

# Lecture : Inference in Graphical Models

**Riashat Islam**

Reasoning and Learning Lab  
McGill University

11th October 2017

# **Exact Inference**

## Variable Elimination and Belief Propagation

# Inference

Inference corresponds to using the distribution to answers questions about the environment.

---

## examples

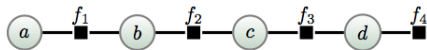
- What is the probability  $p(x = 4|y = 1, z = 2)$ ?
  - What is the most likely joint state of the distribution  $p(x, y)$ ?
  - What is the entropy of the distribution  $p(x, y, z)$ ?
  - What is the probability that this example is in class 1?
  - What is the probability the stock market will do down tomorrow?
- 

## Computational Efficiency

- Inference can be computationally very expensive and we wish to characterise situations in which inferences can be computed efficiently.
- For singly-connected graphical models, and certain inference questions, there exist efficient algorithms based on the concept of message passing.
- In general, the case of multiply-connected models is computationally inefficient.

# Sum-Product Algorithm

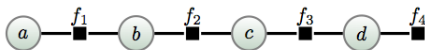
$$p(a, b, c, d) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \quad a, b, c, d \text{ binary variables}$$



$$\begin{aligned} p(a) &= \sum_{b,c,d} p(a, b, c, d) \\ &\propto \sum_{b,c,d} f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \Rightarrow 2^3 \text{ sums} \end{aligned}$$

# Sum-Product Algorithm

$$p(a, b, c, d) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \quad a, b, c, d \text{ binary variables}$$



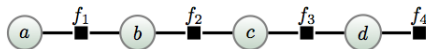
$$p(a) = \sum_{b, c, d} p(a, b, c, d)$$

$$\propto \sum_{b, c, d} f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \Rightarrow 2^3 \text{ sums}$$

$$= \sum_b f_1(a, b) \sum_c f_2(b, c) \sum_d f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \Rightarrow 2 \times 3 \text{ sums}$$

# Sum-Product Algorithm

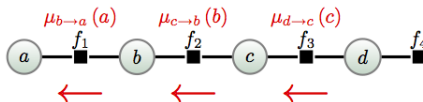
$$p(a, b, c, d) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \quad a, b, c, d \text{ binary variables}$$



$$\begin{aligned} p(a) &= \sum_{b, c, d} p(a, b, c, d) \\ &\propto \sum_{b, c, d} f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \\ &= \sum_b f_1(a, b) \underbrace{\sum_c f_2(b, c) \underbrace{\sum_d f_3(c, d) f_4(d)}_{\mu_{d \rightarrow c}(c)}}_{\mu_{c \rightarrow b}(b)} \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{b \rightarrow a}(a)} \end{aligned}$$

# Sum-Product Algorithm

$$p(a, b, c, d) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \quad a, b, c, d \text{ binary variables}$$

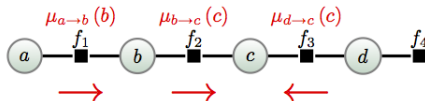


Passing variable-to-variable messages from  $d$  up to  $a$

$$\begin{aligned} p(a) &= \sum_{b, c, d} p(a, b, c, d) \\ &\propto \sum_{b, c, d} f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \\ &= \sum_b f_1(a, b) \underbrace{\sum_c f_2(b, c) \underbrace{\sum_d f_3(c, d) f_4(d)}_{\mu_{d \rightarrow c}(c)}}_{\mu_{c \rightarrow b}(b)} \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{b \rightarrow a}(a)} \end{aligned}$$

# Sum-Product Algorithm

For  $p(c)$  need to send messages in both directions

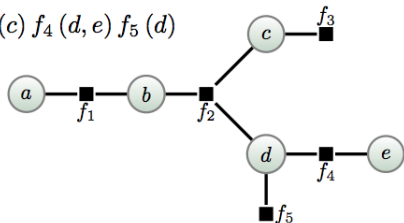


$$\begin{aligned} p(c) &\propto \sum_{a,b,d} f_1(a,b) f_2(b,c) f_3(c,d) f_4(d) \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_b \underbrace{\sum_a f_1(a,b) f_2(b,c)}_{\mu_{a \rightarrow b}(b)}}_{\mu_{b \rightarrow c}(c)} \underbrace{\sum_d f_3(c,d) f_4(d)}_{\mu_{d \rightarrow c}(c)} \end{aligned}$$



# Sum-Product Algorithm

$$p(a, b, c, d, e) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c, d) f_3(c) f_4(d, e) f_5(d)$$



Need to define factor-to-variable messages and variable-to-factor messages

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(a) &\propto f_1(a, b) \sum_{c, d} f_2(b, c, d) \underbrace{f_3(c)}_{\mu_{c \rightarrow f_2}(c) = \mu_{f_3 \rightarrow c}(c)} \underbrace{f_5(d)}_{\mu_{f_5 \rightarrow d}(d)} \underbrace{\sum_e f_4(d, e)}_{\mu_{f_4 \rightarrow d}(d)} \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{d \rightarrow f_2}(d)} \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{b \rightarrow f_1}(b) = \mu_{f_2 \rightarrow b}(b)} \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{f_1 \rightarrow a}(a)}
 \end{aligned}$$

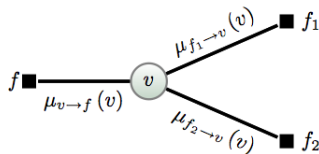
$\Rightarrow$  Marginal inference for a singly-connected structure is easy.

# Sum-Product Algorithm for Factor Graphs

## Variable to factor message

$$\mu_{v \rightarrow f}(v) = \prod_{f_i \sim v \setminus f} \mu_{f_i \rightarrow v}(v)$$

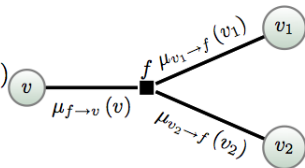
Messages from extremal variables are set to 1



## Factor to variable message

$$\mu_{f \rightarrow v}(v) = \sum_{\{v_i\}} f(v, \{v_i\}) \prod_{v_i \sim f \setminus v} \mu_{v_i \rightarrow f}(v_i)$$

Messages from extremal factors are set to the factor

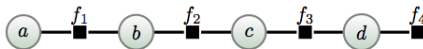


## Marginal

$$p(v) \propto \prod_{f_i \sim v} \mu_{f_i \rightarrow v}(v)$$

# Max Product Algorithm

$$p(a, b, c, d) \propto f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \quad a, b, c, d \text{ binary variables}$$

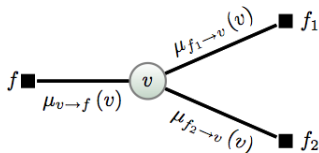


$$\begin{aligned} \max_{a,b,c,d} p(a, b, c, d) &= \max_{a,b,c,d} f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(c, d) f_4(d) \\ &= \max_a \max_b f_1(a, b) \underbrace{\max_c f_2(b, c) \max_d f_3(c, d) f_4(d)}_{\mu_{d \rightarrow c}(c)} \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\mu_{c \rightarrow b}(b)} \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{15em}}_{\mu_{b \rightarrow a}(a)} \end{aligned}$$

# Max Product Algorithm

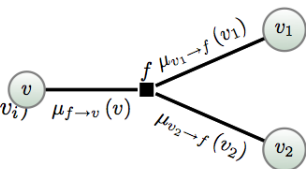
## Variable to factor message

$$\mu_{v \rightarrow f}(v) = \prod_{f_i \sim v \setminus f} \mu_{f_i \rightarrow v}(v)$$



## Factor to variable message

$$\mu_{f \rightarrow v}(v) = \max_{\{v_i\}} f(v, \{v_i\}) \prod_{v_i \sim f \setminus v} \mu_{v_i \rightarrow f}(v_i)$$



## Marginal

$$v^* = \operatorname{argmax}_v \prod_{f_i \sim v} \mu_{f_i \rightarrow v}(v)$$

# Message Passing

- ▶ Also known as **belief propagation** or **dynamic programming**
- ▶ Note that for non-branching graphs (they look like lines), only variable to variable messages are required.
- ▶ For message passing to work we need to be able to distribute the operator over the factors (which means that the operator algebra is a semiring) and that the graph is singly-connected.
- ▶ Provided the above conditions hold, marginal inference scales linearly with the number of nodes in the graph.

# Approximate Inference

## Sampling Methods

# Inference for Graphical Models

Before we looked into **Exact Inference** :

- ▶ Can be slow in many cases!

**Approximate Inference : Sampling Methods** represent desired distribution with a set of samples → as more samples are used, obtain more accurate representation

# Sampling

Fundamental problem we address:

- ▶ How to obtain samples from a probability distribution  $p(\mathbf{z})$
- ▶ This could be a conditional distribution  $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{e})$

We wish to evaluate expectations such as

$$\mathbb{E}[f] = \int f(z)p(z)dz \quad (1)$$

- ▶ e.g mean when  $f(z) = z$

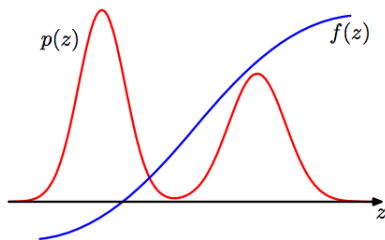
For complicated  $p(z)$ , this is difficult to do exactly, so approximate as

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L f(z^{(l)}) \quad (2)$$

where  $\{z^{(l)} | l = 1, \dots, L\}$  are independent samples from  $p(\mathbf{z})$



# Sampling



- Approximate

$$\hat{f} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{l=1}^L f(\mathbf{z}^{(l)})$$

where  $\{\mathbf{z}^{(l)} | l = 1, \dots, L\}$  are independent samples from  $p(\mathbf{z})$

# Simple Monte Carlo

Statistical sampling can be applied to any expectation:

**In general:**

$$\int f(x)P(x) \, dx \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S f(x^{(s)}), \quad x^{(s)} \sim P(x)$$

**Example: making predictions**

$$\begin{aligned} p(x|\mathcal{D}) &= \int P(x|\theta, \mathcal{D})P(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \, d\theta \\ &\approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S P(x|\theta^{(s)}, \mathcal{D}), \quad \theta^{(s)} \sim P(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \end{aligned}$$

# Properties of Monte Carlo

Estimator:  $\int f(x)P(x) \, dx \approx \hat{f} \equiv \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S f(x^{(s)}), \quad x^{(s)} \sim P(x)$

**Estimator is unbiased:**

$$\mathbb{E}_{P(\{x^{(s)}\})} [\hat{f}] = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mathbb{E}_{P(x)} [f(x)] = \mathbb{E}_{P(x)} [f(x)]$$

**Variance shrinks  $\propto 1/S$ :**

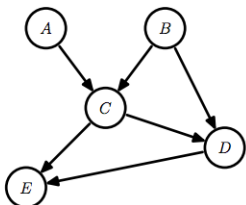
$$\text{var}_{P(\{x^{(s)}\})} [\hat{f}] = \frac{1}{S^2} \sum_{s=1}^S \text{var}_{P(x)} [f(x)] = \text{var}_{P(x)} [f(x)] / S$$

“Error bars” shrink like  $\sqrt{S}$

# Sampling from a Bayesian Network

**Ancestral pass** for directed graphical models:

- sample each top level variable from its marginal
- sample each other node from its conditional once its parents have been sampled



**Sample:**

$$A \sim P(A)$$

$$B \sim P(B)$$

$$C \sim P(C | A, B)$$

$$D \sim P(D | B, C)$$

$$E \sim P(E | C, D)$$

$$P(A, B, C, D, E) = P(A) P(B) P(C | A, B) P(D | B, C) P(E | C, D)$$

# Sampling from Bayesian Networks

- Sampling from discrete Bayesian networks with no observations is straight-forward, using [ancestral sampling](#)
- Bayesian network specifies factorization of joint distribution

$$P(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(z_i | pa(z_i))$$

- Sample in-order, sample parents before children
  - Possible because graph is a DAG
- Choose value for  $z_i$  from  $p(z_i | pa(z_i))$

# Ancestral Sampling

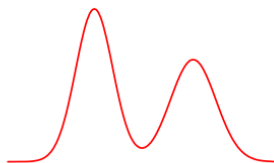
Given a DAG model

- ▶ Start by sampling from  $P(x_1)$
- ▶ Then sample from  $P(x_2|x_1)$
- ▶ Then sample from  $P(x_3|x_2)$
- ▶ Finally sample from  $P(x_4|x_3)$

$\{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}$  is a sample from the joint distribution

# Basic Sampling Algorithm

How to generate samples from simple non-uniform distributions assuming we can generate samples from uniform distribution.



Define:  $h(y) = \int_{-\infty}^y p(\hat{y}) d\hat{y}$

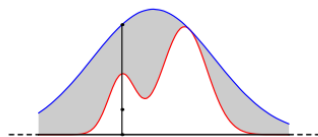
Sample:  $z \sim U[0, 1]$ .

Then:  $y = h^{-1}(z)$  is a sample from  $p(y)$ .

**Problem:** Computing cumulative  $h(y)$  is just as hard!

# Rejection Sampling

Sampling from *target distribution*  $p(z) = \tilde{p}(z)/Z_p$  is difficult. Suppose we have an easy-to-sample *proposal distribution*  $q(z)$ , such that  $kq(z) \geq \tilde{p}(z)$ ,  $\forall z$ .



Sample  $z_0$  from  $q(z)$ .

Sample  $u_0$  from  $\text{Uniform}[0, kq(z_0)]$

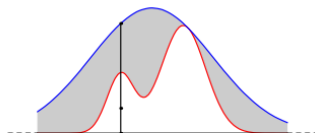
The pair  $(z_0, u_0)$  has uniform distribution under the curve of  $kq(z)$ .

If  $u_0 > \tilde{p}(z_0)$ , the sample is rejected.



# Rejection Sampling

Probability that a sample is accepted is:



$$\begin{aligned} p(\text{accept}) &= \int \frac{\tilde{p}(z)}{kq(z)} q(z) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{k} \int \tilde{p}(z) dz \end{aligned}$$

The fraction of accepted samples depends on the ratio of the area under  $\tilde{p}(z)$  and  $kq(z)$ .

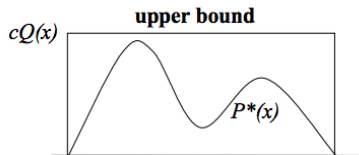
Hard to find appropriate  $q(z)$  with optimal  $k$ .

Useful technique in one or two dimensions. Typically applied as a subroutine in more advanced algorithms.

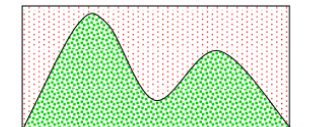
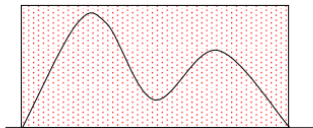
# Rejection Sampling

Need a proposal density  $Q(x)$  [e.g. uniform or Gaussian], and a constant  $c$  such that  $c(Qx)$  is an upper bound for  $P^*(x)$

Example with  $Q(x)$  uniform



**generate uniform random samples  
in upper bound volume**

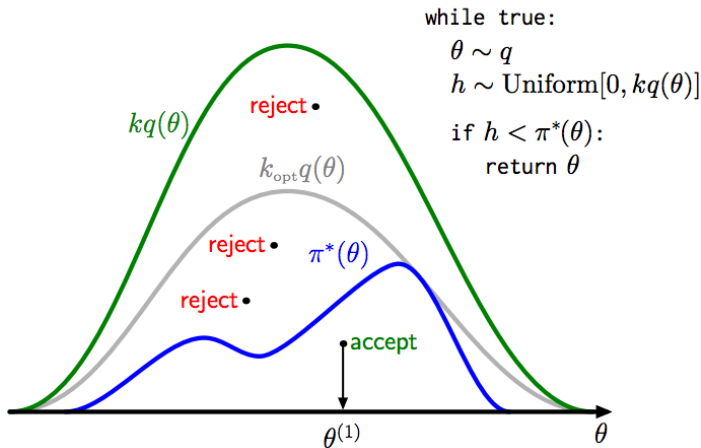


**accept samples that fall  
below the  $P^*(x)$  curve**

**the marginal density of the  
x coordinates of the points  
is then proportional to  $P^*(x)$**

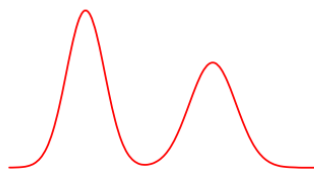
Note the relationship to  
Monte Carlo integration.

# Rejection Sampling



# Importance Sampling

Suppose we have an easy-to-sample *proposal distribution*  $q(z)$ , such that  $q(z) > 0$  if  $p(z) > 0$ .



$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[f] &= \int f(z)p(z)dz \\ &= \int f(z)\frac{p(z)}{q(z)}q(z)dz \\ &\approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \frac{p(z^n)}{q(z^n)} f(z^n), \quad z^n \sim q(z)\end{aligned}$$

The quantities  $w^n = p(z^n)/q(z^n)$  are known as **importance weights**.  
Unlike rejection sampling, all samples are retained.  
But wait: we cannot compute  $p(z)$ , only  $\tilde{p}(z)$ .

# Importance Sampling

Let our proposal be of the form  $q(z) = \tilde{q}(z)/\mathcal{Z}_q$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[f] &= \int f(z)p(z)dz = \int f(z)\frac{p(z)}{q(z)}q(z)dz = \frac{\mathcal{Z}_q}{\mathcal{Z}_p} \int f(z)\frac{\tilde{p}(z)}{\tilde{q}(z)}q(z)dz \\ &\approx \frac{\mathcal{Z}_q}{\mathcal{Z}_p} \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \frac{\tilde{p}(z^n)}{\tilde{q}(z^n)} f(z^n) = \frac{\mathcal{Z}_q}{\mathcal{Z}_p} \frac{1}{N} \sum_n w^n f(z^n), \quad z^n \sim q(z)\end{aligned}$$

But we can use the same importance weights to approximate  $\frac{\mathcal{Z}_p}{\mathcal{Z}_q}$ :

$$\frac{\mathcal{Z}_p}{\mathcal{Z}_q} = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}_q} \int \tilde{p}(z)dz = \int \frac{\tilde{p}(z)}{\tilde{q}(z)}q(z)dz \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \frac{\tilde{p}(z^n)}{\tilde{q}(z^n)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n w^n$$

Hence:

$$\mathbb{E}[f] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \frac{w^n}{\sum_n w^n} f(z^n) \quad \text{Consistent but biased.}$$

# Problems

If our proposal distribution  $q(z)$  poorly matches our target distribution  $p(z)$  then:

- Rejection Sampling: almost always rejects
- Importance Sampling: has large, possibly infinite, variance (unreliable estimator).

For high-dimensional problems, finding good proposal distributions is very hard. What can we do?

Markov Chain Monte Carlo.

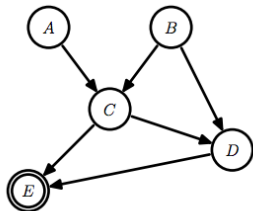
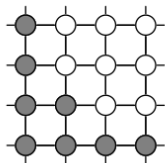
# Summary so far

- Sums and integrals, often expectations, occur frequently in statistics
- **Monte Carlo** approximates expectations with a sample average
- **Rejection sampling** draws samples from complex distributions
- **Importance sampling** applies Monte Carlo to 'any' sum/integral

# Application to Large Problems

We often can't decompose  $P(X)$  into low-dimensional conditionals

**Undirected graphical models:**  $P(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_i f_i(x)$



**Posterior** of a directed graphical model

$$P(A, B, C, D | E) = \frac{P(A, B, C, D, E)}{P(E)}$$

We often don't know  $Z$  or  $P(E)$



# Gibbs Sampling

For large graphical models, given a multivariate distribution, it is simpler to sample from a conditional distribution than to marginalize by integrating over a joint distribution

- ▶ We want samples approximate the joint distribution of all variables
- ▶ The marginal distribution of any subset of variables can be approximated by simply considering the samples for that subset of variables (Markov Blanket in Bayes Nets!)
- ▶ The expected value of any variable can be approximated by averaging over all the samples

# Gibbs Sampling

A method with no rejections:

- Initialize  $\mathbf{x}$  to some value
- Pick each variable in turn or randomly and resample  $P(x_i | \mathbf{x}_{j \neq i})$

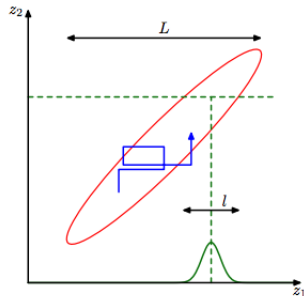
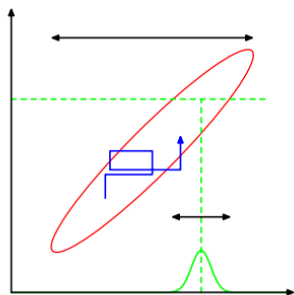


Figure from PRML, Bishop (2006)

# Gibbs Sampler

Consider sampling from  $p(z_1, \dots, z_N)$ .



Initialize  $z_i, i = 1, \dots, N$

For  $t=1, \dots, T$

Sample  $z_1^{t+1} \sim p(z_1 | z_2^t, \dots, z_N^t)$

Sample  $z_2^{t+1} \sim p(z_2 | z_1^{t+1}, z_3^t, \dots, z_N^t)$

...

Sample  $z_N^{t+1} \sim p(z_N | z_1^{t+1}, \dots, z_{N-1}^{t+1})$

Gibbs sampler is a particular instance of M-H algorithm with proposals  $p(z_n | \mathbf{z}_{i \neq n}) \rightarrow$  accept with probability 1. Apply a series (component-wise) of these operators.

# Gibbs Sampling for Bayes Nets

## 1. Initialization

- Set evidence variables  $E$ , to the observed values  $e$
- Set all other variables to random values (e.g. by forward sampling)

This gives us a sample  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ .

## 2. Repeat (as much as wanted)

- Pick a non-evidence variable  $X_i$  uniformly randomly)
- Sample  $x'_i$  from  $P(X_i | x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)$ .
- Keep all other values:  $x'_j = x_j, \forall j \neq i$
- The new sample is  $x'_1, \dots, x'_n$

## 3. Alternatively, you can march through the variables in some predefined order

# Why Gibbs works in Bayes Nets

- The key step is sampling according to  $P(X_i|x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)$ . How do we compute this?
- In Bayes nets, we know that a variable is conditionally independent of all others given its Markov blanket (parents, children, spouses)

$$P(X_i|x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) = P(X_i|\text{MarkovBlanket}(X_i))$$

- So we need to sample from  $P(X_i|\text{MarkovBlanket}(X_i))$
- Let  $Y_j, j = 1, \dots, k$  be the children of  $X_i$ . It is easy to show that:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_i = x_i|\text{MarkovBlanket}(X_i)) &\propto P(X_i = x_i|\text{Parents}(X_i)) \cdot \\ &\quad \cdot \prod_{j=1}^k P(Y_j = y_j|\text{Parents}(Y_j)) \end{aligned}$$

# Summary

Ways of doing inference in graphical models...

## Exact Inference

- ▶ Message Passing algorithms

## Approximate Inference (Sampling Methods)

- ▶ Monte-Carlo Sampling
- ▶ Importance Sampling
- ▶ Gibbs Sampling in Bayesian Networks

**Note :** We will cover Sampling Methods in more details when we talk about Approximate Inference and Variational Methods (later...)