

# Probabilistic Graphical Models in Computer Vision (IN2329)

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Summer Semester 2015/2016

## 3. Introduction to Graphical models

### Agenda for today's lecture \*

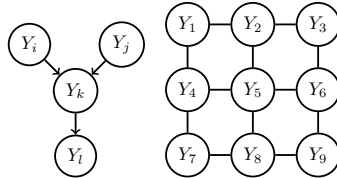
In the **previous lecture** we learnt about

- Expectation-maximization algorithm, which is an iterative method for parameter estimation, where the model also depends on *latent variables*.

**Today** we are going to learn about

- Expectation-maximization algorithm for mixture of Gaussians
- Introduction to *Graphical models*

- Directed** graphical models: Bayesian network
- Undirected** graphical models: Markov random field



### Multivariate Gaussian distribution

Assume a  $D$ -dimensional random vector  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_D)$ , i.e. a vector whose components are random variables, with the joint density function

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_D) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\Sigma|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right).$$

$\mathbf{X}$  is said to have **multivariate Gaussian (or Normal) distribution** with parameters  $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  and  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  assuming that  $\Sigma$  is *positive definite*.

$\boldsymbol{\mu}$  is called the **mean vector** and  $\Sigma$  is called the **covariance matrix**. We often use the notation  $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$  denoting  $\mathbf{X}$  has Normal distribution.

*Reminder.* A symmetric  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  matrix is said to be **positive definite**, if  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{u} > 0$  for all non-zero  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

### Latent variables

We introduce a  $K$ -dimensional **binary random variable**  $z$  having a *1-of- $K$  representation*, i.e.  $z_k = 1$  and all other elements are equal to 0. Let us define the *marginal distribution*

$$p(z_k = 1) = \pi_k,$$

which is considered as the *prior probability* of picking the  $k^{\text{th}}$  component of a mixture of Gaussians. This distribution can be also written as a joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{z_k}.$$

Moreover, the conditional distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  given a particular value for  $\mathbf{z}$ , i.e. the *likelihood*, can be written as

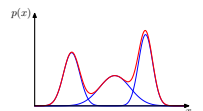
$$p(\mathbf{x} | z_k = 1) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k), \quad \text{thus} \quad p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)^{z_k}.$$

### Mixture of Gaussians

While the Gaussian distribution has some important analytical properties, it suffers from limitations when it comes to modelling real data sets. However the **linear combination of Gaussians** can give rise to very complex densities.

Let us consider a superposition of  $K$  Gaussian densities

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k),$$



Mixture of three Gaussians

which is called a **mixture of Gaussians**.

The parameters  $\pi_k$  are called **mixing coefficients**.

$$1 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k) d\mathbf{x} = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k.$$

All the density functions are non-negative, hence  $\pi_k \geq 0$  for  $1 \leq k \leq K$ , therefore

$$0 \leq \pi_k \leq 1 \quad \text{for all} \quad k = 1, \dots, K.$$

### Responsibilities \*

The **distribution of mixture of Gaussian**, specified by the parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\pi}, \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ , is given by

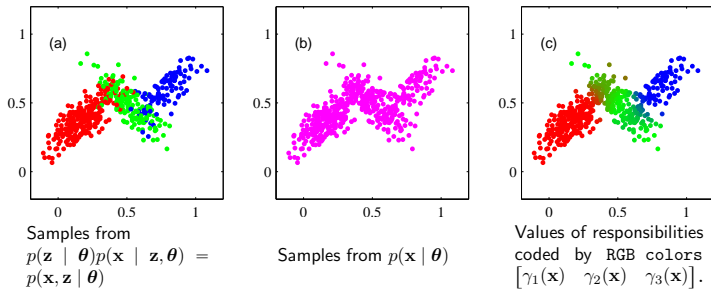
$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}) &\triangleq p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{z}} \prod_{k=1}^K (\pi_k p(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k))^{z_k} = \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k). \end{aligned}$$

The *posterior probabilities*  $p(z_k = 1 | \mathbf{x})$ , denoted by  $\gamma_k(\mathbf{x})$ , a.k.a. **responsibilities**, show the probability that a given sample  $\mathbf{x}$  belongs to the  $k^{\text{th}}$  component.

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}) &\triangleq p(z_k = 1 | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | z_k = 1) p(z_k = 1)}{p(\mathbf{x})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{x} | z_k = 1) \pi_k}{\sum_{l=1}^K p(\mathbf{x} | z_l = 1) \pi_l} \\ &= \frac{p(z_k = 1) p(\mathbf{x} | z_k = 1)}{\sum_{l=1}^K p(z_l = 1) p(\mathbf{x} | z_l = 1)} = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\mu}_l, \Sigma_l)}. \end{aligned}$$

## Example: Mixture of three 2D Gaussians \*

Mixture of Gaussians Introduction to Graphical models Markov random field

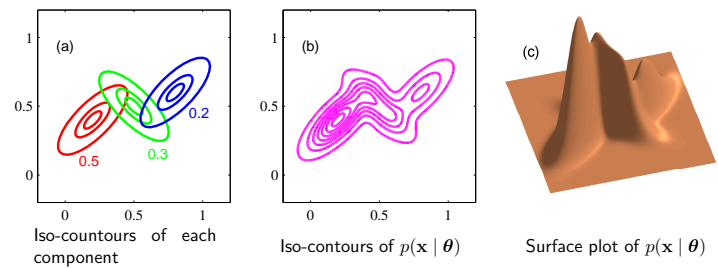


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## Example: Mixture of three 2D Gaussians \*

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## Estimation of a mixture of Gaussians

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Suppose we have a set of *i.i.d.* data samples  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$  drawn from a mixture of Gaussians. The data set is represented by  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ .

The goal is to find the parameter vector  $\theta = (\pi, \mu, \Sigma)$ , specifying the model from which the samples  $\mathbf{x}_n$  have most likely been drawn. We may find the parameters which maximize the *likelihood function*  $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} | \theta)$ . To simplify the optimization we use the **log-likelihood function**  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$

$$\begin{aligned} \theta^* &\in \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta) \stackrel{i.i.d.}{=} \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \ln \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{z}_n | \theta) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \ln \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n, \theta) p(\mathbf{z}_n | \theta) = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \ln \prod_{n=1}^N \prod_{k=1}^K (\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k))^{z_{nk}} \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K z_{nk} (\ln \pi_k + \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)). \end{aligned}$$

Note that there is no closed-form solution for this model  $\Rightarrow$  iterative solution.

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## Recall the EM algorithm \*

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- 1: Choose an initial setting for the parameters  $\theta^{(0)}$
- 2:  $t \rightarrow 0$
- 3: **repeat**
- 4:  $t \rightarrow t + 1$
- 5: **E step.** Evaluate  $q^{(t-1)}(\mathbf{Z}) \triangleq p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)})$
- 6: **M step.** Evaluate  $\theta^{(t)}$  given by

$$\theta^{(t)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} Q(\theta, \theta^{(t-1)}),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\theta, \theta^{(t-1)}) &\triangleq \mathbb{E}[\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta) | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)}] \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{Z}} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{(t-1)}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \theta) \end{aligned}$$

- 7: **until** convergence of either the parameters  $\theta$  or the log likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathbf{X})$

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## E step \*

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We need to calculate  $p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \theta^{\text{old}})$ . It is calculated based on  $p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{x}_n, \theta^{\text{old}})$  for all  $n = 1, \dots, N$

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{z}_n | \mathbf{x}_n, \theta^{\text{old}}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{z}_n, \theta^{\text{old}}) p(\mathbf{z}_n | \theta^{\text{old}})}{p(\mathbf{x}_n | \theta^{\text{old}})} \\ &= \frac{\prod_{k=1}^K (\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k))^{z_{nk}} \pi_k^{z_{nk}}}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_l, \Sigma_l)} \\ &= \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_l, \Sigma_l)} \triangleq \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, in the **E step** we need to calculate the *responsibilities*  $\gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)$  for all data points  $\mathbf{x}_n$  and components  $k = 1, \dots, K$ .

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## M step for $\mu$ \*

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We have already known that  $z_{nk} = \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)$ . Therefore, we may consider

$$\theta^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) (\ln \pi_k + \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \pi_k > 0, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1.$$

We calculate the derivative of  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  w.r.t.  $\mu_k$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_k} \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k).$$

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## M step for $\mu$ \*

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Let us now consider the derivative of a Gaussian only

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_k} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\Sigma_k|}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_k} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|2\pi\Sigma_k|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)\right) \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k). \end{aligned}$$

By substituting back and setting the derivative of  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  w.r.t.  $\mu_k$  to 0, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu_k} \mathcal{L}(\theta) &= \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)}{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k) \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) = 0 \\ \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{m=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_m)} &= \mu_k. \end{aligned}$$

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## M step for $\Sigma$ \*

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$$\theta^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) (\ln \pi_k + \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \pi_k > 0, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1.$$

Setting the derivative of  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$  w.r.t.  $\Sigma_k$  to 0, one can obtain (see Exercise)

$$\Sigma_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu_k)^T}{\sum_{m=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_m)}.$$

*Remark:* A  $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$  matrix, calculated as

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu) (\mathbf{x}_n - \mu)^T,$$

is called **sample covariance matrix** of data points  $\{\mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^D\}_{n=1}^N$ , where  $\mu$  is the **sample mean**.

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To integrate the conditions on  $\pi$  we use the **Lagrange multiplier method**

$$\theta^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) (\ln \pi_k + \ln \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)) + \lambda (1 - \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k).$$

Setting the derivative w.r.t.  $\pi_k$  to 0, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)}{\pi_k} - \lambda = 0$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) = \lambda \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k \Rightarrow N = \lambda$$

therefore

$$\pi_k = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)}{N}.$$

- 1: Initialize the means  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ , covariances  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k$  and mixing coefficients  $\pi_k$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, K$
- 2: **repeat**
- 3: **E step.** Evaluate the responsibilities using the current parameter values

$$\gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \pi_l \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_l, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_l)} \quad \text{for } 1 \leq n \leq N \text{ and } 1 \leq k \leq K.$$

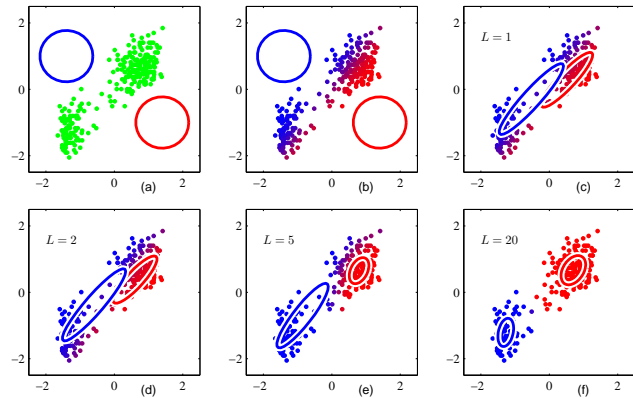
- 4: **M step.** Re-estimate the parameters  $(\pi_k, \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, K$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) \mathbf{x}_n}{\sum_{m=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_m)}, \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n) (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{\text{new}})(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k^{\text{new}})^T}{\sum_{m=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_m)}$$

$$\pi_k^{\text{new}} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_k(\mathbf{x}_n)}{N}$$

- 5: **until** convergence of either the parameters  $\theta$  or the log likelihood  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$

Example \*



Remarks

- The EM algorithm is **not limited** to mixture of Gaussians, but it can also be applied to *other probability distributions*.
- The algorithm does **not** necessary yield global maxima. In practice, it is restarted with *different initializations* and after convergence the result with the highest log-likelihood is chosen.
- One can think the EM algorithm as an **alternating minimization** procedure. Considering  $f(\theta, q)$  as the objective function, one iteration of the EM algorithm can be reformulated as

$$\text{E-step: } q^{(t+1)} \in \operatorname{argmax}_q f(\theta^{(t)}, q)$$

$$\text{M-step: } \theta^{(t+1)} \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} f(\theta, q^{(t)})$$

Introduction to Graphical models

Graphical models

**Probabilistic graphical models** encode a joint  $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  or conditional  $p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x})$  probability distribution such that given some observations we are provided with a full probability distribution over all feasible solutions.

The graphical models allow us to encode relationships between a set of random variables using a concise language, by means of a **graph**.

We will use the following notations

- $\mathcal{V}$  denotes a **set of output variables** (e.g., for pixels) and the corresponding random variables are denoted by  $Y_i$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ .
- The **output domain**  $\mathcal{Y}$  is given by the product of individual variable domains  $\mathcal{Y}_i$  (e.g., a single label set  $\mathcal{L}$ ), that is  $\mathcal{Y} = \times_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \mathcal{Y}_i$ .
- The **input domain**  $\mathcal{X}$  is application dependent (e.g.,  $\mathcal{X}$  is a set of images).
- The **realization**  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}$  means that  $Y_i = y_i$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ .
- $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$  is an (un)directed graph, which encodes the **conditional independence assumption**.

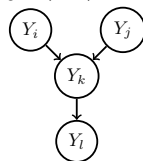
Bayesian networks

Assume a **directed, acyclic** graphical model  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ , where  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$ .

The factorization is given as

$$p(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i \in \mathcal{V}} p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{\text{pa}_G(i)}),$$

where  $p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{\text{pa}_G(i)})$  is a conditional probability distribution on the parents of node  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ , denoted by  $\text{pa}_G(i)$ .



The **conditional independence assumption** is encoded by  $G$  that is a variable is conditionally independent of its non-descendants given its parents.

Example:

$$p(\mathbf{Y}) = p(y_l | y_k) p(y_k | y_i, y_j) p(y_i) p(y_j)$$

$$= p(y_l | y_k) p(y_k | y_i, y_j) p(y_i, y_j) = p(y_l | y_k) p(y_i, y_j, y_k)$$

$$= p(y_l | y_i, y_j, y_k) p(y_i, y_j, y_k) = p(y_i, y_j, y_k, y_l).$$

Markov random field

An *undirected graphical model*  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$  is called **Markov Random Field** (MRF) if two nodes are *conditionally independent* whenever they are *not connected*. In other words, for any node  $i$  in the graph, the **local Markov property** holds:

$$p(Y_i | Y_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \{i\}}) = p(Y_i | Y_{N(i)}),$$

where  $N(i)$  denotes the neighbors of node  $i$  in the graph. Alternatively, we use the following equivalent notation:

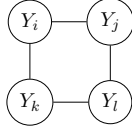
$$Y_i \perp\!\!\!\perp Y_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)} | Y_{N(i)},$$

where  $\text{cl}(i) = N(i) \cup \{i\}$  is the *closed neighborhood* of  $i$ .

Example:

$$Y_i \perp\!\!\!\perp Y_j | Y_k, Y_l \Rightarrow p(y_i | y_j, y_k, y_l) = p(y_i | y_j, y_k), \text{ or}$$

$$p(y_l | y_i, y_j, y_k) = p(y_l | y_j, y_k).$$



A *probability distribution*  $p(\mathbf{y})$  on an *undirected graphical model*  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$  is called **Gibbs distribution** if it can be factorized into potential functions  $\psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) > 0$  defined on cliques (i.e. fully connected subgraph) that cover all nodes and edges of  $G$ . That is,

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c),$$

where  $\mathcal{C}_G$  denotes the set of all (maximal) cliques in  $G$  and

$$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c).$$

is the normalization constant.  $Z$  is also known as **partition function**.

## Examples \*

$\mathcal{C}_{G_1} = \{\{i\}, \{j\}, \{k\}, \{i, j\}, \{j, k\}\}$ , hence

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \psi_i(y_i) \psi_j(y_j) \psi_k(y_k) \psi_{ij}(y_i, y_j) \psi_{jk}(y_j, y_k)$$

$\mathcal{C}_{G_2} = 2^{\{i, j, k, l\}}$  (i.e. all subsets of  $\mathcal{V}_2$ )

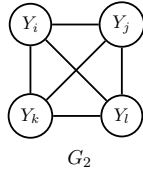
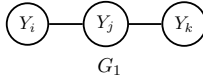
$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in 2^{\{i, j, k, l\}}} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)$$

$$2^{\{i, j, k, l\}} = \{\{i\}, \{j\}, \{k\}, \{l\},$$

$$\{i, j\}, \{i, k\}, \{i, l\}, \{j, k\}, \{j, l\},$$

$$\{i, j, k\}, \{i, j, l\}, \{i, k, l\}, \{j, k, l\},$$

$$\{i, j, k, l\}\}$$



## Hammersley-Clifford theorem

Let  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$  be an *undirected graphical model*. The Hammersley-Clifford theorem tells us that the followings are equivalent:

- $G$  is an MRF model.
- The joint probability distribution  $p(\mathbf{y})$  on  $G$  is a Gibbs-distribution.

An MRF defines a family of **joint probability distributions** by means of an *undirected graph*  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ ,  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$  (there are no self-edges), where the graph encodes *conditional independence assumptions* between the random variables corresponding to  $\mathcal{V}$ .

## Proof of the Hammersley-Clifford theorem (backward direction) \*

Let  $\text{cl}(i) = N_i \cup \{i\}$  and assume that  $p(\mathbf{y})$  follows *Gibbs-distribution*.

$$p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{N_i}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_{N_i})}{p(\mathbf{y}_{N_i})} = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} p(\mathbf{y})}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} p(\mathbf{y})} = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}.$$

Let us define two sets:  $\mathcal{C}_i := \{c \in \mathcal{C}_G : i \in c\}$  and  $\mathcal{R}_i := \{c \in \mathcal{C}_G : i \notin c\}$ . Obviously,  $\mathcal{C}_G = \mathcal{C}_i \cup \mathcal{R}_i$  for all  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ .

$$= \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) \cdot \prod_{d \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_d(\mathbf{y}_d)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) \cdot \prod_{d \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_d(\mathbf{y}_d)}$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) \cdot \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \prod_{d \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_d(\mathbf{y}_d)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c) \cdot \sum_{\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \text{cl}(i)}} \prod_{d \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_d(\mathbf{y}_d)}$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}$$

## Proof of the Hammersley-Clifford theorem (backward direction) \*

$$p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{N_i}) = \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)} \cdot \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{R}_i} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}$$

$$= \frac{\prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}_i} \prod_{c \in \mathcal{C}_G} \psi_c(\mathbf{y}_c)}$$

$$= \frac{p(\mathbf{y})}{p(\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \{i\}})} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \{i\}})}{p(\mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \{i\}})}$$

$$= p(y_i | \mathbf{y}_{\mathcal{V} \setminus \{i\}}).$$

Therefore the *local Markov property* holds for any node  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ .

## Binomial theorem \*

*Reminder:* Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{(n-k)} y^k,$$

where  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$ .

We will use the following identity

$$0 = (1 - 1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k}.$$

*Reminder:* A  **$k$ -combination** of a set  $\mathcal{S}$  is a subset of  $k$  distinct elements of  $\mathcal{S}$ . If  $|\mathcal{S}| = n$ , then number of  $k$ -combinations is equal to  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

## Proof of the Clifford-Hammersley theorem (forward direction) \*

We define a *candidate* potential function for any subset  $s \subseteq \mathcal{V}$  as follows:

$$f_s(\mathbf{Y}_s = \mathbf{y}_s) = \prod_{z \subseteq s} p(\mathbf{y}_z, \mathbf{y}_{\bar{z}}^{*})^{(-1)^{|s|-|z|}}$$

where  $p(\mathbf{y}_z, \mathbf{y}_{\bar{z}}^{*})$  is a strictly positive distribution and  $\mathbf{y}_{\bar{z}}^{*}$  means a fixed (but arbitrary) *default realization* of the variables  $\mathbf{Y}_{\bar{z}}$  for the set  $\bar{z} = \mathcal{V} \setminus \{z\}$ . We will use the following notation:

$$q(\mathbf{y}_z) := p(\mathbf{y}_z, \mathbf{y}_{\bar{z}}^{*}).$$

Assume that the *local Markov property* holds for any node  $i \in \mathcal{V}$ .

First, we show that, if  $s$  is not a clique, then  $f_s(\mathbf{y}_s) = 1$ . For this sake, let us assume that  $s$  is **not** a clique, therefore there exist  $a, b \in s$  that are not connected to each other. Hence

$$f_s(\mathbf{Y}_s = \mathbf{y}_s) = \prod_{z \subseteq s} q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{(-1)^{|s|-|z|}} = \prod_{w \subseteq s \setminus \{a, b\}} \left( \frac{q(\mathbf{y}_w) q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a, b\}})}{q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a\}}) q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{b\}})} \right)^{(-1)^{|s|-|z|}},$$

where  $-1^*$  meaning either 1 or -1 is not important at all.

We have

$$f_s(\mathbf{Y}_s = \mathbf{y}_s) = \prod_{w \subseteq s \setminus \{a,b\}} \left( \frac{q(\mathbf{y}_w) q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a,b\}})}{q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a\}}) q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{b\}})} \right)^{(-1)^{|s|}}$$

$$\frac{q(\mathbf{y}_w)}{q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a\}})} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_w, y_a^*, y_b^*, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)}{p(y_a, \mathbf{y}_w, y_b^*, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)} = \frac{p(y_a^* | \mathbf{y}_w, y_b^*, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)}{p(y_a | \mathbf{y}_w, y_b^*, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)}$$

$$\stackrel{a \perp b}{=} \frac{p(y_a^* | \mathbf{y}_w, y_b, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)}{p(y_a | \mathbf{y}_w, y_b, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_w, y_b, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)}{p(\mathbf{y}_w, y_a, y_b, y_{w \setminus \{a,b\}}^*)} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{b\}})}{q(\mathbf{y}_{w \cup \{a,b\}})}$$

Therefore

$$f_s(\mathbf{Y}_s = \mathbf{y}_s) = \prod_{w \subseteq s \setminus \{a,b\}} 1^{(-1)^{|s|}} = 1 \quad \text{for all } s \notin \mathcal{C}_G .$$

We also show that  $\prod_{s \subseteq \mathcal{V}} f_s(\mathbf{y}_s) = p(\mathbf{y})$ . Consider any  $z \subseteq \mathcal{V}$  and the corresponding factor  $q(\mathbf{y}_z)$ . Let  $n := |\mathcal{V}| - |z|$ .

- $q(\mathbf{y}_z)$  occurs in  $f_z(\mathbf{y}_z)$  as  $q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{(-1)^0} = q(\mathbf{y}_z)$ .
- $q(\mathbf{y}_z)$  also occurs in the functions  $f_s(\mathbf{y}_s)$  for  $s \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ , where  $|s| = |z| + 1$ . The number of such factors is  $\binom{n}{1}$ . The exponent of those factors is  $-1^{|s|-|z|} = -1^1 = -1$ .
- $q(\mathbf{y}_z)$  occurs in the functions  $f_s(\mathbf{y}_s)$  for  $s \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ , where  $|s| = |z| + 2$ . The number of such factors is  $\binom{n}{2}$  and their exponent is  $-1^{|s|-|z|} = -1^2 = 1$ .

If we multiply **all** those factors, we get

$$q(\mathbf{y}_z)^1 q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{-\binom{n}{1}} q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{\binom{n}{2}} \dots q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{(-1)^n \binom{n}{n}} = q(\mathbf{y}_z)^{\binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n}} = q(\mathbf{y}_z)^0 = 1 .$$

So all factors cancel themselves out except of  $q(\mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{y})$ . □

## Summary \*

- A **graphical models** allow us to *encode relationships between a set of random variables* using a concise language, by means of a graph.
- A **Bayesian network** is a *directed acyclic* graphical model  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ , where conditional independence assumption is encoded by  $G$  that is a variable is conditionally independent of its non-descendants given its parents.
- An **MRF** defines a family of **joint probability distributions** by means of an undirected graph  $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ , where the graph encodes conditional independence assumptions between the random variables.

In the **next lecture** we will learn about

- Conditional random field (CRF)
- Binary image segmentation



## Literature \*

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