

# ML Probabilistic Modeling 1 by ambedkar@IISc

- ▶ Introduction
- ▶ Markov Random Fields

# On Probabilistic Modeling

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# On Probabilistic Modeling : Why?

- ▶ Let us go back to our fundamental assumption  
*The observed data is assumed to be sampled from a (unknown) underlying probability distribution*
- ▶ Previously we have not used this for modeling but we have used when we defined the risk

## On Probabilistic Modeling (Contd. . . )

- Recall the definition of risk in the context of supervised learning :

Given data  $(x_n, y_n)_{n=1}^N$  find  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  that best approximates the relation between random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ .  
Thus the risk is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} L(f) &= \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim P} [l(Y, f(X))] \\ &= \int l(y, f(x)) d(P(x, y)) \end{aligned}$$

- What if we just learn  $P(X, Y)$  instead of  $y = f(x)$ ?

# On Probabilistic Modeling (Contd. . . )

## Advantages

- ▶ Machine learning problems intrinsically involve "Uncertainty". Probabilistic models automatically include that is the predictions
- ▶ Probabilistic models are generative in nature. Hence one can generate samples.

## Disadvantages

- ▶ Inference and learning of probabilistic modeling is notoriously difficult.

## Solution

- ▶ MCMC
- ▶ Variational methods

## Probabilistic Modeling : Example

- ▶ Consider the problems of text classification. Aim is to classify an email is spam or not.
- ▶  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_i, \dots, X_D)$  : is a one hot vector i.e.  $X_i \in 0, 1$  denotes whether an email is spam or not.
- ▶  $Y \in 0, 1$ : whether an email is spam or not.
- ▶  $P_\theta(Y, X_1, \dots, X_D)$  : Probabilistic modeling of  $Y, X_1, \dots, X_D$ .

## Probabilistic Modeling : Example (Cont...)

$P_{\theta}(y = 1|x_1, \dots, x_D)$  : Given an email  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_D)$  this is the probability that  $x$  is spam

$P_{\theta}(y = 0|x_1, \dots, x_D)$  : Given  $x$ , probability that  $x$  is not spam

**Question** : What is the size of the set on which  $P_{\theta}$  is defined?

**Ans** :  $2^{D+1}$

- ▶ Considering  $D$  is the size of the vocabulary of English, this is a huge set
- ▶ Also estimating the parameter  $\theta$  is very difficult.

- ▶ We can say machine learning problems involves probabilistic modeling on  
"Sets that are exponentially big"
- ▶ Hence knowing the "dependencies" among the random variables is important



# Naive Bayes Assumption

**Assumption :** Given  $Y$ , all  $X_1, \dots, X_D$  are independent i.e.

$$P(Y, X_1, \dots, X_D) = P(Y) \prod_{d=1}^D P(X_d|Y)$$

In the text classification problems

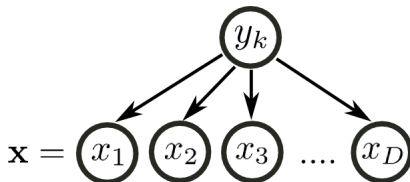
- ▶ Each  $P(X_d|Y)$  can be described by 4 parameters
- ▶ The entire distribution is parameterized by  $O(n)$  parameter

We have brought this down from exponential sized set to fixed sets.

## Naive Bayes Assumption : Graphical Representation

- The graphical representation of data generation

Story : That is the graph describes how the data is generated



- An email was generated by first choosing email is spam or not ( $y_k$ ) and thus based on this words for email are sampled.

## 3 Elements of Probabilistic Modeling

- ▶ Reputation : Deals with model selection and assumptions
- ▶ Inference : given a Model how to get answers for various questions
- ▶ Learning : Parameter estimation

## Reputation

- ▶ How do we represent underlying probability models
- ▶ What kind of independence : Directed Vs Undirected
- ▶ Latent variable models?

## Inference

Given a model how can we obtain answer to relevant questions?

- ▶ Marginal inference : What is the probability distribution of  $X_1$ . For example, what is the probability that email is spam if certain word present in the email?

$$P(X_1) = \sum_{X_2} \sum_{X_3} \dots \sum_{X_D} P(X_1, \dots, X_D)$$

- ▶ MAP Inference : MAP inference answer questions about mostly likely assignment. For example, what is the mostly likely spam message

$$\arg \max_{X_1, \dots, X_D} P(X_1, \dots, X_D, Y = 1)$$

## Learning

- ▶ Given data how to estimate the parameters?
- ▶ Learning and inference are tightly connected
- ▶ Usually inference algorithm will become part of learning

*We will not study this in detail. We give only some definitions*

- ▶ Given any distribution  $P(X_1, \dots, X_D)$  we can write this using chain rule

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_D) = P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_2, X_1) \dots \\ \dots (X_n|X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1)$$

- ▶ Bayesian network represent distributions where right hand side depends only on small number of ancestor variables  $X_A$ :

$$P(X_i|X_{i-1}, \dots, X_1) = P(X_i|X_A)$$

- ▶ Example : Suppose we have  $P(X_7|X_6, \dots, X_2, X_1)$ . Say we can approximate this distribution by  $P(X_7|X_4, X_2)$ . Then  $A_{X_7} = X_4, X_2$

**Definition :** Bayesian network is a directed graph  $G=(V,E)$  together with

- ▶ A random variable  $X_i$  for each node  $V_i$
- ▶ One conditional probability distribution  $P(X_i|A_{X_i})$  per node

We say probability model  $P(X_1, \dots, X_D)$  over a DAG  $G$  if it can be decomposed into product of factor specified by  $G$ .



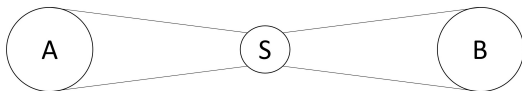


Markov Random Fields generalizes Markovian Property

$$X_n \leftarrow X_{n-1} \leftarrow X_{n-2} \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow X_D$$

Given  $X_{n-1}$  there is no effect of  $X_{n-2}, \dots, X_D$  on  $X_n$  i.e.

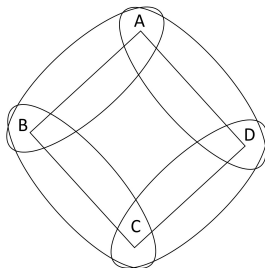
$$P(X_n | X_{n-1}, \dots, X_D) = P(X_n | X_{n-1})$$



Suppose every node in A has a path to B via S. Thus given S, A and B are independent.

### Example

- Let us study voting preferences of four individuals A,B,C,D. Suppose friendships are  $(A,B), (B,C), (C,D), (D,A)$ . hence assumption is that they have similar voting patterns.



Aim : Probabilistic modeling of joint voting decision of A,B,C,D.

Define  $\tilde{P}(A, B, C, D) = \phi(A, B)\phi(B, C)\phi(C, D)\phi(D, A)$

where  $\phi(X, Y)$  is a factor that gives more weight to consistent voter among friends e.g.

$$\phi(X, Y) = \begin{cases} 10 & \text{if } X=1, Y=1 \\ 5 & \text{if } X=0, Y=0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Now we define probability distribution

$$P(A, B, C, D) = \frac{1}{Z} \tilde{P}(A, B, C, D)$$

$$\text{Where } Z = \sum_{A, B, C, D} \tilde{P}(A, B, C, D)$$

- Note that the way we have defined potential function i.e.  $\phi$ , results in the following :  $P(A, B, C, D)$  has more value when A and B votes consistently. Similarly same for (B,C), (C,D) and (D,A)

- ▶ We cannot say anything about how one variable effect othe. We can only say somthing about how two r.v.s are coupled.
- ▶ In the case of undirected models we need less knowledge and we do not need generaize story of how one variable is generated.
- ▶ We only identify dependent variables and define the strength of their interactions.
  - ▶ Energy depending on different configuration
  - ▶ thus connect this energy to a probability via normalizing constant.

Def : Let  $G=(V,E)$  be a graph. Consider the collection of r.v.s  $X_{v \in V}$  and each r.v  $X_v$  taken values from the same set  $\mathcal{X}$ .  $X_{v \in V}$  is said to be Markov Random Field if the joint probability distribution satisfies Markovian property w.r.t  $G$ .

## What is Markovian Property w.r.t Graph G?

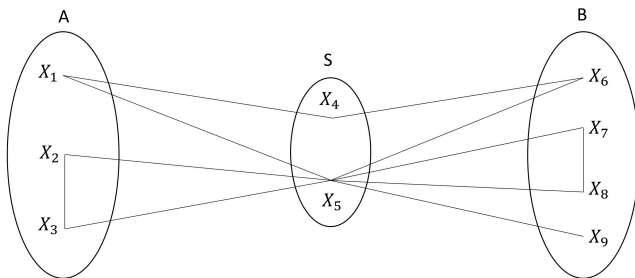
- ▶ A set  $A \subset V$  separates two vertices  $v \in A$  and  $w \in A$ , if every path from  $v$  to  $w$  contains a node from  $A$ .
- ▶ For any disjoint sets  $A, B, S \subset V$  if all vertices in  $A$  and  $B$  are separated by  $S$  thus  $\{X_a\}_{a \in A}$  and  $\{X_b\}_{b \in B}$  are independent given  $\{X_s\}_{s \in S}$

$$i.e. P(X_a : a \in A | X_t : t \in S \cup B) = P(X_a : a \in A | X_t : t \in S)$$



# Markov Property w.r.t Graph G

Example :



$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3 | X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8, X_9) = P(X_1, X_2, X_3 | X_4, X_5)$$

A set of vertices  $MB(v)$  is called Markov blanket of  $v \in V$  if for any  $B \subset V$  such that  $v \notin B$  we have

$$P(X_v | X_t : t \in MB(v), B) = P(X_v | X_t : t \in MB(v))$$

i.e.  $X_v$  is conditionally independent from any other r.v.s given  $X_t : t \in MB(v)$

In MRF  $MB(v) = \text{Neighbour}(v)$

## Hammersley–Clifford Theorem

A strictly positive probability distribution  $P$  satisfies  
Markovian property w.r.t. our undirected graph  $G$   $\iff$   $P$  factorises over  $G$

*Proof can be found in Koller and Friedman : Probabilistic Graphical Models 2009*

## Factorization of a P.D over a graph

A distribution  $P$  is said to factorize about our undirected graph  $G$  with set  $g$  maximal cliques  $\tau$  if there exists a set of non-negative functions

$$\{\Psi_c\}_{c \in \tau}, \quad \Psi_c : \mathcal{X}^D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ satisfying}$$

$$x, y \in \mathcal{X}^D \quad \text{thus} \quad (x_i)_{i \in c} = (y_j)_{j \in c}$$

$$\implies \Psi_c(x) = \Psi_c(y)$$

$$\text{and } P(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \tau} \Psi_c(x_c)$$

$$\text{Where } Z = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \prod_{c \in \tau} \Psi_c(x_c)$$

## Factorization of a P.D. over a Graph

If  $P$  is strictly positive same holds for potential function. Thus

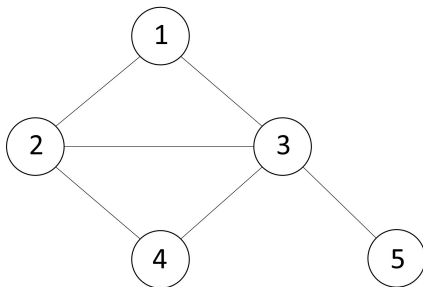
$$\begin{aligned}P(x) &= \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \tau} \Psi_c(x_c) \\&= \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left( \sum_{c \in \tau} \ln \Psi_c(x_c) \right) \\P(x) &= \frac{1}{Z} e^{-E(x)}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Where } E(x) = - \sum_{c \in \tau} \ln \Psi_c(x_c)$$

- ▶ Here  $P(x)$  represent Gibbs distribution and  $E(x)$  is called energy function.
- ▶ Probability distribution of any model can be represented in the form of Gibbs distribution.

## Factorization of a P.D. over a Graph

If the distribution  $P$  is Markovian w.r.t this graph thus it can be represented as



$$P(X) = \frac{1}{Z} \Psi_{123}(x_1, x_2, x_3) \Psi_{234}(x_2, x_3, x_4) \Psi_{35}(x_3, x_5)$$

## representation of Potential Functions

Note that though we ignored parameters  $\theta$ , undirected graphical models involve parameter. We can write this as

$$\begin{aligned} P(X|\theta) &= \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{T}} \Psi_c(y_c | \theta_c) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp\left(\sum_{c \in \mathcal{T}} \ln \Psi_c(x_c)\right) \end{aligned}$$

Define log potential as linear function of the parameter

$$\log \Psi_c(x_c) = \Phi_c(x_c)^T \theta_c,$$

Where  $\Phi_c(x_c)$  is a feature vector defined from the values of the variable  $x_c$

The resultant model is

$$P(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp\left(\sum_c \Phi_c(x_c^T \theta_c)\right)$$

*or*

$$\log P(x|\theta) = \sum_c \Phi_c(x_c)^T \theta_c - \log Z(\theta)$$

These are called maximum entropy or log-linear models



## Examples of MRFs

- 1 Ising Models : Modeling behaviour of marginals, which is a 3d or 2d lattice with  $x_0 \in [-1, +1]$
- 2 Hopfield Network : Fully connected Ising model
- 3 Boltzmann Machine : This is a generalization of Hopfield network, where one would introduce hidden nodes that makes the model more powerful.

We will study something called Restricted Boltzmann Machines

- ▶ Computing  $Z$  requires summation over exponential numbers of configurations. This is intractable and requires approximate approaches
- ▶ Undirected graphical models can be difficult to interpret as causality in last
- ▶ It is easier to generate data from directed models rather than undirected models

# Conditional Random Fields

- ▶ This is a special case of MRFs and is applicable in supervised learning
- ▶ Aim is to model distribution of type  $P(Y|X)$ , where  $X$  and  $Y$  are vector values
- ▶ Application  
Given a sequence of images of English alphabet recognize the letters or a word



$X_1$



$X_2$



$X_3$

Definition : CRF is a MRF over variables

$$X = (X_1, \dots, X_N)$$

$$Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_M)$$

defines conditional distribution

$$P(y|x) = \frac{1}{Z(x)} \prod_{c \in \tau} \Phi_c(x_c, y_c)$$

$$\text{Where } Z(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \prod_{c \in \tau} \Phi_c(x_c, y_c)$$