CSC 412 (Lecture 4): Undirected Graphical Models

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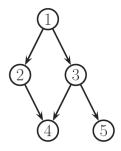
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Undirected Graphical Models:

- Semantics of the graph: conditional independence
- Parameterization
 - Clique
 - Potentials
 - Gibbs Distribution
 - Partition function
 - Hammersley-Clifford Theorem
- Factor Graphs
- Learning

Directed Graphical Models

- Represent large joint distribution using "local" relationships specified by the graph
- Each random variable is a node
- The edges specify the statistical dependencies
- We have seen directed acyclic graphs



Directed Acyclic Graphs

• Represent distribution of the form

$$p(y_1,\cdots,y_N)=\prod_i p(y_i|y_{\pi_i})$$

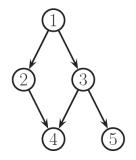
with π_i the parents of the node i

- Factorizes in terms of local conditional probabilities
- Each node has to maintain $p(y_i|y_{\pi_i})$
- Each variable is CI of its non-descendants given its parents

 $\{y_i \perp y_{\tilde{\pi}_i} | y_{\pi_i}\} \quad \forall i$

with $y_{\tilde{\pi}_i}$ the nodes before y_i that are not its parents

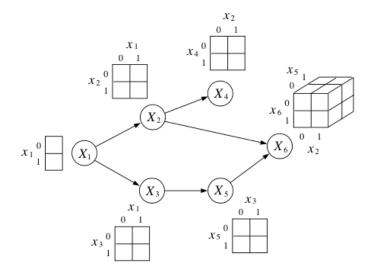
- Such an ordering is a "topological" ordering (i.e., parents have lower numbers than their children)
- Missing edges imply conditional independence



What's the joint probability distribution?

Internal Representation

• For discrete variables, each node stores a conditional probability table (CPT)



Are DGM Always Useful?

- Not always clear how to choose the direction for the edges
- Example: Modeling dependencies in an image

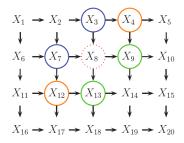


Figure : Causal MRF or a Markov mesh

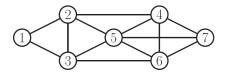
- Unnatural conditional independence, e.g., see Markov Blanket mb(8) = {3,7} ∪ {9,13} ∪ {12,4}, parents, children and co-parents
- Alternative: Undirected Graphical models (UGMs)

Undirected Graphical Models

- Also called Markov random field (MRF) or Markov network
- As in DGM, the nodes in the graph represent the variables
- Edges represent probabilistic interaction between neighboring variables
- How to parametrize the graph?
 - In DGM we used CPD (conditional probabilities) to represent distribution of a node given others
 - For undirected graphs, we use a more symmetric parameterization that captures the affinities between related variables.

Semantics of the Graph: Conditional Independence

Global Markov Property: x_A ⊥ x_B |x_C iff C separates A from B (no path in the graph), e.g., {1,2} ⊥ {6,7} |{3,4,5}



• Markov Blanket (local property) is the set of nodes that renders a node t conditionally independent of all the other nodes in the graph

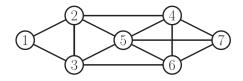
$$t \perp \mathcal{V} \setminus cl(t) | mb(t)$$

where $cl(t) = mb(t) \cup t$ is the closure of node t. It is the set of neighbors, e.g., $mb(5) = \{2, 3, 4, 6, 7\}$.

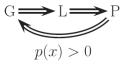
Pairwise Markov Property

$$s \perp t | \mathcal{V} \setminus \{s, t\} \iff G_{st} = 0$$

Dependencies and Examples

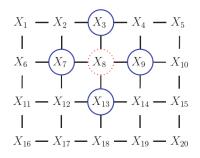


- Pairwise: $1 \perp 7$ rest
- Local: $1 \perp \text{rest}|2, 3$
- Global: $1, 2 \perp 6, 7 | 3, 4, 5$



 \rightarrow See page 119 of Koller and Friedman for a proof

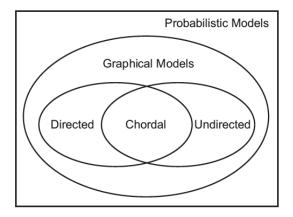
Image Example



Complete the following statements:

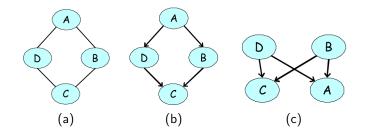
- Pairwise: $1 \perp 7 | \text{rest}?$, $1 \perp 20 | \text{rest}?$, $1 \perp 2 | \text{rest}?$
- Local: $1 \perp \text{rest}|?, 8 \perp \text{rest}|?$
- Global: $1, 2 \perp 15, 20$?

DGM and UGM



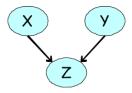
- From Directed to Undirected via moralization
- From Undirected to Directed via triangulation
- See (Kohler and Friedman) book if interested

Not all UGM can be represented as DGM

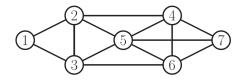


- Fig. (a) Two independencies: $(A \perp C | D, B)$ and $(B \perp D | A, C)$
- Can we encode this with a DGM?
- Fig. (b) First attempt: encodes (A ⊥ C|D, B) but it also implies that (B ⊥ D|A) but dependent given both A, C
- Fig. (c) Second attempt: encodes (A ⊥ C|D, B), but also implies that B and D are marginally independent.

• Example is the V-structure



 Undirected model fails to capture the marginal independence (X ⊥ Y) that holds in the directed model at the same time as ¬(X ⊥ Y|Z)



- A clique in an undirected graph is a subset of its vertices such that every two vertices in the subset are connected by an edge
 → i.e., the subgraph induced by the clique is complete
- The maximal clique is a clique that cannot be extended by including one more adjacent vertex
- The maximum clique is a clique of the largest possible size in a given graph
- What are the maximal cliques? And the maximum clique in the figure?

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \cdots, y_m)$ the set of all random variables
- Unlike DGM, since there is no topological ordering associated with an undirected graph, we can't use the chain rule to represent $p(\mathbf{y})$
- Instead of associating conditional probabilities to each node, we associate potential functions or factors with each maximal clique in the graph
- For a clique c, we define the potential function or factor

 $\psi_{c}(\mathbf{y}_{c}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{c})$

to be any non-negative function, with \mathbf{y}_c the restriction to a subset of variables in \mathbf{y}

- The joint distribution is then proportional to the product of clique potentials
- Any positive distribution whose CI are represented with an UGM can be represented this way (let's see this more formally)

Theorem (Hammersley-Clifford)

A positive distribution $p(\mathbf{y}) > 0$ satisfies the CI properties of an undirected graph G <u>iff</u> p can be represented as a product of factors, one per maximal clique, i.e.,

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c|\theta_c)$$

with C the set of all (maximal) cliques of G, and $Z(\theta)$ the partition function defined as

$$Z(\theta) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c | \theta_c)$$

Proof.

Can be found in (Koller and Friedman book)

We need the partition function as the potentials are not conditional distributions. In DGMs we don't need it

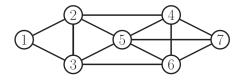
The joint distribution is

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = rac{1}{Z(\theta)} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c|\theta_c)$$

with the partition function

$$Z(\theta) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c | \theta_c)$$

- This is the hardest part of learning and inference. Why?
- Factored structure of the distribution makes it possible to more efficiently do the sums/integrals needed to compute it.



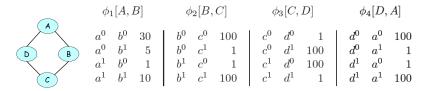
 $p(\mathbf{y}) \propto \psi_{1,2,3}(y_1, y_2, y_3)\psi_{2,3,5}(y_2, y_3, y_5)\psi_{2,4,5}(y_2, y_4, y_5)$ $\psi_{3,5,6}(y_3, y_5, y_6)\psi_{4,5,6,7}(y_4, y_5, y_6, y_7)$

- Is this representation unique?
- What if I want a pairwise MRF?

Representing Potentials

• If the variables are discrete, we can represent the potential or energy functions as tables of (non-negative) numbers

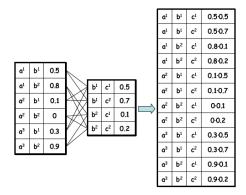
$$p(A, B, C, D) = \frac{1}{Z} \psi_{a,b}(A, B) \psi_{b,c}(B, C) \psi_{c,d}(C, D) \psi_{a,d}(A, D)$$



- The potentials are NOT probabilities
- They represent compatibility between the different assignments

Given 3 disjoint set of variables X, Y, Z, and factors ψ₁(X, Y), ψ₂(Y, Z), the factor product is defined as

$$\psi_{x,y,z}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z}) = \psi_{x,y}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y})\phi_{y,z}(\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{Z})$$



Query about probabilities: marginalization

| | Assignment | | | | Unnormalized | Normalized |
|---|------------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|---------------------|
| Γ | a^0 | b^0 | c^0 | d^0 | 300000 | 0.04 |
| | a^0 | b^0 | c^0 | d^1 | 300000 | 0.04 |
| | a^0 | b^0 | c^1 | d^0 | 300000 | 0.04 |
| | a^0 | b^0 | c^1 | d^1 | 30 | $4.1 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |
| | a^0 | b^1 | c^0 | d^0 | 500 | $6.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^0 | b^1 | c^0 | d^1 | 500 | $6.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^0 | b^1 | c^1 | d^0 | 5000000 | 0.69 |
| | a^0 | b^1 | c^1 | d^1 | 500 | $6.9 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^1 | b^0 | c^0 | d^0 | 100 | $1.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^1 | b^0 | c^0 | d^1 | 1000000 | 0.14 |
| | a^1 | b^0 | c^1 | d^0 | 100 | $1.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^1 | b^0 | c^1 | d^1 | 100 | $1.4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ |
| | a^1 | b^1 | c^0 | d^0 | 10 | $1.4 \cdot 10^{-6}$ |
| | a^1 | b^1 | c^0 | d^1 | 100000 | 0.014 |
| | a^1 | b^1 | c^1 | d^0 | 100000 | 0.014 |
| | a^1 | b^1 | c^1 | d^1 | 100000 | 0.014 |

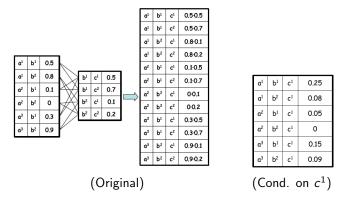
• What's the $p(b^0)$? Marginalize the other variables!

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Query about probabilities: conditioning



• Conditioning on an assignment **u** to a subset of variables **U** can be done by

Eliminating all entries that are inconsistent with the assignment

2 Re-normalizing the remaining entries so that they sum to 1

Let H be a Markov network over X and let U = u be the context. The reduced network H[u] is a Markov network over the nodes W = X - U where we have an edge between X and Y if there is an edge between then in H



- If **U** = Grade?
- If $\mathbf{U} = \{ Grade, SAT \}$?

• The Gibbs Distribution is defined as

$$\rho(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp\left(-\sum_{c} E(\mathbf{y}_{c}|\theta_{c})\right)$$

where $E(\mathbf{y}_c) > 0$ is the energy associated with the variables in clique c

• We can convert this distribution to a UGM by

$$\psi(\mathbf{y}_c|\theta_c) = \exp\left(-E(\mathbf{y}_c|\theta_c)\right)$$

- High probability states correspond to low energy configurations.
- These models are named energy based models

Log Linear Models

• Represent the log potentials as a linear function of the parameters

$$\log \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) = \phi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)^T \theta_c$$

• The log probability is then

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \sum_{c} \phi_{c}(\mathbf{y}_{c})^{T} \theta_{c} - \log Z(\theta)$$

- This is called log linear model
- Example: we can represent tabular potentials

$$\psi(y_s = j, y_t = k) = \exp([\theta_{st}^T \phi_{st}]_{jk}) = \exp(\theta_{st}(j, k))$$

with $\phi_{st}(y_s, y_t) = [\cdots, I(y_s = j, y_t = k), \cdots)$ and I the indicator function

Example: Ising model

- Captures the energy of a set of interacting atoms.
- $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ represents direction of the atom spin.
- The graph is a 2D or 3D lattice, and the energy of the edges is symmetric

$$\psi_{st}(y_s, y_t) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{w_{st}} & e^{-w_{st}} \\ e^{-w_{st}} & e^{w_{st}} \end{pmatrix}$$

with w_{st} the coupling strength between two nodes. If not connected $w_{st} = 0$

- Often we assume all edges have the same strength, i.e., $w_{st} = J \neq 0$
- If all weights positive, then neighboring spins likely same spin (ferromagnets, associative Markov network)
- If weights are very strong, then two models, all +1 and all -1
- If weights negative, then anti-ferromagnets. Not all the constraints can be satisfied, and the prob. distribution has multiple modes
- Also individual node potentials that encode the bias of the individual atoms (i.e., external field)

More on Ising Models

- Captures the energy of a set of interacting atoms.
- $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ represents direction of the atom spin.
- The energy associated is

$$P(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\sum_{i,j} \frac{1}{2} w_{i,j} y_i y_j + \sum_i b_i y_i\right) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{y}\right)$$

• The energy can be written as

$$E(\mathbf{y}) = -rac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{W}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu}) + c$$

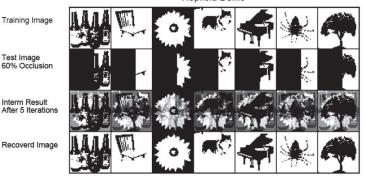
with $\boldsymbol{\mu} = - \mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{u}, \ \ c = rac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\mathcal{T}} \mathbf{W} \boldsymbol{\mu}$

• Looks like a Gaussian... but is it?

- Often modulated by a temperature $p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-E(\mathbf{y})/T)$
- T small makes distribution picky

Example: Hopfield networks

- A Hopfield network is a fully connected Ising model with a symmetric weight matrix **W** = **W**^T
- The main application of Hopfield networks is as an associative memory



Hopfield Demo

Example: Potts Model

- Multiple discrete states $y_i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, K\}$
- Common to use

$$\psi_{st}(y_s, y_t) = \begin{pmatrix} e^J & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^J & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^J \end{pmatrix}$$

- If J > 0 neighbors encourage to have the same label
- Phase transition: change of behavior, J = 1.44 in example

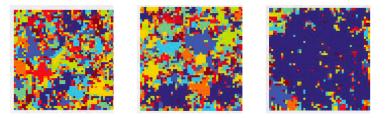
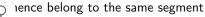


Figure : Sample from a 10-state Potts model of size 128×128 for (a) J = 1.42, (b) J = 1.44, (c) J = 1.46

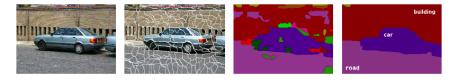
More on Potts

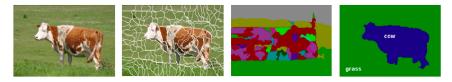
 y_s x_s

• Used in image segmentation: neighboring pixels are likely to have the same



$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x},\theta) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{i} \psi_i(y_i|\mathbf{x}) \prod_{i,j} \psi_{i,j}(y_i,y_j)$$





Example: Gaussian MRF

• Is a pairwise MRF

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) \propto \prod_{s \sim t} \psi_{st}(y_s, y_t) \prod_t \psi_t(y_t)$$
$$\psi_{st}(y_s, y_t) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}y_s \Lambda_{st} y_t\right)$$
$$\psi_t(y_t) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\Lambda_{tt} y_t^2 + \eta_t y_t\right)$$

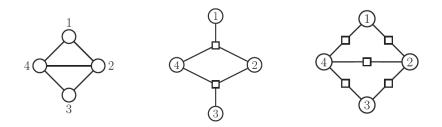
• The joint distribution is then

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) \propto \exp\left[\eta^T \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^T \Lambda \mathbf{y}
ight]$$

- This is a multivariate Gaussian with $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$ and $\eta = \Lambda \mu$
- If $\Lambda_{st} = 0$ (structural zero), then no pairwise connection and by factorization theorem

$$y_s \perp y_t | \mathbf{y}_{-(st)} \Longleftrightarrow \Lambda_{st} = 0$$

UGM are sparse precision matrices. Used for structured learning



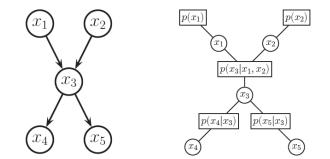
- A factor graph is a graphical model representation that unifies directed and undirected models
- It is an undirected bipartite graph with two kinds of nodes.
 - Round nodes represent variables,
 - Square nodes represent factors

and there is an edge from each variable to every factor that mentions it.

• Represents the distribution more uniquely than a graphical model

Factor Graphs for Directed Models

• One factor per CPD (conditional distribution) and connect the factor to all the variables that use the CPD



Learning using Gradient methods

• MRF in log-linear form

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp\left(\sum_{c} \theta_{c}^{T} \phi_{c}(\mathbf{y}_{c})\right)$$

• Given training examples $\mathbf{y}^{(i)}$, the scaled log likelihood is

$$\ell(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \log p(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left[-\sum_{c} \theta_{c}^{T} \phi_{c}(\mathbf{y}_{c}^{(i)}) + \log Z^{(i)}(\theta) \right]$$

- Since MRFs are in the exponential family, this function is convex in θ
- We can find the global maximum, e.g., via gradient descent

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_c} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left[-\phi_c(\mathbf{y}_c^{(i)}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_c} \log Z^{(i)}(\theta) \right]$$

• The first term is constant for each iteration of gradient descent, it is called the empirical means

Moment Matching

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_c} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left[-\phi_c(\mathbf{y}_c^{(i)}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_c} \log Z^{(i)}(\theta) \right]$$

 The derivative of the log partition function w.r.t. θ_c is the expectation of the c'th feature under the model

$$\frac{\partial \log Z(\theta)}{\partial \theta_c} = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \phi_c(\mathbf{y}) p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = E[\phi_c(\mathbf{y})]$$

Thus the gradient of the log likelihood is

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_c} = \left[-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \phi_c(\mathbf{y}_c^{(i)}) \right] + E[\phi_c(\mathbf{y})]$$

- The second term is the contrastive term or unclamped term and requires inference in the model (it has to be done for each step in gradient descent)
- Dif. of the empirical distrib. and model's expectation of the feature vector

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \theta_c} = -E_{p_{emp}}[\phi_c(\mathbf{y})] + E_{p(\cdot|\theta)}[\phi_c(\mathbf{y})]$$

• At the optimum the moments are matched (i.e., moment matching)

- In UGM, no closed form solution to the ML estimate of the parameters, need to do gradient-based optimization
- Computing each gradient step requires inference → very expensive (NP-hard in general)
- Many approximations exist: stochastic approaches, pseudo likelihood, etc