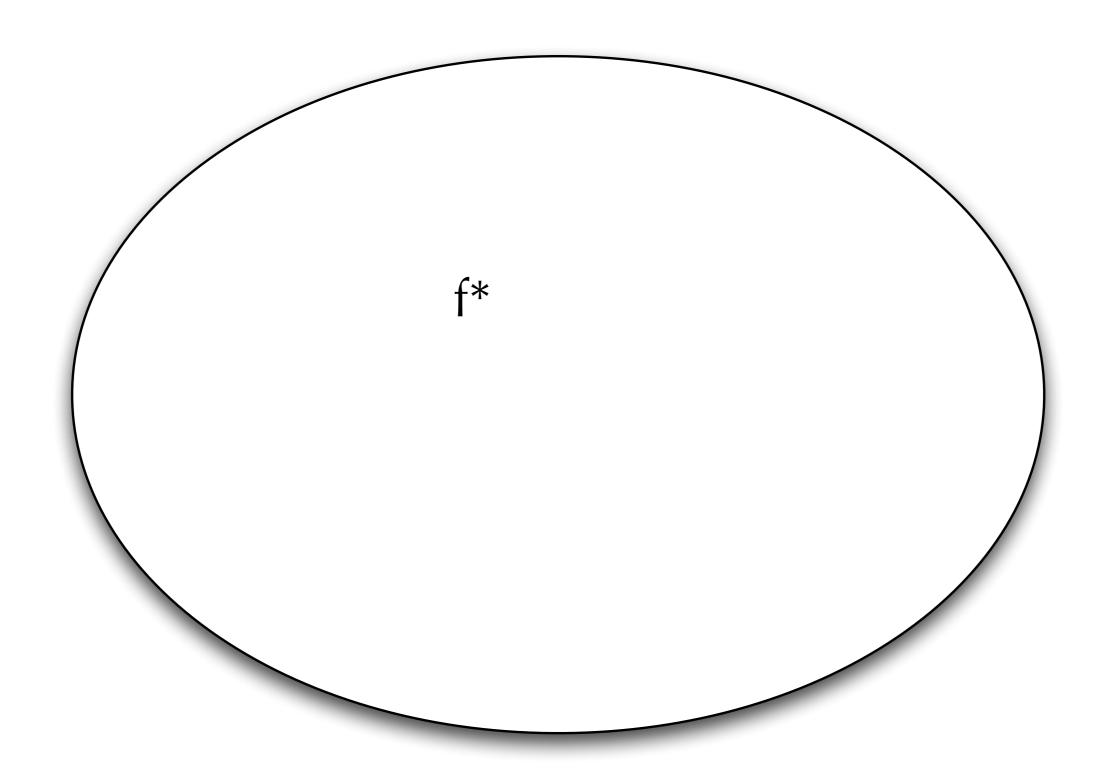
- What is a nonparametric model?
 - A really large parametric model;
 - A parametric model where the number of parameters increases with data;
 - A family of distributions that is dense in some large space relevant to the problem at hand.



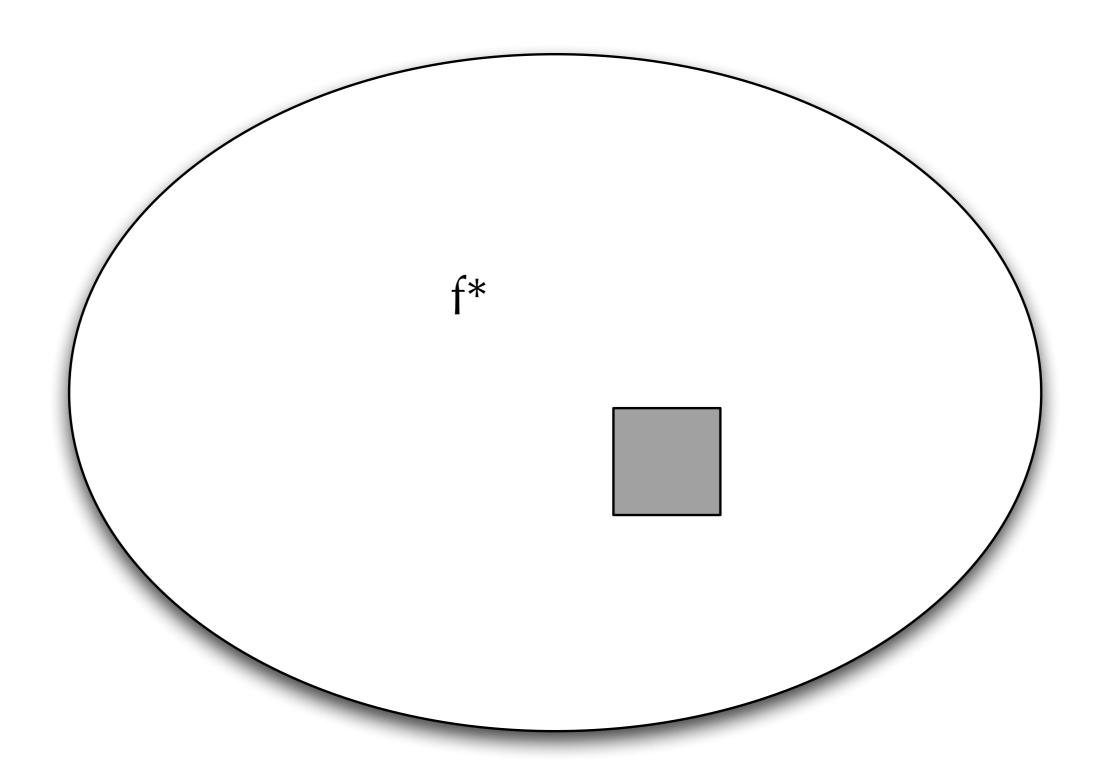
Reason 1: Model Selection and Averaging

- Model selection/averaging typically very expensive computationally.
- Used to prevent overfitting and underfitting.
- But a well-specified Bayesian model should not overfit anyway.
- By using a very large Bayesian model or one that grows with amount of data, we will not underfit either.
 - Bayesian nonparametric models.
- Note it is not panacea: incorrect specifications can still lead to misfit models and low generalization performance.

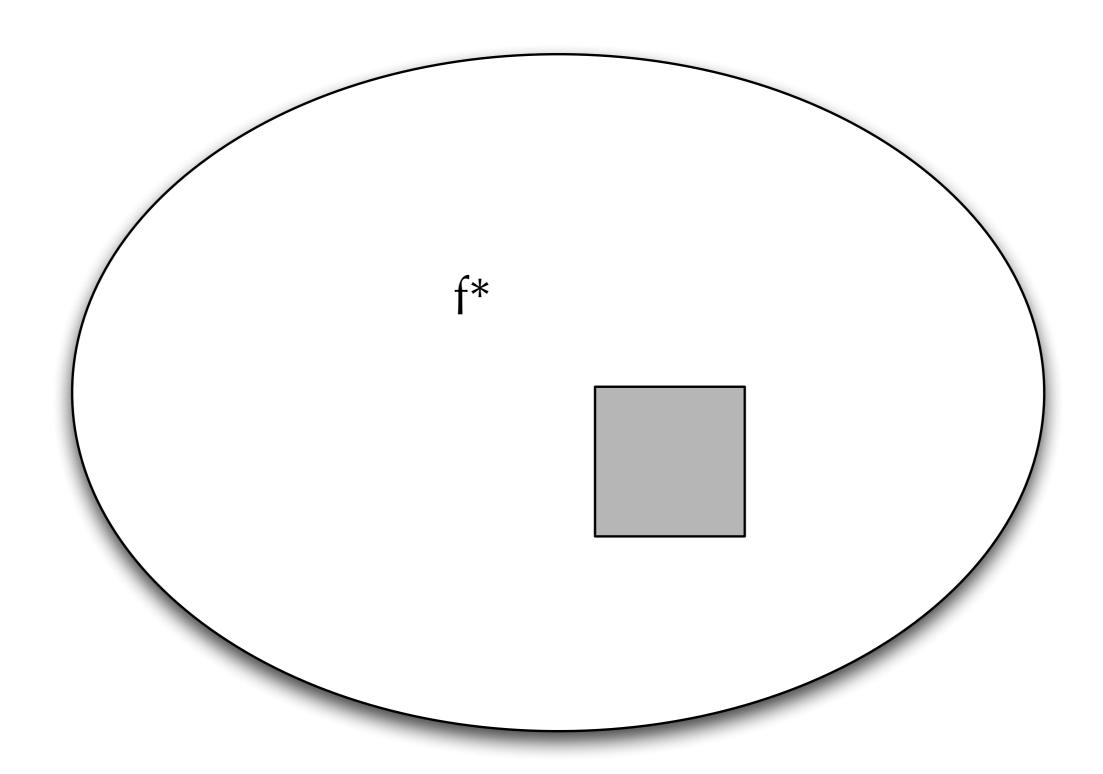




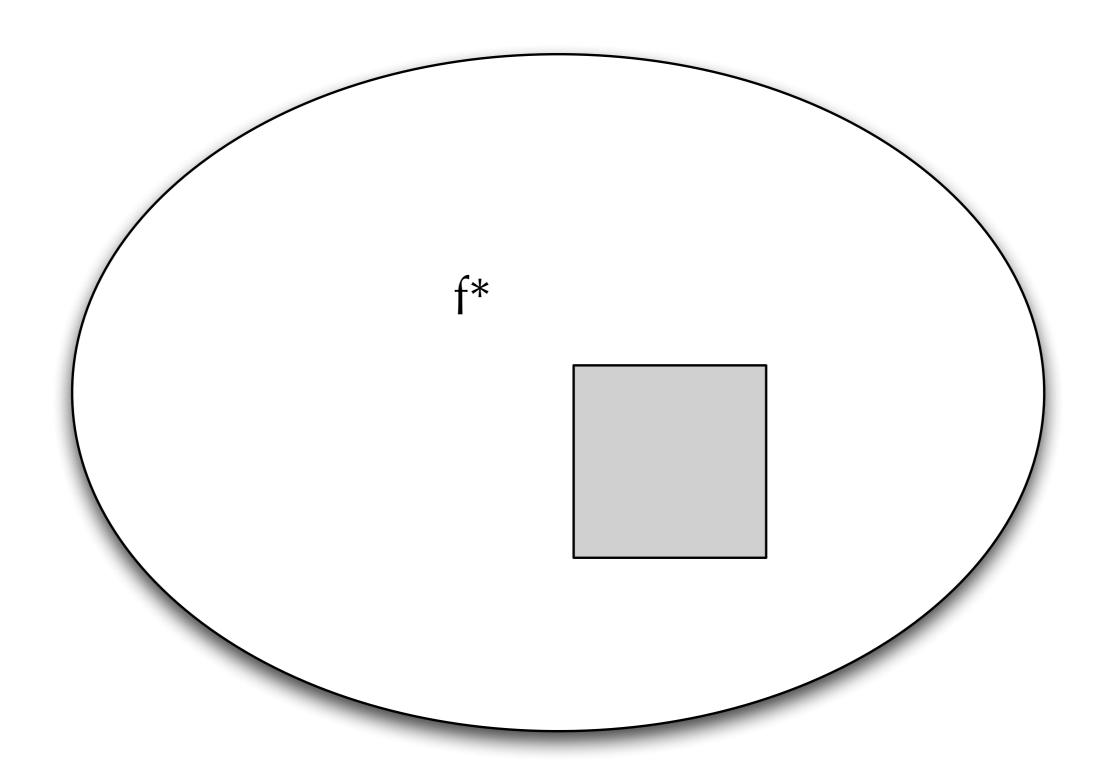




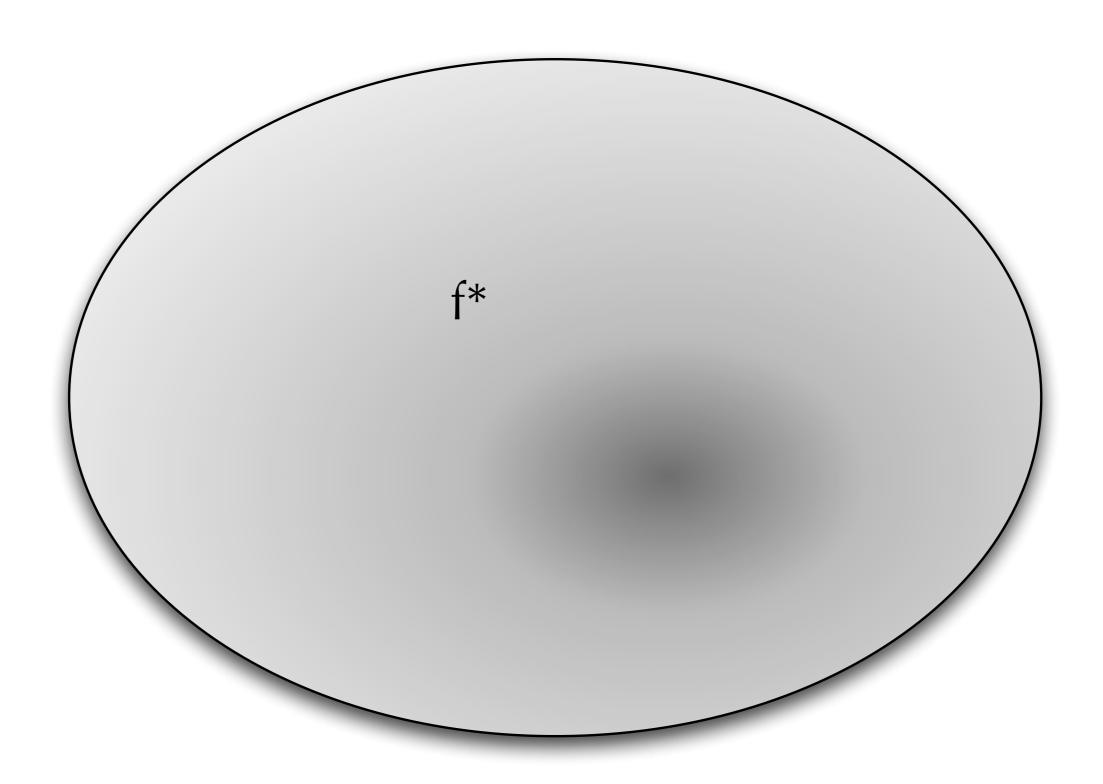






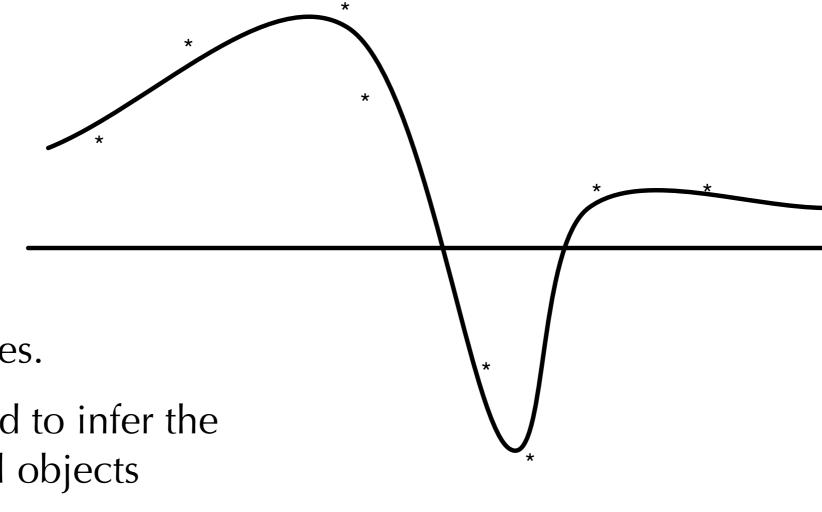




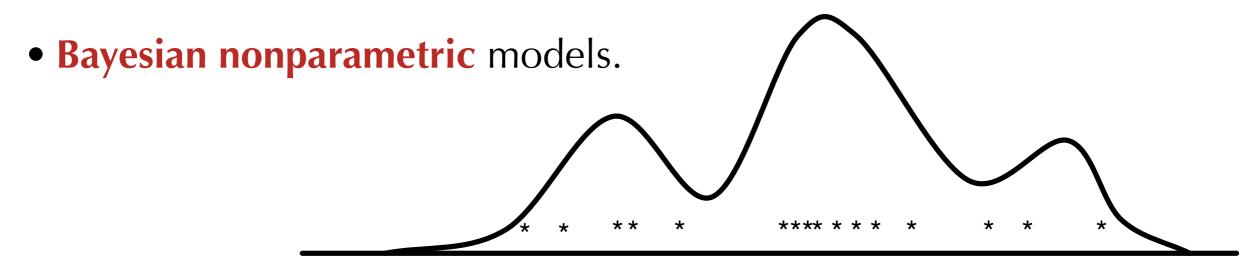




Reason 2: Large Function Spaces



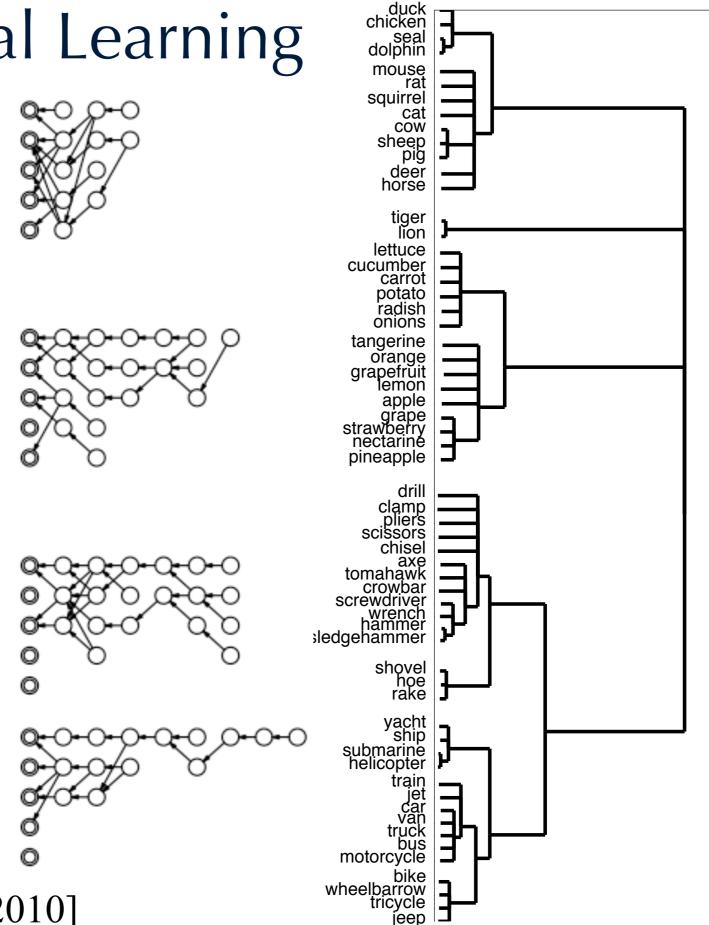
- Large function spaces.
- More straightforward to infer the infinite-dimensional objects themselves.





Reason 3: Structural Learning

- Learning structures.
- Bayesian prior over combinatorial structures.
- Nonparametric priors sometimes end up simpler than parametric priors.



[Adams et al 2010, Blundell et al 2010]



Reason 4: Novel and Useful Properties

- Many interesting Bayesian nonparametric models with interesting and useful properties:
 - Exchangeability.
 - Zipf, Heap and other power laws
 (Pitman-Yor process, power-law IBP).
 - Flexible ways of building complex models (Hierarchical nonparametric models, dependent Dirichlet processes).



Are Nonparametric Models Nonparametric?

- Nonparametric just means not parametric: cannot be described by a fixed set of parameters.
 - Nonparametric models still have parameters, they just have an infinite number of them.

- No free lunch: cannot learn from data unless you make assumptions.
 - Nonparametric models still make modelling assumptions, they are just less constrained than the typical parametric models.
- Models can be nonparametric in one sense and parametric in another: semiparametric models.



I: The Dirichlet Process II: Beyond the Dirichlet Process III: Even Further Afield

Key concepts:
stochastic processes
partitions
exchangeability
hierarchical modelling
power-laws



Part I: The Dirichlet Process



Dirichlet Process

- Cornerstone of modern Bayesian nonparametrics.
- Rediscovered many times as the infinite limit of finite mixture models.
- Formally defined by [Ferguson 1973] as a distribution over measures.
- Can be derived in different ways, and as special cases of different processes.
- We will derive:
 - the infinite limit of a Gibbs sampler for finite mixture models
 - the Chinese restaurant process
 - the stick-breaking construction



Clustering and Chinese Restaurant Processes



The Infinite Limit of Finite Mixture Models

Finite Mixture Models

- Model for clustering data into heterogeneous unknown populations.
- Each cluster (source) modelled using a parametric model (e.g. Gaussian).
- Data item *i*:

$$z_i | \pi \sim \text{Discrete}(\pi)$$

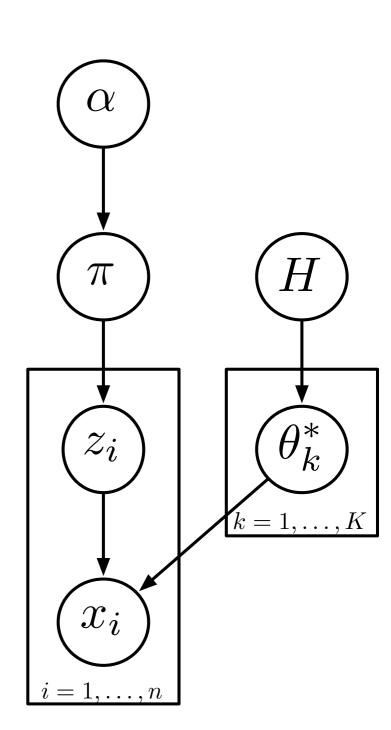
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Mixing proportions:

$$\pi = (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) | \alpha \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K)$$

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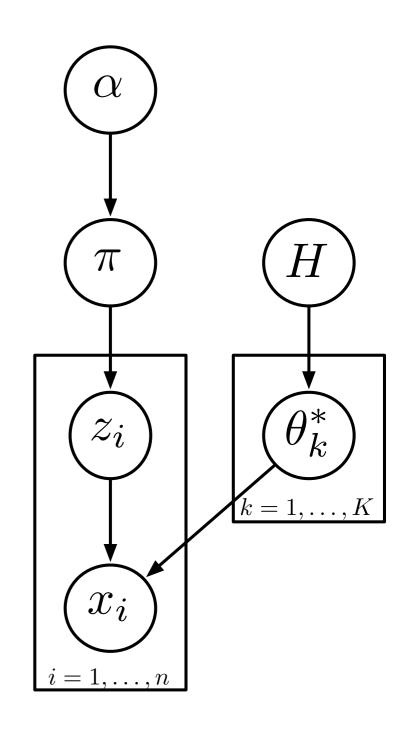
Finite Mixture Models

• Dirichlet distribution on the *K*-dimensional probability simplex { $\pi \mid \Sigma_k \pi_k = 1$ }:

$$\mathbb{P}(d\pi|\alpha) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\prod_{k} \Gamma(\alpha/K)} \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{\alpha/K-1} d\pi$$

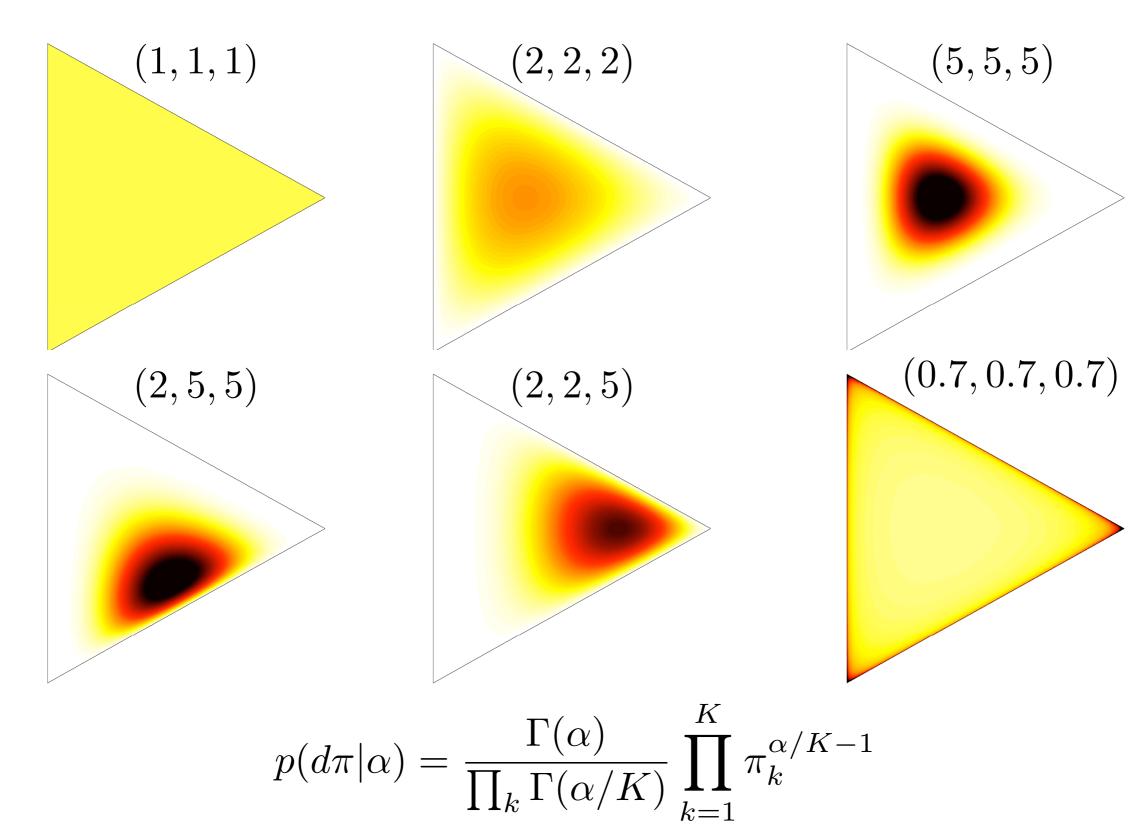
with
$$\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty x^{a-1} e^x dx$$

 Standard distribution on probability vectors, due to conjugacy with multinomial.





Dirichlet Distribution



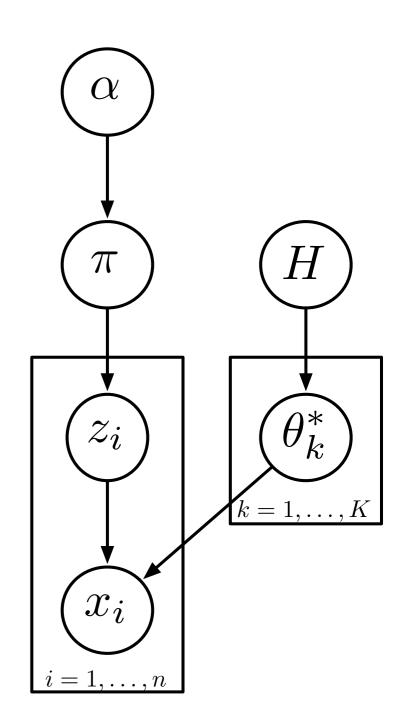


Gibbs Sampling

$$p(z_i = k | \text{others}) \propto \pi_k f(x_i | \theta_k^*)$$

$$\pi | \text{others} \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\frac{\alpha}{K} + n_1, \dots, \frac{\alpha}{K} + n_K)$$

$$p(\theta_k^* = \theta | \text{others}) \propto h(\theta) \prod_{j: z_j = k} f(x_j | \theta)$$





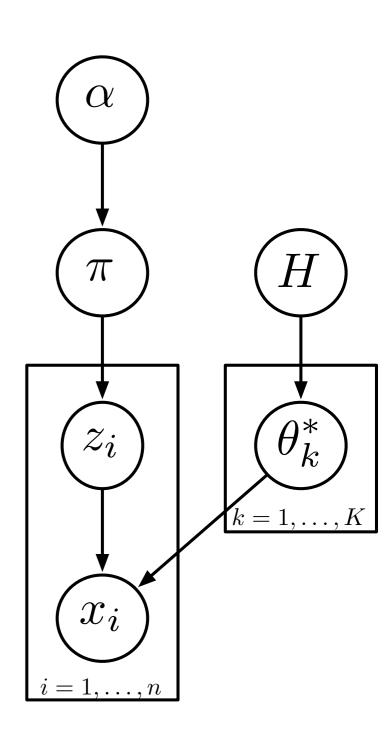
Gibbs Sampling

All conditional distributions are simple to compute:

$$p(z_i = k | \text{others}) \propto \pi_k f(x_i | \theta_k^*)$$

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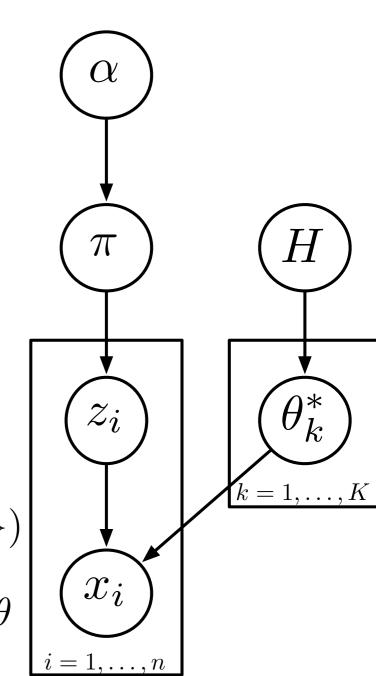
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$$p(\theta_k^* = \theta | \text{others}) \propto h(\theta) \prod_{j: z_j = k} f(x_j | \theta)$$

• Not as efficient as collapsed Gibbs sampling, which integrates out π , θ^* 's:

$$p(z_i = k | \text{others}) \propto \frac{\frac{\alpha}{K} + n_k^{-i}}{\alpha + n - 1} f(x_i | \{x_j : j \neq i, z_j = k\})$$
$$f(x_i | \{x_j : j \neq i, z_j = k\}) \propto \int h(\theta) f(x_i | \theta) \prod_{j \neq i: z_j = k} f(x_j | \theta) d\theta$$

 Conditional distributions can be efficiently computed if F is conjugate to H.





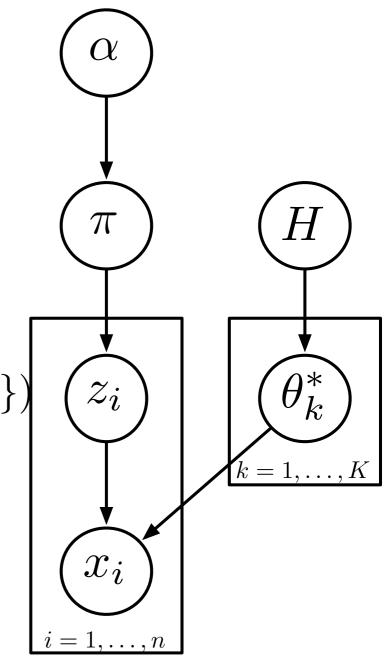
Infinite Limit of Collapsed Gibbs Sampler

- We will take $K \to \infty$.
- Imagine a very large value of K.
- There are at most *n* < *K* occupied clusters, so most components are empty. We can lump these empty components together:

$$p(z_i = k | \text{others}) = \frac{n_k^{\neg i} + \frac{\alpha}{K}}{n - 1 + \alpha} f(x_i | \{x_j : j \neq i, z_j = k\})$$

$$p(z_i = k_{\text{empty}} | \text{others}) = \frac{\alpha \frac{K - K^*}{K}}{n - 1 + \alpha} f(x_i | \{\})$$

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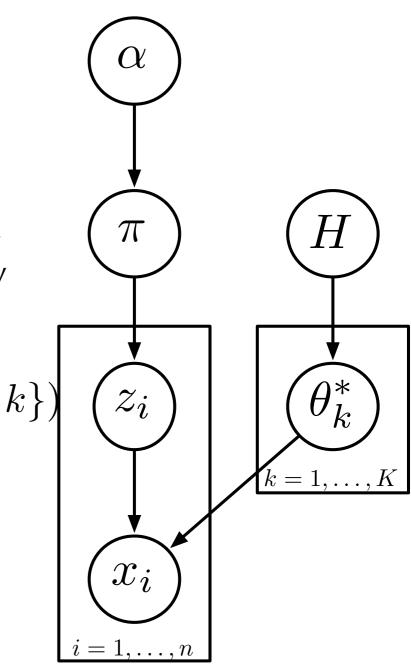


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$$p(z_i = k | \text{others}) = \frac{n_k^{\neg i}}{n - 1 + \alpha} f(x_i | \{x_j : j \neq i, z_j = k\})$$

$$p(z_i = k_{\text{empty}} | \text{others}) = \frac{\alpha}{n - 1 + \alpha} f(x_i | \{\})$$





Making Sense of the Infinite Limit

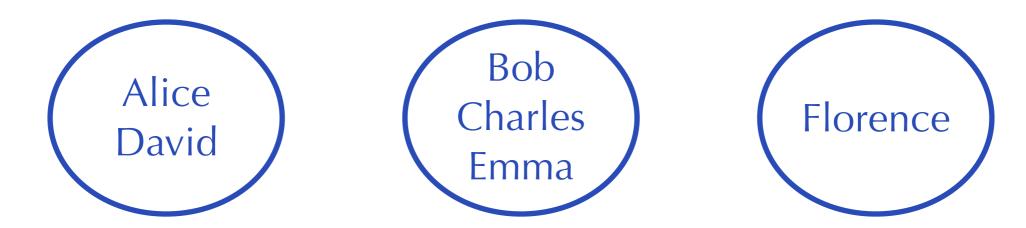
- The actual infinite limit of the finite mixture model does not make sense:
 - any particular cluster will get a mixing proportion of 0.
- Better ways of making this infinite limit precise:
 - Chinese restaurant process.
 - Stick-breaking construction.
- Both are different views of the Dirichlet process (DP).
- DPs can be thought of as infinite dimensional Dirichlet distributions.
- The $K \to \infty$ Gibbs sampler is for DP mixture models.



Chinese Restaurant Process

Partitions

- A partition ϱ of a set S is:
 - A disjoint family of non-empty subsets of *S* whose union in *S*.
 - *S* = {Alice, Bob, Charles, David, Emma, Florence}.
 - $\varrho = \{ \{Alice, David\}, \{Bob, Charles, Emma\}, \{Florence\} \}.$



- Denote the set of all partitions of S as \mathcal{P}_S .
- Random partitions are random variables taking values in \mathcal{P}_{S} .
- We will work with partitions of $S = [n] = \{1,2,...n\}$.



Chinese Restaurant Process

Each customer comes into restaurant and sits at a table:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at table } c) = \frac{n_c}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c} \qquad \mathbb{P}(\text{sit at new table}) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c}$$

- Customers correspond to elements of S, and tables to clusters in ϱ .
- Rich-gets-richer: large clusters more likely to attract more customers.
- Multiplying conditional probabilities together, the overall probability of *q*, called the **exchangeable partition probability function** (EPPF), is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\varrho|\alpha) = \frac{\alpha^{|\varrho|}\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha)} \prod_{c \in \varrho} \Gamma(|c|)$$

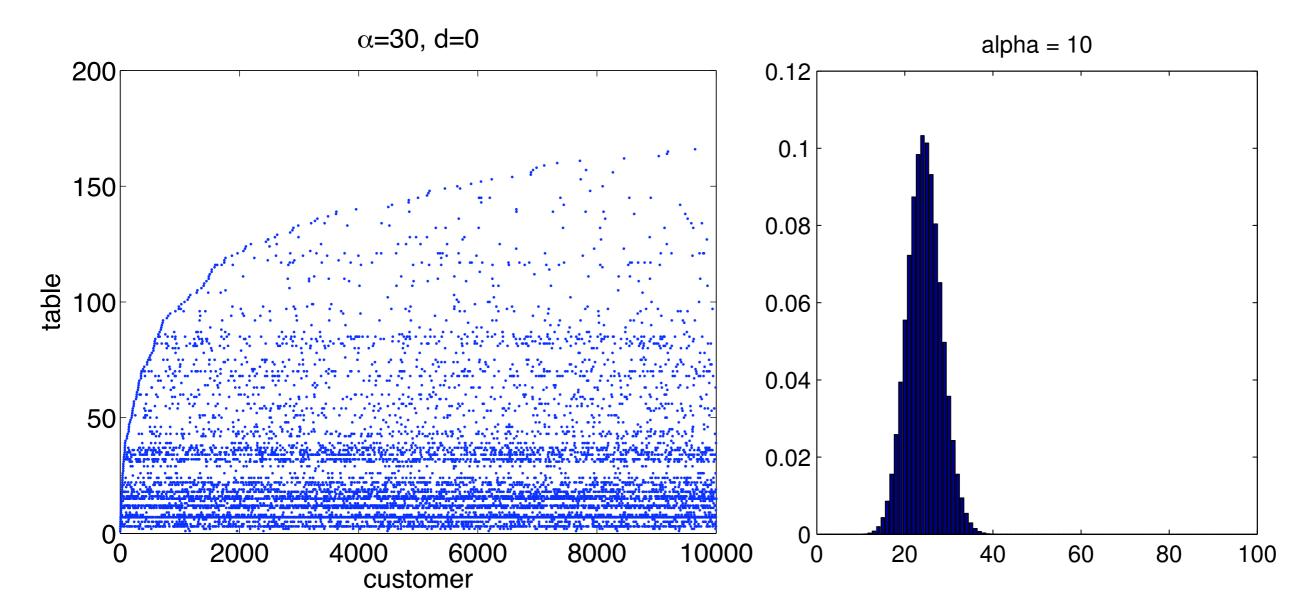
Number of Clusters

• The prior mean and variance of *K* are:

$$\mathbb{E}[|\rho||\alpha, n] = \alpha(\psi(\alpha + n) - \psi(\alpha)) \approx \alpha \log\left(1 + \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\mathbb{V}[|\rho||\alpha, n] = \alpha(\psi(\alpha + n) - \psi(\alpha)) + \alpha^2(\psi'(\alpha + n) - \psi'(\alpha)) \approx \alpha \log\left(1 + \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\psi(\alpha) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \log \Gamma(\alpha)$$





Model-based Clustering with Chinese Restaurant Process



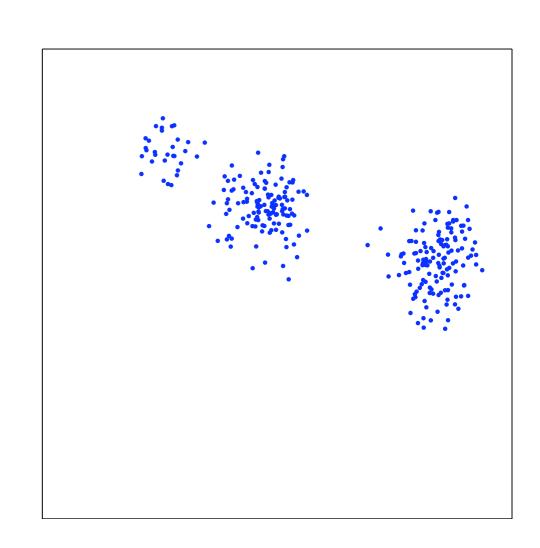
Partitions in Model-based Clustering

- Partitions are the natural latent objects of inference in clustering.
 - Given a dataset S, partition it into clusters of similar items.
- Cluster $c \in \varrho$ described by a model

$$F(heta_c^*)$$

parameterized by θ_c^* .

- Bayesian approach: introduce prior over ϱ and θ_c^* ; compute posterior over both.
- CRP mixture model: Use CRP prior over ϱ , and an iid prior H over cluster parameters.



CRP Mixture Model

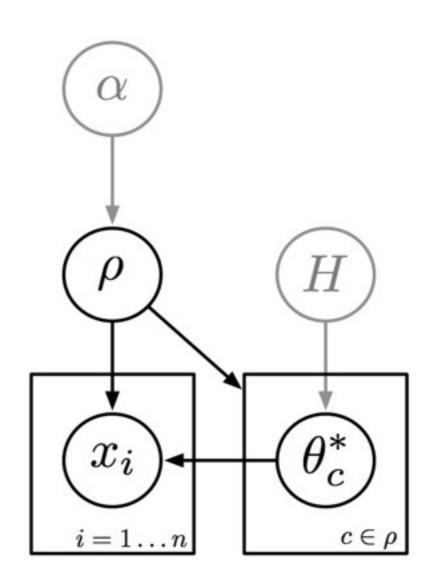
- Use CRP prior over ϱ , and an iid prior H over cluster parameters.
- Model is as follows:

$$\varrho \sim \operatorname{CRP}(\alpha)$$

$$\theta_c^* | \varrho \sim H \quad \text{for } c \in \rho$$

$$x_i | \theta^*, \varrho \sim F(\theta_c^*) \quad \text{for } c \in \varrho \text{ with } i \in c$$

 CRP prior induces a prior over partitions of the data, where the number of clusters is unknown a priori and part of the inference process.



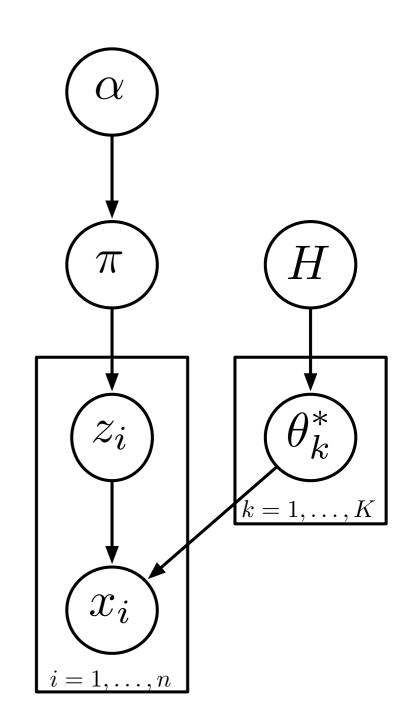


Finite Mixture Model

- Explicitly allow only *K* clusters in partition:
 - Each cluster k has parameter θ_k .
 - Each data item *i* assigned to *k* with mixing probability π_k .
 - Gives a random partition with at most *K* clusters.
- Priors on the other parameters:

$$\pi | \alpha \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K)$$

 $\theta_k^* | H \sim H$



Induced Distribution over Partitions

$$P(\mathbf{z}|\alpha) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\prod_{k} \Gamma(\alpha/K)} \frac{\prod_{k} \Gamma(n_k + \alpha/K)}{\Gamma(n + \alpha)}$$

- $P(\mathbf{z}|\alpha)$ describes a partition of the data set into clusters, and a labelling of each cluster with a mixture component index.
- Induces a distribution over partitions ϱ (without labelling) of the data set:

$$P(\varrho|\alpha) = [K]_{-1}^{k} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha)} \prod_{c \in \varrho} \frac{\Gamma(|c| + \alpha/K)}{\Gamma(\alpha/K)}$$

where
$$[x]_b^a = x(x+b)\cdots(x+(a-1)b)$$

• Taking $K \to \infty$, we get a proper distribution over partitions without a limit on the number of clusters:

$$P(\varrho|\alpha) \to \frac{\alpha^{|\varrho|}\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha)} \prod_{c \in \varrho} \Gamma(|c|)$$



Summary

- Chinese restaurant processes:
 - distribution over partitions of a collection of objects.
 - Can be used to build nonparametric model-based clustering models.
 - Related to the infinite limit of finite mixture models.
- Random partitions are generally useful concepts for structure learning problems.
 - Other combinatorial structures can be built from partitions. , e.g. hierarchical clustering using fragmentations and coagulations.



Dirichlet Processes



Exchangeability

Chinese Restaurant Process

• Each customer comes into restaurant and sits at a table:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at table } c) = \frac{n_c}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \varrho} n_c} \qquad \mathbb{P}(\text{sit at new table}) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \varrho} n_c}$$

• Multiplying conditional probabilities together, the overall probability of ϱ , called the **exchangeable partition probability function** (EPPF), is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\varrho|\alpha) = \frac{\alpha^{|\varrho|}\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha)} \prod_{c \in \varrho} \Gamma(|c|)$$

• The probability of ϱ does not depend on the order of customers entering restaurant! --- an **exchangeable random partition**.

Example: Preferential Attachment

- Elements inserted one at a time:
 - Inserted into an existing cluster, or
 - Into a new cluster.
- Example:

$$\mathbb{P}(8 \to \{1, 6, 7\}) = (1 - \delta)\frac{3}{7}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(8 \to \{2\}) = (1 - \delta)\frac{1}{7}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(8 \to \{3\}) = (1 - \delta)\frac{1}{7}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(8 \to \{4, 5\}) = (1 - \delta)\frac{2}{7}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(8 \to \text{new}) = \delta$$

Typically not exchangeable.

$$\pi = \{\{1\}\}$$
new

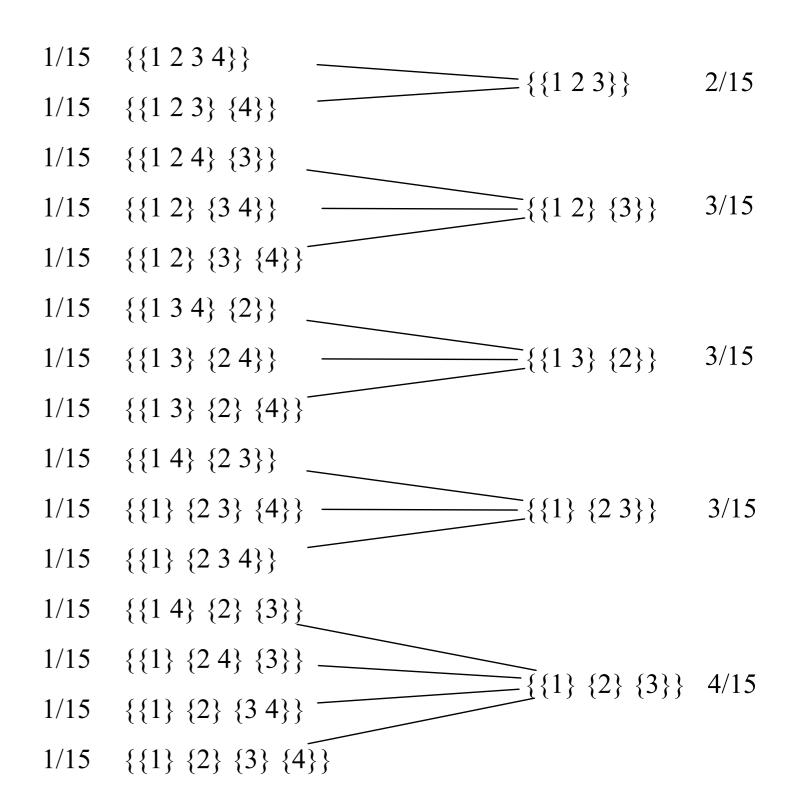
$$\pi = \{\{1\}, \{2\}\}\}$$
new

$$\pi = \{\{1, 6, 7\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4, 5\}\}\}$$
8



Example: Uniform Partitions

- Uniform partitions
 - exchangeable
 - not self-consistent



Exchangeable Sequences of Variables

- We have a sequence of data items X_1 , X_2 , X_3 ,...
- Model these with a joint distribution

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1, X_2, X_3, \ldots)$$

• We say that the sequence is (infinitely) exchangeable if for every finite n, and every permutation σ of [n]:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2, \dots, X_n \in A_n)$$

=\mathbb{P}(X_{\sigma(1)} \in A_1, X_{\sigma(2)} \in A_2, \dots, X_{\sigma(n)} \in A_n)

- Ordering of data items does not matter.
- Often a sensible modelling assumption.

Why Exchangeable Models?

- An infinitely exchangeable model means:
 - The way data items are ordered or indexed does not matter.
 - Model is unaffected by existence of additional unobserved data items, e.g. test items.
 - To predict m additional test items, we would need

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1,\ldots,X_n,X_{n+1},\ldots,X_{n+m})$$

- If model is not exchangeable, predictive probabilities will be different for different values of *m*.
- There are scenarios where exchangeability is suitable or unsuitable.

De Finetti's Theorem

• If a sequence of random variables X_1 , X_2 , X_3 ,... is exchangeable, then there is a **random probability measure** G such that:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = \int P(dG) \prod_{i=1}^n G(A_i)$$

• Given *G*, random variables are independent and identically distributed according to *G*.

G captures all dependence structure underlying random variables.

Random Probability Measure

- What does a random probability measure mean?
- What does a probability measure mean?
 - A function *P* from the space of "events" to "probabilities" in [0,1].
 - P(A) is the probability of event A.
 - Satisfies certain properties, e.g.

$$P(\emptyset) = 0$$

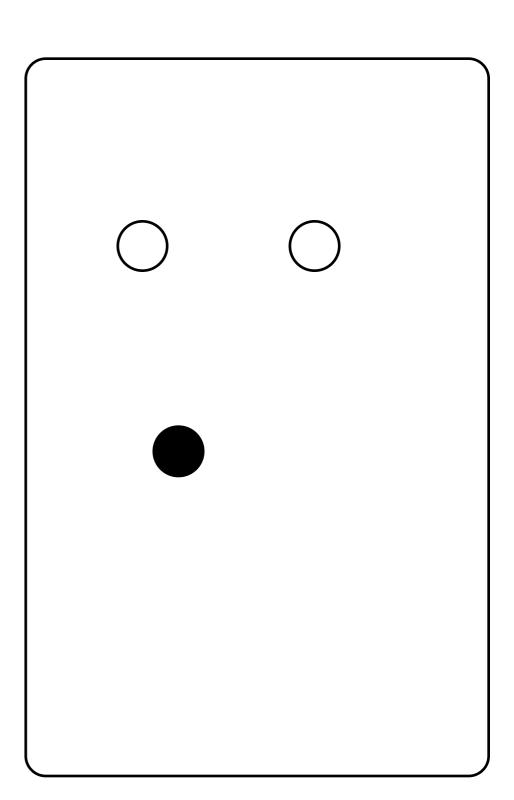
$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) \quad \text{if } A \cap B = \emptyset$$

$$P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$$

- A random probability measure is a random function which satisfies properties of probability measure.
- A random function is simple an (infinite) collection of random variables, $\{P(A): A \text{ is an event }\}$. A stochastic process.

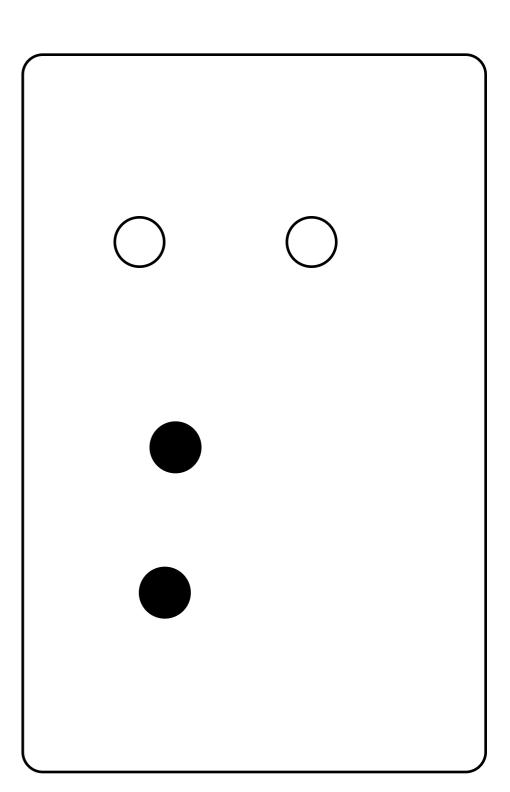


- Start with two positive numbers a and b.
- Set $N_W = a$, $N_B = b$.
- For i=1,2,...:
 - Return White with probability $\frac{N_W}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_W by 1.
 - Return Black with probability $\frac{N_B}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_B by 1.



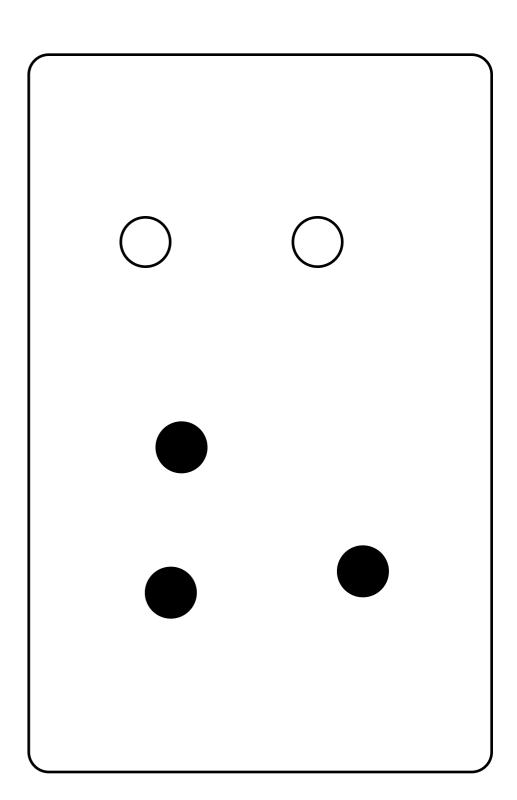


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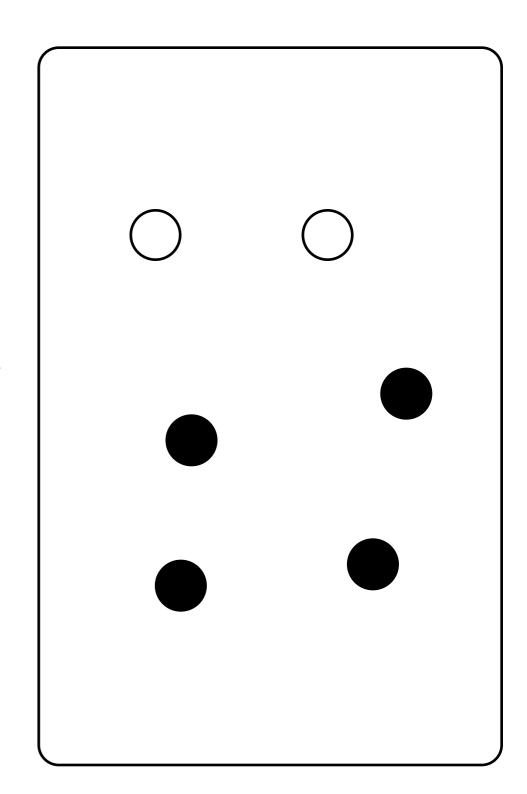


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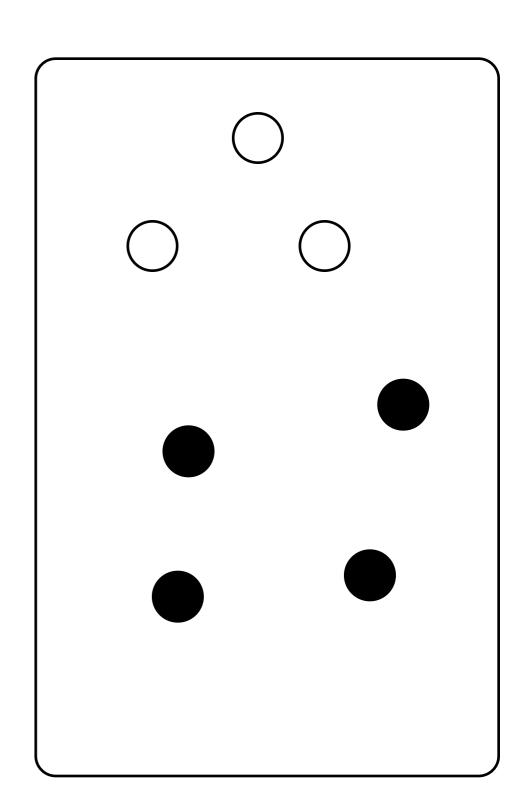


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- For i=1,2,...:
 - Return White with probability $\frac{N_W}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_W by 1.
 - Return Black with probability $\frac{N_B}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_B by 1.



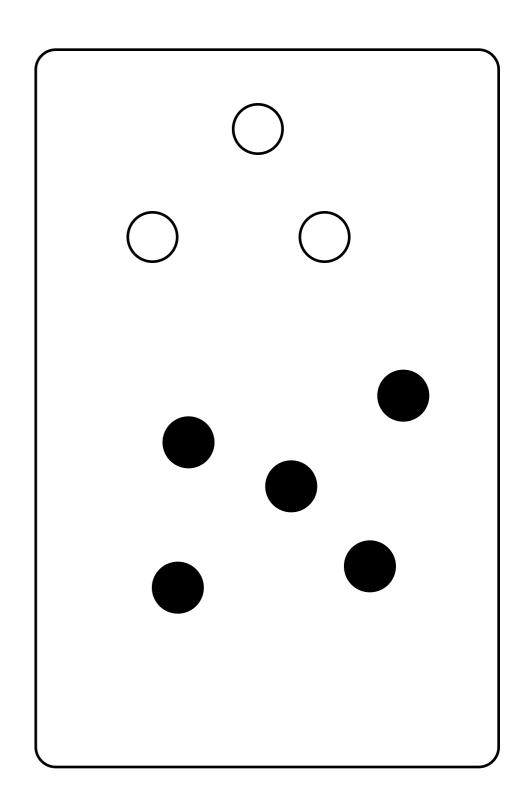


- Start with two positive numbers a and b.
- Set $N_W = a$, $N_B = b$.
- For i=1,2,...:
 - Return White with probability $\frac{1 \cdot W}{N_W + N_E}$ and increment N_W by 1.
 - Return Black with probability $\frac{N_B}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_B by 1.



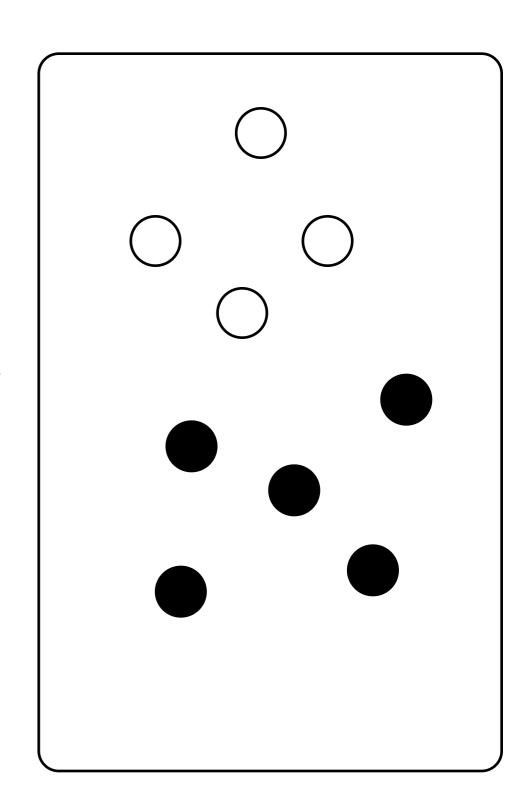


- Start with two positive numbers a and b.
- Set $N_W = a$, $N_B = b$.
- For i=1,2,...:
 - Return White with probability $\frac{N_W}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_W by 1.
 - Return Black with probability $\frac{N_B}{N_W + N_E}$ and increment N_B by 1.





- Start with two positive numbers a and b.
- Set $N_W = a$, $N_B = b$.
- For i=1,2,...:
 - Return White with probability $\frac{1}{N_W + N_E}$ and increment N_W by 1.
 - Return Black with probability $\frac{N_B}{N_W + N_B}$ and increment N_B by 1.



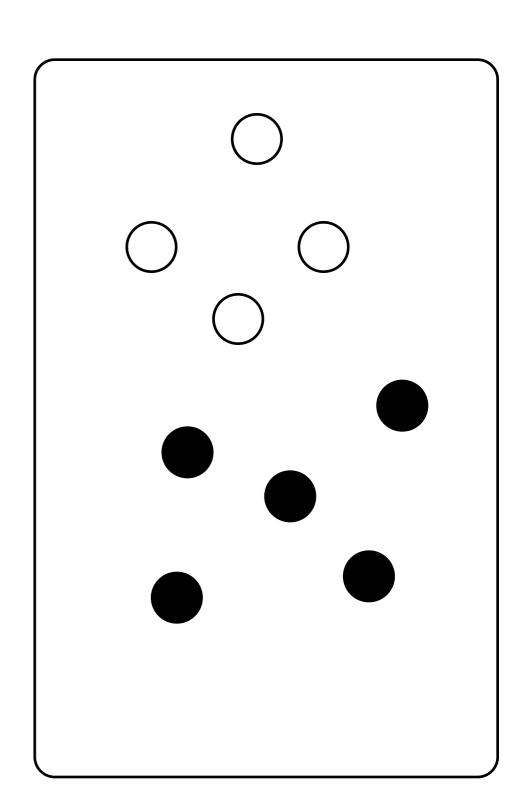


- Suppose after n iterations, the we drew White n_W times and Black n_B times.
- The probability of the sequence of draws is:

$$= \frac{a(a+1)\cdots(a+n_W-1)\times b(b+1)\cdots(b+n_B-1)}{(a+b)(a+b+1)\cdots(a+b+n-1)}$$

$$= \frac{[a]_1^{n_W}[b]_1^{n_B}}{[a+b]_1^n}$$

 This probability does not depend on the sequential order of White and Black draws.



De Finetti's Theorem

• There is a random probability measure G such that:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = C_1, X_2 = C_2, \dots, X_n = C_n) = \int P(dG) \prod_{i=1}^n G(C_i)$$

where *C_i* is a colour (White or Black) and *G* is a probability measure over {White, Black}.

- *G* can be equivalently cast as a single number in [0,1], say the probability *G*(White), so a "random probability measure" is just a random number in [0,1].
- What is the distribution *P* of *G*?
 - A Beta(*a*,*b*) distribution!

Exchangeable Partitions and Sequences

- The CRP is an exchangeable random partition, not sequence.
- How does it relate to the notion of exchangeable sequences in de Finetti's Theorem?

- Construct a random sequence in the following way:
 - For each $c \in \varrho$, define: $\theta_c^* \sim H$
 - For each $i \in [n]$, define: $\theta_i = \theta_c^*$ where $c \in \varrho$ with $i \in c$.
- The CRP mixture model is obtained with an observation model:

$$X_i | \theta_i \sim F(\theta_i)$$

The Latent Process behind the CRP

• de Finetti's Theorem applied to the exchangeable sequence θ_1 , θ_2 , θ_3 ,... implies a random probability measure G making them iid.

• What is this *G*?

What properties does this G have?

Exchangeability in Bayesian Statistics

- Fundamental role of de Finetti's Theorem in Bayesian statistics:
 - From an assumption of exchangeability, we get a representation as a Bayesian model with a prior over the latent parameter.

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 \in A_1, X_2 \in A_2, \dots, X_n \in A_n) = \int P(dG) \prod_{i=1}^n G(A_i)$$

- Generalizing infinitely exchangeable sequences lead to Bayesian models for richly structured data. E.g.,
 - exchangeability in network and relational data.
 - hierarchical exchangeability in hierarchical Bayesian models.
 - Markov exchangeability in sequence data.



Properties of Dirichlet Processes



Discreteness of Dirichlet Process

Construct a random sequence in the following way:

• Draw partition:
$$\rho \sim \text{CRP}(\alpha)$$

• For each
$$c \in \varrho$$
, draw: $\theta_c^* \sim H$

• For each
$$i \in [n]$$
, set: $\theta_i = \theta_c^*$ where $c \in \varrho$ with $i \in c$.

Equivalent to the following construction:

$$G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$$

- For each $i \in [n]$, draw: $\theta_i | G \sim G$
- Each table c is associated with a value θ_c^* . For large enough n the table will have >1 customers.
- Every value drawn from G will have positive probability of being repeatedly drawn. G is an atomic distribution. $G = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$

Atomic Distributions

Draws from Dirichlet processes will always be atomic:

$$G = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$$

where $\Sigma_k \pi_k = 1$ and $\theta_k^* \in \Theta$.

- How to specify the joint distribution of $\{\pi_k, \theta_k^*\}$?
 - Stick-breaking construction.
 - Poisson-Dirichlet distribution.

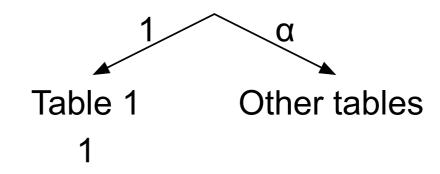


Back to the Chinese Restaurant Process



Back to the Chinese Restaurant Process

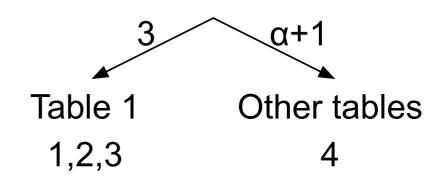
• First customer sits at table 1.





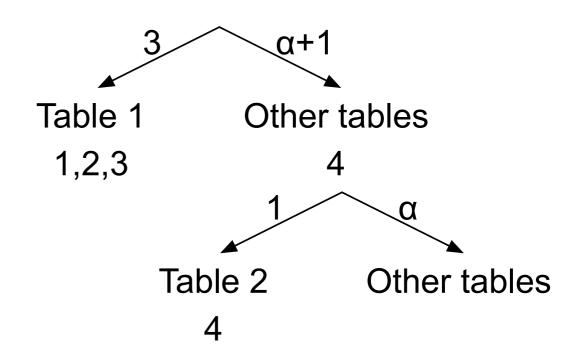
Back to the Chinese Restaurant Process

- First customer sits at table 1.
- Customers 2,3 sit at table 1.
- Customer 4 sits at new table.



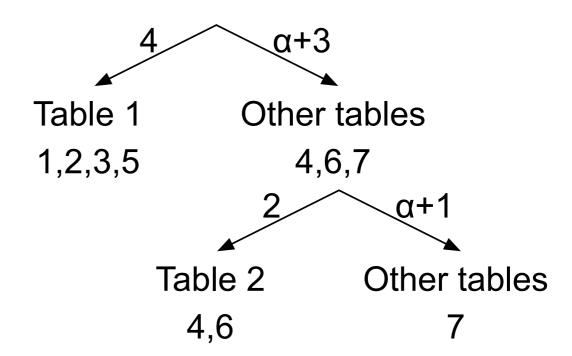


- First customer sits at table 1.
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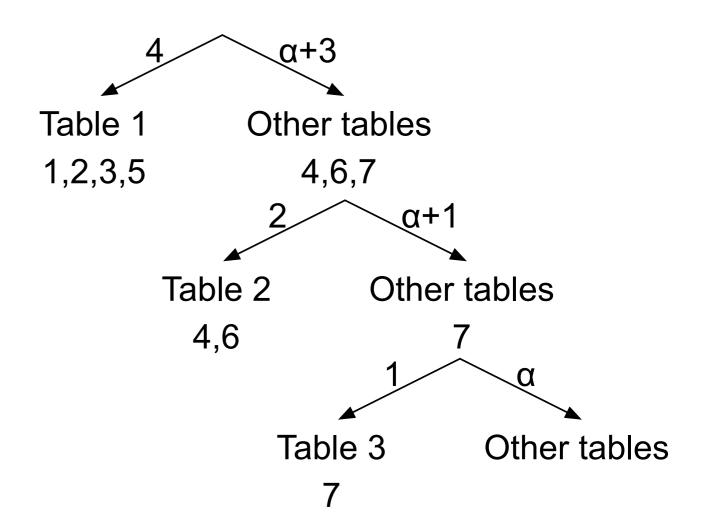


- First customer sits at table 1.
- Customers 2,3 sit at table 1.
- Customer 4 sits at new table.
- Customers 5,6 sit at tables 1, 2.
- Customer 7 sits at new table.



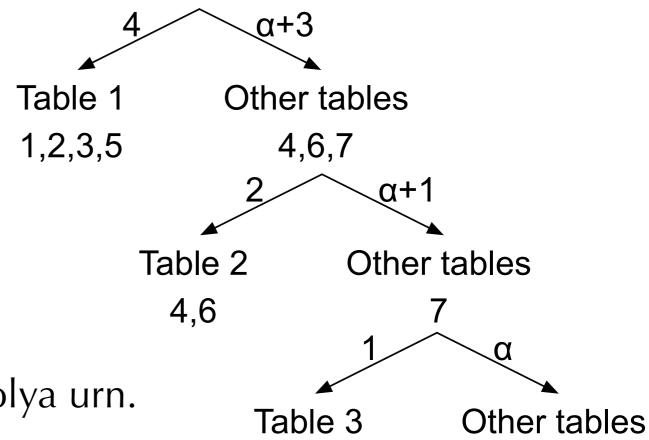


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- First customer sits at table 1.
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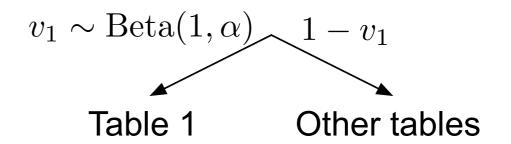


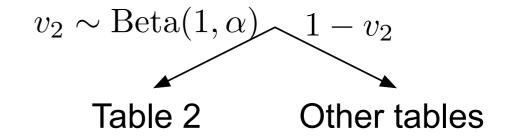
7

- Decisions to sit at each table is a Polya urn.
 - Initial values are a=1, $b=\alpha$.
 - By de Finetti, decisions are equivalent to first drawing Beta(1, α), and using that as probability of sitting at table.



- First customer sits at table 1.
- Customers 2,3 sit at table 1.
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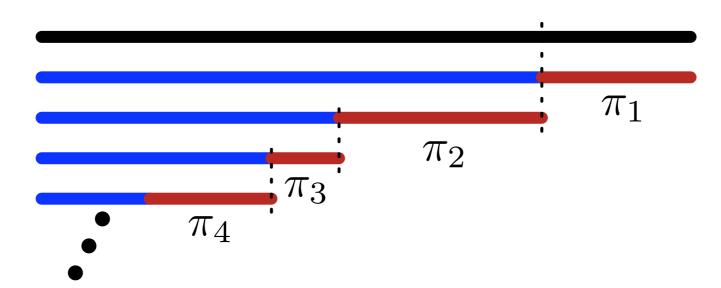






- Initial values are a=1, $b=\alpha$.
- By de Finetti, decisions are equivalent to first drawing Beta(1, α), and using that as probability of sitting at table.

Stick-breaking Construction



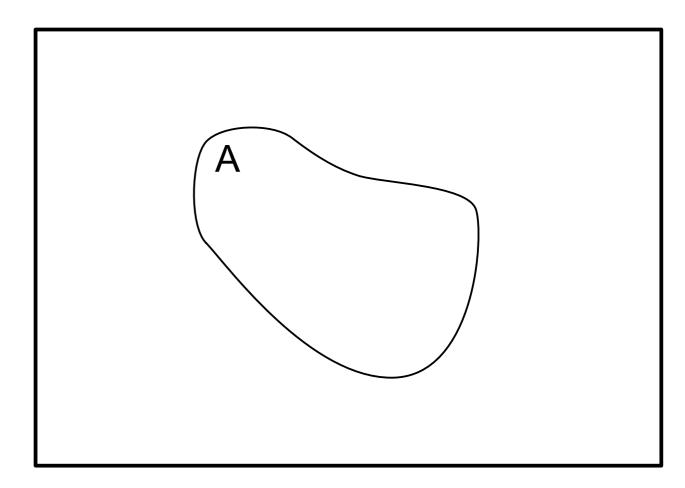
• Stick-breaking construction for the joint distribution:

$$\theta_k^* \sim H$$
 $v_k \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots$

$$\pi_k = v_k \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} (1 - v_j)$$
 $G = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$

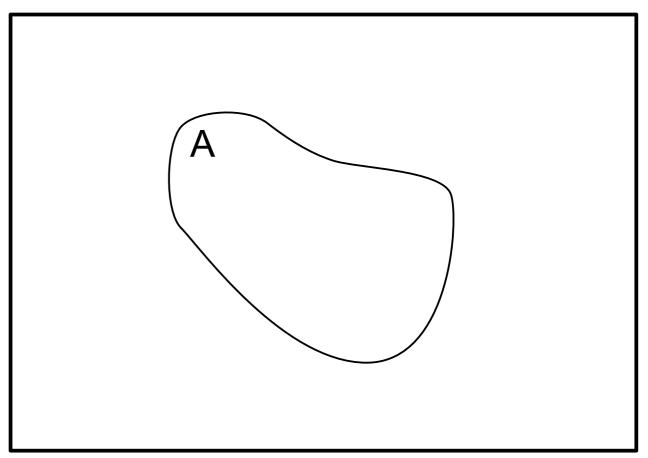
- π_k 's are decreasing on average but not strictly.
- Distribution of $\{\pi_k\}$ is the **Griffiths-Engen-McCloskey** (GEM) distribution.
- Poisson-Dirichlet distribution [Kingman 1975] gives a strictly decreasing ordering (but is not computationally tractable).







- Let $A \subset \Theta$.
- What is the marginal distribution of G(A)?

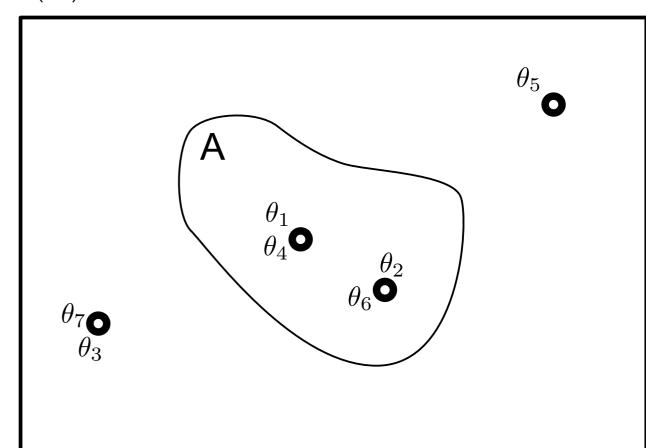


- Let $A \subset \Theta$.
- What is the marginal distribution of G(A)?

- Consider CRP again.
- Probability of $\theta_8 \in A$ is

$$\frac{2}{7+\alpha} + \frac{2}{7+\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{7+\alpha}H(A)$$

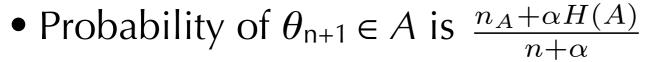
• Probability of $\theta_{n+1} \in A$ is $\frac{n_A + \alpha H(A)}{n + \alpha}$

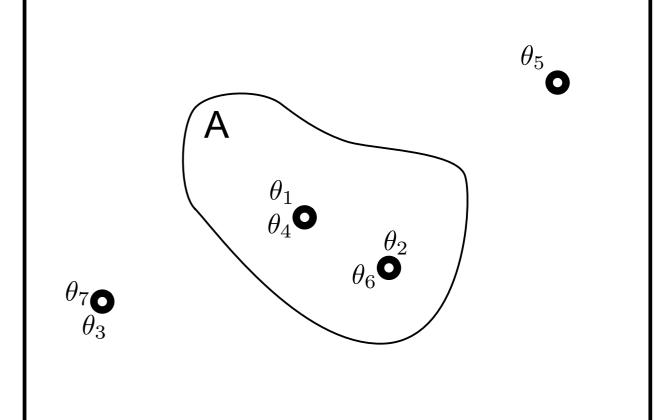


- Let $A \subset \Theta$.
- What is the marginal distribution of G(A)?

- Consider CRP again.
- Probability of $\theta_8 \in A$ is

$$\frac{2}{7+\alpha} + \frac{2}{7+\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{7+\alpha}H(A)$$





- Again is a Polya urn, with initial values $a = \alpha H(A), b = \alpha H(A^c).$
- de Finetti's Theorem: $G(A) \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha H(A), \alpha H(A^c))$

Means and Variances of Dirichlet Process

- α is called the **strength**, mass or concentration parameter.
- H is called the **base distribution**.
- Mean and variance:

$$\mathbb{E}[G(A)] = H(A)$$

$$\mathbb{V}[G(A)] = \frac{H(A)(1 - H(A))}{\alpha + 1}$$

where A is a measurable subset of Θ .

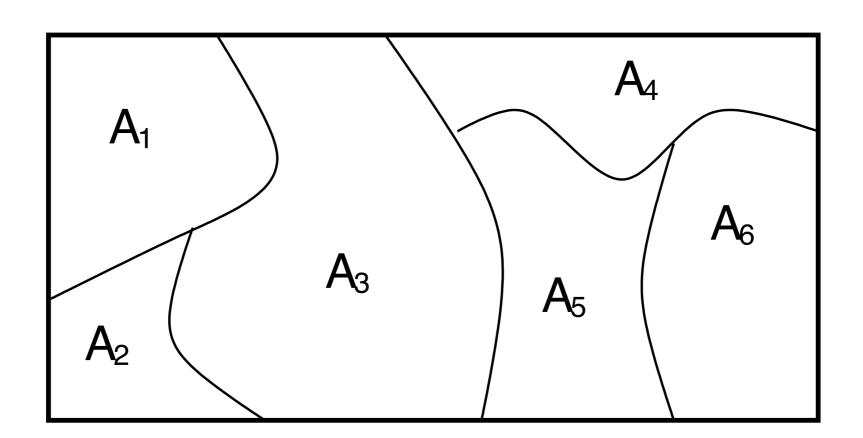
• H is the mean of G, and α is an inverse variance.

Marginal Distribution on a Partition of Θ

• Suppose we a partition $A_1, A_2, ... A_K$ of Θ , i.e.

$$A_1 \dot{\cup} \cdots \dot{\cup} A_K = \Theta$$

- The vector $(G(A_1), G(A_2), ... G(A_K))$ is a probability vector.
- What is the marginal distribution of $(G(A_1), G(A_2), ..., G(A_K))$? $(G(A_1), ..., G(A_K)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha H(A_1), ..., \alpha H(A_K))$





Ferguson's Definition of Dirichlet Processes

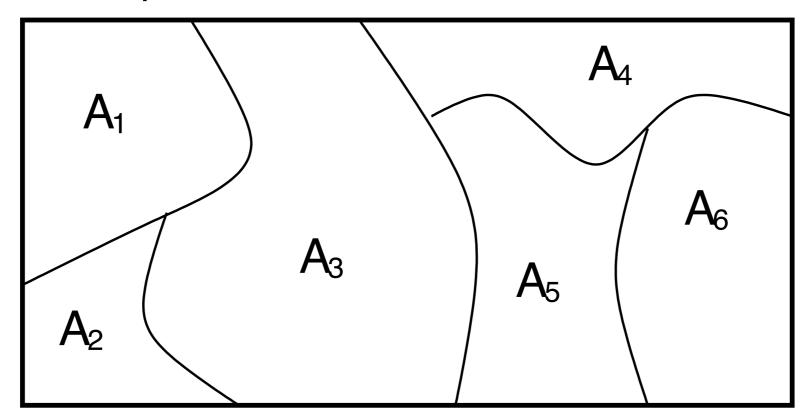
• A Dirichlet process (DP) is a random probability measure G over Θ such that for any finite partition $A_1,...A_K$ of Θ , i.e.

$$A_1 \dot{\cup} \cdots \dot{\cup} A_K = \Theta$$

we have

$$(G(A_1),\ldots,G(A_K)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha H(A_1),\ldots,\alpha H(A_K))$$

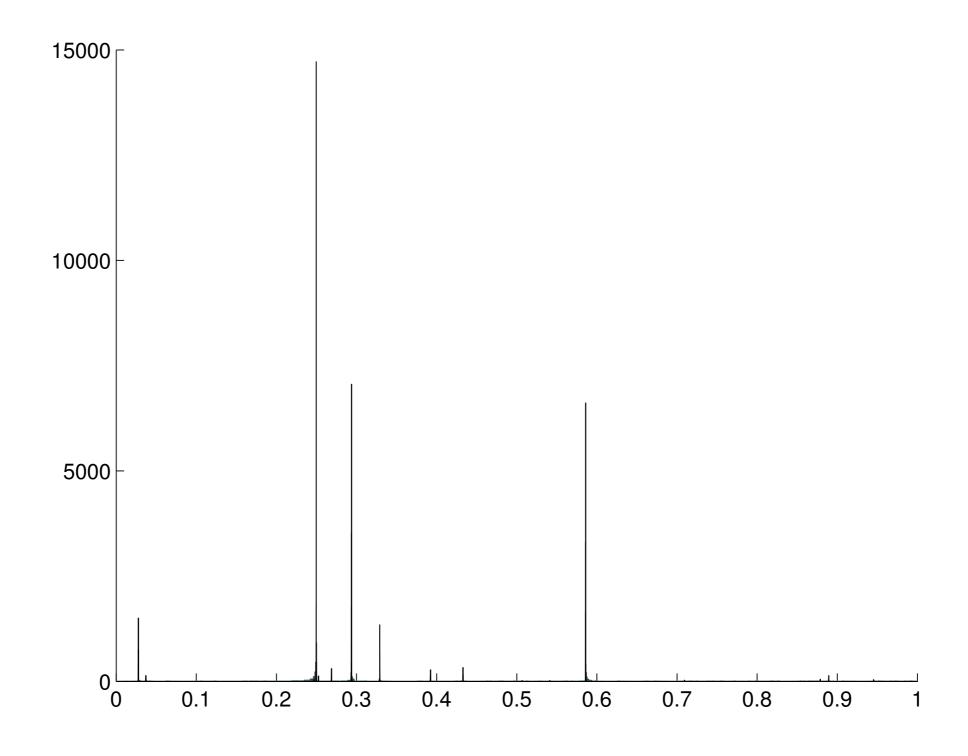
where α and H are parameters of the DP.



[Ferguson 1973]



A draw from a Dirichlet Process



Posterior Dirichlet Process

Suppose

$$G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$$

• We can define random variables that are G distributed:

$$\theta_i|G \sim G \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n$$

• The usual Dirichlet-multinomial conjugacy carries over to the DP as well:

$$G|\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_n \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha+n,\frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha+n})$$

Clustering Property of Dirichlet Process

$$G \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha, H)$$

 $\theta_i | G \sim G \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots$

• The *n* variables $\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_n$ can take on $K \le n$ distinct values.

- Let the distinct values be $\theta_1^*,...,\theta_K^*$. This defines a partition of $\{1,...,n\}$ such that i is in cluster k if and only if $\theta_i = \theta_k^*$.
- The induced distribution over partitions is the **Chinese restaurant** process.



Marginalized Sampler

 $\rho | \alpha \sim \text{CRP}([n], \alpha)$

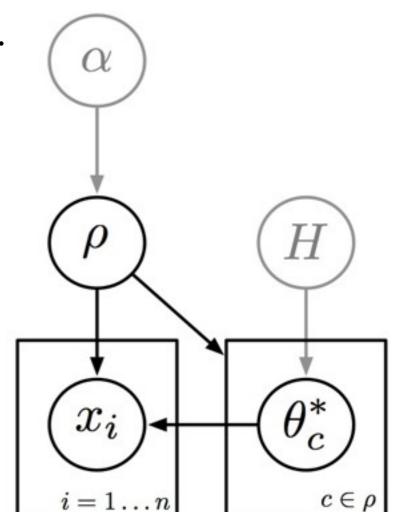
• "Marginalized" MCMC sampler.

- $\theta_c^* | H \sim H \text{ for } c \in \rho$
- Marginalize out G, and Gibbs sample partition.
- $x_i | \theta_c^* \sim F(\theta_c^*) \text{ for } c \ni i$
- Conditional probability of cluster of data item *i*:

$$P(\rho_i|\rho_{\setminus i}, \mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = P(\rho_i|\rho_{\setminus i})P(x_i|\rho_i, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$P(\rho_i|\rho_{\backslash i}) = \begin{cases} \frac{|c|}{n-1+\alpha} & \text{if } \rho_i = c \in \rho_{\backslash i} \\ \frac{\alpha}{n-1+\alpha} & \text{if } \rho_i = \text{new} \end{cases}$$

$$P(x_i|\rho_i, \mathbf{x}_{\setminus i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{cases} f(x_i|\theta_{\rho_i}) & \text{if } \rho_i = c \in \rho_{\setminus i} \\ \int f(x_i|\theta)h(\theta)d\theta & \text{if } \rho_i = \text{new} \end{cases}$$



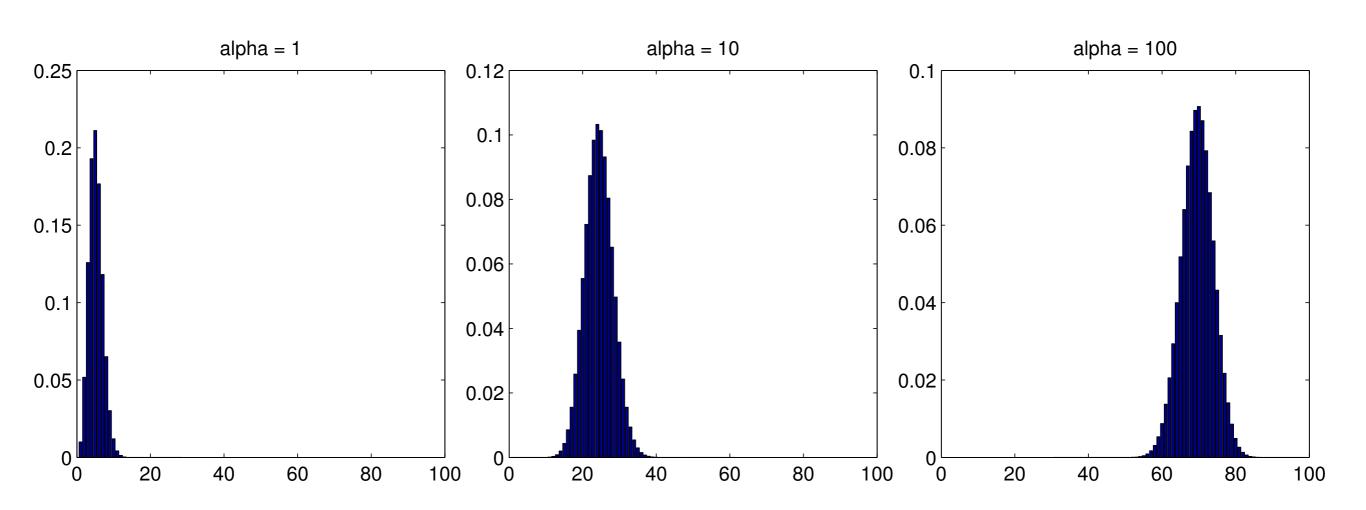
- A variety of methods to deal with new clusters.
- Difficulty lies in dealing with new clusters, especially when prior H is not conjugate to F.

Induced Prior on the Number of Clusters

• The prior expectation and variance of |e| are:

$$\mathbb{E}[|\rho||\alpha, n] = \alpha(\psi(\alpha + n) - \psi(\alpha)) \approx \alpha \log\left(1 + \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$$

$$\mathbb{V}[|\rho||\alpha, n] = \alpha(\psi(\alpha + n) - \psi(\alpha)) + \alpha^2(\psi'(\alpha + n) - \psi'(\alpha)) \approx \alpha \log\left(1 + \frac{n}{\alpha}\right)$$





Part II: Beyond the Dirchlet Process

hierarchical Bayesian nonparametrics
Pitman-Yor processes and power-laws
Indian buffet processes and feature allocation

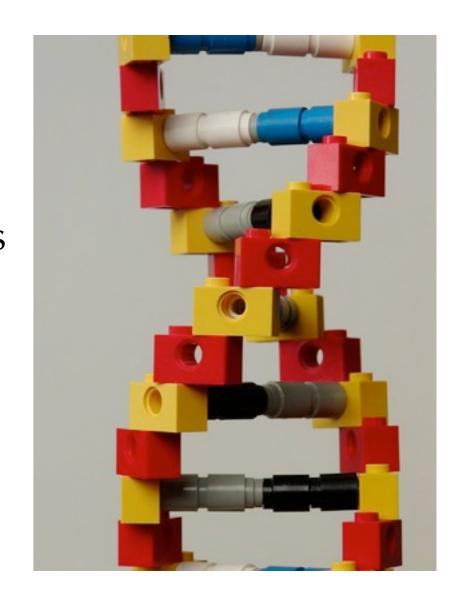


Hierarchical Bayesian Nonparametric Models



Nonparametric Building Blocks

- Easy to construct complex probabilistic models from simpler parts.
- Nonparametric Bayesian models are new classes of components for the statistical modeller.
 - Dependent random measures;
 - Hierarchical nonparametric models.
 - Nested models.





Hierarchical Dirichlet Process



Topic Modelling

human genome dna genetic genes sequence gene molecular sequencing map information genetics mapping project sequences

evolution evolutionary species organisms life origin biology groups phylogenetic living diversity group new two common

disease host bacteria diseases resistance bacterial new strains control infectious malaria parasite parasites united tuberculosis

computer models information data computers system network systems model parallel methods networks software new simulations

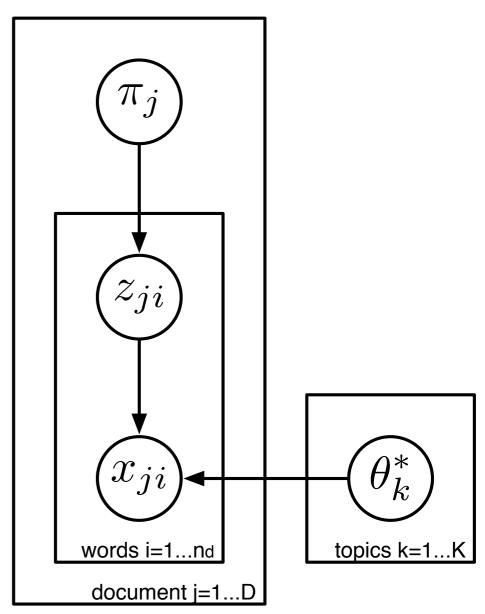


Latent Dirichlet Allocation

- Model a topic as a distribution over words that tend to co-occur together among documents.
- Model words in documents as exchangeable and documents as mixtures of topics.

$$\pi_{j} \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K)$$
 $\theta_{k}^{*} \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\beta/W, \dots, \beta/W)$
 $z_{ji}|\pi_{j} \sim \text{Discrete}(\pi_{j})$
 $x_{ji}|z_{ji}, \theta_{z_{ji}}^{*} \sim \text{Discrete}(\theta_{z_{ji}}^{*})$

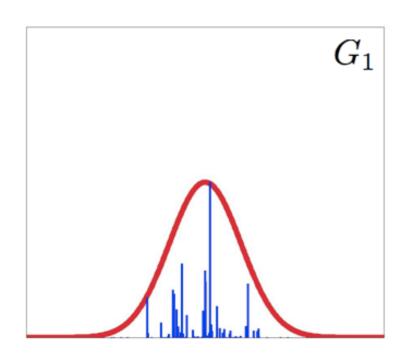
- A coupled multiple mixture model: one mixture for each document, with mixture components shared across documents.
- How many topics can we find in a corpus?

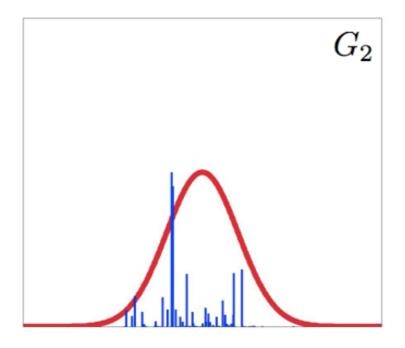




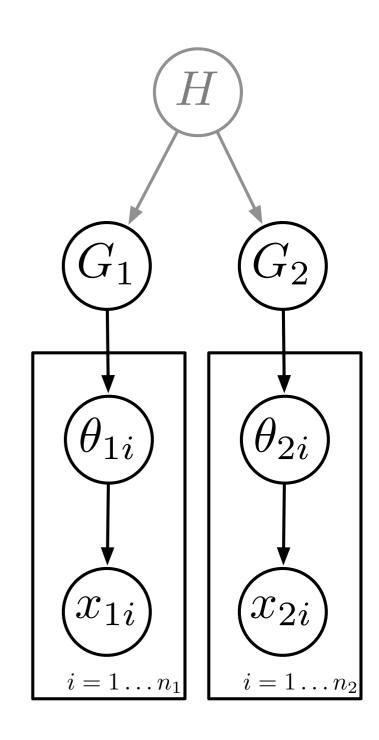
Nonparametric Latent Dirichlet Allocation?

• Use a DP for each document.





- If base distribution H is smooth, there is no sharing of topics across documents.
- Solution: make *H* discrete.
- Put a DP prior on base distribution.





Hierarchical Dirichlet Process

A hierarchy of Dirichlet processes:

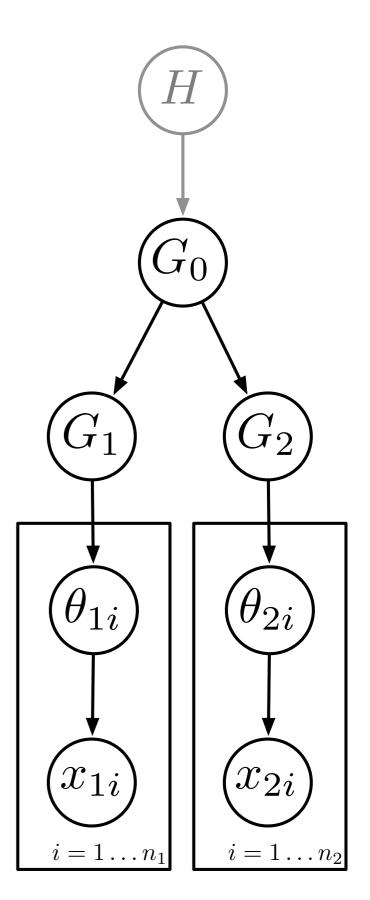
$$G_0 \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_0, H)$$

 $G_1|G_0 \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_1, G_0)$
 $G_2|G_0 \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_2, G_0)$

Extension to larger hierarchies straightforward:

$$G_j|G_{\mathrm{pa}(j)} \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_j, G_{\mathrm{pa}(j)})$$

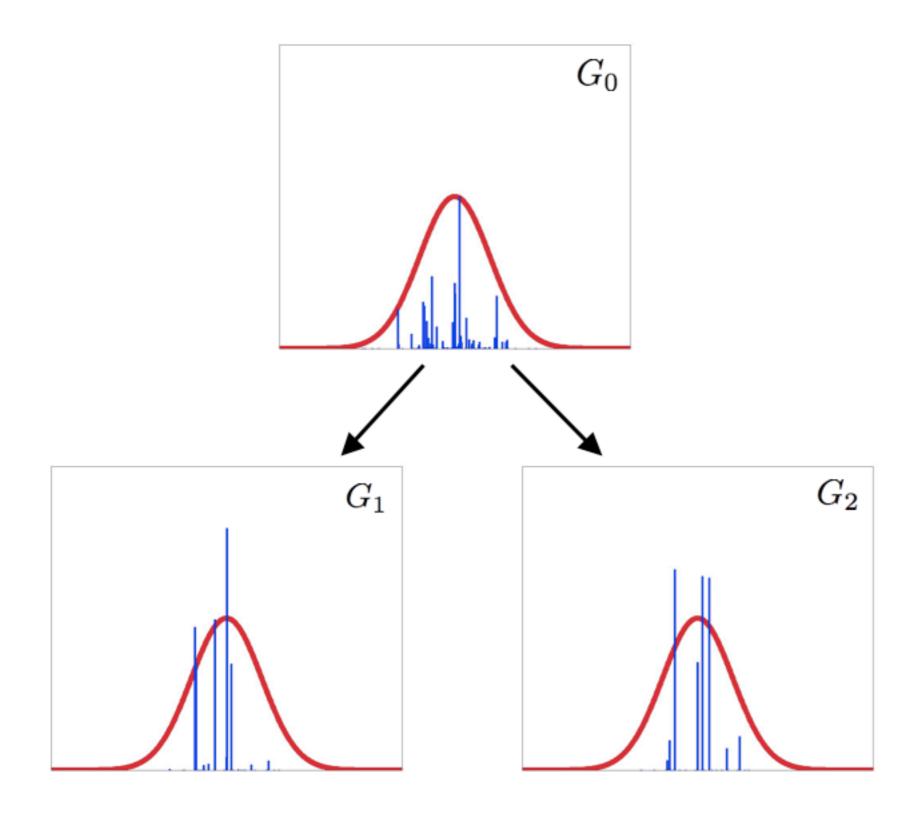
 Hierarchical modelling are a widespread technique to share statistical strength.



[Teh et al 2006]

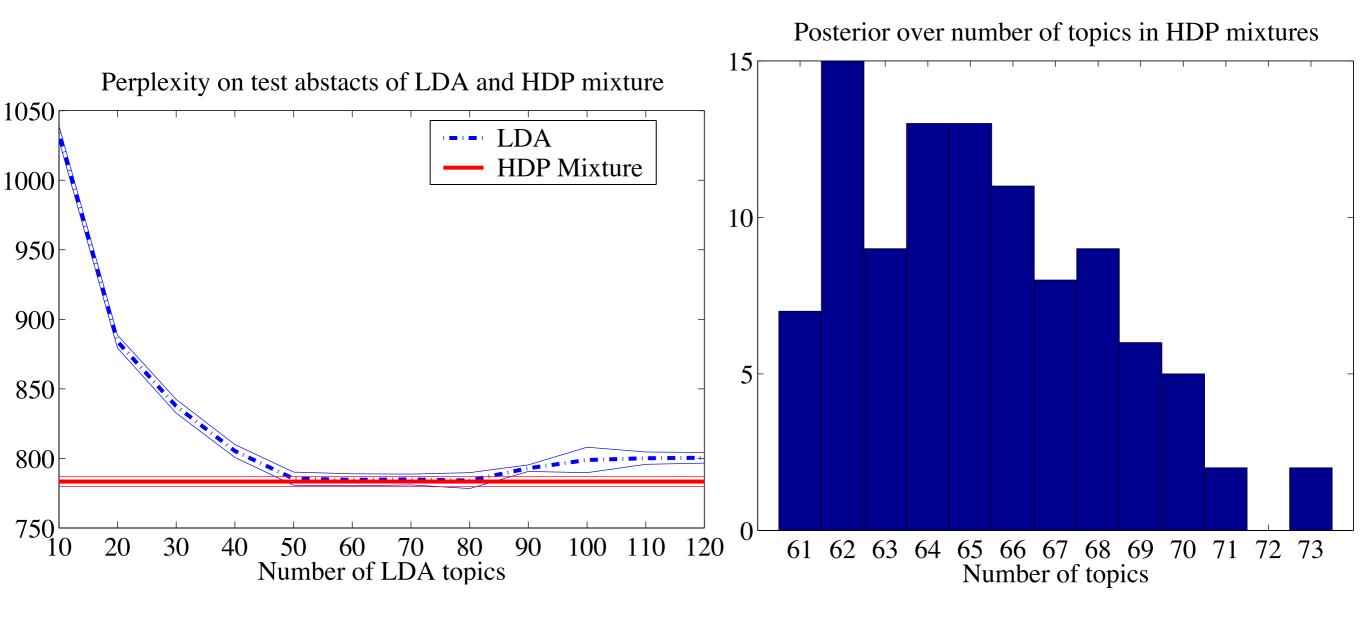


Hierarchical Dirichlet Process

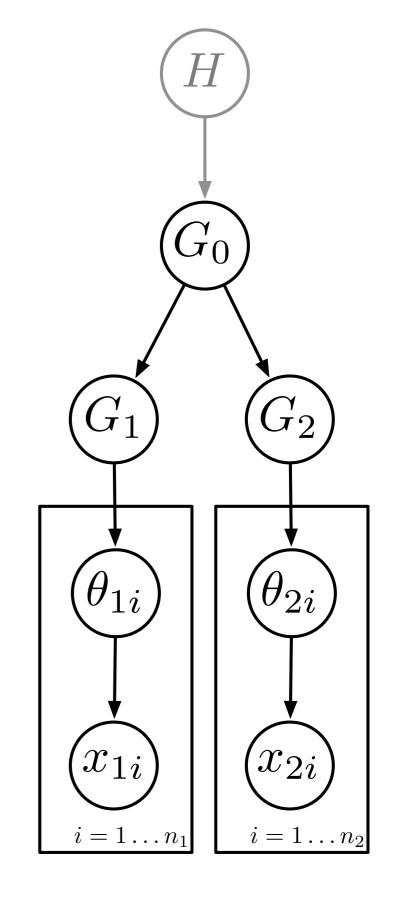




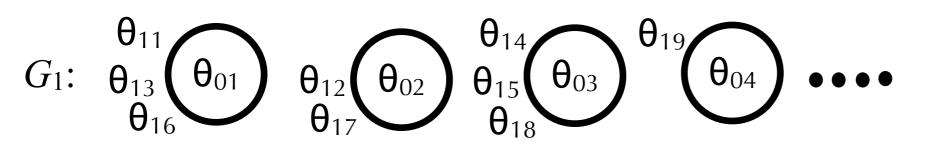
HDP-LDA

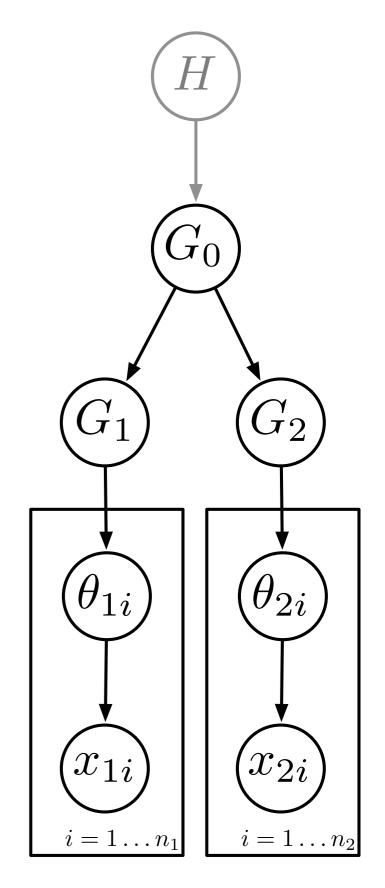




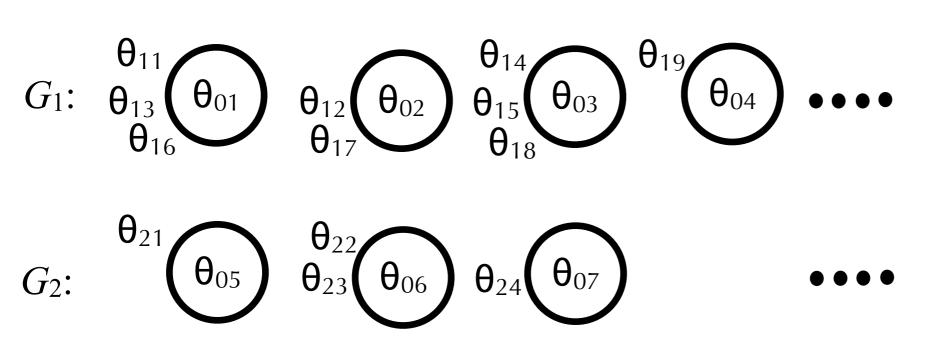


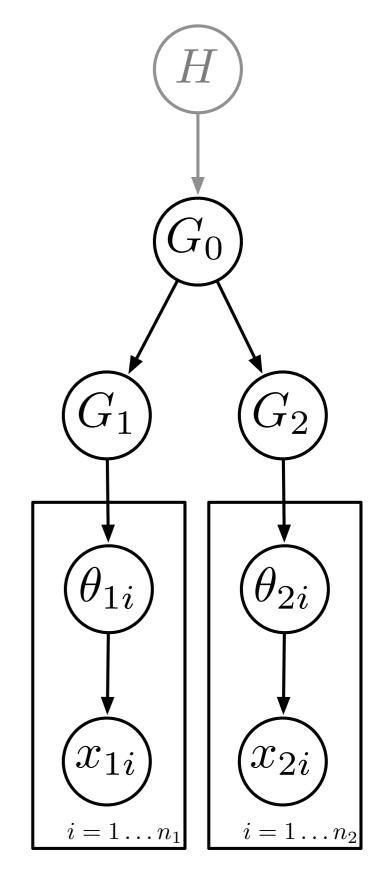








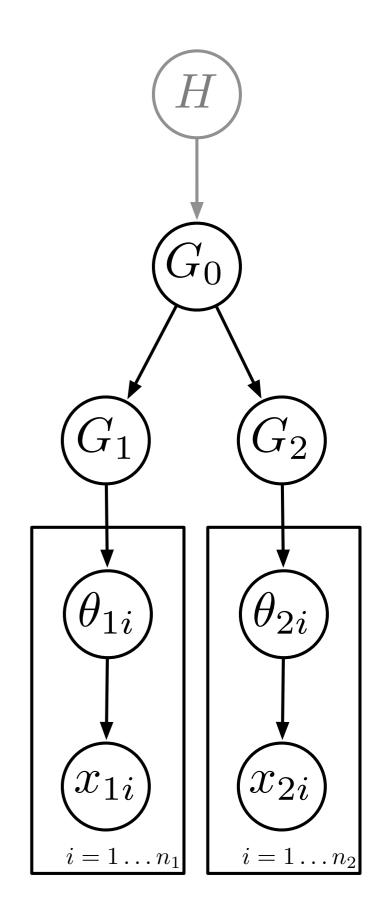






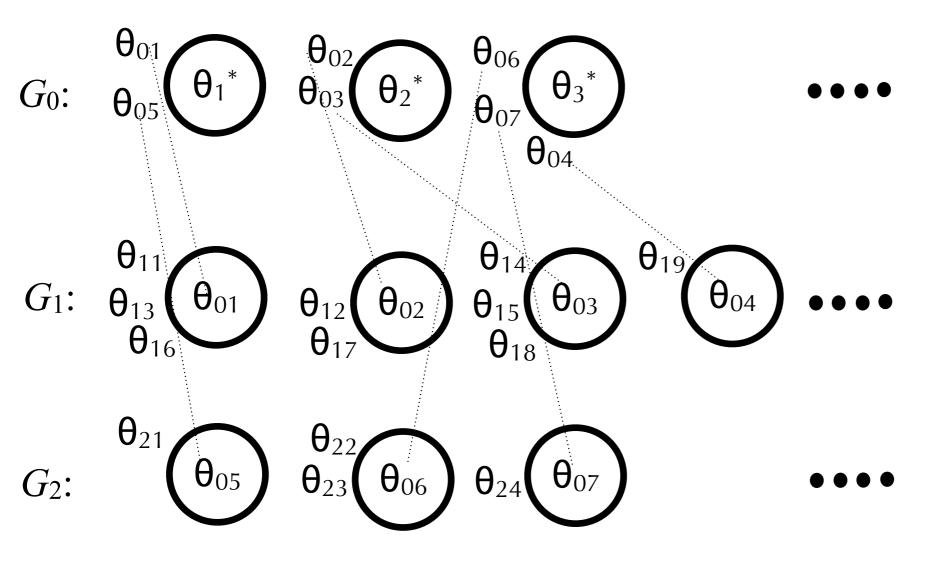
• G_0 can also be represented using a CRP.

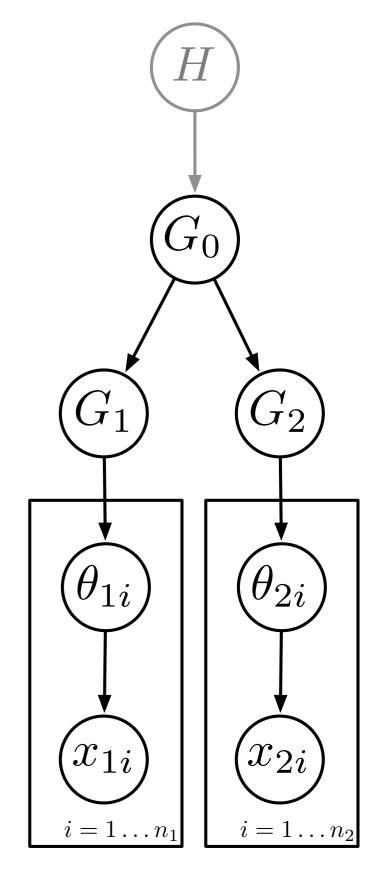
$$G_1$$
: θ_{13} θ_{01} θ_{12} θ_{02} θ_{15} θ_{03} θ_{04} θ_{04} θ_{05} θ_{23} θ_{06} θ_{24} θ_{07}





• G_0 can also be represented using a CRP.

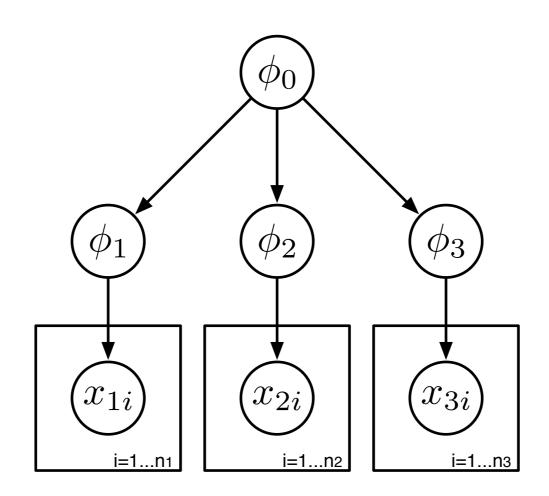






Hierarchical Bayesian Modelling

- An important overarching theme in modern statistics.
- In machine learning, have been used for multitask learning, transfer learning, learning-to-learn and domain adaptation.





Hierarchical Bayesian Nonparametrics

- Bayesian nonparametric models are increasingly used as building blocks by modellers to build complex probabilistic models.
- Hierarchical modelling are a natural technique for combining building blocks.
- Applications span computational linguistics, time series and sequential models, vision, genetics etc.
- Dependent random measures:
 - techniques for introducing dependencies among random measures indexed by spatial or temporal covariates.
- Nested processes:
 - technique for modelling heterogeneity in data.

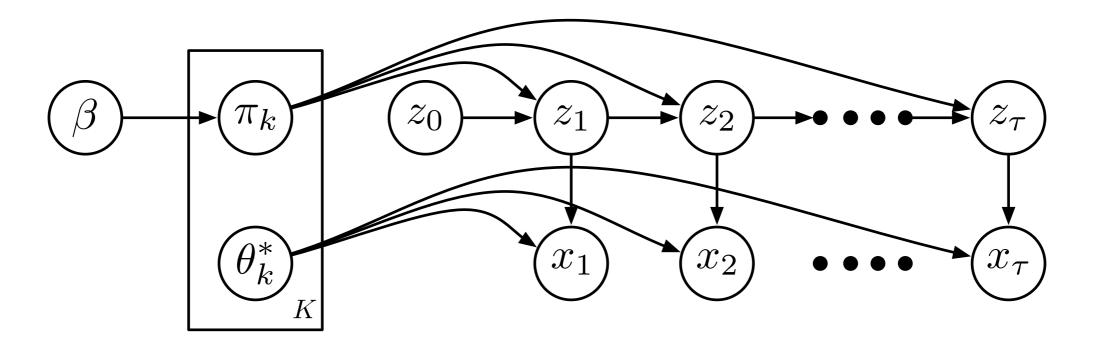


Infinite Hidden Markov Model



Hidden Markov Models

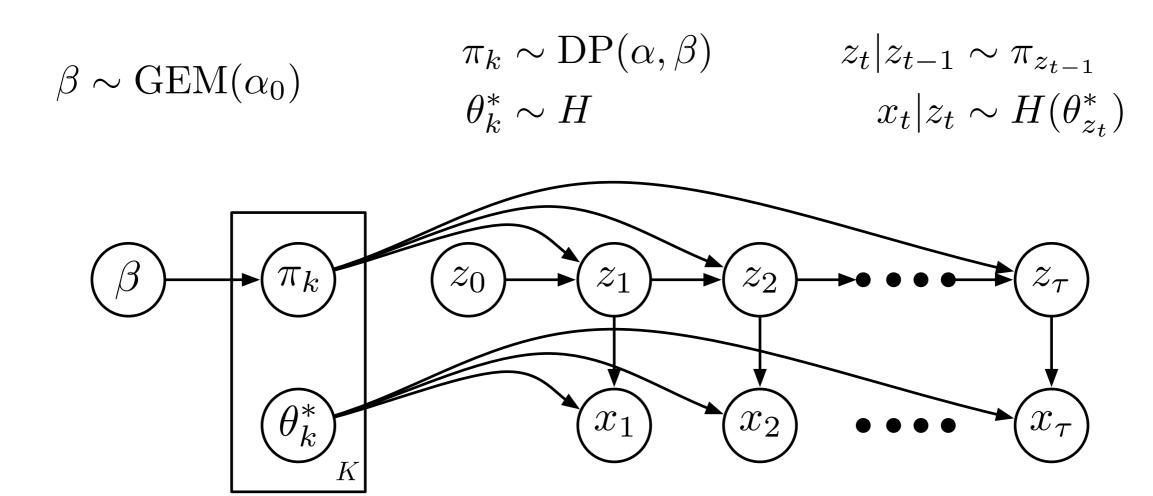
$$\pi_k \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K)$$
 $z_t | z_{t-1} \sim \pi_{z_{t-1}}$
 $\theta_k^* \sim H$ $x_t | z_t \sim H(\theta_{z_t}^*)$



• Can we take $K \to \infty$?



Infinite Hidden Markov Models



- Cannot simply take $K \to \infty$ for the model above; same failure as LDA.
- Again can use a hierarchical Dirichlet process to define an infinite hidden Markov model.



Word Segmentation

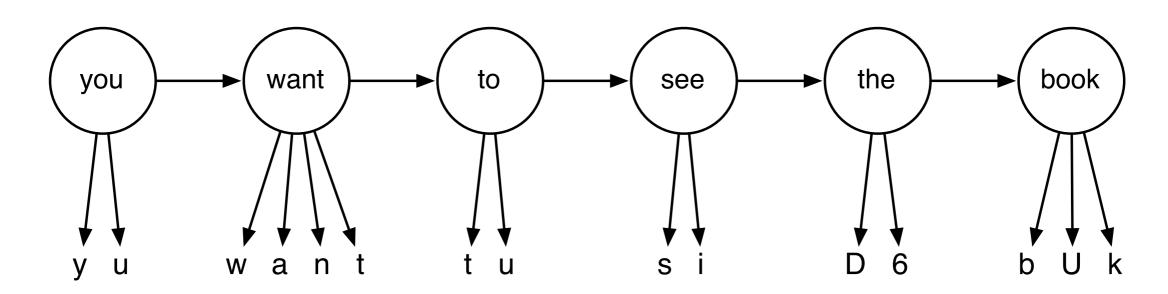
 山花貞夫・新民連会長は十六日の記者会見で、村山富市首相ら社会党執行部とさきがけが連携強化をめざした問題について「私たちの行動が新しい政界の動きを作ったといえる。 統一会派を超えて将来の日本の…

● 今后 一段 时期 , 不但 居民 会 更 多 地 选择 国债 , 而且 一些 金融 机构 在 准备金 利率 调 低 后 , 出于 安全性 方面 的 考虑 , 也 会 将 部分 资 金 用来 购买 国债 。

• yuwanttusiD6bUk?



iHMM Word Segmentation



yuwanttusiD6bUk

- Number of word types is unknown (and part of the output of learning).
- We can use the infinite HMM coupled with a model to generate strings of characters for each word.



iHMM Word Segmentation

	P	R	F	BP	BR	BF	LP	LR	LF
NGS-u	67.7	70.2	68.9	80.6	84.8	82.6	52.9	51.3	52.0
MBDP-1	67.0	69.4	68.2	80.3	84.3	82.3	53.6	51.3	52.4
DP	61.9	47.6	53.8	92.4	62.2	74.3	57.0	57.5	57.2
NGS-b	68.1	68.6	68.3	81.7	82.5	82.1	54.5	57.0	55.7
HDP	79.4	74.0	76.6	92.4	83.5	87.7	67.9	58.9	63.1

Model	MSR	CITYU	Kyoto
		82.4 (126.5)	
NPY(3)	80.7 (48.8)	81.7 (128.3)	66.6 (20.6)
ZK08	66.7 (—)	69.2 (—)	



Pitman-Yor Process

Chinese Restaurant Process

Each customer comes into restaurant and sits at a table:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at table } c) = \frac{n_c}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at new table}) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c}$$

- Customers correspond to elements of set *S*, and tables to clusters in the partition *Q* of *S*.
- Multiplying conditional probabilities together, we get the overall probability of ϱ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\varrho|\alpha) = \frac{\alpha^{|\varrho|}\Gamma(\alpha)}{\Gamma(n+\alpha)} \prod_{c \in \varrho} \Gamma(|c|)$$

Two-parameter Chinese Restaurant Process

• The **two-parameter Chinese restaurant process** CRP([n],d, α) is a distribution over $\mathcal{P}_{[n]}$: ($0 \le d < 1$, $\alpha > -d$), described by the following process:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at table } c) = \frac{n_c - d}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c} \qquad \mathbb{P}(\text{sit at new table}) = \frac{\alpha + d|\rho|}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \rho} n_c}$$

- Difference: **discount parameter** *d*.
 - Expect to get more tables, and more tables with few customers.

Pitman-Yor Process

• The EPPF under $CRP([n],d,\alpha)$ is:

$$P(\varrho) = \frac{\left[\alpha + d\right]_d^{|\varrho| - 1}}{\left[\alpha + 1\right]_1^{n - 1}} \prod_{c \in \varrho} [1 - d]_1^{|c| - 1} \qquad [z]_b^m = z(z + b) \cdots (z + (m - 1)b)$$

- The two-parameter CRP is exchangeable.
- The de Finetti measure is the Pitman-Yor process, which is a generalization of the Dirichlet process.



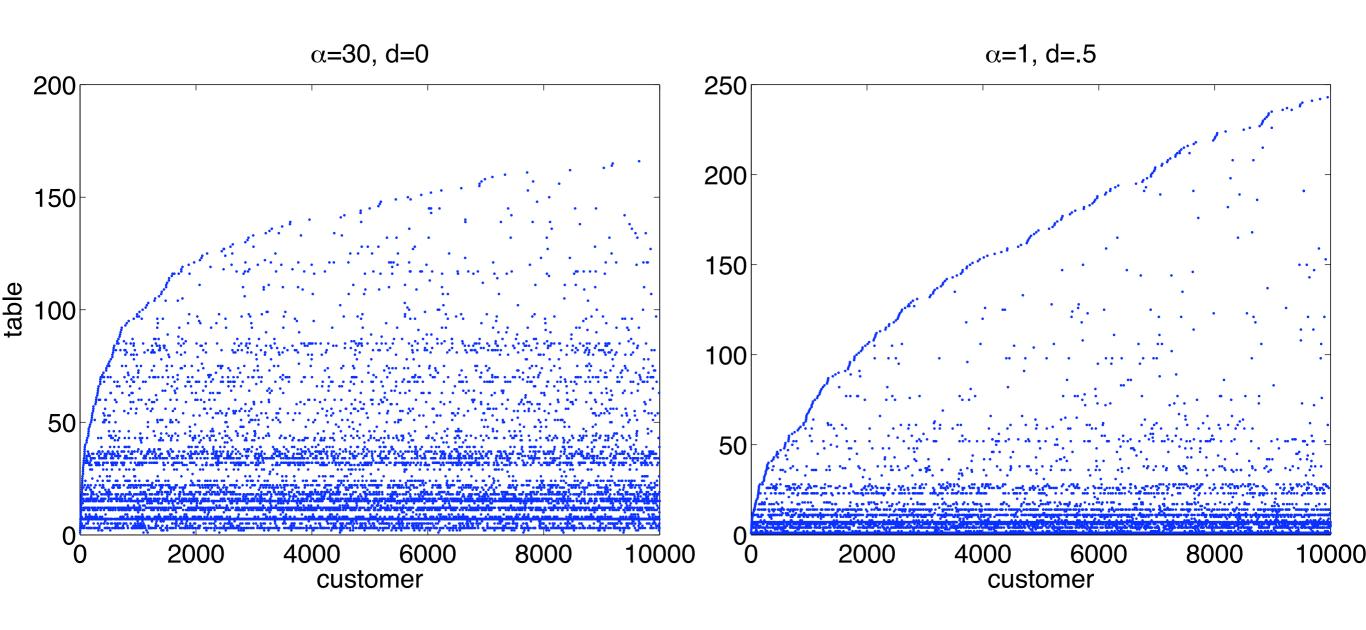
Power-Law Properties

- Power-laws are commonly observed in nature and in human generated data.
- Pitman-Yor processes exhibit power-law properties and can be used to model data with such properties.

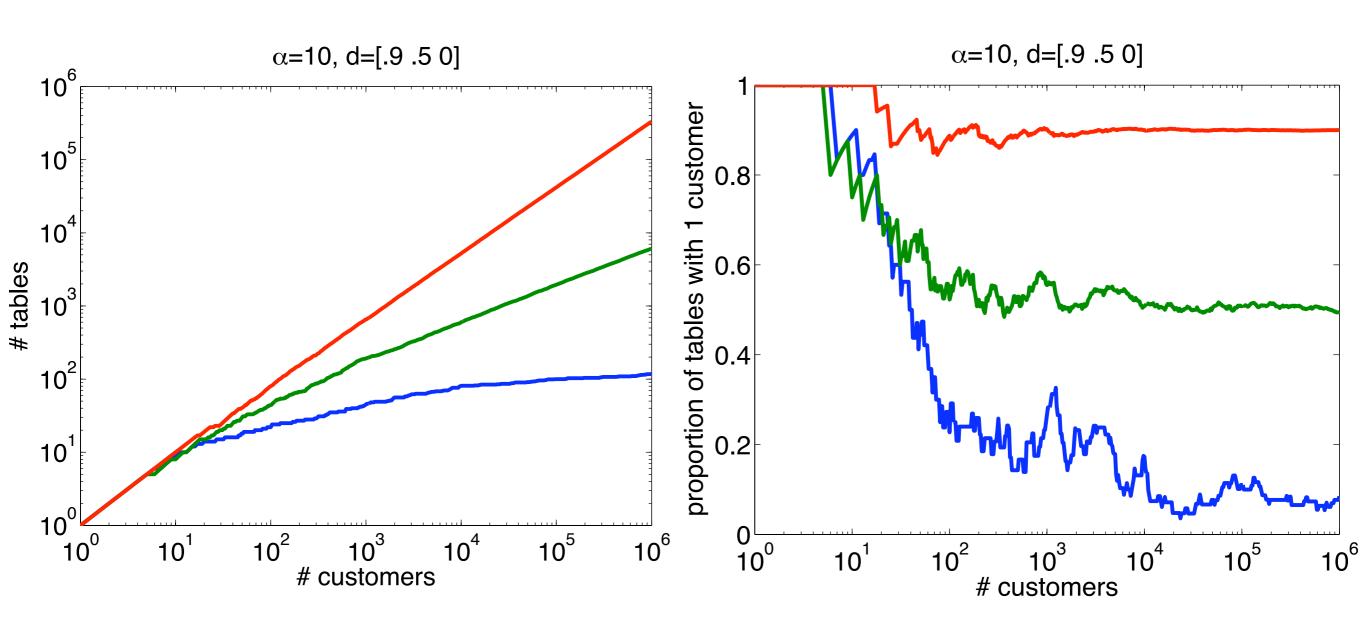
$$\mathbb{P}(\text{sit at table } c) = \frac{n_c - d}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \varrho} n_c} \qquad \mathbb{P}(\text{sit at new table}) = \frac{\alpha + d|\varrho|}{\alpha + \sum_{c \in \varrho} n_c}$$

- With more occupied tables, chance of even more tables becomes higher.
- Tables with small occupancy numbers tend to have lower chance of getting new customers.

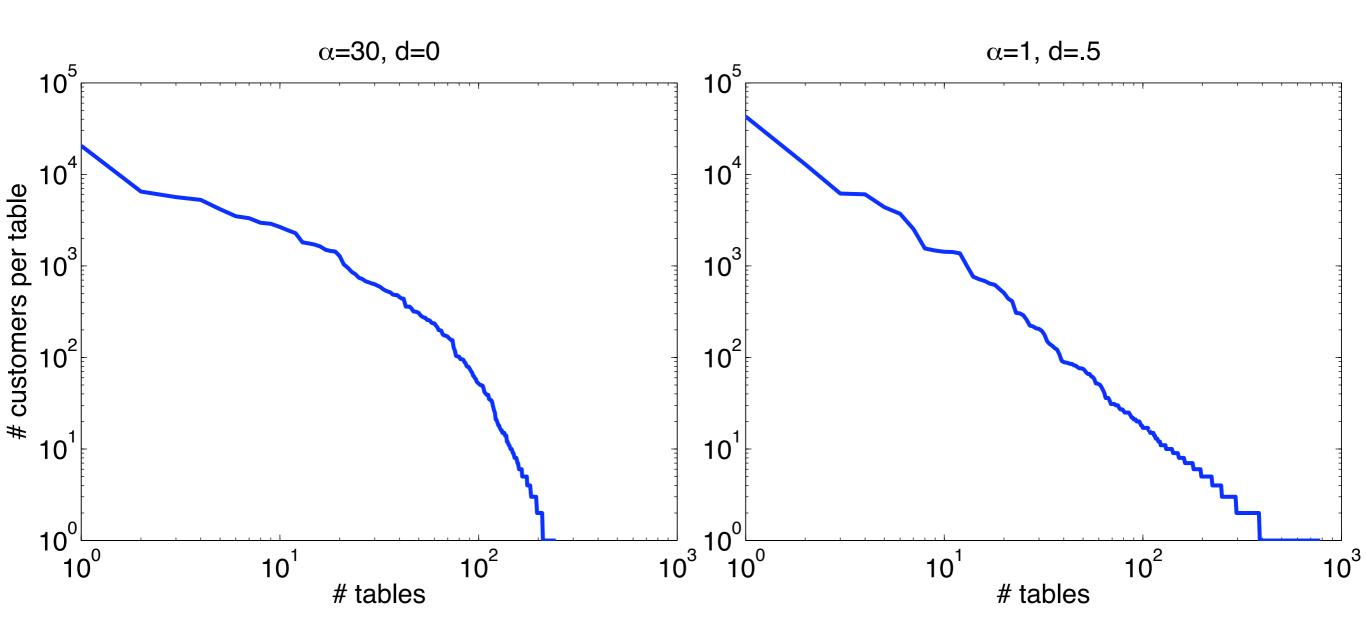






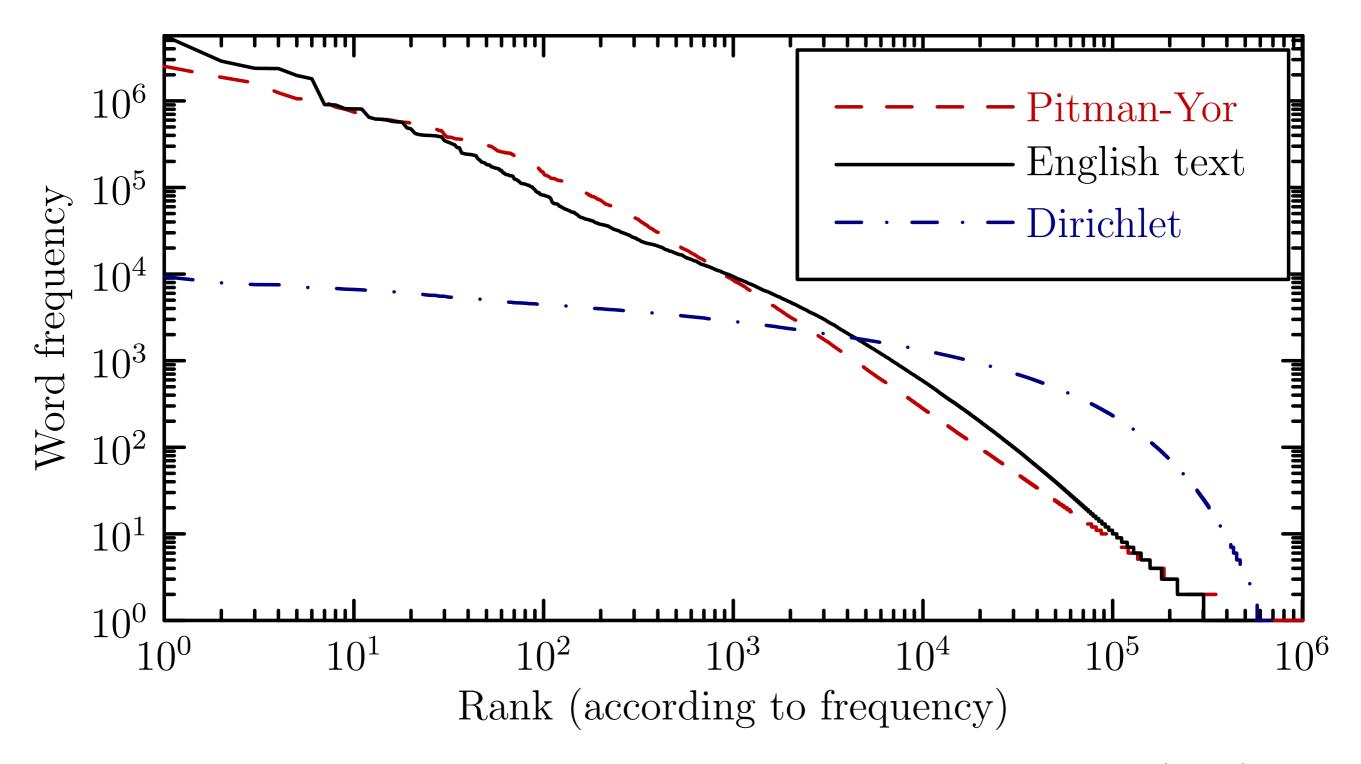






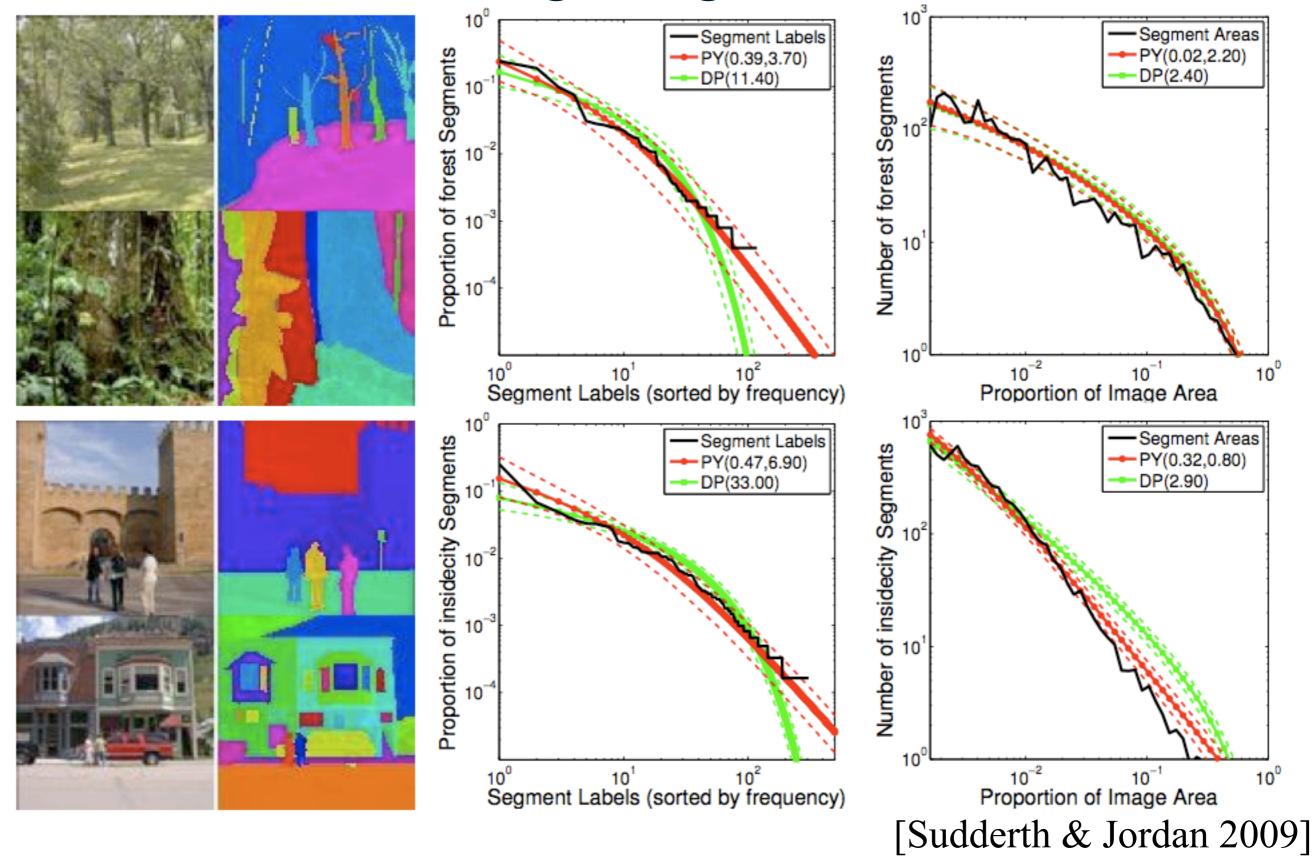


Power-Laws in English Word Frequencies





Power-Laws in Image Segmentations





Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Language Model



n-gram Language Models

Sequence Models for Language and Text

Probabilistic models for sequences of words and characters, e.g.
 south, parks, road

• *n*-gram language models are high order Markov models of such discrete sequence:

$$P(\text{sentence}) = \prod_{i} P(\text{word}_{i} | \text{word}_{i-N+1} \dots \text{word}_{i-1})$$

n-gram Language Models

High order Markov models:

$$P(\text{sentence}) = \prod_{i} P(\text{word}_{i} | \text{word}_{i-N+1} \dots \text{word}_{i-1})$$

• Large vocabulary size means naïvely estimating parameters of this model from data counts is problematic for N>2.

$$P^{\mathrm{ML}}(\mathrm{word}_{i}|\mathrm{word}_{i-N+1}...\mathrm{word}_{i-1}) = \frac{C(\mathrm{word}_{i-N+1}...\mathrm{word}_{i})}{C(\mathrm{word}_{i-N+1}...\mathrm{word}_{i-1})}$$

- Naïve priors/regularization fail as well: most parameters have *no* associated data.
 - Smoothing.
 - Hierarchical Bayesian models.

Smoothing in Language Models

• **Smoothing** is a way of dealing with data sparsity by combining large and small models together.

$$P^{\text{smooth}}(\text{word}_i|\text{word}_{i-N+1}^{i-1}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \lambda(n) Q_n(\text{word}_i|\text{word}_{i-n+1}^{i-1})$$

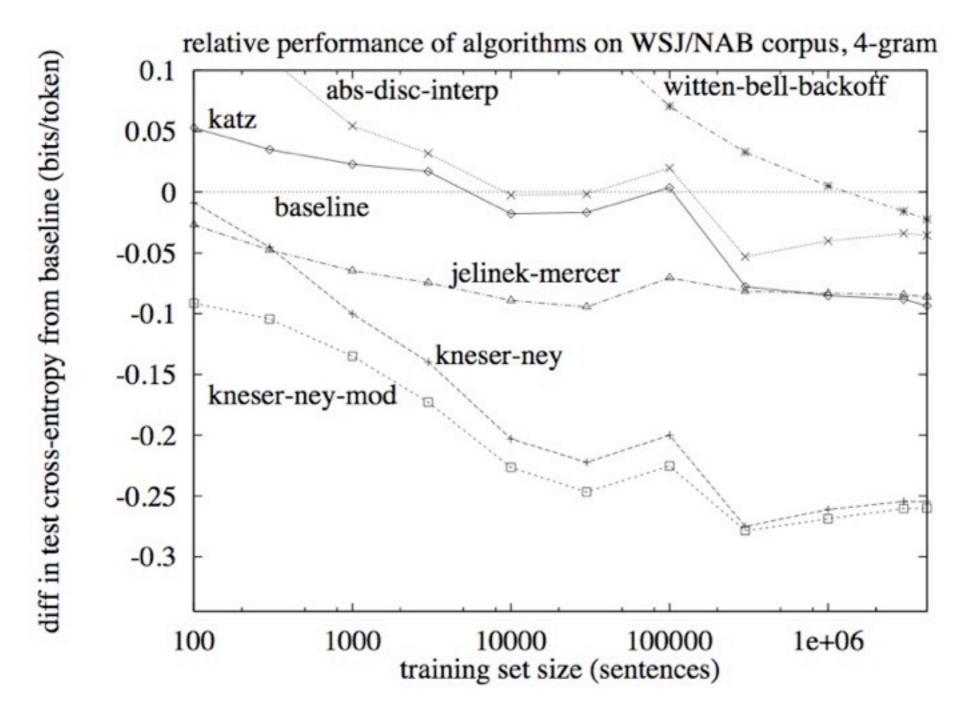
 Combines expressive power of large models with better estimation of small models (cf bias-variance trade-off).

$$P^{\mathrm{smooth}}(\mathrm{road}|\mathrm{south\ parks})$$

$$= \lambda(3)Q_{3}(\mathrm{road}|\mathrm{south\ parks}) + \lambda(2)Q_{2}(\mathrm{road}|\mathrm{parks}) + \lambda(1)Q_{1}(\mathrm{road}|\emptyset)$$



Smoothing in Language Models



Interpolated and modified Kneser-Ney are best.



Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Language Models



Context Tree

• Context of conditional probabilities naturally organized using a tree. $P^{\text{smooth}}(\text{road}|\text{south parks})$

 $= \lambda(3)Q_3(\text{road}|\text{south parks}) +$ • Smoothing makes conditional probabilities of neighbouring contexts more similar. $\lambda(2)Q_2(\text{road}|\text{parks}) +$ $\lambda(1)Q_1(\text{road}|\emptyset)$

• Later words in context more important in predicting next word.

south parks

along south parks

at south parks

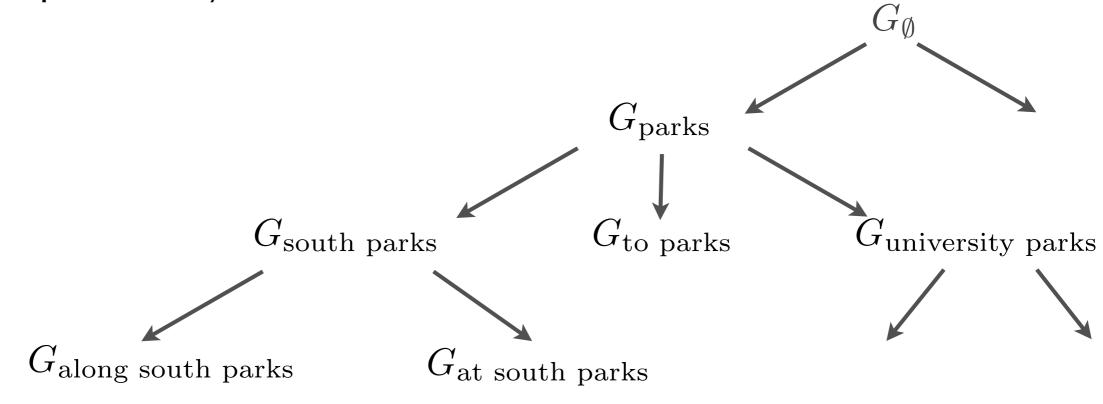


Hierarchical Bayes on Context Tree

Parametrize the conditional probabilities of Markov model:

$$P(\text{word}_i = w | \text{word}_{i-N+1}^{i-1} = u) = G_u(w)$$
$$G_u = [G_u(w)]_{w \in \text{vocabulary}}$$

• G_u is a probability vector associated with context u.





Hierarchical Dirichlet Language Models

• What is $\mathbb{P}(G_u|G_{pa(u)})$? Obvious choice is the standard Dirichlet distribution over probability vectors.

${ m T}$	N-1	IKN	MKN	HDLM
2×10	6 2	148.8	144.1	191.2
4×10	6 2	137.1	132.7	172.7
6×10	6 2	130.6	126.7	162.3
8×10	6 2	125.9	122.3	154.7
10×10	6 2	122.0	118.6	148.7
12×10	6 2	119.0	115.8	144.0
14×10	6 2	116.7	113.6	140.5
14×10	6 1	169.9	169.2	180.6
14×10	$6 \qquad 3$	106.1	102.4	136.6

We will use Pitman-Yor processes instead.

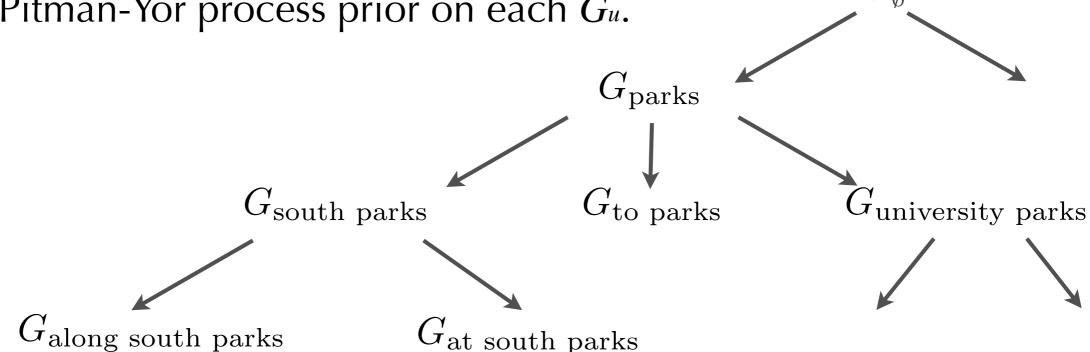


Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Language Models

Parametrize the conditional probabilities of Markov model:

$$P(\text{word}_i = w | \text{word}_{i-N+1}^{i-1} = u) = G_u(w)$$
$$G_u = [G_u(w)]_{w \in \text{vocabulary}}$$

- G_u is a probability vector associated with context u.
- Place Pitman-Yor process prior on each G_u .





Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Language Models

• Significantly improved on the hierarchical Dirichlet language model.

Results better Kneser-Ney smoothing, state-of-the-art language

models.

${ m T}$	N-1	IKN	MKN	HDLM	HPYLM
2×10^{6}	2	148.8	144.1	191.2	144.3
4×10^{6}	2	137.1	132.7	172.7	132.7
6×10^{6}	2	130.6	126.7	162.3	126.4
8×10^{6}	2	125.9	122.3	154.7	121.9
10×10^{6}	2	122.0	118.6	148.7	118.2
12×10^6	2	119.0	115.8	144.0	115.4
14×10^6	2	116.7	113.6	140.5	113.2
14×10^{6}	1	169.9	169.2	180.6	169.3
14×10^6	3	106.1	102.4	136.6	101.9

• Similarity of perplexities not a surprise---Kneser-Ney can be derived as a particular approximate inference method.



Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Language Models

- Application of hierarchical Pitman-Yor processes to n-gram language models:
 - Hierarchical Bayesian modelling allows for sharing of statistical strength and improved parameter estimation.
 - Pitman-Yor processes has power law properties more suitable in modelling linguistic data.
- State-of-the-art language models, theoretical justification for another state-of-the-art model called interpolated Kneser-Ney.
- Can be combined with infinite HMM ideas, e.g. [Blunsom and Cohn 2011].

Discovery Probabilities in Species Sampling

- Observe a sequence objects:
 - sequence of words in a document corpus.
 - sequence of organisms collected from an environment.
- What is the probability of a new observation being of a new species?
 - Good-Turing estimator:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{new species}) \approx \frac{N_1}{N}$$

• Bayesian nonparametrics: probability of sitting at new table.

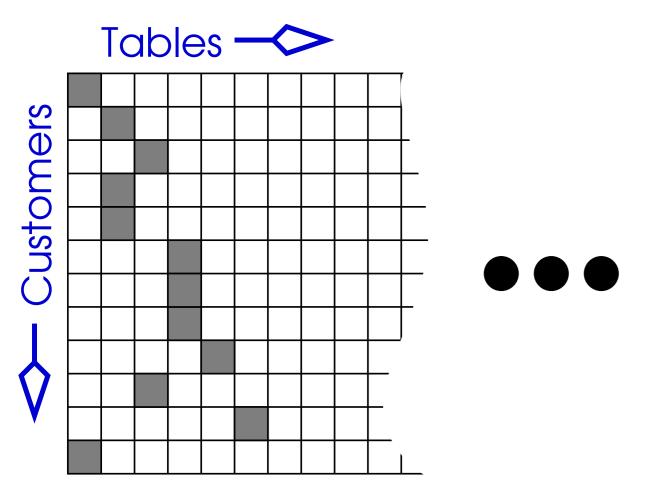


Feature Allocations and Indian Buffet Processes



Clustered Representation

Clustering uses a one-of-K representation of data.

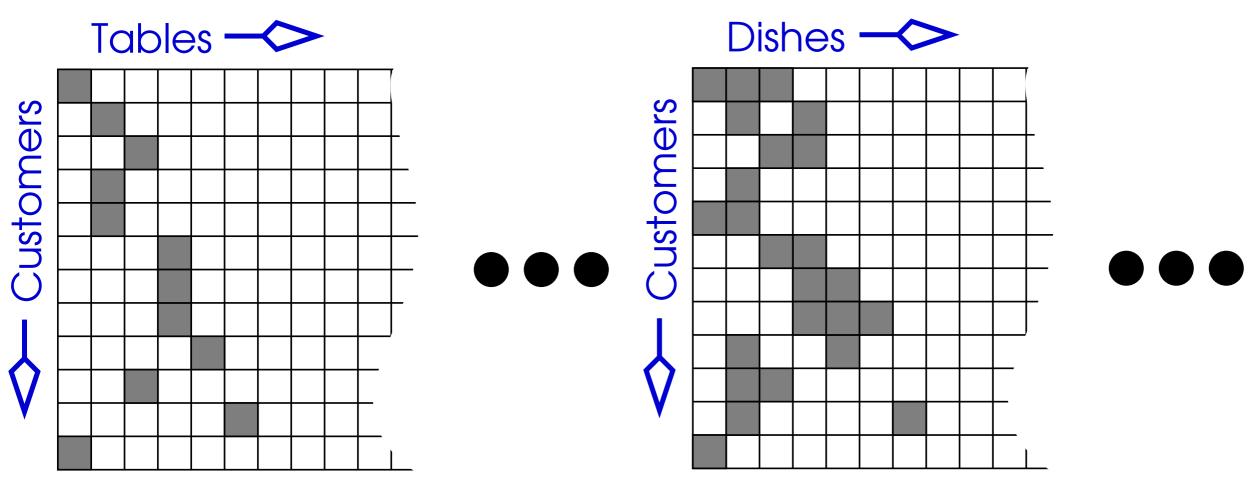


• Simple, limited representation of data.



Distributed Representation

Allow each data item to have multiple features.



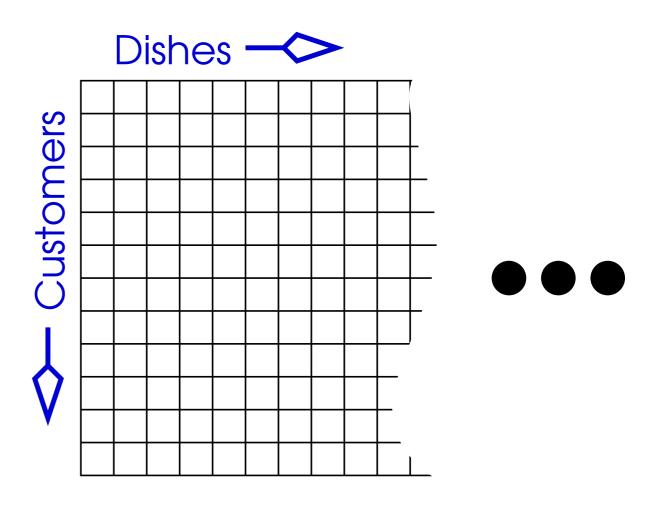
- Example: multi-genre movies, multiple interests or expertises.
- Bayesian nonparametric: allow finite number of features per item, but unbounded over items.



Indian Buffet Process

"Many Indian restaurants in London offer lunchtime buffets with an apparently infinite number of dishes"





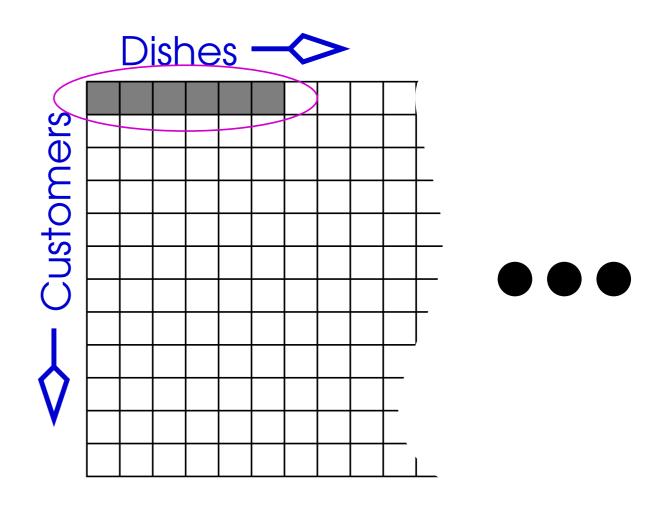
- First customer picks $Poisson(\alpha)$ number of dishes.
- Subsequently, customer n picks dish k with probability n_k/n , and picks Poisson(α/n) new dishes.



Indian Buffet Process

"Many Indian restaurants in London offer lunchtime buffets with an apparently infinite number of dishes"





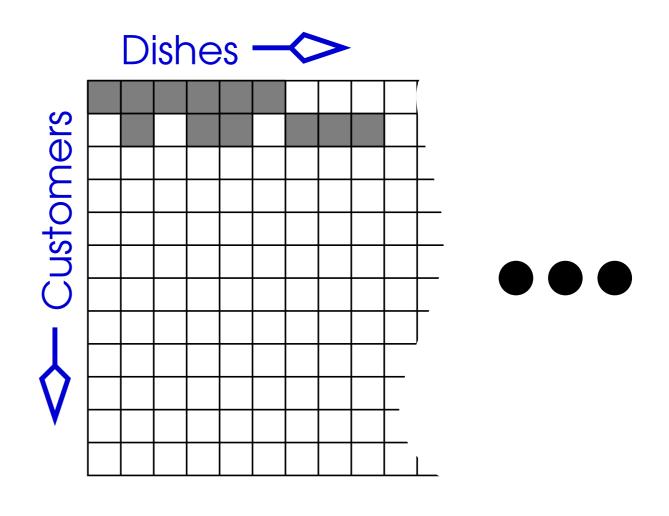
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Indian Buffet Process

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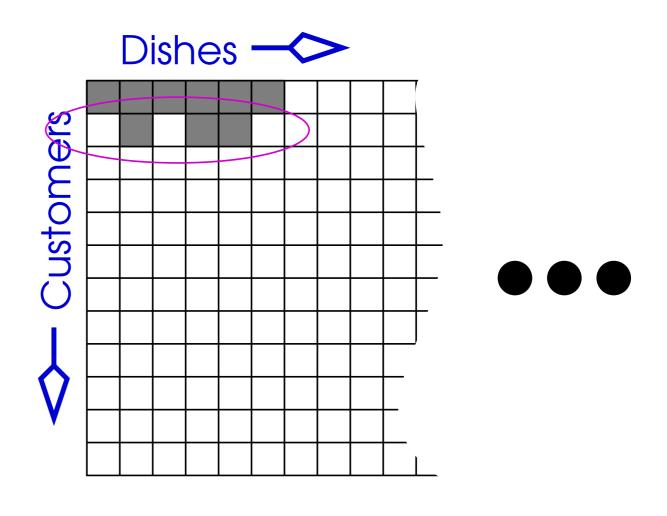




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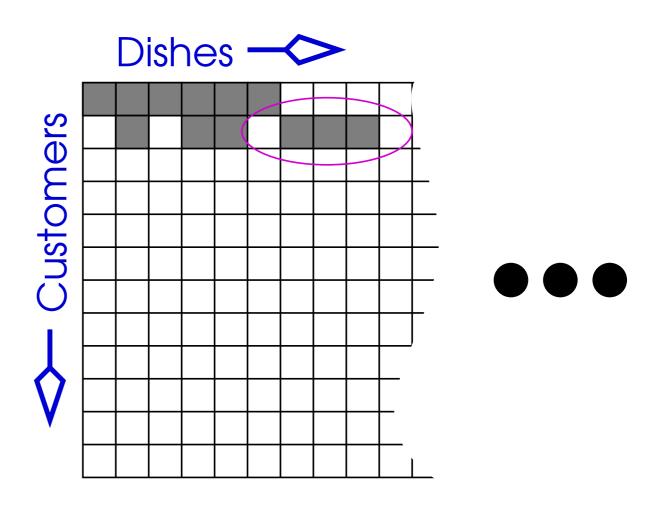




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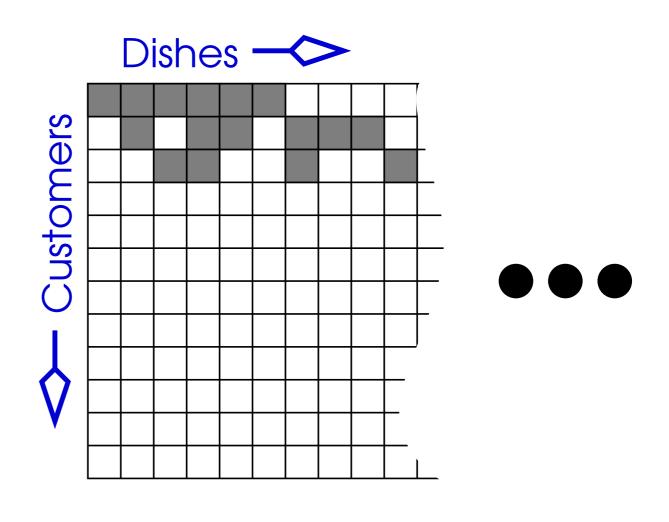




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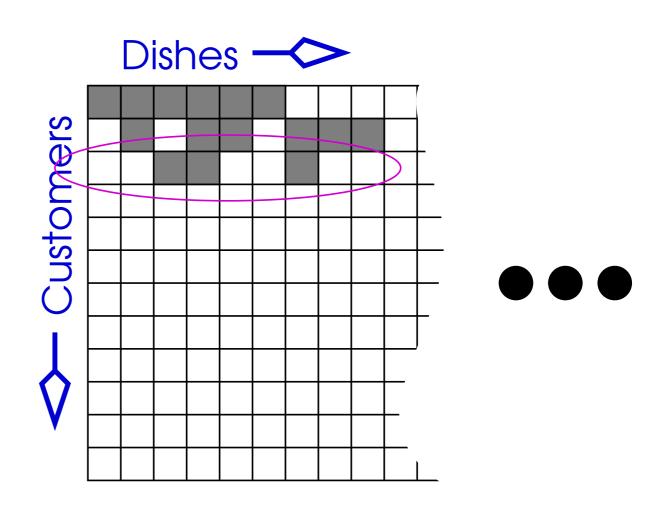




- First customer picks $Poisson(\alpha)$ number of dishes.
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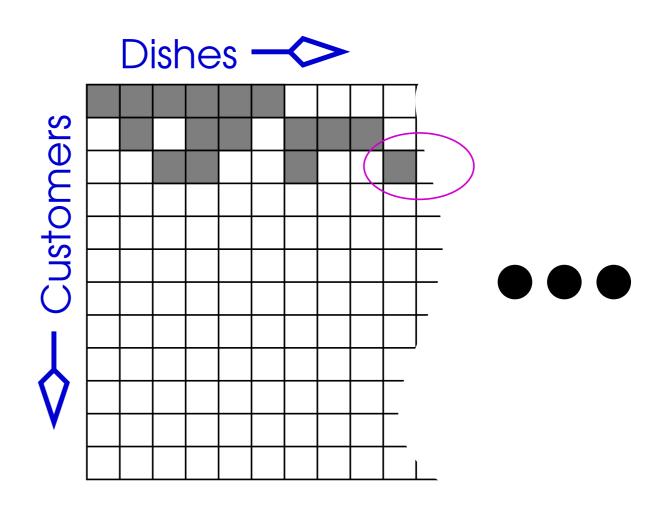




- First customer picks $Poisson(\alpha)$ number of dishes.
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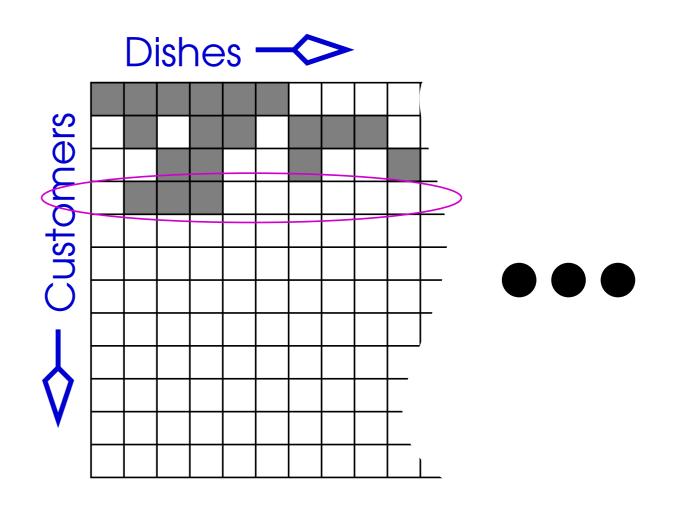




- First customer picks $Poisson(\alpha)$ number of dishes.
- Subsequently, customer n picks dish k with probability n_k/n , and picks Poisson(α/n) new dishes.







- First customer picks $Poisson(\alpha)$ number of dishes.
- Subsequently, customer n picks dish k with probability n_k/n , and picks Poisson(α/n) new dishes.



Modelling Applications

- Each data item X_i is modelled by a set of features θ_i .
 - Community discovery: individuals belong to multiple communities.
 - Protein complex: proteins participate in multiple complexes.
 - Collaborative filtering: movies modelled by set of genres/actors, users modelled by set of interests.
 - ICA: signal vectors are linear combinations of multiple sources.

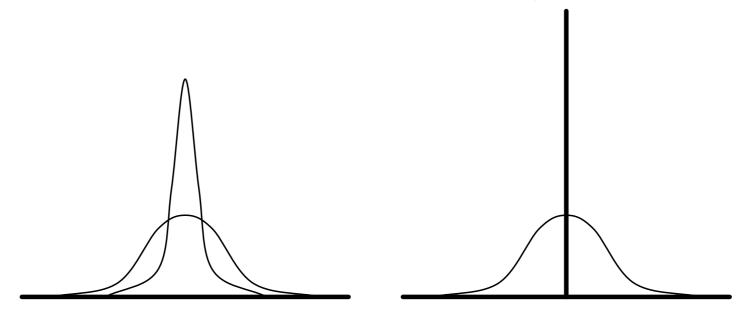


Infinite Independent Components Analysis

• Independent components analysis:

$$X_i = \sum_{s=1}^{S} w_{is} Y_s$$

- where w_{is} given non-Gaussian (heavy-tailed prior).
- One simple heavy-tailed prior is a mixture of zero-mean Gaussians.
- An extreme case: one of the Gaussians is degenerate with zero-variance.



• Allow infinite number of sources, but each signal is a linear combination only of a finite number of them.



IBP as an Exchangeable Feature Model

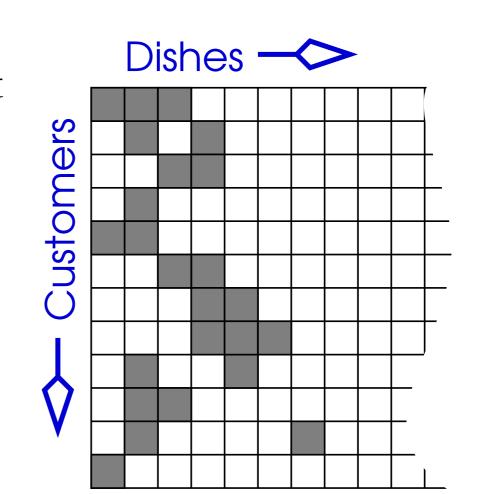
- The IBP is also exchangeable:
 - distribution of dishes picked does not depend on customer order.
- Construct an exchangeable sequence of set-valued variables as follows:
 - For each dish *k*, define:

$$\theta_k^* \sim H$$

• For each customer *i*, define:

$$\theta_i = \{\theta_k^* : \text{customer } i \text{ picked dish } k\}$$

- Exchangeable feature model, with an exchangeable feature probability function (EFPF).
- de Finetti measure is a beta process.



$$\theta_1 = \{\theta_1^*, \theta_2^*, \theta_3^*\}$$

$$\theta_2 = \{\theta_2^*, \theta_4^*\}$$

$$\theta_3 = \{\theta_3^*, \theta_4^*\}$$

•

Other Exchangeable Feature Models

- Three-parameter IBP:
 - Parameters: $\alpha > 0$, $c > -\sigma$, $0 \le \sigma < 1$.
 - Customer 1 tries $Poisson(\alpha)$ dishes;
 - Customer n+1:
 - tries dish k with probability $(m_k-\sigma)/(n+c)$;
 - tries Poisson($\alpha\Gamma(1+c)\Gamma(n+c+\sigma)/\Gamma(n+1+c)\Gamma(c+\sigma)$) new dishes.
 - Also has some nice power-law properties.
 - See also very nice extension by Caron [2012].
- Beta-negative-binomial and gamma-Poisson processes:
 - allows for positive integral valued features.

[Kim & Lee 2001, Teh & Gorur 2009, Broderick et al 2012, Caron 2012] [Titsias 2008, Broderick et al 2012, Zhou & Carin 2012]



Part III: Even Further Afield

Fragmentations, Coagulations, Trees
Sequence Memoizer
More Exchangeable Random Partitions
Relational Exchangeability



Coagulations, Fragmentations, and Trees

Overview

Bayesian nonparametric learning of trees and hierarchical partitions.

• Fragmentations and coagulations.

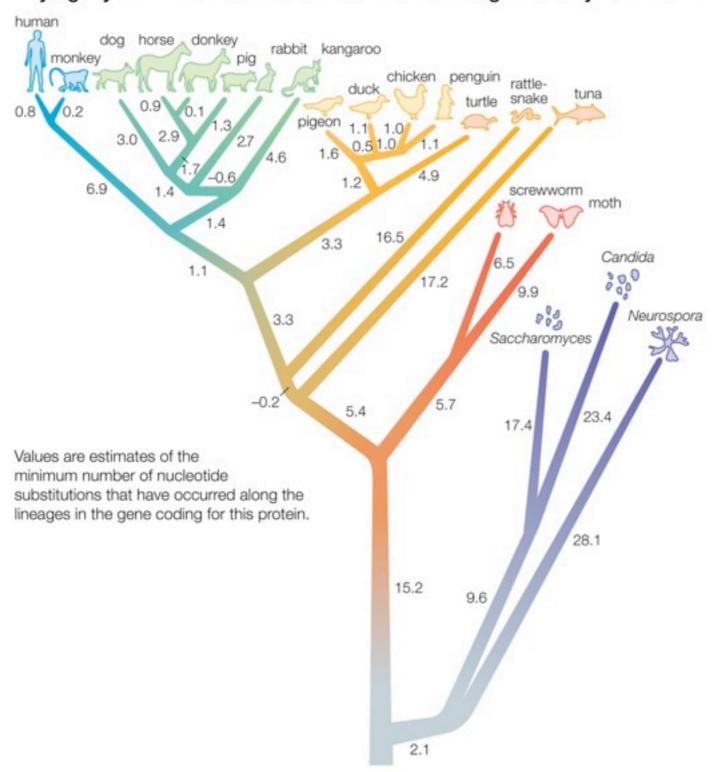
 Unifying view of various Bayesian nonparametric models for random trees.

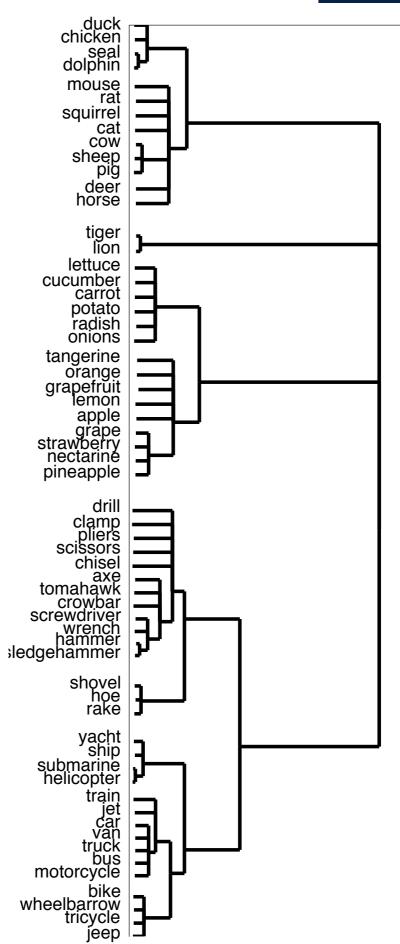


From Random Partitions to Random Trees



Trees







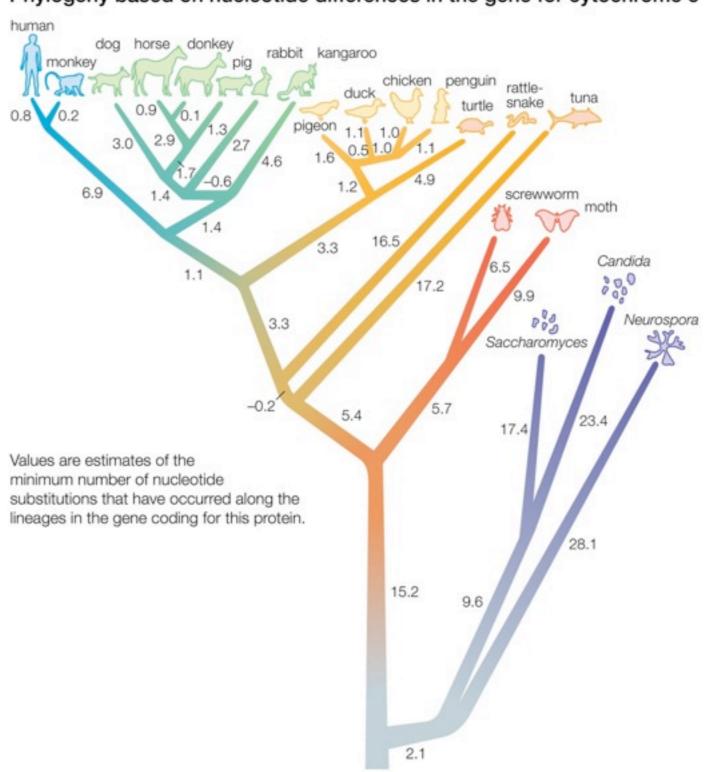
Bayesian Inference for Trees

- Computational and statistical methods for constructing trees:
 - Algorithmic, not model-based.
 - Maximum likelihood
 - Maximum parsimony
- Bayesian inference: introduce prior over trees and compute posterior.

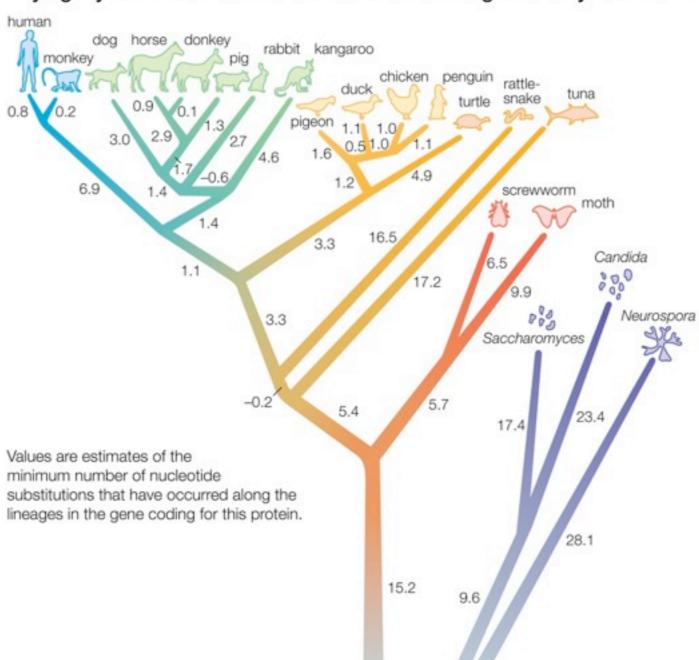
$$P(T|\mathbf{x}) \propto P(T)P(\mathbf{x}|T)$$

- Bayesian nonparametric priors for P(T).
 - Exchangeable models.
- Models for trees has to be nonparametric.

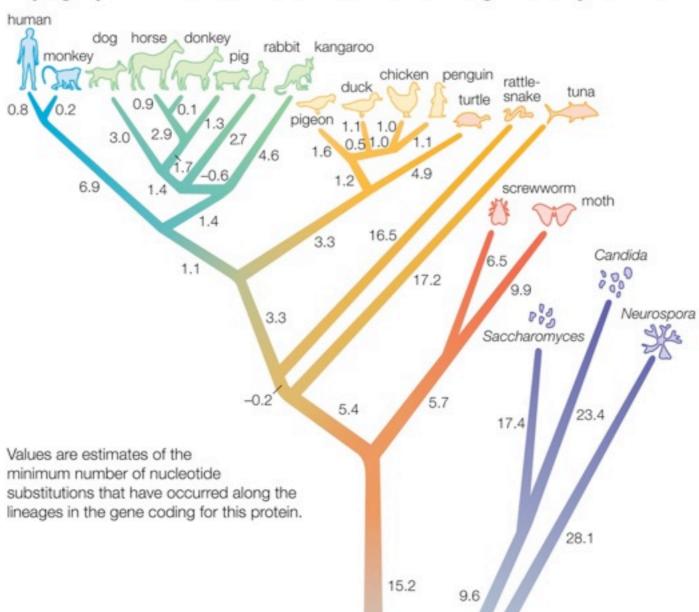






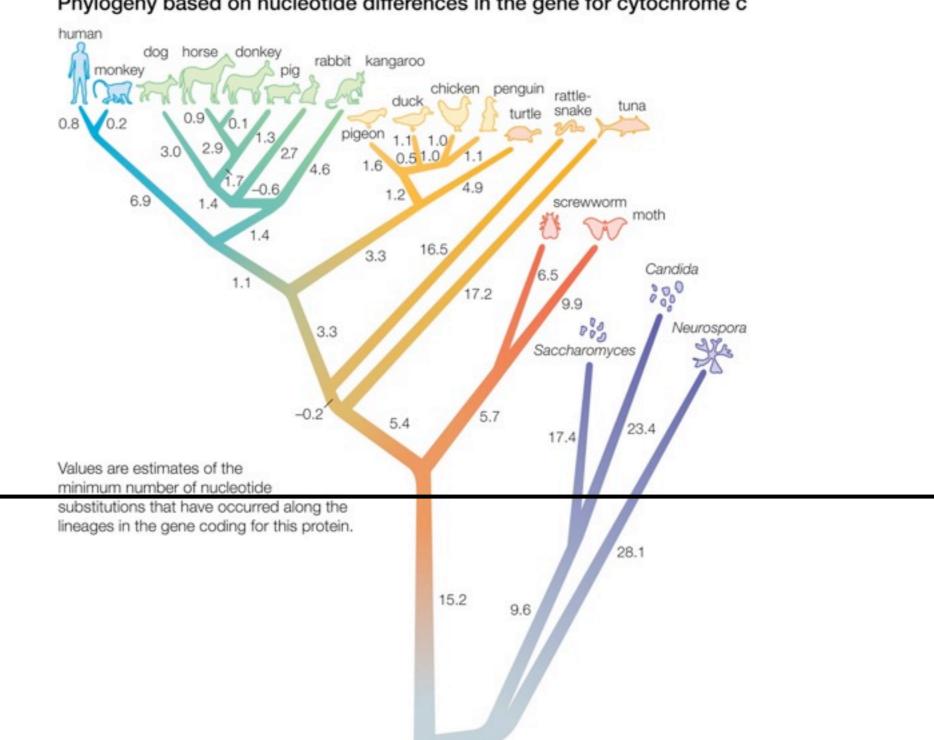








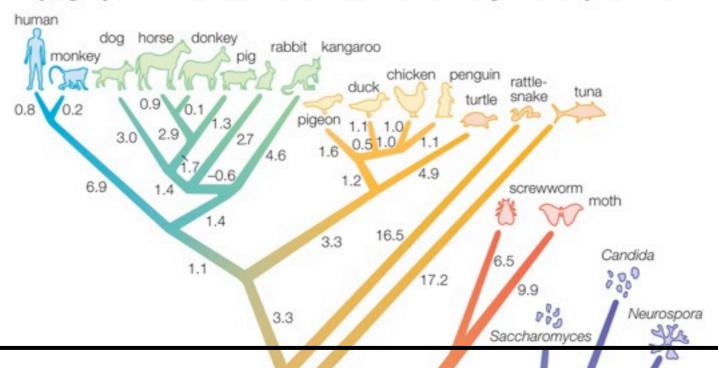
Phylogeny based on nucleotide differences in the gene for cytochrome c



2.1



Phylogeny based on nucleotide differences in the gene for cytochrome c



5.4

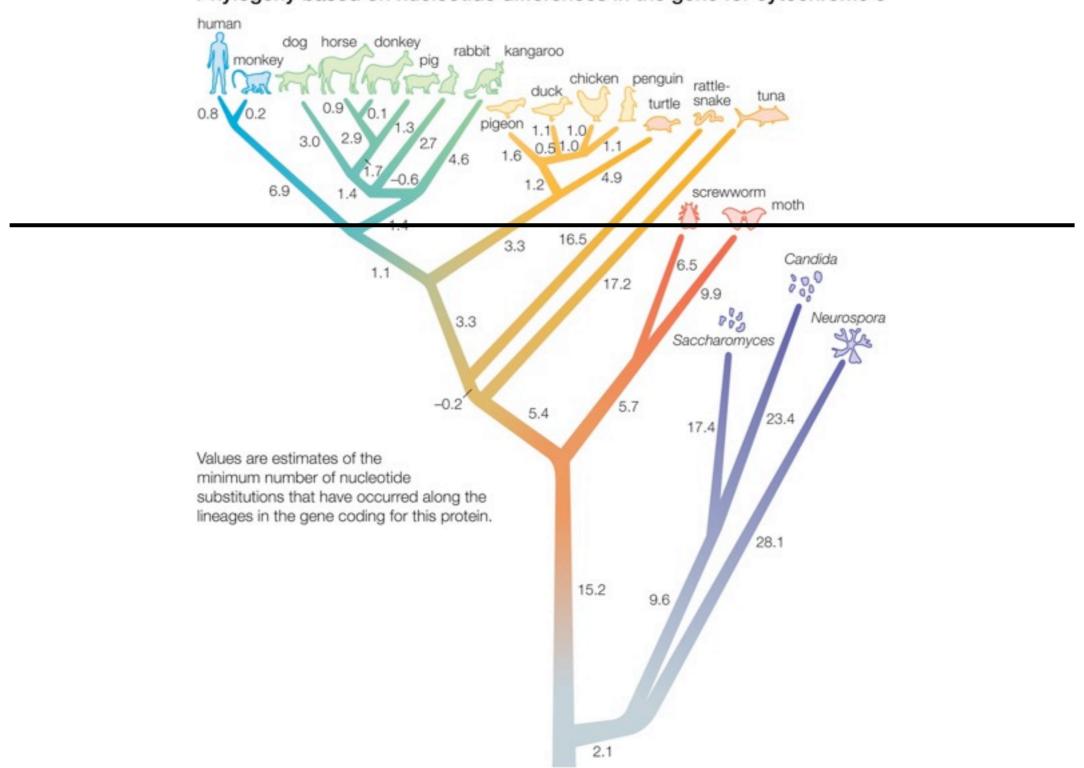
Values are estimates of the minimum number of nucleotide substitutions that have occurred along the lineages in the gene coding for this protein.

-0.2

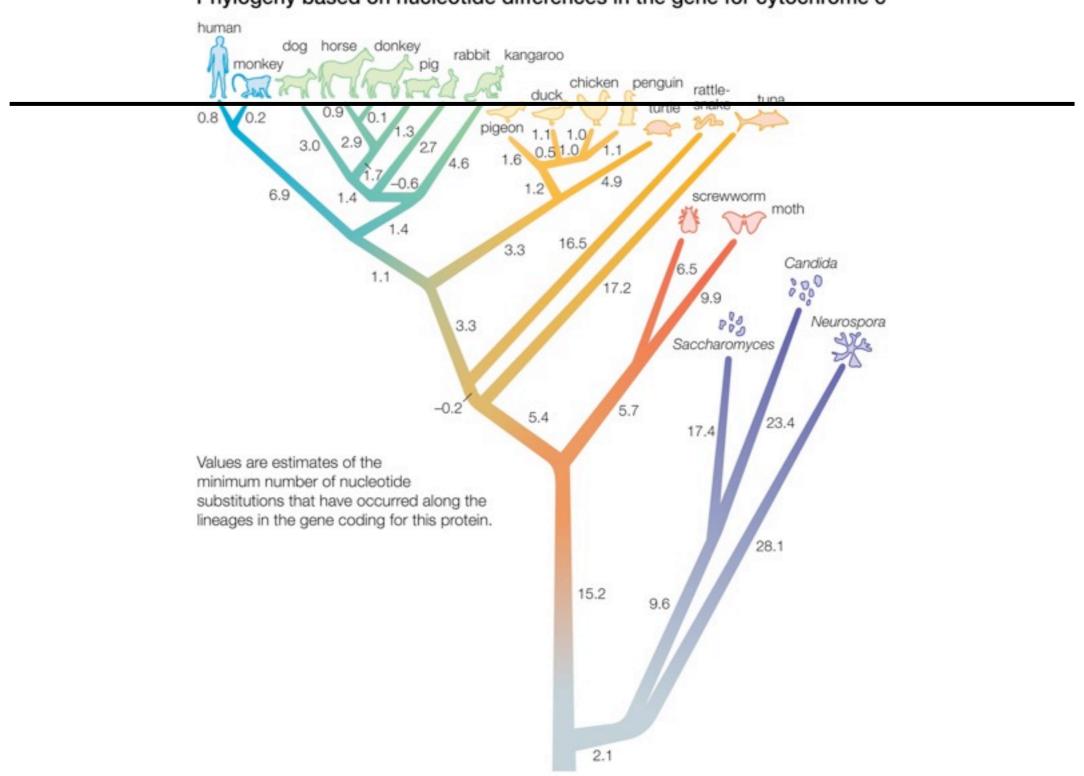
2.1

17.4





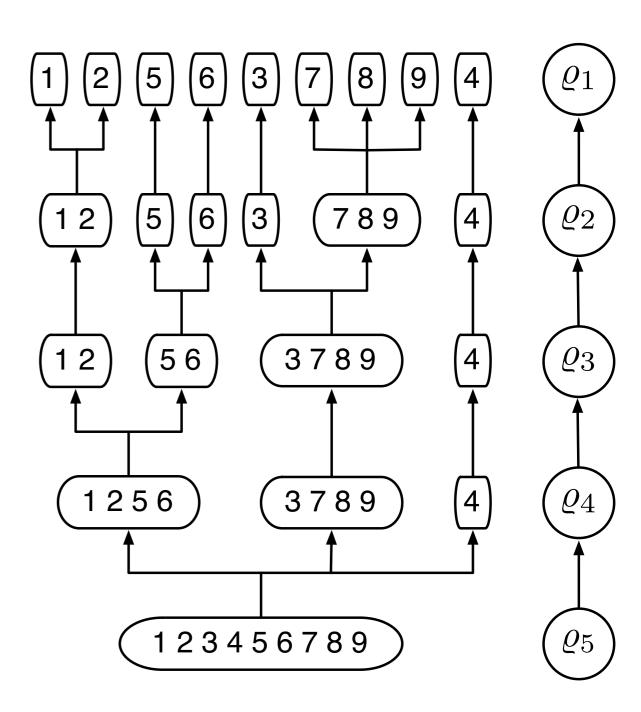






Fragmenting Partitions

- Sequence of finer and finer partitions.
- Each cluster fragments until all clusters contain only 1 data item.
- Can define a distribution over trees using a Markov chain of fragmenting partitions, with absorbing state **0**_S (partition where all data items are in their own clusters).

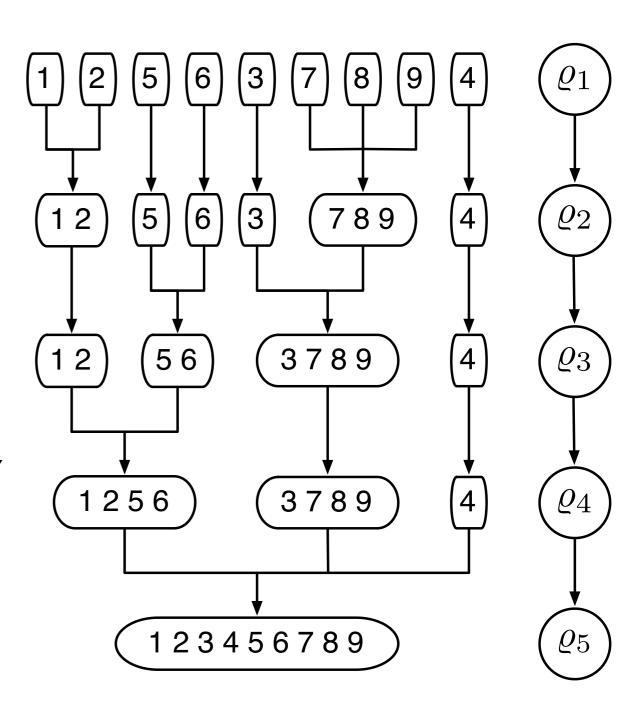




Coagulating Partitions

- Sequence of coarser and coarser partitions.
- Each cluster formed by coagulating smaller clusters until only 1 left.

 Can define a distribution over trees by using a Markov chain of coagulating partitions, with absorbing state 1_S (partition where all data items are in one cluster).

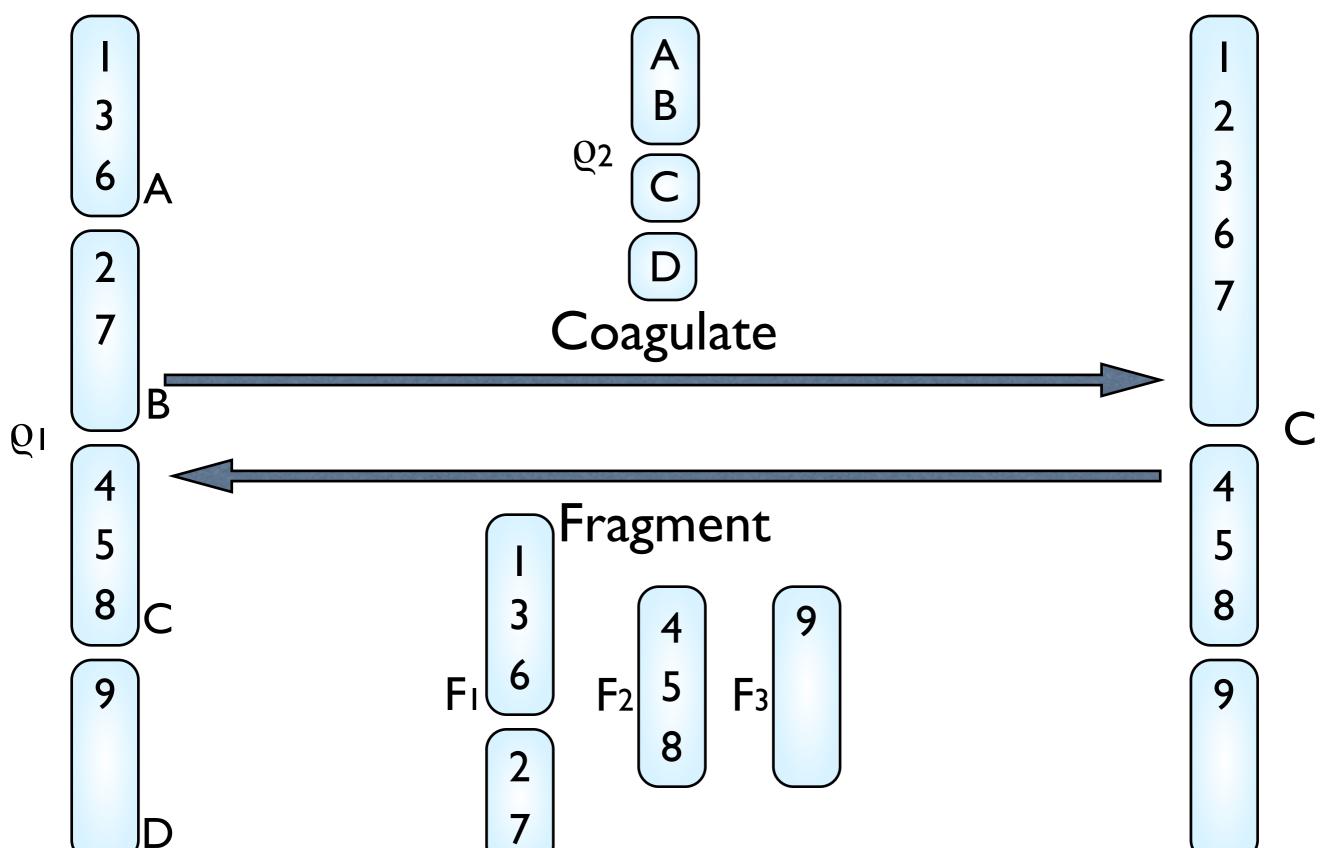




Random Fragmentations and Random Coagulations



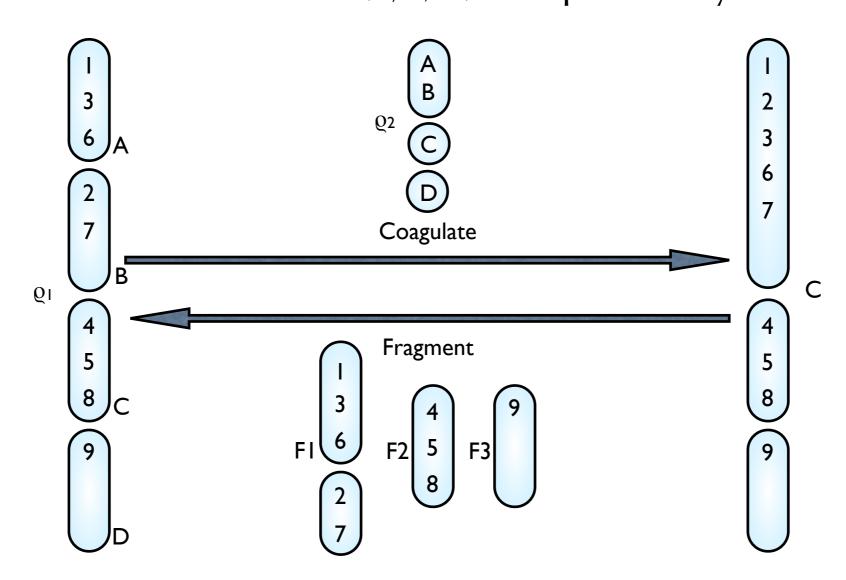
Coagulation and Fragmentation Operators





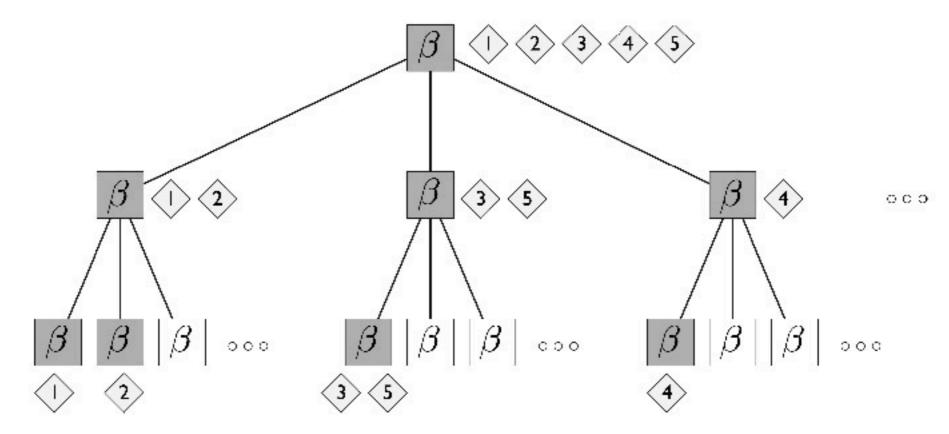
Random Fragmentations

- Let $C \in \mathcal{P}_{[n]}$ and for each $c \in C$ let $F_c \in \mathcal{P}_c$.
 - Denote **fragmentation** of *C* by $\{F_c\}$ as frag $(C, \{F_c\})$.
 - Write $\varrho_1 \mid C \sim \text{FRAG}(C, d, \alpha)$ if $\varrho_1 = \text{frag}(C, \{F_c\})$ with $F_c \sim \text{CRP}(c, d, \alpha)$ independently.





Nested Chinese Restaurant Processes

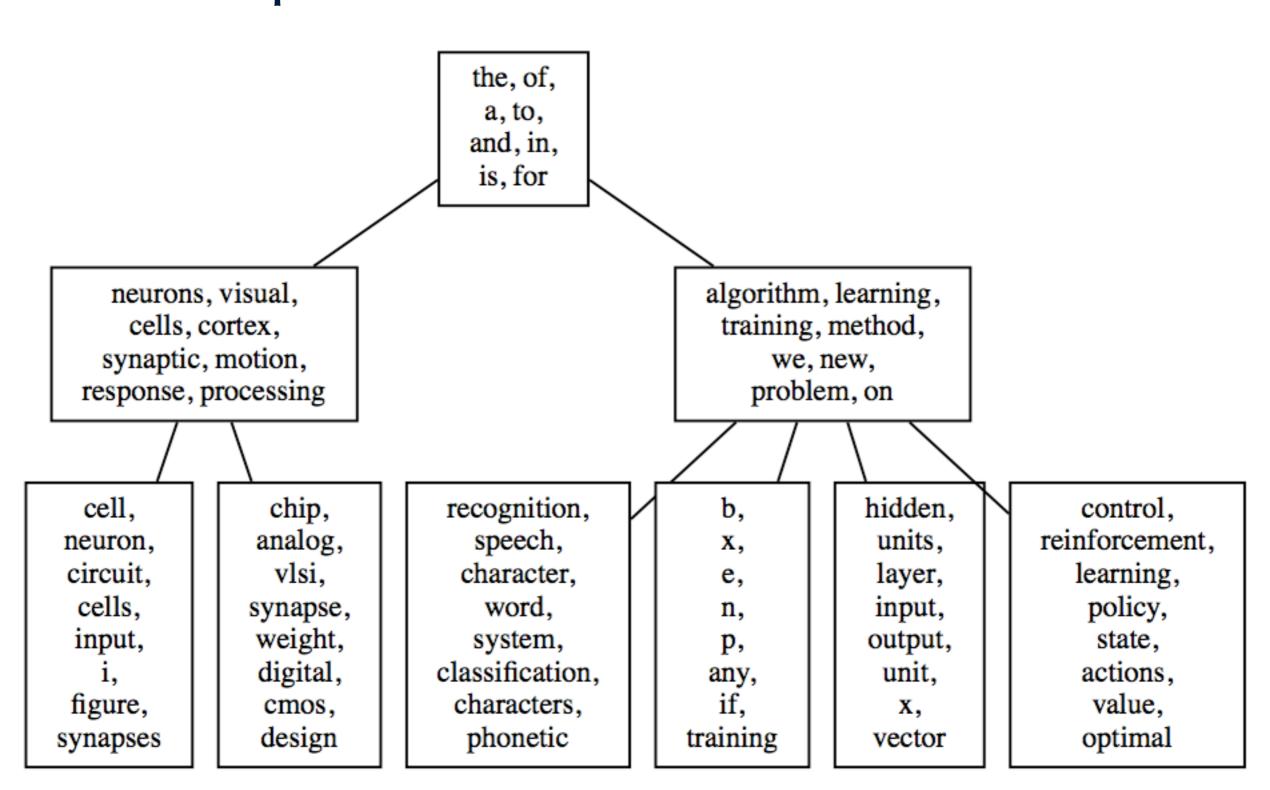


A tourist arrives at the city for an culinary vacation. On the first evening, he enters the root Chinese restaurant and selects a table using the CRP distribution in Eq. (1). On the second evening, he goes to the restaurant identified on the first night's table and chooses a second table using a CRP distribution based on the occupancy pattern of the tables in the second night's restaurant. He repeats this process forever. After M tourists have been on vacation in the city, the collection of paths describes a random subtree of the infinite tree; this subtree has a branching factor of at most M at all nodes. See Figure 3 for an example of the first three levels from such a random tree.

[Blei et al 2004, 2010]



Nested Topic Model



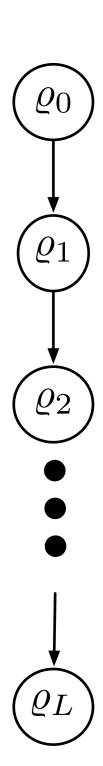


Nested Chinese Restaurant Process

- Start with the null partition $q_0 = \{[n]\}.$
- For each level I = 1, 2, ..., L:

$$Q_l = FRAG(Q_{l-1}, O, \alpha_l)$$

- Fragmentations in different clusters (branches of the hierarchical partition) operate independently.
- Nested Chinese restaurant processes (nCRP) define a *Markov chain* of partitions, each of which is exchangeable.
- Can be used to define an infinitely exchangeable sequence, with de Finetti measure being the nested Dirichlet process (nDP).

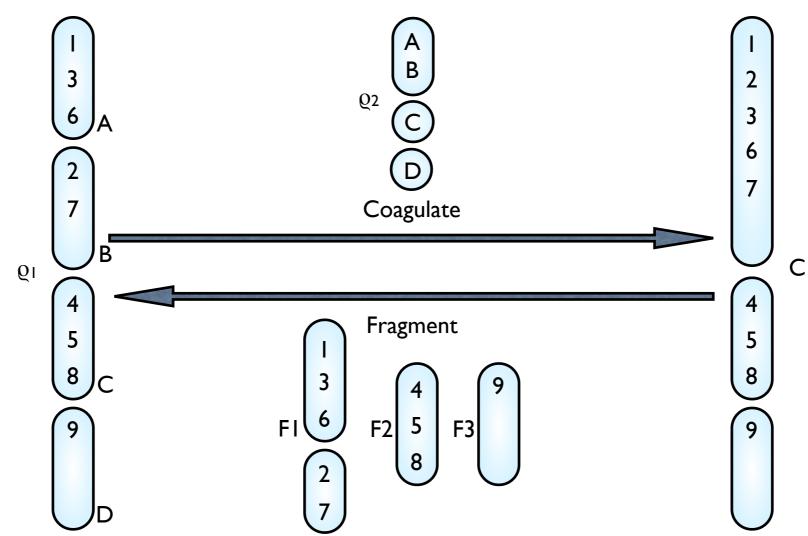




Random Coagulations

- Let $\varrho_1 \in \mathcal{P}_{[n]}$ and $\varrho_2 \in \mathcal{P}_{\varrho_1}$.
 - Denote **coagulation** of ϱ_1 by ϱ_2 as $coag(\varrho_1, \varrho_2)$.
 - Write $C \mid \varrho_1 \sim \text{COAG}(\varrho_1, d, \alpha)$ if $C = \text{coag}(\varrho_1, \varrho_2)$ with

$$\varrho_2 \mid \varrho_1 \sim \mathsf{CRP}(\varrho_1, d, \alpha).$$





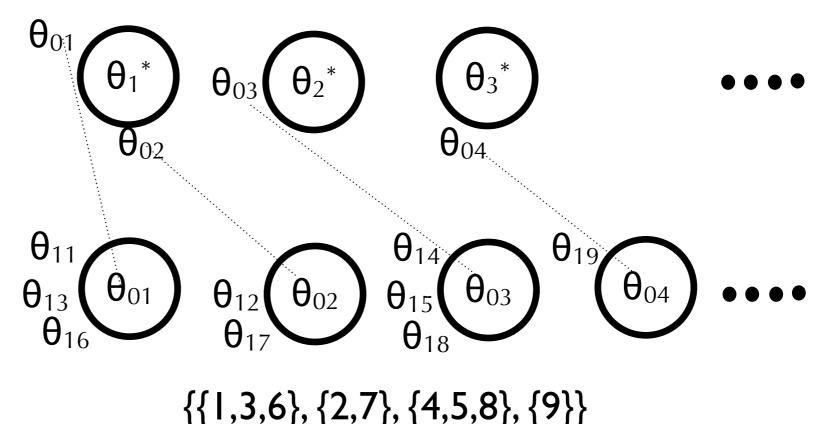
Coagulation of Random Partitions

• Consider a Chinese restaurant franchise corresponding to a two level HDP:

$$\{\{1,3,6,2,7\},\{4,5,8\},\{9\}\}$$

$$G_0 \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_0, H)$$

 $G_1 | G_0 \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_1, G_0)$



Corresponds to a random coagulation with:

$$\rho_1 \sim \text{CRP}([9], 0, \alpha_1)$$

$$\rho_0 | \rho_1 \sim \text{COAG}(\rho_1, 0, \alpha_0)$$

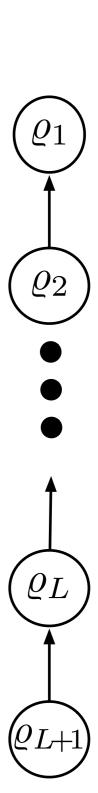


Chinese Restaurant Franchise

- For a simple linear hierarchy of DPs (restaurants linearly chained together), the **Chinese restaurant franchise** (CRF) is a sequence of coagulations:
 - At the lowest level L+1, we start with the trivial partition $\varrho_{L+1} = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, ..., \{n\}\}\}.$
 - For each level *I* = *L*,*L*-1,...,1:

$$\varrho_l = COAG(\varrho_{l+1}, 0, \alpha_l)$$

This is also Markov chain of partitions.



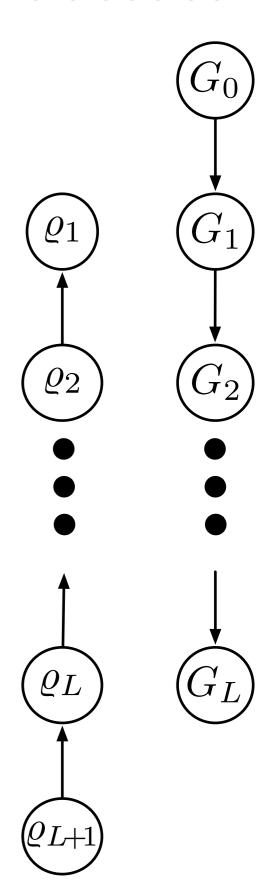


Hierarchical Dirichlet/Pitman-Yor Processes

- Each partition in the Chinese restaurant franchise is again exchangeable.
- The corresponding de Finetti measure is a **Hierarchical Dirichlet process** (HDP).

$$G_l|G_{l-1} \sim \mathrm{DP}(\alpha_l, G_{l-1})$$

 The CRF has not been used as a model of hierarchical partitions. Typically it is only used as a convenient representation for inference in the HDP and HPYP.



Random Trees

• Nonparametric models of trees are natural.

Construction of random trees as Markov chains of random partitions.

Models are infinitely exchangeable.

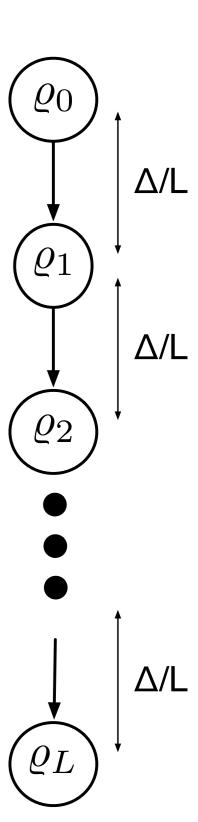


Continuum Limit of Partition-valued Markov Chains



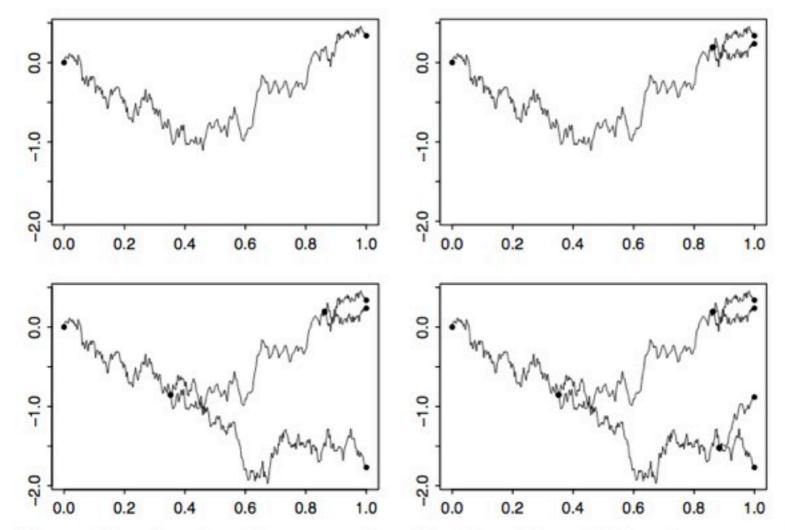
Trees with Infinitely Many Levels

- Random trees described so far all consist of a finite number of levels L.
- We can be "nonparametric" about the number of levels of random trees.
- Allow a finite amount of change even with an infinite number of levels, by decreasing the change per level.





Dirichlet Diffusion Trees



In general, the *i*th point in the data set is obtained by following a path from the origin that initially coincides with the path to the previous i-1 data points. If the new path has not diverged at a time when paths to past data points diverged, the new path chooses between these past paths with probabilities proportional to the numbers of past paths that went each way. If at time t, the new path is following a path traversed by m previous paths, the probability that it will diverge from this path within an infinitesimal interval of duration dt is a(t)dt/m. Once divergence occurs, the new path moves independently of previous paths.

Dirichlet Diffusion Trees

- The Dirichlet diffusion tree (DFT) hierarchical partitioning structure can be derived from the continuum limit of a nCRP:
 - Start with the null partition $q_0 = \{[n]\}.$
 - For each time *t*, define

$$\varrho_{t+dt} = FRAG(\varrho_t, 0, a(t)dt)$$

- The continuum limit of the Markov chain of partitions becomes a continuous time partition-valued Markov process: a fragmentation process.
- Generalization to Pitman-Yor diffusion trees.



- Taking the continuum limit of the one-parameter (Markov chain) CRF leads to another partition-valued Markov process: **Kingman's coalescent**.
 - Start with the trivial partition $\varrho_0 = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, ..., \{n\}\}\}.$
 - For each time *t* < 0:

$$\varrho_{t-dt} = \text{COAG}(\varrho_t, 0, a(t)/dt)$$

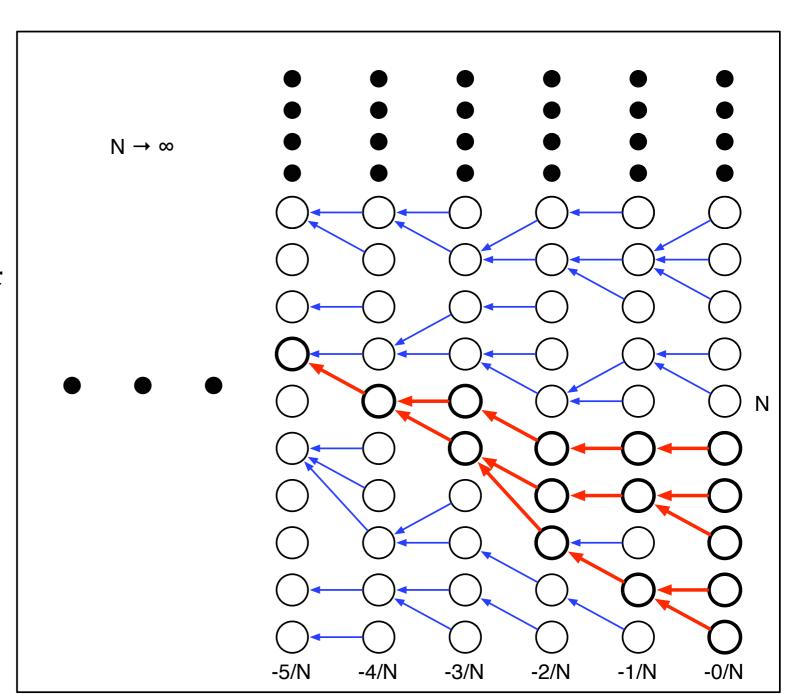
- This is the simplest example of a coalescence or coagulation process.
- A standard genealogical process in genetics.
- A generalization called Λ-coalescent.



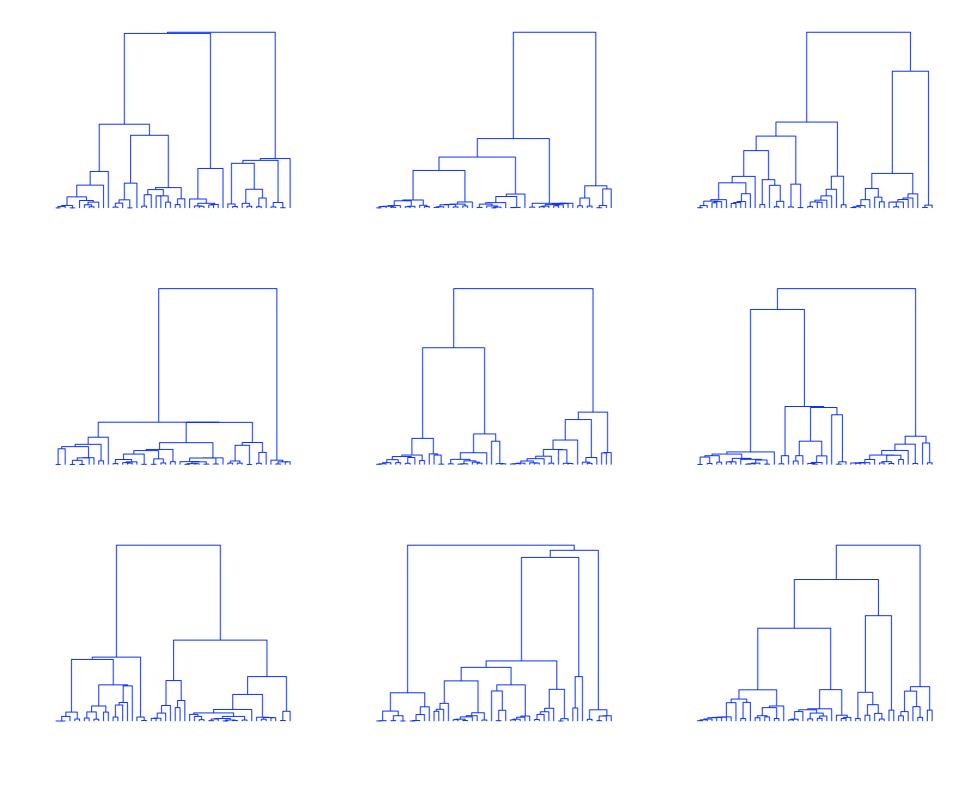
- Derived from the Wright-Fisher model of population genetics.
- Model of the genealogies of n haploid individuals among a size N population.
- Gives a tree-structured genealogy because each individual assumed to have one parent.



- Derived from the Wright-Fisher model of population genetics.
- Model of the genealogies of n haploid individuals among a size N population.
- Gives a tree-structured genealogy because each individual assumed to have one parent.









Other Models

- Both Dirichlet diffusion trees and Kingman's coalescent are priors over binary trees, i.e. every internal node has exactly 2 children.
 - Generalizations allow for more than 2 children.
- Both models are priors over ultrametric trees, i.e. all observations are at leaves which are equidistant from the root.
 - Can generalize by allowing observations at different distances from root.
 - Constructions for other types of random trees:
 - Gibbs fragmentation trees
 - Continuum random trees
 - Standard additive coalescent
- Combining fragmentations and coagulations to get stationary Markov chains over partitions.



Sequence Memoizer

Sequence Models for Language and Text

Probabilistic models for sequences of words and characters, e.g.
 south, parks, road

• *n*-gram language models are high order Markov models of such discrete sequence:

$$P(\text{sentence}) = \prod_{i} P(\text{word}_{i} | \text{word}_{i-N+1} \dots \text{word}_{i-1})$$



Context Tree

• Context of conditional probabilities naturally organized using a tree. $P^{\text{smooth}}(\text{road}|\text{south parks})$

 $= \lambda(3)Q_3(\text{road}|\text{south parks}) +$ • Smoothing makes conditional probabilities of neighbouring contexts more similar. $\lambda(2)Q_2(\text{road}|\text{parks}) +$ $\lambda(1)Q_1(\text{road}|\emptyset)$

• Later words in context more important in predicting next word.

south parks

along south parks

at south parks

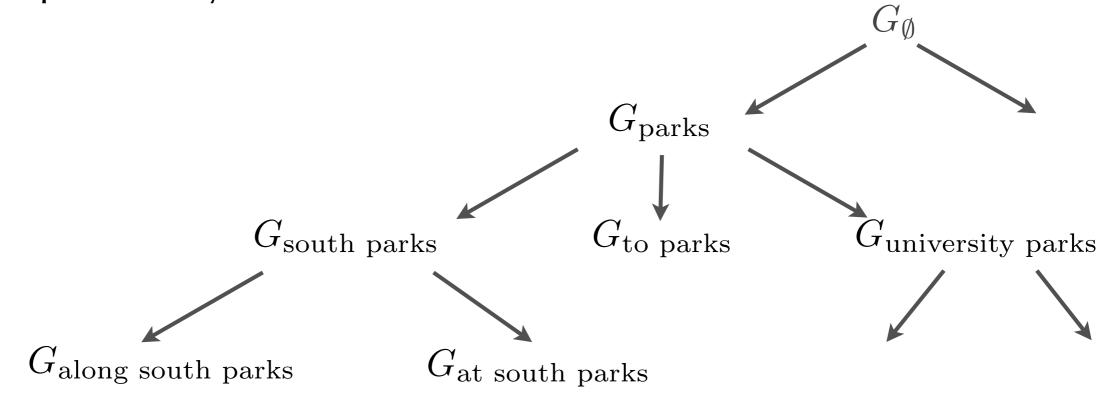


Hierarchical Pitman-Yor Process

Parametrize the conditional probabilities of Markov model:

$$P(\text{word}_i = w | \text{word}_{i-N+1}^{i-1} = u) = G_u(w)$$
$$G_u = [G_u(w)]_{w \in \text{vocabulary}}$$

• G_u is a probability vector associated with context u.





Non-Markov Models for Language and Text

• Model the conditional probabilities of each possible word occurring after each possible context (of unbounded length).

 Use hierarchical Pitman-Yor process prior to share information across all contexts. G_{\emptyset} Hierarchy is infinitely deep. $G_{\rm parks}$ • Sequence memoizer. $G_{
m to~parks}$ $G_{\text{university parks}}$ $G_{\text{south parks}}$ $G_{\text{along south parks}}$ $G_{\rm at\ south\ parks}$

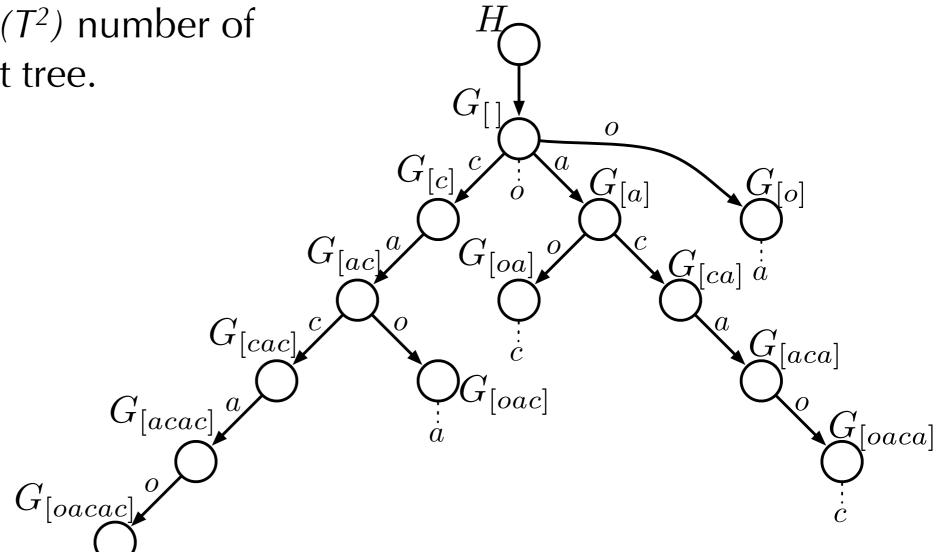
 $G_{\text{meet at south parks}}$



Model Size: Infinite -> $O(T^2)$

- The sequence memoizer model is very large (actually, infinite).
- Given a training sequence (e.g.: o,a,c,a,c), most of the model can be ignored (integrated out), leaving a finite number of nodes in context tree.

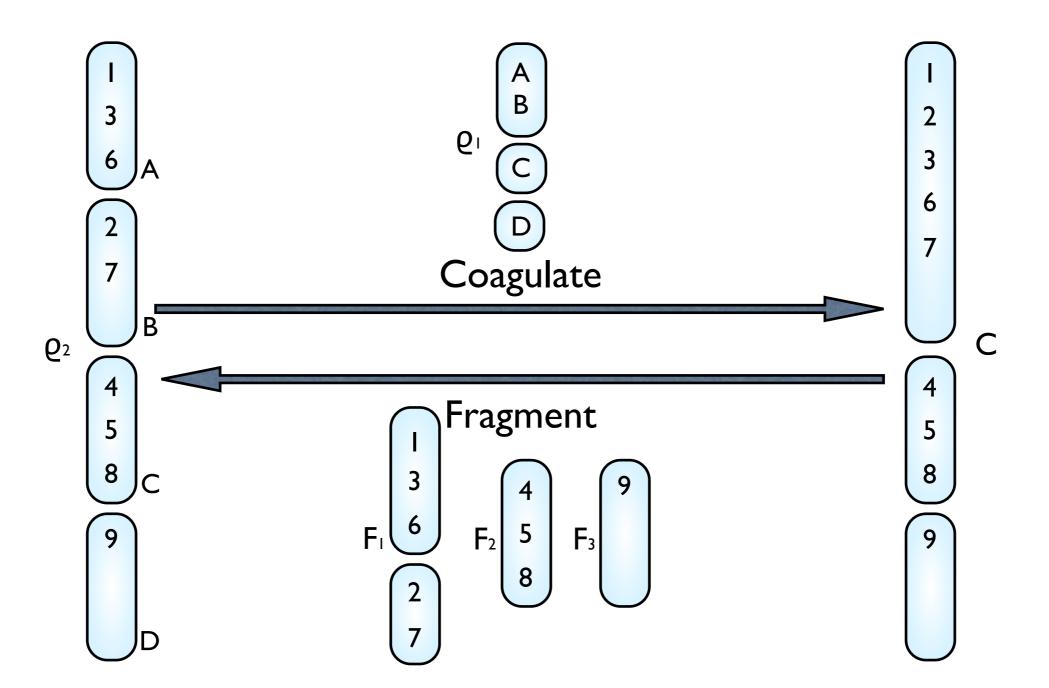
• But there are still $O(T^2)$ number of nodes in the context tree.





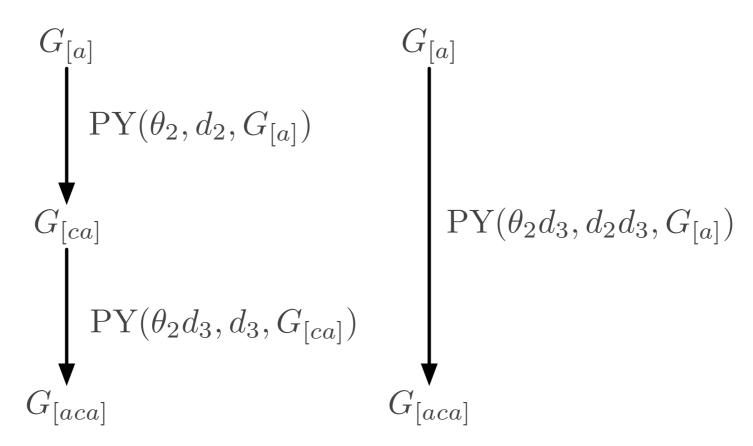
Duality of Coagulation and Fragmentation

- The following statements are equivalent:
 - (I) $\varrho_2 \sim \text{CRP}([n], d_2, \alpha d_2) \text{ and } \varrho_1 | \varrho_2 \sim \text{CRP}(\varrho_2, d_1, \alpha)$
 - (II) $C \sim \text{CRP}([n], d_1 d_2, \alpha d_2) \text{ and } F_c | C \sim \text{CRP}(c, d_2, -d_1 d_2) \quad \forall c \in C$



Closure under Marginalization

 Marginalizing out internal Pitman-Yor processes is equivalent to coagulating the corresponding Chinese restaurant processes.



- Fragmentation and coagulation duality means that the coagulated partition is also Chinese restaurant process distributed.
- Corresponding Pitman-Yor process is the resulting marginal distribution of G_[aca] | G_[a].

[Wood et al 2009, Gasthaus & Teh 2010, Wood et al 2011]



Model Size: Infinite -> $O(T^2)$ -> O(2T)

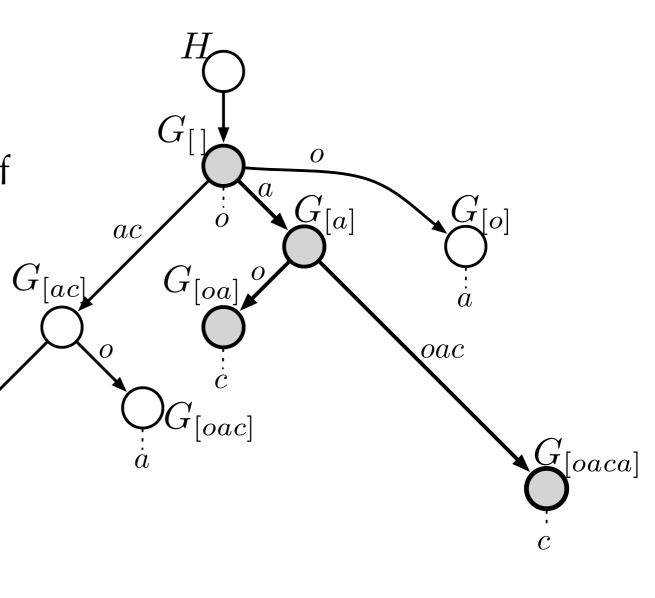
- The sequence memoizer model is very large (actually, infinite).
- Given a training sequence (e.g.: o,a,c,a,c), most of the model can be ignored (integrated out), leaving a finite number of nodes in context tree.

oac

- But there are still $O(T^2)$ number of nodes in the context tree.
- Integrate out non-branching, non-leaf nodes leaves O(T) nodes.

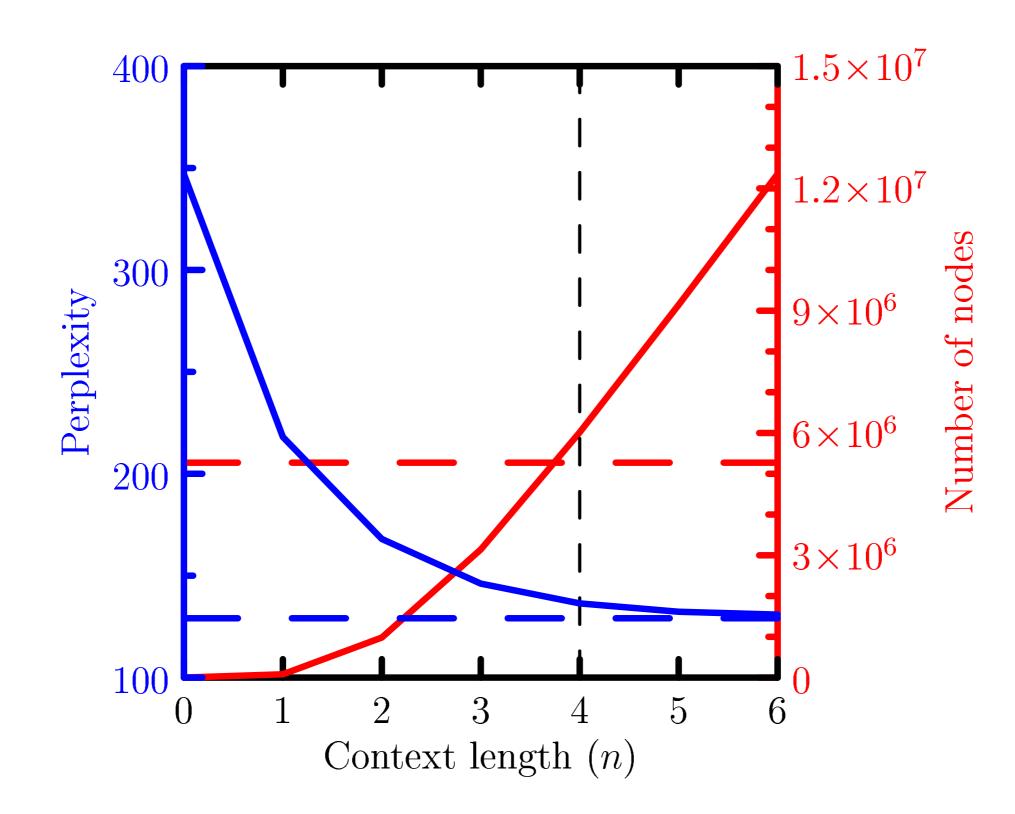
 $G_{[oacac}$

 Conditional distributions still Pitman-Yor due to closure property.





Comparison to Finite Order HPYLM





Compression Results

Model	Average bits/byte
gzip	2.61
bzip2	2.11
CTW	1.99
PPM	1.93
Sequence Memoizer	1.89

Calgary corpus

SM inference: particle filter

PPM: Prediction by Partial Matching

CTW: Context Tree Weigting

Online inference, entropic coding.



Exchangeable Random Partitions: beyond Dirichlet and Pitman-Yor Processes

Exchangeable Random Partitions

• A random partition ϱ of [n] is exchangeable if it is invariant to permutations of [n].

```
P(\varrho = \{ \{Alice, David\}, \{Bob, Charles, Emma\}, \{Florence\} \})
= P(\varrho = \{ \{Charles, Florence\}, \{Alice, David, Emma\}, \{Bob\} \})
```

- The signature of ϱ is a sequence of the sizes of the clusters in ϱ .
- The probability function of an exchangeable partition has to be a symmetric function of its signature:

$$P(\varrho = \{c_1, c_2, ..., c_K\}) = f(n_1, n_2, ..., n_K)$$
 where $n_k = |c_k|$.

• Exchangeable partition probability functions (EPPFs).

Kingman's Theory

• Exchangeable random partitions $\varrho \Leftrightarrow$ random probability measures.

 \Rightarrow Given an exchangeable random partition ϱ :

- For each $c \in \varrho$: define: $\theta_c^* \sim H$
- For each $i \in [n]$, define: $\theta_i = \theta_c^*$ where $c \in \varrho$ with $i \in c$.
- de Finetti's Theorem implies random probability measure G.

←Given random probability measure *G*:

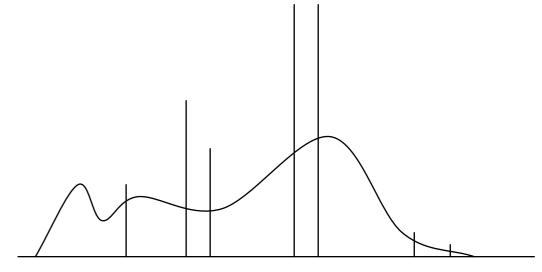
- For each *i*, define: $\theta_i | G \sim G$
- Construct a partition ϱ where each cluster $c \in \varrho$ consists of indices i where θ_i all take on the same value.

Kingman's Theory

• Exchangeable random partitions $\varrho \Leftrightarrow$ random probability measures G.

G can have both discrete and continuous components:

$$G = \pi_0 G_0 + \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$$



- Discrete components: clusters in ϱ with infinite size.
- Continuous component: clusters in ϱ with size exactly 1 (dust).



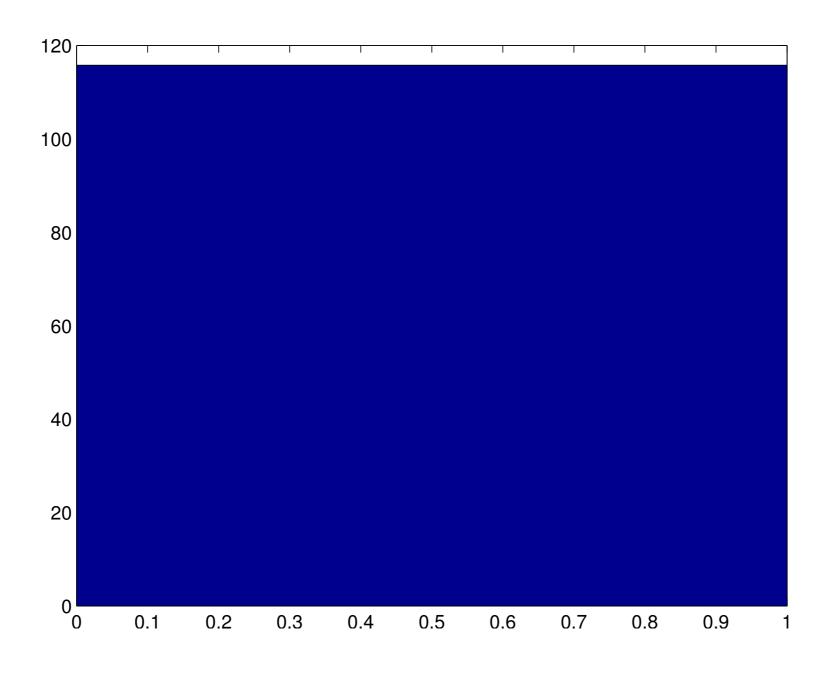
Completely Random Measures

- General construction of random probability measures without continuous component.
- Completely random measure (CRM) μ :
 - Given any disjoint subsets A and B: $\mu(A) \perp \!\!\!\perp \mu(B)$
- Related to infinitely divisible distributions.
 - A random variable X is infinitely divisible if for every n, there are n iid random variables Xi such that $\Sigma_i X_i = X$.
 - Examples: Gaussian, gamma, Poisson, negative-binomial, Cauchy, stable.



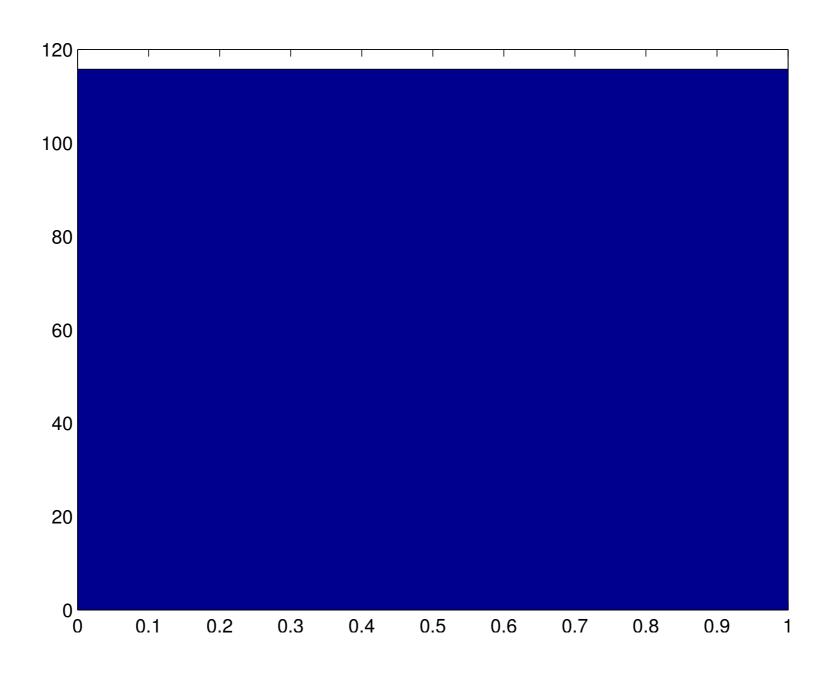
Γ(α)

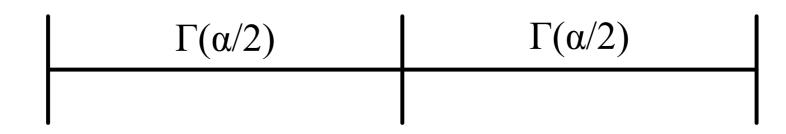




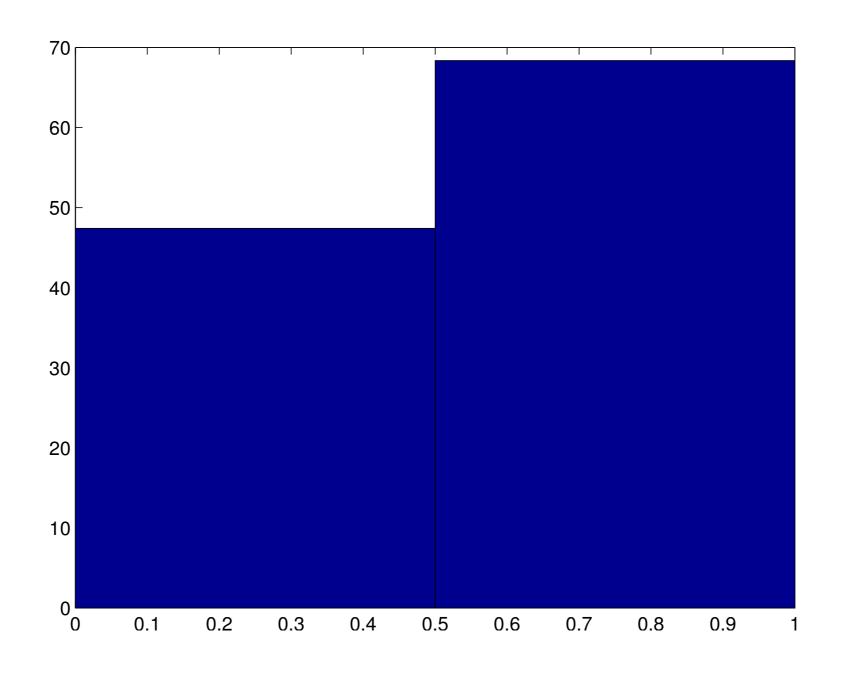
Γ(α)

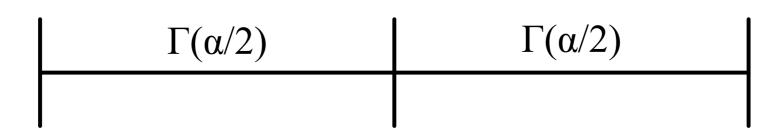




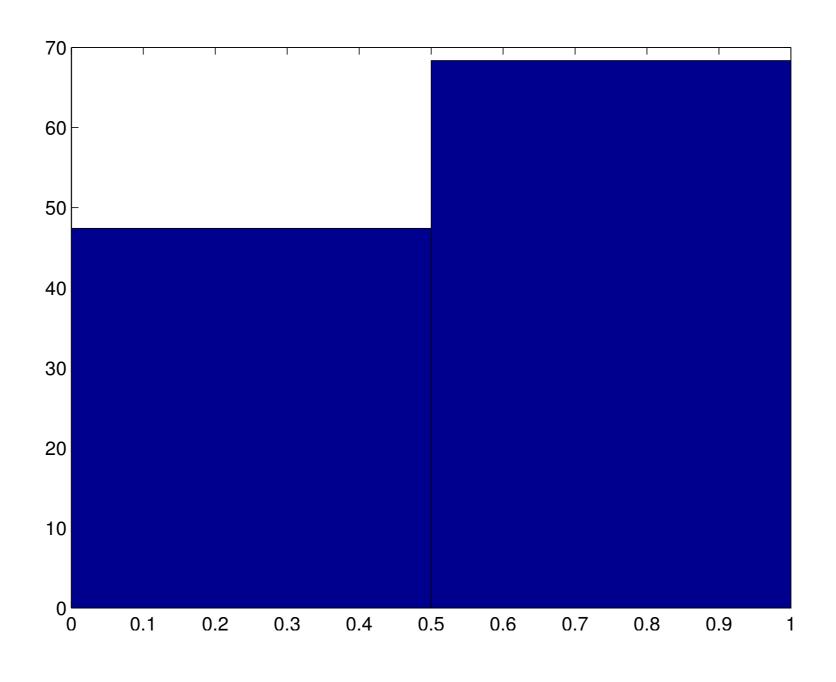






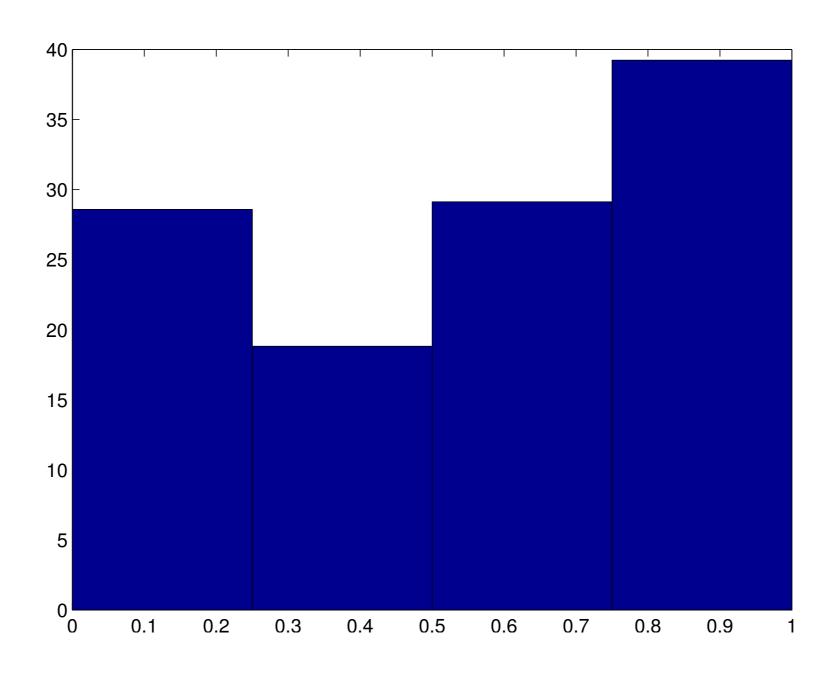






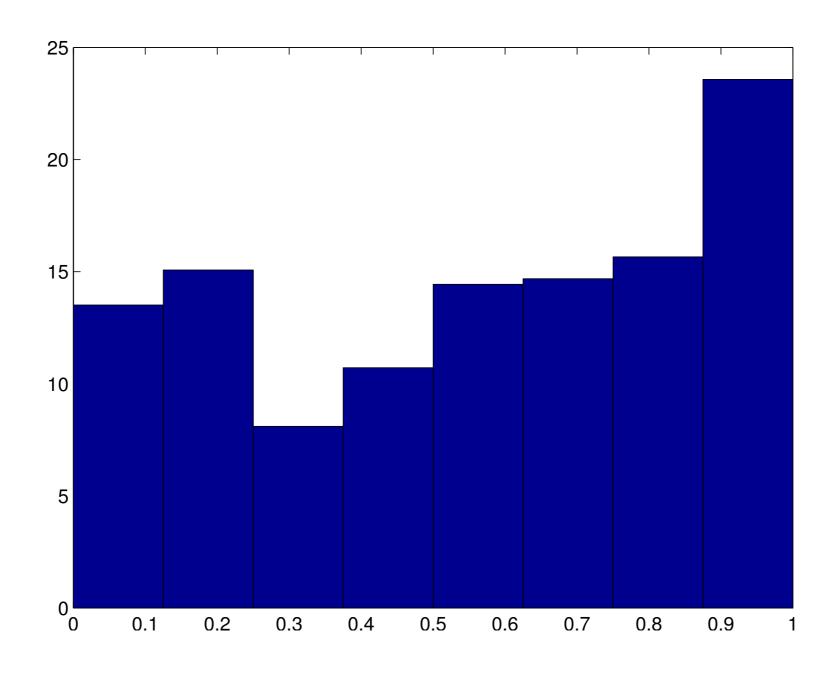
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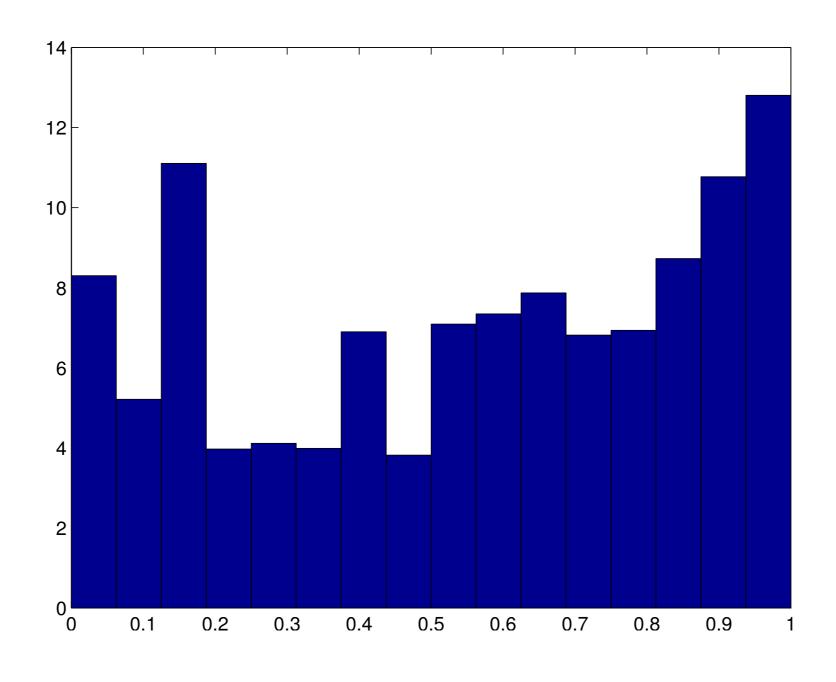
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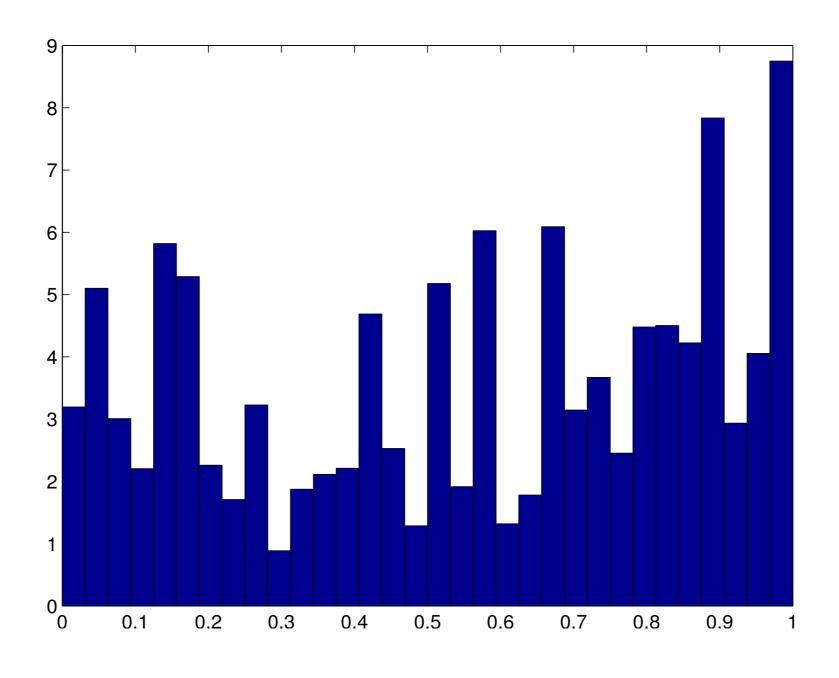
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





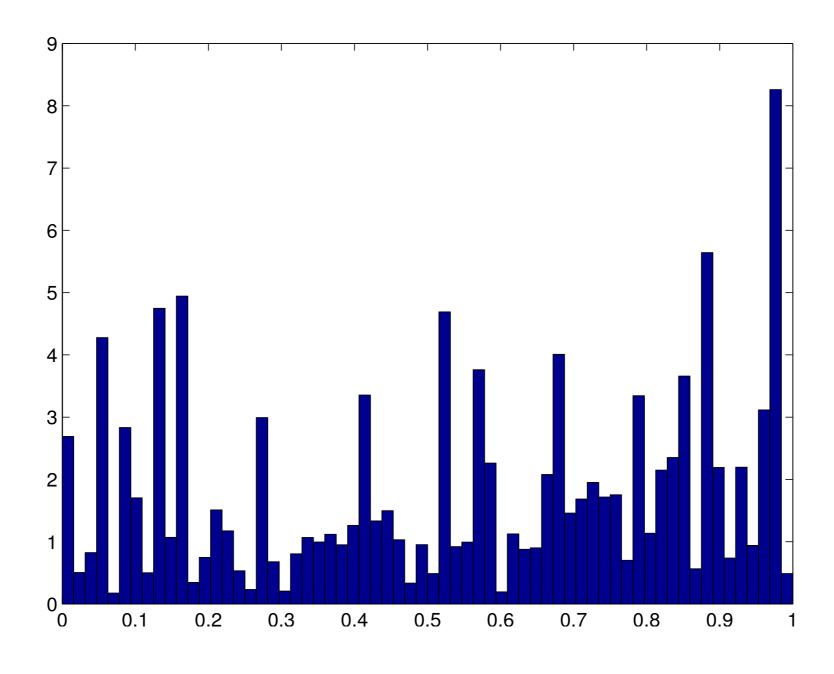
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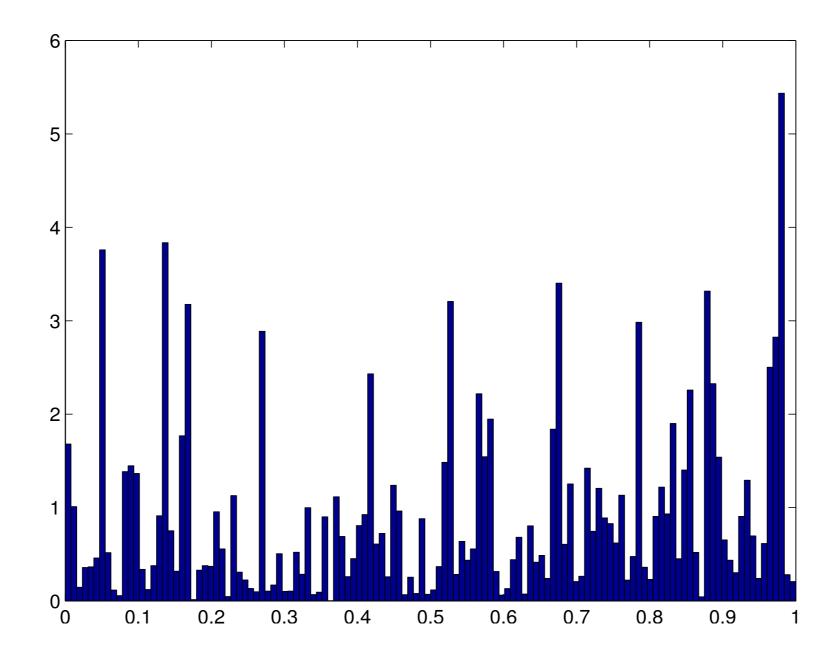
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





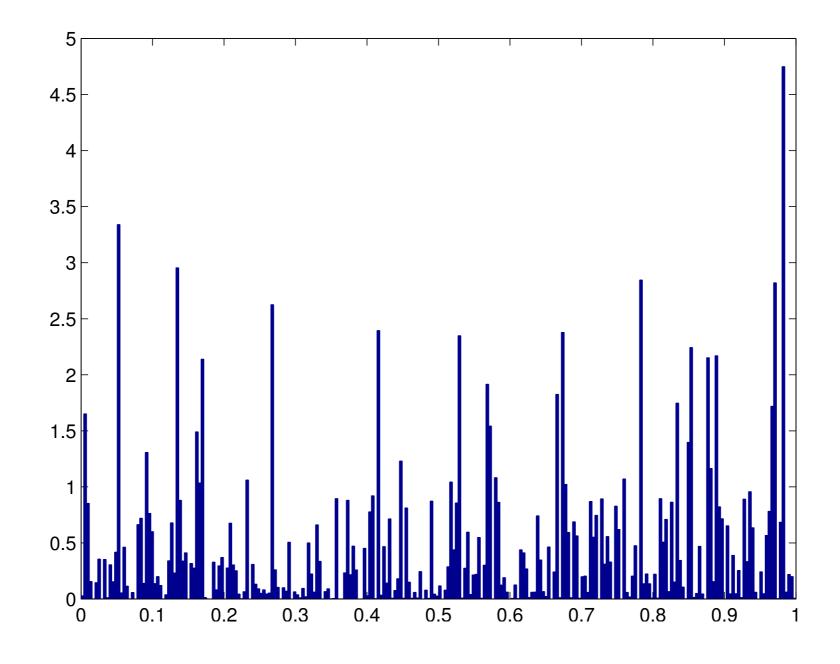
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





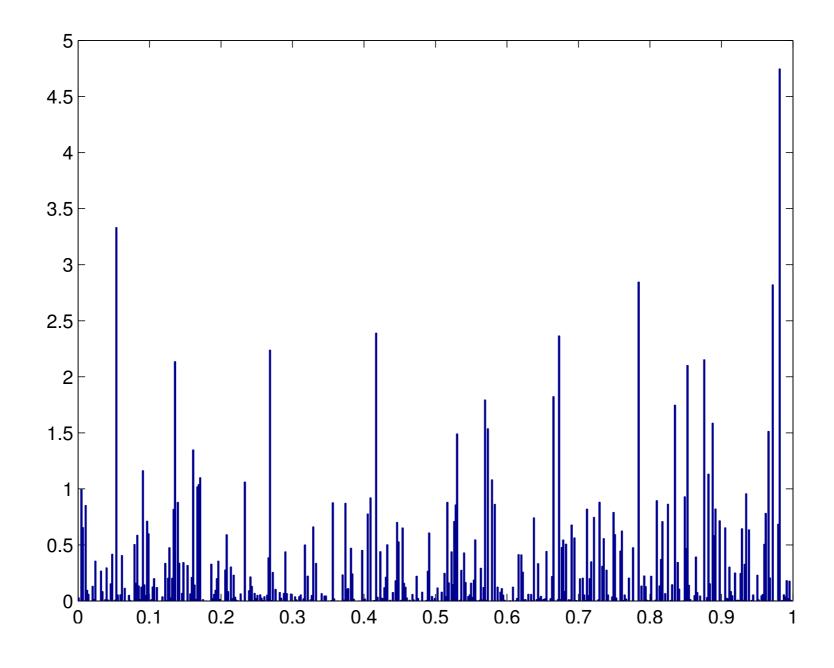
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





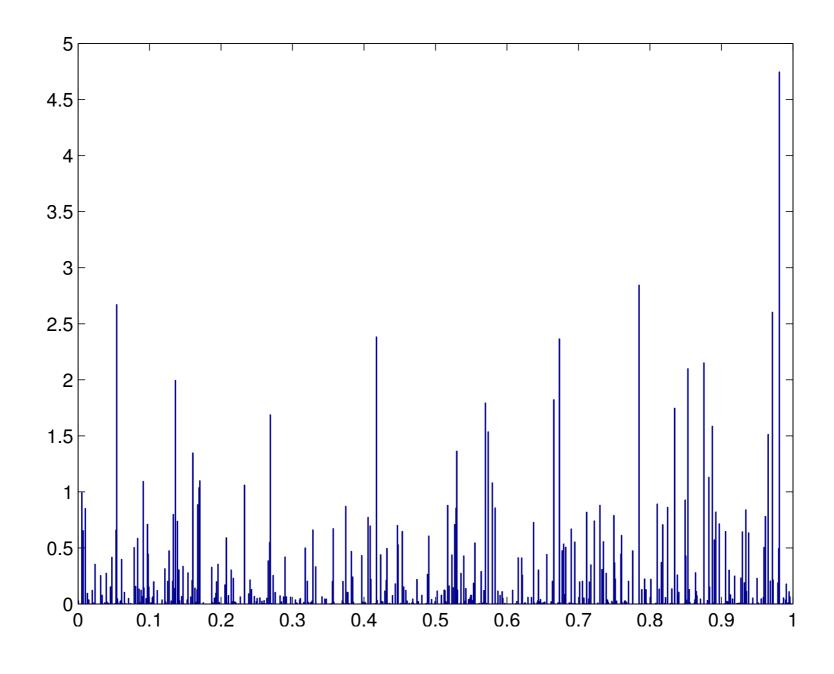
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





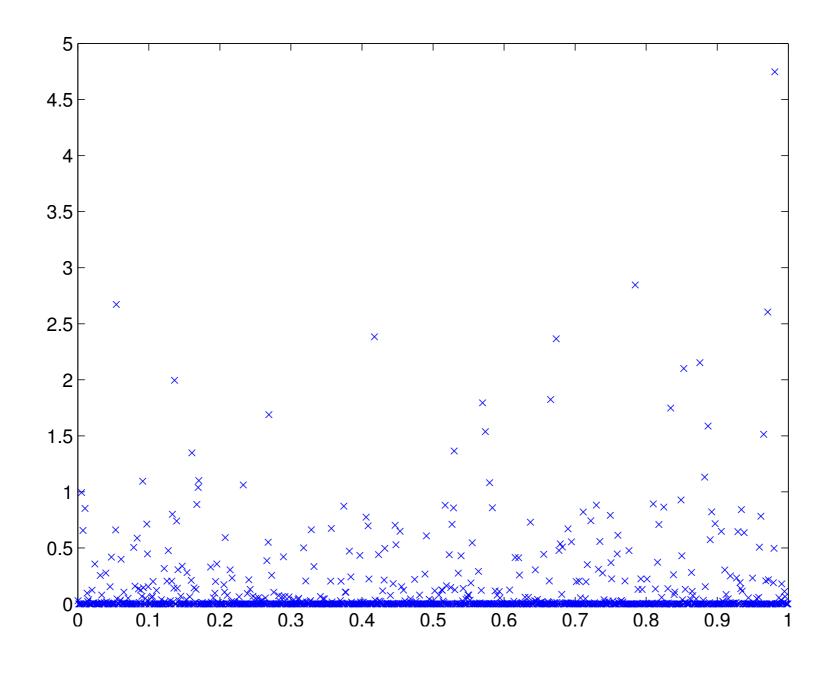
$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$	$\Gamma(\alpha/4)$





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Completely Random Measures

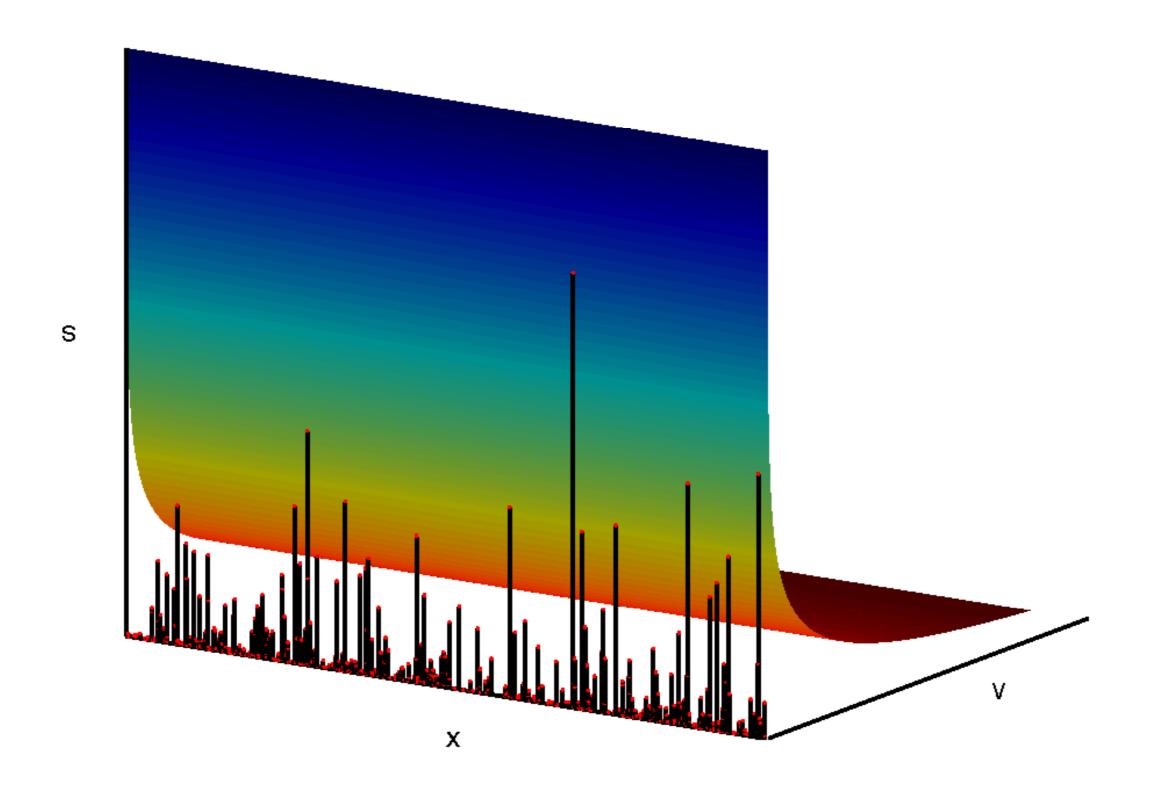
- Completely random measure (CRM) μ :
 - Given any disjoint subsets A and B: $\mu(A) \perp \!\!\!\perp \mu(B)$
- CRMs can always be decomposed into 3 independent components:

$$\mu = \mu_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \tau_j \delta_{\phi_j^*} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$$

- μ_0 is a (non-random) measure,
- $\{\phi_j^*\}$ are not random, $\{\tau_j\}$ are independent positive random variables,
- $\{(\pi_k, \theta_k^*)\}$ is drawn from a Poisson process over $R^+ \times \Theta$ with intensity $v(w, \theta)$ called the **Lévy measure**.



Completely Random Measures



Examples

• Gamma process:

$$\nu(w,\theta) = \alpha w^{-1} e^{-w} h(\theta)$$

• Beta process:

$$\nu(w,\theta) = \alpha w^{-1} \mathbf{1}(0 \le w \le 1) h(\theta)$$

• Stable process:

$$\nu(w,\theta) = \frac{\alpha}{\Gamma(1-d)} w^{-1-d} h(\theta)$$

Stable-beta process:

$$\nu(w,\theta) = \frac{\alpha\Gamma(1+\beta)}{\Gamma(1-d)\Gamma(\beta+d)} w^{-1-d} (1-w)^{\beta+d-1} \mathbf{1}(0 \le w \le 1) h(\theta)$$

Generalized gamma process:

$$\nu(w,\theta) = \frac{\alpha}{\Gamma(1-d)} w^{-1-d} e^{-\tau w} h(\theta)$$

Normalized Random Measures

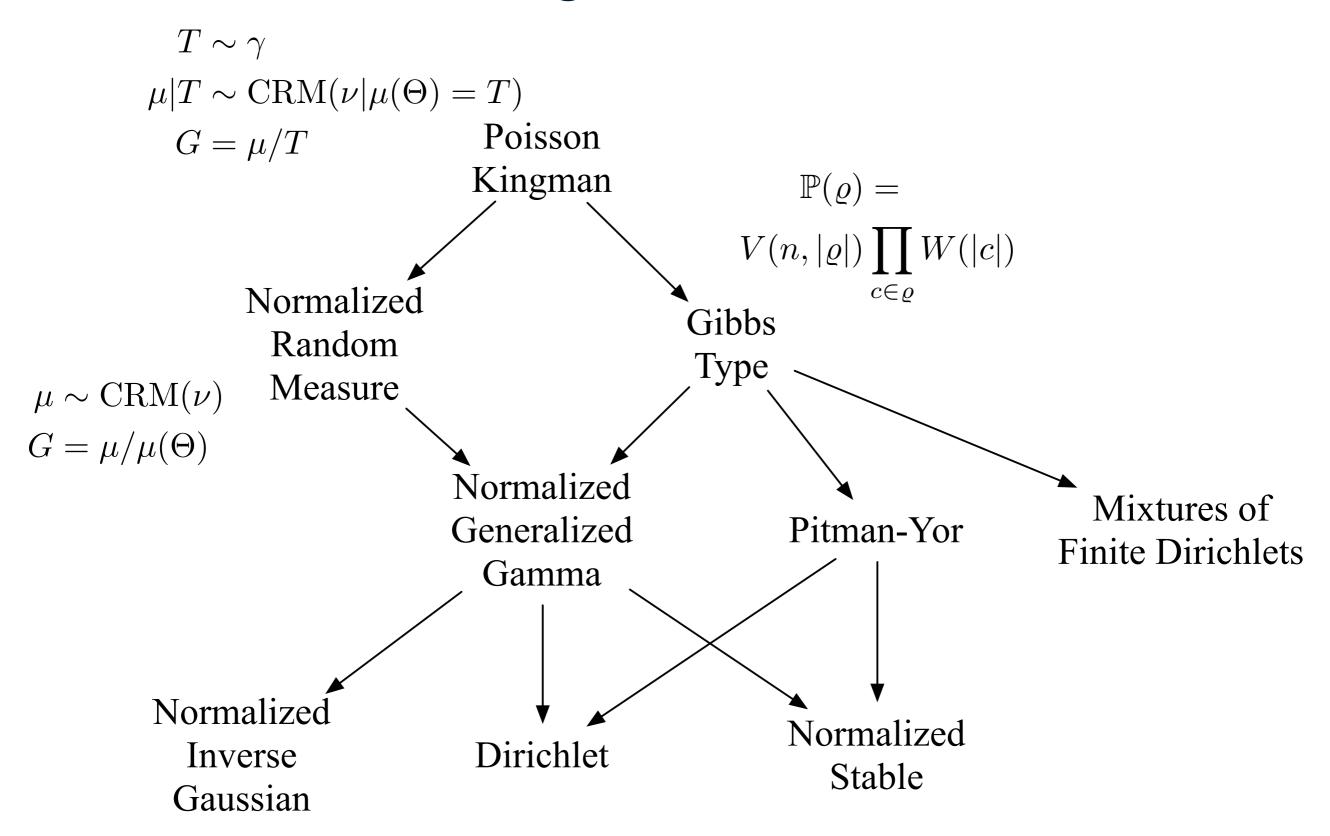
Normalizing a CRM gives a random probability measure:

$$G = \mu/\mu(\Theta)$$

- Normalizing a gamma process gives the Dirichlet process.
- The largest class of tractable NRMs studied so far are the normalized generalized gamma processes.
 - Tractable (almost) closed for EPPFs.
 - Like the Pitman-Yor, also has power-law properties.
- Pitman-Yor process is not a NRM, but is a mixture of normalized generalized gamma processes instead.



Families of Exchangeable Random Partitions





Consistency of BNP Models for Clustering

- Some recent works have shown that DP mixture models are *not* consistent if used to estimate the number of components.
- This is in fact not surprising:
 - Basic assumption is that the data comes from a finite mixture model, but DP mixture models assume infinite number of clusters.
- Which assumption is reasonable? Finite or infinite number of clusters?



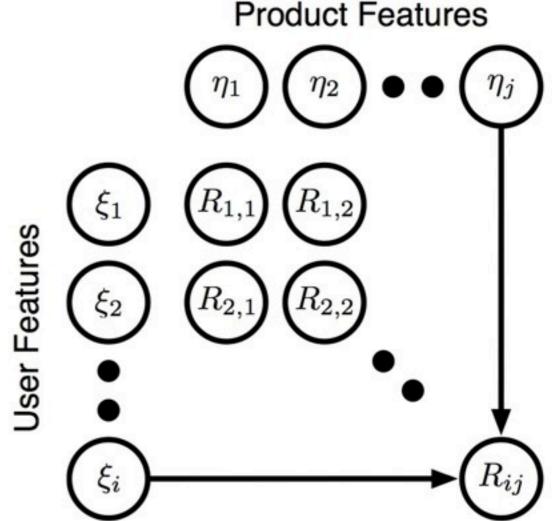
Relational Exchangeability



Relational Exchangeability

- Data: for each user *i* ratings R_{ij} for a subset of products *j*.
- Sensible assumption: users are exchangeable and products are exchangeable.
- Aldous-Hoover: generalization of de Finetti's Theorem:
 - User representation ξ_i
 - Product representation η_j
 - ullet Interaction function Ψ

$$R_{ij} \sim F(\Psi(\xi_i, \eta_j))$$



[Aldous 1981, Hoover 1979, Kallenberg 2005, Orbanz and Roy 2013]

Relational Exchangeability

- Social or interaction networks:
 - rows and columns index the same objects.
- Array of variables is square, can be symmetric or asymmetric.
- Aldous-Hoover representation:
 - Symmetric case: $R_{ij} = R_{ji} \sim F(\Psi(\xi_i, \xi_j))$ with symmetric Ψ .
 - Asymmetric case: $(R_{ij}, R_{ji}) \sim F(\Psi(\xi_i, \xi_j))$ with asymmetric Ψ .



A Few Final Words



Summary

- Introduction to Bayesian learning and Bayesian nonparametrics.
- Dirichlet processes:
 - Infinite limit of finite mixture models.
 - Chinese restaurant processes, stick-breaking construction.
 - Ferguson's Definition
- Hierarchical Bayesian nonparametric models.
 - Infinite hidden Markov models.
- Pitman-Yor processes:
 - Two-parameter Chinese restaurant processes.
 - Power-law properties.
 - Hierarchical Pitman-Yor processes and the sequence memoizer.
- Feature allocation and Indian buffet processes.
- Coagulations, fragmentations, trees.
- Exchangeable random partitions.
- Relational Exchangeability



What Were Not Covered Here

- Gaussian processes.
- Other nonparametric dynamical models.
- Dependent random measures.
- Combinatorial stochastic processes and their relationship to data structures and programming languages.
- Frequentist properties, convergence and asymptotics.



Future of Bayesian Nonparametrics

- Augmenting the standard modelling toolbox of machine learning.
- Development of better inference algorithms and software toolkits.
- Exploration of novel stochastic processes.
- More applications in machine learning and beyond.



Other Tutorials and Reviews

- Mike Jordan's tutorial at NIPS 2005.
- Zoubin Ghahramani's tutorial at UAI 2005.
- Peter Orbanz' tutorial at MLSS 2009.
- My own tutorials at previous MLSS and NIPS 2011.
- Introduction to Dirichlet process [Teh 2010], nonparametric Bayes [Orbanz & Teh 2010, Gershman & Blei 2011], hierarchical Bayesian nonparametric models [Teh & Jordan 2010]/
- Bayesian nonparametrics book [Hjort et al 2010].



Appendix

Tiny Bit of Probability Theory

- A σ -algebra Σ is a family of subsets of a set Θ such that
 - Σ is not empty;
 - if $A \in \Sigma$ then $\Theta | A \in \Sigma$;
 - if $A_1, A_2, ... \in \Sigma$ then $\bigcup_i A_i \in \Sigma$.
- (Θ, Σ) is a measure space and $A \in \Sigma$ are the measurable sets.
- A measure μ over (Θ, Σ) is a function $\mu : \Sigma \to [0, \infty]$ such that
 - $\mu(\varnothing) = 0$;
 - if $A_1, A_2,... \in \Sigma$ are disjoint then $\mu(\cup_i A_i) = \Sigma_i \mu(A_i)$;
 - a **probability measure** is one where $\mu(\Theta) = 1$.
- Everything we consider here will be measurable.

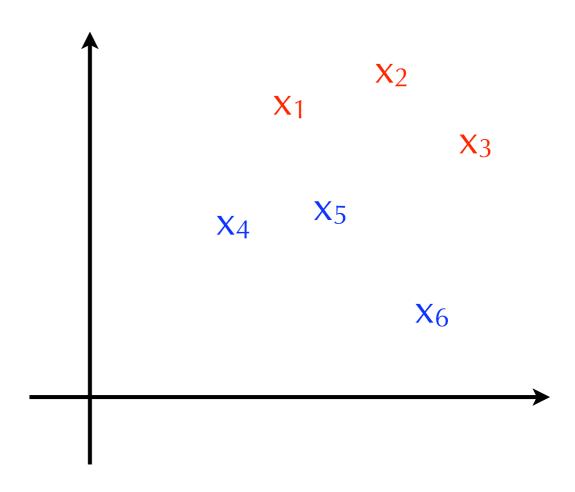
Tiny Bit of Probability Theory

- Given two measure spaces (Θ, Σ) and (Δ, Φ) a function $f : \Theta \to \Delta$ is **measurable** if $f^{-1}(A) \in \Sigma$ for every $A \in \Phi$.
- If *P* is a probability measure on (Θ, Σ) , a random variable *X* taking values in Δ is simply a measurable function $X : \Theta \rightarrow \Delta$.
 - This of the probability space (Θ, Σ, P) as a black-box random number generator, and X as a fixed function taking random samples in Θ and producing random samples in Δ .
 - The probability of an event $A \in \Phi$ is $P(X \in A) = P(X^{-1}(A))$.
- A **stochastic process** is simply a collection of random variables $\{X_i\}_{i \in I}$ over the same measure space (Θ, Σ) , where I is an index set.
 - *I* can be an infinite (even uncountably infinite) set.



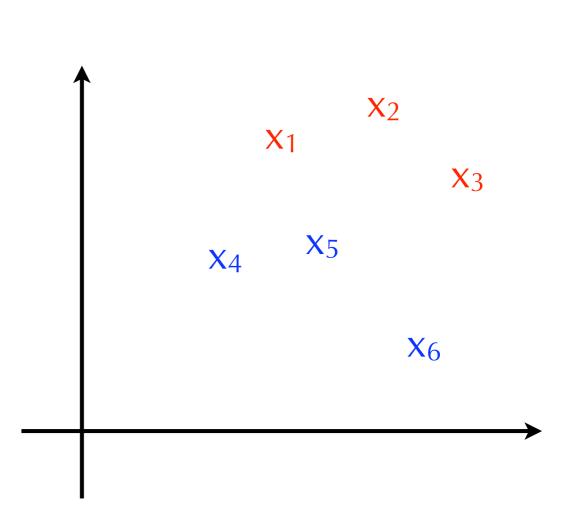
Projectivity and Exchangeability







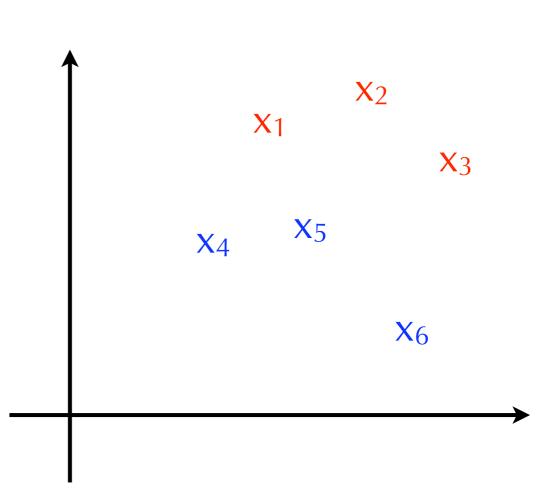
• There will be 1 test item. Will this change your predictions?





• There will be 1 test item.
Will this change your predictions?

• There will be 5 additional test items. Will this change your predictions?



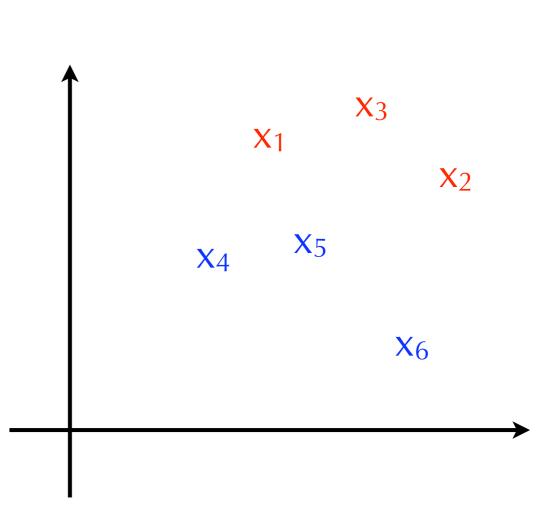
55555



There will be 1 test item.
 Will this change your predictions?

• There will be 5 additional test items. Will this change your predictions?

• Item labels were permuted. Will this change your predictions?



55555

Consistency and Projectivity

• Let ϱ be a partition of S, and S' \subset S be a subset. The **projection** of ϱ onto S' is the partition of S' defined by ϱ :

$$PROJ(\varrho, S') = \{ c \cap S' \mid c \cap S' \neq \emptyset, c \in S \}$$

- I.e., all elements of *S* except those in *S'* are removed from ϱ .
- For example,

$$PROJ(\{\{1,3,6\},\{2,7\},\{4,5,8\},\{9\}\}, [6]) = \{\{1,3,6\},\{2\},\{4,5\}\}\$$

Consistent/Projective Random Partitions

• A sequence of distributions $P_1, P_2, ...$ over $\mathcal{P}_{[1]}, \mathcal{P}_{[2]}, ...$ is **projective** or **consistent** if

$$\frac{\rho_m \sim P_m}{\rho_n = \text{PROJ}(\rho_m, [n])} \Rightarrow \rho_n \sim P_n$$

$$P_m(\{\rho_m : \text{PROJ}(\rho_m, [n]) = \rho_n\}) = P_n(\rho_n)$$

- Such a sequence can be extended to a distribution over $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{N}}$.
- The Chinese restaurant process is projective since:
 - The finite mixture model is, and
 - also it is defined sequentially.
- A projective model is one that does not change when more data items are introduced (and can be learned sequentially in a self-consistent

Exchangeable Random Partitions

• A distribution over partitions \mathcal{P}_S is **exchangeable** if it is invariant to permutations of S: For example,

$$P(\varrho = \{\{1,3,6\},\{2,7\},\{4,5,8\},\{9\}\}) =$$

$$P(\varrho = \{\{\sigma(1),\,\sigma(3),\,\sigma(6)\},\{\sigma(2),\,\sigma(7)\},\{\sigma(4),\,\sigma(5),\,\sigma(8)\},\{\sigma(9)\}\})$$
 where S = [9] = {1,...,9}, and σ is a permutation of [9].

- The Chinese restaurant process satisfies exchangeability:
 - The finite mixture model is exchangeable (iid given parameters).
 - The probability of ϱ under the CRP does not depend on the identities of elements of S.
- An exchangeable is one that does not depend on the (arbitrary) way data items are indexed.

Infinitely Exchangeable Random Variables

• Let be an **infinitely exchangeable** sequence of random variables, x_3, \dots

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=P(x_{\sigma(1)},\ldots,x_{\sigma(n)})$$
 for all n and permutations σ of $[n]$.

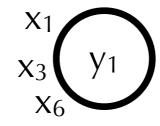
• Generalization of i.i.d. variables, and can be constructed as mixtures of such:

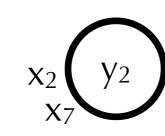
$$P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \int P(G) \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i|G) dG$$

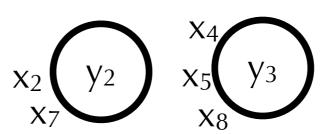
• **de Finetti's Theorem**: infinitely exchangeable sequences can always be represented as mixtures of i.i.d. variables. Further the latent parameter *G* is unique, called the **de Finetti measure**.

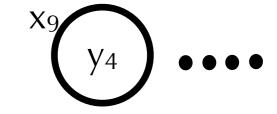
Dirichlet Process

- Since the CRP is projective and exchangeable, we can define an infinitely exchangeable sequence as follows:
 - Sample $\varrho \sim \mathsf{CRP}(\mathbb{N}, \alpha)$.
 - For $c \in \varrho$:
 - sample $y_c \sim H$.









- For i = 1, 2, ...:
 - set $x_i = y_c$ where $i \in c$.
- The resulting de Finetti measure is the DP with parameters α and H.

Why Infinitely Exchangeable Models?

- A model for a dataset $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ is a joint distribution $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$.
- An infinitely exchangeable model means:
 - The way data items are ordered or indexed does not matter.
 - Model is unaffected by existence of additional unobserved data items, e.g. test items.
 - To predict *m* additional test items, we would need

$$P(x_1,...,x_n, x_{n+1},...,x_{n+m})$$

- If model is not infinitely exchangeable, predictive probabilities will be different for different values of *m*.
- There are scenarios where infinite exchangeability is suitable or unsuitable.

Exchangeability in Bayesian Statistics

- Fundamental role of de Finetti's Theorem in Bayesian statistics:
 - From an assumption of exchangeability, we get a representation as a Bayesian model with a prior over the latent parameter.

$$P(x_1, ..., x_n) = \int P(G) \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i|G) dG$$

- Generalizing infinitely exchangeable sequences lead to Bayesian models for richly structured data. E.g.,
 - exchangeability in network and relational data.
 - hierarchical exchangeability in hierarchical Bayesian models.
 - Markov exchangeability in sequence data.