

Two types of GMs



 Directed edges give causality relationships (Bayesian Network or Directed Graphical Model):

$$P(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, X_{5}, X_{6}, X_{7}, X_{8})$$

$$= P(X_{1}) P(X_{2}) P(X_{3}|X_{1}) P(X_{4}|X_{2}) P(X_{5}|X_{2})$$

$$P(X_{6}|X_{3}, X_{4}) P(X_{7}|X_{6}) P(X_{8}|X_{5}, X_{6})$$



 Undirected edges simply give correlations between variables (Markov Random Field or Undirected Graphical model):

$$\begin{split} &P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) \\ &= \frac{1/\mathbf{Z}}{E} \exp\{E(X_1) + E(X_2) + E(X_3, X_1) + E(X_4, X_2) + E(X_5, X_2) \\ &+ E(X_6, X_3, X_4) + E(X_7, X_6) + E(X_8, X_5, X_6)\} \end{split}$$



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Review: independence properties of DAGs



• Defn: let $I_{l}(G)$ be the set of local independence properties encoded by DAG G, namely:

 $\{X_i \perp \text{NonDescendants}(X_i) \mid \text{Parents}(X_i)\}$

- Defn: A DAG G is an I-map (independence-map) of P
 if I₁(G)⊆ I(P)
- A fully connected DAG \mathcal{G} is an I-map for any distribution, since $I_{\mathcal{I}}(\mathcal{G}) = \emptyset \subseteq I(P)$ for any P.
- Defn: A DAG G is a minimal I-map for P if it is an I-map for P, and if the removal of even a single edge from G renders it not an I-map.
- A distribution may have several minimal I-maps
 - Each corresponding to a specific node-ordering

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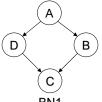
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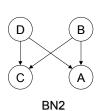
P-maps

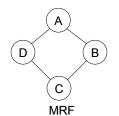


- Defn: A DAG G is a perfect map (P-map) for a distribution P if I(P)=I(G).
- Thm: not every distribution has a perfect map as DAG.
 - Pf by counterexample. Suppose we have a model where A \(\perc C \| \{B,D\}\), and B \(\perc D \| \{A,C\}\).
 This cannot be represented by any Bayes net.

• e.g., BN1 wrongly says $B \perp D \mid A$, BN2 wrongly says $B \perp D$.



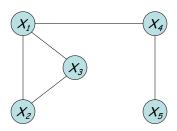




BN1

Undirected graphical models



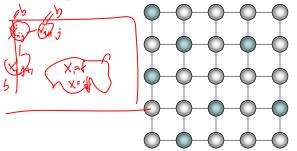


- Pairwise (non-causal) relationships
- Can write down model, and score specific configurations of the graph, but no explicit way to generate samples
- Contingency constrains on node configurations

Canonical examples



The grid model

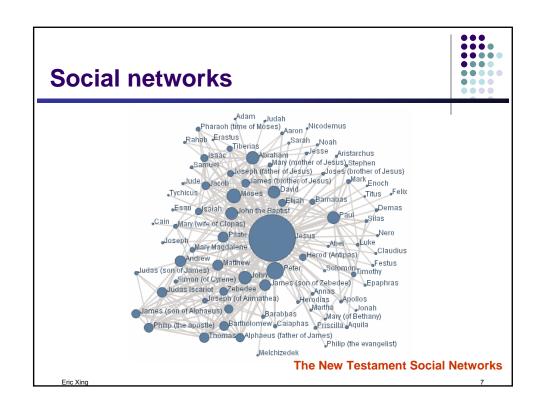


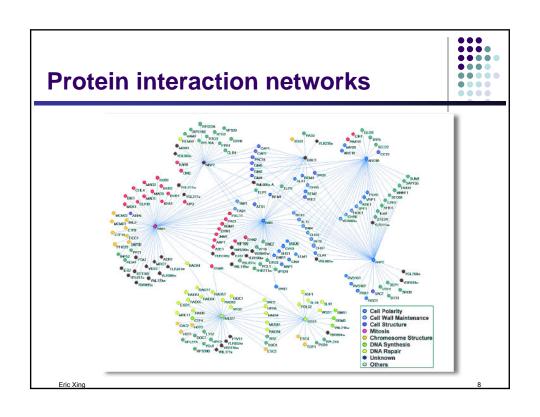
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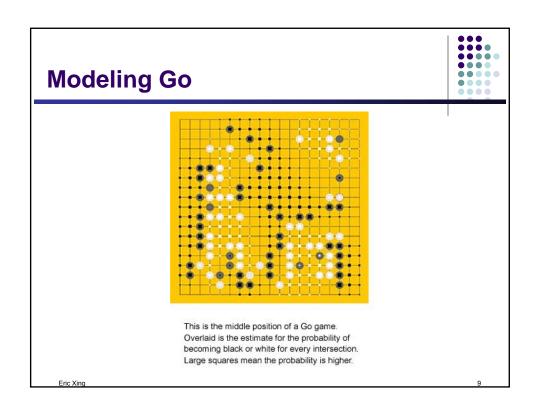
P(X)

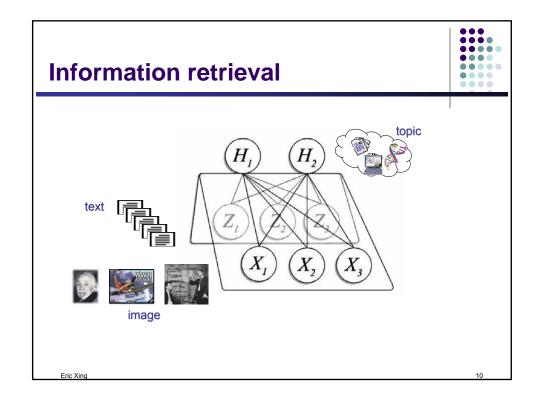
Lig Kir. jr.

- Naturally arises in image processing, lattice physics, etc.
- Each node may represent a single "pixel", or an atom
 - The states of adjacent or nearby nodes are "coupled" due to pattern continuity or electro-magnetic force, etc.
 - Most likely joint-configurations usually correspond to a "low-energy" state











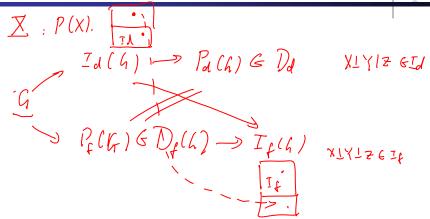
- First hw out today! Start now!
- · Auditing students: please fill out forms
- Recitation:
- questions:

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11

Distributional equivalence and I-equivalence





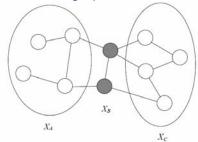
- All independence in I_d(G) will be captured in I_f(G), is the reverse true?
- Are "not-independence" from G all honored in P_f?

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Global Markov Independencies



• Let *H* be an undirected graph:



- B separates A and C if every path from a node in A to a node in C passes through a node in B: sep_H(A; C|B)
- A probability distribution satisfies the *global Markov property* if for any disjoint A, B, C, such that B separates A and C, A is independent of C given B: $I(H) = \{A \perp C | B : sep_H(A; C|B)\}$

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Soundness of separation criterion



- The independencies in I(H) are precisely those that are guaranteed to hold for every MRF distribution P over H.
- In other words, the separation criterion is sound for detecting independence properties in MRF distributions over H.

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Local Markov independencies



• For each node $X_i \in V$, there is unique Markov blanket of X_i , denoted MB_{X_i} , which is the set of neighbors of X_i in the graph (those that share an edge with X_i)



• Defn (5.5.4): (

The local Markov independencies associated with H is:

$$I_{\ell}(H)$$
: $\{X_i \perp \mathbf{V} - \{X_i\} - MB_{X_i} \mid MB_{X_i} : \forall i\}$,

In other words, X_i is independent of the rest of the nodes in the graph given its immediate neighbors

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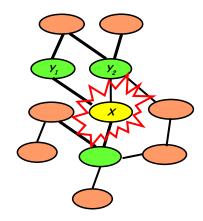
15

Summary: Conditional Independence Semantics in an MRF



Structure: an *undirected graph*

- Meaning: a node is conditionally independent of every other node in the network given its Directed neighbors
- Local contingency functions (potentials) and the cliques in the graph completely determine the joint dist.
- Give correlations between variables, but no explicit way to generate samples

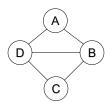


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Cliques



- For G={V,E}, a complete subgraph (clique) is a subgraph
 G'={V'⊆V,E'⊆E} such that nodes in V' are fully interconnected
- A (maximal) clique is a complete subgraph s.t. any superset
 V"⊃V' is not complete.
- A sub-clique is a not-necessarily-maximal clique.



- Example:
 - max-cliques = {A,B,D}, {B,C,D},
 - sub-cliques = $\{A,B\}$, $\{C,D\}$, ... \rightarrow all edges and singletons

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17

Quantitative Specification



Defn: an undirected graphical model represents a distribution P(X₁,...,X_n) defined by an undirected graph H, and a set of positive potential functions ψ_c associated with cliques of H, s.t.

$$P(x_1,...,x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$
 (A Gibbs distribution)

where *Z* is known as the partition function:

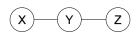
$$Z = \sum_{x_1, \dots, x_n} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$

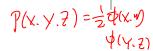
- Also known as Markov Random Fields, Markov networks ...
- The potential function can be understood as an contingency function of its arguments assigning "pre-probabilistic" score of their joint configuration.

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Interpretation of Clique Potentials







 The model implies X⊥Z|Y. This independence statement implies (by definition) that the joint must factorize as:

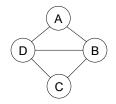
$$p(x, y, z) = p(y)p(x | y)p(z | y)$$

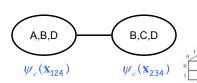
- We can write this as: p(x,y,z) = p(x,y)p(z|y)p(x,y,z) = p(x|y)p(z,y), but
 - cannot have all potentials be marginals
 - cannot have all potentials be conditionals
- The positive clique potentials can only be thought of as general "compatibility", "goodness" or "happiness" functions over their variables, but not as probability distributions.

10

Example UGM – using max cliques







$$P'(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{Z} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{124}) \times \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{234})$$

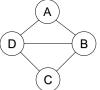
$$Z = \sum_{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{124}) \times \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{234})$$

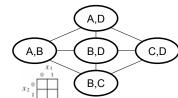
 For discrete nodes, we can represent P(X_{1:4}) as two 3D tables instead of one 4D table

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Example UGM – using subcliques







$$P''(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{ij} \psi_{ij}(\mathbf{x}_{ij})$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} \psi_{12}(\mathbf{x}_{12}) \psi_{14}(\mathbf{x}_{14}) \psi_{23}(\mathbf{x}_{23}) \psi_{24}(\mathbf{x}_{24}) \psi_{34}(\mathbf{x}_{34})$$

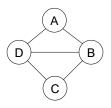
$$Z = \sum_{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4} \prod_{ij} \psi_{ij}(\mathbf{x}_{ij})$$

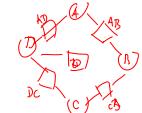
- We can represent $P(X_{1:4})$ as 5 2D tables instead of one 4D table
- Pair MRFs, a popular and simple special case

(M) (P') (P') (P') (P')

Factored graph



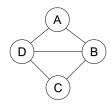






Example UGM – canonical representation





$$P(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4})$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} \psi_{c}(\mathbf{x}_{124}) \times \psi_{c}(\mathbf{x}_{234})$$

$$\times \psi_{12}(\mathbf{x}_{12}) \psi_{14}(\mathbf{x}_{14}) \psi_{23}(\mathbf{x}_{23}) \psi_{24}(\mathbf{x}_{24}) \psi_{34}(\mathbf{x}_{34})$$

$$\times \psi_{1}(x_{1}) \psi_{2}(x_{2}) \psi_{3}(x_{3}) \psi_{4}(x_{4})$$

$$Z = \sum_{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4} \begin{array}{c} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{124}) \times \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{234}) \\ \times \psi_{12}(\mathbf{x}_{12}) \psi_{14}(\mathbf{x}_{14}) \psi_{23}(\mathbf{x}_{23}) \psi_{24}(\mathbf{x}_{24}) \psi_{34}(\mathbf{x}_{34}) \\ \times \psi_1(x_1) \psi_2(x_2) \psi_3(x_3) \psi_4(x_4) \end{array}$$

- Most general, subsume P' and P" as special cases
- I(P) \(\subseteq \text{I}(P') \) \(\subseteq \text{I}(P'') \) \(\subseteq \text{S} \text{D}(P') \) \(\subseteq \text{S} \text{D}(P'') \)

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23

Hammersley-Clifford Theorem



• If arbitrary potentials are utilized in the following product formula for probabilities,

$$P(x_1,...,x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$
$$Z = \sum_{x_1,...,x_n} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$

then the family of probability distributions obtained is exactly that set which **respects** the *qualitative specification* (the conditional independence relations) described earlier

 Thm (5.4.2): Let P be a positive distribution over V, and H a Markov network graph over V. If H is an I-map for P, then P is a Gibbs distribution over H.

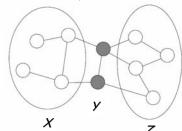
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Independence properties of UGM



- Let us return to the question of what kinds of distributions can be represented by undirected graphs (ignoring the details of the particular parameterization).
- Defn: the global Markov properties of a UG H are

$$I(H) = \{X \perp Z | Y\} : sep_H(X; Z | Y)\}$$



• Is this definition sound and complete?

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25

Soundness and completeness of global Markov property



- Defn: An UG H is an I-map for a distribution P if I(H) ⊆ I(P), i.e., P entails I(H).
- Defn: P is a Gibbs distribution over H if it can be represented as

$$P(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$

- Thm 5.4.1 (soundness): If P is a Gibbs distribution over H, then H is an I-map of P.
- Thm 5.4.5 (completeness): If $\neg \text{sep}_H(X; Z \mid Y)$, then $X \not\perp_P Z \mid Y$ in **some** P that factorizes over H.

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Local and global Markov properties revisit



- For directed graphs, we defined I-maps in terms of local Markov properties, and derived global independence.
- For undirected graphs, we defined I-maps in terms of global Markov properties, and will now derive local independence.
- Defn: The pairwise Markov independencies associated with UG H = (V;E) are

$$I_{p}(H) = \left\{ X \perp Y \middle| V \setminus \{X,Y\} : \{X,Y\} \notin E \right\}$$

• e.g., $X_1 \perp X_5 | \{X_2, X_3, X_4\}$



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27

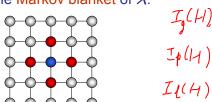
Local Markov properties



A distribution has the *local Markov property* w.r.t. a graph
 H=(V,E) if the conditional distribution of variable given its
 neighbors is independent of the remaining nodes

$$I_{I}(H) = \left\{ X \perp \mathbf{V} \setminus \left(X \cup N_{H}(X) \right) \middle| N_{H}(X) \right) : X \in \mathbf{V} \right\}$$

- **Theorem** (Hammersley-Clifford): If the distribution is strictly positive and satisfies the local Markov property, then it factorizes with respect to the graph.
- $N_{H}(X)$ is also called the Markov blanket of X.



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Relationship between local and global Markov properties



- Thm 5.5.5. If $P = I_n(H)$ then $P = V_n(H)$.
- Thm 5.5.6. If P = I(H) then $P = I_1(H)$.
- Thm 5.5.7. If P > 0 and $P = I_p(H)$, then P = I(H).
 - Pf sketch: p(a,b|c,d)=p(a|c,d)p(b|c,d), then d separate b from {a,c}
 → p(a,b|c,d)p(c|d)=p(a|c,d)p(b|c,d)p(c|d)=p(a,c|d)p(b|d)
- Corollary (5.5.8): The following three statements are equivalent for a positive distribution P:

```
P \mid = I_{l}(H)
```

 $P = I_p(H)$

P = I(H)

- This equivalence relies on the positivity assumption.
- We can design a distribution locally

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29

I-maps for undirected graphs



- Defn: A Markov network H is a minimal I-map for P if it is an I-map, and if the removal of any edge from H renders it not an I-map.
- How can we construct a minimal I-map from a positive distribution P?
 - Pairwise method: add edges between all pairs X, Y s.t.

$$P \not\models (X \perp Y \mid V \setminus \{X,Y\})$$

• Local method: add edges between X and all $Y \in MB_p(X)$, where $MB_p(X)$ is the minimal set of nodes U s.t.

$$P \not\models (X \perp V \setminus \{X\} \setminus U \mid Y)$$

- Thm 5.5.11/12: both methods induce the unique minimal I-map.
- If $\exists x \text{ s.t. } P(x) = 0$, then we can construct an example where either method fails to induce an I-map.

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Perfect maps

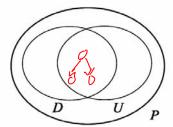


Defn: A Markov network H is a perfect map for P if for any X;
 Y:Zwe have that

$$\operatorname{sep}_{\mathcal{H}}(X; Z|Y) \Leftrightarrow P \models (X \perp Z \mid Y)$$

- Thm: not every distribution has a perfect map as UGM.
 - Pf by counterexample. No undirected network can capture all and only the independencies encoded in a v-structure X → Z ← Y.







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31

Exponential Form



• Constraining clique potentials to be positive could be inconvenient (e.g., the interactions between a pair of atoms can be either attractive or repulsive). We represent a clique potential $\psi_{c}(\mathbf{x}_{c})$ in an unconstrained form using a real-value "energy" function $\phi_{c}(\mathbf{x}_{c})$:

$$\psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c) = \exp\{-\phi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)\}$$

For convenience, we will call $\phi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$ a potential when no confusion arises from the context.

This gives the joint a nice additive strcuture

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ -\sum_{c \in C} \phi_c(\mathbf{x}_c) \right\} = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ -H(\mathbf{x}) \right\}$$

where the sum in the exponent is called the "free energy":

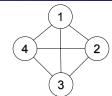
$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{c \in C} \phi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$

- In physics, this is called the "Boltzmann distribution".
- In statistics, this is called a log-linear model.

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Example: Boltzmann machines





$$X_i X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & M \\ -1 & M \end{cases}$$

• A fully connected graph with pairwise (edge) potentials on binary-valued nodes (for $x_i \in \{-1,+1\}$ or $x_i \in \{0,1\}$) is called a Boltzmann machine

nn machine
$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ \sum_{ij} \phi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ \sum_{ij} \theta_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i} \alpha_i x_i + C \right\}$$

• Hence the overall energy function has the form:

$$H(x) = \sum_{ij} (x_i - \mu)\Theta_{ij}(x_j - \mu) = (x - \mu)^T \Theta(x - \mu)$$

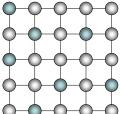
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Example: Ising models



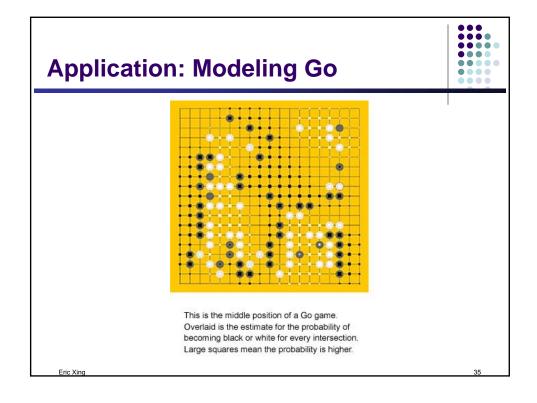
Nodes are arranged in a regular topology (often a regular packing grid) and connected only to their geometric neighbors.



$$p(X) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ \sum_{i,j \in N_i} \theta_{ij} X_i X_j + \sum_i \theta_{i0} X_i \right\}$$

- Same as sparse Boltzmann machine, where θ_{ij}≠0 iff i,j are neighbors.
 - e.g., nodes are pixels, potential function encourages nearby pixels to have similar intensities.
- Potts model: multi-state Ising model.

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Example: multivariate Gaussian Distribution



 A Gaussian distribution can be represented by a fully connected graph with pairwise (edge) potentials over continuous nodes.

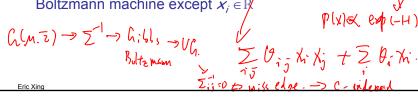


• The overall energy has the form

$$H(x) = \sum_{ij} (x_i - \mu) \Sigma_{ij}^{-1} (x_j - \mu) = (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)$$

where μ is the mean and Θ is the inverse covariance (precision) matrix.

 Also known as Gaussian graphical model (GGM), same as Boltzmann machine except $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$



Sparse precision vs. sparse covariance in GGM



$$\Sigma^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 2 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 3 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 & 4 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 9 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0.10 & 0.15 & -0.13 & -0.08 & 0.15 \\ 0.15 & -0.03 & 0.02 & 0.01 & -0.03 \\ -0.13 & 0.02 & 0.10 & 0.07 & -0.12 \\ -0.08 & 0.01 & 0.07 & -0.04 & 0.07 \\ 0.15 & -0.03 & -0.12 & 0.07 & 0.08 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma_{15}^{-1} = 0 \Leftrightarrow X_1 \perp X_5 | X_{nbrs(1) \text{ or } nbrs(5)}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

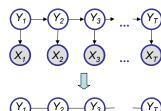
$$X_1 \perp X_5 \Leftrightarrow \Sigma_{15} = 0$$

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37

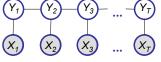
Example: Conditional Random Fields



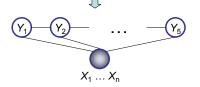


Discriminative

$$p_{\theta}(y \mid x) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta, x)} \exp \left\{ \sum_{c} \theta_{c} f_{c}(x, y_{c}) \right\}$$



 Doesn't assume that features are independent



 When labeling X_i future observations are taken into account

Conditional Models



- Conditional probability P(label sequence y | observation sequence x)
 rather than joint probability P(y, x)
 - Specify the probability of possible label sequences given an observation sequence
- Allow arbitrary, non-independent features on the observation sequence X
- The probability of a transition between labels may depend on past and future observations
- Relax strong independence assumptions in generative models

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Conditional Distribution



 If the graph G = (V, E) of Y is a tree, the conditional distribution over the label sequence Y = y, given X = x, by the Hammersley Clifford theorem of random fields is:

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) \propto \exp \left(\sum_{e \in E, k} \lambda_k f_k(e, \mathbf{y}|_e, \mathbf{x}) + \sum_{v \in V, k} \mu_k g_k(v, \mathbf{y}|_v, \mathbf{x}) \right)$$

- x is a data sequence
- y is a label sequence
- v is a vertex from vertex set V = set of label random variables
- e is an edge from edge set E over V
- $-\ f_k$ and g_k are given and fixed. g_k is a Boolean vertex feature; f_k is a Boolean edge feature
- k is the number of features
- $-\theta = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n; \mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n); \lambda_k$ and μ_k are parameters to be estimated
- $y|_e$ is the set of components of y defined by edge e
- $-y|_{v}$ is the set of components of y defined by vertex v

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Conditional Distribution (cont'd)



• CRFs use the observation-dependent normalization $Z(\mathbf{x})$ for the conditional distributions:

$$p_{\theta}(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{x})} \exp \left(\sum_{e \in E, k} \lambda_k f_k(e, \mathbf{y}|_e, \mathbf{x}) + \sum_{v \in V, k} \mu_k g_k(v, \mathbf{y}|_v, \mathbf{x}) \right)$$

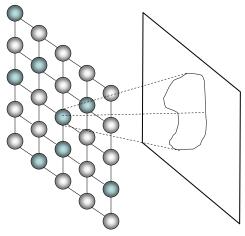
• $Z(\mathbf{x})$ is a normalization over the data sequence \mathbf{x}

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41

Conditional Random Fields





$$p_{\theta}(y \mid x) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta, x)} \exp \left\{ \sum_{c} \theta_{c} f_{c}(x, y_{c}) \right\}$$

- Allow arbitrary dependencies on input
- Clique dependencies on labels
- Use approximate inference for general graphs

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