

PROBABILISTIC GRAPHICAL MODELS  
 CPSC 532C (TOPICS IN AI)  
 STAT 521A (TOPICS IN MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS)

## LECTURE 6

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 TYPES OF PROBABILISTIC INFERENCE
 

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- There are several kinds of queries we can make.
- Suppose the joint is  $P(Y, E, W) = P(Y, W) \times P(E|Y, W)$ .
- Conditional probability queries (sum-product):

$$P(Y|E = e) \propto \sum_w P(Y, W) \times P(e|Y, W)$$

- Most probable explanation (MPE) queries (max-product, MAP):

$$(y, w)^* = \arg \max_y \max_w P(Y, W) \times P(e|Y, W)$$

- Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) queries (max-sum-product, marginal MAP)

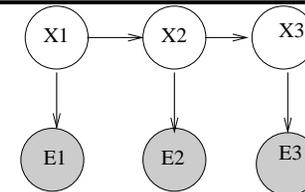
$$y^* = \arg \max_y \sum_w P(Y, W) \times P(e|Y, W)$$

- Discussion section on Thursday, 3.30-4, in 304 (this week only).

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 INFERENCE IN HIDDEN MARKOV MODELS (HMM)
 

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- Conditional probability queries, e.g. estimate current state given past evidence (online filtering)

$$P(X_t|e_{1:t}) = \sum_{x_{1:t-1}} P(x_{1:t-1}, X_t|e_{1:t})$$

- Most probable explanation (MPE) queries, e.g., most probable sequence of states (Viterbi decoding)

$$x_{1:t}^* = \arg \max_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t}|e_{1:t})$$

## WORD-ERROR RATE VS BIT ERROR RATE

- Note: Most probable sequence of states not necessarily equal to sequence of most probable states.

- e.g.,  $X_1 \rightarrow X_2$

$$P(X_1) \begin{pmatrix} 0.4 \\ 0.6 \end{pmatrix} \quad P(X_2|X_1) \begin{pmatrix} 0.1 & 0.9 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \quad P(X_1, X_2) \begin{pmatrix} 0.04 & 0.36 \\ 0.3 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\arg \max_{x_1} P(X_1) = 1, \quad \arg \max_{x_1} \max_{x_2} P(X_1, X_2) = (0, 1)$$

- Viterbi decoding minimizes word error rate

$$x_{1:t}^* = \arg \max_{x_{1:t}} P(x_{1:t}|e_{1:t})$$

- To minimize bit error rate, use most marginally likely state

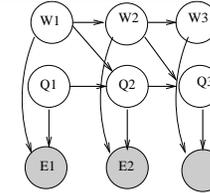
$$P(X_t|y_{1:t}) = \sum_{x_{1:t-1}} P(x_{1:t-1}, X_t|e_{1:t})$$

$$x_t^* = \max_x P(X_t = x|e_{1:t})$$

## COMPLEXITY OF EXACT INFERENCE

- Determining if  $P_B(X = x) > 0$  for some (discrete) variable  $X$  and some Bayes net  $B$  is NP-complete.
- What does this mean?
- Roughly: The best algorithm for exact inference (in discrete-state models) probably takes exponential time, in the worst case.
- More formally: we need a review of basic computational complexity theory.

## MAP VS MARGINAL MAP



- Consider a Dynamic Bayes Net (DBN) for speech recognition, where  $W$  = word and  $Q$  = phoneme.

- Most likely sequence of *states* (Viterbi/ MAP, max-product):

$$\arg \max_{q_{1:t}, w_{1:t}} P(q_{1:t}, w_{1:t}|e_{1:t})$$

- Most likely sequence of *words* (Marginal MAP, max-sum-product):

$$\arg \max_{w_{1:t}} \sum_{q_{1:t}} P(w_{1:t}, q_{1:t}|e_{1:t})$$

- Max-product often used as computationally simpler approximation to max-sum-product (or can use  $A^*$  decoding).

## DECISION PROBLEMS

- Defn: a **decision problem** is a task of the form: does there exist a solution which satisfies these conditions?

- Example: boolean satisfiability:

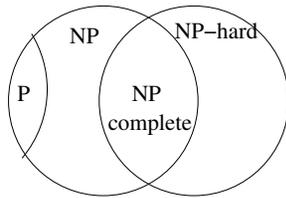
$$(q_1 \vee \neg q_2 \vee q_3) \wedge (\neg q_q \vee q_2 \vee \neg q_3)$$

is satisfiable ( $q_1 = q_2 = q_3 = \text{true}$ )

- **3-SAT** is boolean satisfiability where  $\phi = C_1 \wedge C_2 \dots \wedge C_n$ , and every clause  $C_i$  has 3 literals.

## P vs NP

- Defn: A decision problem  $\Pi$  is in P if it can be solved in polynomial time.
- Defn:  $\Pi$  is in NP if it can be solved in polynomial time using a non-deterministic oracle (i.e., you can verify its guesses in polytime).
- Defn:  $\Pi$  is NP-hard if  $\forall \Pi' \in NP. \exists T \in P. \Pi' \xrightarrow{T} \Pi$ .
- Defn:  $\Pi$  is NP-complete if it is NP-hard and in NP.
- Conjecture:  $P \neq NP$

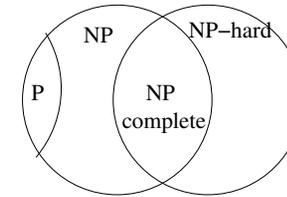


## PROVING NP-COMPLETENESS

- Thm: 3-SAT is NP-complete.
- To show  $\Pi$  is NP-hard, it suffices to find a transformation  $T \in P$  from another NP-hard problem  $\Pi'$  (e.g., 3-SAT) since

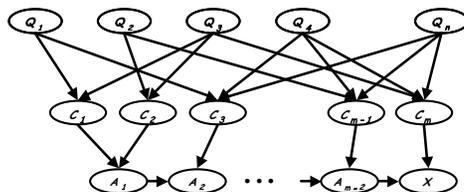
$$NP \xrightarrow{T'} \Pi' \xrightarrow{T} \Pi$$

- To show  $\Pi$  is NP-complete, show it is NP-hard and that you can check (oracular) guesses in poly-time.



## EXACT INFERENCE IN DISCRETE BAYES NETS IS NP-COMplete

- Thm: the decision problem “Is  $P_B(X_i = x) > 0$ ?” is NP-complete.
- Proof. To show in NP: Given an assignment  $X_{1:n}$ , we can check if  $X_i = x$  and then check if  $P(X_{1:n}) > 0$  in poly-time. To show NP-hard: we can encode any 3SAT problem as a polynomially sized Bayes net, as shown below.
- $P(X = 1|q_{1:n}) > 0$  iff  $q_{1:n}$  is a satisfying assignment.



## COMPLEXITY OF APPROXIMATE INFERENCE

- Defn: An estimate  $\rho$  has absolute error  $\epsilon$  for  $P(y|e)$  if  $|P(y|e) - \rho| \leq \epsilon$ .
- Defn: An estimate  $\rho$  has relative error  $\epsilon$  for  $P(y|e)$  if  $\frac{\rho}{1 + \epsilon} \leq P(y|e) \leq \rho(1 + \epsilon)$
- Thm: Computing  $P(X_i = x)$  with relative error  $\rho$  is NP-hard.
- Thm: Computing  $P(X_i|e)$  with absolute error for any  $\epsilon \in (0, 0.5)$  is NP-hard.
- But: special cases may have error bounds.
- And: heuristics often work well.

## HOW HARD IS INFERENCE IN PRACTICE?

- We will show later that exact inference can always be done in time  $O(Nv^W)$ , where  $W_G$  is the *tree-width* of the graph (to be defined later) and  $v = \max_i |X_i|$  is the max number of values (states) each node can take.
- The NP-hardness proof shows that, *in the worst case*, we have  $W_G \sim N$ .
- But for many models used in practice, we have  $W_G \sim \text{constant}$ .
- Also, for *Gaussian* graphical models, exact inference is  $O(N^3)$  no matter what the graph structure is!

## EXACT INFERENCE IN GAUSSIAN MODELS TAKES $O(N^3)$ TIME

- For *Gaussian* graphical models, exact inference is  $O(N^3)$  no matter what the graph structure is!
- c.f., linear programming easier than integer programming.
- Lecture 3: Any undirected graphical model in which potentials have the form

$$\psi_{ij} = \exp(X_i - \mu_i) \Sigma_{ij}^{-1} (X_j - \mu_j)$$

can be converted to a joint Gaussian distribution.

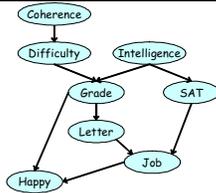
- Book chap 4: any directed graphical model in which CPDs have the form

$$p(X_i | X_{\pi_i}) = \mathcal{N}(X_i; WX_{\pi_i} + \mu_i, \Sigma_i)$$

can be converted to a joint Gaussian distribution.

- Exact inference in a Gaussian graphical model = matrix inversion.

## VARIABLE ELIMINATION ALGORITHM



- Key idea 1: push sum inside products.
- Key idea 2: use (non-serial) dynamic programming to cache shared subexpressions.

$$\begin{aligned} P(J) &= \sum_L \sum_S \sum_G \sum_H \sum_I \sum_D \sum_C P(C, D, I, G, S, L, J, H) \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \sum_G \sum_H \sum_I \sum_D \sum_C P(C)P(D|C)P(I)P(G|I, D)P(S|I)P(L|G)P(J|L, S)P(H|G, J) \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \sum_G \sum_H \sum_I \sum_D \sum_C \phi_C(C)\phi_D(D, C)\phi_I(I)\phi_G(G, I, D)\phi_S(S, I)\phi_L(L, G)\phi_J(J, L, S)\phi_H(H, G, J) \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_G \phi_L(L, G) \sum_H \phi_H(H, G, J) \sum_I \phi_S(S, I)\phi_I(I) \sum_D \phi(G, I, D) \sum_C \phi_C(C)\phi_D(D, C) \end{aligned}$$

## WORKING RIGHT TO LEFT (PEELING)

$$\begin{aligned} P(J) &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_G \phi_L(L, G) \sum_H \phi_H(H, G, J) \sum_I \phi_S(S, I)\phi_I(I) \sum_D \phi(G, I, D) \underbrace{\sum_C \phi_C(C)\phi_D(D, C)}_{\tau_1(D)} \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_G \phi_L(L, G) \sum_H \phi_H(H, G, J) \sum_I \phi_S(S, I)\phi_I(I) \underbrace{\sum_D \phi(G, I, D)\tau_1(D)}_{\tau_2(G, I)} \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_G \phi_L(L, G) \sum_H \phi_H(H, G, J) \underbrace{\sum_I \phi_S(S, I)\phi_I(I)\tau_2(G, I)}_{\tau_3(G, S)} \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_G \phi_L(L, G) \underbrace{\sum_H \phi_H(H, G, J)\tau_3(G, S)}_{\tau_4(G, J)} \\ &= \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \underbrace{\sum_G \phi_L(L, G)\tau_4(G, J)\tau_3(G, S)}_{\tau_5(J, L, S)} \\ &= \sum_L \underbrace{\sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S)\tau_5(J, L, S)}_{\tau_6(J, L)} \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_L \tau_6(J, L)}_{\tau_7(J)} \end{aligned}$$

## DIFFERENT ORDERING

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(J) &= \sum_D \sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \sum_H \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \sum_I \phi_I(I) \phi_S(S, I) \underbrace{\sum_G \phi_G(G, I, D) \phi_L(L, ) \phi_H(H, G, J)}_{\tau_1(I, D, L, J, H)} \\
 &= \sum_D \sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \sum_H \sum_L \sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \underbrace{\sum_I \phi_I(I) \phi_S(S, I) \tau_1(I, D, L, J, H)}_{\tau_2(D, L, S, J, H)} \\
 &= \sum_D \sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \sum_H \sum_L \underbrace{\sum_S \phi_J(J, L, S) \tau_2(D, L, S, J, H)}_{\tau_3(D, L, J, H)} \\
 &= \sum_D \sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \sum_H \underbrace{\sum_L \tau_3(D, L, J, H)}_{\tau_4(D, J, H)} \\
 &= \sum_D \sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \underbrace{\sum_H \tau_4(D, J, H)}_{\tau_5(D, J)} \\
 &= \sum_D \underbrace{\sum_C \phi_D(D, C) \tau_5(D, J)}_{\tau_6(D, J)} \\
 &= \underbrace{\sum_D \tau_6(D, J)}_{\tau_7(J)}
 \end{aligned}$$

## DEALING WITH EVIDENCE: METHOD 2

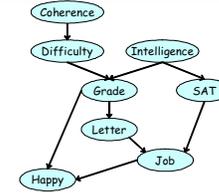
- We can associate a local evidence potential with every node, and set  $\phi_i(X_i) = \delta(X_i, x_i^*)$  if  $X_i$  is observed to have value  $x_i^*$ , and  $\phi_i(X_i) = 1$  otherwise:

$$P(X_{1:n}|ev) \propto P(X_{1:n}) \prod_i P(ev_i|X_i)$$

- e.g.,

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(J|I = 1, H = 0) &\propto \\
 &\sum_{C, D, I, G, S, L, J, H} P(C, D, I, G, S, L, J, H) \delta_I(I, 1) \delta_H(H, 0)
 \end{aligned}$$

## DEALING WITH EVIDENCE: METHOD 1



- We can instantiate observed variables to their observed value:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(J|I = 1, H = 0) &= \frac{P(J, I = 1, H = 0)}{P(I = 1, H = 0)} \propto P(J, I = 1, H = 0) \\
 &= \sum_{C, D, G, L, S} P(C, D, I = 1, G, S, L, J, H = 0)
 \end{aligned}$$

- The denominator is  $P(e) = P(I = 1, H = 0)$ .
- For Markov networks, the denominator is  $P(e) \times Z$ .