

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,

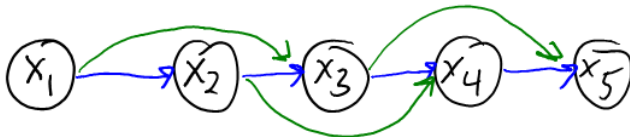
$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = \prod_{j=1}^d p(x_j | x_{\text{pa}(j)}),$$

where $\text{pa}(j)$ are the “parents” of node j .

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

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

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



Graph Structure Examples

- Instead of factorizing by variables j , could **factor into blocks b** :

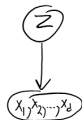
$$p(x) = \prod_b p(x_b \mid x_{\text{pa}(b)}),$$

and have the nodes be blocks.

- Usually assuming **full connectivity within the block**.
- With **mixture of Gaussian** and full covariances we have

$$p(z, x) = p(z)p(x \mid z).$$

- The corresponding graph structure is:



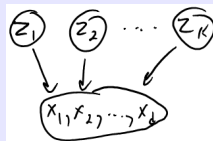
- **Gaussian generative classifiers (GDA)** have the same structure.
 - But using class label y instead of cluster z .

Graph Structure Examples

With **probabilistic PCA** we have

$$p(z, x) = p(x \mid z) \prod_{c=1}^k p(z_c).$$

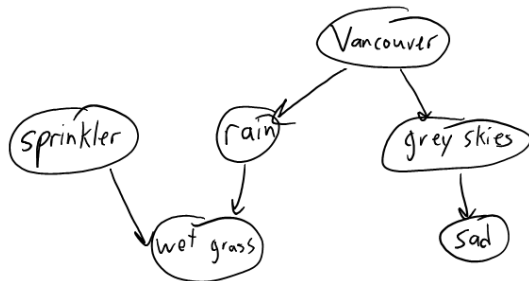
The corresponding graph structure is:



The data x comes from a set of **independent parents** (latent factors).

Graph Structure Examples

We can consider less-structured examples,

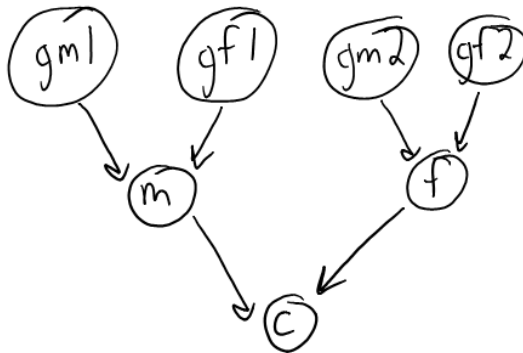


The corresponding factorization is:

$$p(S, V, R, W, G, D) = p(S)p(V)p(R \mid V)p(W \mid S, R)p(G \mid V)p(D \mid G).$$

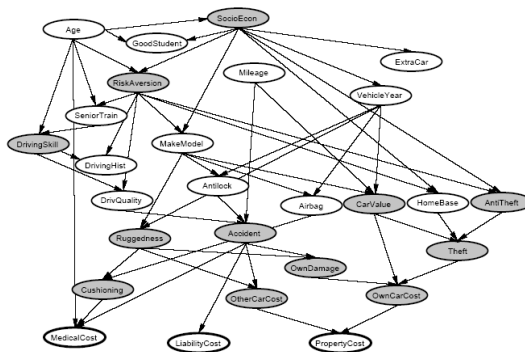
Graph Structure Examples

We can consider genetic **phylogeny** (family trees):



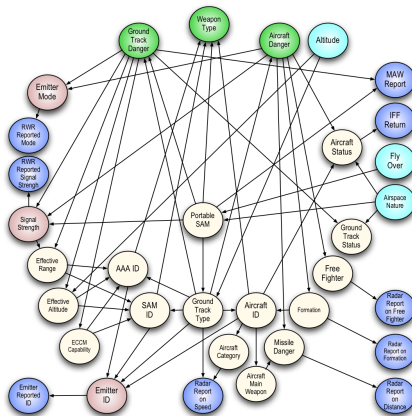
Example: Vehicle Insurance

- Want to predict bottom three “cost” variables, given observed and unobserved values:



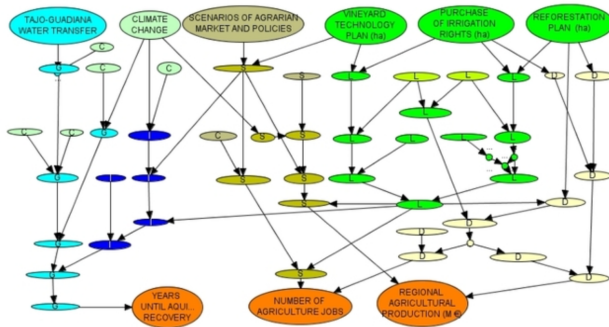
Example: Radar and Aircraft Control

- Modeling multiple planes and radar signals:



Example: Water Resource Management

- Dependencies in environmental monitor and sustainability issues:



Outline

1 Conditional Independence

2 D-Separation

Review of Independence

- Let A and B are random variables taking values $a \in \mathcal{A}$ and $b \in \mathcal{B}$.
- 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

$$x_i \perp x_j.$$

- In a product of Bernoullis, we assume $x_i \perp x_j$ for all i and j .

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).
 - This will tend to simplify calculations involving a .
- Useful fact: $a \perp b$ iff $p(a, b) = f(a)g(b)$ for some functions f and g .

Conditional Independence

- 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

$$A \perp B \mid C.$$

- In a mixture of Bernoullis, we assume $x_i \perp x_j \mid z$ for all i and j .
 - This simplifies calculations involving x_i and x_j , provided that we know z .

Extra Conditional Independences in Markov Chains

- In Markov chains, the **Markov assumption** is $x_j \perp x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{j-2} \mid x_{j-1}$,

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

- But note that this **also implies** the additional conditional independence that

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

- We can use this property to easily compute $p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1)$:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1) &= p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}) \\ &= \sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j, x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2}) \\ &= \sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}) p(x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2}) \\ &= \sum_{x_{j-1}} \underbrace{p(x_j \mid x_{j-1})}_{\text{tran prob}} \underbrace{p(x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2})}_{\text{tran prob}}. \end{aligned}$$

Extra Conditional Independences in Markov Chains

- Proof that x_j is independent of $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{j-3}\}$ given x_{j-2} :

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1) &= \frac{p(x_j, x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1)}{p(x_{j-2}, x_{j-3}, \dots, x_1)} \quad (\text{def'n cond. prob.}) \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j, x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}, \dots, x_1)}{p(x_{j-2} \mid x_{j-3}, x_{j-4}, \dots, x_1) p(x_{j-3} \mid x_{j-4}, x_{j-5}, \dots, x_1) \cdots p(x_1)} \quad (\text{marg. and chain rule}) \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}) p(x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2}) \cdots p(x_2 \mid x_1) p(x_1)}{p(x_{j-2} \mid x_{j-3}) p(x_{j-3} \mid x_{j-4}) \cdots p(x_1)} \quad (\text{chain rule and Markov}) \\
 &= \frac{p(x_1) p(x_2 \mid x_1) \cdots p(x_{j-2} \mid x_{j-3}) \sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}) p(x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2})}{p(x_{j-2} \mid x_{j-3}) p(x_{j-3} \mid x_{j-4}) \cdots p(x_1)} \quad (\text{take terms outside}) \\
 &= \sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j \mid x_{j-1}, x_{j-2}) p(x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2}) \quad (\text{cancel out in numerator/denominator}) \\
 &= \sum_{x_{j-1}} p(x_j, x_{j-1} \mid x_{j-2}) \quad (\text{product rule}) \\
 &= p(x_j \mid x_{j-2}) \quad (\text{marg rule}).
 \end{aligned}$$

- Similar steps could be used to show $x_j \perp x_{j+2} \mid x_{j+1}$,
and a variety of other conditional independences like $x_1 \perp x_{10} \mid x_5$.

DAGs and Conditional Independence

- Conditional independences can substantially simplify inference.
- But it's tedious to formally show that the above are true.
 - See the last slide, and the EM notes.
- In DAGs we make the conditional independence assumption that

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

- Is there an easy way to find out what other independences are true?
 - If so, we could quickly find out which calculations are easy to do in a given DAG.

Outline

1 Conditional Independence

2 D-Separation

D-Separation: From Graphs to Conditional Independence

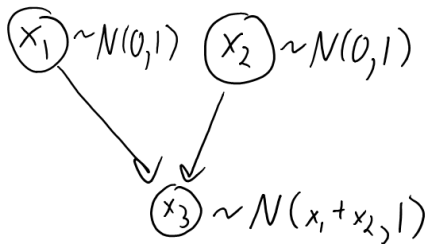
- All conditional independences implied by a DAG can be read from the graph.
- In particular: variables A and B are conditionally independent given C if:
 - “D-separation blocks all undirected paths in the graph from any variable in A to any variable in B .”
- In the special case of product of independent 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 $p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3 \mid x_1, x_2)$.
 - In this model, does $p(x_1, x_2) = p(x_1)p(x_2)$? (Are x_1 and x_2 independent ?)

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),



We have $x \perp y$: there are no paths to be blocked.

- Direct link: x is the **parent** of y ,

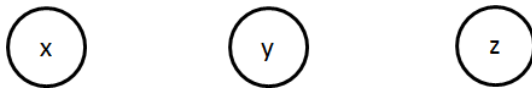


We have $x \not\perp y$: knowing x tells you about y (direct paths aren't blockable).

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

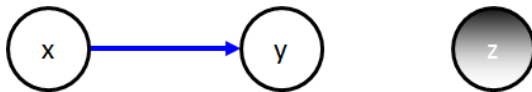
Neither case changes if we have a third **independent** person z :

- 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 ,

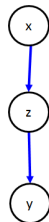


We have $x \not\perp y \mid z$: adding z doesn't block path.

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

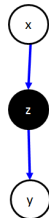
D-Separation Case 1: Chain

- 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

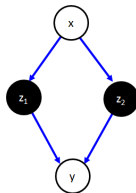
- But if z is *observed*:



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

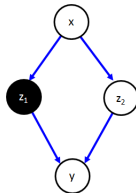
D-Separation Case 1: Chain

- 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.

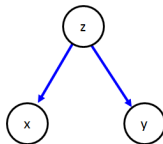
- But if only z_1 is *observed*:



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

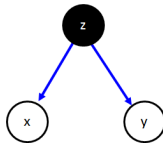
D-Separation Case 2: Common Parent

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



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

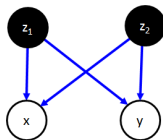
- But if z is *observed*:



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

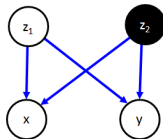
D-Separation Case 2: Common Parent

- Case 2: x and y are **siblings**.
 - 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 .

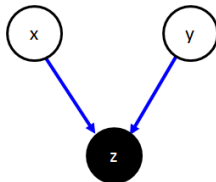
- But if we only observe z_2 :



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

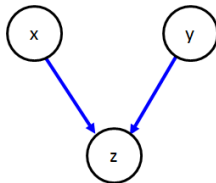
D-Separation Case 3: Common Child

- 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:

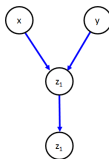


We have $x \perp y$: if you don't observe z then x and y are independent.

- Different from Case 1 and Case 2: **not observing the child blocks path.**

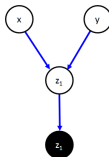
D-Separation Case 3: Common Child

- 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:

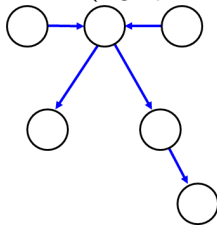
- 1 P includes a “chain” with an observed middle node (e.g., Markov chain):



- 2 P includes a “fork” with an observed parent node (e.g., mixture of Bernoulli):

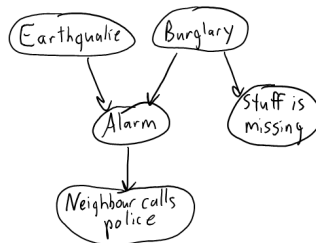


- 3 P includes a “v-structure” or “collider” (e.g., probabilistic PCA):



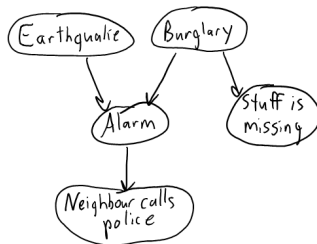
where “child” and all its descendants are unobserved.

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/more 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 $p(x_j \mid x_{\text{pa}(j)})$.
- Or some *orderings* of the chain rule may reveal different independences.
- So **lack of d-separation does not imply dependence**.

- Instead of restricting to $\{1, 2, \dots, j-1\}$, consider **general parent choices**.

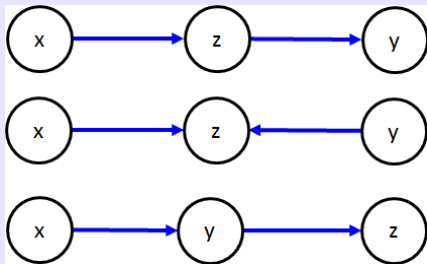
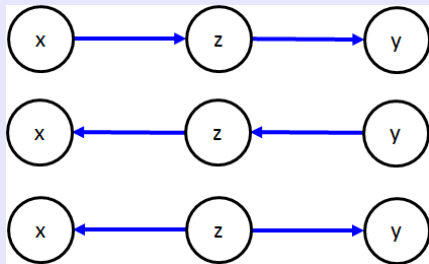
- x_2 could be a parent of x_1 .

- 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

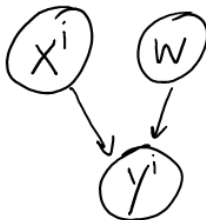
- So the graph is not necessarily unique and is not the whole story.
- But, we can already do a lot with d-separation:
 - Implies every independence/conditional-independence we've used in 340/540.
- Here we start blurring distinction between data/parameters/hyper-parameters...

Tilde Notation as a DAG

- When we write

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

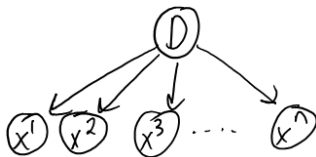
this can be interpreted as a DAG model:



- “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

- During week 1, our first independence assumption was the **IID assumption**:



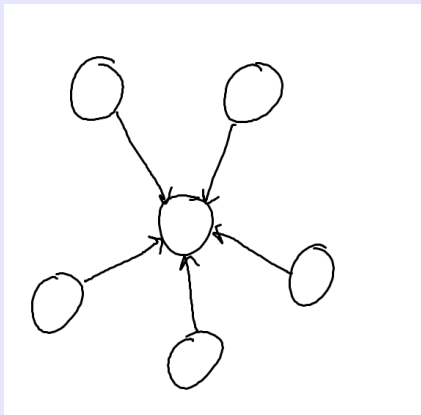
- Training/test examples come independently from data-generating process D .
- But D is **unobserved**, so knowing about some x^i tells us about the others.
 - This why the IID assumptions lets us learn.
- We'll use this understanding later to **relax the IID assumption**.
 - Bonus: using this to ask “when does semi-supervised learning make sense?”

Summary

- Joint distribution of models we've discussed can be written as DAG models.
- **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.
- Next time: trying to discover the graph structure from data.

Conditional Independence in Star Graphs

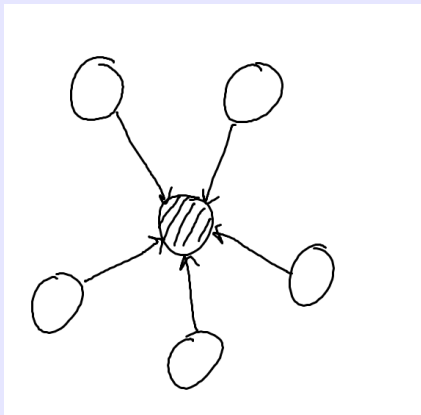
- Consider the following **star graph**:



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

Conditional Independence in Star Graphs

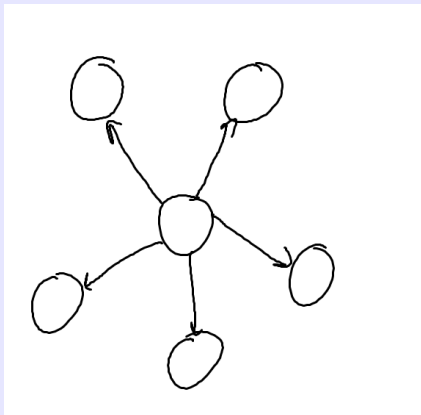
- Consider the following **star graph**:



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

Conditional Independence in Star Graphs

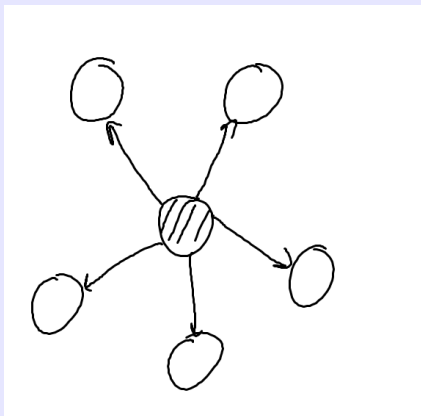
- Consider the following **star graph**:



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

Conditional Independence in Star Graphs

- Consider the following **star graph**:



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

Beware of the “Causal” DAG

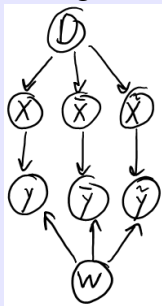
- It can be helpful to use the language of causality when reasoning about DAGs.
 - You'll find that they give the correct causal interpretation based on our intuition.
- However, keep in mind that the **arrows are not necessarily causal**.
 - “ A causes B ” has the same graph as “ B causes A ”.
- There 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.

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 \bar{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?

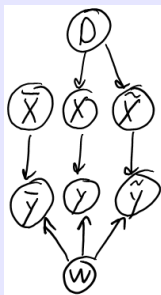
- Let's assume our semi-supervised learning model is represented by this DAG:



- Assume we observe $\{X, y, \bar{X}\}$ and are interested in test labels \tilde{y} :
 - There is a dependency between y and \tilde{y} because of path through w .
 - 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 \bar{X} .
 - There is a dependency between \bar{X} and \tilde{y} because of path through D and \bar{X} .
 - Unlabeled data helps because it tells us about data-generating distribution D .

Does Semi-Supervised Learning Make Sense?

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



- Assume we observe $\{X, y, \bar{X}\}$ 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).