## Graphical Models in Computer Vision

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## Syllabus

11.04.2016	Introduction
18.04.2016	Graphical Models 1
25.04.2016	Graphical Models 2 (Sand 6/7)
02.05.2016	Graphical Models 3
09.05.2016	Graphical Models 4
23.05.2016	Body Models 1
30.05.2016	Body Models 2
06.06.2016	Body Models 3
13.06.2016	Body Models 4
20.06.2016	Stereo
27.06.2016	Optical Flow
04.07.2016	Segmentation
11.07.2016	Object Detection 1
18.07.2016	Object Detection 2

### Todays topic

- Recap
  - Belief Networks
  - Markov Networks & Markov Random Fields
  - Filter View
  - Factor Graphs
  - Belief Propagation on Trees
- Approximate Inference
  - Loopy Belief Propagation on General Graphs
  - Sampling

#### Belief Networks

#### Belief network

A belief network is a distribution of the form

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_D) = \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i \mid pa(x_i))$$

where pa(x) denotes the parental variables of x



## Markov Networks & Markov Random Fields

#### Markov Network

For a set of variables  $\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_D\}$  a Markov network is defined as a product of potentials over the maximal cliques  $\mathcal{X}_c$  of the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ 

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_D) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{c=1}^{C} \phi_c(\mathcal{X}_c)$$



#### Filter View



- Each graph describes a family of probability distributions
- ► Extremes:
  - Fully connected, no constraints, all p pass
  - no connections, only product of marginals may pass

#### Factor Graphs

▶ Now consider we introduce an extra node (a square) for each factor:



- ► (a) Markov Network
- (b) Factor graph representation of  $\phi(a, b, c)$
- (c) Factor graph representation of  $\phi(a, b)\phi(b, c)\phi(c, a)$
- ▶ Both factor graphs have the same Markov network  $(b,c) \Rightarrow (a)$

#### Factor Graphs

#### Factor Graph

Given a function

$$f(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_i\psi_i(\mathcal{X}_i)$$

the factor graph (FG) has a node (represented by a square) for each factor  $\psi_i(\mathcal{X}_i)$  and a variable node (represented by a circle) for each variable  $x_j$ When used to represent a distribution

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\frac{1}{Z}\prod_i\psi_i(\mathcal{X}_i)$$

a normalization constant Z is assumed.

## Belief Propagation on a Chain

$$\begin{array}{c} a & f_1 \\ \hline b & f_2 \\ \hline c & f_3 \\ \hline d & f_4 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$p(a, b, c, d) = f_1(a, b)f_2(b, c)f_3(c, d)f_4(d)$$

$$p(a, b, c) = \sum_{d} p(a, b, c, d)$$
  
=  $f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) \underbrace{\sum_{d} f_3(c, d) f_4(d)}_{\mu_{d \to c}(c)}$ 

$$p(a,b) = \sum_{c} p(a,b,c) = f_1(a,b) \underbrace{\sum_{c} f_2(b,c) \mu_{d \to c}(c)}_{\mu_{c \to b}(b)}$$

#### Belief Propagation on a Tree

► Idea: compute messages





## Belief Propagation: Finding Marginals

#### Sum-Product Algorithm for Trees

- 1. Initialize messages
- 2. Iterate from leaves of the tree to target variable:
  - ► Factor-to-variable messages ( "sum-product" )

$$\mu_{f \to x}(x) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \prod_{y \in \{\mathsf{ne}(f) \setminus x\}} \mu_{y \to f}(y)$$

• Variable-to-factor messages (at target  $\Rightarrow$  marginal!)

$$\mu_{x \to f}(x) = \prod_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x) \setminus f\}} \mu_{g \to x}(x)$$

- $\mathcal{X}_f$ : Variables that connect to factor f
- ne(x): Factors that connect to variable x
- ▶ If all marginals are desired: 1) leaves  $\rightarrow$  root 2) root  $\rightarrow$  leaves

## Belief Propagation: Find Most Likely State (MAP)

#### Max-Product Algorithm for Trees

- 1. Initialize messages
- 2. Iterate from leaves of the tree to target variable:
  - ► Factor-to-variable messages ("max-product")

$$\mu_{f \to x}(x) = \max_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \prod_{y \in \{\mathsf{ne}(f) \setminus x\}} \mu_{y \to f}(y)$$

► Variable-to-factor messages (at target ⇒ most likely state!)

$$\mu_{x \to f}(x) = \prod_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x) \setminus f\}} \mu_{g \to x}(x)$$

- $\mathcal{X}_f$ : Variables that connect to factor f
- ► *ne*(*x*): Factors that connect to variable *x*
- ▶ If all states are of interest: 1) leaves  $\rightarrow$  root 2) root  $\rightarrow$  leaves

#### Fantastic, this is all very nice!

## BUT ...

Sampling

#### What if the graph is not singly connected?



 $p(a, b, c, d) = f_1(a, b)f_2(b, c)f_3(c, d)f_4(d, a)$ 

What if the graph is not singly connected?

$$p(a, b, c, d) = f_1(a, b)f_2(b, c)f_3(c, d)f_4(d, a)$$

$$p(a, b, c) = \sum_{d} p(a, b, c, d) = f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) \underbrace{\sum_{d} f_3(c, d) f_4(d, a)}_{\mu_{d \to a, c}(a, c)}$$

$$p(a,b) = \sum_{c} p(a,b,c) = f_1(a,b) \underbrace{\sum_{c} f_2(b,c) \, \mu_{d \to a,c}(a,c)}_{\mu_{c \to a,b}(a,b)}$$

$$p(a) = \sum_{b} p(a, b) = \sum_{b} f_1(a, b) \mu_{c \to a, b}(a, b)$$

2D messages now  $\Rightarrow$  simply buy more RAM and wait a bit longer?

#### What if the graph gets bigger?



 $p(all) = f_1(a,b)f_2(b,c)f_3(a,d)f_4(b,e)f_5(c,g)f_6(d,e)$  $f_7(e,g)f_8(d,h)f_9(e,i)f_{10}(g,j)f_{11}(h,i)f_{12}(i,j)$  What if the graph gets bigger?

$$p(all) = f_1(a, b)f_2(b, c)f_3(a, d)f_4(b, e)f_5(c, g)f_6(d, e) f_7(e, g)f_8(d, h)f_9(e, i)f_{10}(g, j)f_{11}(h, i)f_{12}(i, j)$$

$$p(all \setminus \{j\}) = f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(a, d) f_4(b, e) f_5(c, g) f_6(d, e)$$
  
$$f_7(e, g) f_8(d, h) f_9(e, i) f_{11}(h, i) \mu_{j \to i, g}(i, g)$$

$$p(all \setminus \{i, j\}) = f_1(a, b) f_2(b, c) f_3(a, d) f_4(b, e) f_5(c, g) f_6(d, e)$$
  
$$f_7(e, g) f_8(d, h) \mu_{i \to e, h, g}(e, h, g)$$

3D messages now  $\Rightarrow$  this is getting intractable!

How can we handle general loopy graphs?

## Loopy Belief Propagation

• Messages are well defined for loopy graphs:

$$\mu_{x \to f}(x) = \prod_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x) \setminus f\}} \mu_{g \to x}(x)$$

$$\mu_{f \to x}(x) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \prod_{y \in \{\mathsf{ne}(f) \setminus x\}} \mu_{y \to f}(y)$$

- Simply apply them to loopy graphs as well
- We loose exactness ( $\Rightarrow$  approximate inference)
- ► No guarantee of convergence [Yedida et al. 2004]
- But often works astonishingly well in practice
- ► Same algorithm works for trees (exact) as well as for loopy graphs (approximate) ⇒ Programming exercise

Outline of the algorithm:

- ▶ Initialize messages to fixed value (*e.g.*, uniform distribution)
- Perform message updates in fixed or random order
- ► After convergence: Calculate approximate marginals
- ► Note: LBP does not always converge
- ► There exist converging variants: TRW-S [Kolmogorov, PAMI 2006]

Which message passing schedule?

- ► Random or fixed order
- Popular choice:
  - 1. Factors  $\rightarrow$  variables
  - 2. Variables  $\rightarrow$  factors
  - 3. Repeat for N iterations
- Can be run in parallel as factor graph is bipartite:



#### **Sum-Product Belief Propagation**

- ► Goal: Compute marginals of distribution
- Multiplying many double-precision numbers is not a good idea
- Better use log messages  $\lambda(x) = \log \mu(x)$ :
  - Factor-to-variable messages:

 $\mu_{f \to x}(x) = \sum_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \prod_{y \in \mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \mu_{y \to f}(y)$  $\boxed{\lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \log\left(\sum_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \exp\left\{\sum_{y \in \mathsf{ne}(f)} \lambda_{y \to f}(y)\right\}\right)} (1)$ 

- ► Variable-to-factor messages:  $\mu_{x \to f}(x) = \prod_{g \in \{ne(x) \setminus f\}} \mu_{g \to x}(x)$   $\lambda_{x \to f}(x) = \sum_{g \in \{ne(x) \setminus f\}} \lambda_{g \to x}(x)$ (2)
- $\sum_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x}$  : Summation over all states in  $\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x$
- $\sum_{y \in ne(f)}$ : Summation over all incoming messages
- ► To avoid numbers from getting too large, normalize \u03c8<sub>x→f</sub>(x) after the message update (Eq. 2), for example by subtracting its mean

#### Max-Product/Sum Belief Propagation

- ► Goal: Find most likely state (MAP state)
- Very similar to sum-product, only factor-to-variable message changes
- As before, we better use log messages  $\lambda(x) = \log \mu(x)$ :
  - Factor-to-variable messages:

$$\mu_{f \to x}(x) = \max_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \left[ \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) \prod_{y \in \mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \mu_{y \to f}(y) \right]$$

$$\lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \max_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x} \left[ \log \phi_f(\mathcal{X}_f) + \sum_{y \in \mathsf{ne}(f)} \lambda_{y \to f}(y) \right]$$
(3)

► Variable-to-factor messages:  

$$\mu_{x \to f}(x) = \prod_{g \in \{ne(x) \setminus f\}} \mu_{g \to x}(x)$$

$$\lambda_{x \to f}(x) = \sum_{g \in \{ne(x) \setminus f\}} \lambda_{g \to x}(x)$$
(2)

- $\max_{\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x}$ : Maximization over all states in  $\mathcal{X}_f \setminus x$
- $\sum_{y \in ne(f)}$ : Summation over all incoming messages
- ► To avoid numbers from getting too large, normalize λ<sub>x→f</sub>(x) after the message update (Eq. 2), for example by subtracting its mean

## Unary and Pairwise Factor-to-Variable Messages

Factor-to-variable messages simplify as follows if you only consider unary or pairwise factors. Variable-to-factor messages don't simplify.

Sum-Product Belief Propagation:

► Unary factor 
$$\phi_f(x)$$
:  
 $\lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \log \phi_f(x)$ 
(1)  
► Pairwise factor  $\phi_f(x, y)$ :

$$\left| \lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \log \left( \sum_{y} \phi_f(x, y) \exp \left\{ \lambda_{y \to f}(y) \right\} \right) \right|$$

## Max-Product Belief Propagation:

• Unary factor  $\phi_f(x)$ :  $\lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \log \phi_f(x)$ 

► Pairwise factor 
$$\phi_f(x, y)$$
:  
 $\lambda_{f \to x}(x) = \max_y [\log \phi_f(x, y) + \lambda_{y \to f}(y)]$ 

Note: The sum/max here run over all states of variable y!

(1)

(3)

(3)

Let's implement this now! Which data structures to use?

- ► A vector variables containing the #labels each variable can take
- A vector factors; each factor contains:
  - The variable id or id's of the variables it is connected to
  - A vector or matrix storing the factor values for all states
- ▶ A vector of factor-to-variable messages  $(\lambda_{f \to x})$
- A vector of variable-to-factor messages  $(\lambda_{x 
  ightarrow f})$
- Each message contains:
  - The id's of the involved variables, factors and input messages it depends on for enabling quick updates according to the formulas on the previous slide
  - ► The message log values themselves (a vector, length: #labels)
- variables and factors are the inputs to the algorithm
- messages are computed by the algorithm

#### Belief Propagation Algorithm (handles both cases)

- Input: variables and factors
- Allocate all messages
- ▶ Initialize the message log values to 0 (=uniform distribution)
- For N = 10 iterations do
  - ▶ Update all factor-to-variable messages (Eq. 1 or Eq. 3)
  - ▶ Update all variable-to-factor messages (Eq. 2)
  - ► Normalize all variable-to-factor messages:  $\mu_{x \to f}(x) \leftarrow \mu_{x \to f}(x) - \text{mean}(\mu_{x \to f}(x))$
- ► Read off marginal or MAP state at each variable:

$$\lambda(x) = \sum_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x)\}} \lambda_{g \to x}(x) \qquad x^* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x)\}} \lambda_{g \to x}(x)$$
$$p(x) = \exp\{\lambda(x)\} / \sum_{x} \exp\{\lambda(x)\} \qquad x^* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmax}} \sum_{g \in \{\mathsf{ne}(x)\}} \lambda_{g \to x}(x)$$

Recap

## Imagine ...





## Denoising a Binary Image

Can we recover the original image from the noisy observation?





- Let us model this using a MRF!
- ▶ Variables:  $x_1, ..., x_{100} \in \{0, 1\}$
- Unary potentials:  $\psi_1(x_1), \ldots, \psi_{100}(x_{100})$
- $\psi_i(x_i) = [x_i = o_i]$  with observation  $o_i$
- ► Log representation:  $\psi_i(x_i) = \log f_i(x_i)$  $p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_i f_i(x_i) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \{\sum_i \psi_i(x_i)\}$



### Denoising a Binary Image

What will be the outcome of MAP inference with unary factors only?



- Maximizing a MRF with unary factors only is equivalent to maximizing each factor individually (no dependencies)
- Thus the result equals the observation

## Denoising a Binary Image

What can we do?



- Let us look at the clean image again!
- What prior knowledge do we have about this image?
- Smoothness! (Neighboring pixels tend to have the same label)
- ▶ Really? How many neighbors share / don't share their label?
- ▶  $10 \times 10 \times 2 20 = 180$  neighborhood relationships in total
- 34× label transition  $\Rightarrow$  146× same label

### Denoising a Binary Image

#### Introducing a Smoothness Prior



Log representation:

$$p(x) \propto \exp\left\{\sum_{i=1}^{100} \psi_i(x_i) + \sum_{i \sim j} \psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j)\right\}$$

- Variables:  $x_1, ..., x_{100} \in \{0, 1\}$
- ▶ Unary potentials:  $\psi_i(x_i) = [x_i = o_i]$  with pixel observation  $o_i \in \{0, 1\}$
- Pairwise potentials:  $\psi_{ij}(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \cdot [x_i = x_j]$
- $\blacktriangleright$  Parameter  $\alpha$  controls the strength of the smoothing / prior

## Ising Model

## Ising Model (1924)

- Statistical mechanics
- Mathematical model of ferromagnetism
- Magnetic dipole moments of atomic spins
- ► Two states: +1 and -1, arranged in lattice
- ► Allows identification of phase transitions Ernst Ising (1900-1998)
  - Studies in Göttingen, Bonn, Hamburg
  - Investigated simple chain model
  - Grid model solved in 1944 by Osanger
  - School teacher (Caputh, Berlin)
  - Escaped to US (Bradley University, Illinois)





### Denoising a Binary Image

What will the MAP result look like?



- Programming exercise
- Play with smoothness parameters  $\alpha$
- How to set  $\alpha$  in a principled fashion?
- Learn from training data!  $\Rightarrow$  Next week ...
- Next: Approximate inference via sampling

So far:

- ► We learned about one particular deterministic approximation
- ▶ There are other deterministic techniques (overview at end of lecture)
- ► There is also another way of approaching approximate inference:

# Sampling

#### **Deterministic Approximation**

- Approximate the model or inference procedure
- Retrieve a determ. solution to this approximation

#### Stochastic Approximation

- Use the true model / target distribution of interest
- Draw samples to approximate this distribution

## Motivation: Sampling

Many statistical problems involve solving analytically intractable integrals (for example in Bayesian inference with continuous variables and non-conjugate priors). Typical problems that can be solved with sampling:

- ► Normalization:  $p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{\int p(y|x')p(x')dx'}$
- Marginalization:  $p(x|y) = \int p(x, z|y) dz$
- Maximization:  $x^* = \operatorname{argmax}_x p(x|y)$
- Expectation:  $E_p(f(x)) = \int f(x)p(x)dx$

(no integral here)

Examples for functions f(x) in the latter case:

- The expectation:  $\int xp(x)dx$
- The variance:  $\int x^2 p(x) dx (\int x p(x) dx)^2$
- The expected risk:  $\int \operatorname{risk}(x)p(x)dx$

## Monte Carlo Approximation



► The more samples we draw, the better the approximation:

$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}f(x_i)\xrightarrow{N\to\infty}\int f(x)p(x)dx$$

- The estimate is unbiased and will almost surely converge to the right value by the strong law of large numbers
- ► Difficulties: Obtaining uncorrelated samples for fast convergence

### **Basic Sampling Strategies**

- For most (multivariate) standard distributions there exist good sampling algorithms that you can just call in Python/MATLAB
- ► Uniform, Gaussian, Poisson, Dirichlet, Discrete
- But those are usually not the distributions we are interested in
- Our distributions specified by a graphical model are more complex



## So how to sample? Let's look at the simple univariate case first

#### Discrete Case

► Assume distribution: 
$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 0.6 & x = 1 \\ 0.1 & x = 2 \\ 0.3 & x = 3 \end{cases}$$

► Calculate cumulant: 
$$c(y) = \sum_{x \le y} p(x) = \begin{cases} 0.6 & y = 1 \\ 0.7 & y = 2 \\ 1.0 & y = 3 \end{cases}$$

- Draw  $u \sim [0,1]$  using pseudo-random number generator
- Find y such that:  $c(y-1) < u \le c(y)$
- Return state y as sample from p

#### Continuous Case

- Similar to the discrete case
- Compute the cumulant function:

$$c(y)=\int_{-\infty}^{y}p(x)dx$$

- ▶ Sample  $u \sim [0,1] \Rightarrow$  compute  $x = c^{-1}(u)$
- The integral c(y) can be computed analytically or numerically



## Overview: Sampling Methods

- Inverse Transform
- Ancestral Sampling
- Rejection Sampling
- Importance Sampling
- Slice Sampling
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo
  - Metropolis-Hastings
  - Gibbs Sampling
  - Hybrid Monte Carlo
- ▶ Do I need to know them all?
- ► Yes! Most efficient technique depends on model/application
- ► Today "only" the ones in red ;)

- Suppose a p(x) such that direct sampling is not tractable
- ► Furthermore assume we can evaluate p(x) up to a constant (e.g., Markov Networks!):

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{Z}\tilde{p}(x) = \frac{1}{Z}\prod_{c}\phi_{c}(\mathcal{X}_{c})$$

- Sample from a proposal distribution q(x)
- Choose  $q(\cdot)$  which we can easily sample and a k exists with

$$k q(x) \geq \tilde{p}(x) \ \forall x$$

- Sample two random variables:
  - 1.  $z_0 \sim q(x)$
  - 2.  $u \sim [0, kq(z_0)]$  uniform
- Reject sample  $z_0$  if  $u_0 > \tilde{p}(z_0)$



•  $z_0$  from q is accepted with probability  $\tilde{p}(z)/kq(z)$ 

$$p( extsf{accept}) = \int rac{ ilde{p}(z)}{kq(z)} q(z) dz = rac{1}{k} \int ilde{p}(z) dz$$

► k = 1 and  $q(x) = p(x) \Rightarrow p(accept) = 1$ 

• But often:  $p(accept \mid x) = \prod_{i=1}^{D} p(accept \mid x_i) = \mathcal{O}(\gamma^D)$ 

Robot Localization Example

- You bought a vaccum robot for your living room  $(1 \times 1 \text{ m})$
- For proper cleaning, the robot needs to localize itself
- ▶ No prior knowledge on location:  $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{U}([0,1] \times [0,1])$
- Independent measurements:  $d_i |\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{e}_i||, \sigma^2)$

 $p(\mathbf{x}|d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4) \propto p(\mathbf{x})p(d_1|\mathbf{x})p(d_2|\mathbf{x})p(d_3|\mathbf{x})p(d_4|\mathbf{x})$ 



Robot Localization Example

- ▶ The maximum of the unnormalized posterior is 1
- Thus we can choose:  $q(\mathbf{x}) = [0 \le x_1, x_2 \le 1]$



Markov Chain

► Discrete random process with Markov property:

$$P(x_i|x_{i-1},...,x_1) = P(x_i|x_{i-1}) = P(x'|x)$$

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

- We want to sample from  $p(x) = \frac{1}{Z}\tilde{p}(x)$  with Z unknown
- ► Idea: Establish a Markov chain with transition kernel T(x' | x) and with stationary distribution p(x):

$$p(x') = \int_x T(x' \mid x) \, p(x) dx$$

▶ Task: Find T(x' | x) such that p(x) is its stationary distribution!

#### Metropolis-Hastings

- Initialize x and specify proposal distribution q(x'|x)
- Sample x' from q(x'|x) and accept with probability

$$A(x',x) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(x') q(x|x')}{p(x) q(x'|x)}\right) = \min\left(1, \frac{\tilde{p}(x') q(x|x')}{\tilde{p}(x) q(x'|x)}\right)$$

- If accepted:  $x \leftarrow x'$
- ► If not accepted: stay at *x*
- Iterate (sample again)

#### Example: 2D Gaussian



▶ 150 proposal steps, 43 are rejected (red)

#### Why does it work?

Remember the acceptance probability:

$$A(x',x) = \min\left(1, \frac{p(x') q(x|x')}{p(x) q(x'|x)}\right)$$

Let us write down the transition kernel T(x'|x) i.e., the probability to transition the state from x to x':

$$T(x'|x) = q(x'|x) A(x', x) + \delta(x'-x) \int q(\tilde{x}|x) [1 - A(\tilde{x}|x)] d\tilde{x}$$

## Why does it work?

$$\int T(x'|x)p(x)dx = \int \min\{p(x)q(x'|x), p(x')q(x|x')\}dx$$

$$+ \int p(x')q(\tilde{x}|x')[1 - A(\tilde{x}|x')]d\tilde{x}$$

$$= \int \min\{p(x)q(x'|x), p(x')q(x|x')\}dx$$

$$+ p(x') \int q(\tilde{x}|x')d\tilde{x}$$

$$- \int p(x')q(\tilde{x}|x')A(\tilde{x}|x')d\tilde{x}$$

$$= \int \min\{p(x)q(x'|x), p(x')q(x|x')\}dx$$

$$+ p(x')$$

$$- \int \min\{p(x')q(\tilde{x}|x'), p(\tilde{x})q(x'|\tilde{x})\}d\tilde{x}$$

$$= p(x')$$

#### Why does it work?

Other requirements that need to be fulfilled:

- Irreducibility: Any state x' can be reached by any other state x in a finite number of steps
- Aperiodicity: The occurrence of states is not restricted to periodic events (any state may occur at any time).

## Example: Irreducibility



• q(x'|x) needs to be able to bridge the gap

Robot Localization Example

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- $\blacktriangleright$  Now inferring 2 variables: location  ${\bf x}$  and sensor noise  $\sigma$
- ▶ Uniform prior on location:  $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{U}([0,1] \times [0,1])$
- Uniform prior on sensor noise:  $\sigma \sim \mathcal{U}(0.01, 0.5)$
- Measurements depend on  $\sigma$ :  $d_i | \mathbf{x}, \sigma \sim \mathcal{N}( \| \mathbf{x} \mathbf{e}_i \|, \sigma^2)$

$$(\mathbf{x}, \sigma | d_1, \dots d_{16}) \propto p(\mathbf{x}) p(\sigma) p(d_1 | \mathbf{x}, \sigma) \cdots p(d_{16} | \mathbf{x}, \sigma)$$

$$\propto [0 \le x_1, x_2 \le 1] \times [0.01 \le \sigma \le 0.5]$$

$$\times \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{16} [\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{e}_i\| - d_i]^2\right)}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^8}$$

$$(2\pi\sigma^2)^8$$

#### Robot Localization Example



## Gibbs Sampling

Special case of MH Sampling:

- Cyclic MH kernel that updates one variable at a time
- ► Sample directly from the full conditional distribution

$$q(x'|x) = p(x_k|x_1, ..., x_{k-1}, x_{k+1}, ..., x_D)$$

- ► Samples get accepted with probability 1 (exercise)
- But: conditionals must be easy to sample from!
- Danger of slow convergence and non-irreducibility:



## Approximate Inference Overview

#### Deterministic Inference

- Junction Tree (not approximate but intractable)
- Loopy Belief Propagation
- Variational Approximation
- Expectation Propagation
- Mean field
- Gradient Descent
- ► ...
- Sampling
  - Rejection Sampling
  - Slice Sampling
  - Metropolis-Hastings Sampling
  - Gibbs Sampling
  - ▶ ...

#### Next Time ...

- Learning
- ► And after that: Computer Vision, finally!
- ▶ No more toy examples, but real stuff promised ;)