Probabilistic Graphical Models Machine Learning

School of Artificial Intelligence, Xidian University

Conditional Independence

Markov Random Fields

Inference in Graphical Models

Probabilistic Graphical Models

- A simple way to visualize the structure of a probabilistic model and can be used to design and motivate new models.
- Insights into the properties of the model, including conditional independence properties, can be obtained by inspection of the graph.
- Complex computations can be expressed in terms of graphical manipulations.
 - required to perform inference and learning in sophisticated models,
 - underlying mathematical expressions are carried along implicitly.

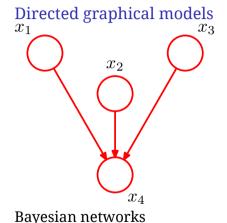
Graph

A graph comprises **nodes** (also called *vertices*) connected by **links** (also known as **edges** or *arcs*).

In a probabilistic graphical model

- each node represents a random variable (or group of random variables),
- and the links express probabilistic relationships between these variables.

Directed and Undirected Graphical Models



Undirected graphical $\underset{x_1}{\mathsf{models}}$ x_3 x_2 x_4

Markov random fields



- Consider an arbitrary joint distribution p(a,b,c) over three variables a, b, and c.
- Applying the product rule of probability, we get the joint distribution as:

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

Repeat the application of the product rule, we get:

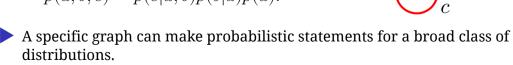
$$p(a, b, c) = p(c|a, b)p(b|a)p(a).$$

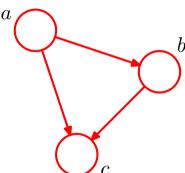
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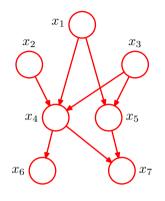
- lacksquare If there is a link going from a node a to a node b, then we say that
 - ightharpoonup node a is the **parent** of node b,
 - \triangleright and we say that node b is the **child** of node a.
- Note that we have implicitly chosen a particular ordering, namely a,b,c.

- Let us extend the previous example by considering the joint distribution over K variables given by $p(x_1,\ldots,x_K)$.
- By repeated application of the product rule of probability, this joint distribution can be written as a product of conditional distributions,

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_K) = p(x_K|x_1,\ldots,x_{K-1})\cdots p(x_2|x_1)p(x_1)$$

This graph is **fully connected** because there is a link between every pair of nodes.

- The absence of links in the graph that conveys interesting information about the properties of the class of distributions.
- In the right graph, there is no link from x_1 to x_2 or from x_3 to x_7 .
- We can write the joint probability distribution in terms of the product of a set of conditional distributions, one for each node in the graph:



$$p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4|x_1,x_2,x_3)p(x_5|x_1,x_3)p(x_6|x_4)p(x_7|x_4,x_5).$$

- The joint distribution defined by a graph is given by
 - the product of a conditional distribution for each node,
 - conditioned on the variables corresponding to its parents.
- lacktriangle For a graph with K nodes, the joint distribution is given by

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(x_k | \mathbf{pa}_k), \tag{factorization}$$

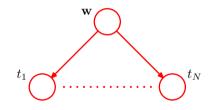
where \mathbf{pa}_k denotes the set of parents of x_k , and $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_K\}.$

- This key equation expresses the **factorization** properties of the joint distribution for a directed graphical model.
- ▶ We can associate sets of variables and vector-valued variables with the nodes of a graph.
- Note that the directed graphs must be with no **directed cycles**. Such graphs are called **directed acyclic graphs**, or **DAGs**.

Example: Polynomial regression

 Directed graphical model representing the following joint distribution corresponding to the Bayesian polynomial regression model

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





- An important concept for probability distributions over multiple variables is that of **conditional independence**.
- Suppose that the conditional distribution of a, given b and c, is such that it does not depend on the value of b, so that

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

lacksquare We say a is conditional independent of b given c.

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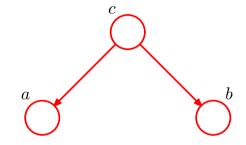
$$p(a|b,c) = p(a|c)$$

- lacksquare We say a is conditional independent of b given c.
- This can be expressed in a slightly different way if we consider the joint distribution of a and b conditioned on c:

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

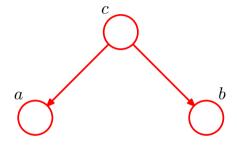
- This says that the variables a and b are statistically independent, given c.
- We use a shorthand notation for conditional independence

 $a \perp b|c$



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- We use a shorthand notation for conditional independence

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- Conditional independence properties play an important role by
 - > simplifying the structure of a model
 - simplifying the computations needed to perform inference and learning

Example graphs

The joint distribution corresponding to this graph is

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

If none of the variables are observed, then we can investigate whether a and b are independent by marginalizing both sides

$$p(a,b) = \sum_{c} p(a|c)p(b|c)p(c).$$

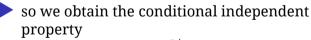
lacksquare In general, this does not facorize into the product p(a)p(b), and so

$$a \not \perp b | \emptyset$$

Example graphs

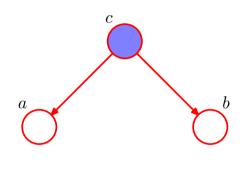
Now suppose we condition on the variable c, the conditional distribution of a and b, given c, in the form

$$(a,b|c) = \frac{p(a,b,c)}{p(c)}$$
$$= p(a|c)p(b|c)$$



$$a \perp b|c$$
.

lacksquare The node c is said to be **tail-to-tail**.



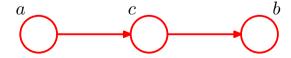
Example graphs

The joint distribution corresponding to this graph is obtained as:

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

- First of all, suppose that none of the variables are observed.
- Again, we can test if a and b are independent by marginalizing over c:

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



Example graphs

- lacksquare Now suppose we condition on node c
- Using Bayes' theorem and marginalizing over c:

$$p(a,b|c) = \frac{p(a,b,c)}{p(c)}$$

$$= \frac{p(a)p(c|a)p(b|c)}{p(c)}$$

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

and so again we obtain the conditional independence property

$$a\perp b|c.$$

Conditional Independence Example graphs

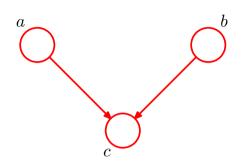
- We consider a 3-node example with has a more subtle behaviour than the two previous graphs.
- The joint distribution can be written down as:

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

- Consider the case where none of the variables are observed.
 - \blacktriangleright Marginalizing both sides over c we obtain

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

lacksquare so a and b are independent with no variables observed.



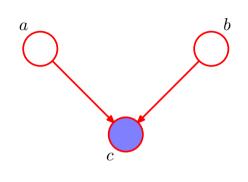
Conditional Independence Example graphs

- Now suppose we condition on c, as indicated in the right figure.
- The conditional distribution of a and b is then given by

$$(a,b|c) = \frac{p(a,b,c)}{p(c)}$$
$$= \frac{p(a)p(b)p(c|a,b)}{p(c)}$$

which in general does not factorize into the product p(a)p(b), and so

 $a \perp b|c$.



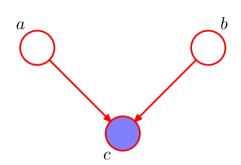
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lackbox which in general does not factorize into the product p(a)p(b), and so

$$a \not \perp b|c$$
.



- Node c is head-to-head w.r.t. the paths from a to b.
- When node c is unobserved, it "blocks" the path.

- Node y is a descendant of node x if there is a path from x to y,
- in which each step of the path follows the directions of the arrows.
- A head-to-head path will become **unblocked** if either the node, or *any of its descendants*, is observed.

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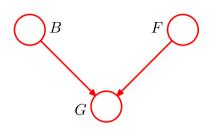
Summary

- A tail-to-tail node or a head-to-tail node leaves a path unblocked unless it is observed in which case it blocks the path.
- A head-to-head node blocks a path if it is unobserved
 - once the node, and/or at least one of its descendants, is observed the path becomes unblocked.

- Three binary random variables relating to the fuel system on a car.
 - lacksquare B the state of a battery that is either charged (B=1) or flat (B=0),
 - F the state of the fuel tank that is either full of fuel (F=1) or empty (F=0),
 - G the state of an electric fuel gauge and which indicates either full (G=1) or empty (G=0)

The battery is either charged or flat, and independently the fuel tank is either full or empty, with prior probabilities

$$p(B=1) = 0.9$$
 $p(F=1) = 0.9$.

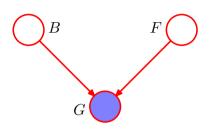


Given the state of the fuel tank and the battery, the fuel gauge reads full with probabilities given by

$$p(G=1|B=1,F=1)=0.8 \qquad p(G=1|B=1,F=0)=0.2 \\ p(G=1|B=0,F=1)=0.2 \qquad p(G=1|B=0,F=0)=0.1$$

Before we observe any data, the prior probability of the fuel tank being empty is p(F=0)=0.1.

- Suppose that we observe the fuel gauge and discover that it reads empty, i.e., G=0.
- We can use Bayes' theorem to evaluate the posterior probability of the fuel tank being empty.



$$p(F=0|G=0) = \frac{p(G=0|F=0)p(F=0)}{p(G=0)}$$

First we evaluate the denominator for Bayes' theorem given by

$$p(G=0) = \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{F \in \{0,1\}} p(G=0|B,F) p(B) p(F) = 0.315$$

and similarly we evaluate

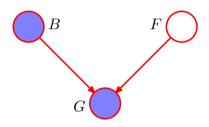
$$p(G=0|F=0) = \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} p(G=0|B,F=0)p(B) = 0.81$$

and using these results we have

$$p(F=0|G=0) = \frac{p(G=0|F=0)p(F=0)}{p(G=0)} \approx 0.257$$

- $ightharpoonup \operatorname{so} p(F=0|G=0) > p(F=0).$
- Thus observing that the gauge reads empty makes it more likely that the tank is indeed empty.

- Suppose that we also check the state of the battery and find that it is flat, i.e., B=0.
- We have now observed the states of both the fuel gauge and the battery.



The posterior probability that the fuel tank is empty given the observations of both the fuel gauge and the battery state is then given by

$$\begin{split} &p(F=0|G=0,B=0)\\ =&\frac{p(G=0|B=0,F=0)p(F=0)}{\sum_{F\in\{0,1\}}p(G=0|B=0,F)p(F)}\approx 0.111 \end{split}$$

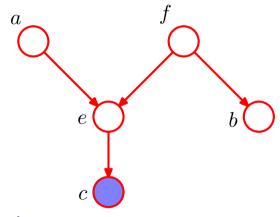
where the prior probability p(B=0) has cancelled between numerator and denominator.

- The probability that the tank is empty has decreased (from 0.257 to 0.111) as a result of the observation of the state of the battery.
- This accords with our intuition that finding out that the battery is flat **explains away** the observation that the fuel gauge reads empty.

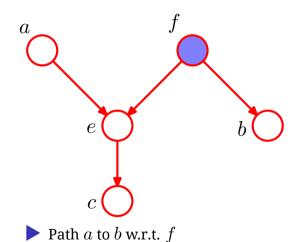
D-separation: $A \perp B|C$

- lackbox Consider a general directed graph in which A,B, and C are arbitrary nonintersecting sets of nodes.
- lacksquare Consider all possible paths from any node in A to any node in B
- Any such path is said to be **blocked** if it includes a node such that either
 - the arrows on the path meet either *head-to-tail* or *tail-to-tail* at the node, and the node is in the set C, or
 - the arrows meet *head-to-head* at the node, and neither the node, nor any of its descendants, is in the set C.
- lacksquare If all paths are blocked, then A is said to be **d-separated** from B by C.

D-separation Example



- Path a to b w.r.t. f.
- Path a to b w.r.t. $\stackrel{\circ}{e}$.
 - Node e has a descendant c.

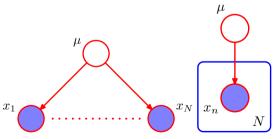


 $a \perp b|f$

Conditional Independence

D-separation: i.i.d.

- Finding the posterior distribution for the mean of a univariate Gaussian distribution.
- The joint distribution is defined by
 - ightharpoonup a prior $p(\mu)$ together with
 - ightharpoonup a set of conditional distributions $p(x_n|\mu)$



Conditional Independence

D-separation: i.i.d.

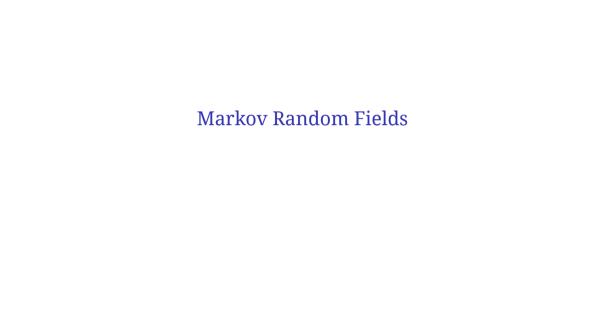
- In practice, we observe $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$
- \triangleright Our goal is to estimate μ .
- Path from x_i to $x_{j\neq i}$ is tail-to-tail w.r.t. node μ .

$$x_1$$
 x_N

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} p(x_n|\mu).$$

However, observations are no longer independent after integration

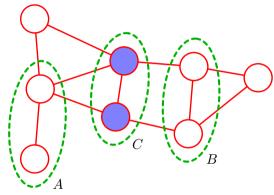
$$p(\mathcal{D} = \int p(\mathcal{D}|\mu)p(\mu)\mathrm{d}\mu \neq \prod_{n=1}^N p(x_n).$$



- A Markov random field, also known as a Markov network or an undirected graphical model, has
 - a set of nodes each of which corresponds to a variable or group of variables,
 - as well as *a set of links* each of which connects a pair of nodes.

Conditional independence property

- All possible paths that connect nodes in set A to nodes in set B.
- If all such paths through one or more nodes in set C, then all such paths are "blocked", so the conditional independency property holds.
- However, if there is at least one such path that is not blocked, then the property does not necessarily hold.



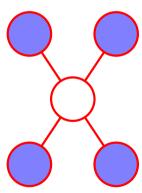
Conditional independence property

 $A \perp B|C$

- A **factorization rule** for undirected graphs that will correspond to the above conditional independence test.
- Two nodes x_i and x_j that are not connected by a link, then these variables must be conditionally independent given all other nodes in the graph.

$$p(x_i, x_j | \mathbf{x}_{-\{i, j\}}) = p(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{-\{i, j\}}) p(x_j | \mathbf{x}_{-\{i, j\}})$$

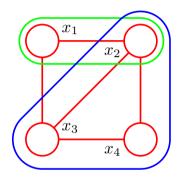
where $\mathbf{x}_{-\{i,j\}}$ denotes the set \mathbf{x} of all variables with x_i and x_j removed.



A clique is defined as a subset of the nodes in a graph such that there exists a link between all pairs of nodes in the subset.

A maximal clique is a clique such that it is not possible to include any other nodes from the graph in the set without it ceasing to be a clique.

- Five cliques of two nodes
- Two maximal cliques given by $\{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$, and $\{x_2, x_3, x_4\}$.



- lacksquare Let us denote a clique by C and the set of variables in that clique by \mathbf{x}_C .
- The joint distribution is written as a product of **potential functions** $\psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$ over the maximal cliques of the graph

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{C} \psi_{C}(\mathbf{x}_{C})$$

ightharpoonup The quantity Z, sometimes called the **partition function**, is the normalization constant and is given by

$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \prod_{C} \psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$$

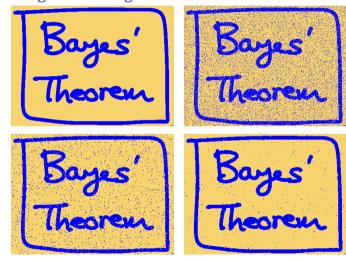
lacksquare Note: a model with M discrete nodes each having K states.

- Because potential functions are strictly positive,
- It is convenient to express them as exponentials,

$$\psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C) = \exp \left[-E(\mathbf{x}_C) \right]$$

where $E(\mathbf{x}_C)$ is called an **energy function**, and the exponential representation is called the **Boltzmann distribution**.

Image denoising: iterated conditional models vs graph-cut



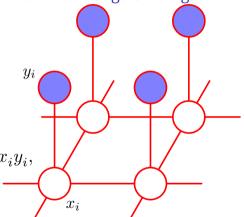
- Two types of cliques
 - $\{x_i, y_i\}$ with energy function $-\eta x_i y_i$ expressing the correlation between these variables.
 - $\{x_i, x_j\}$ of neighboring pixels with an energy $-\beta x_i x_j$.
- The complete energy function for the model then takes the form

$$E(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = h \sum_{i} x_{i} - \beta \sum_{\{i,j\}} x_{i} x_{j} - \eta \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i},$$

which defines a joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\{-E(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\}.$$

Prior knowledge of image





The joint distribution of the directed graph is

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(x_1) p(x_2|x_1) p(x_3|x_2) \cdots p(x_N|x_{N-1}).$$

Convert it to an undirected graph representation.



As the maximal cliques are pairs of neighboring nodes, the joint distribution is

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

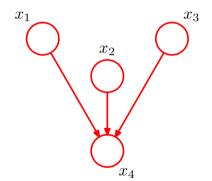
> So we have

$$\begin{split} \psi_{1,2}(x_1,x_2) &= p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1) \\ \psi_{2,3}(x_2,x_3) &= p(x_3|x_2) \\ & \vdots \\ \psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1},x_N) &= p(x_N|x_{N-1}). \end{split}$$

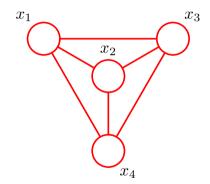
▶ The joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4|x_1,x_2,x_3).$$

- The factor $p(x_4|x_1,x_2,x_3)$ involves all four variables.
- They must all belong to a single clique.



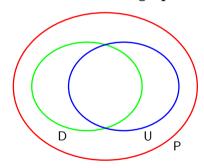
- We add extra links between all pairs of parents of the node x_4 .
- This process of "marrying the parents" is known as **moralization**, the resulting graph is called the **moral graph**.
- Converting from an undirected to a directed representation is much less common.



A D map (for "dependency map") if every conditional independence statement satisfied by the distribution is reflected in the graph.

An I map (for "independence map") if every conditional independence statement implied by a graph is satisfied by a specific distribution.

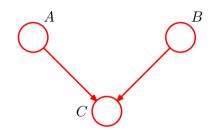
A perfect map every conditional independence property reflected, and vice versa.



A directed graph that is a perfect map for a distribution satisfying the conditional independence properties

$$A \perp B | \emptyset$$
$$A \perp B | C$$

There is no corresponding undirected graph over the same three variables that is a perfect map.



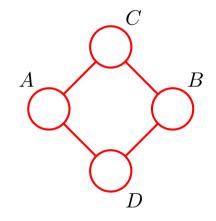
The undirected graph over four variables has properties

$$A \perp B | \emptyset$$

$$C \perp D | A \cup B$$

$$A \perp B | C \cup D$$

No directed graph implies the same set of conditional independencies.





a) Decompose into a product of factors

$$p(x,y) = p(x)p(y|x)$$

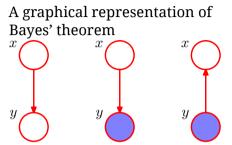
b) Obsered the value of y, using the sum and product rules

$$p(y) = \sum_{x'} p(y|x')p(x')$$

apply Bayes' theorem

$$p(x|y) = p(y|x)p(x)/p(y).$$

c) The joint distribution p(x, y) = p(y)p(x|y).



(b)

(c)

(a)



The joint distribution is

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

- $lackbox{\ }$ Consider the case of N nodes representing discrete variables each having K states
 - Each potential function $\psi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1},x_n)$ comprises an $K\times K$ table, indicating $(N-1)K^2$ parameters.

- ightharpoonup To find the marginal distribution $p(x_n)$
- ightharpoonup By definition, it can be obtained by summing the joint distribution over all variables except x_n ,

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

- Rearrange the order of the summations and the multiplications to allow the marinalization be computed more efficiently.
- As potential $\psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1},x_N)$ is the only one depends on x_N , so we can perform the summation

$$\sum_{x_N} \psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1},x_N)$$

first to give a function of x_{N-1} .

Then sum over x_{N-1} and similarly we can make summation over x_1 which involves only the potential $\psi_{1,2}(x_1,x_2)$.

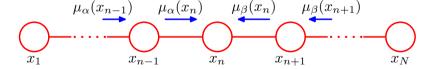
If we group the potentials and summations together in this way, we can express the desired marginal in the form

$$\begin{split} p(x_n) &= \frac{1}{Z} \\ &\underbrace{\left[\sum_{x_{n-1}} \psi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1},x_n) \cdots \left[\sum_{x_2} \psi_{2,3}(x_2,x_3) \left[\sum_{x_1} \psi_{1,2}(x_1,x_2)\right]\right] \cdots\right]}_{\mu_{\beta}(x_n)} \\ &\underbrace{\left[\sum_{x_{n+1}} \psi_{n,n+1}(x_n,x_{n+1}) \cdots \left[\sum_{x_N} \psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1},x_N)\right] \cdots\right]}_{\mu_{\beta}(x_n)}. \end{split}$$

Passing of local messages around on the graph

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

- $\blacktriangleright \mu_{\alpha}(x_n)$ a message passed forwards
- $\blacktriangleright \mu_{\beta}(x_n)$ a message passed backwards

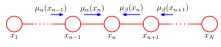


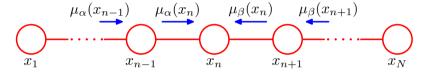
 \blacktriangleright The message $\mu_{\alpha}(x_n)$ can be evaluated recursively because

$$\begin{split} \mu_{\alpha}(x_n) &= \sum_{x_{n-1}} \psi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1},x_n) \Big[\sum_{x_{n-2}} \cdots \Big] \\ &= \sum_{x_{n-1}} \psi_{n-1,n}(x_{n-1},x_n) \mu_{\alpha}(x_{n-1}). \end{split}$$

lacksquare Similarly, the message $\mu_{eta}(x_n)$ can be evaluated recursively by starting with node x_N and using

$$\mu_{\beta}(x_n) = \sum \psi_{n+1,n}(x_{n+1},x_n) \mu_{\beta}(x_{n+1}). \qquad \underbrace{ \sum_{x_1,\dots,x_{n-1}}^{\mu_{\alpha}(x_{n-1})} \underbrace{ \sum_{x_n,\dots,x_n}^{\mu_{\beta}(x_n)} \underbrace{ \sum_{x_n,\dots,x_n}^{\mu_{\beta}(x_{n+1})} \underbrace{ \sum_{x_n,\dots,x_n}^{\mu_{\beta}(x_n)} \underbrace{ \sum_{x_n,\dots,x_n}^{\mu_{\beta}(x_$$





- Graphs of the form called Markov chains
- the corresponding message passing equations represent an example of the Chapman- Kolmogorov equations for Markov processes.