

# **Scalable Learning of Probabilistic Circuits**

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# Resumo

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**Palavras-chave:** Circuitos probabilísticos. Aprendizado de máquina. Modelos probabilísticos.





# Abstract

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**Keywords:** Probabilistic circuits. Machine learning. Probabilistic models.





# **Nomenclature**

## **List of Symbols**

$\sigma$  Sigmoid function

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## Notation

We use the following notation throughout the work. Random variables are written in upper case (e.g.  $X$ ,  $Y$ ) and their values in lower case (e.g.  $x$ ,  $y$ ). We identify propositional variables with 0/1-valued random variables, and use them interchangeably. Sets of variables and their joint values are written in boldface (e.g.  $\mathbf{X}$ ,  $\mathbf{x}$ ). Given a Boolean formula  $f$ , we write  $\langle f \rangle$  to denote its semantics, i.e. the Boolean function represented by  $f$ . For Boolean formulas  $f$  and  $g$ , we write  $f \equiv g$  if they are logically equivalent, that is, if  $\langle f \rangle = \langle g \rangle$ ; we abuse notation and write  $\phi \equiv f$  to indicate that  $\phi = \langle f \rangle$  for a Boolean function  $\phi$ .



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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

When reasoning about the world, rarely can we find a realistic model that perfectly subsumes all of the needed relationships for flawless prediction. As such, the presence of a reliable uncertainty quantifier in intelligent systems is essential in developing performant yet diagnostible agents. This is made explicitly clear in the case of high-risk settings, such as autonomous vehicles or automated power plant systems, where a wrong prediction could cause disastrous consequences. A well known example in the case of the former is obstacle avoidance: while the agent should be capable of accurately identifying obstructions in its way during normal conditions, so should it be able to identify its own lack of confidence in high uncertainty situations like ones brought by environmental factors, such as severe blizzard or heavy rain. In these situations where predictions are highly unreliable, the safest option might be for the agent to first identify its uncertainty, and second to reach out for human help. Other interesting applications of uncertainty quantification include out-of-distribution detection, which in our previous example could be visualized as the agent identifying a human’s driving as abnormally irregular (due to inebriation, infirmity, etc.) and appropriately taking control of the vehicle before a potential accident takes place.

One popular approach to quantifying uncertainty is through probability theory. By abstracting the world as a probability distribution with a finite number of observable random variables that encode a possibly incomplete knowledge of the environment, we are, in theory, able to answer a diverse set of complex queries as long as we have access to the (approximate) true data distribution. Practice is far different from theory, however, as most machine learning models either lie within a very limited range in the tractability spectrum in terms of inference (VERGARI, CHOI, *et al.*, 2020) or are too simplistic for complex real-world problems. Besides, although the majority of recent advances in deep learning claim some probabilistic meaning from the model’s output, they are often uncalibrated distributions, a result of focusing on maximizing predictive accuracy at the expense of predictive uncertainty (GUO *et al.*, 2017; OVADIA *et al.*, 2019; CHERNIKOVA *et al.*, 2019), ultimately producing overconfident and peculiar results (SZEGEDY *et al.*, 2013; WEI *et al.*, 2018; SU *et al.*, 2019; CHERNIKOVA *et al.*, 2019). Crucially, mainstream deep models (i.e. standard neural networks) usually optimize a conditional distribution over the to-be-predicted random variables – and are thus often called *discriminative* models – and do

not model the actual joint distribution of the data, limiting inference capabilities and uncertainty estimation.

In contrast, *generative* models seek to extract information from the joint (in varying capacities), and have lately seen a sharp rise in interest within deep learning. Despite this, most popular models do not admit either exact or tractable querying of key inference scenarios. For instance, although Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) allow for efficient sampling (GOODFELLOW *et al.*, 2014), basic queries such as likelihood or marginals are outside of their capabilities. Similarly, Normalizing Flows (NF) also permit access to efficient sampling, with the added feature of computing likelihoods, but are severely limited by the base distribution when it comes to discrete data (REZENDE and MOHAMED, 2015; PAPAMAKARIOS *et al.*, 2021) albeit recent works on discretizing NFs have shown empirically good results (LIPPE and GAVVES, 2021; ZIEGLER and RUSH, 2019). Variational Auto-Encoders (VAEs) are (under certain conditions) a generalization of NFs (YU, 2020; GRITSENKO *et al.*, 2019) with known extensions for categorical data (ROLFE, 2017; VAHDAT, MACREADY, *et al.*, 2018; VAHDAT, ANDRIYASH, *et al.*, 2018), but only permit access to sampling and an upper-bound on the likelihood, with the latter available only after solving a complex optimization task (KINGMA and WELLING, 2014).

Despite the impressive achievements of the aforementioned generative models on realistically producing samples consistent with evidence, in none of the previous models are complex queries like structured prediction under partial observations, *maximum a posteriori* (MAP), conditional or marginal probabilities tractable. An obvious alternative would be Probabilistic Graphical Models (PGMs), although they too suffer from intractability when dealing with high treewidth networks (R. DECHTER, 1998; KOLLER and FRIEDMAN, 2009), severely limiting expressivity. Instead, we draw our attention to an expressive class of models that subsumes several families of probabilistic models with tractable inference capabilities.

Probabilistic Circuits (PCs) define a superclass of probabilistic models distinctly specified by recursive compositions of distributions through graphical formalisms. Vaguely speaking, PCs are computational graphs akin to neural networks, but whose network structure and computational units abide by special constraints. Within these specific conditions span a wide range of subclasses, each establishing a distinct set of restrictions on their structure in order to enable different segments within the tractability spectrum. As an example, Sum-Product Networks (SPNs, POON and P. DOMINGOS, 2011) are usually loosely defined over a couple of constraints: namely *smoothness* and *decomposability*, which in turn enables likelihood, marginal and conditional computations. Arithmetic Circuits (ACs, DARWICHE, 2003) add *determinism* to the mix, allowing for tractable computation of MAP probabilities. Similarly, Cutset Networks (C Nets, RAHMAN *et al.*, 2014) employ the same constraints as ACs, but accept more expressive distributions as part of their computational units. Probabilistic Sentential Decision Diagrams (PSDDs, KISA *et al.*, 2014), Probabilistic Decision Graphs (PDGs, JAEGER, 2004) and And/Or-Graphs (AOGs, RINA DECHTER and MATEESCU, 2007) all require *smoothness* and *determinism*, but also call for a stronger version of *decomposability*, permitting all queries previously mentioned as well as computation of the Kullback-Leibler divergence and expectation between two circuits (CHOI *et al.*, 2020). Usually, PCs represent the joint distribution of the data, although they are sufficiently expressive for generative *and* discriminative modeling (KHOSRAVI *et al.*, 2019; RASHWAN

*et al.*, 2018; ROOSHENAS and LOWD, 2016; GENS and P. DOMINGOS, 2012; SHAO *et al.*, 2020). In this dissertation though, we shall focus on the generative side of PCs.

While inference is usually straightforward, as we shall see in ??, learning the structure of PCs so that they obey the needed structural restrictions requires either careful handcrafted architectures (POON and P. DOMINGOS, 2011; CHENG *et al.*, 2014; NATH and P. M. DOMINGOS, 2016) or usually involves running costly (in)dependence tests over most (if not all) variables (GENS and P. DOMINGOS, 2013; JAINI *et al.*, 2018; VERGARI, MAURO, *et al.*, 2015; DI MAURO *et al.*, 2017), which can become prohibitive in higher dimensions. Alternatively, some learning algorithms resort to structure preserving iterative methods to grow a PC that already initially satisfies desired constraints, adding complexity to the underlying distribution at each iteration (LIANG *et al.*, 2017; DANG *et al.*, 2020). However, these can take several iterations until visible improvement and often take several minutes for each iteration when the circuit is big. Common techniques used in deep learning for generating scalable architectures for neural network also pose a problem, as the nature of the needed structural constraints make for sparse computational graphs. To circumvent these issues, work on scaling PCs to higher dimensions has focused mainly on random architectures, with competitive results (PEHARZ, VERGARI, *et al.*, 2020; MAURO *et al.*, 2021; GEH and MAUÁ, 2021; PEHARZ, LANG, *et al.*, 2020).

## 1.1 Contributions and Dissertation Outline

referenced structural constraints in passing



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