

1 Discrete Value Markov Random Fields

A serious disadvantage of Markov chain structures is that they lead to image models that are not isotropic. This is due to the fact that one must choose a 1-D ordering of the pixels. In fact for most applications, there is not natural 1-D ordering for the pixels in a plain.

Markov random fields (MRF) have been introduced as a class of image models that do not require a 1-D ordering of the image pixels, and therefore can produce more natural and isotropic image models. However, as we will see the disadvantage of MRF models is that problems such as parameter estimation can be much more difficult do to the intractable nature of the required normalizing constant. The key theorem required to work around this limitation is the Hammersley-Clifford Theorem which will be presented in detail. The following sections explain the theory and methods associated with discrete valued MRFs.

1.1 Definition of MRF and Gibbs Distributions

Before we can define an MRF, we must first define the concept of a neighborhood system. Let S be a set of lattice points with elements $s \in S$. Then we use the notation ∂s to denote the neighbors of s . Notice that ∂s is a subset of S , so the function ∂ is a mapping from S to power set of S , or equivalently the set of all subsets of S denoted by 2^S .

However, not any mapping ∂s qualifies as a neighborhood system. In order for ∂s to be a neighborhood system, it must meet the following symmetry constraint.

Definition 1 (Neighborhood system) *Let S be a lattice of points, then any mapping $\partial : S \rightarrow 2^S$ is a neighborhood system if for all $s, r \in S$*

$$r \in \partial s \Rightarrow s \in \partial r \quad \text{also } s \notin \partial s$$

In other words, if r is a neighbor of s , then s must be a neighbor of r . Notice that this definition is not restricted to a regular lattice. However, if the lattice S is a regular lattice, and the neighborhood is spatially invariant, then symmetry constraint necessitates that the neighbors of a point must

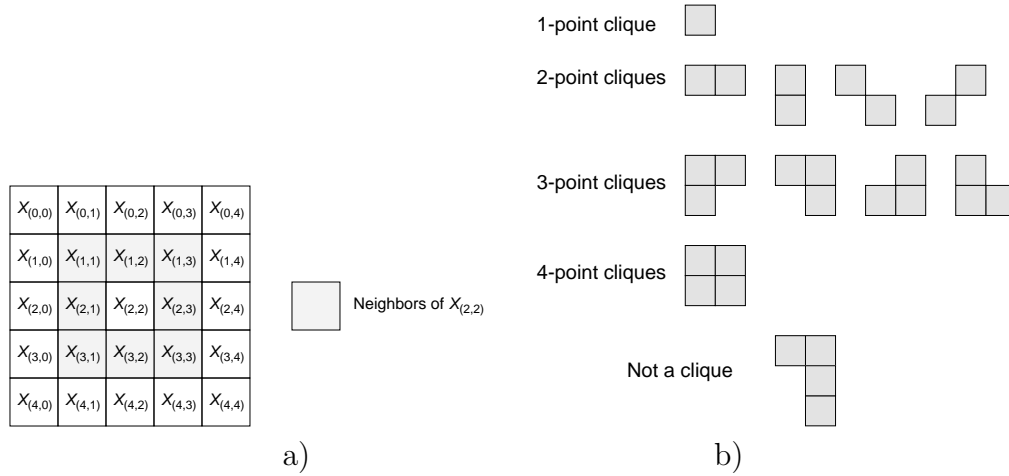


Figure 1: An eight point a) neighborhood system, and b) its associated cliques.

be symmetrically distributed about each pixel. Figure 1a) shows such a symmetric 8-point neighborhood.

We may now give a general definition for MRFs.

Definition 2 (Discrete(Continuous) Markov Random Field) Let $X_s \in \Omega$ be a discrete(continuous) valued random field defined on the lattice S with neighborhood system ∂s . Further assume that the X has probability mass(density) function $p(x)$. Then we say that X is a Markov random field (MRF) if its density function has the property that for all $x \in \Omega$

$$p(x_s | x_r \text{ for } r \neq s) = p(x_s | x_{\partial r}) .$$

Notice that each pixel on is only dependent on its neighbors.

A limitation of MRFs is that their definition does not yield a natural method for writing down the MRF's distribution. For this purpose, we will need to introduce the Gibbs distribution. We start by defining the concept of cliques which will be an integral part of the structure of Gibbs distributions.

Definition 3 (Clique) Given a lattice S and neighborhood system ∂s , a clique is any set of lattice points $c \subset S$ such that for all $s, r \in c$, $r \in \partial s$.

Cliques are sets of point which are all neighbors of one another. Examples of cliques for an eight point neighborhood system on a rectangular are illustrated in Figure 1b) With this definition of cliques, we may now define the concept of a Gibbs distribution.

Definition 4 (Discrete (Continuous) Gibbs Distribution) *Let $p(x)$ be the probability mass(density) function of a discrete(continuous) valued random field $X_s \in \Omega$ defined on the lattice S with neighborhood system ∂s . Then we say that $p(x)$ is a Gibbs distribution if it can be written in the form*

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{Z} \exp \left\{ - \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} V_c(x_c) \right\}$$

where \mathcal{C} is the set of all cliques, Z is known as the **partition function**, and $V_c(x_c)$ are any functions, of x_c .

We sometimes refer to the function $V_c(x_c)$ as a *potential function* and the function

$$U(x) = \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} V_c(x_c)$$

as the **energy function**.

The important result that relates MRFs and Gibbs distributions is the Hammersley-Clifford Theorem[1] stated below.

Theorem 1 Hammersley-Clifford Theorem

Let X be a discrete(continuously) valued MRF, and let $p(x)$ be its probability mass(density) function each with lattice S and neighborhood system ∂s . Then X is an MRF if and only if $p(x)$ is a Gibbs distribution.

1.2 1-D MRFs and Markov Chains

1.3 The Ising Model and

2 Simulation

2.1 Stationary Distributions of Markov Chains

In this section, we present the basic results of Markov chain theory that we will need to analyze simulation methods [3]. The fundamental concept is that a well behaved Markov chain will eventually reach a stable stationary distribution after the transient behavior dies away. The objective will be to define the technical conditions that ensure that this happens.

Let $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ be a discrete valued and discrete state stationary Markov chain taking values in the set Ω . Define the notation $\pi_j^{(n)} = P\{X_n = j\}$, then the probability mass function of the Markov chain has the property

$$\pi_j^{(n+1)} = \sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_i^{(n)} P_{i,j} . \quad (1)$$

Using matrix notation, we can also write

$$\pi^{(n+1)} = \pi^{(n)} P \quad (2)$$

where P is a matrix with rows that sum to 1. Repeated application of (2) results in the equation

$$\pi_j^{(n+m)} = \sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_i^{(n)} P_{i,j}^m . \quad (3)$$

where $P_{i,j}^m$ is defined by the recursion

$$P_{i,j}^{m+1} = \sum_{k \in \Omega} P_{i,k}^m P_{k,j} .$$

We next define a number of properties for stationary Markov chains that we will need.

Definition 5 *Communicating states*

The states $i, j \in \Omega$ of a Markov chain are said to communicate if there exists integers n and m such that $P_{i,j}^n > 0$ and $P_{j,i}^m > 0$.

Intuitively, two states communicate if it is possible to transition between the two states. It is easily shown that communication is an equivalence property, so it partitions the set of states into disjoint sets that all communicate with each other. This leads to a natural definition for irreducible Markov chains.

Definition 6 *Irreducible*

A discrete time discrete state stationary Markov chain is said to be irreducible if for all $i, j \in \Omega$ there exists an integer n such that $P_{i,j}^n > 0$.

So a Markov chain is irreducible if it can move from any initial state to any other state in finite time.

In some cases, a state of a Markov chain may repeat periodically. This type of periodic repetition can last indefinitely.

Definition 7 *Periodic states*

We denote the period of a state $i \in \Omega$ by the value $d(i)$ where $d(i)$ is the largest integer so that $P_{i,i}^n = 0$ whenever n is not divisible by $d(i)$. If $d(i) > 1$, then we say that the state i is periodic.

It can be shown that states of a Markov chain that communicate must have the same period. Therefore, all the states of an irreducible Markov chain must have the same period. We say that the an irreducible Markov chain is aperiodic if all the states have period 1.

Using these definitions, we may now state a theorem which gives basic conditions for convergence of the distribution of the Markov chain.

Theorem 2 *Limit Theorem for Markov Chains*

Let $X_n \in \Omega$ be a discrete-state discrete-time homogeneous Markov chain with transition probabilities $P_{i,j}$ and the following additional properties

- Ω is a finite set
- The Markov chain is irreducible
- The Markov chain is aperiodic

There exists a unique stationary distribution π , which for all states i is given by

$$\pi_j = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{i,j}^n > 0 \quad (4)$$

and which is the unique solution to the following set of equations.

$$1 = \sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_i \quad (5)$$

$$\pi_j = \sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_i P_{i,j} . \quad (6)$$

The relations of (6) are sometimes called the full balance equations (FBE). Any probability density which solves the FBE is guaranteed to be the stationary distribution of the Markov chain. Furthermore, in the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the Markov chain is guaranteed to converged to this stationary distribution independently of the initial state. Markov chains that have this property of (4) are said to be *ergodic*. It can be shown that for ergodic Markov chains,

expectations of state variables can be replaced by time averages, which will be very useful in later sections.

Theorem 2 gives relatively simple conditions to establish that a Markov chain has a stationary distribution. However, while it may be known that a stationary distribution exists, it may be very difficult to compute the solution of the FBEs to determine the precise form of that distribution. It is often useful to use the property of reversibility as a method to solve this problem. First we must show that the time reverse of a Markov chain is itself a Markov chain.

Proposition 1 *Time Reverse of Markov Chains*

Let $\{X_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ be a Markov Chain. Then the time reversed process $Y_n = X_{-n}$ is also a Markov chain.

Since the time reversal of a Markov chain is also a Markov chain, it must also have a transition distribution which we denote as $Q_{i,j}$. Therefore, we know that

$$P\{X_n = i, X_{n+1} = j\} = \pi_i^n P_{i,j} = \pi_j^{n+1} Q_{j,i} .$$

If the Markov chain has a stationary distribution, then $\pi = \pi^n = \pi^{n+1}$, and we have that

$$\pi_i P_{i,j} = \pi_j Q_{j,i} .$$

Furthermore, if the Markov chain is reversible, then we know that $P_{i,j} = Q_{i,j}$. This yields the so-called detailed balance equations (DBE).

$$\pi_i P_{i,j} = \pi_j P_{j,i} \tag{7}$$

The DBE specify that the rate of transitions from state i to state j equals the rate of transitions from state j to i . This is always the case when a Markov chain is reversible.

Definition 8 *Reversible Markov Chains*

A Markov chain with transition probabilities $P_{i,j}$ is said to be reversible if there exists a stationary distribution which solves the detailed balance equations of (7).

Notice that if one finds a solution to the DBE, then this solution must also be a solution to the FBE, and is therefore the stationary distribution of an

ergodic Markov chain. To see this

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_i P_{i,j} &= \sum_{i \in \Omega} \pi_j P_{j,i} \\ &= \pi_j \sum_{i \in \Omega} P_{j,i} \\ &= \pi_j\end{aligned}$$

Finally, it is useful to study the convergence behavior of Markov chains. Let us consider the case when the Markov chains state Ω is finite. In this case, we may use a matrix representation for P . We know that any matrix P may be diagonalized using eigen decomposition and expressed in the form

$$P = E^{-1} \Lambda E$$

where the rows of E are the left hand eigenvectors of P , and Λ is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues. Using this decomposition, we can see that

$$\begin{aligned}P^m &= P^{m-2} E^{-1} \Lambda E^{-1} E \Lambda E \\ &= P^{m-2} E^{-1} \Lambda^2 E \\ &= E^{-1} \Lambda^m E\end{aligned}$$

So the distribution at time n is given by

$$\pi^{(n)} = \pi^{(0)} E^{-1} \Lambda^n E$$

When P corresponds to a irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain, then it must have a stationary distribution. In this case, exactly one of the eigenvalues is 1, and the remaining eigenvalues have magnitude strictly less than 1. In this way, we can see that the distribution of $\pi^{(n)}$ converges geometrically to its stationary distribution π .

2.2 The Gibbs Sampler

In this section, we introduce the Gibbs sampler first presented in [2]. The Gibbs sample is a general method for producing samples from a distribution. It is particularly useful when the distribution being sampled is a Gibbs distribution, and the resulting samples form a Markov random field.

Let X_s be a finite dimensional random field that takes on values in a discrete and finite set Ω for all $s \in S$. If we assume that the distribution

of X is strictly positive, then without loss of generality, we know that the distribution of X can be written in the form

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{z} \exp\{-u(x)\} \quad (8)$$

where $u(x)$ is a real valued function. In fact, it is always possible to choose the neighbors of each pixel so that $\partial s = S$. In this case, the entire lattice S forms a clique, (8) is then a Gibbs distribution, and X is an MRF with a degenerate neighborhood system. In any case, the marginal distribution of a pixel can be written as

$$p(x_s | x_i, i \neq s) = \frac{\exp\{-u(x_s | x_i, i \neq s)\}}{\sum_{x'_s \in \Omega} \exp\{-u(x'_s | x_i, i \neq s)\}} \quad (9)$$

We can generate samples from the distribution of (8) by using the following Gibbs sampler algorithm.

Gibbs Sampler Algorithm:

1. Set $N = \#$ of pixels
2. Order the N pixels as $N = s(0), \dots, s(N-1)$
3. Repeat for $k = 0$ to ∞
 - (a) Form $X^{(k+1)}$ from $X^{(k)}$ via

$$X_r^{(k+1)} = \begin{cases} W & \text{if } r = s(k) \\ X_r^{(k)} & \text{if } r \neq s(k) \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } W \sim p\left(x_{s(k)} \mid X_i^{(k)}, i \neq s(k)\right)$$

We next show that the Gibbs sampler converges to the distribution of (8).

Theorem 3 *Stationary Distribution of Gibbs Sampler*

Let $p(x)$ be strictly positive distribution on Ω^N where Ω is a discrete and finite set. Then the Gibbs Sampler Algorithm converges to a stationary distribution with

$$p(x) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} P\{X^{(k)} = x\}.$$

Let X have a strictly positive distribution

Notice that in the special case that $P_{i,j} > 0$ for all $i, j \in \Omega$, then the Markov chain is guaranteed to be both irreducible and aperiodic. This leads to the following useful corollary.

Theorem 4 *Limit Theorem 1 for Markov Chains* Let X_n be a discrete-state discrete-time homogeneous Markov chain such that

- Ω is a finite set
- $P_{i,j} > 0$ for all $i, j \in \Omega$

Then exists a unique stationary distribution

References

- [1] J. Besag. Spatial interaction and the statistical analysis of lattice systems. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society B*, 36(2):192–236, 1974.
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- [3] S. M. Ross. *Stochastic Processes*. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1983.