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Machine Learning

Graphical models

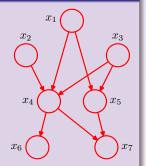
Why

- All probabilistic inference and learning amount at repeated applications of the sum and product rules
- *Probabilistic graphical models* are graphical representations of the *qualitative* aspects of probability distributions allowing to:
 - visualize the structure of a probabilistic model in a simple and intuitive way
 - discover properties of the model, such as conditional independencies, by inspecting the graph
 - express complex computations for inference and learning in terms of graphical manipulations
 - represent multiple probability distributions with the same graph, abstracting from their quantitative aspects (e.g. discrete vs continuous distributions)

Bayesian Networks (BN)

BN Semantics

- A BN structure (*G*) is a *directed graphical model*
- Each node represents a random variable *x_i*
- Each edge represents a direct dependency between two variables



The structure encodes these independence assumptions:

 $\mathcal{I}_{\ell}(\mathcal{G}) = \{ \forall i \; x_i \perp \textit{NonDescendants}_{x_i} | \textit{Parents}_{x_i} \}$

each variable is independent of its non-descendants given its parents

Graphs and Distributions

- Let *p* be a joint distribution over variables *X*
- Let *I*(*p*) be the set of independence assertions holding in *p*
- G in as independency map (I-map) for p if p satisfies the local independences in G:

$$x_1$$
 x_3 x_3 x_4 x_5 x_6 x_7

$$\mathcal{I}_{\ell}(\mathcal{G}) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(\boldsymbol{p})$$

Note

The reverse is not necessarily true: there can be independences in p that are not modelled by G.

Factorization

• We say that *p* factorizes according to *G* if:

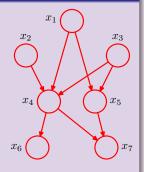
$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=\prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i|Pa_{x_i})$$

- If G is an I-map for p, then p factorizes according to G
- If p factorizes according to G, then G is an I-map for p

Example

$$p(x_1,...,x_7) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4|x_1,x_2,x_3)$$

$$p(x_5|x_1,x_3)p(x_6|x_4)p(x_7|x_4,x_5)$$



Proof: I-map \Rightarrow factorization

If G is an I-map for p, then p satisfies (at least) these (local) independences:

 $\{\forall i \ x_i \perp NonDescendants_{x_i} | Parents_{x_i} \}$

2 Let us order variables in a *topological order* relative to *G*, i.e.:

$$x_i \rightarrow x_j \Rightarrow i < j$$

Let us decompose the joint probability using the chain rule as:

$$p(x_1,...,x_m) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i|x_1,...,x_{i-1})$$

Local independences imply that for each x_i:

$$p(x_i|x_1,\ldots,x_{i-1})=p(x_i|Pa_{x_i})$$

Proof: factorization \Rightarrow I-map

If p factorizes according to G, the joint probability can be written as:

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_m)=\prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i|Pa_{x_i})$$

2 Let us consider the last variable x_m (repeat steps for the other variables). By the product and sum rules:

$$p(x_m|x_1,...,x_{m-1}) = \frac{p(x_1,...,x_m)}{p(x_1,...,x_{m-1})} = \frac{p(x_1,...,x_m)}{\sum_{x_m} p(x_1,...,x_m)}$$

Applying factorization and isolating the only term containing x_m we get:

$$= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{m} p(x_i | Pa_{x_i})}{\sum_{x_m} \prod_{i=1}^{m} p(x_i | Pa_{x_i})}$$

 $\frac{p(x_m | Pa_{x_m}) \prod_{i=1}^{m-1} p(x_i | Pa_{x_i})}{\prod_{i=1}^{m-1} p(x_i | Pa_{x_i}) \sum_{x_m} p(x_m | Pa_{x_m})}$

Definition

A Bayesian Network is a pair (\mathcal{G}, p) where p factorizes over \mathcal{G} and it is represented as a set of conditional probability distributions (cpd) associated with the nodes of \mathcal{G} .

Factorized Probability

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_m) = \prod_{i=1}^m p(x_i|Pa_{x_i})$$

Example: toy regulatory network

- Genes A and B have independent prior probabilities
- Gene C can be enhanced by both A and B

gene	value	P(v	P(value)		A	ОВ
A	active	e	0.3		$\boldsymbol{\triangleleft}$	
А	inacti	ve	0.7			
		,				\sim
gene	value	P(v	/alue)			∪ _C
В	activ	e	0.3	-		C
В	inacti	ve	0.7			
		A				
			activ	ve	inactive	
			В		В	
	activ	ve in	active	active	inactive	
С	active	0.9		0.6	0.7	0.1
C in	nactive	0.1		0.4	0.3	0.9

Conditional independence

Introduction

• Two variables a, b are independent (written $a \perp b \mid \emptyset$) if:

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

 Two variables a, b are conditionally independent given c (written a ⊥ b | c) if:

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

- Independence assumptions can be verified by repeated applications of sum and product rules
- Graphical models allow to directly verify them through the *d-separation* criterion

Tail-to-tail

Joint distribution:

p(a, b, c) = p(a|c)p(b|c)p(c)

 a and b are not independent (written a ⊤ b | Ø):

$$p(a,b) = \sum_{c} p(a|c)p(b|c)p(c) \neq p(a)p(b)$$

• *a* and *b* are conditionally independent given *c*:

$$p(a,b|c)=rac{p(a,b,c)}{p(c)}=p(a|c)p(b|c)$$

 c is tail-to-tail wrt to the path a → b as it is connected to the tails of the two arrows

Head-to-tail

р

Joint distribution:

p(a,b,c) = p(b|c)p(c|a)p(a) = p(b|c)p(a|c)p(c)

• *a* and *b* are **not independent**:

$$p(a,b) = p(a) \sum_{c} p(b|c)p(c|a) \neq p(a)p(b)$$

• *a* and *b* are conditionally independent given *c*:

$$(a,b|c)=rac{p(b|c)p(a|c)p(c)}{p(c)}=p(b|c)p(a|c)$$

 c is head-to-tail wrt to the path a → b as it is connected to the head of an arrow and to the tail of the other one

Head-to-head

Joint distribution:

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

• *a* and *b* are **independent**:

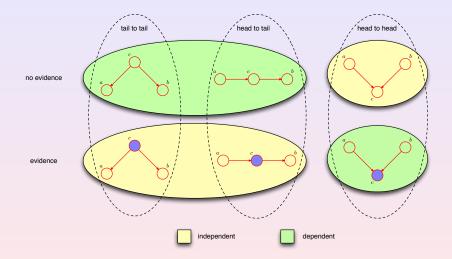
$$p(a,b) = \sum_{c} p(c|a,b)p(a)p(b) = p(a)p(b)$$

• *a* and *b* are **not conditionally independent given** *c*:

$$p(a,b|c) = rac{p(c|a,b)p(a)p(b)}{p(c)}
eq p(a|c)p(b|c)$$

 c is head-to-head wrt to the path a → b as it is connected to the heads of the two arrows

d-separation: basic rules summary



Setting

• A fuel system in a car:

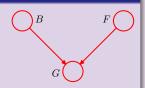
battery *B*, either charged (B = 1) or flat (B = 0)fuel tank *F*, either full (F = 1) or empty (F = 0)electric fuel gauge *G*, either full (G = 1) or empty (G = 0)

Conditional probability tables (CPT)

• Battery and tank have independent prior probabilities:

P(B = 1) = 0.9 P(F = 1) = 0.9

P(G = 1|B = 1, F = 1) = 0.8 P(G = 1|B = 1, F = 0) = 0.2P(G = 1|B = 0, F = 1) = 0.2 P(G = 1|B = 0, F = 0) = 0.1



Probability of empty tank

• Prior:

$$P(F = 0) = 1 - P(F = 1) = 0.1$$

• Posterior after observing empty fuel gauge: $P(F = 0|G = 0) = P(G = 0|F = 0)P(F = 0) \approx 0.257$

$$P(F=0|G=0) = \frac{P(G=0)P(F=0)P(F=0)}{P(G=0)} \simeq 0.257$$

Note

The probability that the tank is empty *increases* from observing that the fuel gauge reads empty (not as much as expected because of strong prior and unreliable gauge)

Derivation

$$P(G = 0|F = 0) = \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} P(G = 0, B|F = 0)$$
$$= \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} P(G = 0|B, F = 0)P(B|F = 0)$$
$$= \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} P(G = 0|B, F = 0)P(B) = 0.81$$

$$P(G = 0) = \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{F \in \{0,1\}} P(G = 0, B, F)$$
$$= \sum_{B \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{F \in \{0,1\}} P(G = 0|B, F) P(B) P(F)$$

Probability of empty tank

P(G

 Posterior after observing that the battery is also flat:

$$P(F = 0 | G = 0, B = 0) =$$

$$|G = 0, B = 0) =$$

 $= 0|F = 0, B = 0)P(F = 0|B = 0)$
 $P(G = 0|B = 0) \simeq 0.111$

B

Note

- The probability that the tank is empty decreases after observing that the battery is also flat
- The battery condition explains away the observation that the fuel gauge reads empty
- The probability is still greater than the prior one, because the fuel gauge observation still gives some evidence in favour of an empty tank

General Head-to-head

- Let a *descendant* of a node *x* be any node which can be reached from *x* with a path following the direction of the arrows
- A head-to-head node *c* unblocks the dependency path between its parents if either itself or *any of its descendants* receives evidence

d-separation definition

- Given a generic Bayesian network
- Given A, B, C arbitrary nonintersecting sets of nodes
- The sets A and B are d-separated by C(dsep(A; B|C)) if:
 - All paths from any node in A to any node in B are blocked
- A path is blocked if it includes at least one node s.t. either:
 - the arrows on the path meet tail-to-tail or head-to-tail at the node and it is in C, or
 - the arrows on the path meet head-to-head at the node and neither it nor any of its descendants is in *C*

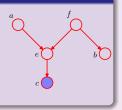
d-separation implies conditional independence

The sets *A* and *B* are independent given *C* ($A \perp B \mid C$) if they are d-separated by *C*.

Example of general d-separation

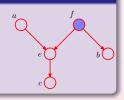


- Nodes a and b are not d-separated by c:
 - Node f is tail-to-tail and not observed
 - Node *e* is head-to-head and its child *c* is observed



$a \perp b | f$

- Nodes a and b are d-separated by f:
 - Node f is tail-to-tail and observed



Independence assumptions

• A BN structure *G* encodes a set of *local* independence assumptions:

 $\mathcal{I}_{\ell}(\mathcal{G}) = \{ \forall i \; x_i \perp \textit{NonDescendants}_{x_i} | \textit{Parents}_{x_i} \}$

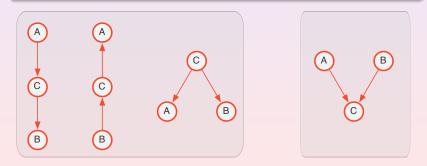
• A BN structure *G* encodes a set of *global* (Markov) independence assumptions:

 $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G}) = \{ (A \perp B | C) : dsep(A; B | C) \}$

BN equivalence classes

I-equivalence

- Quite different BN structures can actually encode the exact same set of independence assumptions
- Two BN structures \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}' are *I*-equivalent if $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G}')$
- The space of BN structures over X is partitioned into a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive *I-equivalence classes*



Minimal I-maps

- For a structure G to be an I-map for p, it does not need to encode all its independences (e.g. a fully connected graph is an I-map of any p defined over its variables)
- A minimal I-map for p is an I-map G which can't be "reduced" into a G' ⊂ G (by removing edges) that is also an I-map for p.

Problem

A minimal I-map for p does not necessarily capture all the independences in p.

Perfect Maps (P-maps)

• A structure *G* is a *perfect map* (P-map) for *p* if is captures all (and only) its independences:

$$\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{I}(\boldsymbol{p})$$

- There exists an algorithm for finding a P-map of a distribution which is exponential in the in-degree of the P-map.
- The algorithm returns an equivalence class rather than a single structure

Problem

Not all distributions have a P-map. Some cannot be modelled exactly by the BN formalism.

Practical Suggestions

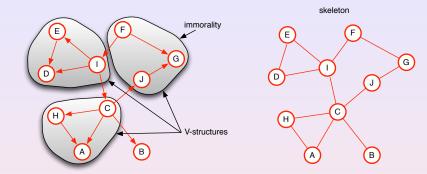
- Get together with a domain expert
- Define variables for entities that can be observed or that you can be interested in predicting (latent variables can also be sometimes useful)
- Try following *causality* considerations in adding edges (more interpretable and sparser networks)
- In defining probabilities for configurations (almost) never assign zero probabilities
- If data are available, use them to help in *learning* parameters and structure (we'll see how)



Appendix

Additional reference material

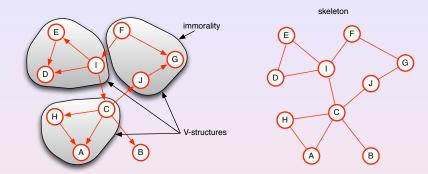
I-equivalence



Sufficient conditions

If two structures G and G' have the same skeleton and the same set of v-structures then they are *I*-equivalent

I-equivalence



Necessary and sufficient conditions

Two structures G and G' are I-equivalent if and only if they have the same skeleton and the same set of immoralities

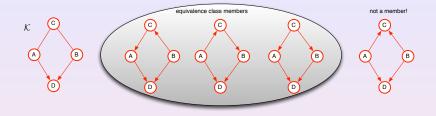
Partially directed acyclic graph (PDAG)

A PDAG is an acyclic graph with both directed and undirected edges

Representing an equivalence class

- An equivalence class for a structure \mathcal{G} can be represented by a PDAG \mathcal{K} such that:
 - If x → y ∈ K then x → y should appear in all structures which are I-equivalent to G
 - If x − y ∈ K then we can find a structure G' that is I-equivalent to G such that x → y ∈ G'

Equivalence class members



Generating members

- Representatives from *K* can be obtained by adding directions to undirected edges
- One needs to check that the resulting structure has the same set of immoralities as K (otherwise it's not in the equivalence class)

Markov blanket (or boundary)

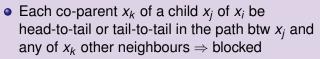
Definition

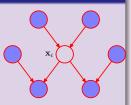
- Given a directed graph with *m* nodes
- The *markov blanket* of node *x_i* is the minimal set of nodes making it *x_i* independent on the rest of the graph:

$$p(x_i|x_{j\neq i}) = \frac{p(x_1, \dots, x_m)}{p(x_{j\neq i})} = \frac{p(x_1, \dots, x_m)}{\int p(x_1, \dots, x_m) dx_i}$$
$$= \frac{\prod_{k=1}^m p(x_k|\mathbf{pa}_k)}{\int \prod_{k=1}^m p(x_k|\mathbf{pa}_k) dx_i}$$

- All components which do not include *x_i* will cancel between numerator and denominator
- The only remaining components are:
 - $p(x_i | pa_i)$ the probability of x_i given its parents
 - *p*(*x_j*|*p*a_j) where *p*a_j includes *x_i* ⇒ the children of *x_i* with their *co-parents*

- Each parent x_j of x_i will be head-to-tail or tail-to-tail in the path btw x_i and any of x_j other neighbours ⇒ blocked
- Each child x_j of x_i will be head-to-tail in the path btw x_i and any of x_j children ⇒ blocked





Example of i.i.d. samples

Maximum-likelihood

- We are given a set of instances $\mathcal{D} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ drawn from an univariate Gaussian with unknown mean μ
- All paths between x_i and x_j are blocked if we condition on μ
- The examples are independent of each other given μ:

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i|\mu)$$

• A set of nodes with the same variable type and connections can be compactly represented using the *plate* notation

