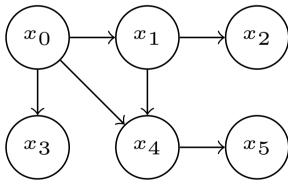
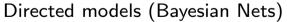
Chapter 16

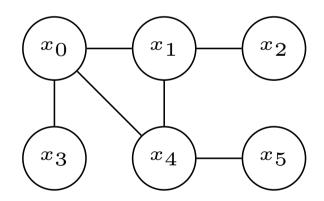
Structured Probabilistic Models for Deep Learning

Structured Probabilistic Models

- A way of using graphs to describe a probability distribution with an emphasis on visualizing which random variables interact with each other directly
 - Each node represents a random variable
 - Each edge represents a direct interaction







Undirected models (Markov Nets)

• Also known as **probabilistic graphical models**, or **graphical models**

Learning, Sampling, and Inference

- Things we will be concerned with around the graphical models
 - Learning the model structure $p({m x})$ and parameters ${m heta}$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Drawing samples from the learned model

$$m{x} \sim p(m{x}; m{ heta}^*)$$
 or $m{x_2} \sim p(m{x_2} | m{x_1}; m{ heta}^*)$

Doing approximate or exact inference

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{x_2}} p(\boldsymbol{x_2}|\boldsymbol{x_1};\boldsymbol{\theta}^*) \approx \arg\max_{\boldsymbol{x_2}} q(\boldsymbol{x_2}|\boldsymbol{x_1};\boldsymbol{w})$$

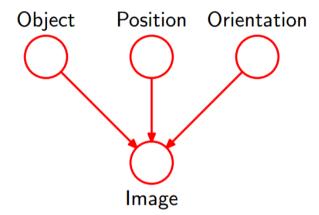
Directed Graphical Models

- ullet A directed model defined on $oldsymbol{x}$ is specified by
 - 1. A directed acyclic graph \mathcal{G} with nodes denoting elements x_i of x
 - 2. A set of local conditional probability distributions $p(x_i|Pa_{\mathcal{G}}(x_i))$ with $Pa_{\mathcal{G}}(x_i)$ giving the parent nodes of x_i in \mathcal{G} and factorizes the joint distribution of the node variables as

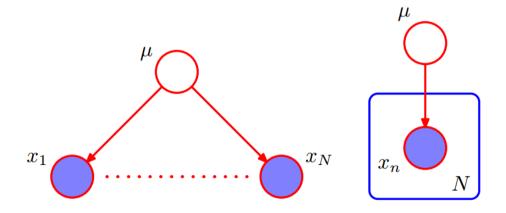
$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \prod_{i} p(x_i | Pa_{\mathcal{G}}(x_i))$$

• Such graphical models are also known as Bayesian/belief networks

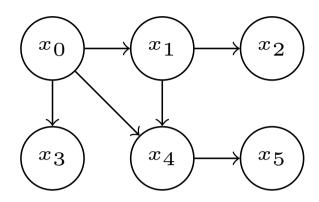
• They are most naturally applicable in situations where there is clear causality between variables



• For convenience, we sometimes introduce plate notation



• As an example, we have for the following graph



$$p(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = p(x_0)p(x_1|x_0)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_0)$$
$$p(x_4|x_1, x_0)p(x_5|x_4)$$

When compared to the chain rule of probability,

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=0} p(x_i|x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}, \dots, x_0),$$

the graph factorization implies certain conditional independence, e.g.

$$p(x_2|x_1, x_0) = p(x_2|x_1)$$

$$p(x_3|x_2, x_1, x_0) = p(x_3|x_0)$$

- Note however it only specifies which variables are allowed to appear in the arguments; there is no constraint on how we define each conditional probability distribution
- In the present example, we may as well specify

$$p(x_1|x_0) = f_1(x_1, x_0) = p(x_1)$$

$$p(x_2|x_1) = f_2(x_2, x_1) = p(x_2)$$

$$p(x_3|x_0) = f_3(x_3, x_0) = p(x_3)$$

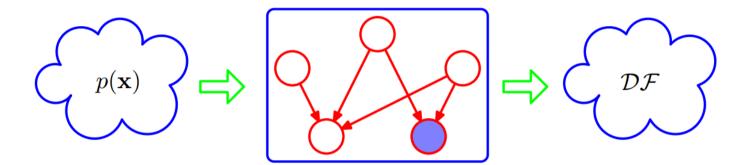
$$p(x_4|x_1, x_0) = f_4(x_4, x_1, x_0) = p(x_4)$$

$$p(x_5|x_4) = f_5(x_5, x_4) = p(x_5)$$

to arrive at a fully factorized distribution

$$p(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = p(x_0)p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4)p(x_5)$$

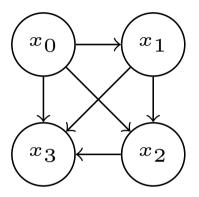
• As such, there could be several distributions that satisfy the graph factorization; it is helpful to think of a directed graph as a filter



where \mathcal{DF} denotes the set of distributions that satisfy the factorization described by the graph

ullet To be precise, for any given graph, the \mathcal{DF} will include any distributions that have additional independence properties beyond those described by the graph

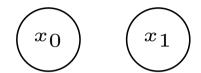
• Extreme case I: A fully connected graph will accept any possible distribution over the given variables

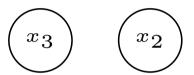


$$p(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_0)p(x_1|x_0)p(x_2|x_1, x_0)p(x_3|x_2, x_1, x_0)$$

(simply the chain rule of probability)

• Extreme case II: A fully disconnected graph will only accept a fully factorized distribution





$$p(x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_0)p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)$$

• It is also straightforward to see that a fully factorized distribution will pass through any graph

- In general, to model n discrete variables each having k values, we need a table of size $\mathcal{O}(k^n)$; the conditional independence implied by the graph can reduce the table size to $\mathcal{O}(k^m)$, given m is the maximum number of conditioning variables for all x_i
- This suggests that as long as each variable has few parents in the graph, the distribution can be represented with very few parameters

Undirected Graphical Models

• An undirected graphical model is defined on an undirected graph $\mathcal G$ and factorizes the joint distribution of its node variables as a product of potential functions $\phi(\mathcal C)$ over the maximum cliques $\mathcal C$ of the graph

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{C \in \mathcal{G}} \phi(C) = \frac{1}{Z} \tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x})$$

where

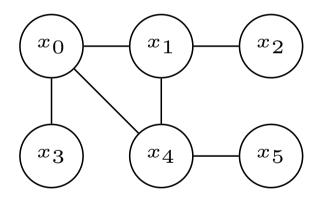
- $ilde{p}(oldsymbol{x})$ is an unnormalized distribution

-Z is a normalization constant (called the partition function)

- $\phi(\mathcal{C})$ is a clique potential and is non-negative

They are also known as Markov random fields or Markov networks

- ullet A clique is a subset of the nodes in a graph ${\cal G}$ in which there exists a link between every pair of nodes in the subset
- ullet A maximum clique ${\cal C}$ is a clique such that it is not possible to include any other nodes in the graph without ceasing to be a clique
- As an example, we have for the following graph



$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z}\phi_a(x_0, x_3)\phi_b(x_0, x_1, x_4)\phi_c(x_1, x_2)\phi_d(x_4, x_5)$$

- ullet The clique potential ϕ measures the affinity of its member variables in each of their possible joint states
- One choice for ϕ is the energy-based model (**Boltzmann distribution**)

$$\phi(\mathcal{C}) = \exp(-E(\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{C}}))$$

where $x_{\mathcal{C}}$ denote the variables in that clique

• The choice of ϕ needs some attention; not every choice would result in a legitimate probability distribution, e.g.,

$$\phi(x) = \exp(-\beta x^2)$$

with $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and and $\beta < 0$

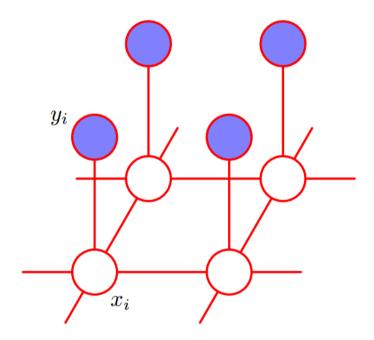
• In the present case, the unnormalized joint distribution is also a Boltzmann distribution with a total energy given by the sum of the

energies of all the maximum cliques

$$\tilde{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \exp(-E(\boldsymbol{x})), \text{ with } E(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sum_{\mathcal{C} \in \mathcal{G}} E(\boldsymbol{x}_{\mathcal{C}})$$

• Each energy term imposes a particular soft constraint on the variables

Example: Image de-noising



- $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$: Observed image pixels
- $x_i \in \{-1, +1\}$: Hidden noise-free image pixels

• The maximum cliques of the graph are seen to be

$$\{x_i, y_i\}, \{x_i, x_j\}$$

The joint distribution is given by

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

• The (complete) energy function is assumed to be

$$E(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{i} E(x_i, y_i) + \sum_{i,j} E(x_i, x_j)$$
$$= -\eta \sum_{i} x_i y_i - \beta \sum_{i,j} x_i x_j + h \sum_{i} x_i$$

ullet Z is an (intractable) function of model parameters $\eta, \, eta$ and h

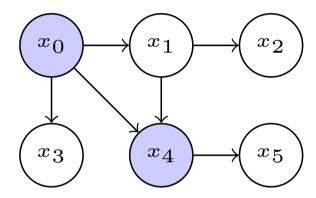
$$Z = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}} \exp(-E(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}))$$

• De-noising can be cast as an inference problem

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{x}} p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{y})$$

D-Separation

• We often want to know which subsets of variables are conditionally independent given the values of the other sets of variables



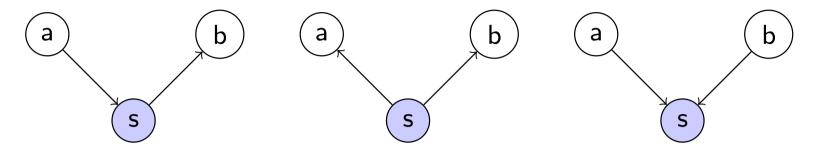
• Is the set of variables $\{x_1, x_2\}$ conditionally independent of the variable x_5 , given the values of $\{x_0, x_4\}$?

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_5 | x_0, x_4) \stackrel{?}{=} p(x_1, x_2 | x_0, x_4) p(x_5 | x_0, x_4),$$

or equivalently,

$$p(x_1, x_2 | x_0, x_4, x_5) \stackrel{?}{=} p(x_1, x_2 | x_0, x_4)$$

• The key rules can be deduced from observing three simple examples



Head-to-Tail

Tail-to-Tail

Head-to-Head

• **Head-to-Tail:** a and b are **independent** (d-separated) given s

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

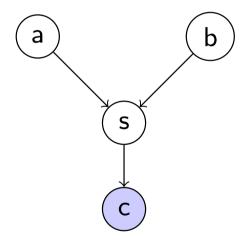
• Tail-to-Tail: a and b are independent (d-separated) given s

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

ullet Head-to-Head: a and b are in general dependent given s

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

ullet The head-to-head rule can generalize to the case where a descendant of s is observed

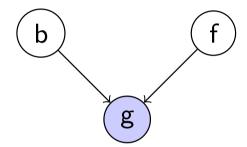


 $p(a,b|c) \neq p(a|c)p(b|c)$ in general

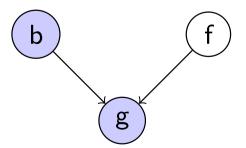
- ullet To summarize, given A,B,C are three non-intersecting sets of nodes, A and B are conditionally independent given C if all paths from any node in A to any node in B satisfy
 - Meeting either head-to-tail or tail-to-tail at a node in C, or
 - Meeting head-to-head at a node, and neither the node, nor any of its descendant, is in ${\cal C}$
- In other words, these paths are blocked or inactive
- These rules tell us only the independencies implied by the graph; recall however that not all independencies of a distribution is captured by the graph (c.f. the filter interpretation)

Explaining Away Effects

ullet A phenomenon associated with the following Bayesian network, where there are two causes b,f which can explain the observation g



• If one of the causes, say b, happens and is observed, the probability that the other cause f also happens will become lower (i.e., the observed cause b explains away the possibility of f)



• Example

-g=0: Electric fuel gage reads empty

-b=0: Battery is flat

- f = 0: Fuel tank is empty

$$p(b = 1) = 0.9$$

$$p(f = 1) = 0.9$$

$$p(g = 1|b = 1, f = 1) = 0.8$$

$$p(g = 1|b = 1, f = 0) = 0.2$$

$$p(g = 1|b = 0, f = 1) = 0.2$$

$$p(g = 1|b = 0, f = 0) = 0.1$$

It can be shown that

$$p(f = 0) = 0.1$$

 $p(f = 0|g = 0) \le 0.257$

$$p(f = 0|g = 0, \underline{b} = \underline{0}) \simeq 0.111$$

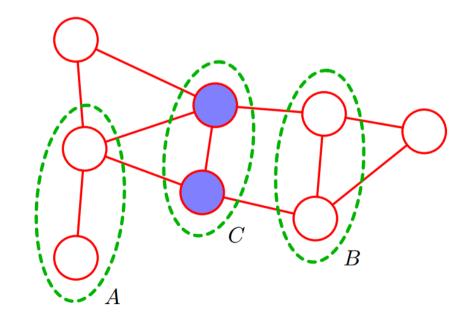
$$p(f = 0|g = 0, \underline{b} = \underline{0}) \simeq 0.111$$

 $p(f = 0|g = 0, \underline{b} = \underline{1}) \simeq 0.308$

- Given that battery is flat (cause 1 happens) and the gage reads empty, the probability of the tank being empty (the other cause happens) decreases from 0.257 to 0.111
- On the other hand, given that battery is not flat (causes 1 does not happen) and the gage reads empty, the probability of the tank being empty (the other cause happens) increases from 0.257 to 0.308

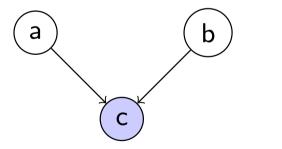
Separation

- Separation refers to the conditional independencies implied by the undirected graph
- Given A,B,C are three non-intersecting sets of nodes, A and B are conditionally independent (separated) given C if all paths from any node in A to any node in B pass through one or more nodes in C

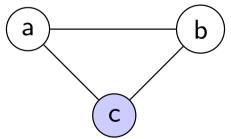


Conversion between Directed and Undirected Models

- Some independencies can be represented by only one of them
- ullet Conversion from a directed model ${\mathcal D}$ to an undirected model ${\mathcal U}$
 - 1. Adding an edge to $\mathcal U$ for any pair of nodes a,b if there is a directed edge between them in $\mathcal D$
 - 2. Adding an edge to $\mathcal U$ for any pair of nodes a,b if they are both parents of a third node in $\mathcal D$



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



Moralized graph

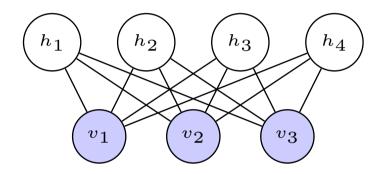
ullet In the present case, the potential function ϕ is given by

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

ullet Conversion from an undirected model ${\cal U}$ to a directed model ${\cal U}$ is much less common, and in general, presents problems due to the normalization constraints (study by yourself)

Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBM)

An energy-based model with binary visible and hidden units



$$E(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}) = -\boldsymbol{b}^T \boldsymbol{v} - \boldsymbol{c}^T \boldsymbol{h} - \boldsymbol{v}^T \boldsymbol{W} \boldsymbol{h}$$

- There is no direct interaction between visible units or between hidden units (essentially, a bipartite graph)
- From the separation rules, we have

$$p(\boldsymbol{h}|\boldsymbol{v}) = \prod_{i} p(h_{i}|\boldsymbol{v})$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{v}|\boldsymbol{h}) = \prod_{i} p(v_i|\boldsymbol{h})$$

which are both factorial

• By the definition of $E(\boldsymbol{v},\boldsymbol{h})$, $p(h_i=1|\boldsymbol{v})$ and $p(v_i=1|\boldsymbol{h})$ are evaluated to be

$$p(h_i = 1 | \boldsymbol{v}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{v}^T \boldsymbol{W}_{:,i} + c_i)$$
$$p(v_i = 1 | \boldsymbol{h}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{W}_{i,:} \boldsymbol{h} + b_i)$$

- The hidden units h, although not interpretable, denote features that describe visible units v and can be inferred by $p(h_i = 1|v)$
- ullet Samples of visible units $oldsymbol{v}$ can be generated by sampling all of $oldsymbol{v}$ given $oldsymbol{h}$ and then all of $oldsymbol{h}$ given $oldsymbol{v}$ via **block Gibbs sampling**

ullet It is also possible to sample part of v given the values of the others for applications such as image completion (essentially, RBM is a fully probabilistic model)



Training input



Results of image completion

ullet Estimating the model parameters $oldsymbol{W}, oldsymbol{b}, oldsymbol{c}$ is achieved with the maximum likelihood principle

$$\arg\max_{\boldsymbol{W},\boldsymbol{b},\boldsymbol{c}} p(\boldsymbol{v};\boldsymbol{W},\boldsymbol{b},\boldsymbol{c})$$

where the marginal distribution of visible units is given by

$$p(\boldsymbol{v}; \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{c}) = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{\boldsymbol{h}} \exp(-E(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}))$$

ullet It is however noticed that the partition function Z is intractable

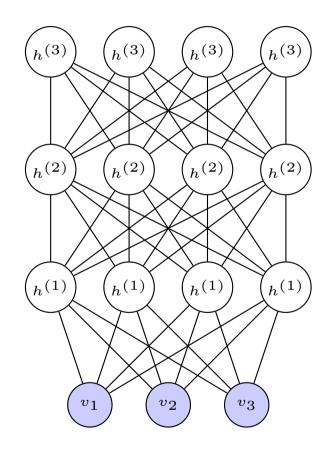
$$Z = \sum_{\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}} \exp(-E(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}))$$

which is a function of the model parameters W, b, c

Some specialized training techniques involving sampling are needed

Deep Boltzmann Machines (DBM)

Introducing layers of hidden units to RBM



$$E(\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{h}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{h}^{(2)}, \boldsymbol{h}^{(3)}) = -\boldsymbol{v}^T \boldsymbol{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(1)} - \boldsymbol{h}^{(1)T} \boldsymbol{W}^{(2)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(2)} - \boldsymbol{h}^{(2)T} \boldsymbol{W}^{(3)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(3)}$$

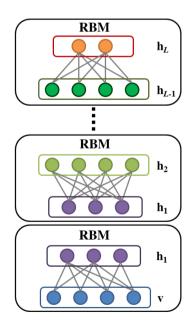
From the graph, the posterior distribution is no longer factorial

$$p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}, \mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)}|\mathbf{v}) \neq p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{v})p(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}|\mathbf{v})p(\mathbf{h}^{(3)}|\mathbf{v})$$

• Approximate inference (based on variational inference) is needed

$$p(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}, \mathbf{h}^{(2)}, \mathbf{h}^{(3)}|\mathbf{v}) \approx q(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}|\mathbf{v})q(\mathbf{h}^{(2)}|\mathbf{v})q(\mathbf{h}^{(3)}|\mathbf{v})$$

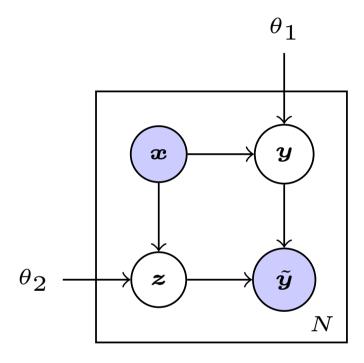
• Layer-wise unsupervised pre-training is also common



More Examples: Label Noise Model

- Modeling conditional distributions with deep neural networks in a graphical model that describes generation of noisy labels
- **Objective:** To infer ground truth labels for images
- Visible variables
 - -x: Image
 - \tilde{y} : Noisy label (one-hot vector)
- Latent variables
 - -y: True label (one-hot vector)
 - -z: Label noise type (discrete variable)

• Graphical model



$$p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z} | \boldsymbol{x}) = \underbrace{p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}} | \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z})}_{\text{Hand designed}} \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{y} | \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta_1})}_{\text{N.N.}} \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{z} | \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta_2})}_{\text{N.N.}}$$

- Label noise type and the conditional distribution $p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{z})$
 - Noise free (z=1): $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}=\boldsymbol{y}$

$$p(\tilde{m{y}}|m{y},m{z}) = \tilde{m{y}}^T m{I} m{y}$$

– Random noise (z=2): $ilde{m{y}}$ is any value other than the true $m{y}$

$$p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}) = \frac{1}{L-1} \tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^T (\boldsymbol{U} - \boldsymbol{I}) \boldsymbol{y}$$

where

- st $oldsymbol{U}$ is a matrix of 1's
- st L is the number of possible labels
- Confusing noise (z=3): $\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}$ is any value close to the true \boldsymbol{y}

$$p(\tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}) = \tilde{\boldsymbol{y}}^T \boldsymbol{C} \boldsymbol{y}$$

- ullet Training $heta_1, heta_2$ based on the EM algorithm
 - E-step: compute the expected value of the complete log-likelihood

$$J(\theta) = E_{p(y,z|\tilde{y},x;\theta^{(\text{old})})} \log p(\tilde{y},y,z|x;\theta)$$

$$= \sum_{y,z} p(y,z|\tilde{y},x) [\log p(\tilde{y}|y,z;C) + \log p(y|x;\theta_1) + \log p(z|x;\theta_2)$$

where $\theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$ and C is assumed to be known

- M-step: maximize w.r.t. θ

$$\nabla_{\theta_1} J(\theta_1^{\text{(old)}}, \theta_2^{\text{(old)}}) = \sum_{y} p(y|\tilde{y}, x) \nabla_{\theta_1} \log p(y|x; \theta_1^{\text{(old)}})$$

$$\nabla_{\theta_2} J(\theta_1^{(\text{old})}, \theta_2^{(\text{old})}) = \sum_z p(z|\tilde{y}, x) \nabla_{\theta_2} \log p(z|x; \theta_2^{(\text{old})})$$

- These are merely (negative) cross-entropy
- ullet Testing is achieved by the neural network $p(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x};\theta_1)$

• Note that unlike RBM/DBM, the hidden variables here are interpretable as is the case with most conventional graphical models

Review

- Directed vs. undirected graphical models
- Probability distributions and their graph representations
- Training, sampling, and inference for graphical models
- Extracting conditional independence: d-separation and separation
- Deep learning with graphical models