# CPSC 540: Machine Learning More DAGs, Undirected Graphical Models

Mark Schmidt

University of British Columbia

Winter 2017

# Admin

- Assignment 4:
  - Due March 20.

## Last Two Lectures: Directed and Undirected Graphical Models

- We've discussed the most common classes of graphical models:
  - DAG models represent probability as ordered product of conditionals,

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}),$$

and are also known as "Bayesian networks" and "belief networks".

## Last Two Lectures: Directed and Undirected Graphical Models

- We've discussed the most common classes of graphical models:
  - DAG models represent probability as ordered product of conditionals,

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}),$$

and are also known as "Bayesian networks" and "belief networks".

ullet UGMs represent probability as product of non-negative potentials  $\phi_c$ ,

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \phi_c(x_c), \quad \text{with} \quad \underline{Z} = \sum_x \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \phi_c(x_c),$$

and are also known as "Markov random fields" and "Markov networks".

• We saw how to write Gaussians as special cases, today we focus on discrete  $x_i$ .

# Last Time: Conditional Independence in UGMs

- In UGMs, conditional independence in determined by reachability.
  - $A \perp B \mid C$  if all paths from A to B are blocked by C.

# Last Time: Conditional Independence in UGMs

- In UGMs, conditional independence in determined by reachability.
  - $A \perp B \mid C$  if all paths from A to B are blocked by C.
- The independence assumptions in DAGs were defined by

$$p(x_j|x_{1:j-1}) = p(x_j|x_{pa(j)}),$$

that we're independent of previous non-parents given parents.

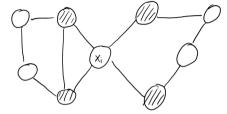
In UGMs there is no order and we instead have a local Markov property,

$$p(x_j|x_{1:d}) = p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{nei}(j)}),$$

that we're independent of all non-neighbours given neighbours in the graph.

#### Markov Blanket

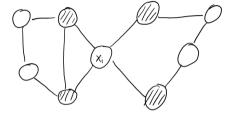
• Markov blanket is the set nodes that make you independent of all other nodes.



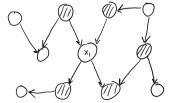
• In UGMs the Markov blanket is the neighbours.

#### Markov Blanket

• Markov blanket is the set nodes that make you independent of all other nodes.



- In UGMs the Markov blanket is the neighbours.
- Markov blanket in DAGs is all parents, children, and co-parents:



## Outline

- Complexity of Inference in Graphical Models
- 2 ICM and Gibbs Sampling
- Variational Inference

# Inference in Discrete Graphical Models

- Common inference tasks in graphical models:
  - **①** Compute p(x) for an assignment to the variables x.
  - **2** Generate a sample x from the distribution.
  - **3** Compute univariate marginals  $p(x_j)$ .
  - **4** Compute decoding  $\operatorname{argmax}_x p(x)$ .
  - **5** Compute univariate conditional  $p(x_j|x_{j'})$ .

# Inference in Discrete Graphical Models

- Common inference tasks in graphical models:
  - **①** Compute p(x) for an assignment to the variables x.
  - **2** Generate a sample x from the distribution.
  - Compute univariate marginals  $p(x_j)$ .
  - **4** Compute decoding  $\operatorname{argmax}_x p(x)$ .
  - **5** Compute univariate conditional  $p(x_j|x_{j'})$ .
- All of the above are easy in tree-structured graphs.
  - For DAGs, a tree-structured has at most one parent.
  - For UGMs, a tree-structured graph has no cycles.

# Inference in Discrete Graphical Models

- Common inference tasks in graphical models:
  - **①** Compute p(x) for an assignment to the variables x.
  - **2** Generate a sample x from the distribution.
  - Compute univariate marginals  $p(x_j)$ .
  - **4** Compute decoding  $\operatorname{argmax}_x p(x)$ .
  - **o** Compute univariate conditional  $p(x_j|x_{j'})$ .
- All of the above are easy in tree-structured graphs.
  - For DAGs, a tree-structured has at most one parent.
  - For UGMs, a tree-structured graph has no cycles.
- The above may be harder for general graphs:
  - In DAGs the first two are easy, the others are NP-hard.
  - In UGMs all of these are NP-hard.

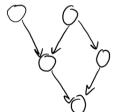
- To address the NP-hard problems, DAGs and UGMs use same techniques.
- We'll focus on UGMs, but we can convert DAGs to UGMs:

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j, x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

- To address the NP-hard problems, DAGs and UGMs use same techniques.
- We'll focus on UGMs, but we can convert DAGs to UGMs:

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j, x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

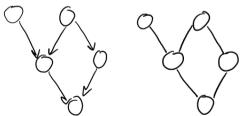
• Graphically: we drop directions and "marry" parents (moralization).



- To address the NP-hard problems, DAGs and UGMs use same techniques.
- We'll focus on UGMs, but we can convert DAGs to UGMs:

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j, x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

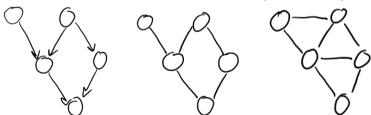
• Graphically: we drop directions and "marry" parents (moralization).



- To address the NP-hard problems, DAGs and UGMs use same techniques.
- We'll focus on UGMs, but we can convert DAGs to UGMs:

$$p(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} \phi_j(x_j, x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

• Graphically: we drop directions and "marry" parents (moralization).

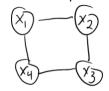


• May lose some condtional independences, but doesn't change computational cost.

- Models that can be represented as DAGs or UGMs are called decomposable.
  - Includes chains, trees, and fully-connected graphs.
- These models allow some efficient operations.
  - E.g., we can write them as DAGs and do ancestral sampling.
  - But this is a restricted model class that we won't talk much about.

- Models that can be represented as DAGs or UGMs are called decomposable.
  - Includes chains, trees, and fully-connected graphs.
- These models allow some efficient operations.
  - E.g., we can write them as DAGs and do ancestral sampling.
  - But this is a restricted model class that we won't talk much about.
- We can perform the inference in general UGMs with message passing.
  - The algorithms for general graphs are almost identical....

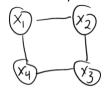
• For example, consider a UGM that is a simple 4-node cycle:



ullet We can compute Z using

$$Z = \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_4} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

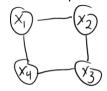
• For example, consider a UGM that is a simple 4-node cycle:



 $\bullet$  We can compute Z using

$$Z = \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$
$$= \sum_{x_4} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

• For example, consider a UGM that is a simple 4-node cycle:



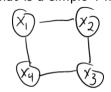
 $\bullet$  We can compute Z using

$$Z = \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

$$= \sum_{x_4} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

$$= \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \sum_{x_2} \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) M_{24}(x_2, x_4)$$

• For example, consider a UGM that is a simple 4-node cycle:



• We can compute Z using

$$Z = \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

$$= \sum_{x_4} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) \sum_{x_1} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2) \phi_{14}(x_1, x_4)$$

$$= \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) \sum_{x_2} \phi_{23}(x_2, x_3) M_{24}(x_2, x_4)$$

$$= \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \phi_{34}(x_3, x_4) M_{34}(x_3, x_4) = \sum_{x_4} M_{4}(x_4).$$

• Message-passing costs depends on graph structure and the order of the sums.

- Message-passing costs depends on graph structure and the order of the sums.
- Consider chain-structured UGM with sums in a different order:

$$Z = \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^{a} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

- Message-passing costs depends on graph structure and the order of the sums.
- Consider chain-structured UGM with sums in a different order:

$$Z = \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$
$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^d \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

- Message-passing costs depends on graph structure and the order of the sums.
- Consider chain-structured UGM with sums in a different order:

$$Z = \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \prod_{j=3}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1}) \underbrace{\sum_{x_1} \phi(x_2, x_1)}_{M_2(x_2)}$$

- Message-passing costs depends on graph structure and the order of the sums.
- Consider chain-structured UGM with sums in a different order:

$$Z = \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \sum_{x_1} \prod_{j=2}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_4} \prod_{j=3}^{d} \phi(x_j, x_{j-1}) \underbrace{\sum_{x_1} \phi(x_2, x_1)}_{M_2(x_2)}$$

$$= \sum_{x_5} \sum_{x_3} \sum_{x_2} \phi(x_3, x_2) \underbrace{\sum_{x_4} \phi(x_4, x_3) \phi(x_5, x_4) M_2(x_2)}_{M_{235}(x_2, x_3, x_5)}.$$

• So even though we have a chain, we have an M with  $k^3$  values instead of k.

- So cost of message passing depends on
  - Graph structure.
  - Variable order.

- So cost of message passing depends on
  - Graph structure.
  - 2 Variable order.
- Cost of for the best ordering is given by:
  - $O(dk^{\omega+1})$ , where  $\omega$  is the treewidth of the graph.

- So cost of message passing depends on
  - Graph structure.
  - Variable order.
- Cost of for the best ordering is given by:
  - $O(dk^{\omega+1})$ , where  $\omega$  is the treewidth of the graph.
- Treewidth  $\omega$  is "minimum size of largest clique over all triangulations".
  - For chains,  $\omega = 1$  (by going through the chain in order).

- So cost of message passing depends on
  - Graph structure.
  - Variable order.
- Cost of for the best ordering is given by:
  - $O(dk^{\omega+1})$ , where  $\omega$  is the treewidth of the graph.
- ullet Treewidth  $\omega$  is "minimum size of largest clique over all triangulations".
  - For chains,  $\omega = 1$  (by going through the chain in order).
  - An  $m_1$  by  $m_2$  lattice has  $\omega = \min\{m_1, m_2\}$ .
    - For 28 by 28 MNIST digits it would cost  $2^{29}$ .

- So cost of message passing depends on
  - Graph structure.
  - Variable order.
- Cost of for the best ordering is given by:
  - $O(dk^{\omega+1})$ , where  $\omega$  is the treewidth of the graph.
- ullet Treewidth  $\omega$  is "minimum size of largest clique over all triangulations".
  - For chains,  $\omega = 1$  (by going through the chain in order).
  - An  $m_1$  by  $m_2$  lattice has  $\omega = \min\{m_1, m_2\}$ .
    - $\bullet$  For 28 by 28 MNIST digits it would cost  $2^{29}$ .
  - In the worst case,  $\omega = (d-1)$  so there is no gain.
  - $\bullet$  Computing  $\omega$  and the optimal ordering is NP-hard.
    - But various heuristic ordering methods exist.

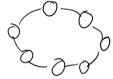
• Trees have  $\omega=1$ , so with the right order inference costs  $O(dk^2)$ .

• Trees have  $\omega=1$ , so with the right order inference costs  $O(dk^2)$ .

• A big loop has  $\omega = 2$ , so cost can be  $O(dk^3)$ .

• Trees have  $\omega = 1$ , so with the right order inference costs  $O(dk^2)$ .

• A big loop has  $\omega = 2$ , so cost can be  $O(dk^3)$ .



• The below grid-like structure has  $\omega = 3$ , so cost is  $O(dk^4)$ .

# Belief Propagation and Junction Trees

- Recall the forward-backward algorithm in Markov chains:
  - We compute the forward messages and the backwards messages.
  - With both types of messages we can compute all univariate marginals.

## Belief Propagation and Junction Trees

- Recall the forward-backward algorithm in Markov chains:
  - We compute the forward messages and the backwards messages.
  - With both types of messages we can compute all univariate marginals.
- Belief propagation is generalization to trees:
  - We start at an arbitrary "root", and pass messages away from it.
  - We also start from the leaves, pass messages towards root.

## Belief Propagation and Junction Trees

- Recall the forward-backward algorithm in Markov chains:
  - We compute the forward messages and the backwards messages.
  - With both types of messages we can compute all univariate marginals.
- Belief propagation is generalization to trees:
  - We start at an arbitrary "root", and pass messages away from it.
  - We also start from the leaves, pass messages towards root.
- Generalization to general graphs is the junction tree method.
- Unfortunately, low tree width models are very restricted.
  - This has motivated a ton of work on approximate inference...

#### Outline

- Complexity of Inference in Graphical Models
- 2 ICM and Gibbs Sampling
- Variational Inference

# Iterated Conditional Mode (ICM)

- The iterated conditional mode (ICM) algorithm for approximate decoding:
  - On each iteration t, choose a variable  $j_t$ .
  - Optimize  $x_{i_{\star}}$  with the other variables held fixed.

# Iterated Conditional Mode (ICM)

- The iterated conditional mode (ICM) algorithm for approximate decoding:
  - On each iteration t, choose a variable  $j_t$ .
  - Optimize  $x_{i_t}$  with the other variables held fixed.
- A special case of coordinate optimization.
- Iterations correspond to finding mode of conditional  $p(x_j|x_{-j})$ .

# Iterated Conditional Mode (ICM)

- The iterated conditional mode (ICM) algorithm for approximate decoding:
  - On each iteration t, choose a variable  $j_t$ .
  - Optimize  $x_{i_t}$  with the other variables held fixed.
- A special case of coordinate optimization.
- Iterations correspond to finding mode of conditional  $p(x_j|x_{-j})$ .
- 3 main issues:
  - **1** How can you optimize p(x) if evaluating it is NP-hard?
  - Is coordinate optimization efficient for this problem?
  - Ooes it find the global optimum?

# ICM Issue 1: Intractable Objective

• How can you optimize p(x) if evaluating it is NP-hard?

### ICM Issue 1: Intractable Objective

- How can you optimize p(x) if evaluating it is NP-hard?
- Note that it's easy to evaluate unnormalized probability.

$$\tilde{p}(x) = \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \phi_c(x_c),$$

so we have  $p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}$ .

• And for decoding we only need unnormalized probabilities,

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{x} p(x) \equiv \operatorname*{argmax}_{x} \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z} \equiv \operatorname*{argmax}_{x} \tilde{p}(x).$$

### ICM Issue 1: Intractable Objective

- How can you optimize p(x) if evaluating it is NP-hard?
- Note that it's easy to evaluate unnormalized probability.

$$\tilde{p}(x) = \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \phi_c(x_c),$$

so we have  $p(x) = \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z}$ .

• And for decoding we only need unnormalized probabilities,

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_{x} p(x) \equiv \operatorname*{argmax}_{x} \frac{\tilde{p}(x)}{Z} \equiv \operatorname*{argmax}_{x} \tilde{p}(x).$$

- To update  $x_i$  we actually only need consider  $\phi_c$  involving  $x_i$ 
  - We only care about  $x_{-j}$  in the Markov blanket (neighbours in the graph).

# ICM Issue 2: Efficiency

• Is coordinate optimization efficient for this problem?

### ICM Issue 2: Efficiency

- Is coordinate optimization efficient for this problem?
- Consider a pairwise UGM,

$$p(x) \propto \left(\prod_{j=1}^d \phi_j(x_j)\right) \left(\prod_{(i,j)\in E} \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)\right).$$

or

$$\log p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \log \phi_j(x_j) + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \log \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) + \text{constant.}$$

### ICM Issue 2: Efficiency

- Is coordinate optimization efficient for this problem?
- Consider a pairwise UGM,

$$p(x) \propto \left(\prod_{j=1}^d \phi_j(x_j)\right) \left(\prod_{(i,j)\in E} \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)\right).$$

or

$$\log p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^d \log \phi_j(x_j) + \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \log \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) + \text{constant.}$$

which is a special case of

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{d} f_j(x_j) + \sum_{(i,j)\in E} f_{ij}(x_i, x_j),$$

which is one of our problems where coordinate optimization is efficient.

## ICM Issue 3: Non-Convexity

- Does it find the global optimum?
- Negative log-probability is usually non-convex, so doesn't find global optimum.

### ICM Issue 3: Non-Convexity

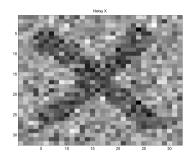
- Does it find the global optimum?
- Negative log-probability is usually non-convex, so doesn't find global optimum.
- There exist many globalization methods that can improve its performance:
  - Restarting with random initializations.

## ICM Issue 3: Non-Convexity

- Does it find the global optimum?
- Negative log-probability is usually non-convex, so doesn't find global optimum.
- There exist many globalization methods that can improve its performance:
  - Restarting with random initializations.
  - Simulated annealing, genetic algorithms, ant colony optimization, etc.
  - See the book/class of Holger Hoos on stochastic local search methods.

#### ICM in Action

#### Consider using a UGM for image denoising:



#### We have

- Unary potentials  $\phi_j$  for each position.
- Pairwise potentials  $\phi_{ij}$  for neighbours on grid.
- Parameters are trained as CRF (later).

Goal is to produce a noise-free image (show video).

• What about approximate sampling?

- What about approximate sampling?
- In DAGs, ancestral sampling conditions on sampled values of parents,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

- What about approximate sampling?
- In DAGs, ancestral sampling conditions on sampled values of parents,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

ullet In ICM, we approximately decode a UGM by iteratively maximizing an  $x_{j_t}$ ,

$$x_j \leftarrow \max_{x_j} p(x_j|x_{-j}).$$

- What about approximate sampling?
- In DAGs, ancestral sampling conditions on sampled values of parents,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}).$$

ullet In ICM, we approximately decode a UGM by iteratively maximizing an  $x_{j_t}$ ,

$$x_j \leftarrow \max_{x_j} p(x_j|x_{-j}).$$

ullet We can approximately sample from a UGM by iteratively sampling an  $x_{j_t}$ ,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{-j}),$$

and this coordinate-wise sampling algorithm is called Gibbs sampling.

- Gibbs sampling starts with some x and then repeats:
  - **1** Choose a variable j uniformly at random.
  - ② Update  $x_j$  by sampling it from its conditional,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{-j}).$$

- Gibbs sampling starts with some x and then repeats:
  - **1** Choose a variable j uniformly at random.
  - ② Update  $x_j$  by sampling it from its conditional,

$$x_j \sim p(x_j|x_{-j}).$$

- Analogy: sampling version of coordinate optimization:
  - Transformed *d*-dimensional sampling into 1-dimensional sampling.
- Gibbs sampling is probably the most common multi-dimensional sampler.

• For UGMs these conditionals needed for Gibbs sampling have a simple form,

$$p(x_j = c | x_{-j}) = \frac{p(x_j = c, x_{-j})}{\sum_{x_j = c'} p(x_j = c', x_{-j})} = \frac{\tilde{p}(x_j = c, x_{-j})}{\sum_{x_j = c'} \tilde{p}(x_j = c', x_{-j})},$$

because the Z is the same in the numerator and deonimator terms.

• For UGMs these conditionals needed for Gibbs sampling have a simple form,

$$p(x_j = c | x_{-j}) = \frac{p(x_j = c, x_{-j})}{\sum_{x_j = c'} p(x_j = c', x_{-j})} = \frac{\tilde{p}(x_j = c, x_{-j})}{\sum_{x_j = c'} \tilde{p}(x_j = c', x_{-j})},$$

because the Z is the same in the numerator and deonimator terms.

And UGMs it further simplifies due to the local Markov property,

$$p(x_j|x_{-j}) = p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{MB}(j)}).$$

- Thus these iterations are very cheap:
  - We're just sampling a discrete variable given its Markov blanket.

# Gibbs Sampling in Action

• Start with some initial value:  $x^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# Gibbs Sampling in Action

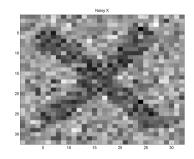
- Start with some initial value:  $x^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Select random j like j = 3.
- Sample variable j:  $x^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# Gibbs Sampling in Action

- Start with some initial value:  $x^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Select random j like j = 3.
- Sample variable j:  $x^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Select random j like j = 1.
- Sample variable j:  $x^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- Select random j like j=2.
- Sample variable j:  $x^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- . . .
- Use the samples to form Monte Carlo estimators.

# Gibbs Sampling in Action: UGMs

#### Back to image denoising...

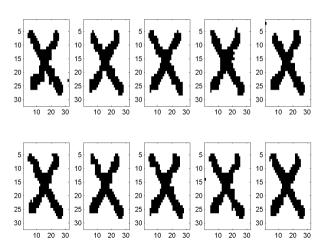


(show videos)

# Gibbs Sampling in Action: UGMs

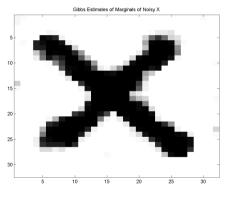
#### Gibbs samples after every 100d iterations:

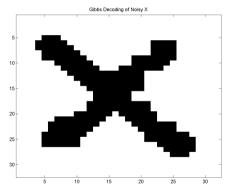
#### Samples from Gibbs sampler



# Gibbs Sampling in Action: UGMs

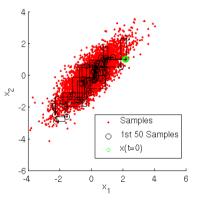
#### Estimates of marginals and decoding based on Gibbs sampling:





# Gibbs Sampling in Action: Multivariate Gaussian

- Gibbs sampling works for general distributions.
  - E.g., sampling from multivariate Gaussian by univariate Gaussian sampling.



• Why would Gibbs sampling work?

- Why would Gibbs sampling work?
- The samples follow a homogeneous Markov chain.

- Why would Gibbs sampling work?
- The samples follow a homogeneous Markov chain.
- Under weak conditions, homogenous chains converge to an invariant distribution,

$$\pi(s) = \sum_{s'} p(x^t = s | x^{t-1} = s') \pi(s').$$

- $p(x_j|x_{-j}) > 0$  is sufficient for Gibbs sampling.
- A weaker condition is "irreducible and aperiodic".

- Why would Gibbs sampling work?
- The samples follow a homogeneous Markov chain.
- Under weak conditions, homogenous chains converge to an invariant distribution,

$$\pi(s) = \sum_{s'} p(x^t = s | x^{t-1} = s') \pi(s').$$

- $p(x_i|x_{-i}) > 0$  is sufficient for Gibbs sampling.
- A weaker condition is "irreducible and aperiodic".
- Invariant distribution  $\pi$  of Gibbs sampling is the original distribution p.
  - If we stop it after a really long time, the final Gibbs sample will come from p(x).
- A special case of Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods.

# Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

• Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): given target p, design transitions such that

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n f(x^t) \to \sum_x f(x)p(x) \quad \text{and/or} \quad x^n \sim p,$$

as  $n \to \infty$ .

• We are generating dependent samples whose average converges to expectation.

• Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): given target p, design transitions such that

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n f(x^t) \to \sum_x f(x)p(x) \quad \text{and/or} \quad x^n \sim p,$$

- We are generating dependent samples whose average converges to expectation.
- There are many transitions that will yield target as invariant distribution.
  - Typically easy to design sampler, but hard to characterize rate of convergence.

• Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): given target p, design transitions such that

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n f(x^t) \to \sum_x f(x)p(x) \quad \text{and/or} \quad x^n \sim p,$$

- We are generating dependent samples whose average converges to expectation.
- There are many transitions that will yield target as invariant distribution.
  - Typically easy to design sampler, but hard to characterize rate of convergence.
- Gibbs sampling satisfies the above under very weak conditions.

• Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): given target p, design transitions such that

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n f(x^t) \to \sum_x f(x)p(x) \quad \text{and/or} \quad x^n \sim p,$$

- We are generating dependent samples whose average converges to expectation.
- There are many transitions that will yield target as invariant distribution.
  - Typically easy to design sampler, but hard to characterize rate of convergence.
- Gibbs sampling satisfies the above under very weak conditions.
- Typically, we don't take all samples:
  - Burn in: throw away the initial samples when we haven't converged to stationary.
  - ullet Thinning: only keep every k samples, since they will be highly correlated.

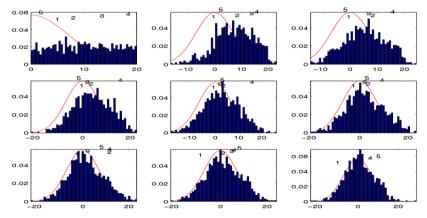
• Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): given target p, design transitions such that

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n f(x^t) \to \sum_x f(x)p(x) \quad \text{and/or} \quad x^n \sim p,$$

- We are generating dependent samples whose average converges to expectation.
- There are many transitions that will yield target as invariant distribution.
  - Typically easy to design sampler, but hard to characterize rate of convergence.
- Gibbs sampling satisfies the above under very weak conditions.
- Typically, we don't take all samples:
  - Burn in: throw away the initial samples when we haven't converged to stationary.
  - Thinning: only keep every k samples, since they will be highly correlated.
- It can very hard to diagnose if we reached invariant distribution.
  - Recent work showed that this is P-space hard (not polynomial-time).

### Markov Chain Monte Carlo

From top left to bottom right: histograms of 1000 independent Markov chains with a normal distribution as target distribution.



### Outline

- Complexity of Inference in Graphical Models
- 2 ICM and Gibbs Sampling
- Variational Inference

#### Monte Carlo vs. Variational Inference

Two main strategies for approximate inference:

- Monte Carlo methods:
  - ullet Approximate p with empirical distribution over samples,

$$p(x) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{I}[x^i = x].$$

Turns inference into sampling.

#### Monte Carlo vs. Variational Inference

Two main strategies for approximate inference:

- Monte Carlo methods:
  - ullet Approximate p with empirical distribution over samples,

$$p(x) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{I}[x^i = x].$$

- Turns inference into sampling.
- Variational methods:
  - ullet Approximate p with "closest" distribution q from a tractable family,

$$p(x) \approx q(x)$$
.

### Monte Carlo vs. Variational Inference

Two main strategies for approximate inference:

- Monte Carlo methods:
  - ullet Approximate p with empirical distribution over samples,

$$p(x) \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{I}[x^i = x].$$

- Turns inference into sampling.
- Variational methods:
  - ullet Approximate p with "closest" distribution q from a tractable family,

$$p(x) \approx q(x)$$
.

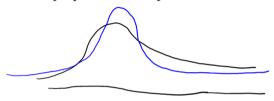
- E.g., Gaussian, independent Bernoulli, or tree UGM.
  - (or mixtures of these simple distributions)

• Turns inference into optimization.

• Approximate non-Gaussian p by a Gaussian q:



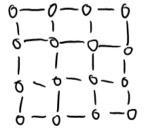
• Approximate non-Gaussian p by a Gaussian q:



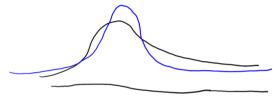
• Approximate non-Gaussian p by a Gaussian q:



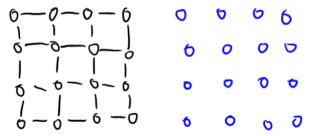
Approximate loopy UGM by independent distribution



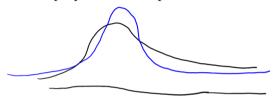
• Approximate non-Gaussian p by a Gaussian q:



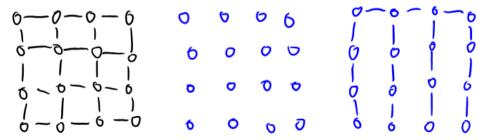
Approximate loopy UGM by independent distribution



• Approximate non-Gaussian p by a Gaussian q:



• Approximate loopy UGM by independent distribution or tree-structed UGM:



### Minimizing Reverse KL) Divergence

- Most common variational method:
  - Minimize (reverse) Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between q and p,

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{x} q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}.$$

- KL divergence is a common measure of similarity between distributions.
  - ullet Also called information gain: "information lost when q is approximated by p?".

## Minimizing Reverse KL) Divergence

- Most common variational method:
  - Minimize (reverse) Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between q and p,

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{x} q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}.$$

- KL divergence is a common measure of similarity between distributions.
  - ullet Also called information gain: "information lost when q is approximated by p?".
- ullet KL would be more natural, but reverse KL only needs unnormalized distribution  $ilde{p}$ ,

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \sum_x q(x) \log q(x) - \sum_x q(x) \log p(x)$$

## Minimizing Reverse KL) Divergence

- Most common variational method:
  - Minimize (reverse) Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between q and p,

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{x} q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}.$$

- KL divergence is a common measure of similarity between distributions.
  - Also called information gain: "information lost when q is approximated by p?".
- ullet KL would be more natural, but reverse KL only needs unnormalized distribution  $ilde{p},$

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{KL}(q||p) &= \sum_{x} q(x) \log q(x) - \sum_{x} q(x) \log p(x) \\ &= \sum_{x} q(x) \log q(x) - \sum_{x} q(x) \log \tilde{p}(x) + \sum_{x} q(x) \log(Z) \end{split}$$

Variational Inference

## Minimizing Reverse KL) Divergence

- Most common variational method:
  - Minimize (reverse) Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between q and p,

$$\mathsf{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{x} q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}.$$

- KL divergence is a common measure of similarity between distributions.
  - Also called information gain: "information lost when q is approximated by p?".
- KL would be more natural, but reverse KL only needs unnormalized distribution  $\tilde{p}$ ,

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{KL}(q||p) &= \sum_x q(x) \log q(x) - \sum_x q(x) \log p(x) \\ &= \sum_x q(x) \log q(x) - \sum_x q(x) \log \tilde{p}(x) + \sum_x q(x) \log(Z) \\ &= \sum_x q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{\tilde{p}(x)} + \underbrace{\log(Z)}_{\text{const. in } q}, \end{split}$$

which since KL is non-negative gives a lower bound on log(Z).

### Mean Field Variational Approximation

• Consider minimizing reverse KL with independent q,

$$q(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} q_j(x_j).$$

### Mean Field Variational Approximation

• Consider minimizing reverse KL with independent q,

$$q(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} q_j(x_j).$$

• If we fix  $q_{-j}$  and optimize the functional  $q_j$  we obtain (not obvious)

$$\log q_j(x_j) = \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log \tilde{p}(x)] + \text{constant},$$

so we can update  $q_j$  function-wise by setting them to mean in log-space.

### Mean Field Variational Approximation

• Consider minimizing reverse KL with independent q,

$$q(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{d} q_j(x_j).$$

• If we fix  $q_{-j}$  and optimize the functional  $q_j$  we obtain (not obvious)

$$\log q_j(x_j) = \mathbb{E}_{q_{-j}}[\log \tilde{p}(x)] + \text{constant},$$

so we can update  $q_i$  function-wise by setting them to mean in log-space.

- This is called the mean field approximation.
- Once you've fit q, you use the independent distribution instead of p.

• Markov blanket is set of nodes that make  $x_i$  independent of all others.

- Markov blanket is set of nodes that make  $x_i$  independent of all others.
- Moralization of DAGs to do decoding/inference/sampling as a UGM.

- Markov blanket is set of nodes that make  $x_i$  independent of all others.
- Moralization of DAGs to do decoding/inference/sampling as a UGM.
- Iterated conditional mode is coordinate descent for decoding UGMs.

- Markov blanket is set of nodes that make  $x_i$  independent of all others.
- Moralization of DAGs to do decoding/inference/sampling as a UGM.
- Iterated conditional mode is coordinate descent for decoding UGMs.
- Gibbs sampling is coordinate-wise sampling.
  - Special case of Markov chain Monte Carlo method.

- Markov blanket is set of nodes that make  $x_i$  independent of all others.
- Moralization of DAGs to do decoding/inference/sampling as a UGM.
- Iterated conditional mode is coordinate descent for decoding UGMs.
- Gibbs sampling is coordinate-wise sampling.
  - Special case of Markov chain Monte Carlo method.
- Variational methods approximate p with a simpler distribution q.
  - ullet Mean field approximation minimizes KL divergence with independent q.

Next time: deep graphical models and finally being able to model digits.