# Dirichlet Processes: Tutorial and Practical Course (updated)

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#### Applications

- 2 Dirichlet Processes
- 3 Representations of Dirichlet Processes
  - 4 Modelling Data with Dirichlet Processes
  - 5 Practical Course

#### Applications

- 2 Dirichlet Processes
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#### 5 Practical Course

### **Function Estimation**

- Parametric function estimation (e.g. regression, classification)
   Data: **x** = {x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, ...}, **y** = {y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>, ...}
   Model: y<sub>i</sub> = f(x<sub>i</sub>|w) + N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>)
- Prior over parameters

p(w)

Posterior over parameters

$$p(w|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = rac{p(w)p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},w)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}$$

Prediction with posteriors

$$p(y_{\star}|x_{\star},\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \int p(y_{\star}|x_{\star},w)p(w|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})\,dw$$

### **Function Estimation**

- Bayesian nonparametric function estimation with Gaussian processes Data: **x** = {x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>,...}, **y** = {y<sub>1</sub>, y<sub>2</sub>,...} Model: y<sub>i</sub> = f(x<sub>i</sub>) + N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>)
- Prior over functions

$$f \sim \mathsf{GP}(\mu, \Sigma)$$

Posterior over functions

$$p(f|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = rac{p(f)p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, f)}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})}$$

Prediction with posteriors

$$p(y_{\star}|x_{\star},\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \int p(y_{\star}|x_{\star},f)p(f|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) df$$

### **Function Estimation**



Figure from Carl's lecture.

- Parametric density estimation (e.g. Gaussian, mixture models)
   Data: x = {x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, ...}
   Model: x<sub>i</sub>|w ~ F(·|w)
- Prior over parameters

p(w)

• Posterior over parameters

$$p(w|\mathbf{x}) = rac{p(w)p(\mathbf{x}|w)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Prediction with posteriors

$$p(x_*|\mathbf{x}) = \int p(x_*|w)p(w|\mathbf{x}) \, dw$$

- Bayesian nonparametric density estimation with Dirichlet processes
   Data: **x** = {*x*<sub>1</sub>, *x*<sub>2</sub>,...}
   Model: *x<sub>i</sub>* ~ *F*
- Prior over distributions

$$F \sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha, H)$$

Posterior over distributions

$$p(F|\mathbf{x}) = rac{p(F)p(\mathbf{x}|F)}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

Prediction with posteriors

$$p(x_{\star}|\mathbf{x}) = \int p(x_{\star}|F)p(F|\mathbf{x}) \, dF = \int F'(x_{\star})p(F|\mathbf{x}) \, dF$$

• Not quite correct; see later.

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#### Prior:



Red: mean density. Blue: median density. Grey: 5-95 quantile. Others: draws.

#### Posterior:



Red: mean density. Blue: median density. Grey: 5-95 quantile. Black: data. Others: draws.

• Linear regression model for inferring effectiveness of new medical treatments.

$$\mathbf{y}_{ij} = \boldsymbol{\beta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{ij} + \mathbf{b}_i^{\top} \mathbf{z}_{ij} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{ij}$$

*y<sub>ij</sub>* is outcome of *j*th trial on *i*th subject.

*x<sub>ij</sub>*, *z<sub>ij</sub>* are predictors (treatment, dosage, age, health...).

 $\beta$  are fixed-effects coefficients.

*b<sub>i</sub>* are random-effects subject-specific coefficients.

 $\epsilon_{ij}$  are noise terms.

• Care about inferring  $\beta$ . If  $x_{ij}$  is treatment, we want to determine  $p(\beta > 0 | \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ .

### Semiparametric Modelling

$$\mathbf{y}_{ij} = \beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{ij} + \mathbf{b}_i^{\top} \mathbf{z}_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij}$$

- Usually we assume Gaussian noise ε<sub>ij</sub> ~ N(0, σ<sup>2</sup>). Is this a sensible prior? Over-dispersion, skewness,...
- May be better to model noise nonparametrically,

$$\epsilon_{ij} \sim F$$
  
 $F \sim \mathsf{DP}$ 

 Also possible to model subject-specific random effects nonparametrically,

$$b_i \sim G$$
  
 $G \sim \mathsf{DP}$ 

• Data: 
$$\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots\}$$
  
Models:  $p(\theta_k | M_k), p(\mathbf{x} | \theta_k, M_k)$ 

• Marginal likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{x}|M_k) = \int p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k, M_k) p(\theta_k|M_k) \, d\theta_k$$

Model selection

$$M = \operatorname*{argmax}_{M_k} p(\mathbf{x}|M_k)$$

Model averaging

$$p(x_{\star}|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{M_{k}} p(x_{\star}|M_{k}) p(M_{k}|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{M_{k}} p(x_{\star}|M_{k}) \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|M_{k})p(M_{k})}{p(\mathbf{x})}$$

But: is this computationally feasible?

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But: is this computationally feasible?

• Marginal likelihood is usually extremely hard to compute.

$$p(\mathbf{x}|M_k) = \int p(\mathbf{x}|\theta_k, M_k) p(\theta_k|M_k) \, d\theta_k$$

- Model selection/averaging is to prevent underfitting and overfitting.
- But reasonable and proper Bayesian methods should not overfit [Rasmussen and Ghahramani 2001].
- Use a really large model  $M_{\infty}$  instead, and let the data speak for themselves.

#### Clustering

#### How many clusters are there?



#### **Topic Modelling**

#### How many topics are there?



#### [Blei et al. 2004, Teh et al. 2006]

Yee Whye Teh (Gatsby)

How many grammar symbols are there?



Figure from Liang. [Liang et al. 2007b, Finkel et al. 2007]

Visual Scene Analysis

How many objects, parts, features?



Figure from Sudderth. [Sudderth et al. 2007]

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• A finite mixture model is defined as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} \theta_k^* \sim H \\ \pi \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha/K, \dots, \alpha/K) \\ z_i | \pi \sim \mathsf{Discrete}(\pi) \\ x_i | \theta_{z_i}^* \sim F(\cdot | \theta_{z_i}^*) \end{array}$$

- Model selection/averaging over:
  - Hyperparameters in H.
  - Dirichlet parameter  $\alpha$ .
  - Number of components K.
- Determining K hardest.



### Infinite Mixture Models

- Imagine that  $K \gg 0$  is really large.
- If parameters θ<sup>\*</sup><sub>k</sub> and mixing proportions π integrated out, the number of latent variables left does not grow with K—no overfitting.
- At most *n* components will be associated with data, aka "active".
- Usually, the number of active components is much less than *n*.
- This gives an infinite mixture model.
- Demo: dpm\_demo2d
- Issue 1: can we take this limit  $K \to \infty$ ?
- Issue 2: what is the corresponding limiting model?



#### [Rasmussen 2000]

• A Gaussian process (GP) is a distribution over functions

#### $f:\mathbb{X}\mapsto\mathbb{R}$

- Denote  $f \sim GP$  if f is a GP-distributed random function.
- For any finite set of input points  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , we require  $(f(x_1), \ldots, f(x_n))$  to be a multivariate Gaussian.

• The GP is parametrized by its mean *m*(*x*) and covariance *c*(*x*, *y*) functions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left( \begin{bmatrix} m(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ m(x_n) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} c(x_1, x_1) & \dots & c(x_1, x_n) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c(x_n, x_1) & \dots & c(x_n, x_n) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

- The above are finite dimensional marginal distributions of the GP.
- A salient property of these marginal distributions is that they are consistent: integrating out variables preserves the parametric form of the marginal distributions above.

Visualizing Gaussian Processes.

A sequence of input points x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, x<sub>3</sub>,... dense in X.

Draw

```
f(x_1) 
f(x_2) | f(x_1) 
f(x_3) | f(x_1), f(x_2) 
\vdots
```

- Each conditional distribution is Gaussian since (f(x<sub>1</sub>),..., f(x<sub>n</sub>)) is Gaussian.
- Demo: GPgenerate

Start with Dirichlet distributions.

• A Dirichlet distribution is a distribution over the *K*-dimensional probability simplex:

$$\Delta_{\mathcal{K}} = \left\{ (\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_{\mathcal{K}}) : \pi_k \ge \mathbf{0}, \sum_k \pi_k = \mathbf{1} \right\}$$

• We say  $(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_K)$  is Dirichlet distributed,

 $(\pi_1,\ldots,\pi_K) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1,\ldots,\alpha_K)$ 

with parameters  $(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_K)$ , if

$$\boldsymbol{\rho}(\pi_1,\ldots,\pi_K)=\frac{\boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\sum_k\alpha_k)}{\prod_k\boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\alpha_k)}\prod_{k=1}^n\pi_k^{\alpha_k-1}$$

#### **Dirichlet Processes**

#### Examples of Dirichlet distributions.



Agglomerative property of Dirichlet distributions.

 Combining entries of probability vectors preserves Dirichlet property, for example:

$$(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K)$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \qquad (\pi_1 + \pi_2, \pi_3, \dots, \pi_K) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_K)$$

• Generally, if  $(I_1, \ldots, I_j)$  is a partition of  $(1, \ldots, n)$ :

$$\left(\sum_{i \in I_1} \pi_i, \dots, \sum_{i \in I_j} \pi_i\right) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}\left(\sum_{i \in I_1} \alpha_i, \dots, \sum_{i \in I_j} \alpha_i\right)$$

Decimative property of Dirichlet distributions.

• The converse of the agglomerative property is also true, for example if:

$$(\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_K)$$
  
 $(\tau_1, \tau_2) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1 \beta_1, \alpha_1 \beta_2)$ 

with  $\beta_1 + \beta_2 = 1$ ,

 $\Rightarrow \quad (\pi_1\tau_1, \pi_1\tau_2, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_K) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1\beta_1, \alpha_2\beta_2, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_K)$ 

• A Dirichlet process (DP) is an "infinitely decimated" Dirichlet distribution:

$$1 \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha)$$

$$(\pi_1, \pi_2) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/2, \alpha/2) \qquad \pi_1 + \pi_2 = 1$$

$$(\pi_{11}, \pi_{12}, \pi_{21}, \pi_{22}) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha/4, \alpha/4, \alpha/4, \alpha/4) \qquad \pi_{i1} + \pi_{i2} = \pi_i$$

$$\vdots$$

- Each decimation step involves drawing from a Beta distribution (a Dirichlet with 2 components) and multiplying into the relevant entry.
- Demo: DPgenerate

- A probability measure is a function from subsets of a space X to [0, 1] satisfying certain properties.
- A Dirichlet Process (DP) is a distribution over probability measures.
- Denote  $G \sim DP$  if G is a DP-distributed random probability measure.
- For any finite set of partitions  $A_1 \dot{\cup} \dots \dot{\cup} A_K = \mathbb{X}$ , we require  $(G(A_1), \dots, G(A_K))$  to be Dirichlet distributed.



Parameters of the Dirichlet Process

- A DP has two parameters:
  - Base distribution *H*, which is like the *mean* of the DP.
  - Strength parameter  $\alpha$ , which is like an *inverse-variance* of the DP.
- We write:

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

if for any partition  $(A_1, \ldots, A_K)$  of  $\mathbb{X}$ :

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

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• The first two cumulants of the DP:

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

where A is any measurable subset of X.
- A probability measure is a function from subsets of a space X to [0, 1] satisfying certain properties.
- A DP is a distribution over probability measures such that marginals on finite partitions are Dirichlet distributed.
- How do we know that such an object exists?!?
- Kolmogorov Consistency Theorem: [Ferguson 1973].
- de Finetti's Theorem: Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme, Chinese restaurant process, [Blackwell and MacQueen 1973, Aldous 1985].
- Stick-breaking Construction: [Sethuraman 1994].
- Gamma Process: [Ferguson 1973].

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Representations of Dirichlet Processes

Suppose G ~ DP(α, H). G is a (random) probability measure over X.
 We can treat it as a distribution over X. Let

 $\theta_1,\ldots,\theta_n\sim \textbf{\textit{G}}$ 

#### be a random variable with distribution G.

• We saw in the demo that draws from a Dirichlet process seem to be discrete distributions. If so, then:

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

and there is positive probability that  $\theta_i$ 's can take on the same value  $\theta_k^*$  for some *k*, i.e. the  $\theta_i$ 's cluster together.

 In this section we are concerned with representations of Dirichlet processes based upon both the clustering property and the sum of point masses. Suppose G ~ DP(α, H). G is a (random) probability measure over X.
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 In this section we are concerned with representations of Dirichlet processes based upon both the clustering property and the sum of point masses. Sampling from a Dirichlet Process

• Suppose *G* is Dirichlet process distributed:

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

• *G* is a (random) probability measure over X. We can treat it as a distribution over X. Let

 $\theta \sim G$ 

be a random variable with distribution G.

• We are interested in:

$$egin{aligned} p( heta) &= \int p( heta|G) p(G) \, dG \ p(G| heta) &= rac{p( heta|G) p(G)}{p( heta)} \end{aligned}$$

Conjugacy between Dirichlet Distribution and Multinomial

• Consider:

$$(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_K) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_K)$$
  
 $Z|(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_K) \sim \text{Discrete}(\pi_1, \ldots, \pi_K)$ 

*z* is a multinomial variate, taking on value  $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$  with probability  $\pi_i$ .

Then:

$$egin{aligned} & z \sim \mathsf{Discrete}\left(rac{lpha_1}{\sum_i lpha_i}, \dots, rac{lpha_K}{\sum_i lpha_i}
ight) \ & (\pi_1, \dots, \pi_K) | z \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(lpha_1 + \delta_1(z), \dots, lpha_K + \delta_K(z)) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\delta_i(z) = 1$  if z takes on value *i*, 0 otherwise.

Converse also true.

• Fix a partition 
$$(A_1, \ldots, A_K)$$
 of X. Then  
 $(G(A_1), \ldots, G(A_K)) \sim \text{Dirichlet}(\alpha H(A_1), \ldots, \alpha H(A_K))$   
 $P(\theta \in A_i | G) = G(A_i)$ 

Using Dirichlet-multinomial conjugacy,

 $\mathsf{P}(\theta \in \mathsf{A}_i) = \mathsf{H}(\mathsf{A}_i)$ 

 $(G(A_1),\ldots,G(A_K))|\theta \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}(\alpha H(A_1)+\delta_{\theta}(A_1),\ldots,\alpha H(A_K)+\delta_{\theta}(A_K))$ 

• The above is true for every finite partition of X. In particular, taking a really fine partition,

$$p(\theta)d\theta = H(d\theta)$$

$$G| heta \sim \mathsf{DP}\left(lpha + \mathsf{1}, rac{lpha H + \delta_ heta}{lpha + \mathsf{1}}
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$$p(\theta)d\theta = H(d\theta)$$

$$m{G} | m{ heta} \sim \mathsf{DP}\left( lpha + \mathsf{1}, rac{lpha m{H} + \delta_{ heta}}{lpha + \mathsf{1}} 
ight)$$

• First sample:

 $egin{array}{l} heta_1 | m{G} \sim m{G} \ heta_1 \sim m{H} \end{array}$ 

 $egin{aligned} G &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha, \mathcal{H}) \ & \mathcal{G} | heta_1 &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha+1, rac{lpha \mathcal{H}+\delta_{ heta_1}}{lpha+1}) \end{aligned}$ 

• Second sample:  $\theta_2|\theta_1, G \sim G$  $\iff \theta_2|\theta_1 \sim \frac{\alpha H + \delta_{\theta_1}}{\alpha + 1}$ 

$$\begin{split} G|\theta_1 \sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha+1,\frac{\alpha H+\delta_{\theta_1}}{\alpha+1})\\ G|\theta_1,\theta_2 \sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha+2,\frac{\alpha H+\delta_{\theta_1}+\delta_{\theta_2}}{\alpha+2}) \end{split}$$

• n<sup>th</sup> sample

 $\begin{array}{l} \theta_n | \theta_{1:n-1}, \, G \sim G \\ \Leftrightarrow \quad \theta_n | \theta_{1:n-1} \sim \frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha + n - 1} \end{array}$ 

$$\begin{split} G|\theta_{1:n-1} &\sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha + n - 1, \frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha + n - 1})\\ G|\theta_{1:n} &\sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha + n, \frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha + n}) \end{split}$$

• First sample:

$$\begin{split} \theta_1 | \boldsymbol{G} &\sim \boldsymbol{G} & \boldsymbol{G} &\sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha, \boldsymbol{H}) \\ \theta_1 &\sim \boldsymbol{H} & \boldsymbol{G} | \theta_1 &\sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha + 1, \frac{\alpha \boldsymbol{H} + \delta_{\theta_1}}{\alpha + 1}) \end{split}$$

• Second sample:  

$$\theta_2|\theta_1, G \sim G$$
  
 $\iff \theta_2|\theta_1 \sim \frac{\alpha H + \delta_{\theta_1}}{\alpha + 1}$ 

$$egin{aligned} G| heta_1 &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha+1,rac{lpha H+\delta_{ heta_1}}{lpha+1})\ G| heta_1, heta_2 &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha+2,rac{lpha H+\delta_{ heta_1}+\delta_{ heta_2}}{lpha+2}) \end{aligned}$$

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 Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme produces a sequence θ<sub>1</sub>, θ<sub>2</sub>,... with the following conditionals:

$$\theta_n | \theta_{1:n-1} \sim \frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha + n - 1}$$

- Picking balls of different colors from an urn:
  - Start with no balls in the urn.
  - with probability  $\propto \alpha$ , draw  $\theta_n \sim H$ , and add a ball of that color into the urn.
  - With probability  $\propto n 1$ , pick a ball at random from the urn, record  $\theta_n$  to be its color, return the ball into the urn and place a second ball of same color into urn.
- Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme is like a "representer" for the DP—a finite projection of an infinite object.

- Starting with a DP, we constructed Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme.
- The reverse is possible using de Finetti's Theorem.
- Since θ<sub>i</sub> are iid ~ G, their joint distribution is invariant to permutations, thus θ<sub>1</sub>, θ<sub>2</sub>,... are exchangeable.
- Thus a distribution over measures must exist making them iid.
- This is the DP.

- Draw  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n$  from a Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme.
- They take on K < n distinct values, say  $\theta_1^*, \ldots, \theta_K^*$ .
- This defines a partition of 1,..., *n* into *K* clusters, such that if *i* is in cluster *k*, then θ<sub>i</sub> = θ<sup>\*</sup><sub>k</sub>.
- Random draws θ<sub>1</sub>,..., θ<sub>n</sub> from a Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme induces a random partition of 1,..., n.
- The induced distribution over partitions is a Chinese restaurant process (CRP).

- Generating from the CRP:
  - First customer sits at the first table.
  - Customer n sits at:
    - Table *k* with probability  $\frac{n_k}{\alpha+n-1}$  where  $n_k$  is the number of customers at table *k*.
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  - Customers  $\Leftrightarrow$  integers, tables  $\Leftrightarrow$  clusters.
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 To get back from the CRP to Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme, simply draw

$$\theta_k^* \sim H$$

for  $k = 1, \ldots, K$ , then for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$  set

$$\theta_i = \theta_z^*$$

where  $z_i$  is the table that customer *i* sat at.

 The CRP teases apart the clustering property of the DP, from the base distribution.

#### Returning to the posterior process:

• Consider a partition  $(\theta, X \setminus \theta)$  of X. We have:

 $(G(\theta), G(\mathbb{X} \setminus \theta)) \sim \mathsf{Dirichlet}((\alpha + 1) \frac{\alpha H + \delta_{\theta}}{\alpha + 1}(\theta), (\alpha + 1) \frac{\alpha H + \delta_{\theta}}{\alpha + 1}(\mathbb{X} \setminus \theta))$ = Dirichlet(1, \alpha)

• *G* has a point mass located at  $\theta$ :

$$G = \beta \delta_{\theta} + (1 - \beta)G'$$
 with  $\beta \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha)$ 

and G' is the (renormalized) probability measure with the point mass removed.

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• Currently, we have:

$$egin{aligned} G &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha, \mathcal{H}) \ heta &\sim \mathcal{G} \end{aligned} &\Rightarrow & egin{aligned} G &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha+1, rac{lpha \mathcal{H}+\delta_ heta}{lpha+1}) \ G &= eta \delta_ heta + (1-eta) \mathcal{G}' \ heta &\sim \mathcal{H} \ eta &\sim \mathcal{H} \ eta &\sim \mathsf{Beta}(1, lpha) \end{aligned}$$

• Consider a further partition  $(\theta, A_1, \ldots, A_K)$  of X:

$$(G(\theta), G(A_1), \dots, G(A_K)) = (\beta, (1-\beta)G'(A_1), \dots, (1-\beta)G'(A_K))$$

The agglomerative/decimative property of Dirichlet implies:
 (G'(A<sub>1</sub>),...,G'(A<sub>K</sub>)) ~ Dirichlet(αH(A<sub>1</sub>),...,αH(A<sub>K</sub>))
 G' ~ DP(α, H)

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• We have:

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

$$G = \beta_1 \delta_{\theta_1^*} + (1 - \beta_1) G_1$$

$$G = \beta_1 \delta_{\theta_1^*} + (1 - \beta_1) (\beta_2 \delta_{\theta_2^*} + (1 - \beta_2) G_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

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

where

$$\pi_k = \beta_k \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (1 - \beta_i) \qquad \beta_k \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha) \qquad \theta_k^* \sim H$$

- This is the stick-breaking construction.
- Demo: SBgenerate

- Starting with a DP, we showed that draws from the DP looks like a sum of point masses, with masses drawn from a stick-breaking construction.
- The steps are limited by assumptions of regularity on X and smoothness on *H*.
- [Sethuraman 1994] started with the stick-breaking construction, and showed that draws are indeed DP distributed, under very general conditions.

## **Dirichlet Processes**

Representations of Dirichlet Processes

• Posterior Dirichlet process:

• Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme:

$$\theta_n | \theta_{1:n-1} \sim \frac{\alpha H + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \delta_{\theta_i}}{\alpha + n - 1}$$

• Chinese restaurant process:

$$p(\text{customer } n \text{ sat at table } k|\text{past}) = \begin{cases} \frac{n_k}{n-1+\alpha} & \text{if occupied table} \\ \frac{\alpha}{n-1+\alpha} & \text{if new table} \end{cases}$$

• Stick-breaking construction:

$$\pi_k = \beta_k \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} (1 - \beta_i) \qquad \beta_k \sim \text{Beta}(1, \alpha) \qquad \theta_k^* \sim H \qquad G = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$$

# Applications

- 2 Dirichlet Processes
- 3 Representations of Dirichlet Processes
- 4 Modelling Data with Dirichlet Processes

#### 5 Practical Course
#### **Density Estimation**

Recall our approach to density estimation with Dirichlet processes:

- The above does not work. Why?
- Problem: G is a discrete distribution; in particular it has no density!
- Solution: Convolve the DP with a smooth distribution:

Recall our approach to density estimation with Dirichlet processes:

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- Solution: Convolve the DP with a smooth distribution:

$$G \sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha, H) \qquad G = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*}$$
$$F_x(\cdot) = \int F(\cdot|\theta) dG(\theta) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad F_x(\cdot) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k F(\cdot|\theta_k^*)$$
$$x_i \sim F_x$$

## Clustering

• Recall our approach to density estimation:

$$G = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k \delta_{\theta_k^*} \sim \mathsf{DP}(\alpha, H)$$
$$F_x(\cdot) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \pi_k F(\cdot | \theta_k^*)$$
$$x_i \sim F_x$$

Above model equivalent to:

$$egin{aligned} & z_i \sim \mathsf{Discrete}(\pi) \ & heta_i = heta_{z_i}^* \ & x_i | z_i \sim F(\cdot | heta_i) = F(\cdot | heta_{z_i}^*) \end{aligned}$$

• This is simply a mixture model with an infinite number of components. This is called a DP mixture model.

## Clustering

- DP mixture models are used in a variety of clustering applications, where the number of clusters is not known a priori.
- They are also used in applications in which we believe the number of clusters grows without bound as the amount of data grows.
- DPs have also found uses in applications beyond clustering, where the number of latent objects is not known or unbounded.
  - Nonparametric probabilistic context free grammars.
  - Visual scene analysis.
  - Infinite hidden Markov models/trees.
  - Haplotype inference.
  - ...
- In many such applications it is important to be able to model the same set of objects in different contexts.
- This corresponds to the problem of grouped clustering and can be tackled using hierarchical Dirichlet processes.

[Teh et al. 2006]

## **Grouped Clustering**



## **Grouped Clustering**



• Hierarchical Dirichlet process:

$$egin{aligned} G_0 | \gamma, \mathcal{H} &\sim \mathsf{DP}(\gamma, \mathcal{H}) \ G_j | lpha, G_0 &\sim \mathsf{DP}(lpha, G_0) \ heta_{ji} | G_j &\sim G_j \end{aligned}$$



#### **Hierarchical Dirichlet Processes**



- Dirichlet process is "just" a glorified Dirichlet distribution.
- Draws from a DP are probability measures consisting of a weighted sum of point masses.
- Many representations: Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme, Chinese restaurant process, stick-breaking construction.
- DP mixture models are mixture models with countably infinite number of components.
- I have not delved into:
  - Applications.
  - Generalizations, extensions, other nonparametric processes.
  - Inference: MCMC sampling, variational approximation.

• Also see the tutorial material from Ghaharamani, Jordan and Tresp.

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#### **Bayesian Nonparametrics**

- Parametric models can only capture a bounded amount of information from data, since they have bounded complexity.
- Real data is often complex and the parametric assumption is often wrong.
- Nonparametric models allow relaxation of the parametric assumption, bringing significant flexibility to our models of the world.
- Nonparametric models can also often lead to model selection/averaging behaviours without the cost of actually doing model selection/averaging.
- Nonparametric models are gaining popularity, spurred by growth in computational resources and inference algorithms.
- In addition to DPs, HDPs and their generalizations, other nonparametric models include Indian buffet processes, beta processes, tree processes...

#### [Tutorials at Workshop on Bayesian Nonparametric Regression, Isaac Newton Institute, Cambridge, July 2007]

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#### Applications

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- 3 Representations of Dirichlet Processes
- 4 Modelling Data with Dirichlet Processes

#### 5 Practical Course

- Before using DPs, it is important to understand its properties, so that we understand what prior assumptions we are imposing on our models.
- In this practical course we shall work towards implementing a DP mixture model to cluster NIPS papers, thus the relevant properties are the clustering properties of the DP.

• Consider the Chinese restaurant process representation of DPs:

- First customer sits at the first table.
- Customer *n* sits at:
  - Table *k* with probability  $\frac{n_k}{\alpha+n-1}$  where  $n_k$  is the number of customers at table *k*.
  - A new table K + 1 with probability  $\frac{\alpha}{\alpha + n 1}$ .
- How does number of clusters K scale as a function of α and of n (on average)?
- How does the number n<sub>k</sub> of customers sitting around table k depend on k and n (on average)?

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- Sometimes the assumptions embedded in using DPs to model data are inappropriate.
- The Pitman-Yor process is a generalization of the DP that often has more appropriate properties.
- It has two parameters: *d* and *α* with 0 ≤ *d* < 1 and *α* > −*d*.
  When *d* = 0 the Pitman-Yor process reduces to a DP.
- It also has a Chinese restaurant process representation:
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• We model a data set  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  using the following model:

 $\begin{aligned} & \boldsymbol{G} \sim \mathsf{DP}(\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{H}) \\ & \theta_i | \boldsymbol{G} \sim \boldsymbol{G} \\ & \boldsymbol{x}_i | \theta_i \sim \boldsymbol{F}(\cdot | \theta_i) \end{aligned} \qquad \qquad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned}$ 

- Each θ<sub>i</sub> is a latent parameter modelling x<sub>i</sub>, while G is the unknown distribution over parameters modelled using a DP.
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Infinite Limit of Finite Mixture Models

- Different representations lead to different inference algorithms for DP mixture models.
- The most common are based on the Chinese restaurant process and on the stick-breaking construction.
- Here we shall work with the Chinese restaurant process representation, which, incidentally, can also be derived as the infinite limit of finite mixture models.
- A finite mixture model is defined as follows:

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$$p(z_i = k | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}) \propto p(z_i = k | \mathbf{z}_{\neg i}) p(x_i | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}_k^{\neg i})$$
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#### Aside: Markov Chain Monte Carlo Sampling

 Markov chain Monte Carlo sampling is a dominant and diverse family of inference algorithms for probabilistic models. Here we are interested in obtaining samples from the posterior:

$$\mathbf{z}^{(s)} \sim p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{ heta}^*, \pi|\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{ heta}^* d\pi$$

- The basic idea is to construct a sequence z<sup>(1)</sup>, z<sup>(2)</sup>,... so that for large enough *t*, z<sup>(t)</sup> will be an (approximate) sample from the posterior p(z|x).
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• An exponential family of distributions is parametrized as:

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• The conjugate prior is an exponential family distribution over  $\theta$ :  $p(\theta) = \exp\left(t(\theta)^{\top}\nu - \eta\psi(\theta) - \xi(\nu,\eta)\right)$ 

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Back to Collapsed Gibbs Sampling in Finite Mixture Models

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Integrating out both π and θ<sup>\*</sup><sub>k</sub>'s, the Gibbs sampling conditional distributions for z are:

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### Demo: fm\_demo2d

Back to Collapsed Gibbs Sampling in Finite Mixture Models

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### Taking the Infinite Limit

### • Imagine that $K \gg 0$ is really large.

• Only a few components will be "active" (i.e. with *n<sub>k</sub>* > 0), while most are "inactive".

$$p(z_i = k | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}) \propto \begin{cases} (n_k^{\neg i} + \alpha/K) p(x_i | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}_k^{\neg i}) & \text{if } k \text{ active}; \\ (\alpha/K) p(x_i) & \text{if } k \text{ inactive}. \end{cases}$$

$$p(z_i = k \text{ active} | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}) \propto (n_k^{\neg i} + \alpha/K) p(x_i | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}_k^{\neg i}) \\ \approx n_k^{\neg i} p(x_i | \mathbf{z}^{\neg i}, \mathbf{x}_k^{\neg i}) \end{cases}$$

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• This gives an inference algorithm for DP mixture models in Chinese restaurant process representation.

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• Rearrange mixture component indices so that 1,..., *K*<sub>active</sub> are active, and the rest are inactive.

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# **Clustering NIPS Papers**

- I have prepared a small subset of NIPS papers for you to try clustering them.
- We concentrate on a small subset of papers, and a small subset of "informative" words.
- Each paper is represented as a bag-of-words. Paper *i* is represented by a vector **x**<sub>i</sub> = (x<sub>i1</sub>,..., x<sub>iW</sub>):

 $x_{iw} = c$  if word *w* occurs *c* times in paper *i*.

• Model papers in cluster k using a Multinomial distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_i|\theta_k^*) = \frac{(\sum_W x_{iW})!}{\prod_W x_{iW}!} \prod_W (\theta_{kW}^*)^{x_{iW}}$$

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 Specifically b<sub>w</sub> = b/W for some b > 0.

• The model:

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H = \text{Dirichlet}(b/W, \dots, b/W)G \sim \text{DP}(\alpha, H)\theta_i \sim G\mathbf{x}_i \sim \text{Multinomial}(n_i, \theta_i)
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- Sensitivity analysis is about determining how much our inference conclusions depend on the setting of the model priors.
- If our conclusions depend strongly on the priors which we don't trust very much, then we cannot trust our conclusions either.
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- We explored some properties of the Dirichlet process.
- We implemented a Dirichlet process mixture model.
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Dirichlet Processes were first introduced by [Ferguson 1973], while [Antoniak 1974] further developed DPs as well as introduce the mixture of DPs. [Blackwell and MacQueen 1973] showed that the Blackwell-MacQueen urn scheme is exchangeable with the DP being its de Finetti measure. Further information on the Chinese restaurant process can be obtained at [Aldous 1985, Pitman 2002]. The DP is also related to Ewens' Sampling Formula [Ewens 1972]. [Sethuraman 1994] gave a constructive definition of the DP via a stick-breaking construction. DPs were rediscovered in the machine learning community by [P, Rasmussen 2000].

Hierarchical Dirichlet Processes (HDPs) were first developed by [Teh et al. 2006], although an aspect of the model was first discussed in the context of infinite hidden Markov models [Beal et al. 2002]. HDPs and generalizations have been applied across a wide variety of fields.

Dependent Dirichlet Processes are sets of coupled distributions over probability measures, each of which is marginally DP [MacEachern et al. 2001]. A variety of dependent DPs have been proposed in the literature since then [Srebro and Roweis 2005, Griffin 2007, Caron et al. 2007]. The infinite mixture of Gaussian processes of [Rasmussen and Ghahramani 2002] can also be interpreted as a dependent DP.

Indian Buffet Processes (IBPs) were first proposed in [Griffiths and Ghahramani 2006], and extended to a two-parameter family in [Griffiths et al. 2007b]. [Thibaux and Jordan 2007] showed that the de Finetti measure for the IBP is the beta process of [Hjort 1990], while [Teh et al. 2007] gave a stick-breaking construction and developed efficient slice sampling inference algorithms for the IBP.

Nonparametric Tree Models are models that use distributions over trees that are consistent and exchangeable. [Blei et al. 2004] used a nested CRP to define distributions over trees with a finite number of levels. [Neal 2001, Neal 2003] defined Dirichlet diffusion trees, which are binary trees produced by a fragmentation process. [Teh et al. 2008] used Kingman's coalescent [Kingman 1982b, Kingman 1982a] to produce random binary trees using a coalescent process. [Roy et al. 2007] proposed annotated hierarchies, using tree-consistent partitions first defined in [Heller and Ghahramani 2005] to model both relational and featural data.

Markov chain Monte Carlo Inference algorithms are the dominant approaches to inference in DP mixtures. [Neal 2000] is a good review of algorithms based on Gibbs sampling in the CRP representation. Algorithm 8 in [Neal 2000] is still one of the best algorithms based on simple local moves. [Ishwaran and James 2001] proposed blocked Gibbs sampling in the stick-breaking representation instead due to the simplicity in implementation. This has been further explored in [Porteous et al. 2006]. Since

then there has been proposals for better MCMC samplers based on proposing larger moves in a Metropolis-Hastings framework [Jain and Neal 2004, Liang et al. 2007a], as well as sequential Monte Carlo [Fearnhead 2004, Mansingkha et al. 2007]. Other Approximate Inference Methods have also been proposed for DP mixture models. [Blei and Jordan 2006] is the first variational Bayesian approximation, and is based on a truncated stick-breaking representation. [Kurihara et al. 2007] proposed an improved VB approximation based on a better truncation technique, and using KD-trees for extremely efficient inference in large scale applications. [Kurihara et al. 2007] studied improved VB approximations based on integrating out the stick-breaking weights. [Minka and Ghahramani 2003] derived an expectation propagation based algorithm. [Heller and Ghahramani 2005] derived tree-based approximation which can be seen as a Bayesian hierarchical clustering algorithm. [Daume III 2007] developed admissible search heuristics to find MAP clusterings in a DP mixture model.

#### Computer Vision and Image Processing. HDPs have been used in object tracking

[Fox et al. 2006, Fox et al. 2007b, Fox et al. 2007a]. An extension called the transformed Dirichlet process has been used in scene analysis [Sudderth et al. 2006b, Sudderth et al. 2007b, a related extension has been used in fMRI image analysis [Kim and Smyth 2007, Kim 2007]. An extension of the infinite hidden Markov model called the nonparametric hidden Markov tree has been introduced and applied to image denoising [Kivinen et al. 2007].

Natural Language Processing. HDPs are essential ingredients in defining nonparametric context free grammars [Liang et al. 2007b, Finkel et al. 2007]. [Johnson et al. 2007] defined adaptor grammars, which is a framework generalizing both probabilistic context free grammars as well as a variety of nonparametric models including DPs and HDPs. DPs and HDPs have been used in information retrieval [Cowans 2004], word segmentation [Goldwater et al. 2006b], word morphology modelling [Goldwater et al. 2006a], coreference resolution [Haghighi and Klein 2007], topic modelling

[Blei et al. 2004, Teh et al. 2006, Li et al. 2007]. An extension of the HDP called the hierarchical Pitman-Yor process has been applied to language modelling [Teh 2006a, Teh 2006b, Goldwater et al. 2006a].[Savova et al. 2007] used annotated hierarchies to construct syntactic hierarchies. Theses on nonparametric methods in NLP include [Cowans 2006, Goldwater 2006].

Other Applications. Applications of DPs, HDPs and infinite HMMs in bioinformatics include

[Xing et al. 2004, Xing et al. 2006, Xing et al. 2007, Xing and Sohn 2007a, Xing and Sohn 2007b]. DPs have been applied in relational learning [Shafto et al. 2006, Kemp et al. 2006, Xu et al. 2006], spike sorting [Wood et al. 2006a, Görür 2007]. The HDP has been used in a cognitive model of categorization [Griffiths et al. 2007a]. IBPs have been applied to infer hidden causes [Wood et al. 2006b], in a choice model [Görür et al. 2006], to modelling dyadic data [Meeds et al. 2007], to overlapping clustering [Heller and Ghahramani 2007], and to matrix factorization [Wood and Griffiths 2006].

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