

EE512A – Advanced Inference in Graphical Models

— Fall Quarter, Lecture 11 —

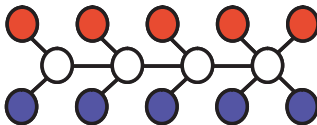
http://j.ee.washington.edu/~bilmes/classes/ee512a_fall_2014/

Prof. Jeff Bilmes

University of Washington, Seattle
Department of Electrical Engineering

<http://melodi.ee.washington.edu/~bilmes>

Nov 5th, 2014



Announcements

- Wainwright and Jordan *Graphical Models, Exponential Families, and Variational Inference* <http://www.nowpublishers.com/product.aspx?product=MAL&doi=22000000001>
- Read chapters 1,2, and 3 in this book

Class Road Map - EE512a

- L1 (9/29): Introduction, Families, Semantics
- L2 (10/1): MRFs, elimination, Inference on Trees
- L3 (10/6): Tree inference, message passing, more general queries, non-tree)
- L4 (10/8): Non-trees, perfect elimination, triangulated graphs
- L5 (10/13): triangulated graphs, k -trees, the triangulation process/heuristics
- L6 (10/15): multiple queries, decomposable models, junction trees
- L7 (10/20): junction trees, begin intersection graphs
- L8 (10/22): intersection graphs, inference on junction trees
- L9 (10/27): inference on junction trees, semirings,
- L10 (11/3): conditioning, hardness, LBP
- L11 (11/5): LBP, exponential models, mean params and polytopes
- L13 (11/10):
- L14 (11/12):
- L15 (11/17):
- L16 (11/19):
- L17 (11/24):
- L18 (11/26):
- L19 (12/1):
- L20 (12/3):
- Final Presentations: (12/10):

Finals Week: Dec 8th-12th, 2014.

Approximation: Two general approaches

- exact solution to approximate problem - **approximate problem**
 - ① learning with or using a model with a structural restriction, **structure learning**, using a k -tree for a lower k than one knows is true. Make sure k is small enough so that exact inference can be performed, and make sure that, in that low tree-width model, one has best possible graph
 - ② Functional restrictions to the model (i.e., use factors or potential functions that obey certain properties). Then certain fast algorithms (e.g., graph-cut) can be performed.
- approximate solution to exact problem - **approximate inference**
 - ① Message or other form of propagation, variational approaches, LP relaxations, loopy belief propagation (LBP)
 - ② sampling (Monte Carlo, MCMC, importance sampling) and pruning (e.g., search based A*, score based, number of hypothesis based) procedures
- Both methods only guaranteed approximate quality solutions.
- No longer in the achievable region in time-space tradeoff graph, new set of time/space tradeoffs to achieve a particular accuracy.

Belief Propagation: message definition

Generic message definition

$$\mu_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) = \sum_{x_i} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{k \in \delta(i) \setminus \{j\}} \mu_{k \rightarrow i}(x_i) \quad (11.5)$$

- If graph is a tree, and if we obey MPP order, then we will reach a point where we've got marginals. I.e.,

$$p(x_i) \propto \prod_{j \in \delta(i)} \mu_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i) \quad (11.6)$$

and

$$p(x_i, x_j) \propto \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{k \in \delta(i) \setminus \{j\}} \mu_{k \rightarrow i}(x_i) \prod_{\ell \in \delta(j) \setminus \{i\}} \mu_{\ell \rightarrow j}(x_j) M \quad (11.7)$$

Choices for dealing with higher order factors in MRFs

So, to deal with MRFs with higher order factors, we can:

- 1 transform MRF to have only pairwise interactions, add more variables, we can keep using BP on MRF edges (as done above), makes the math a bit easier, does not change fundamental computational cost. Possible since for any given p , we know the interaction terms.
- 2 Alternatively, we can define BP on factor graphs.
- 3 Alternatively, could define BP directly on the maxcliques of the MRF (but maxcliques are not easy to get in a MRF when not triangulated).

For the remainder of this term, we'll assume we've done the pair-wise transformation (i.e., option 1 above).

State representation

- Consider the set of messages $\{\mu_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j)\}_{i,j}$ as a large state vector μ^t with $2|E(G)|r$ scalar elements.
- Each sent message moves the state vector from μ^t at time t to μ^{t+1} at next time step.
- A parallel message (sending multiple messages at the same time) moves the state vector as well.
- Convergence means that any set or subset of messages sent in parallel is such that $\mu^{t+1} = \mu^t$.

Messages as matrix multiply

$$\mu_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) \propto \sum_{x_i} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \psi_i(x_i) \prod_{k \in \delta(i) \setminus \{j\}} \mu_{k \rightarrow i}(x_i) \quad (11.9)$$

$$= \sum_{x_i} \psi'_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \mu_{\neg j \rightarrow i}(x_i) \quad (11.10)$$

$$= (\psi'_{i,j})^T \mu_{\neg j \rightarrow i} \quad (11.11)$$

- Here, $\psi'_{i,j}$ is a matrix and $\mu_{\neg j \rightarrow i}$ is a column vector.
- Going from state μ^t to μ^{t+1} is like matrix-vector multiply — group messages from μ^t together into one vector representing $\mu_{\neg j \rightarrow i}$ for each $(i, j) \in E$, do the matrix-vector update, and store result in new state vector μ^{t+1} .
- If G is tree, μ^t will converged after D steps.

Belief Propagation and Cycles

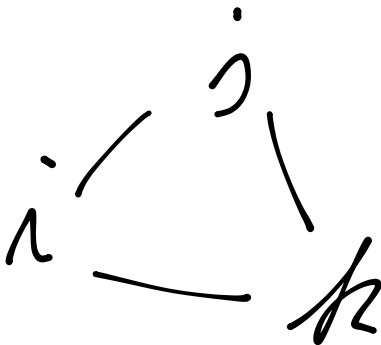
What if graph has cycles?

- MPP causes deadlock since there is no way to start sending messages
- Like before, we can assume that messages have an initial state, e.g., $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) = 1$ for all $(i, j) \in E(G)$ - note this is bi-directional. This breaks deadlock.
- We can then start sending messages. Will we converge after D steps? What does D even mean here?
- No, in fact we could oscillate forever.

Belief Propagation, Cycles, and Oscillation

- Consider odd length cycle (e.g., C_3 , C_5 , etc.), C_3 is sufficient

$i-j-k-i$



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 $i \text{---} j \text{---} k \text{---} i$
- Assume all messages start out at state $\mu_{i \rightarrow j} = [1, 0]^T$.
- Consider (pairwise) edge functions, for each i, j

$$\psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (11.1)$$

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- then we have

$$\mu_{j \rightarrow k}(x_k) = \sum_{x_j} \psi_{j,k}(x_j, x_k) \mu_{i \rightarrow j}(x_j) \quad (11.2)$$

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- or in matrix form

$$\underline{\mu_{j \rightarrow k}} = (\underline{\psi_{j,k}})^T \underline{\mu_{i \rightarrow j}} \quad (11.3)$$

Belief Propagation, Cycles, and Oscillation

- Let $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t$ be the t^{th} formed message, with $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^0$ being the starting state at $[1, 0]^T$.

Belief Propagation, Cycles, and Oscillation

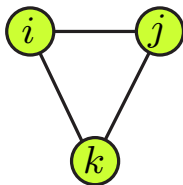
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- Then $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^1 = [0, 1]^T$, $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^2 = [1, 0]^T$, $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^3 = [0, 1]^T$, and so on, never converging. In fact,

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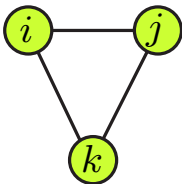
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$$\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^{t+1} = (\psi_{i,j})^T \mu_{k \rightarrow i}^t \quad (11.4)$$

$$= (\psi_{i,j})^T (\psi_{k,i})^T \mu_{j \rightarrow k}^t \quad (11.5)$$

$$= (\psi_{i,j})^T (\psi_{k,i})^T (\psi_{j,k})^T \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t \quad (11.6)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^3 \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t \quad (11.7)$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t \quad (11.8)$$

Belief Propagation, Cycles, and Oscillation

- Thus, each time we go around the loop in the cycle, the message configuration for each (i, j) will flip, thereby never converging.

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- Damping the messages? I.e., Let $0 \leq \gamma < 1$ and treat messages as

$$\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t \leftarrow \gamma \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t + (1 - \gamma) \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^{t-1} \quad (11.9)$$

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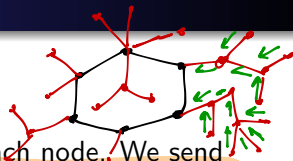
- Empirical Folklore - if we converge quickly without damping, the quality of the resulting marginals might be good. If we don't converge quickly, w/o damping, might indicate some problem.
- Ways out of this problem: Other message schedules, other forms of the interaction matrices, and other initializations.

Belief Propagation, Cycles, and Oscillation

- If we initialize messages differently, things will turn out better.
- If $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^0 = [0.5, 0.5]^T$ then $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^{t+1} = \mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t$.
- Damping the messages appropriately will also end up at this configuration.
- Is there a better way to characterize this?

Belief Propagation, Single Cycle

- Consider a graph with a single cycle C_ℓ .
- It could be a cycle with trees hanging off of each node. We send messages from the leaves of those dangling trees to the cycle (root) nodes, leaving only a cycle remaining.
- Consider what happens to $\mu_{i \rightarrow j}^t$ as t increases. w.l.o.g. consider $\mu_{\ell \rightarrow 1}^t$
- Let the cycle be nodes $(1, 2, 3, \dots, \ell, 1)$



$$\mu_{\ell \rightarrow 1}^{t+1} = \left(\prod_{i=1}^{\ell-1} (\psi_{i,i+1})^T \right) \mu_{\ell \rightarrow 1}^t \quad (11.10)$$

$$= M \mu_{\ell \rightarrow 1}^t \quad (11.11)$$

- Will this converge to anything?

Belief Propagation, Single Cycle

Theorem 11.3.1 (Power method lemma)

Let A be a matrix with eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ (sorted in decreasing order) and corresponding eigenvectors x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . If $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2|$ (strict), then the update $x^{t+1} = \alpha A x^t$ converges to a multiple of x_1 starting from any initial vector $x^0 = \sum_i \beta_i x_i$ provided that $\beta_1 \neq 0$. The convergence rate factor is given by $|\lambda_2/\lambda_1|$.

Belief Propagation, Single Cycle

From this, we the following theorem follows almost immediately.

Theorem 11.3.2

1. $\mu_{\ell \rightarrow 1}$ converges to the principle eigenvector of M .
2. $\mu_{2 \rightarrow 1}$ converges to the principle eigenvector of M^T .
3. The convergence rate is determined by the ratio of the largest and second largest eigenvalue of M .
4. The diagonal elements of M correspond to correct marginal $p(x_1)$
5. The steady state “pseudo-marginal” $b(x_1)$ is related to the true marginal by $b(x_1) = \beta p(x_1) + (1 - \beta)q(x_1)$ where β is the ratio of the largest eigenvalue of M to the sum of all eigenvalues, and $q(x_1)$ depends on the eigenvectors of M .

Proof.

See Weiss2000. □

What's going on with our oscillating example?

- We had $M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ which has row-eigenvector matrix $\begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$ with corresponding eigenvalues -1 and 1 .
- Note that any uniform vector will be “converged”, i.e., any vector of the form $[aa]$.
- However, we don't have the *guaranteed* property of convergence since we don't have that $|\lambda_1| > |\lambda_2|$.

Belief Propagation, arbitrary graph

- This works for a graph with a single cycle, or a graph that contains a single cycle
- It still does not tell us that we end up with correct marginals, rather we get “pseudo-marginals”, which are locally normalized, but might not be the correct marginals.
- Moreover, they might not be the correct marginals for any probability distribution.
- Also, we'd like a characterization of LBP's convergence (if it happens) for more general graphs, with an arbitrary number of loops.

Graphical Models, Exponential Families, and Variational Inference

- We're going to start covering our book:
Wainwright and Jordan *Graphical Models, Exponential Families, and Variational Inference* <http://www.nowpublishers.com/product.aspx?product=MAL&doi=22000000001>
- We start with chapter 3 (we assume you will read chapters 1 and 2 on your own).
- We'll follow the Wainwright and Jordan notation, will point out where it conflicts a bit with the current notation we've been using.

exponential family models

- $\phi = (\phi_\alpha, \alpha \in \mathcal{I})$ is a collection of functions known as potential functions, sufficient statistics, or features. \mathcal{I} is an index set of size $d = |\mathcal{I}|$.

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- Each ϕ_α is a function of x , $\phi_\alpha(x)$ but it usually does not use all of x (only a subset of elements). Notation $\phi_\alpha(x_{C_\alpha})$ assumed implicitly understood, where $C_\alpha \subseteq V(G)$.

$$m = |V(G)| \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{Z} \phi_{12}(x_1, x_2)$$

$$\phi_{23}(x_2, x_3)$$

$$\phi_{31}(x_3, x_1)$$

$$P(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{x_3} P(x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

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- We can define a family as

$$p_\theta(x) = \exp(\underbrace{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \theta_i \phi_i(x)}_{\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle} - A(\theta)) \quad (11.12)$$

Note that we're using ϕ here in the exponent, before we were using it out of the exponent.

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- Note that $\phi(x) = (\phi_1(x), \phi_2(x), \dots, \phi_{|\mathcal{I}|}(x))$ where again each $\phi_i(x)$ might use only some of the elements in vector x . $\phi : D_X^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$.

exponential family models and clique features

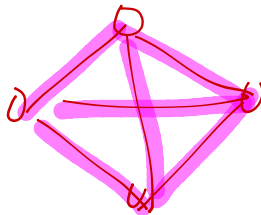
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- That is, for any given $C \in \mathcal{C}$ we might have multiple $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathcal{I}$ such that $C_{\alpha_1} = C_{\alpha_2} = C$ for some clique $C \in \mathcal{C}$.

exponential family models and clique features

- Example: single scalar discrete random variable $X \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\}$ might have indicator feature for all possible values $\alpha_i(x) \triangleq \mathbf{1}(x = i)$ — in this case $|C_\alpha| = 1$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}$.

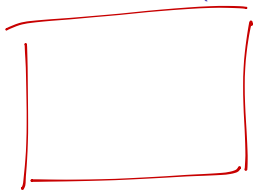
$$C_\alpha = C_{\alpha'}, \quad \forall \alpha, \alpha' \in \mathcal{I}$$

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- Key: $p \in \mathcal{F}(G, \mathcal{M}^{(f)})$ by Hammersley-Clifford theorem,
 - where $G = (V, E)$ where V is the nodes corresponding to vector x ,
 - and E is formed by using $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}}$ as an edge clique cover: \exists an $\alpha \in \mathcal{I}$ such that $u, v \in C_\alpha$ where $u, v \in V(G) \Leftrightarrow$ there is an edge $(u, v) \in E(G)$.

exponential family models

- exponential models are in our sense sufficient to deal with the computational aspects graphical models.
- We can have $p \in \mathcal{F}((V, E), \mathcal{M}^{(f)})$ implies $p \in \mathcal{F}((V, E + E_1), \mathcal{M}^{(f)})$ but in some sense, for any G , we want to deal with the models for which G is tight (we don't want to use overly complex graph to deal with family that is simpler) $p(x) = \prod_{\alpha} \exp(\phi_{\alpha}(x)) \exp(A(\theta))$
- Exponential models can represent any factorization, given any factorization in terms of ϕ , we can do $\exp(\log \phi)$ to get potentials.
- We can often make them log-linear models as well with the right potential functions which won't increase tree-width of the graph.
- Moreover, exponential family models are incredibly flexible and have a number of desirable properties (e.g., aspects of the log partition function which we will see)

absolutely continuous

- Underlying base measure ν , so that $\int f(x)\nu(dx)$ corresponds to $\sum_i f(x_i)$ for a counting measure, or $\int f(x)dx$ if not.

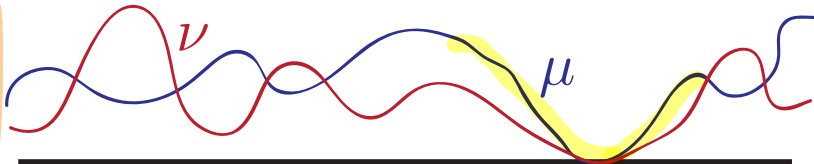
$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{P} \cup n} f(x_i)$$

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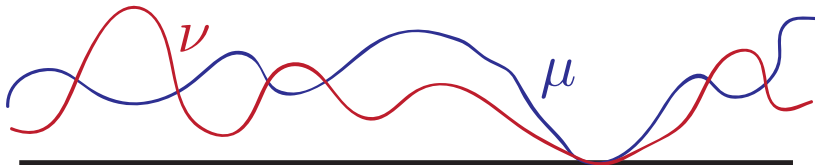
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- A measure ν is **absolutely continuous** with respect to μ if for each $A \in \mathcal{F}$, $\mu(A) = 0$ implies $\nu(A) = 0$. In this case ν is also said to be dominated by μ (if μ goes to zero, so must ν), and the relation is indicated by $\nu \ll \mu$.



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- If $\nu \ll \mu$ and $\mu \ll \nu$, the measures are equivalent, indicated by $\nu \equiv \mu$.

exponential family models

- Based on underlying set of parameters θ , we have family of models

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \exp \left\{ \sum_{\alpha \in \mathcal{I}} \theta_{\alpha} \phi_{\alpha}(x) \right\} = \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle - A(\theta)) \quad (11.13)$$

$$A(\theta) = \log Z(\theta)$$

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- To ensure normalized, we use log partition (cumulant) function

$$A(\theta) = \log \int_{\mathcal{D}_x} \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle) \nu(dx) \quad (11.14)$$

with $\theta \in \Omega \triangleq \{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid A(\theta) < +\infty\}$

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- Exponential family for which Ω is open is called **regular**

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- family can arise for a number of reasons, e.g., distribution having maximum entropy but that satisfies certain (moment) constraints.
- Given data $\mathbf{D} = \{\bar{x}_E^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^M$, form the expected statistics (requirements) of a model, with $\bar{x}^{(i)} \sim p(x)$

$$\hat{\mu}_{\alpha} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \phi_{\alpha}(\bar{x}^{(i)}) \quad (11.16)$$

Thus, $\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \hat{\mu}_{\alpha} = E_p[\phi_{\alpha}(X)] = \mu_{\alpha}$

Exponential family models

- Goal (“estimation”, or “machine learning”) is to find

$$p^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{p \in \mathcal{U}} H(p) \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}_p[\phi_\alpha(X)] = \hat{\mu}_\alpha \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \quad (11.17)$$

where $\forall \alpha \in \mathcal{I}$

$$\mathbb{E}_p[\phi_\alpha(X)] = \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} \phi_\alpha(x) p(x) \nu(dx) \quad (11.18)$$

- $\mathbb{E}_p[\phi_\alpha(X)]$ is mean value as measured by potential function, so above is a form of moment matching.
- Maximum entropy (MaxEnt) distribution is solved by taking distribution in form of Eq. 11.15, by finding θ that solves

$$E_{p_\theta}[\phi_\alpha(X)] = \hat{\mu}_\alpha \text{ for all } \alpha \in \mathcal{I} \quad (11.19)$$

Minimal Representation of Exponential Family

- Solution as form:

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle - A(\theta)) \quad (11.20)$$

$$\text{where } A(\theta) = \log \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle) \nu(dx) \quad (11.21)$$

Exercise: show that solution to Eqn (11.17) has this form.

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- essential idea: that for a set of sufficient stats \mathcal{I} , there is not a lower-dimensional vector $|\mathcal{I}'| < |\mathcal{I}|$ that is also sufficient (a min suf stat is a function of all other suf stats).

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- essential idea: that for a set of sufficient stats \mathcal{I} , there is not a lower-dimensional vector $|\mathcal{I}'| < |\mathcal{I}|$ that is also sufficient (a min suf stat is a function of all other suf stats).
- We can't reduce the dimensionality d without changing the family.

Overcomplete Representation

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle - A(\theta)) \quad (11.22)$$

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- I.e., Exists affine hyperplane of different parameters that induce exactly same distribution. Assume overcomplete, given $\gamma \neq 0$ s.t., $\langle \gamma, \phi(x) \rangle = c$ and some other parameters θ , we have , we have

$$p_{\theta+\gamma}(x) = \exp(\langle (\theta + \gamma), \phi(x) \rangle - A(\theta + \gamma)) \quad (11.24)$$

$$= \exp(\langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle + \langle \gamma, \phi(x) \rangle - A(\theta + \gamma)) \quad (11.25)$$

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- We'll see later, this useful in understanding BP algorithm.

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- This is overcomplete since there is a linear combination of feature functions that are constant.
- Since $\theta_0(1-x) + \theta_1 x = \theta_0 + x(\theta_1 - \theta_0)$, any parameters of form $\theta_1 - \theta_0 = \gamma$ gives same distribution.

Famous Example - Ising Model

- Famous example is the Ising model in statistical physics. We have a grid network with pairwise interactions, each variable is 0/1-valued binary, and parameters associated with pairs being both on. Model becomes

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{v \in V} \theta_v x_v + \sum_{(s,t) \in E} \theta_{st} x_s x_t - A(\theta) \right\}, \quad (11.31)$$

with

$$A(\theta) = \log \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^m} \exp \left\{ \sum_{v \in V} \theta_v x_v + \sum_{(s,t) \in E} \theta_{st} x_s x_t - A(\theta) \right\} \quad (11.32)$$

- Note that this is in minimal form. Any change to parameters will result in different distribution

Ising Model and Immediate Generalization

- Note, in this case \mathcal{I} is all singletons (unaries) and all pairs, so that $\{C_\alpha\}_\alpha = \left\{ \{x_i\}_i, \{x_i x_j\}_{(i,j) \in E} \right\}$.
- We can easily generalize this via a set system. I.e., consider (V, \mathcal{V}) , where $\mathcal{V} = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{|\mathcal{V}|}\}$ and where $\forall i, V_i \subseteq V$.
- We can form sufficient statistic set via $\{C_\alpha\}_\alpha = \{\{x_V\}_{V \in \mathcal{V}}\}$.
- Higher order factors/interaction functions/potential functions/sufficient statistics.

Multivalued variables

- Variables need not binary, instead $D_X = \{0, 1, \dots, r-1\}$ for $r > 2$.
- We can define a set of indicator functions constituting minimal sufficient statistics. That is

$$\mathbf{1}_{s;j}(x_s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_s = j \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (11.33)$$

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$$\mathbf{1}_{st;jk}(x_s, x_t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_s = j \text{ and } x_t = k, \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (11.34)$$

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- Is this overcomplete? Yes. Why?

Multivariate Gaussian

- Usually, multivariate Gaussian is parameterized via mean and covariance matrix. For canonical exponential form, we use mean and correlation matrix. I.e.

$$p_{\theta}(x) = \exp \left\{ \langle \theta, x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \langle \Theta, xx^{\top} \rangle \rangle - A(\theta, \Theta) \right\} \quad (11.36)$$

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- Any other constraints on Θ ?

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- Mixtures of Gaussians can also be parameterized in exponential form (but note, key is that it is the joint distribution $p_{\theta_s}(y_s, x_s)$).

Other examples

A few other examples in the book

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- Mixture models
- Latent Dirichlet Allocation, and general hierarchical Bayesian models. Key here is that it is for one expansion, not variable.
- Models with hard constraints - key thing is to place the hard constraints in the ν measure. Sufficient statistics become easy if complexity is encoded in the measure. Alternative is to allow features over extended reals (i.e., a feature can provide $-\infty$ but this leads to certain technical difficulties that they would rather not deal with).

Mean Parameters, Convex Cores

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- \mathcal{M} is like a “convex core” of all distributions expressed via ϕ .

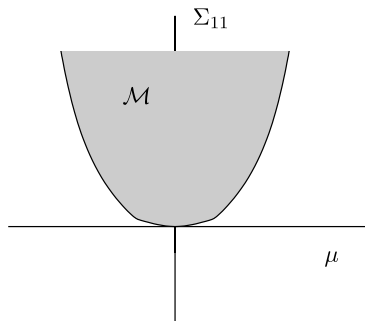
Mean Parameters and Gaussians

- Here, we have $\mathbb{E}[XX^\top] = C$ and $\mu = \mathbb{E}X$. Question is, how to define \mathcal{M} ?
- Given definition of C and μ , then $C - \mu\mu^\top$ must be valid covariance matrix (since this is $\mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}X][X - \mathbb{E}X]^\top = C - \mu\mu^\top$).
- Thus, $C - \mu\mu^\top \succeq 0$, thus p.s.d. matrix.
- On the other hand, if this is true, we can form a Gaussian using $C - \mu\mu^\top$ as the covariance matrix.
- Thus, for Gaussian MRFs, \mathcal{M} has the form

$$\mathcal{M} = \{(\mu, C) \in \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathcal{S}_+^m \mid C - \mu\mu^\top \succeq 0\} \quad (11.39)$$

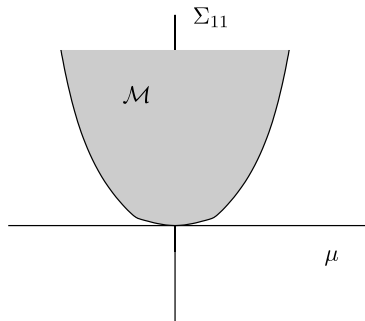
where \mathcal{S}_+^m is the set of symmetric positive semi-definite matrices.

Mean Parameters and Gaussians



“Illustration of the set \mathcal{M} for a scalar Gaussian: the model has two mean parameters $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and $\Sigma_{11} = \mathbb{E}[X^2]$, which must satisfy the quadratic constraint $\Sigma_{11} - \mu^2 \geq 0$. Notice that \mathcal{M} is convex, which is a general property.”

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Also, don't confuse the “mean parameters” with the means of a Gaussian. The typical means of Gaussians are means in this new sense, but those means are not all of the means. ☺

Mean Parameters and Polytopes

- When X is discrete, we get a polytope since

$$\mathcal{M} = \left\{ \mu \in \mathbb{R}^b : \mu = \sum_x \phi(x)p(x) \text{ for some } p \in \mathcal{U} \right\} \quad (11.40)$$

$$= \text{conv} \{ \phi(x), x \in D_X \text{ (that are } \nu\text{-measurable), } \} \quad (11.41)$$

where $\text{conv} \{ \cdot \}$ is the convex hull of the items in argument set.

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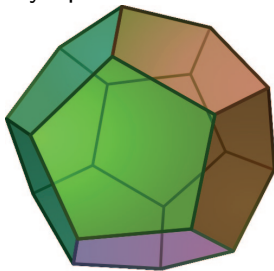
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- So we have a convex polytope

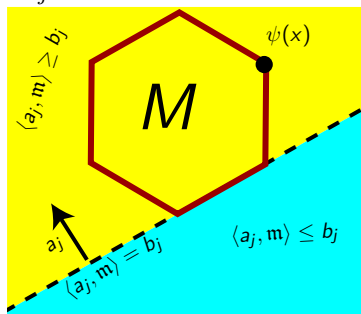


Mean Parameters and Polytopes

- Polytopes can be represented as a set of linear inequalities, i.e., there is a $|J| \times d$ matrix A and $|J|$ -element column vector b with

$$M = \left\{ \mu \in \mathbb{R}^d : A\mu \geq b \right\} = \left\{ \mu \in \mathbb{R}^d : \langle a_j, \mu \rangle \geq b_j, \forall j \in J \right\} \quad (11.42)$$

with A having rows a_j .



Mean Parameters and Polytopes

- Example: Ising mean parameters. Given sufficient statistics

$$\phi(x) = \{x_s, s \in V; x_s x_t, (s, t) \in E(G)\} \in \mathbb{R}^{|V|+|E|} \quad (11.43)$$

we get

$$\mu_v = \mathbb{E}_p[X_v] = p(X_v = 1) \quad \forall v \in V \quad (11.44)$$

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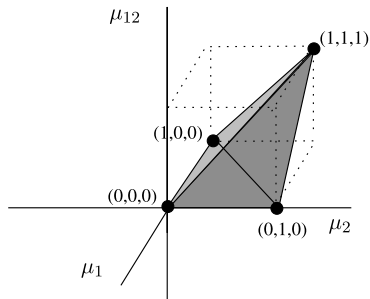
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Example: 2-variable Ising



"Ising model with two variables $(X_1, X_2) \in \{0, 1\}^2$. Three mean parameters $\mu_1 = \mathbb{E}[X_1]$, $\mu_2 = \mathbb{E}[X_2]$, $\mu_{12} = \mathbb{E}[X_1 X_2]$, must satisfy constraints $0 \leq \mu_{12} \leq \mu_i$ for $i = 1, 2$, and $1 + \mu_{12} - \mu_1 - \mu_2 \geq 0$. These constraints carve out a polytope with four facets, contained within the unit hypercube $[0, 1]^3$."

Mean Parameters and Overcomplete Representation

- We can use overcomplete representation and get a “marginal polytope”, a polytope that represents the marginal distributions at each potential function.
- Example: Using overcomplete potential functions (generalization of Bernoulli example we saw before)

$$\forall v \in V(G), j \in \{0 \dots r-1\}, \text{ define } \phi_{v,j}(x_v) \triangleq \mathbf{1}(x_v = j) \quad (11.46)$$

$$\forall (s, t) \in E(G), j, k \in \{0 \dots r-1\}, \text{ we define:} \quad (11.47)$$

$$\phi_{st,jk}(x_s, x_t) \triangleq \mathbf{1}(x_s = j, x_t = k) = \mathbf{1}(x_s = j)\mathbf{1}(x_t = k) \quad (11.48)$$

- So we now have $|V|r + 2|E|r^2$ functions each with a corresponding parameter.

Mean Parameters and Marginal Polytopes

- Mean parameters are now true (fully specified) marginals, i.e., $\mu_v(j) = p(x_v = j)$ and $\mu_{st}(j, k) = p(x_s = j, x_t = k)$ since

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$$\mu_{st,jk} = \mathbb{E}_p[\mathbf{1}(x_s = j, x_t = k)] = p(x_s = j, x_t = k) \quad (11.50)$$

- Such an \mathcal{M} is called the *marginal polytope*. Any μ must live in the polytope that corresponds to node and edge true marginals!!
- We can also associate such a polytope with a graph G , where we take only $(s, t) \in E(G)$. Denote this as $\mathbb{M}(G)$.
- This polytope can help us to characterize when BP converges (there might be an outer bound of this polytope), or it might characterize the result of a mean-field approximation (an inner bound of this polytope) as we'll see.

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- Key idea: use polyhedral approximations to produce model and inference approximations.

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- graph structure (e.g., tree-width) makes this easy or hard, and also characterizes the polytope (how complex it is in terms of number of faces).

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- Ex: Estimate θ with $\hat{\theta}$ based on data $\mathbf{D} = \{\bar{x}_E^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^M$ of size M , likelihood function

$$\ell(\theta, \mathbf{D}) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \log p_{\theta}(\bar{x}^{(i)}) = \langle \theta, \hat{\mu} \rangle - A(\theta) \quad (11.51)$$

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- This is identical to the maximum entropy problem.

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- If we do maximum entropy learning, where does the $\exp(\cdot)$ function come from? From the entropy function. I.e., the exponential form is the distribution that has maximum entropy having those constraints.

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Summarizing these relationships

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- In exponential family case, this is maximum entropy and is equivalent to maximum likelihood learning on an exponential family model.
- Turns out log partition function A , and its dual A^* can give us these mappings, and the mappings have interesting forms ...

Log partition (or cumulant) function

$$A(\theta) = \log \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} \langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle \nu(dx) \quad (11.54)$$

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- It yields cumulants of the random vector $\phi(X)$

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta_\alpha}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi_\alpha(X)] = \int \phi_\alpha(X) p_\theta(x) \nu(dx) = \mu_\alpha \quad (11.55)$$

in general, derivative of log part. function is expected value of feature

Log partition (or cumulant) function

$$A(\theta) = \log \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} \langle \theta, \phi(x) \rangle \nu(dx) \quad (11.54)$$

- If we know the log partition function, we know a lot for an exponential family model. In particular, we know
- $A(\theta)$ is convex in θ (strictly so if minimal representation).
- It yields cumulants of the random vector $\phi(X)$

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial \theta_\alpha}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi_\alpha(X)] = \int \phi_\alpha(X) p_\theta(x) \nu(dx) = \mu_\alpha \quad (11.55)$$

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- Also, we get

$$\frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial \theta_{\alpha_1} \partial \theta_{\alpha_2}}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi_{\alpha_1}(X) \phi_{\alpha_2}(X)] - \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi_{\alpha_1}(X)] \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi_{\alpha_2}(X)] \quad (11.56)$$

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- Proof given in book.

Log partition function

- So derivative of log partition function w.r.t. θ is equal to our mean parameter μ in the discrete case.
- Given $A(\theta)$, we can recover the marginals for each potential function $\phi_\alpha, \alpha \in \mathcal{I}$ (when mean parameters lie in the marginal polytope).
- If we can approximate $A(\theta)$ with $\tilde{A}(\theta)$ then we can get approximate marginals. Perhaps we can bound it without inordinate compute resources.
- The Bethe approximation (as we'll see) is such an approximation and corresponds to fixed points of loopy belief propagation.
- In some rarer cases, we can bound the approximation (current research trend).

Log partition function

- So $\nabla A : \Omega \rightarrow \mathcal{M}'$, where $\mathcal{M}' \subseteq \mathcal{M}$, and where $\mathcal{M} = \{\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d | \exists p \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}_p[\phi(X)] = \mu\}$.

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- Key point: all mean parameters are realizable by member of exp. family.

Mappings - one-to-one

In fact, we have

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- Other direction, uses strict convexity.

Mappings - onto

Moreover,

Theorem 11.6.2

In a minimal exponential family, the gradient map ∇A is onto the interior of \mathcal{M} (denoted \mathcal{M}°). Consequently, for each $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^\circ$, there exists some $\theta = \theta(\mu) \in \Omega$ such that $\mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi(X)] = \mu$.

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- The Gaussian won't nec. be the "true" distribution (in such case, the "true" distribution would not be an exponential family model with those moments).
- The theorem here is more general and applies for any set of sufficient statistics.

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- Consider maximum likelihood problem for exp. family

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- Key: when $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$, dual is negative entropy of exp. model $p_{\theta(\mu)}$ where $\theta(\mu)$ is the unique set of canonical parameters satisfying this *matching condition*

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- When $\mu \notin \mathcal{M}$, then $A^*(\mu) = +\infty$, optimization with dual need consider points only in \mathcal{M} .

Conjugate Duality

Theorem 11.6.3 (Relationship between A and A^*)

(a) For any $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^\circ$, $\theta(\mu)$ unique canonical parameter sat. matching condition, then conj. dual takes form:

$$A^*(\mu) = \sup_{\theta \in \Omega} (\langle \theta, \mu \rangle - A(\theta)) = \begin{cases} -H(p_{\theta(\mu)}) & \text{if } \mu \in \mathcal{M}^\circ \\ +\infty & \text{if } \mu \in \bar{\mathcal{M}} \end{cases} \quad (11.60)$$

(b) Partition function has variational representation (dual of dual)

$$A(\theta) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{ \langle \theta, \mu \rangle - A^*(\mu) \} \quad (11.61)$$

(c) For $\theta \in \Omega$, sup occurs at $\mu \in \mathcal{M}^\circ$ at moment matching conditions

$$\mu = \int_{\mathcal{D}_X} \phi(x) p_\theta(x) \nu(dx) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\phi(X)] = \nabla A(\theta) \quad (11.62)$$

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- $A(\theta)$ in Equation 11.61 is the “inference” problem (dual of the dual) for a given θ , since computing it involves computing the desired node/edge marginals.
- Whenever $\mu \notin \mathcal{M}$, then $A^*(\mu)$ returns ∞ which can't be the resulting sup, so Equation 11.61 need only consider \mathcal{M} .

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$$A(\theta) = \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \{ \langle \theta, \mu \rangle - A^*(\mu) \} \quad (11.61)$$

- computing $A(\theta)$ in this way corresponds to the inference problem (finding mean parameters, or node and edge marginals). Key: **we compute the log partition function simultaneously with solving inference, given the dual.**

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- More bad news: A^* not given explicitly in general and hard to compute. ☹

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- For example, we might either relax \mathcal{M} (making it less complex), relax $A^*(\mu)$ (making it easier to compute over), or both. ☺
- Surprisingly, this is strongly related to belief propagation (i.e., the sum-product commutative semiring). ☺☺

Sources for Today's Lecture

- Wainwright and Jordan *Graphical Models, Exponential Families, and Variational Inference* <http://www.nowpublishers.com/product.aspx?product=MAL&doi=22000000001>