

6.962 Week 6 Tutorial: Approximate Inference Techniques for Graphs with Cycles

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1. Introduction to Graphical Models
2. Trees and Belief Propagation
3. Mean Field Theory and Variational Methods
4. Understanding Loopy Belief Propagation
5. Generalized Belief Propagation

- GIVEN: Noisy observations $\mathcal{Y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots\}$ of some “hidden” random variables $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$.

$$p(\mathcal{X}) \Rightarrow \text{prior model}$$

$$p(\mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{X}) \Rightarrow \text{measurement model}$$

- Standard estimation problems:

$$\hat{\mathcal{X}}_{\text{MAP}} = \arg \max_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) = \arg \max_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X}) p(\mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{X})$$

$$p(x_i | \mathcal{Y}) = \sum_{\mathcal{X} \setminus x_i} p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) = \frac{1}{p(\mathcal{Y})} \sum_{\mathcal{X} \setminus x_i} p(\mathcal{X}) p(\mathcal{Y} | \mathcal{X})$$

- Graphical models are a tool for controlling complexity in cases where direct computational costs are prohibitively high:

Discrete N variables drawn from a finite alphabet with M symbols require $\mathcal{O}(M^N)$ computations.

Gaussian N vector Gaussian variables of dimension d require $\mathcal{O}((Nd)^3)$ computations.

- A graph \mathcal{G} is a collection of nodes \mathcal{S} and edges \mathcal{E} .
 - Each node $s_i \in \mathcal{S}$ is associated with a random variable $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$.
 - Each edge $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ connects two nodes s_i and s_j .
- Edges are associated with conditional independencies. There are a variety of formalisms for doing this:

Undirected Graphs (image processing, statistical physics)

Directed Graphs (artificial intelligence, systems & control)

Factor Graphs (error correcting codes)

- Many of the results we will discuss have roots in the statistical physics literature, so we will focus on undirected graphs.
- Equivalent ideas can be developed for directed/factor graphs.

Undirected Graphs and Conditional Independence

- For undirected graphs, we define the *neighborhood* of x_i to be

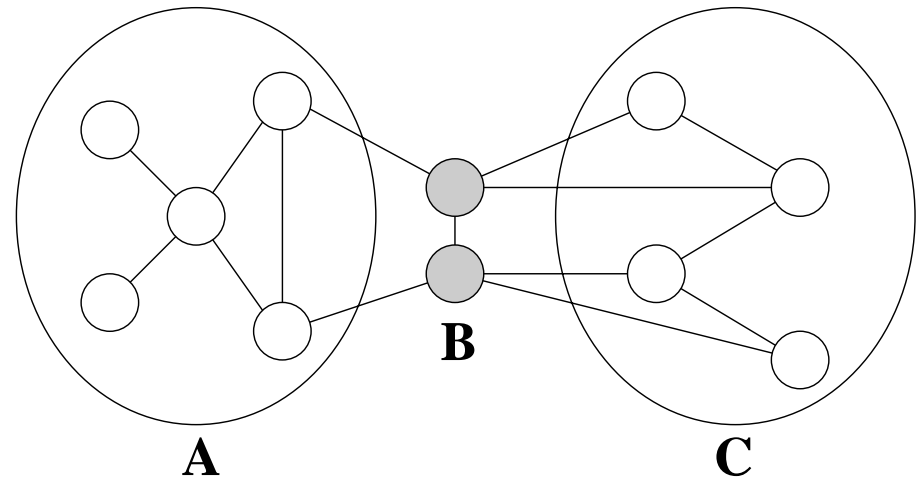
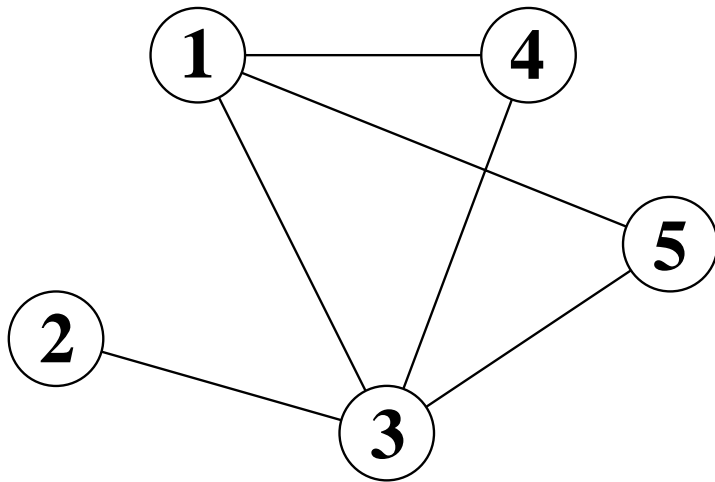
$$\mathcal{N}(x_i) \triangleq \{x_j \in \mathcal{X} \mid (i, j) \in \mathcal{E}\}$$

- Conditioned on its immediate neighbors, the probability distribution of a given node is independent of the rest of the graph:

$$p(x_i \mid \mathcal{X} \setminus x_i) = p(x_i \mid \mathcal{N}(x_i))$$

- Alternatively, conditioned on a given set of nodes, the distributions of disjoint subsets of the graph separated by those nodes are independent.

Undirected Graphs

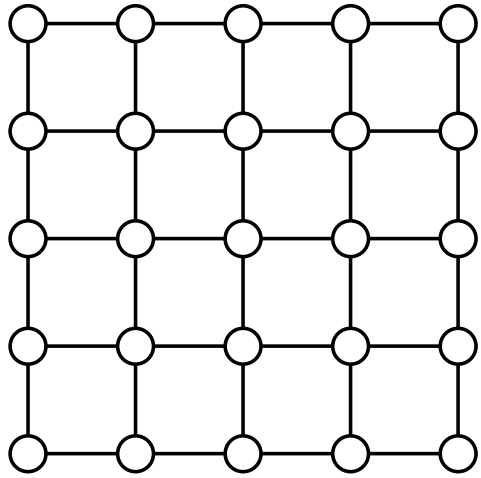


$$p(x_A \mid x_B, x_C) = p(x_A \mid x_B)$$

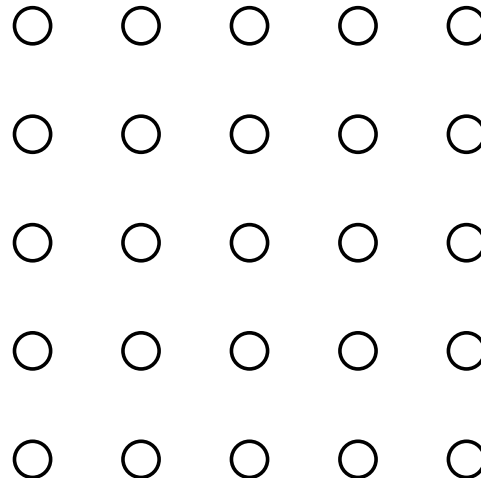
$$p(x_A, x_C \mid x_B) = p(x_A \mid x_B) p(x_C \mid x_B)$$

$$p(x_5 \mid x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_5 \mid x_1, x_3)$$

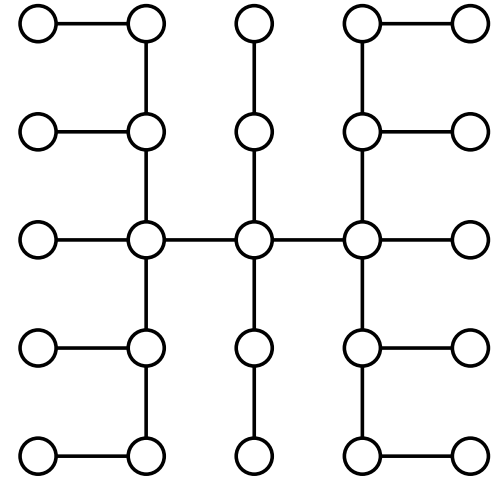
$$p(x_2, x_4, x_5 \mid x_1, x_3) = p(x_2 \mid x_1, x_3) p(x_4 \mid x_1, x_3) p(x_5 \mid x_1, x_3)$$



Nearest-Neighbor
Grid



Mean Field
Approximation



Structured
Mean Field

- *QUESTION*: How do we determine if a distribution $p(\mathcal{X})$ satisfies the conditional independencies implied by a given graph \mathcal{G} ?
- To provide an answer, the following definitions will be useful:

Clique A set of nodes in which every node is *directly* connected to every other node in the clique

Maximal Clique A clique which is not a proper subset of any other clique

Hammersley-Clifford Theorem (1971)

- $\mathcal{G} \Rightarrow$ Undirected graph defined on a set of random variables \mathcal{X}
- $\mathcal{C} \Rightarrow$ Set of all maximal cliques of \mathcal{G}
- $\psi_C(x_C) \Rightarrow$ Arbitrary positive “clique potential” function

- A positive distribution $p(\mathcal{X})$ satisfies the conditional independencies implied by \mathcal{G} if and only if it can be written in the factorized form

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_C(x_C)$$
$$Z = \sum_{\mathcal{X}} \prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \psi_C(x_C)$$

- We may equivalently define $\phi_C(x_C) \triangleq -\log \psi_C(x_C)$ and write

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ - \sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \phi_C(x_C) \right\}$$

- For convenience, we will assume that all cliques involve at most two nodes, allowing the graph-structured prior $p(\mathcal{X})$ to be written as

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_i(x_i)$$

- If we associate a single measurement with each hidden node, $p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y})$ has the same graphical structure as the prior $p(\mathcal{X})$

$$p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathcal{Y})} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_i(x_i) p(y_i | x_i)$$

- Computing marginals $p(x_i)$ and conditional marginals $p(x_i | \mathcal{Y})$ are therefore equivalent problems.

$$p(x_i | \mathcal{Y}) = \frac{1}{Z(\mathcal{Y})} \sum_{\mathcal{X} \setminus x_i} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_i(x_i) p(y_i | x_i)$$

- Any tree-structured prior distribution may be factorized as

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \frac{p(x_i, x_j)}{p(x_i)p(x_j)} \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} p(x_i)$$

- This allows the conditional distribution to be factorized as

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) &= \frac{1}{p(\mathcal{Y})} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \frac{p(x_i, x_j)}{p(x_i)p(x_j)} \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} p(x_i) p(y_i | x_i) \\ &\triangleq \frac{1}{p(\mathcal{Y})} \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \psi_i(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

- Using Bayes' rule and the Markov properties of \mathcal{G} , we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_i | \mathcal{Y}) &= \frac{p(x_i)p(\mathcal{Y} | x_i)}{p(\mathcal{Y})} = \frac{p(x_i)p(y_i | x_i)}{p(\mathcal{Y})} \prod_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} p(\mathcal{Y}_{j \setminus i} | x_i) \\ &= \alpha \psi_i(x_i) \prod_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} p(\mathcal{Y}_{j \setminus i} | x_i) \end{aligned}$$

Belief Propagation on Tree-Structured Graphs

- Suppose we associate the conditional likelihoods $p(\mathcal{Y}_{j \setminus i} \mid x_i)$ with a “message” $m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i)$ that s_j sends to s_i
- Each message $m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i)$ is an M -dimensional vector of real numbers giving the likelihood of each possible value of x_j conditioned on the observations in the subtree rooted at x_i
- Belief Propagation (BP) operates through an iterative “message-passing” procedure:

$$p(x_i \mid \mathcal{Y}) = \alpha \psi_i(x_i) \prod_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i)$$

$$m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i) = \sum_{x_j} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \psi_j(x_j) \prod_{s_k \in \mathcal{N}(s_j) \setminus s_i} m_{k \rightarrow j}(x_j)$$

- On trees, BP converges to the *exact* $p(x_i \mid \mathcal{Y})$ once messages have been allowed to propagate across the entire diameter of the graph
- BIG computational savings $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(M^2 N)$ versus $\mathcal{O}(M^N)$ operations

- When \mathcal{G} has cycles, the conditional independencies used to derive the BP algorithm no longer hold

Junction Tree Algorithm Cluster nodes until you have a tree-structured “super-graph” and then run the BP algorithm

- Gives exact answers, but creates intractably large clusters for most interesting architectures

Loopy Belief Propagation Use the BP message passing as an iterative procedure and hope for convergence

- Messages lose their strict probabilistic interpretation, so the standard BP derivation provides no justification for this procedure
- If cycles are long, we expect conditional independencies to “approximately” hold, so loopy BP may give decent approximations
- Excellent empirical performance for *some* problems motivates further investigation

- If $p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y})$ is intractable, we could consider approximating it by a tractable distribution $q(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)$

$\lambda \Rightarrow$ parameterizes a class of tractable distributions

- We would like the “best” $q(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)$. One reasonable metric is

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda^* &= \arg \min_{\lambda} D(p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) || q(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)) \\ &= \arg \min_{\lambda} \sum_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}) \log \frac{p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y})}{q(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)}\end{aligned}$$

- *GOOD NEWS*: If we choose $q(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y}, \lambda) = \prod_i q_i(x_i | \lambda_i)$ to be the class of fully factorized distributions, minimizing $D(p || q)$ recovers the *exact* marginals $q_i(x_i | \lambda_i) = p(x_i | \mathcal{Y})$
- *BAD NEWS*: $D(p || q)$ involves averages with respect to the intractable distribution $p(\mathcal{X} | \mathcal{Y})$, and is as hard to deal with as the original problem

$$\lambda^* = \arg \min_{\lambda} D(q \parallel p) = \arg \min_{\lambda} \sum_{\mathcal{X}} q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda) \log \frac{q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)}{p(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y})}$$

- *GOOD NEWS*: $D(q \parallel p)$ takes expectations with respect to the *tractable* distribution $q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)$, so this minimization is possible for certain approximating classes
- *BAD NEWS*: Since it weights distance by the approximating distribution, it is not clear if $D(q \parallel p)$ will give good approximations. One justification:

$$\begin{aligned} \log p(\mathcal{Y}) &= \log \sum_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}) \\ &= \log \sum_{\mathcal{X}} q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda) \frac{p(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})}{q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)} \\ &\geq \sum_{\mathcal{X}} q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda) \log \left[\frac{p(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})}{q(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y}, \lambda)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ - \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) - \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \phi_i(x_i) \right\}$$

- The mean field approximation chooses the simplest possible approximating distribution by removing *all* of the edges

$$\begin{aligned} q(\mathcal{X}) &= \prod_i q_i(x_i) \\ D(q \parallel p) &= \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \sum_{x_i, x_j} q_i(x_i) q_j(x_j) \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) + \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{x_i} q_i(x_i) \phi_i(x_i) \\ &\quad + \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{x_i} q_i(x_i) \log q_i(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

- Notice that the $\phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)$ terms cause the optimization of the $q_i(x_i)$ distributions at different nodes to become coupled

Minimizing the Mean Field Equations

- The mean field approximation removes intractable dependencies in the original graph by adding a set of extra parameters which must then be optimized
- Although the final model $q(\mathcal{X})$ fully decouples the nodes, the optimization process allows the edges in $p(\mathcal{X})$ to be (approximately) accounted for
- For nonhomogeneous MRFs, we use Lagrange multipliers to enforce the normalization constraint $\sum_{x_i} q_i(x_i) = 1$. Taking derivatives gives

$$q_i(x_i) = \alpha \psi_i(x_i) \prod_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} \prod_{x_j} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)^{q_j(x_j)}$$

- We can attempt to solve these equations by iteratively passing $q_i(x_i)$ terms between nodes (reminiscent of BP messages)
- Unfortunately, there are no guarantees of convergence to a global optimum.

- Our justification for the use of $D(q || p)$ in terms of maximizing a lower bound on $p(\mathcal{Y})$ is a simple example of a *variational method*.
- More generally, we choose a family of tractable functions $g(x; \lambda)$ which each approximate $f(x)$, and then attempt to find λ^* such that $g(x; \lambda^*)$ “best” approximates $f(x)$.
- The notion of “best approximation” is often made precise by choosing $g(x; \lambda)$ which bound $f(x)$, and then optimizing that bound.
- Structured Mean Field methods notice that we do not have to remove *all* of a graph’s edges to make calculations tractable.
 - Alternate between calculating the variational parameters λ^* of the best subgraph and running a tractable exact algorithm on the resulting subgraph (Markov chain, tree, etc.)
- No general methods for picking tractable variational classes which are also good approximations (often must exploit specific graphical structures, functional forms of clique potentials, etc.)

$$G \triangleq \sum_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X}) \left[\sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) + \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \phi_i(x_i) \right] - \left[- \sum_{\mathcal{X}} p(\mathcal{X}) \log p(\mathcal{X}) \right]$$

- Exactly minimizing G with respect to $p(\mathcal{X})$ recovers

$$p(\mathcal{X}) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ - \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) - \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \phi_i(x_i) \right\}$$

- For complex MRFs, this minimization is intractable. Physicists often minimize an approximate free energy to produce $q(\mathcal{X}) \approx p(\mathcal{X})$
- If we assume $q(\mathcal{X}) = \prod_i q_i(x_i)$, we get the mean field free energy

$$\begin{aligned} G_{\text{MF}} &= \sum_{\mathcal{X}} \prod_i q_i(x_i) \left[\sum_{(j,k) \in \mathcal{E}} \phi_{j,k}(x_j, x_k) + \sum_{s_k \in \mathcal{S}} \phi_k(x_k) \right] \\ &\quad + \sum_{\mathcal{X}} \prod_i q_i(x_i) \log \prod_i q_i(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

- For tree-structured graphs, the exact free energy is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(\mathcal{X}) &= \prod_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \frac{p(x_i, x_j)}{p(x_i) p(x_j)} \prod_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} p(x_i) \\
 G_B &= \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \sum_{x_i, x_j} q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \left[\log \frac{q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)}{q_i(x_i) q_j(x_j)} + \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \right] \\
 &\quad + \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{x_i} q_i(x_i) [\log q_i(x_i) + \phi_i(x_i)]
 \end{aligned}$$

- We cannot write the free energy for graphs with cycles solely in terms of $q_i(x_i)$ and $q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)$ because of the partition function Z
- Bethe Approximation \Rightarrow Use the tree-structured free energy G_B even though \mathcal{G} is *not* tree-structured.

- In order to minimize G_B , we add Lagrange multipliers to enforce the various marginalization constraints

$$\lambda_{i,j}(x_j) \iff \sum_{x_i} q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = q_j(x_j)$$

$$\lambda_{j,i}(x_i) \iff \sum_{x_j} q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = q_i(x_i)$$

$$\gamma_i \iff \sum_{x_i} q_i(x_i) = 1$$

$$\gamma_{ij} \iff \sum_{x_i, x_j} q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = 1$$

- Taking the derivative of the resulting Lagrangian and manipulating

$$q_i(x_i) = \alpha \exp \left\{ \phi_i(x_i) + \frac{1}{|\mathcal{N}(s_i)| - 1} \sum_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} \lambda_{j,i}(x_i) \right\}$$

$$q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp \{ \phi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) + \phi_i(x_i) + \phi_j(x_j) + \lambda_{i,j}(x_j) + \lambda_{j,i}(x_i) \}$$

- Recall that the BP update equations are given by

$$p(x_i | \mathcal{Y}) = \alpha \psi_i(x_i) \prod_{s_j \in \mathcal{N}(s_i)} m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i)$$

$$m_{j \rightarrow i}(x_i) = \sum_{x_j} \psi_{i,j}(x_i, x_j) \psi_j(x_j) \prod_{s_k \in \mathcal{N}(s_j) \setminus s_i} m_{k \rightarrow j}(x_j)$$

- These equations are *exactly* equivalent if we make the following association between Lagrange multipliers and messages:

$$\lambda_{i,j}(x_j) = \sum_{s_k \in \mathcal{N}(s_j) \setminus s_i} \log m_{k \rightarrow j}(x_j)$$

- The mean field approximation can be derived by minimizing either an approximate free energy G_{MF} or the KL divergence $D(q \parallel p)$ between the fully factorized and true distributions.
- QUESTION: Is there a KL interpretation of the Bethe tree approximation?
- Minimizing G_{B} is equivalent to minimizing an approximate $D(q \parallel p)$, where the approximation arises from

$$\log q(\mathcal{X}) \approx \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathcal{E}} \log \frac{q_{i,j}(x_i, x_j)}{q_i(x_i) q_j(x_j)} + \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \log q_i(x_i)$$

(derived from the Möbius inversion formula)

- These are a few examples of a much deeper duality between free energy and relative entropy.

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- We have interpreted BP messages as exponentiated Lagrange multipliers which enforce a set of local consistency constraints.
 - BP only considers pairwise consistency. This ensures that the beliefs at all pairs of nodes will be consistent, but does *not* guarantee that the beliefs at larger clusters of nodes will be consistent.
 - Yedidia, Freeman, and Weiss (NIPS 2000) have introduced a new class of generalized belief propagation (GBP) algorithms which enforce the consistency of larger clusters by passing more messages
 - Clustering can produce good estimates for problems where BP gives poor results or fails to converge
 - Changing cluster sizes allows computational complexity and solution accuracy to be balanced
 - GBP algorithms correspond to a class of higher-order free energy approximations known as Kikuchi approximation

Double Loop Algorithms

- Yuille has recently introduced a “double-loop” algorithm which is guaranteed to converge to a local minimum of the Bethe free energy.
- Functions by iterating between an “inner” and an “outer” loop:
 - Inner loop determines a set of Lagrange multipliers
 - Outer loop updates beliefs based on Lagrange multipliers
- Derivation depends on decomposition of free energy into a sum of convex and concave parts
- Loopy BP can be viewed as an approximation to double-loop in which the two loops are collapsed together
- GBP-style generalizations of double-loop are also proposed

- For tree-structured graphs, BP messages have a direct probabilistic interpretation as likelihoods
- For graphs with cycles, BP messages can be interpreted as Lagrange multipliers which attempt to enforce local consistency constraints
- Variational methods, including the mean field approximation, are closely related to BP, and may offer attractive alternatives in certain situations
- KL divergence and Gibbs free energy are connected in a number of very fundamental ways