CPSC 540: Machine Learning Directed Acyclic Graphical Models

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Last Time: Directed Acyclic Graphical (DAG) Models

• DAG models use a factorization of the joint distribution,

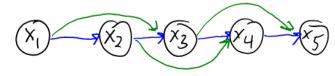
$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = \prod_{j=1}^d p(x_j | x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}),$$

where pa(j) are the "parents" of node j.

• This assumes a Markov property (generalizing Markov property in chains),

$$p(x_j|x_{1:j-1}) = p(x_j|x_{\mathsf{pa}(j)}),$$

• We visualize the assumptions made by the model as a graph:



DAGs and Conditional Independence

• In DAGs we make the conditional independence assumption that

$$p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_j \mid x_{pa}(j)).$$

• But these conditional independence assumptions can imply other assumptions.

• For example, in Markov chains we directly assume for all j that

$$p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}),$$

but this also implies that

$$p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}),$$

and it implies that

$$p(x_j \mid x_{j+1}, x_{j+2}, \dots, x_d) = p(x_j \mid x_{j+1}).$$

Knowing which assumptions hold can help identify which operations are efficient.
 For example, decoding in general DAGs is NP-hard but it's easy in Markov chains.

Review of Independence

- Let A and B are random variables taking values $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $b \in \mathcal{B}$.
- \bullet We say that A and B are independent if we have

$$p(a,b) = p(a)p(b),$$

for all a and b.

• To denote independence of x_i and x_j we use the notation

 $x_i \perp x_j$.

D-Separation

Plate Notation

Review of Independence

• For independent a and b we have

$$p(a \mid b) = \frac{p(a,b)}{p(b)} = \frac{p(a)p(b)}{p(b)} = p(a).$$

• This gives us a more intuitive definition: A and B are independent if

 $p(a \mid b) = p(a)$

for all a and $b \neq 0$.

• In words: knowing b tells us nothing about a (and vice versa).

• Useful fact: $a \perp b$ iff p(a, b) = f(a)g(b) for some functions f and g.

Example: Independence in Product Models

• Recall density estimation using a product of independent models:

$$p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) = p(x_1)p(x_2)\cdots p(x_d).$$

• Using marginalization rule we can show this implies pairwise independence:

$$p(x_i, x_j) = \sum_{\substack{x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ x_4 \ x_5 \ x_4 \ x_5 \ x_4 \ x_5 \ x_5$$

Example: Independence in Product of Bernoullis Model

• In a product of Bernoullis probabilities model we have

$$p(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) = p(x_1)p(x_2)\cdots p(x_d),$$

which we showed implies

$$p(x_i, x_j) = p(x_i)p(x_j),$$

so we have $x_i \perp x_j$ for all *i* and *j*.

- In mixture of Bernoullis x_i is not independent of x_j $(x_i \not\perp x_j)$:
 - Knowing x_j tells you something about x_i .
 - But similar notation-heavy steps give the conditional independence that

$$p(x_i, x_j \mid z) = p(x_i \mid z)p(x_j \mid z),$$

that "variables x_i and x_j are conditionally independent given the cluster z".

Conditional Independence

 \bullet We say that A is conditionally independent of B given C if

 $p(a,b \mid c) = p(a \mid c)p(b \mid c),$

for all a, b, and $c \neq 0$.

Equivalently, we have

$$p(a \mid b, c) = p(a \mid c).$$

- "If you know C, then also knowing B would tell you nothing about A"'.
 - In mixture of Bernoullis, given cluster there is no dependence between variables.
- We often write this as

$A\perp B\mid C.$

- Most models have some sort of conditional independence.
 - They were used to simplify calculations in the EM notes.
 - They determine whether message passing is efficient.

D-Separation: From Graphs to Conditional Independence

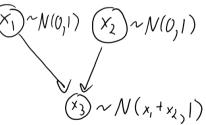
- All conditional independences implied by a DAG can be read from the graph.
- In particular: variables A and B are conditionally independent given C if:
 - "D-separation blocks all undirected paths in the graph from any variable in A to any variable in B."
- In the special case of product of independent models our graph is:



- Here there are no paths to block, which implies the variables are independent.
- Checking paths in a graph tends to be faster than tedious calculations.
 - We can start connecting properties of graphs to computational complexity.

D-Separation as Genetic Inheritance

- The rules of d-separation are intuitive in a simple model of gene inheritance:
 - Each person has single number, which we'll call a "gene".
 - If you have no parents, your gene is a random number.
 - If you have parents, your gene is a sum of your parents plus noise.
- For example, think of something like this:



Graph corresponds to the factorization p(x1, x2, x3) = p(x1)p(x2)p(x3 | x1, x2).
Are x1 and x2 independent here?

D-Separation as Genetic Inheritance

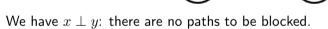
• Genes of people are independent if knowing one says nothing about the other.

- Your gene is dependent on your parents:
 - If I know you your parent's gene, I know something about yours.
- Your gene is independent of your (unrelated) friends:
 - If know you your friend's gene, it doesn't tell me anything about you.
- Genes of people can be conditionally independent given a third person:
 - Knowing your grandparent's gene tells you something about your gene.
 - But grandparent's gene isn't useful if you know parent's gene.

D-Separation Case 0 (No Paths and Direct Links)

Are genes in person x independent of the genes in person y?

• No path: x and y are not related (independent),



• Direct link: x is the parent of y,



We have $x \not\perp y$: knowing x tells you about y (direct paths aren't blockable).

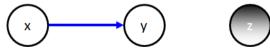
D-Separation Case 0 (No Paths and Direct Links)

Neither case changes if we have a third independent person z:

• No path: If x and y are independent,

We have $x \perp y$: adding z doesn't make a path.

• Direct link: x is the parent of y,



We have $x \not\perp y \mid z$: adding z doesn't block path.

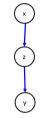
• We use **black or shaded** nodes to denote values we condition on (in this case z).

D-Separation

Plate Notation

D-Separation Case 1: Chain

- Case 1: x is the grandparent of y.
 - If z is the mother we have:



We have $x \not\perp y$: knowing x would give information about y because of z

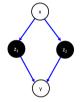
• But if z is observed:

In this case $x \perp y \mid z:$ knowing z "breaks" dependence between x and y.

D-Separation

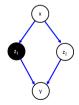
D-Separation Case 1: Chain

- Consider weird case where parents z_1 and z_2 share parent x:
 - If z_1 and z_2 are observed we have:



We have $x \perp y \mid z_1, z_2$: knowing both parents breaks dependency.

• But if only z_1 is *observed*:



We have $x \not\perp y \mid z_1$: dependence still "flows" through z_2 .

D-Separation Case 2: Common Parent

- Case 2: x and y are sibilings.
 - If z is a common unobserved parent:

We have $x \not\perp y$: knowing x would give information about y.

• But if z is observed:



In this case $x \perp y \mid z$: knowing z "breaks" dependence between x and y.

D-Separation Case 2: Common Parent

- Case 2: x and y are sibilings.
 - If z_1 and z_2 are common observed parents:



We have $x \perp y \mid z_1, z_2$: knowing z_1 and z_2 breaks dependence between x and y. • But if we only observe z_2 :

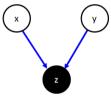


Then we have $x \not\perp y \mid z_2$: dependence still "flows" through z_1 .

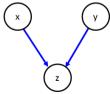
D-Separation

D-Separation Case 3: Common Child

- Case 3: x and y share a child z:
 - If we observe z then we have:



We have $x \not\perp y \mid z$: if we know z, then knowing x gives us information about y. • But if z is not observed:



We have $x \perp y$: if you don't observe z then x and y are independent. • Different from Case 1 and Case 2: not observing the child blocks path.

D-Separation Case 3: Common Child

- Case 3: x and y share a child z_1 :
 - If there exists an unobserved grandchild z_2 :

We have $x \perp y$: the path is still blocked by not knowing z_1 or z_2 . • But if z_2 is observed:



We have $x \not\perp y \mid z_2$: grandchild creates dependence even with unobserved parent.

• Case 3 needs to consider descendants of child.

D-Separation Summary

- We say that A and B are d-separated (conditionally independent) if all paths P from A to B are "blocked" because at least one of the following holds:
 - **1** *P* includes a "chain" with an observed middle node (e.g., Markov chain):



P includes a "fork" with an observed parent node (e.g., mixture of Bernoulli):

• *P* includes a "v-structure" or "collider" (e.g., probabilistic PCA):

where "child" and all its descendants are unobserved.

Alarm Example



• Case 1:

- Earthquake $\not\perp$ Call.
- Earthquake \perp Call | Alarm.

• Case 2:

- Alarm $\not\perp$ Stuff Missing.
- Alarm \perp Stuff Missing | Burglary.

Alarm Example



- Case 3:
 - Earthquake \perp Burglary.
 - Earthquake $\not\perp$ Burglary | Alarm.
 - "Explaining away": knowing one parent can make the other less likely.
- Multiple Cases:
 - Call $\not\perp$ Stuff Missing.
 - Earthquake \perp Stuff Missing.
 - Earthquake $\not\perp$ Stuff Missing | Call.

Discussion of D-Separation

• D-separation lets you say if conditional independence is implied by assumptions:

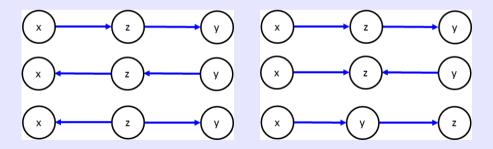
 $(A \text{ and } B \text{ are d-separated given } E) \Rightarrow A \perp B \mid E.$

- However, there might be extra conditional independences in the distribution:
 - These would depend on specific choices of the $p(x_j \mid x_{pa(j)})$.
 - Or some orderings may reveal different independences.
- Instead of restricting to {1, 2, ..., j − 1}, consider general parent choices.
 x₂ could be a parent of x₁.
- As long the graph is acyclic, there exists a valid ordering (chain rule makes sense).
 (all DAGs have a "topological order" of variables where parents are before children)

Non-Uniqueness of Graph and Equivalent Graphs

• Note that some graphs imply same conditional independences:

- Equivalent graphs: same v-structures and other (undirected) edges are the same.
- Examples of 3 equivalent graphs (left) and 3 non-equivalent graphs (right):









Discussion of D-Separation

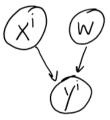
- So the graph is not necessarily unique and is not the whole story.
- But, we can already do a lot with d-separation:
 - Implies every independence/conditional-independence we've used in 340/540.
- Here we start blurring distinction between data/parameters/hyper-parameters...

Tilde Notation as a DAG

• When we write

$$y^i \sim \mathcal{N}(w^T x^i, 1),$$

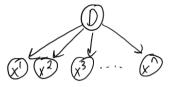
this can be interpretd as a DAG model:



- ullet "The variables on the right of \sim are the parents of the variables on the left".
 - In this case, w only depends on X since we know y.
- Note that we're now including both data and parameters in the graph.
 - This allows us to see and reason about their relationships.

IID Assumption as a DAG

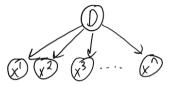
• On Day 2, our first independence assumption was the IID assumption:



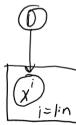
- Training/test examples come independently from data-generating process D.
- If we knew D, we wouldn't need to learn.
- But D is unobserved, so knowing about some x^i tells us about the others.
- We'll use this understanding later to relax the IID assumption.
 - Bonus: using this to ask "when does semi-supervised learning make sense?"

Plate Notation

• Graphical representation of the IID assumption:

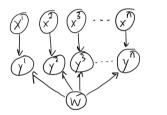


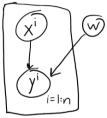
• It's common to represent repeated parts of graphs using plate notation:



Tilde Notation as a DAG

 $\bullet~{\rm If~the}~x^i$ are IID then we can represent regression as





• From d-separation on this graph we have $p(y \mid X, w) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y^i \mid x^i, w)$.

or

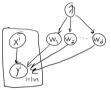
- We often omit the data-generating distribution *D*.
 - But if you want to learn then should remember that it's there.
- Note that plate reflects parameter tieing: that we use same w for all i.

Tilde Notation as a DAG

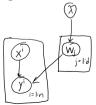
• When we do MAP estimation under the assumptions

 $y^i \sim \mathcal{N}(w^T x^i, 1), \quad w_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1/\lambda),$

we can interpret it as the DAG model:

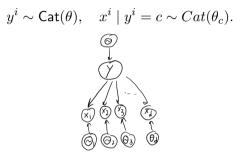


• Or introducing a second plate using:

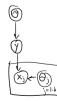


Other Models in DAG/Plate Notation

• For naive Bayes we have



• Or in plate notation as



Summary

- Conditional independence of A and B given C:
 - Knowing B tells us nothing about A if we already know C.
- D-separation allows us to test conditional independences based on graph.
- Plate Notation lets us compactly draw graphs with repeated patterns.
 - There are fancier versions of plate notation called "probabilistic programming".
- Next time: trying to discover the graph structure from data.

Other Models in DAG/Plate Notation

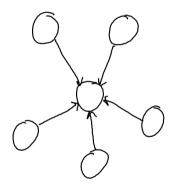
 $\bullet\,$ In a full Gaussian model for a single x we have

$$x^i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma).$$

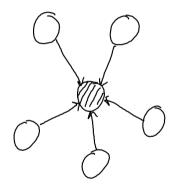


• For mixture of Gaussians we have

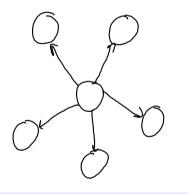
$$z^{i} \sim \operatorname{Cat}(\theta), \quad x^{i} \mid z^{i} = c \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{c}, \Sigma_{c})$$



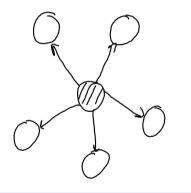
- "5 aliens get together and make a baby alien".
 - Unconditionally, the 5 aliens are independent.



- "5 aliens get together and make a baby alien".
 - Conditioned on the baby, the 5 aliens are dependent.



- "An organism produces 5 clones".
 - Unconditionally, the 5 clones are dependent.



- "An organism produces 5 clones".
 - Conditioned on the original, the 5 clones are independent.

Does Semi-Supervised Learning Make Sense?

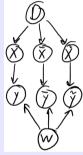
• Should unlabeled examples always help supervised learning?

• No!

- Consider choosing unlabeled features \bar{x}^i uniformly at random.
 - Unlabeled examples collected in this way will not help.
 - By construction, distribution of \bar{x}^i says nothing about \bar{y}^i .
- Example where SSL is not possible:
 - Try to detect food allergy by trying random combinations of food:
 - The actual random process isn't important, as long as it isn't affected by labels.
 - You can sample an infinite number of $ar{x}^i$ values, but they says nothing about labels.
- Example where SSL is possible:
 - Trying to classify images as "cat" vs. "dog.:
 - Unlabeled data would need to be images of cats or dogs (not random images).
 - Unlabeled data contains information about what images of cats and dogs look like.
 - For example, there could be clusters or manifolds in the unlabeled images.

Does Semi-Supervised Learning Make Sense?

• Let's assume our semi-supervised learning model is represented by this DAG:

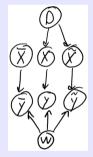


- Assume we observe $\{X, y, \overline{X}\}$ and are interested in test labels \tilde{y} :
 - $\bullet\,$ There is a dependency between y and \tilde{y} because of path through w.
 - $\bullet\,$ Parameter w is tied between training and test distributions.
 - There is a dependency between X and \tilde{y} because of path through w (given y).
 - But note that there is also a second path through D and X.
 - There is a dependency between \bar{X} and \tilde{y} because of path through D and \tilde{X} .
 - Unlabeled data helps because it tells us about data-generating distribution D.

Plate Notation

Does Semi-Supervised Learning Make Sense?

• Now consider generating \bar{X} independent of D:



- Assume we observe $\{X, y, \overline{X}\}$ and are interested in test labels \tilde{y} :
 - Knowing X and y are useful for the same reasons as before.
 - But knowing \bar{X} is not useful:
 - Without knowing \bar{y} , \bar{X} is *d*-separated from \tilde{y} (no dependence).

D-Separation

Plate Notation

Beware of the "Causal" DAG

- It can helpful to use the language of causality when reasoning about DAGs.
 - You'll find that they give the correct causal interpretation based on our intuition.
- However, keep in mind that the arrows are not necessarily causal.
 - "A causes B" has the same graph as "B causes A".
- There is work on causal DAGs which add semantics to deal with "interventions".
 - But these require extra assumptions: fitting a DAG to observational data doesn't imply anything about causality.