

Machine Learning

10-701/15-781, Fall 2011

Undirected Graphical Models And Approximate Inference

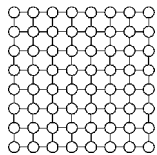
Eric Xing

Lecture 15, November 2, 2011

Reading: Chap. 8, C.B book

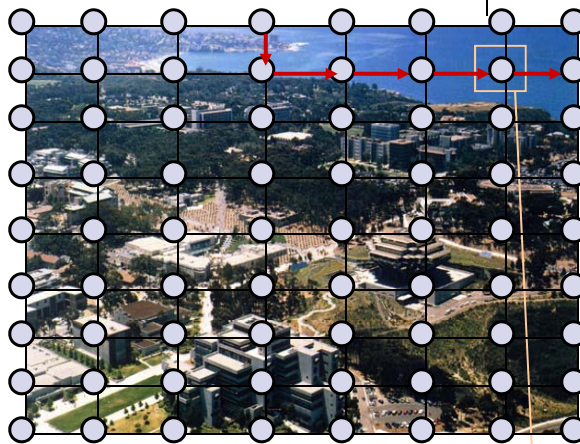
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What is in the image?

- Nodes encode hidden information (patch-identity).
- They receive local information from the image (brightness, color).
- Information is propagated through the graph over its edges.
- Edges encode 'compatibility' between nodes.



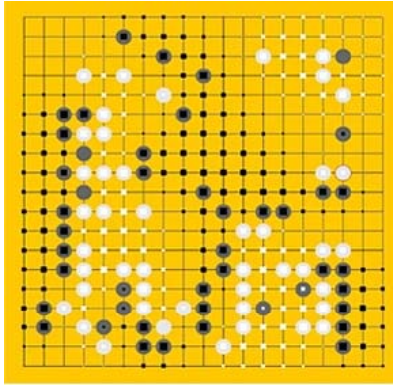
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air or water ?



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Modeling Go

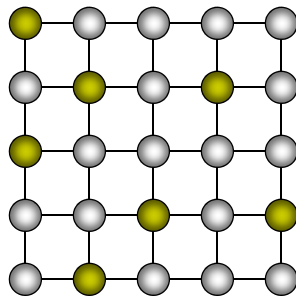


This is the middle position of a Go game.
Overlaid is the estimate for the probability of becoming black or white for every intersection.
Large squares mean the probability is higher.

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Ising Model



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

- 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

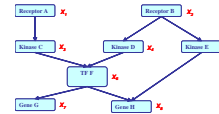
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Two types of GMs

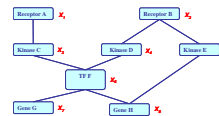
- Directed edges give **causality** relationships (Bayesian Network or Directed Graphical Model):

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



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

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) \\ = \frac{1}{Z} \exp\{E(X_1) + E(X_2) + E(X_3, X_1) + E(X_4, X_2) + E(X_5, X_2) \\ + E(X_6, X_3, X_4) + E(X_7, X_6) + E(X_8, X_5, X_6)\}$$

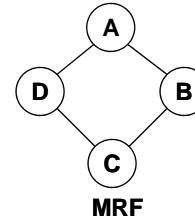
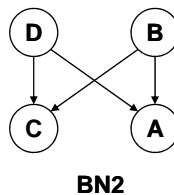
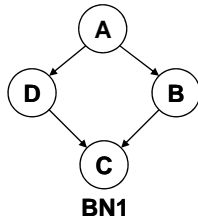


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P-maps

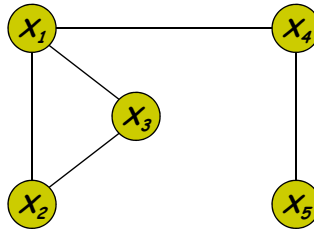
- Defn: A DAG \mathcal{G} is a **perfect map** (P-map) for a distribution \mathcal{P} if $I(\mathcal{P}) = I(\mathcal{G})$.
- Thm: not every distribution has a perfect map as DAG.
 - Pf by counterexample. Suppose we have a model where $A \perp C \mid \{B, D\}$, and $B \perp D \mid \{A, C\}$. This cannot be represented by any Bayes net.
 - e.g., BN1 wrongly says $B \perp D \mid A$, BN2 wrongly says $B \perp D$.



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Undirected graphical models (UGM)



- 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

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Representation



- Defn: an **undirected graphical model** represents a distribution $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ defined by an undirected graph H , and a set of positive **potential functions** ψ_c associated with cliques of H , s.t.

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

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.

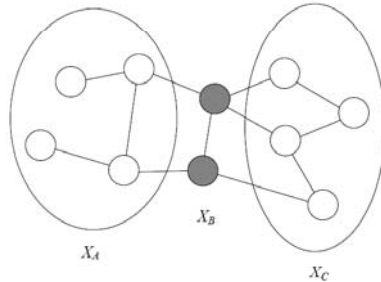
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Global Markov Independencies



- 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 : $\text{sep}_H(A; C|B)$
- 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 : $I(H) = \{A \perp C | B : \text{sep}_H(A; C|B)\}$

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Local Markov independencies



- For each node $X_i \in \mathbf{V}$, 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:**

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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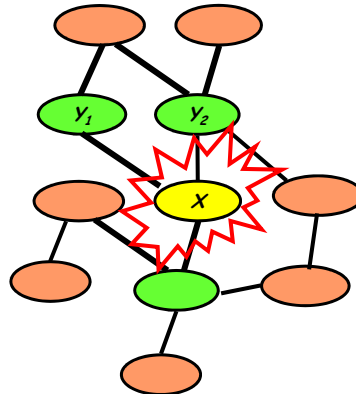
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Summary: Conditional Independence Semantics in an MRF



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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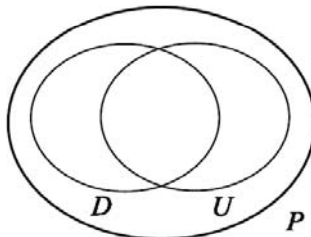
Perfect maps



- Defn: A Markov network \mathcal{H} is a perfect map for \mathcal{P} if for any X, Y, Z we have that

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

- 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 $X \rightarrow Z \leftarrow Y$.



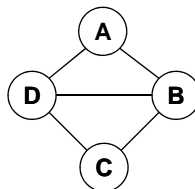
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Quantitative Specification: Cliques



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

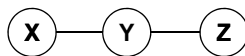


- Example:
 - max-cliques = $\{A,B,D\}, \{B,C,D\}$,
 - sub-cliques = $\{A,B\}, \{C,D\}, \dots \rightarrow$ all edges and singletons

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Interpretation of Clique Potentials



- The model implies $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y$. 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: $p(x, y, z) = p(x, y)p(z|y)$, but $p(x, y, z) = p(x|y)p(z, y)$

- 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.

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Hammersley-Clifford Theorem



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

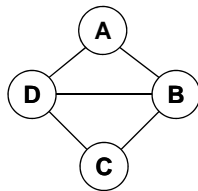
$$P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in C} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_c)$$

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

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

- Thm :** Let P be a positive distribution over \mathbf{V} , and H a Markov network graph over \mathbf{V} . If H is an I-map for P , then P is a Gibbs distribution over H .

Example:



$$\begin{aligned} P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= \frac{1}{Z} \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{124}) \times \psi_c(\mathbf{x}_{234}) \\ &\quad \times \psi_{12}(\mathbf{x}_{12}) \psi_{14}(\mathbf{x}_{14}) \psi_{23}(\mathbf{x}_{23}) \psi_{24}(\mathbf{x}_{24}) \psi_{34}(\mathbf{x}_{34}) \\ &\quad \times \psi_1(x_1) \psi_2(x_2) \psi_3(x_3) \psi_4(x_4) \end{aligned}$$

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

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 structure

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

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.

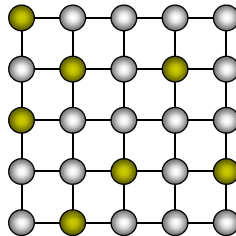
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Example: Ising models



- 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 $\theta_{ij} \neq 0$ 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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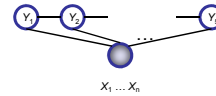
Example: Conditional Random Fields



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

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

- \mathbf{x} is a data sequence
- \mathbf{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
- $\theta = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n; \mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_n)$; λ_k and μ_k are parameters to be estimated
- $\mathbf{y}|_e$ is the set of components of \mathbf{y} defined by edge e
- $\mathbf{y}|_v$ is the set of components of \mathbf{y} defined by vertex v



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Inference and Learning



- Inference:
 - Compute the likelihood of observed data
 - Compute the marginal distribution $p(x_A)$ over a particular subset $A \subset V$ of nodes
 - Compute the conditional distribution $p(x_A | x_B)$ for disjoint subsets A and B
 - Compute a mode of the density $\hat{x} = \arg \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}^m} p(x)$
- Learning:
 - Parameter estimation
 - Structure estimation

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MLE for undirected graphical models



- For **directed** graphical models, the log-likelihood decomposes into a sum of terms, one per family (node plus parents).
- For **undirected** graphical models, the log-likelihood does not decompose, because the normalization constant Z is a function of **all** the parameters

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

- In general, we will need to do inference (i.e., marginalization) to learn parameters for undirected models, even in the fully observed case.

Inference Problems



- Compute the likelihood of observed data
- Compute the marginal distribution $p(x_A)$ over a particular subset of nodes $A \subset V$
- Compute the conditional distribution $p(x_A|x_B)$ for disjoint subsets A and B
- Compute a mode of the density $\hat{x} = \arg \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}^m} p(x)$
- Methods we have

Brute force

Elimination



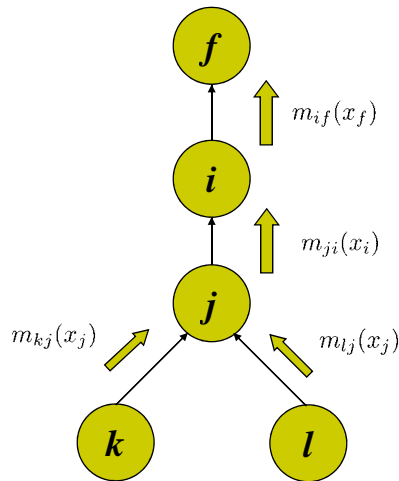
Message Passing

(Forward-backward, Max-product /BP, Junction Tree)

Individual computations independent

Sharing intermediate terms

Message passing for trees



Let $m_{ij}(x_i)$ denote the factor resulting from eliminating variables from below up to i , which is a function of x_i :

$$m_{ji}(x_i) = \sum_{x_j} \left(\psi(x_j) \psi(x_i, x_j) \prod_{k \in N(j) \setminus i} m_{kj}(x_j) \right)$$

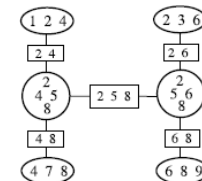
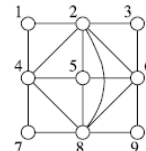
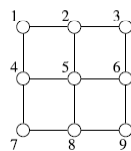
This is reminiscent of a **message** sent from j to i .

$$p(x_f) \propto \psi(x_f) \prod_{e \in N(f)} m_{ef}(x_f)$$

$m_{ij}(x_i)$ represents a "belief" of x_i from x_j !

Junction Tree Revisited

- General Algorithm on Graphs with Cycles



- Steps:

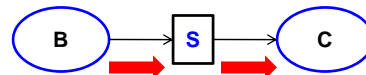
=> Triangularization

=> Construct JTs

=> Message Passing on Clique Trees

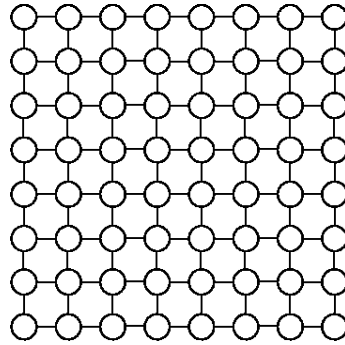
$$\tilde{\phi}_S(x_S) \leftarrow \sum_{x_{B \setminus S}} \phi_B(x_B)$$

$$\phi_C(x_C) \leftarrow \frac{\tilde{\phi}_S(x_S)}{\phi_S(x_S)} \phi_C(x_C)$$



Why Approximate Inference?

- Why can't we just run junction tree on this graph?



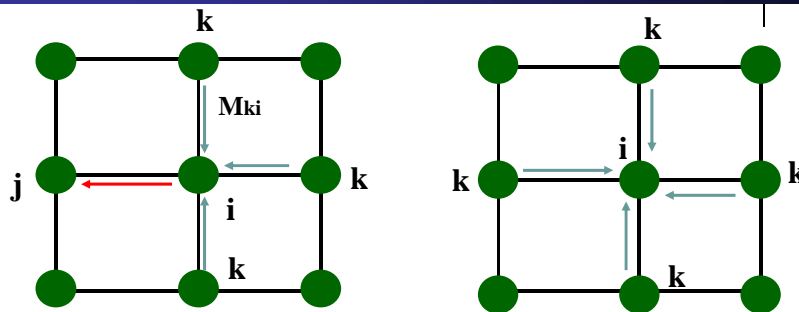
$$p(X) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ \sum_{i < j} \theta_{ij} X_i X_j + \sum_i \theta_{i0} X_i \right\}$$

- If $N \times N$ grid, tree width at least N
- N can be a huge number (~1000s of pixels)
 - If $N \sim O(1000)$, we have a clique with 2^{1000} entries

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Solution 1: Belief Propagation on loopy graphs



- BP Message-update Rules

$$M_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) \propto \sum_{x_i} \psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) \psi_i(x_i) \prod_k M_{k \rightarrow i}(x_i)$$

↑ Compatibilities (interactions)
 ↑ external evidence

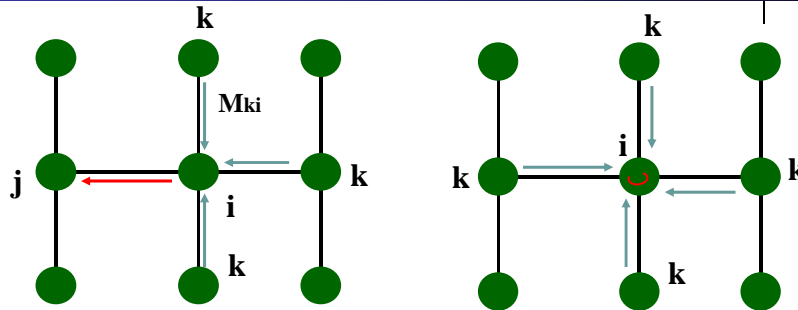
$$b_i(x_i) \propto \psi_i(x_i) \prod_k M_k(x_k)$$

- May not converge or converge to a wrong solution

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Recall BP on trees



- BP Message-update Rules

$$M_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) \propto \sum_{x_i} \psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) \psi_i(x_i) \prod_k M_{k \rightarrow i}(x_i)$$

↑ Compatibilities (interactions)
 ↑ external evidence

$$b_i(x_i) \propto \psi_i(x_i) \prod_k M_k(x_k)$$

- BP on **trees** always converges to exact marginals

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Loopy Belief Propagation

- If BP is used on graphs with loops, messages may circulate indefinitely
- Empirically, a good approximation is still achievable
 - Stop after fixed # of iterations
 - Stop when no significant change in beliefs
 - If solution is not oscillatory but converges, it usually is a good approximation

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Solution 2: The naive mean field approximation

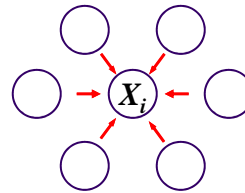


- Approximate $p(\mathbf{X})$ by fully factorized $q(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_i q_i(X_i)$
- For Boltzmann distribution $p(\mathbf{X}) = \exp\{\sum_{i < j} q_{ij} X_i X_j + q_{io} X_i\} / Z$:

mean field equation:

$$q_i(X_i) = \exp\left\{\theta_{io} X_i + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \theta_{ij} X_i \langle X_j \rangle_{q_j} + \mathcal{A}_i\right\}$$

$$= p(X_i | \{\langle X_j \rangle_{q_j} : j \in \mathcal{N}_i\})$$



- $\langle X_j \rangle_{q_j}$ resembles a “message” sent from node j to i
- $\{\langle X_j \rangle_{q_j} : j \in \mathcal{N}_i\}$ forms the “mean field” applied to X_i from its neighborhood

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Recall Gibbs sampling

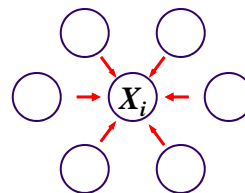


- Approximate $p(\mathbf{X})$ by fully factorized $q(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_i q_i(X_i)$
- For Boltzmann distribution $p(\mathbf{X}) = \exp\{\sum_{i < j} q_{ij} X_i X_j + q_{io} X_i\} / Z$:

Gibbs predictive distribution:

$$p(X_i | \mathbf{x}_{-i}) = \exp\left\{\theta_{io} X_i + \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \theta_{ij} X_i x_j + \mathcal{A}_i\right\}$$

$$= p(X_i | \{x_j : j \in \mathcal{N}_i\})$$



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Supplemental reading



Theoretical Foundation of Approx Inference



- Let us call the actual distribution P

$$P(X) = 1/Z \prod_{f_a \in F} f_a(X_a)$$

- We wish to find a distribution Q such that Q is a “good” approximation to P
- Recall the definition of KL-divergence

$$KL(Q_1 \parallel Q_2) = \sum_X Q_1(X) \log\left(\frac{Q_1(X)}{Q_2(X)}\right)$$

- $KL(Q_1 \parallel Q_2) \geq 0$
- $KL(Q_1 \parallel Q_2) = 0$ iff $Q_1 = Q_2$
- But, $KL(Q_1 \parallel Q_2) \neq KL(Q_2 \parallel Q_1)$

The Objective



-

$$KL(Q \parallel P) = \underbrace{-H_Q(X) - \sum_{f_a \in F} E_Q \log f_a(X_a)}_{F(P, Q)} + \log Z$$

- We will call $F(P, Q)$ the “Energy Functional”, or, the Gibbs Free Energy
- $F(P, P) = ?$
- $F(P, Q) \geq F(P, P)$

The Energy Functional



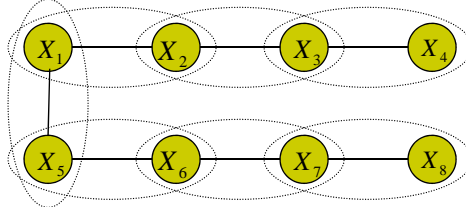
- Let us look at the functional

$$F(P, Q) = -H_Q(X) - \sum_{f_a \in F} E_Q \log f_a(X_a)$$

- $\sum_{f_a \in F} E_Q \log f_a(X_a)$ can be computed if we have marginals over each f_a
- $H_Q = -\sum_X Q(X) \log Q(X)$ is harder! Requires summation over all possible values
- Computing F , is therefore hard in general.
- Approach: Approximate $F(P, Q)$ with easy to compute $\hat{F}(P, Q)$

Tree Energy Functionals

- Consider a tree-structured distribution



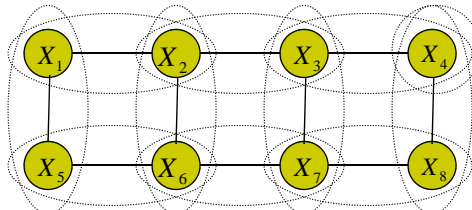
- The probability can be written as: $b(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_a b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \prod_i b_i(x_i)^{1-d_i}$
- $H_{tree} = -\sum_a \sum_{\mathbf{x}_a} b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \ln b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) + \sum_i (d_i - 1) \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i} b_i(\mathbf{x}_i) \ln b_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$
- $F_{Tree} = \sum_a \sum_{\mathbf{x}_a} b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \ln \frac{b_a(\mathbf{x}_a)}{f_a(\mathbf{x}_a)} + \sum_i (1 - d_i) \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i} b_i(\mathbf{x}_i) \ln b_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$
 $= F_{12} + F_{23} + \dots + F_{67} + F_{78} - F_1 - F_5 - F_2 - F_6 - F_3 - F_7$
- involves summation over edges and vertices and is therefore easy to compute

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Bethe Approximation to Gibbs Free Energy

- For a general graph, choose $\hat{F}(P, Q) = F_{Bethe}$
 $H_{Bethe} = -\sum_a \sum_{\mathbf{x}_a} b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \ln b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) + \sum_i (d_i - 1) \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i} b_i(\mathbf{x}_i) \ln b_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$
 $F_{Bethe} = \sum_a \sum_{\mathbf{x}_a} b_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \ln \frac{b_a(\mathbf{x}_a)}{f_a(\mathbf{x}_a)} + \sum_i (1 - d_i) \sum_{\mathbf{x}_i} b_i(\mathbf{x}_i) \ln b_i(\mathbf{x}_i) = -\langle f_a(\mathbf{x}_a) \rangle - H_{Bethe}$
- Called "Bethe approximation" after the physicist Hans Bethe



$$F_{Bethe} = F_{12} + F_{23} + \dots + F_{67} + F_{78} - F_1 - F_5 - 2F_2 - 2F_6 \dots - F_8$$

- Equal to the exact Gibbs free energy when the factor graph is a tree
- In general, H_{Bethe} is **not** the same as the H of a tree

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Bethe Approximation



- Pros:
 - Easy to compute, since entropy term involves sum over pairwise and single variables
- Cons:
 - $\hat{F}(P, Q) = F_{\text{bethe}}$ **may or may not** be well connected to $F(P, Q)$
 - It could, in general, be greater, equal or less than $F(P, Q)$
- Optimize each $b(\mathbf{x}_a)$'s.
 - For discrete belief, constrained opt. with *Lagrangian* multiplier
 - For continuous belief, not yet a general formula
 - Not always converge

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Constrained Minimization of the Bethe Free Energy



$$L = F_{\text{Bethe}} + \sum_i \gamma_i \left\{ \sum_{x_i} b_i(x_i) - 1 \right\} \\ + \sum_a \sum_{i \in N(a)} \sum_{x_i} \lambda_{ai}(x_i) \left\{ \sum_{X_a \setminus x_i} b_a(X_a) - b_i(x_i) \right\}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b_i(x_i)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b_i(x_i) \propto \exp \left(\frac{1}{d_i - 1} \sum_{a \in N(i)} \lambda_{ai}(x_i) \right) \\ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b_a(X_a)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad b_a(X_a) \propto \exp \left(-E_a(X_a) + \sum_{i \in N(a)} \lambda_{ai}(x_i) \right)$$

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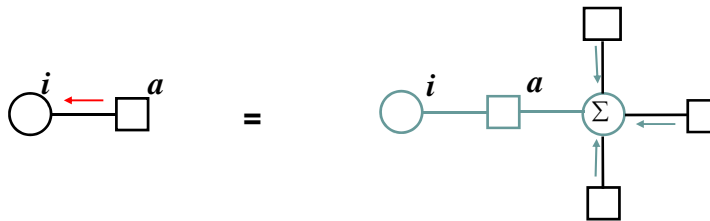
Bethe = BP Message-update Rules



Using $b_{a \rightarrow i}(x_i) = \sum_{X_a \setminus x_i} b_a(X_a)$, we get

$$m_{a \rightarrow i}(x_i) = \sum_{X_a \setminus x_i} f_a(X_a) \prod_{j \in N(a) \setminus i} \prod_{b \in N(j) \setminus a} m_{b \rightarrow j}(x_j)$$

(A sum product algorithm)



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The Energy Functional



- Let us look at the functional

$$F(P, Q) = -H_Q(X) - \sum_{f_a \in F} E_Q \log f_a(X_a)$$

- $\sum_{f_a \in F} E_Q \log f_a(X_a)$ can be computed if we have marginals over each f_a
- $H_Q = -\sum_X Q(X) \log Q(X)$ is harder! Requires summation over all possible values
- Computing F , is therefore hard in general.
- Approach: Approximate $F(P, Q)$ with easy to compute $\hat{F}(P, Q)$

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Mean field approx. to Gibbs free energy



- Given a disjoint clustering, $\{C_1, \dots, C_I\}$, of all variables
- Let
$$q(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_i q_i(\mathbf{X}_{C_i}),$$
- Mean-field free energy

$$G_{\text{MF}} = \sum_i \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{C_i}} \prod_i q_i(\mathbf{x}_{C_i}) E(\mathbf{x}_{C_i}) + \sum_i \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{C_i}} q_i(\mathbf{x}_{C_i}) \ln q_i(\mathbf{x}_{C_i})$$

e.g.,
$$G_{\text{MF}} = \sum_{i < j} \sum_{x_i x_j} q(x_i) q(x_j) \psi(x_i x_j) + \sum_i \sum_{x_i} q(x_i) \psi(x_i) + \sum_i \sum_{x_i} q(x_i) \ln q(x_i) \quad (\text{naïve mean field})$$

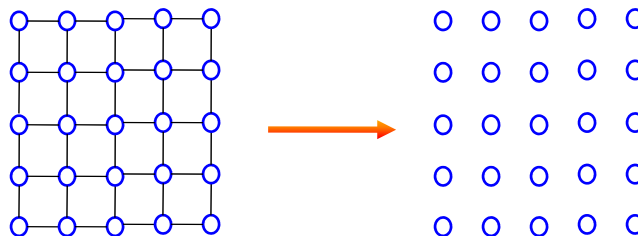
- Will **never** equal to the exact Gibbs free energy no matter what clustering is used, but it does **always** define a lower bound of the likelihood
- Optimize each $q_i(x_c)$'s.
 - Variational calculus ...
 - Do inference in each $q_i(x_c)$ using any tractable algorithm

Naïve Mean Field



- Fully factorized variational distribution

$$q(x) = \prod_{s \in V} q(x_s)$$



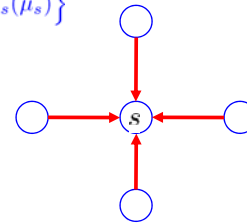
Naïve Mean Field for Ising Model

- Optimization Problem

$$\max_{\mu \in [0,1]^m} \left\{ \sum_{s \in V} \theta_s \mu_s + \sum_{(s,t) \in E} \theta_{st} \mu_s \mu_t + \sum_{s \in V} H_s(\mu_s) \right\}$$

- Update Rule

$$\mu_s \leftarrow \sigma \left(\theta_s + \sum_{t \in N(s)} \theta_{st} \mu_t \right)$$



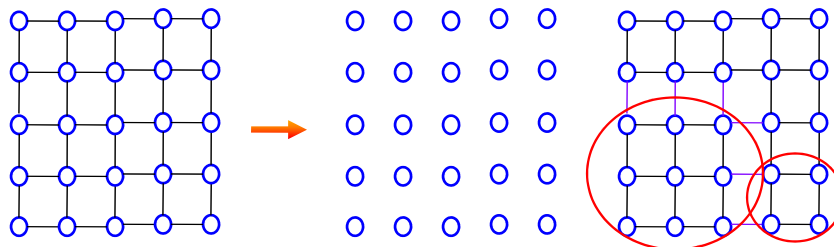
- $\mu_t = p(X_t = 1) = \mathbb{E}_p[X_t]$ resembles “message” sent from node t to s
- $\{\mathbb{E}_p[X_t], t \in N(s)\}$ forms the “mean field” applied to s from its neighborhood

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Structured Mean Field

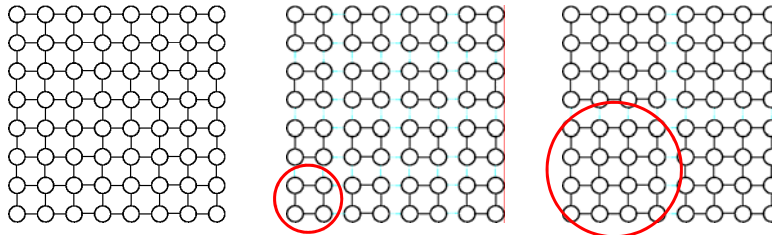
- Mean field theory is general to any tractable sub-graphs
- Naïve mean field is based on the fully unconnected sub-graph
- Variants based on structured sub-graphs can be derived



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Generalized MF approximation to Ising models [Xing et al. 2003]



Cluster marginal of a square block C_k :

$$q(X_{C_k}) \propto \exp \left\{ \sum_{i,j \in C_k} \theta_{ij} X_i X_j + \sum_{i \in C_k} \theta_{i0} X_i + \sum_{\substack{i \in C_k, j \in MB_k, \\ k' \in MBC_k}} \theta_{ij} X_i \langle X_j \rangle_{q(X_{C_k'})} \right\}$$

Virtually a reparameterized Ising model of small size.

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Cluster-based MF (e.g., GMF)

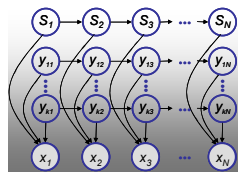


- a general, iterative message passing algorithm
- clustering completely defines approximation
 - preserves dependencies
 - flexible performance/cost trade-off
 - clustering automatable
- recovers model-specific structured VI algorithms, including:
 - fHMM, LDA
 - variational Bayesian learning algorithms
- easily provides new structured VI approximations to complex models

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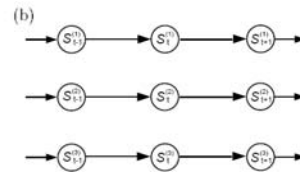
Structured Variational Inference



fHMM



Mean field approx.



Structured variational approx.

- Currently for each new model we have to
 - derive the variational update equations
 - write application-specific code to find the solution
- Each can be time consuming and error prone
- Can we build a general-purpose inference engine which automates these procedures?

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Summary I

- Undirected graphical models capture “relatedness”, “coupling”, “co-occurrence”, “synergism”, etc. between entities
- Local and global independence properties identifiable via graph separation criteria
- Defined on clique potentials
- Generally intractable to compute likelihood due to presence of “partition function”
 - Therefore not only inference, but also likelihood-based learning is difficult in general
- Can be used to define either joint or conditional distributions
- Important special cases:
 - Gaussian graphical models
 - Ising models

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Summary II



- Exact inference methods are limited to tree-structured graphs
- Junction Tree methods is exponentially expensive to the tree-width
- Message Passing methods can be applied for loopy graphs, but lack of analysis!
- Mean-field is convergent, but can have local optimal
- **Where do these two algorithm come from? Do they make sense?**