Inference in Graphical Models

Generative and Graphical Models Al60201, Module 2

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Background

Introduction

- A graphical model encodes a joint distribution over a set of random variables, like p(A,B,C)
- Can we use it to compute marginal distributions like p(B) or p(A, C)?
- Standard approach: sum/integrate out all the remaining variables
- Problems:
 - scales exponentially with number of variables
 - polynomially with number of possible values of each variables (in case of discrete)
 - Integration may not be analytically tractable (in case of continuous)
- Using the graph structure may reduce computational requirements!

Exact and Approximate Inference

- Exact inference: calculate the complete marginal distribution of target variable set
- Possible if all random variables are discrete
- May be infeasible if too many variables involved with complex coupling
- In case of continuous random variables, marginalization by integration may not be tractable
- Approach: approximate inference
 - Use sampling-based approach to construct the target distribution rather than calculate
 - Substitute it with another distribution that resembles the original but is easier to manage

Exact Inference



Discrete Marginalization

- Consider a chain graph of four binary variables A > B > C > D
- Factorization: p(A,B,C,D) = p(A) * p(B/A) * p(C/B) * p(D/C)
- Aim: to find marginalize p(B)
- \bullet Brute force: $p(B)=\sum_{A}\sum_{C}\sum_{D}p(A,B,C,D)$ (sum up $2^{3}=8$ values, with 3 multiplications each time total 8*3+7=31 operations)
- ullet Notice: D is present in only one factor p(D/C) (pendent vertex)
- $\bullet \ \sum_D p(D/C) = 1, \ D$ eliminated without residue
- Next $\mu_B^{CD} = \sum_C p(C/B)$ (2 summations) C eliminated
- Next $\mu_B^A = \sum_A p(A) * p(B/A)$ (4 multiplications, 2 summations)
- Finally $p(B) = \mu_B^A * \mu_B^{CD}$ (2 multiplications)
- Magic of the distributive law!



Variable Elimination Algorithm

- The graphical model and its associated factorization
- Input: the target variable set (whose marginal/joint distribution is required)
- Step 1: specify an order to eliminate the remaining
- Set ϕ as the list of factors
- Repeat for each elimination variable in order
 - ullet Select all factors ϕ' from ϕ that involve the current elimination variable
 - Multiply them and sum over all possible values of the elimination variable
 - \bullet Result: a function μ (residual) of the other variables covered by the factors in ϕ'
 - Remove the factors ϕ' from ϕ and insert μ into ϕ
- ullet Multiply the remaining factors in ϕ to get the desired distribution



Elimination Order and Residual Graph

- The number of computations in each step of elimination depends on the number of variables covered by the participating factors
- Related to the clique size of the residual graph
- Elimination graph: initially the undirected representation of the original graphical model
- To eliminate each variable, remove the corresponding node and its attached edges from the graph
- But add elimination/residual edges between the variables of the residual (if not already present)
- Elimination order may be decided at run-time, to keep down the clique size of the elimination graph

Variable Elimination Example

$$P = P(A) \times P(B/A) \times P(C/B) \times P(E)$$

$$\times P(C/C) \times P(D/B, E, C) \times P(E/C)$$

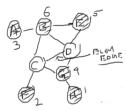
$$\times P(A/C) \times P(D/B, E, C) \times P(E/C)$$

$$\times P(A/C) \times P(D/B, E, C) \times P(E/C)$$

$$\times P(A/C) \times P(B/A) = 1$$

$$\times P(A) \times P(A) = 1$$

Variable Elimination Example



Another view of Variable Elimination

- Each elimination variable sends a message to its neighbors
- The message encodes its own information and the information it had received earlier from other nodes
- Easiest to understand in the chain graph over X_1, \ldots, X_N , to compute $p(X_n)$
- Message from the left: $\mu_2^1 = \sum_{X_1} \psi(X_1, X_2)$ (from node 1 to node 2)
- \bullet Propagates to the right: $\mu_3^2 = \sum_{X_2} \psi(X_2,X_3) \mu_2^1$ (from node 2 to node 3)
- \bullet Till it reaches target (node n): $\mu_n^{n-1} = \sum_{X_{(n-1)}} \psi(X_{(n-1)}, X_n) \mu_{(n-1)}^{(n-2)}$
- Similar messages from the right: $\mu_{N-1}^N = \sum_{X_N} \psi(X_{N-1}, X_N)$ (from node N to node N-1) Propagate to the left: $\mu_{N-2}^{N-1} = \sum_{X_N} \psi(X_{N-1}, X_{N-2}) \mu_{N-1}^N$ (from node N-1 to node N)
- Till it reaches the target (node n): $\mu_n^{n+1} = \sum_{X_{(n+1)}} \psi(X_{(n+1)}, X_n) \mu_{(n+1)}^{(n+2)}$
- And finally, $p(X_n) = \mu_n^{n-1} * \mu_n^{n+1}$



Message Passing

- Consider a situation where you need marginal distributions of all the variables
- Can be done by running Variable Elimination for all nodes
- Many factors have to be calculated repeatedly
- Idea: each node can calculate the factors involving their neighbors locally, store them and also pass these factors (messages) to their neighbors for computing further factors
- Pendant vertices should initiate process
- ullet Each vertex u with k neighbors can wait to receive messages from (k-1) of them. Then it combines those and sends to the remaining neighbor v
- ullet When u receives message back from v, it multiplies all messages together locally, and transmits the result back to remaining nodes
- Whole process of passing messages to continue till each vertix has received messages from all others



Message Passing in General Graphs

- Message Passing is also called Belief Propagation or sum-product
- Message Passing works on trees (graphs without cycles)
- It can work on both directed and undirected graphical models
- Directed graphical models can be expressed as factor graphs directly
- In case of graphs with cycles, message-passing gets into trouble
- Solution: Loopy Belief Propagation
- Junction Tree Algorithm: in case of chordal graphs (where each cycle of length 4 or more is triangulated, i.e. has a sub-cycle of size 3)

Message Passing Demo

Factor Graph for Message Passing

$$h^{g \to f^2} = h^{f \to B} \times h^{f \to B}$$

$$h^{f \to B} = \sum_{A \to A} h^{A \to f^1} \quad h^{f^2 \to B} = \sum_{A \to A} h^{f \to f}$$

$$h^{(\pm)} = A^{B} \quad h^{(\pm)} = A^{B}$$

$$h^{(\pm)} = A^{B} \quad h^{(\pm)} = A^{B}$$

Nt3 D = > NB + 13

Factor Graph

- Factor graph: undirected bipartite graph with Factor nodes corresponding to each factor of distribution (unary, binary, multi-variable)
- Undirected edges between every variable node and node of those factors which involve the variable
- Designate one node as ROOT, pendant nodes are leaves
- ullet Each leaf-factor sends message 1 to its attached variable-node $\mu_{f->x}=1$
- Each variable-node that has one factor-neighbor, sends a message equal to the factor $\mu_{x->f}=\psi(f)(x)$
- Each variable-node with multiple factor-neighbors, multiplies messages from all-but-one neighbors, and sends that product to remaining factor-neighbor $\mu_{x->f} = \prod_{f': NB(x)-f} \mu_{f'->x}$
- Each factor-node marginalizes the messages it receives from all-but-one neighboring variable-node, and sends the product to remaining variable-node $\mu_{f->x} = \prod_{x':NB(f)-x} \sum_{x'} \mu_{x'->f}$



Approximate Inference

Approximate Inference

- In many cases, exact inference by above processes not feasible
- There may be too many variables, coupled in a complex way
- There may be continuous variables with intractable integration
- ullet Aim: calculate p(Z|X) where Z are latent, X are observed
- Two main approaches:
 - Draw samples (directly or indirectly) to construct the distribution
 - \bullet Create another tractable distribution for Z|X and choose its parameters so that it resembles the original one

Sampling-based Inference

- ullet Assumption: joint probability p(X,Z) can be calculated point-wise
- Aim: calculate posterior distribution p(Z|X), which cannot be done directly (cannot calculate p(X))
- \bullet Approach: draw samples of Z from p(Z|X), store them and construct the posterior from them
- ullet But drawing samples itself maybe difficult (especially if Z includes many variables)
- Approach: Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling!
- ullet Instead of of drawing samples from p(Z|X), explore the sample space using Markov Chain transitions
- Stationary distribution of the Markov Chain should be the desired distribution!
- Needed: given a particular sample, a transition distribution to jump to another sample!



Gibbs Sampling

- A special category of Markov Chain Monte Carlo
- ullet Sample transition restricted: only one variable of Z may be changed at each transition
- Explore sample space by moving along one dimension at a time
- While updating variable Z_k , the other variables Z_{-k} are held unchanged
- We need distribution $p(Z_k|Z_{-k},X)$, which should be easy to calculate and sample from
 - Initialize Z (using any reasonable approach)
 - Repeat for each variable $Z_k \in Z$:
 - Sample $Z_k \sim p(Z_k|Z_{-k},X)$, update Z_k with newly sampled value
 - ullet Repeat the above process many items, keep storing Z at regular intervals (usually after 5 or 10 iterations)
 - \bullet When sufficient number of samples stored, estimate posterior on Z based on those



Example of Gibbs Sampling

- Consider a Hidden Markov Model with known parameters
- ullet Aim: calculate posterior distribution of state sequence Z
- Required: p(Z(t)|Z(-t),X) where $Z(-t)=\{Z(1),\ldots,Z(t-1),Z(t+1),\ldots,Z(T)\}$
- $p(Z(t)|Z(-t),X) \propto p(Z(t)|Z(t-1)) * p(Z(t+1)|Z(t)) * p(X(t)|Z(t))$ (other terms independent of Z(t))
- X(t), Z(t-1), Z(t+1) are observed or fixed
- Easy to sample Z(t) now!
- If parameters are unknown, they can be initialized and updated after each round of Gibbs Sampling (based on temporary Z-values)
- Collapsed Gibbs Sampling: when some variables are marginalized out of original distribution
- Advantage: easy to implement, can give accurate results
- Disadvantage: too slow, needs thousands of samples



Approximating a distribution

- ullet Given joint distribution p(Z,X), we need p(Z|X)
- But we do not know p(X): marginalization intractable
- ullet Define a proposal distribution q(Z) that is easy to compute
- ullet Aim: minimize KL-divergence between q(Z) and p(Z,X)
- Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence between distributions p and q: $KL(p||q) = \sum_{x} p(x)log(\frac{p(x)}{a(x)})$
- ullet Can also be considered as expectation of log(p/q) with respect to p
- ullet Always non-negative, equal to 0 iff p=q, high values for dissimilar distributions
- Also, $KL(p||q) \neq KL(q||p)$ (assymmetric relation)



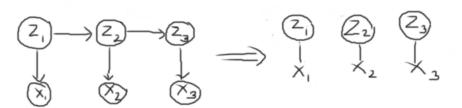
Evidence Lower Bound (ELBO)

- \bullet Define $J(q) = KL(q(Z)||p(X,Z)) = \sum_{Z} q(Z)log(\frac{q(Z)}{p(X,Z)})$
- i.e. $J(q) = \sum_Z q(Z) (log(\frac{q(Z)}{p(Z|X)}) log(p(X)) = \sum_Z q(Z) (log(\frac{q(Z)}{p(Z|X)})) log(p(X))$
- $\bullet \ \text{i.e.} \ J(q) = KL(q(Z)||p(Z|X)) log(p(X))$
- \bullet As K-L divergence is non-negative, it follows that $logp(X) \geq -J(q)$
- \bullet In other words, -J(q) is the lower-bound for the evidence p(X) (Evidence Lower Bound- ELBO)
- ullet Minimize J(q) is equivalent to maximizing the evidence lower bound, a proxy for the evidence itself
- It can also be seen as minimizing KL(q(Z)||p(Z|X)), i.e. pushing q towards the desired posterior distribution p(Z|X)



Variational Inference and Mean-Field Approximation

- ullet General approach: 1. Choose q, 2. Define ELBO 3. Optimize parameters of q to maximize ELBO
- Popular choice for q: fully factored distribution $q(Z) = \prod_i q_i(Z_i)$
- ullet For each factor i, optimize q_i holding other factors q_{-i} unchanged
- Solution: $log(q_i(Z_i)) = E_{-q_i}log(p(X,Z)) + constant$, i.e. calculate expectation of the joint distribution using same value of Z_i , over the remaining variables of q except Z_i
- Normalize to eliminate constant terms, iterate over all variables till convergence



Example of Mean-Field Approximation

- \bullet Hidden Markov Model: $p(Z,X) = p(Z_1) * \prod_{t=2}^T p(Z_t|Z_{t-1}) * \prod_{t=1}^T p(X_t|Z_t)$
- ullet Target p(Z|X), variational approximation $q(Z) = \prod_{t=1}^T q_t(Z_t|\pi_t)$
- Z_t at every t follows independent Categorical distribution with parameter $\pi_t!$
- Variation update: $log(q_t(Z_t)) = E_{-q_t}log(p(Z,X)) + c_t$
- Consider only those terms of p(Z,X) that involve Z_t , i.e. $log(p(Z_{t+1}|Z_t)) + log(p(Z_t|Z_{t-1})) + log(p(X_t|Z_t))$
- Take expectation of $log(p(Z_{t+1}|Z_t))$ over $q_{t+1}(Z_{t+1})$, and $log(p(Z_t|Z_{t-1}))$ over $q_{t-1}(Z_{t-1})$
- $log(p(Z_{t+1}|Z_t)) = \sum_{i,j} I(Z_t = i)I(Z_{t+1} = j)log(A_{ij})$
- Taking expectation w.r.t. $q_{t+1}(Z_{t+1})$ yields $\pi_{t+1,j}$, i.e. the probability that $Z_{t+1}=j$ holds under $q_{t+1}(Z_{t+1})$
- Similarly calculate expectation of $log(p(Z_t|Z_{t-1}))$ w.r.t. $q_{t-1}(Z_{t-1})$
- ullet Multiply these factors and normalize to get $q_t(Z_t)$



Thank you!

