

CSC2535 Spring 2013

Lecture 1: Introduction to Machine
Learning and Graphical Models

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How to represent a probability distribution over several random variables

- There are two different ways represent a distribution over several random variables:

$$p(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, X_3 = x_3, X_4 = x_4)$$

which we abbreviate as $p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$

- **Product of conditional probabilities:**

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_4)p(x_3 | x_4)p(x_2 | x_3, x_4)p(x_1 | x_2, x_3, x_4)$$

- **Global energy function:**

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-E(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)}$$

Disdvantages and advantages of the energy-based approach

- To compute the probability of a joint configuration we need to know the partition function, Z .
 - Z has exponentially many terms (for discrete variables)
- To change the the parameters of the energy function so as to improve the probability of the training data, we need the derivative of Z with respect to each parameter.
 - The exact derivative requires exponential work.
- We can define the energy of a joint configuration of the variables in almost any way we like and we will still get a proper distribution
 - But it must integrate to less than infinity over all joint configurations.

Less general distributions over several random variables

- The simplest distribution is when the variables do not interact at all:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4)$$

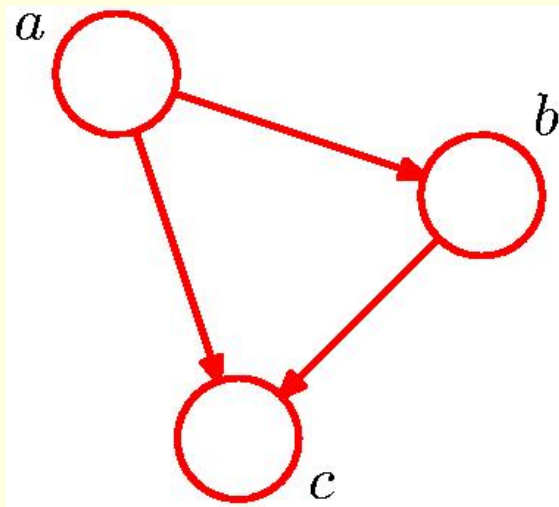
This is called a factorial distribution.

There are many other ways to represent a distribution using a product of conditional distributions or a sum of local energies that are more complicated than complete independence, but less complicated than fully a general distribution. This is what **Graphical Models** is all about.

Three types of graphical model

- **Directed models** use conditional probabilities
 - Each conditional probability must be properly normalized.
- **Undirected models** use energy functions that are a sum of several terms.
 - The terms in the energy function are very flexible and each variable can be involved in many different terms without causing problems. But the partition function is nasty.
- **Hybrid models** (like a “deep belief net”) combine directed and undirected pieces.

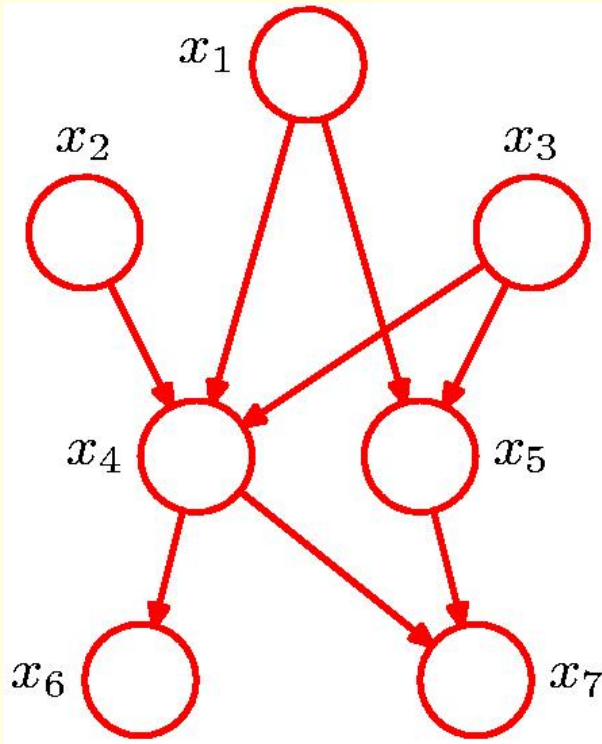
A graphical representation of a set of conditional probabilities



- Each node represents a random variable.
- Each directed edge represents an explicit dependency on a “parent”
- For general distributions, the graph is fully connected.

$$p(a,b,c) = p(c | a,b)p(b | a)p(a)$$

Representing less general distributions



- The structure of a less general distribution can be represented by the **missing** edges.
- If the directed graph is acyclic and the distribution of each node conditional on its parents is normalized, the whole distribution will be consistent .

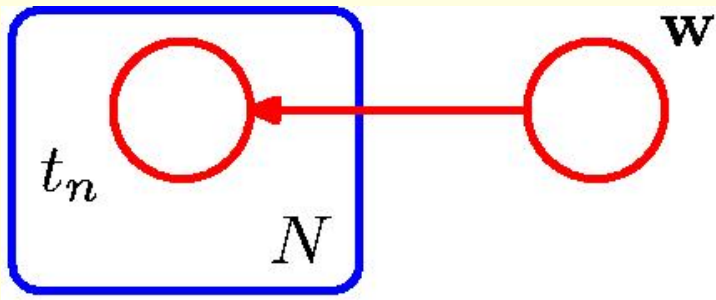
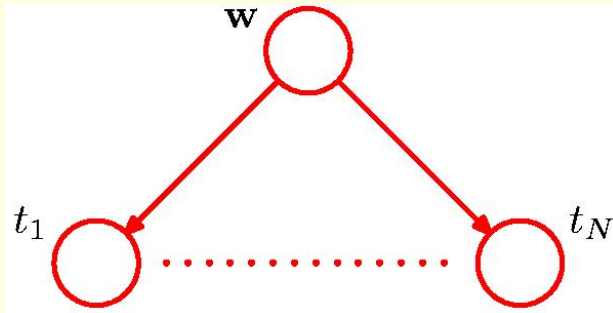
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_k p(x_k \mid \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{parents}}}{pa_k}}) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4 \mid x_1, x_2, x_3) \dots$$
$$p(x_5 \mid x_1, x_3)p(x_6 \mid x_4)p(x_7 \mid x_4, x_5)$$

Bayesian polynomial regression

$$p(t \mid x, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) = \int p(t \mid x, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t}) d\mathbf{w}$$

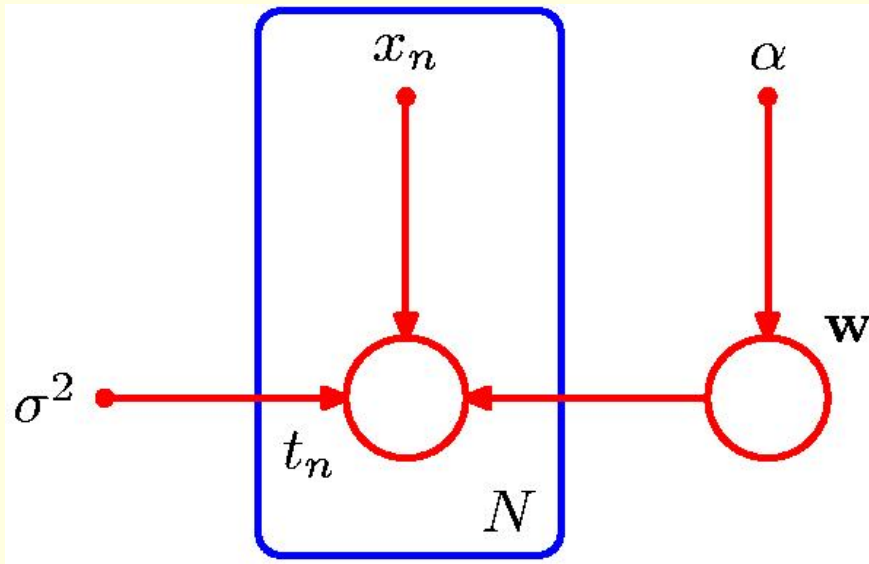
↑ ↑ ↑ ↑
test train

- The modeled random variables are \mathbf{t} and \mathbf{w}
- The inputs, \mathbf{x} , are given. They are not random variables in the model.
- The “plate” notation is used for multiple variables with the same dependencies.



$$p(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{w}) = p(\mathbf{w}) \prod_{n=1}^N p(t_n \mid \mathbf{w})$$

Showing dependencies on deterministic parameters

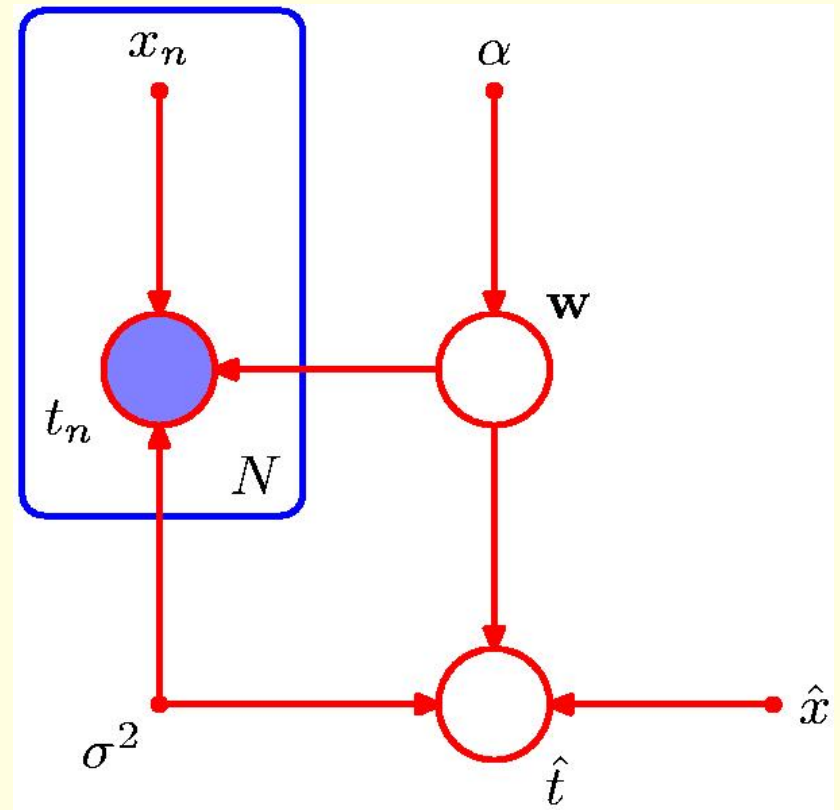


- We can use a small solid circle for a parameter such as:
 - Output noise variance
 - Input vector for a case
 - Parameter determining the prior distribution of the weights.

$$p(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{w} \mid x, \alpha, \sigma^2) = p(\mathbf{w} \mid \alpha) \prod_{n=1}^N p(t_n \mid \mathbf{w}, x_n, \sigma^2)$$

A graphical model of a test prediction

- We represent the fact that a node has been observed by filling it in.
- The output noise variance affects both training and test data.

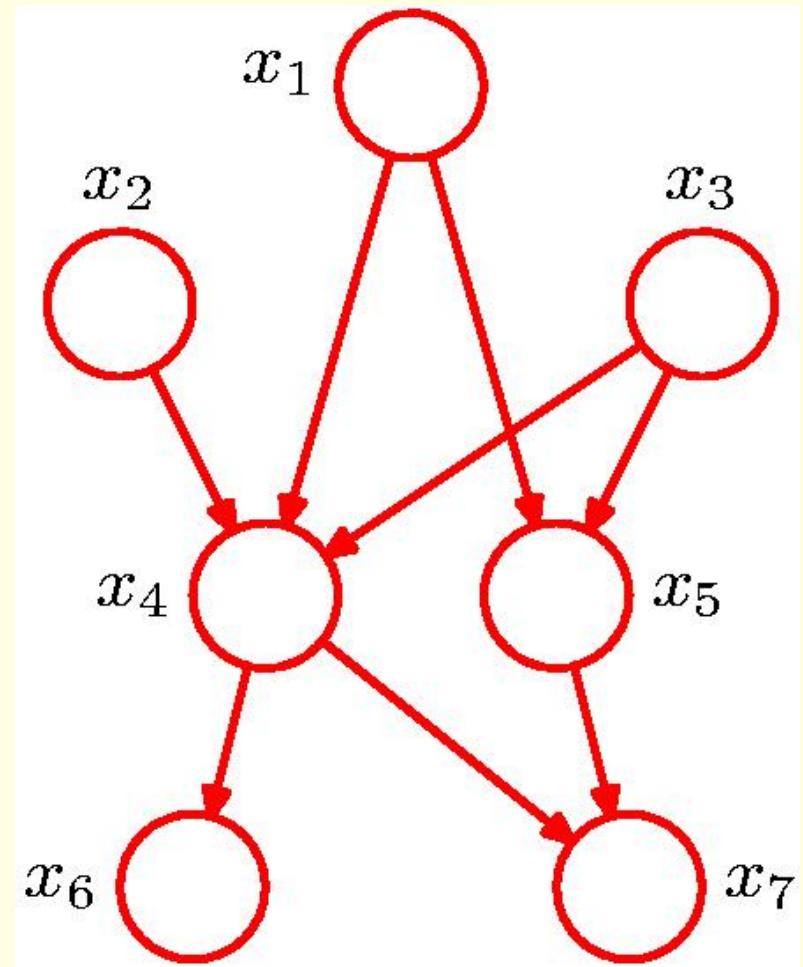


$$p(\hat{t}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{w} \mid \hat{x}, \mathbf{x}, \alpha, \sigma^2)$$

$$= p(\mathbf{w} \mid \alpha) p(\hat{t} \mid \hat{x}, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2) \prod_{n=1}^N p(t_n \mid x_n, \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$$

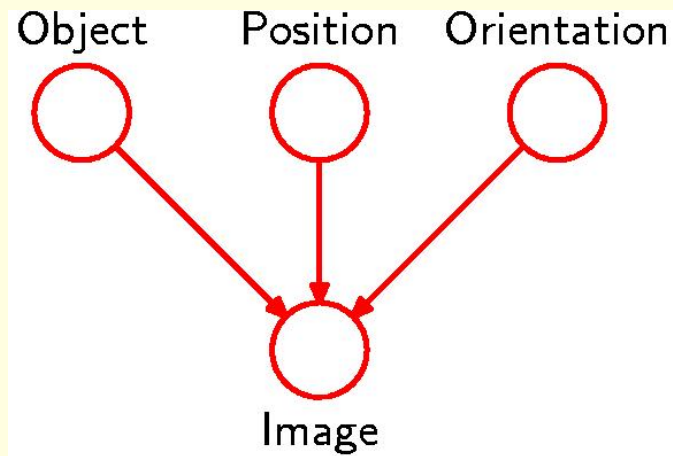
An important fact about acyclic directed graphical models

- An unobserved node has no effect on the distributions of its parents.
 - It only affects the distributions of its descendants.
 - The direction of the arrows is like time: Causes only affect the future.

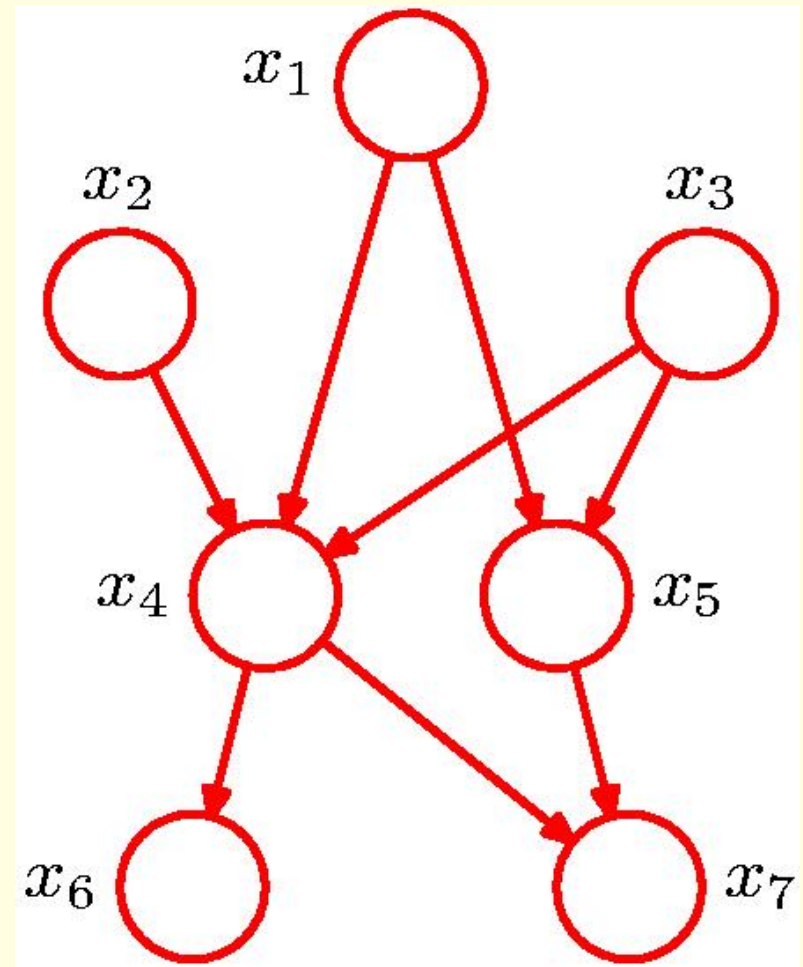


Ancestral sampling

- Start at the top and sample in order.
- Good for seeing what the model believes.



What false claims are made by this model?



Two very different approaches to directed graphical models

- We can view the higher-level nodes as unobserved causes that explain the statistical structure of the joint distribution over the observed variables.
 - Missing edges represent qualitative aspects of the statistical structure.
 - The individual conditional probability functions of the nodes represent quantitative aspects.
- We care a lot about where the edges are and we can interpret the individual nodes.
 - Graphical models evolved from expert systems.

Two very different approaches to directed graphical models (continued)

- Consider using small lego blocks to model the shape of a car. All we care about is the shape.
 - We do not really believe the car is made of lego.
 - The blocks are just “modeling stuff”. This stuff needs to be able to model any reasonable shape.
 - Its probably good if there are many different ways of modeling the same shape. “Identifiability” is not important.
- We can adopt a similar approach to modeling a complicated probability distribution.
 - The only role of the latent variables is to model the density (But with enough data the right model is best!).

An intermediate approach

- We are interested in the values of the latent variables, but we are not aiming for identifiability.
- We want to use the latent variables for tasks like object or speech recognition.
 - We expect the latent variables to be more directly related to classes we are interested in than the raw sensory inputs.
 - But there may be many different latent variable representations that are equally good.

Two very important types of random variable

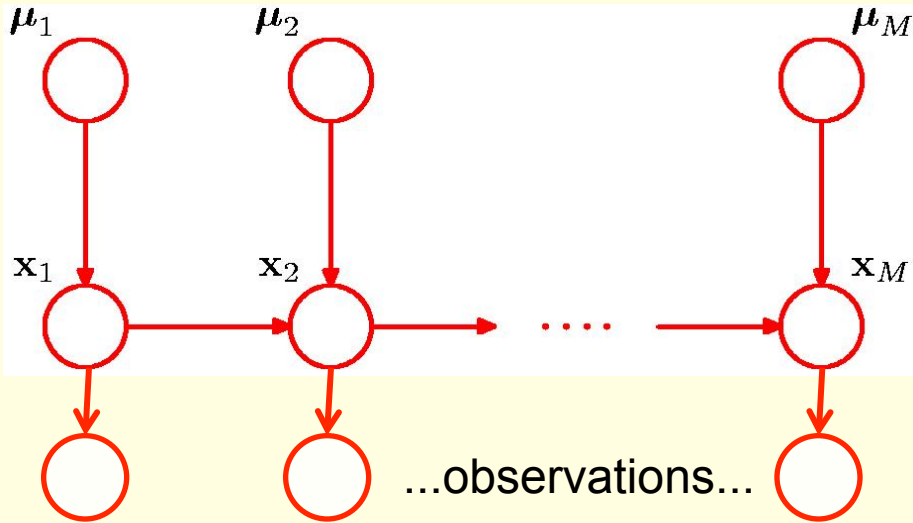
- **An analogy:** If we start with integers, addition, subtraction and multiplication keep us in the domain of integers.
- If we start with **discrete** variables, inference keeps us in the domain of discrete variables.
- If we start with **Gaussian** variables, inference keeps us in the domain of Gaussian variables provided the conditional probability models are all linear.

Reducing the number of parameters

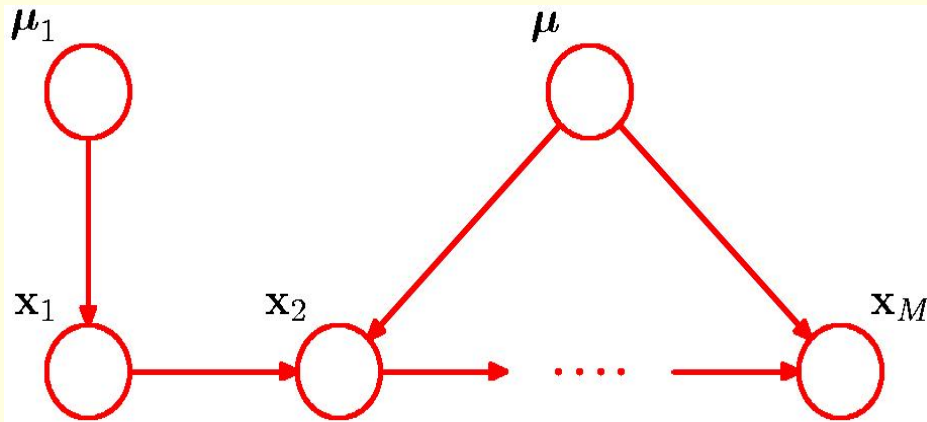


- For a chain of M nodes each with K states, instead of $K^M - 1$ we have $(K - 1) + (M - 1)K(K - 1)$
↑
start
- If the parameters are shared across time, we have:
 $(K - 1) + K(K - 1) = K^2 - 1$
- This is good for modeling stationary sequences.
 - It is the graphical model that forms the basis of a simple Hidden Markov Model.

Adding priors to the graphical model of an HMM

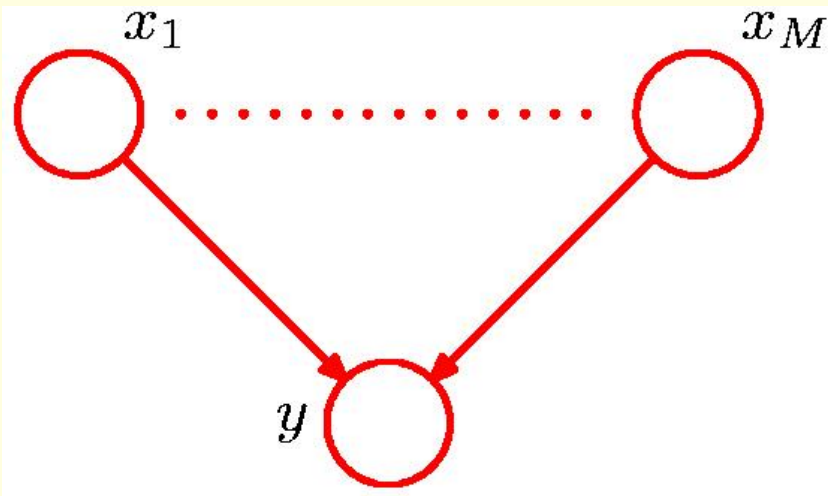


- To be Bayesian, an HMM needs a prior over the parameters.
 - We can use a Dirichlet prior. This is conjugate. It is equivalent to having already seen some data.



- An HMM can share the prior over the transition parameters.

Replacing conditional probability tables by functions



A node with L states and M parents each with K states requires a table of size:

$$(L-1) K^M$$

- Suppose $L=2$
- We can use a logistic sigmoid function to reduce the number of parameters to M .
- This is a good idea if the logistic can approximate the table we want.

$$p(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

Graphical models with Gaussian random variables

- Engineers use these all the time, but people in AI hated real numbers and it took them a long time to go beyond discrete variables and look-up tables for the interactions.
- Replace the discrete distributions by Gaussian distributions and make the interactions linear:

$$p(x_i | \text{pa}_i) = N \left(b_i + \sum_{j \in \text{pa}_i} w_{ij} x_j, v_i \right)$$

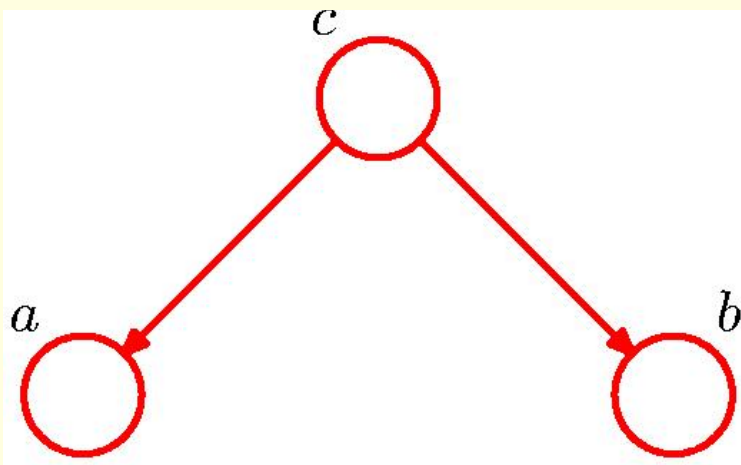
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Gaussian mean variance

The joint distribution with Gaussian nodes

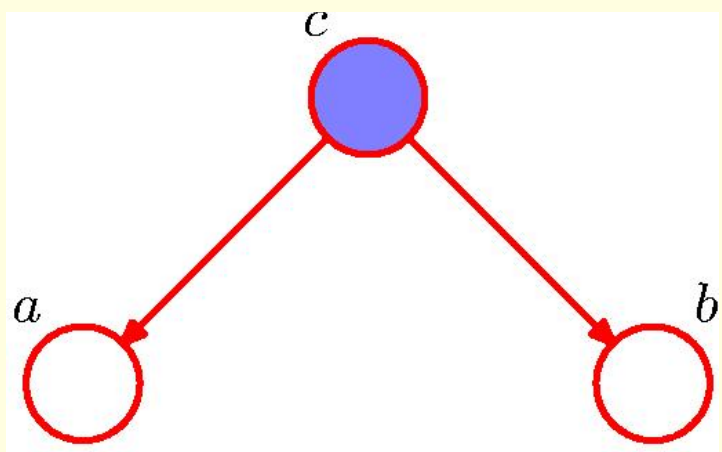
$$\begin{aligned}\ln p(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i=1}^D \ln p(x_i \mid \text{pa}_i) \\ &= - \sum_{i=1}^D \frac{1}{2\nu_i} \left(x_i - \left(b_i + \sum_{j \in \text{pa}_i} w_{ij} x_j \right) \right)^2 + \text{const}(\mathbf{v})\end{aligned}$$

- Since the log prob is quadratic in \mathbf{x} , the joint distribution is a multivariate Gaussian.
- We can determine the mean and covariance by using the symbolic equivalent of ancestral sampling:
 - Compute the mean and covariance of the Gaussian distribution for each node given the means and covariances of the distributions of its parents (see Bishop).

Conditional independence for tail-to-tail nodes



- If *c* has not been observed, *a* and *b* are, in general, not independent. They have a common cause.
- Once *c* has been observed, *a* and *b* can no longer have any effect on each other. They become independent.



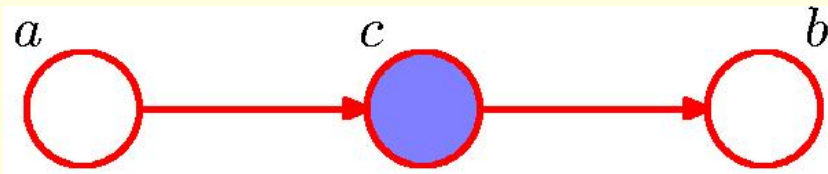
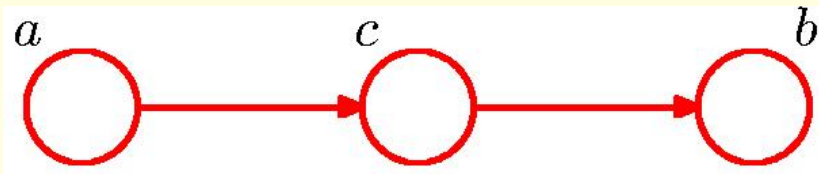
$$p(a | b, c) = p(a | c)$$

$$p(a, b | c) = p(a | c)p(b | c)$$

The importance of conditional independence

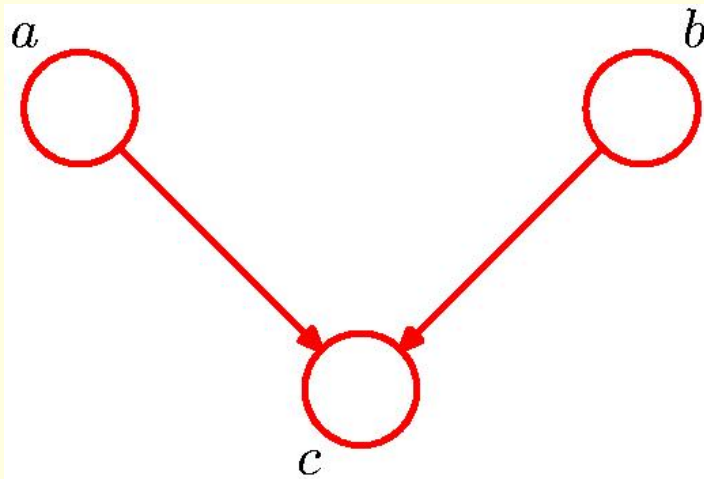
- Conditional independence makes inference much simpler.
 - The probability distributions over the values of a variable can be combined by pointwise multiplication if they are sources are independent.
- The graph structure can be used to read off the conditional independencies.

Conditional independence for head-to-tail nodes



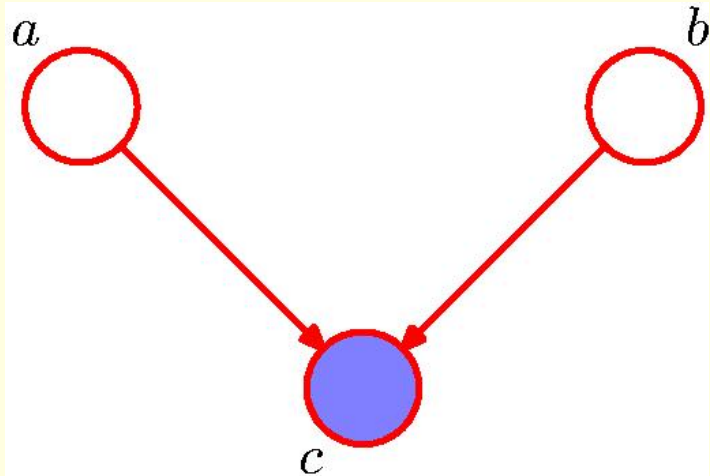
- If c is not observed, a can influence c and c can influence b , so $p(a, b) \neq p(a)p(b)$
- If c is observed, the value of a can no longer influence it, so $p(a, b | c) = p(a | c)p(b | c)$

UNconditional independence for head-to-head nodes



- An unobserved descendant has no effect. So we have

$$p(a, b) = p(a)p(b)$$



- If the descendant (or any of its descendants) is observed, its value has implications for both a and b , so

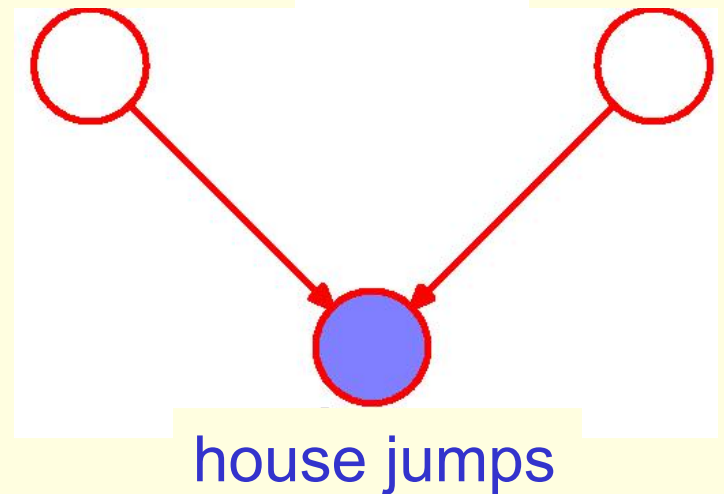
$$p(a, b | c) \neq p(a | c)p(b | c)$$

Explaining away

- Suppose that earthquakes are rare
- Suppose that trucks hitting houses is rare.
- Suppose that houses do not jump without a cause.
 - If you observe the house jumping, you need to assume that one of the causes happened.
 - One cause removes the need for the other cause.

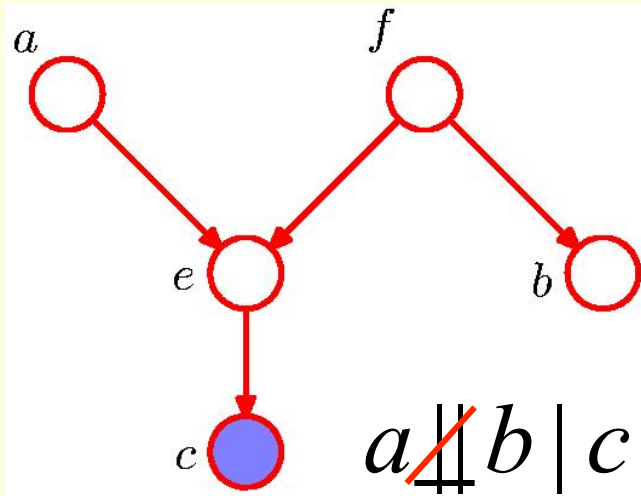
truck hits
house

earth-
quake

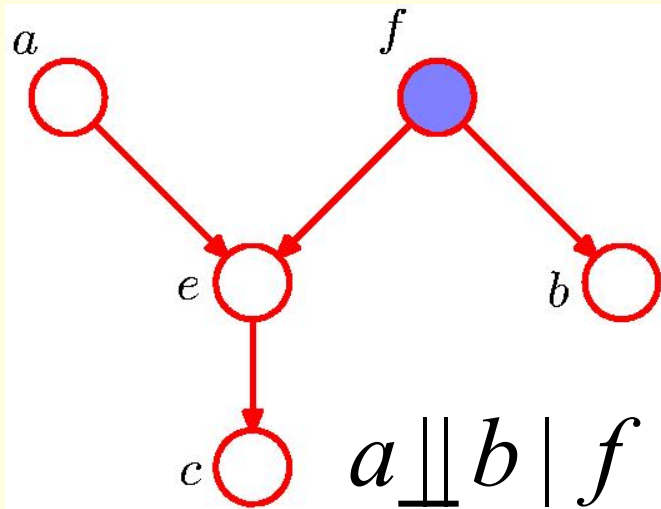


The two causes are independent in the model, but anti-correlated after the observation.

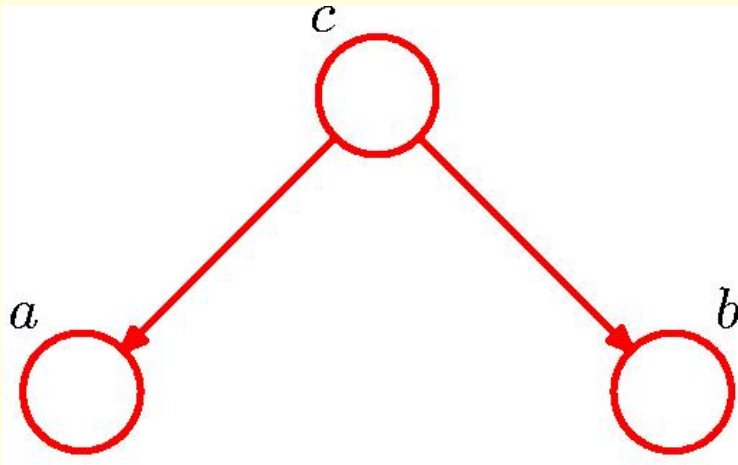
D-separation



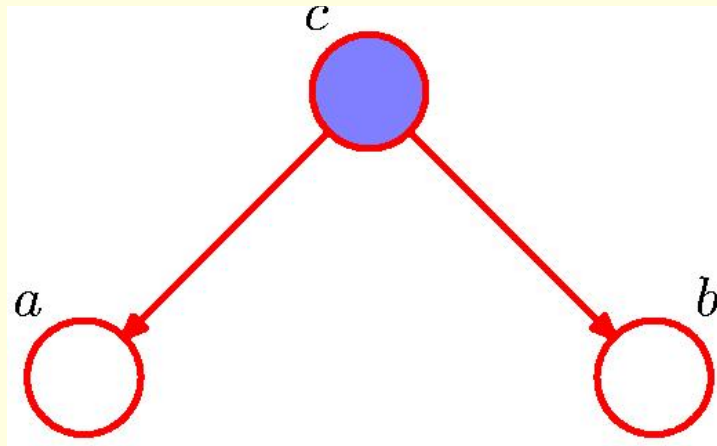
- a is independent of b if and only if all paths connecting a and b are blocked.
- **head-to-tail** and **tail-to-tail** nodes are blocked when observed.
- **head-to-head** nodes are blocked when the node and all its descendants are unobserved.



Naive Bayes and D-separation



- In this model, *a* and *b* are not independent when the class label *c* has not been observed.



- Once *c* is observed, *a* and *b* become independent. So for each particular class, it is easy to combine the effects of observing both *a* and *b*.

Combining observations in naive Bayes

$$p(a, b) \neq p(a)p(b)$$

$$p(a, b | c) = p(a | c)p(b | c)$$

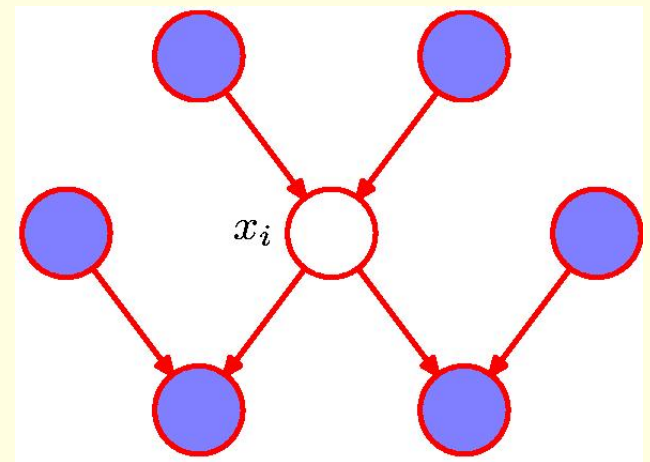
- The conditional independence makes it easy to use Bayes theorem to combine evidence from multiple observations:

$$\begin{aligned} p(c | a, b) &\propto p(c)p(a, b | c) \\ &\propto p(c)p(a | c)p(b | c) \end{aligned}$$

- Learning $p(a | c)$ is very easy because this distribution is only one-dimensional.

The Markov Blanket in a directed graphical model

- The Markov blanket of a node is the minimal set of nodes that must be observed to make this node independent of all other nodes.
- In a directed model, the blanket includes all the parents of the node's children.
 - This is because of explaining away.



Undirected graphical models

(Markov Random Fields, Energy-based models)

- The joint distribution over the random variables is defined to be proportional to the product of some potential functions defined over subsets of the variables:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_C \varphi_C(\mathbf{x}_C), \quad Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \prod_C \varphi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$$

- Equivalently, the joint distribution is defined via the sum of some energy functions which are each defined over subsets of the variables.

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\sum_C E(\mathbf{x}_C)\right), \quad \text{where } E(\mathbf{x}_C) = -\ln \varphi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$$

Representing the relevant subsets

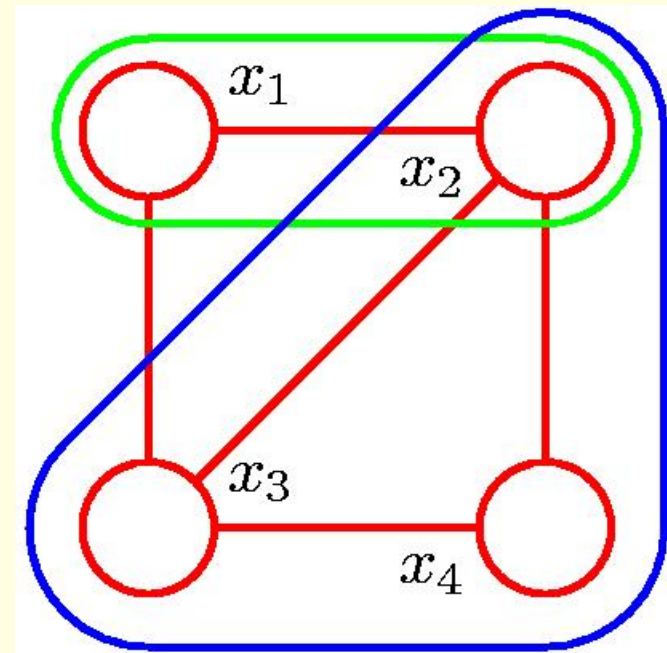
- The subsets that are used to define the potential functions (*i.e.* terms in the energy function) are represented by cliques in the undirected graph.

$\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, x_3\}, \{x_3, x_4\},$

$\{x_4, x_2\}, \{x_1, x_3\},$

$\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_4\}$

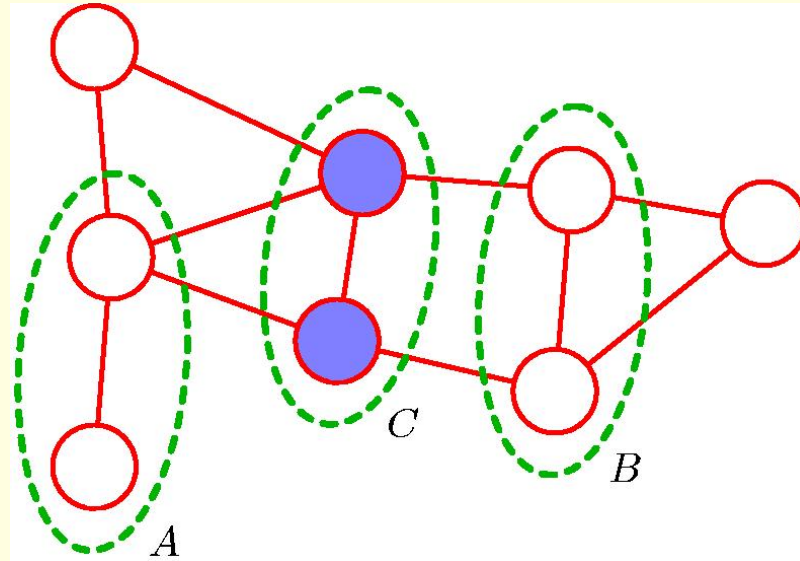
The cliques represented
by this graph



Using cliques to represent factors

- If the factors (*i.e.* the potential functions or energy terms) only involve two nodes, an undirected graph is a nice representation.
- If the factors involve more than two nodes its not nearly such a nice representation.
 - A factor graph is a much nicer representation.

Conditional independence in an undirected model

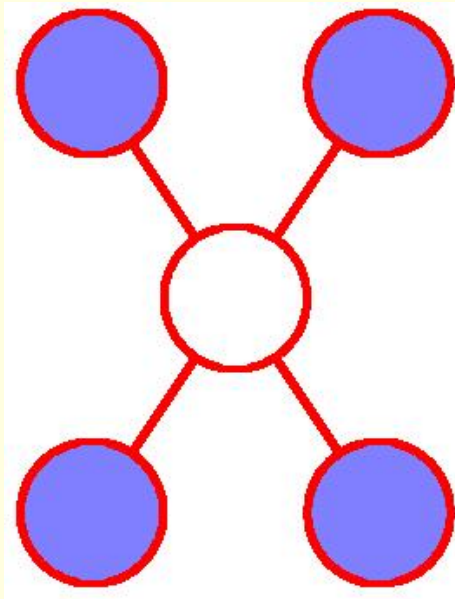


- This is easier than in a directed model.
 - Observation blocks a node.
 - Two sets of nodes are conditionally independent if the observations block all paths between them.

Conditional independence and factorization in undirected graphs

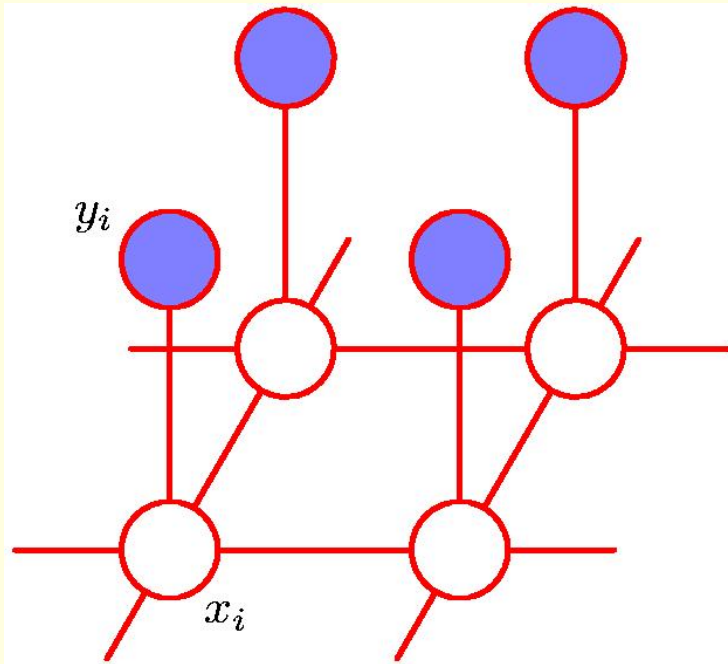
- Consider two sets of distributions:
 - The set of distributions consistent with the conditional independence relationships defined by the undirected graph.
 - The set of distributions consistent with the factorization defined by potential functions on cliques of the graph.
- The Hammersley-Clifford theorem states that these two sets of distributions are the same.

The Markov blanket in an undirected graph



- This is simpler than in a directed graph because we do not have to worry about explaining away.
- The Markov blanket of a node is simply all of the directly connected nodes.

Image denoising with an MRF



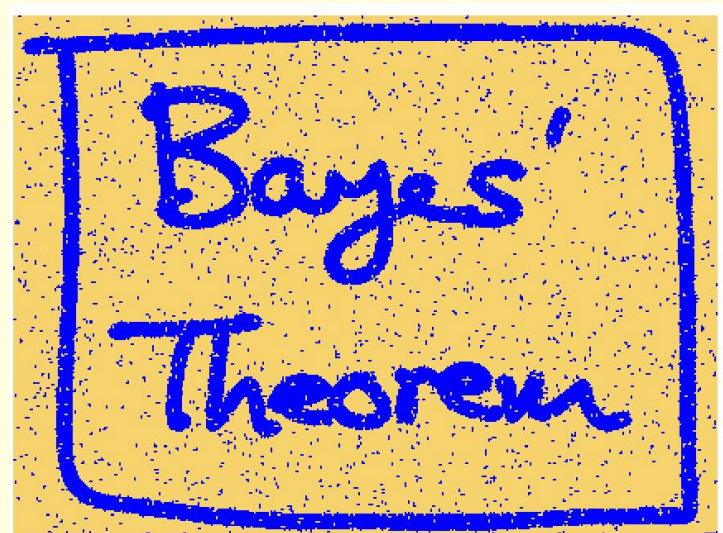
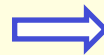
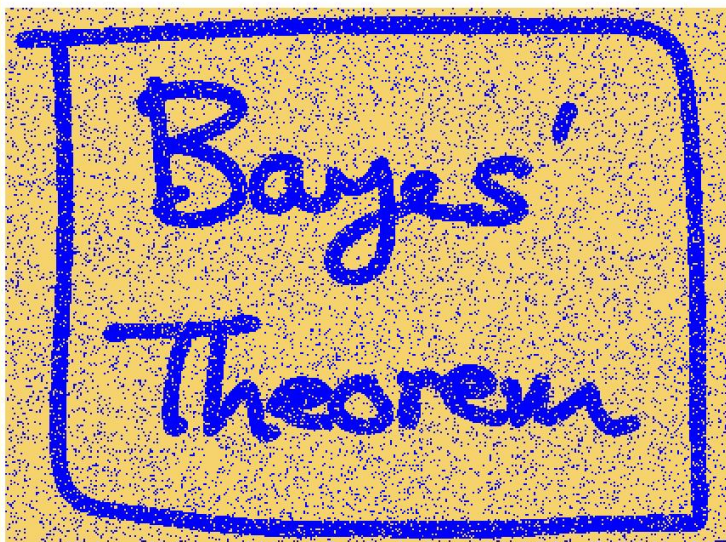
- The true value of a pixel is x and the measured noisy value is y .
- We can define an energy function on pairs of nodes.

$$E(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = h \sum_i x_i - \beta \sum_{i < j} x_i x_j + \eta \sum_i (x_i - y_i)^2$$

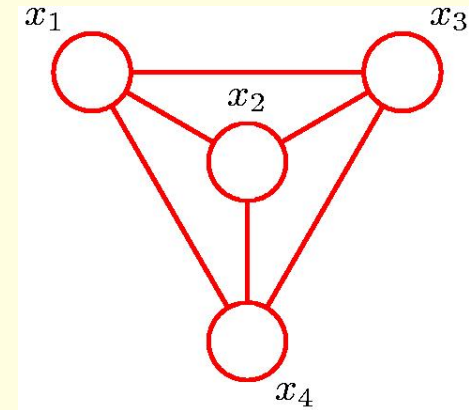
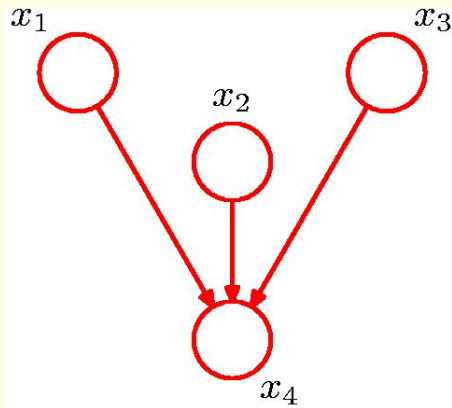
$$(x_i - y_i)^2 = \underbrace{x_i^2}_{\text{bias}} - 2x_i y_i + \underbrace{y_i^2}_{\text{irrelevant}} \quad \text{so we could use } -x_i y_i$$

A simple, greedy MAP inference procedure

- Iterated conditional modes: Visit the unobserved nodes sequentially and set each x to whichever of its two values has the lowest energy.
 - This only requires us to look at the Markov blanket, i.e. The connected nodes.
- It would be better to flip in order of confidence.

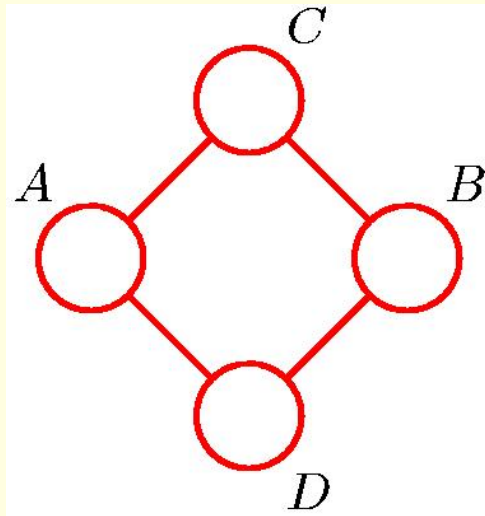


Directed graphs can be more precise about independencies than undirected ones



- All the parents of x_4 can interact to determine the distribution over x_4 .
- The directed graph represents independencies that the undirected graph cannot model.
- To represent the high-order interaction in the directed graph, the undirected graph needs a fourth-order clique.
- So this graph cannot represent any independencies.

Undirected graphs can be more precise about independencies than directed ones



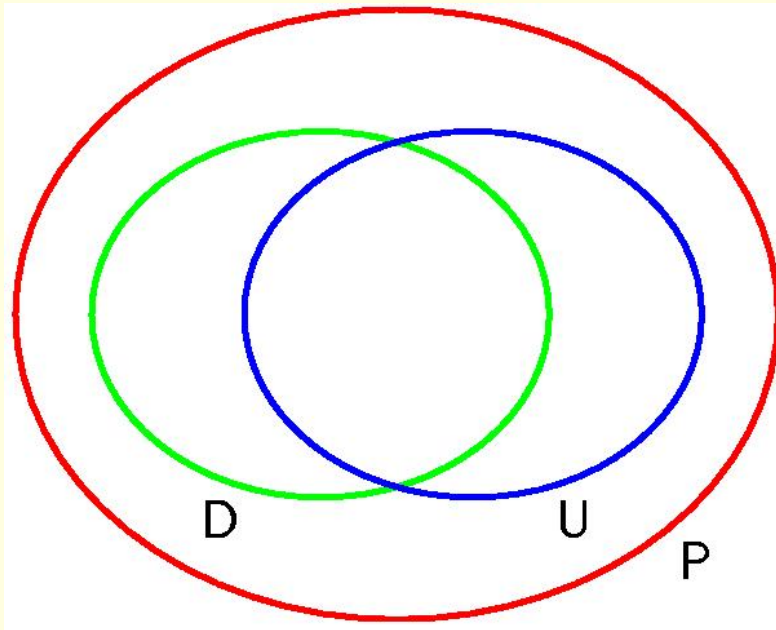
$$A \not\perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid \emptyset$$

$$C \perp\!\!\!\perp D \mid A \cup B$$

$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid C \cup D$$

- This graph exhibits three independence properties that cannot all be exhibited by any directed graph.

The distributions for which directed and undirected graphs can give perfect maps



- A graph is a perfect map of a distribution if its conditional independencies are exactly the same as those in the distribution.

Inference in an undirected chain



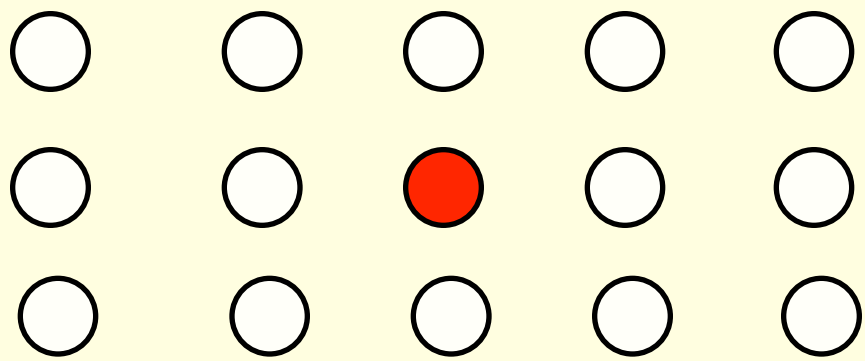
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \varphi_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) \varphi_{2,3}(x_2, x_3) \dots \varphi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1}, x_N)$$

- Assume each node is a K-state discrete variable and each potential is a K x K table.
- Consider trying to compute the marginal distribution over the n'th node by summing over all values of all other nodes.

$$p(x_n) = \sum_{x_1} \dots \sum_{x_{n-1}} \sum_{x_{n+1}} \dots \sum_{x_N} p(\mathbf{x})$$

= left branch term \times right branch term

A picture of the computation



$$p(x_3) = \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_5} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5)$$

The recursive expressions for the left-branch and right-branch messages

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_\alpha(x_n) &= \sum_{x_{n-1}} \varphi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1}, x_n) \dots \left[\sum_{x_2} \varphi_{2,3}(x_2, x_3) \left[\sum \varphi_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) \right] \right] \\ &= \sum_{x_{n-1}} \varphi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1}, x_n) \mu_\alpha(x_{n-1})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_\beta(x_n) &= \sum_{x_{n+1}} \varphi_{n,n+1}(x_n, x_{n+1}) \dots \left[\sum_{x_N} \varphi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1}, x_N) \right] \\ &= \sum_{x_{n+1}} \varphi_{n,n+1}(x_n, x_{n+1}) \mu_\beta(x_{n+1})\end{aligned}$$

Computing more than one marginal distribution

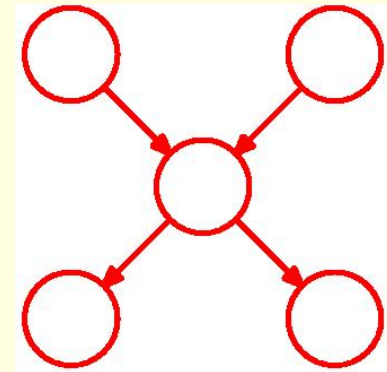
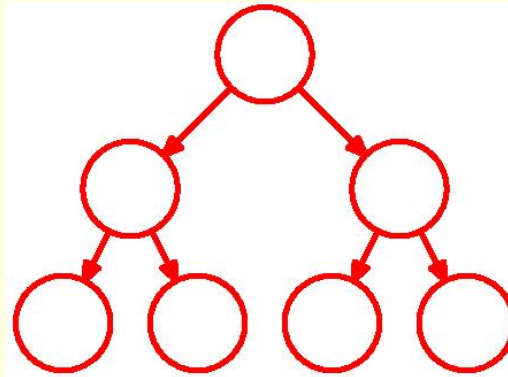
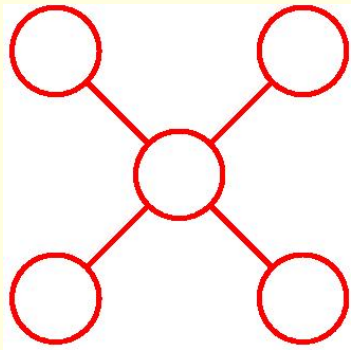
- First do a complete forward pass and a complete backward pass.
- Then the marginal for node n is:

$$p(x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_\alpha(x_n) \mu_\beta(x_n)$$

- The marginal for an adjacent pair of nodes is:

$$p(x_{n-1}, x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \mu_\alpha(x_{n-1}) \varphi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1}, x_n) \mu_\beta(x_n)$$

Generalizing the inference procedure to trees



- The message passing procedure generalizes easily to any graph which is “singly connected”.
 - This includes trees and polytrees.
- Each node needs to send out along each link the product of the messages it receives on its other links.