CSCI E-82a Probabilistic Programming and Al Lecture 1 Directed Graphical Models

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How can we make inferences in an uncertain environment?

- Example; sensor fusion for a self-driving car
- Example; Locate robot while mapping environment
- Example; make a decision given uncertain information
- Need compute the posterior of multivariate probability distribution:

$$p(x_1, x_2, ... x_n)$$

- Or, compute maximum a posteriori (MAP)
- Process of inference

Are directed graphical models interpretable?

- Allow experts to include prior information!
- Provide a language to describe the relationship between variables
- Can easily query conditional probability tables (CPTs)
- But, can non-experts really understand these models?
 - Making the model results transparent to non-experts is a research area

We want the **posterior distribution** of one or more variables

- How to compute this query efficiently?
- Direct tabular representation O(n²) complexity
- Can do (much) better factoring distribution by conditional independencies
 - Discuss complexity of inference later
- Directed graphical model is a representation of a distribution factored by conditional independencies

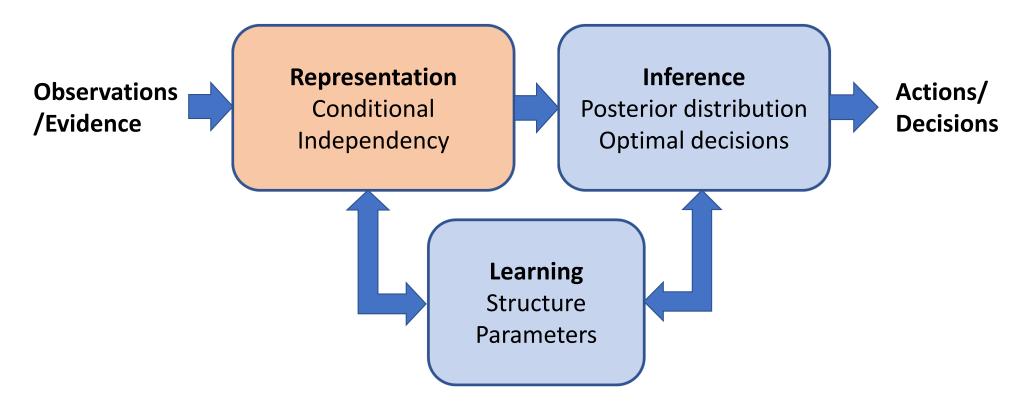
Directed graphical models are generative

- Define probability distribution with DAG
- DAG is expressive in terms of independency structure
- Generate realizations from that distribution

How much data do we need for learning?

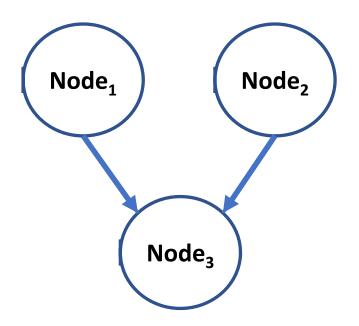
- Learning is both hard and easy
- Model parameters (CPTs) improve with data
 - Does not take very much data
 - Can use prior or expert information
 - Not all variables need to be observable
 - Can deal with missing values
- Learning model structure is hard!
 - Requires massive data
 - Or, expert input
- Discuss learning in another lesson

Focus on representation with graphical models



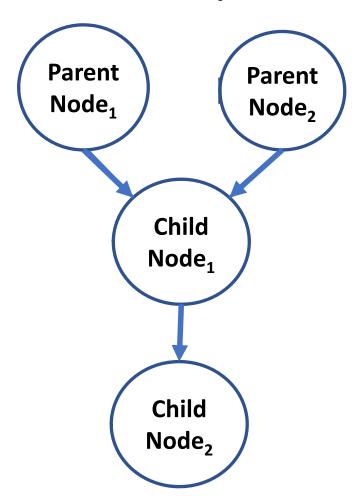
Schematic of intelligent agent using directed graphical model

Some Graph Terminology: Nodes and edges



- Nodes or vertices contain conditional probability distributions (CPD)
- Undirected edges define the connectivity between the nodes or the skeleton of the graph
- Nodes connected by edges are neighbors
- Information or influence flows along directed edges

Some Graph Terminology: Relationships



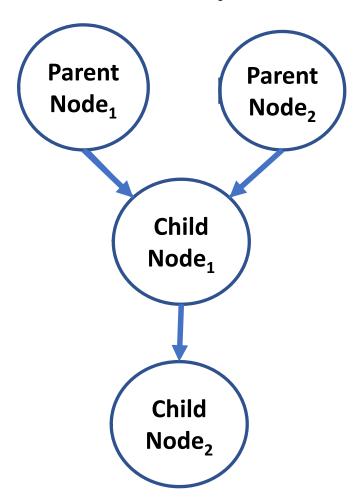
- Parent nodes have directed edges to, and influence, child nodes
- Child nodes are descendants of parents
- Ancestors are parents, grand parents, etc.
- Example; express ancestors of child node2:

$$PA(CN_2) = \{PN_1, PN_2, CN_1\}$$

- **Decedents** are nodes receiving influence
- Example; express decedents of parent node 1:

$$DE(PN_1) = \{CN_1, CN_2\}$$

Some Graph Terminology: Degree of nodes



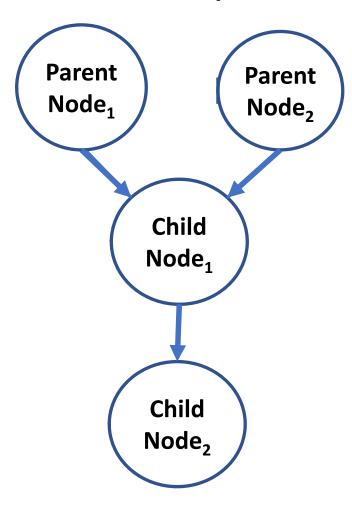
- Degree of a node is the number of neighbors
- Example **in degree** of a child node 1 can be expressed:

$$IN(CN_1) = 2$$

• Example **out degree** of a child node 1 can be expressed:

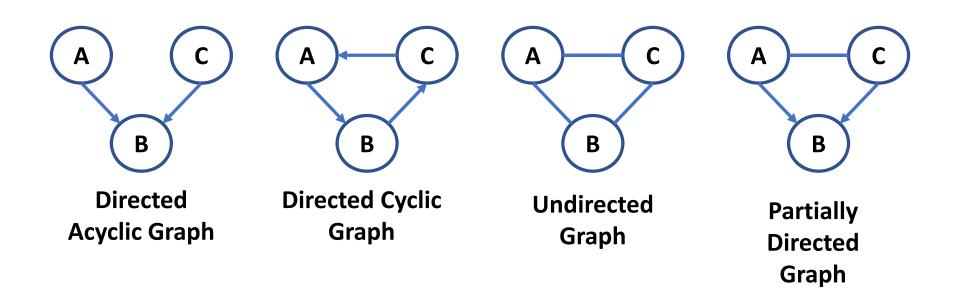
$$OUT(CN_1) = 1$$

Some Graph Terminology: Special nodes



- A root node has no ancestors
 Root nodes = {PN₁, PN₂}
- A Leaf node has no children
 Leaf node = {CN₂}

Some Graph Terminology: Types of graphs



We need to model the independency structure of a multivariate probability distribution

$$p(x_1, x_2, ... x_n)$$

- We use the notation I(p) to represent the independency structure of the distribution
- We use the notation I(G) to represent the independency structure of the graphical model
- Is it possible to have:

$$I(p) = I(G)$$

• In general no, but we can still get a useful model

Factorizing a distribution greatly reduces computational complexity

 A bivariate distribution can be factored as a conditional probability distribution and an unconditional probability distribution:

$$P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

Notice that the factorization is not unique

Factorizing a distribution greatly reduces computational complexity

- The chain rule of probability is the key to factorizing a multivariate distribution
- First, a multivariate distribution can be factored:

$$P(A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, ..., A_n) = P(A_1 | A_2, A_3, A_4, ..., A_n) P(A_2, A_3, A_4, ..., A_n)$$

Continue factoring on the right hand side eventually yields:

$$= P(A_1|A_2, A_3, A_4, \dots, A_n) P(A_2|A_3, A_4, \dots, A_n) P(A_3|A_4, \dots, A_n) \dots P(A_n)$$

Factorizing a distribution greatly reduces computational complexity

- Factorization using the chain rule of probability is not unique
- For example, the multivariate distribution can be factored:

$$P(A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 \dots, A_n)$$

$$= P(A_n | A_{n-1}, A_{n-2}, A_{n-3}, \dots, A_1) P(A_{n-1} | A_{n-2}, A_{n-3}, \dots, A_1) P(A_{n-2} | A_{n-3}, \dots, A_1)$$

$$\dots p(A_1)$$

Independencies in Directed Graphical Models Factorizing a distribution greatly reduces computational complexity

• Factorization can be performed in any other order, which can be expressed generally as the product of conditional distributions:

$$P(\bigcap_{k=1}^{n} A_k) = \prod_{k=1}^{n} p(A_k \Big| \bigcap_{j=1}^{k-1} A_j)$$

Unfortunately, finding the best factorization is an NP complete problem

Independencies in Directed Graphical Models Factorizing a distribution greatly reduces computational complexity

- For a directed graph the choice of parents determines the semantics
- The factorization of the entire distribution are defined by global semantics of the DAG
- The global semantics are expressed:

$$P(X) = \prod_{i=1:d} P(X_i | \{parents(X_i)\})$$

Distribution Factorization Example

Example of Factorizing a distribution for probabilities that a student getting a job based on GRE score and letter of recommendation

- A student is seeking a job as a machine learning engineer
- The employer will make a hiring decision based on her GRE score and the quality of a letter of recommendation from her machine learning course professor
- The student's GRE score is only dependent on her intelligence
- The student's grade in the machine learning course is dependent on both her intelligence and the difficulty of the course
- Unfortunately, the professor is absent minded and will base her letter only on the student's grade

Distribution Factorization Example

Example of Factorizing a distribution for probabilities that a student getting a job based on GRE score and letter of recommendation

The joint discrete distribution is: P(D, I, S, G, L)

 $D = \{0,1\}$, difficulty of the student's machine learning course

 $I = \{0,1\}$, intelligence of the student

S = {0,1}, student's GRE score

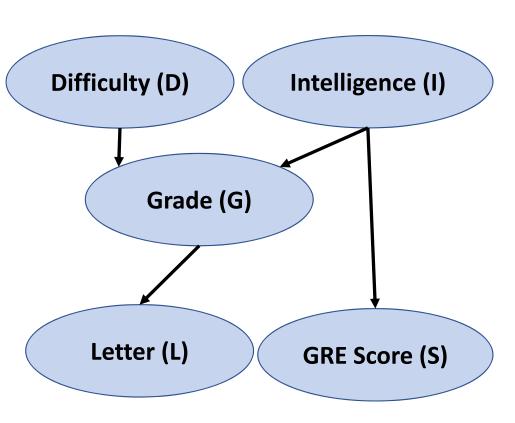
G = {0,1,2}, student's grade in the machine learning course

L = {0,1}, quality of machine learning professor's recommendation letter

• The full table of the join discrete distribution is comparatively large:

$$2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 = 48$$
 cases

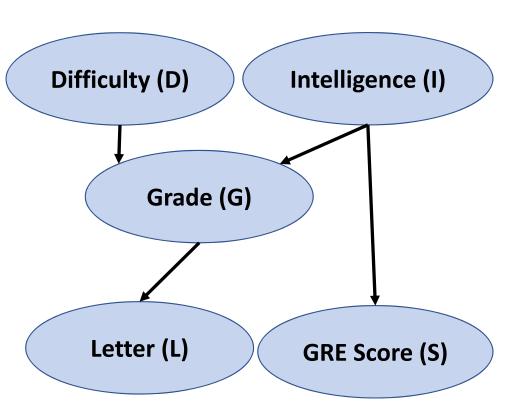
Distribution Factorization Example Use conditional probability tables (CPTs) to factor distribution



- Difficulty, D, and Intelligence, I, are independent of all other variables
- Grade, G, depends on Difficulty and Intelligence
- GRE Score, S, depends only on intelligence
- Quality of Letter, L, depends only on the grade

Distribution Factorization Example

Use conditional probability tables (CPTs) to factor distribution



The **semantics** of the graphical model are:

$$D \perp I, S, G, L$$

$$I \perp D, S, G, L$$

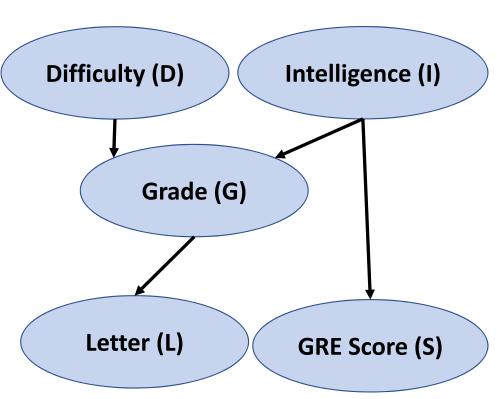
$$G \perp S, L \mid I, D$$

$$S \perp G, D, L \mid I$$

$$L \perp I, S, L \mid G$$

Distribution Factorization Example

What have we gained by factoring the distribution?



 The joint distribution can now be expressed:

$$P(D, I, S, G, L) =$$

$$P(D) P(I) P(S|I) P(G|I, D) P(L|G)$$

- One joint table replaced with 5 CPTs
- Largest table is now:

$$2 \times 2 \times 3 = 12$$
 cases

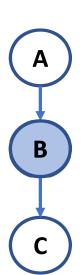
Total cases in all tables:

$$2 + 2 + 12 + 6 + 4 = 26$$

 For large scale problem reduction in table size can be orders of magnitude!

- How can we define the local directed graph structures that define independencies?
- There are only 4 types of structure that determine independency properties
- These are considered local independencies expressed by local semantics
- **Definition:** The **local semantics** of a DAG specifies that each node is conditionally independent of its non-descendants given its parents
- Understanding these local semantics enables analysis of complex graphs globally

There are 4 types of graph structures that govern independencies

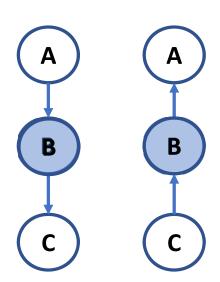


A cascade structure, or causal relationship:

$$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$$

- However, if **B** is observed then A and C are conditionally independent, $A \perp C \mid B$

There are 4 types of graph structures that govern independencies



- Reversing the arrows does not change the independencies
- Gives an evidential structure:

$$C \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$$

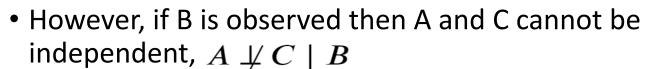
- In general A and C are not independent, $A \perp\!\!\!\! \perp C$
- However, if **B** is observed then A and C are conditionally independent, $A \perp C \mid B$
- Independencies, I(G), for a graphical models are not unique

There are 4 types of graph structures that govern independencies

• A common cause, or common parent relationship:

$$B \rightarrow A$$
 and $B \rightarrow C$

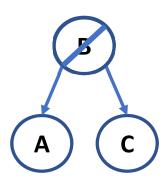
• In general A and C are **independent**, $A \perp C$ or $P(A, B, C) = P(A \mid B) \ P(C \mid B) \ P(B)$



• If B is marginalized out, then:

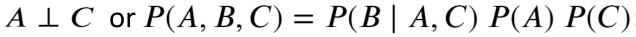
$$\sum_{B} p(A, B, C) = p(A) \ p(B)$$

Or $A \perp B \mid marginal(B)$



There are 4 types of graph structures that governindependencies

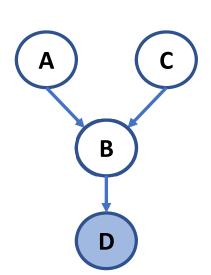
- A common evidence, v-structure, or collider
- In general A and C are unconditionally independent, $A + C = P(A \mid P \mid C) = P(P \mid A \mid C) P(A) P(C)$



• However, if B is observed then A and C cannot be independent, $A \not\perp C \mid B$ or,

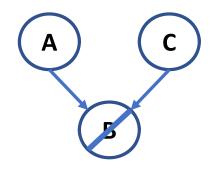
$$P(A, B, C) = P(A, C \mid B)P(B) = P(A \mid B) P(C \mid B)P(B)$$

 The above indecencies applies to ancestors of the vstructure



There are 4 types of graph structures that govern independencies

- A common evidence, v-structure, or collider
- If B is marginalized out, then:



$$\sum_{B} p(A, B, C) = p(A) \ p(B)$$

Or
$$A \perp B \mid marginal(B)$$

- We have looked at simple rules for local independencies
- How do we extend these concepts to complex graphs?
- Use the concept of **D-separation**:

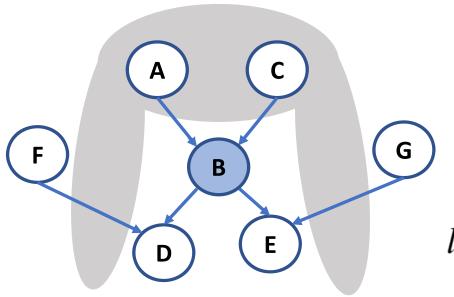
Definition: Given subsets *X*, *Y* and *Z*, *X* and *Y* are conditionally independent or **D-separated** conditioned on the subset *Z* if they are separated on the moralized graph.

- We can say that, X and Y are D-separated if all paths between them in Z are blocked
- We can state d-separation in terms of the local Markov assumption:

$$I(G) = \{X \perp Z \mid Y : dsep_G(X : Z|Y)\}$$

Note: we will discuss moralization of graphs in the next lecture

Relating local semantics to global semantics



- By local semantics the a node is conditionally independent of its nondescendants.
- The local semantics map to the global semantics and vice versa

 $local\ semantics \iff global\ semantics$

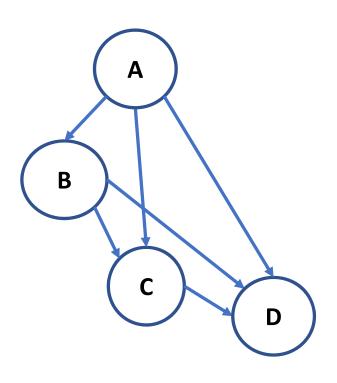
Independence map

Definition: A DAG, G, is an **independence map** or **I-map** of a distribution P if $I_l(G) \subseteq I(P)$, where I(P) is the set of independencies of the distribution P and $I_l(G)$ is the set of independencies of the DAG. We can express this relationship as:

$$(X \perp Y \mid Z_G) \Rightarrow (X \perp Y \mid Z_P)$$

• This relationship is not unique and there are can be multiple graphs for which $I_l(G)\subseteq I(P)$

Fully connected DAG is an I-map for any distribution



- This means we can always create a DAG, G, which is an I-map of any distribution, P, such that, $I_l(G) \subseteq I(P)!$
- But, a more compact representation is a minimal independence map

Definition: A DAG, G, is a **minimal I-map** for a distribution P if removal of even a single edge renders G not an I-map.

Dependency map

Definition: A graph G is a **dependency map** or **D-map** of a distribution P if the graph contains every conditional independence in P.

We can represent this relationship as:

$$(X \perp Y \mid Z_G) \Leftarrow (X \perp Y \mid Z_P)$$

Perfect map

Definition: If a graph G is **both an I-map and a D-map** of a distribution P we say that G is a **prefect map** of P.

We can write this relationships as:

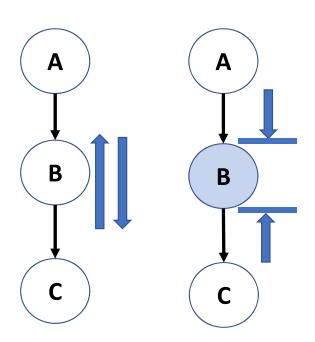
$$(X \perp Y \mid Z_G) \Leftrightarrow (X \perp Y \mid Z_P)$$

- It would be nice if a graph were a perfect map of a distribution
- This will rarely be the case in real world problems.
- Thus, a perfect map is mostly useful as a reference point in developing probabilistic graphical models.

Two subsets of variables, X and Y are **D-separated if there is no active trail or path** though the subset Z between them Is there a way to determine if a **path or trail is blocked or active**?

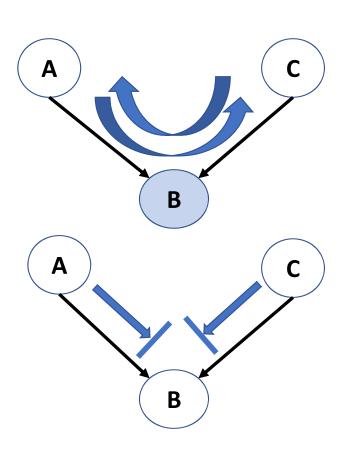
- The Bayes' ball algorithm determines if a path is active
- The ball rolls along a path
 - If the ball can complete the path, it is active
 - If the ball is blocked so is the path
- There are only a few simple rules to the Bayes' ball algorithm

Rules for the Bayes' ball algorithm: Causal trail or evidential trail



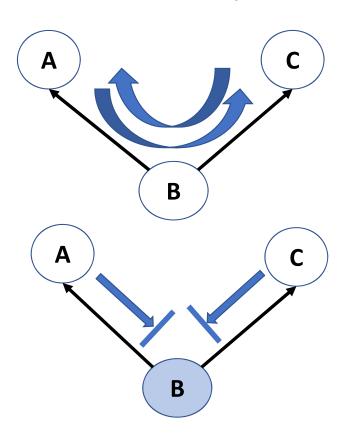
- For a causal relationship or evidential structure:
- The ball can roll through: if B is not observed the path is active
- If B is observed the path is blocked

Rules for the Bayes' ball algorithm: Common cause trail



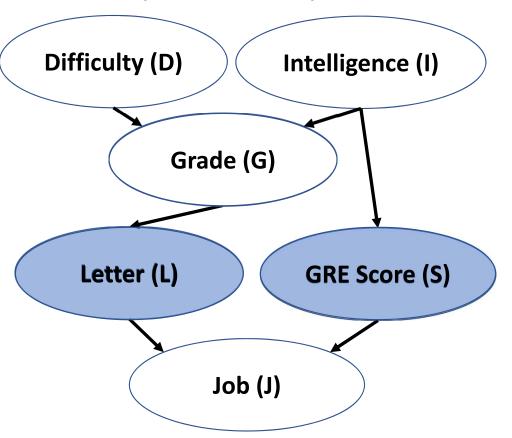
- For a V-structure or common evidence:
- The ball can roll through: if B is observed the path is active
- If B not is observed the path is blocked

Rules for the Bayes' ball algorithm: Common effect trail



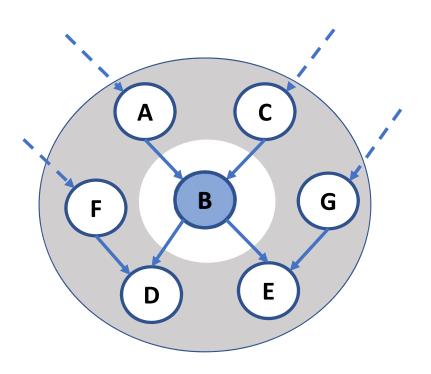
- For a common cause or common parent:
- The ball can roll through: if B is not observed the path is blocked
- If B is observed the path is blocked

Examples of D-separation on a graph



- Let $X = \{D\}, Y = \{I\}, Z = \{G\}$
- If G is not observed, X and Y are D-separated
- Or, let X = {D, I, G}, Y = {J}, and Z = {L,S}
- If L and S are observed then X and Y are D-separated

For a DAG, any node is conditionally independent or all others given its **Markov Blanket**



The Markov blanket includes:

- Parents
- Children
- Parents of children
- Above define Markov blanket

Summary

In many cases, can factorize a distribution, P, or a directed graph, G

Definition: Given a distribution P and a Bayesian network G, P factorizes as a set of CDPs specified as the nodes of G

- Graph can be an I-map of P
- P can be a D-map of G
- A perfect map is both an I map and a D-map
- Useful model is rarely perfect map