# Probabilistic Graphical Models

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Assigned reading: Chapter 11, [Barber12] (23.2.2 & 23.2.5)<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Barber, D. Bayesian Reasoning and Machine Learning. Cambridge University Press, 2012. http://web4.cs.ucl.ac.uk/staff/D.Barber/textbook/090310.pdf

#### OUTLINE

- ▶ Probabilistic graphical models
  - finish the D-SEPARATION examples
  - Conditional probability table
  - Inference in PGMs
- ▶ Inference in HMMs
  - DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING (a review)
  - $-\alpha$ -update algorithm
  - VITERBI algorithm

#### D-SEPARATION

- ▶ To check conditional independence between  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ , conditioned on a set of nodes  $\mathcal{C}$ , consider all *indirected* paths between  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ .
- We can declare  $X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp X_i \mid \mathcal{C}$  if all paths are blocked.
- ▶ A path is blocked if *any node* in the path is blocked (via "atomic" triples).

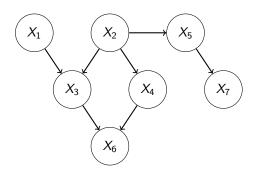


Figure:  $X_1 \perp \!\!\!\perp X_2 \mid X_6$ ?

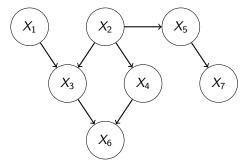
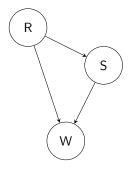


Figure:  $X_3 \perp \!\!\! \perp X_7 \mid X_2$ ?

# JOINT PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION: AN EXAMPLE

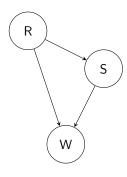


S	R	W	P(S,R,W)
Т	Т	Т	
Т	Т	F	
Т	F	Т	
Т	F	F	
F	Т	Т	
F	Т	F	
F	F	Т	
F	F	F	

#### JOINT PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION

- ▶ Canonical example is a multivariate Gaussian. The joint probability is specified by the mean, a *d*-dimensional vector, and the covariance matrix, a *d* × *d* symmetric matrix.
- ▶ Suppose we have d binary random variables. Then the joint distribution can be specified by a table with  $2^d$  entries. This quickly becomes intractable, both for specification, and subsequently in estimation from data.
- ▶ The secret to tractability is conditional independence. This information can be captured by a directed acyclic graph (DAG). For such a graph, every node has well-defined parents and the joint distribution is the product of "local" conditional distributions.

## CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY TABLE



$$P(R,S,W) = P(R)P(S|R)P(W|S,R)$$

P(R)	R = True	R = False
	0.2	0.8

P(S R)	S = True	S = False
R = True	0.01	0.99
R = False	0.4	0.6

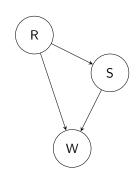
W = True	W = False
0.99	0.01
0.8	0.2
0.9	0.1
0.0	1.0
	0.99 0.8 0.9

# JOINT PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION: AN EXAMPLE

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} P(R) & R = \text{True} & R = \text{False} \\ \hline & 0.2 & 0.8 \end{array}$$

P(S R)	S = True	S = False
R = True		0.99
R = False	0.4	0.6

P(W S,R)	W = True	W = False
S = True, R = True	0.99	0.01
S = True,  R = False	0.8	0.2
S = False, R = True	0.9	0.1
S = False, R = False	0.0	1.0



5	R	W	P(S,R,W)
Т	Т	Т	
Т	Т	F	
Т	F	Т	
Т	F	F	
F	Т	Т	
F	Т	F	
F	F	Т	
F	F	F	

$$P(X_1,\ldots,X_d) = \prod_{i=1}^d P(X_i \mid \mathrm{pa}(X_i))$$

In general

$$|\mathrm{pa}(X_i)| \ll d$$

therefore this leads to a much more compact representation of the joint probability.



## INFERENCE in PGMs

$$P(R = T \mid W = T) = \frac{P(R = T, W = T)}{P(W = T)} = \frac{\sum_{s \in \{T, F\}} P(R = T, S = s, W = T)}{\sum_{r, s \in \{T, F\}} P(R = r, S = s, W = T)}$$

#### INFERENCE in PGMs

$$P(R = T \mid W = T) = \frac{P(R = T, W = T)}{P(W = T)} = \frac{\sum_{s \in \{T, F\}} P(R = T, S = s, W = T)}{\sum_{r, s \in \{T, F\}} P(R = r, S = s, W = T)}$$

We can calculate any term in the numerator and denominator using our factorization, e.g.,

$$P(R = T, S = T, W = T) = P(R = T)P(S = T \mid R = T)P(W = T \mid S = T, R = T)$$
  
= 0.2 × 0.01 × 0.99  
= 0.00198

Then the numerical results (check at home!) are:

$$P(R = T \mid W = T) = \frac{0.00198 + 0.1584}{0.00198 + 0.288 + 0.1584 + 0} \approx 0.36$$

## THE WEATHER-ICE CREAM HMM

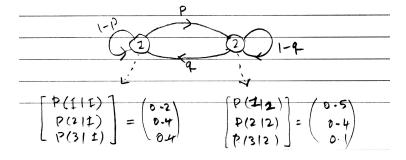
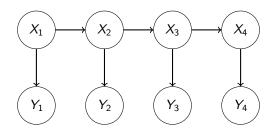


Figure: "stochastic automaton" representation of the HMM

#### THE WEATHER-ICE CREAM HMM



$$P(X_{1:T}, Y_{1:T}) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(X_t|X_{t-1})P(Y_t|X_t)$$

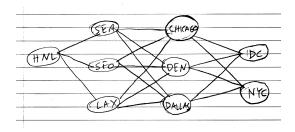
We are interested in various inference problems, e.g.:

- ▶ How can we reason about  $P(X_T|Y_{1:T})$ ?
- lacktriangle What are the most likely states given the observations  $Y_{1:T}$ , i.e., find

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{X_{1:T}} P(X_{1:T} \mid Y_{1:T}).$$

# DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

## EXAMPLE: FIND CHEAPEST FLIGHT



- ▶ *K* choices at each stage, *T* stages
- ▶ The not-so-clever algorithm: brute force enumeration of all possible paths:  $O(K^T)$
- ▶ We can do a lot better! The backtrace algorithm:  $O(K^2T)!$

#### BACKTRACE

The core idea is to solve the problem recursively.

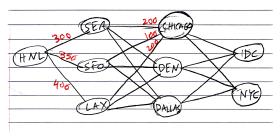
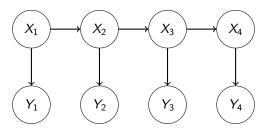


Figure: What is the cheapest way to get to CHICAGO?

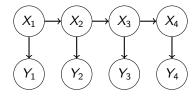
- ▶ BACKTRACE: To solve the problem of finding the cheapest way to get to stage t+1, we only need to know the cheapest way to get to nodes in stage t.
- stage-to-stage computation is  $O(K^2)$ .
- ▶ There are T stages: the total computation is  $O(K^2T)$



VITERBI BACKTRACE

 $\operatorname*{argmax}_{X_{1:T}} P(X_{1:T} \mid Y_{1:T})$ 

#### HMM REVIEW



- ▶ A set of K states in  $X_t \in [K] = \{1, ..., K\}$ .
- ▶ Transition probabilities

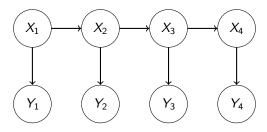
$$P(X_t|X_{t-1})$$

- ▶ A sequence of observations  $Y_{1:T} = (Y_1, ..., Y_T)$  with  $Y_t \in \mathcal{Y} = [L]$ .
- ▶ A sequence of observation likelihoods, also called emission probabilities,

$$P(Y_t|X_t)$$
.

- An initial probability distribution over states denoted by  $P(X_1)$ .
- Given these, we know the joint probability  $P(X_{1:T}, Y_{1:T})$ :

$$P(X_{1:T}, Y_{1:T}) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(Y_t|X_t) P(X_t|X_{t-1})$$



WARMUP:  $\alpha$ -UPDATE ALGORITHM

FILTERING:  $P(X_t|Y_{1:t})$ 

#### $\alpha$ -UPDATE ALGORITHM

▶ Define  $\alpha(X_t)$ :

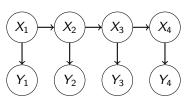
$$\alpha(X_t) = P(X_t, Y_{1:t})$$

 $\nearrow$  We can express  $\alpha(X_t)$  in terms of  $\alpha(X_{t-1})$ :

$$\alpha(X_t) = P(Y_t|X_t) \sum_{X_{t-1}} \alpha(X_{t-1}) P(X_t|X_{t-1}), \quad t > 1$$

▶ The iteration starts at  $\alpha(X_1) = P(Y_1|X_1)P(X_1)$ 

#### VITERBI ALGORITHM I.1



• We are interested in the most likely sequence  $X_{1:T}$  of  $P(X_{1:T}|Y_{1:T})$ :

$$\underset{X_{1:T}}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(X_{1:T} | Y_{1:T}) = \underset{X_{1:T}}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(X_{1:T}, Y_{1:T})$$

▶ Start with the following:

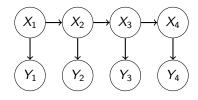
$$\max_{X_T} \prod_{t=1}^T P(Y_t|X_t) P(X_t|X_{t-1}) = \left(\prod_{t=1}^{T-1} P(Y_t|X_t) P(X_t|X_{t-1})\right) \underbrace{\max_{X_T} P(Y_T|X_T) P(X_T|X_{T-1})}_{\mu(X_{T-1})}$$

▶ The "message"  $\mu(X_{T-1})$  conveys information from the end of the chain to the penultimate timestep. We can continue recursively:

$$\mu(X_{t-1}) = \max_{X_t} P(Y_t|X_t)P(X_t|X_{t-1})\mu(X_t), \quad t = T, \dots, 2$$

with 
$$\mu(X_T) = 1$$
.

## VITERBI ALGORITHM I.2



▶ Maximizing over  $X_2, ..., X_T$  is "compressed" into the message  $\mu(X_1)$  so that the most likely state  $X_1^*$  is given by

$$X_1^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{X_1} P(Y_1|X_1) P(X_1) \mu(X_1)$$

▶ Once computed, "BACKTRACKING" gives

$$X_t^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{X_t} P(Y_t|X_t) P(X_t|X_{t-1}^*) \mu(X_t), \quad t=2,\ldots,T$$

#### VITERBI ALGORITHM II.1

We could also solve the problem by passing "messages" in the forward fashion, starting with

$$\max_{X_1} \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(Y_t|X_t) P(X_t|X_{t-1}) \\
= \underbrace{\max_{X_1} P(X_t) P(Y_1|X_1)}_{\nu(X_1)} P(X_2|X_1) P(Y_2|X_2)}_{\nu(X_2)} \left( \prod_{t=3}^{T} P(X_t|X_{t-1}) P(Y_t|X_t) \right),$$

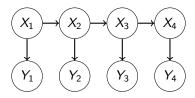
arriving at the recursion

$$\nu(X_t) = \max_{X_{t-1}} \nu(X_{t-1}) P(X_t | X_{t-1}) \cdot P(Y_t | X_t), \qquad t = 2, \dots, T.$$

▶ The recursion is initialized with

$$\nu(X_1) := P(X_1)P(Y_1|X_1).$$

#### VITERBI ALGORITHM II.2



▶ Now, BACKTRACKING starts with<sup>2</sup>

$$X_T^* = \operatorname*{argmax} 
u(X_T).$$

▶ This is followed up by the recursion

$$X_{t-1}^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{X_{t-1}} \nu(X_{t-1}) P(X_t^* | X_{t-1}) P(Y_t | X_t^*), \quad t = T, \dots, 2.$$

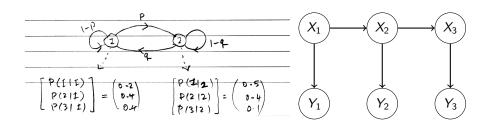
▶ This is the probabilistic form of our BACKTRACKING algorithm to find the cheapest flight!

$$\nu(X_T^*) = \max_{X_{1:T}} P(X_{1:T}|Y_{1:T}).$$

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ Since T is the end of our iteration, we have

$$\bigcirc$$
 EXAMPLE:  $T=3$ 

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{X_{1:3}} P(X_{1:3}|Y_{1:3}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{X_{1:3}} P(X_{1:3}, Y_{1:3})$$



$$P(X_{1:3}, Y_{1:3}) = P(X_1)P(Y_1|X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(Y_2|X_2)P(X_3|X_2)P(Y_3|X_3)$$