## Probabilistic Graphical Models Class Notes

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# Lecture 2: Bayesian Networks Structure

- G = (V, E) is a directed acyclic graph such that:
  - One node  $i \in V$  for each random variable  $X_i$
  - $\operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G$  denotes the parents of  $X_i$
  - NonDescendants<sub> $X_i$ </sub> are variables that are not descendents of  $X_i$
- G encodes the following local independencies

$$I_l(G) = (X_i \perp \text{NonDescendants}_{X_i} | \text{Pa}_{X_i}^G) \ \forall X_i$$

i.e.  $X_i$  is conditionally independent of NonDescendants $X_i$  given  $Pa_{X_i}^G$ 

• A distribution P factorizes according to G if and only if

$$P(X_i, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i \in V} P(X_i | \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G)$$

- A Bayesian Network is a pair B = (P, G) for which
  - -P factorizes over G
  - P is a set of conditional probability distributions  $P(X_i|Pa_{X_i}^G)$
- So G provides a compact way to represent conditional independencies that hold under P

#### Independence Maps

- Let  $I(P) = \{(X \perp Y \mid Z)\}$  be the set of independence assertions that hold in P
- A BN structure G is an I-map for a set of independencies I if  $I(G) \subseteq I$
- A BN structure G is an I-map for P is G is an I-map for I(P), i.e.  $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$ 
  - Any independence asserted by G must hold in P, but the converse is not necessarily true. P may have additional independencies not reflected in G
  - So while any conditional independency expressed by G holds, the conditional dependencies expressed by G hold for some distributions that factorize over G

Representation Theorem: Given a BN structure G and joint distribution P, P factorizes G if and only if G is an I-map for P Proof  $(P \leftarrow Q)$ : Let T be a topological ordering on the nodes in G, and  $v_i$  be the set of nodes appearing before i in T, excluding  $\operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G$ . From  $I_l(G)$  we have that  $\{X_i \perp X_{v_i} \mid \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G\}$ . Since  $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$ ,

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i \in T} P(X_i | X_{v_i}, \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G) = \prod_{i \in T} P(X_i | \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G)$$

Active Trial: Let G be a BN structure  $X_1 \leftrightarrow \cdots \leftrightarrow X_n$  be a trail in G, and Z be a subset of observed variables. The trail is active, i.e. dependency/information flow given Z if

- For every v-structure,  $X_i$  or one of its descendents is in Z
- $\bullet$  No other node along the trail is in Z

D-separation: let X, Y, Z be three sets of nodes in G

- X and Y are d-separated given Z if there is no active trail between any node in X to any node in Y given Z
- I.e if d-sep<sub>G</sub> $(X, Y \mid Z)$ , then  $(X \perp Y \mid Z)$

For a BN structure G, we define the global Markov independencies as the set of independencies that correspond to d-separation:

$$I(G) = \{(X \perp X \mid Z : \operatorname{d-sep}_G(X, Y|Z))\}$$

## Lecture 4: Factor Graphs, Gaussian Networks

- $\bullet$  The Markov network H does not make the structure of the distribution explicit, i.e. maximum cliques vs. other complete graph subsets.
- A factor graph is a bipartite undirected graph with variable nodes (oval) and factor nodes (square). Edges exist only between variable nodes and factor nodes
- Each factor node is associated with a single potential, the scope of which is the variables that are the factor's neighbors
- Boltzmann Distribution:
  - We can rewrite a factor  $\phi(D)$  as  $\phi(D) = \exp(-\psi(D))$  where  $\psi(D) = -\log \phi(D)$
  - The factorized distribution then becomes:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\left(-\sum_{k=1}^K \psi_k(D_k)\right)$$

- $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \psi_k(D_k)$  is referred to as the "free energy"
- Can do inference as energy minimization
- Log-Linear Markov Networks with Features:
  - A feature is a function  $f: \operatorname{Val}(D_i) \mapsto \mathbb{R}$
  - A set of features  $F = \{f_1(D_1) \dots f_K(D_M)\}$  where  $D_i$  is a complete subgraph in H
  - A set of weights  $\{w_1, \ldots, w_M\}$  such that

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) \propto \exp\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{M} w_i f_i(D_i)\right)$$

- Features and weights can be reused for different factors
- Clasically, features we hand-designed and weights learned from data
- Gaussian Markov Random Fields:
  - Consider a multivariate Gaussian density p over  $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T$
  - The density function is defined as:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2} (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right)$$

Where the term in the exponential can be expressed as:

$$\frac{-1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu) = \frac{-1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Lambda(x-\mu) = \frac{-1}{2}(x^T \Lambda x - 2x^T \Lambda \mu + \mu^T \Lambda \mu)$$

This is referred to as the cononical form where  $\Lambda = \Sigma^{-1}$  is the information matrix and  $\eta = \Lambda \mu$  is the information vector

– The information for parametrization  $x \sim \mathcal{N}^{-1}(\eta, \Lambda)$  can also be expressed as

$$p(x) \propto \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i}\Lambda_{ii}x_{i}^{2} + 2\eta_{i}x_{i})\exp(-\sum_{i,j:i\neq j}\Lambda_{ij}x_{i}x_{j})$$

$$\vdots = \prod_{i} \phi_{i}(x_{i}) \cdot \prod_{i,j:i \neq j} \phi_{ij}(x_{i}, x_{j})$$

- Any Gaussian distribuition can be represented by a pairwise Markov network with quadradic node and edge potentials
- Two nodes  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  have an edge in the GMRF only if  $\Lambda_{ij} \neq 0$
- The structure of the information matrix  $\Lambda$  directly encodes the Markov network graph structure
- Converting Bayesian Networks to Markov Networks
  - Moralization coverts a BN to a Markov network
  - The moral graph  $\mathcal{M}(G)$  of a BN structure is an undirected graph over V that contains an edge between  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  if:
    - \* there is a direct edge between them
    - \* they are parents of the same node
  - Introduce one potential for each CPD  $\phi_i(X_i, \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G) = P(X_i | \operatorname{Pa}_{X_i}^G)$
  - $-\mathcal{M}(G)$  is a minimal I-map for G. If G is moral, then  $\mathcal{M}(G)$  is a perfect I-map for G
- Converting a Markov network H to a Bayesian network G is harder, involves adding many edges
  - An undirected graph is **chordal** if every cycle of length 3 has a shortcut between non-consecutive nodes
  - If G is a minimal I-map for H, then G must be chordal
  - Generating a BN for a Markov network involves triangulating the graph by adding edges to make the graph chordal
  - Triangulation results in a loss of independence relations present in H

## Lecture 5: Conditional Random Fields

- A generative model requires representing the joint distribution P(X,Y) = P(X|Y)P(Y), since we can generate X given label Y
- A discriminative model only requires a representation of the conditional distribution P(Y|X), so we can discriminate between different Y without estimating P(X)
- Ex. Naive Bayes  $(X_i \perp X_{-i}|Y)$  vs. Logistic Regression:  $P(Y=1|x;w) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$ 
  - Every conditional distribution that can be represented via Naive Bayes can also be represented using the logistic model
  - Ignoring dependencies might double-count evidence, i.e. spam classification and two words that always appear together (but are assumed independent)
- Tradeoffs between Generative vs. Discriminative Models:
  - Missing data: Generative allow marginalization over unseen variables, e.g.  $X = \{X_O, X_U\}$ ,  $P(Y|X_O) = \frac{\left(\sum_{X_U} P(X_O, X_U|Y)\right)P(Y)}{\sum_{Y}\sum_{X_U} P(X_O, X_U|Y)P(Y)}$  Discriminative models typically require all X be observed
  - Unlabeled data: Relativley easy with generative models, but difficult with discriminative models.
  - Adding new classes: Generative models train class-conditioned distributions separatley. Discriminative models have interactions between parameters
  - Calibrated Probabilities: Discriminative models typically yield more accurate probabilities. Generative models can be overconfident due to independence assumptions
  - Data-dependent models: Discriminative models allow us to vary the model according to the data. Generative models
    employ data-independent parameterizations
- MLE of generative models is more efficient than training discriminative models, but may have higher asymptotic error.

#### Conditional Random Fields:

- Undirected graph with nodes for Y and X (alt. partially directed, with X the parent of Y)
- Parametrized by a set of factors  $\phi_1(D_1), \ldots, \phi_m(D_m)$
- Represent conditional distribution P(Y|X) rather than the joint

 $\bullet$  Avoid representing dist. over X, so no potientials involving only X

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{Z(X)} \prod_{i=1}^{m} \phi_i(D_i)$$
$$Z(X) = \sum_{X} \prod_{i=1}^{m} \phi_i(D_i)$$

- Just like Markov network, except the partition function depends on the observed variables X
- The conditional distribution factiorizes as:

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{Z(X)} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \phi_i(Y_i, Y_{i+1}) \prod_{i=1}^k \phi(Y_i, X_i)$$
$$Z(X) = \sum_{Y} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \phi_i(Y_i, Y_{i+1}) \prod_{i=1}^k \phi(Y_i, X_i)$$

• Hidden Markov Model: widely used to model sequential random variables

$$P(X,Y) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(Y_t|Y_{t-1})P(X_t|Y_t)$$

Which requires specifying the generative model. Instead, construct discriminative version by reversing direction of arrows, ex. Maximum Entropy Markov Model:

$$P(Y|X) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(Y_t|Y_{t-1}, X_1, X_2, \dots X_T, X_g)$$

Where  $X_g$  are global features. Suffers from label bias problem: observations at time t do not influence states prior to t per DAG structure. The Chain-Structured CRF version, uses undirected edges, which yields the model:

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{1}{Z(X)} \prod_{t=1}^{T} \psi(Y_t|X) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \phi(Y_t, Y_{t+1}|X)$$

Requires the entire observation

• Naive Markov Model: Assume X and Y are related by the following factors:  $\phi_0(Y) = \exp\{w_0 \mathbf{1}[Y=1]\}$  and  $\phi_i(X_i, Y) = \exp\{w_i \mathbf{1}[X_i=1, Y=1]\}$ . So the conditional distribution becomes:

$$P(Y = 1|x_1,...,x_k) = \sigma\left(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i\right)$$

• CRF Parametrization: Factors may depend on a large number of variables. Typically, parameterize factors using log-linear representation:

$$\phi_c(X_c, Y_c) = \exp(w_c^T f_c(X_c, Y_c))$$