Expressive Power of Graphical Models

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Recap

- Need for efficient representation of probabilistic models
 - Restrict the number of directly interacting variables by making independence assumptions
 - Restrict the form of interaction by making parametric family assumptions
- DAGs and undirected graphs to represent independencies and factorisations
- Equivalences between independencies (Markov properties) and factorisation
- Rules for reading independencies from the graph that hold for all distributions that factorise over the graph

- 1. Graphs as independency maps (I-maps)
- 2. Equivalence of I-maps (I-equivalence)

1. Graphs as independency maps (I-maps)

- I-maps
- Perfect maps
- Minimal I-maps
- Strengths and weaknesses of directed and undirected graphs

2. Equivalence of I-maps (I-equivalence)

I-map

- We have seen that graphs represent independencies. We say that they are independency maps (I-maps).
- Definition: Let U be a set of independencies that random variables x = (x₁,...x_d) satisfy. A DAG or undirected graph K with nodes x_i is said to be an independency map (I-map) for U if the independencies I(K) asserted by the graph are part of U:

$\mathcal{I}(K) \subseteq \mathcal{U}$

- $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{I}(K)$ may miss some independencies that hold in \mathcal{U} .
- An I-map is a "directed I-map" if K is a DAG, and an "undirected I-map" if K is an undirected graph.

The set of independencies $\ensuremath{\mathcal{U}}$ can be specified in different ways. For example:

► as a list of independencies, e.g.

$$\mathcal{U} = \{x_1 \perp \!\!\!\perp x_2\}$$

 \blacktriangleright as the independencies implied by another graph K_0

$$\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{I}(K_0)$$

denoting by I(p) all the independencies satisfied by a specific distribution p, we can have

$$\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{I}(p)$$

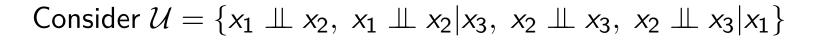
- We have previously found that all independencies asserted by the graph K hold for all p that factorise over K.
- \blacktriangleright Hence, if *p* factorises over *K*, we have

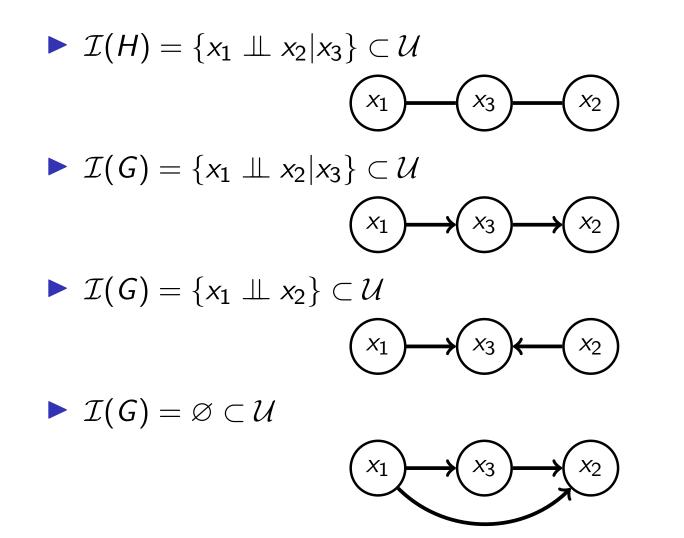
 $\mathcal{I}(K) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(p)$

and K is an I-map for $\mathcal{I}(p)$

But we do not have guarantees that I(K) equals I(p) since, as we have seen, I(K) may miss some independencies that hold for p.

Examples of I-maps





Remarks

I-maps are not unique.

- Different I-maps may make the same independence assertions. (discussed later under I-equivalence)
- Criterion for an I-map is that the independence assertions made by the graph are true. I-maps are not concerned with the number of independence assertions made.
- ▶ I-maps of \mathcal{U} are allowed to "miss" some independencies in \mathcal{U} .
- The complete graph does not make any assertions. Empty set is trivially a subset of any U, so that the complete graph is trivially an I-map.

Perfect maps

- Definition: K is said to be a perfect I-map (or P-map) for \mathcal{U} if $\mathcal{I}(K) = \mathcal{U}$.
- Let K be a DAG or an undirected graph. For what set U of independencies is a graph K a perfect map?
- We have seen that: if X are Y and not (d-)separated by Z then X ⊥ Y | Z for some p that factorises over K (some ≡ not all)
- Contrapositive: (Reminder: $A \Rightarrow B \Leftrightarrow \overline{B} \Rightarrow \overline{A}$) if $X \perp Y | Z$ for all p that factorise over K then X and Y are (d-)separated by Z
- ▶ Denote by \mathcal{P}_K the set of all *p* that factorise over *K*. We thus have:

$$\left[\bigcap_{p\in\mathcal{P}_{K}}\mathcal{I}(p)
ight]\subseteq\mathcal{I}(K)$$

Perfect maps and factorisation

Since for all individual p we have $\mathcal{I}(K) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(p)$, it follows that

$$\left[\bigcap_{p\in\mathcal{P}_{K}}\mathcal{I}(p)\right]\subseteq\mathcal{I}(K)\subseteq\left[\bigcap_{p\in\mathcal{P}_{K}}\mathcal{I}(p)\right]$$

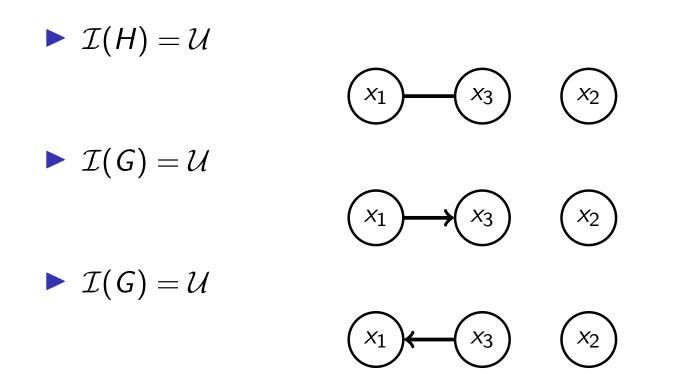
and hence that

$$\mathcal{I}(K) = \bigcap_{p \in \mathcal{P}_K} \mathcal{I}(p)$$

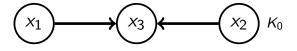
- In plain English: K is a perfect map for the independencies that hold for all p that factorise over the graph.
- This result is not very surprising. It just says that K is a perfect map for the graphical models (set of distributions) that were defined by K in the first place!

Examples of P-maps

Consider again $\mathcal{U} = \{x_1 \perp \!\!\!\perp x_2, x_1 \perp \!\!\!\perp x_2 | x_3, x_2 \perp \!\!\!\perp x_3, x_2 \perp \!\!\!\perp x_3 | x_1\}$



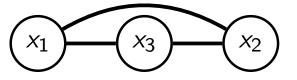
Collider does not have an undirected P-map



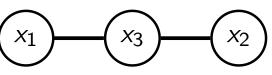
Consider the independencies represented by the collider K_0 .

$$\blacktriangleright \text{ Let } \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{I}(K_o) = \{x_1 \perp \perp x_2\}$$

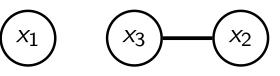
• I-map for
$$\mathcal{U}$$
: $\mathcal{I}(H) = \{\}$



▶ Not an I-map for \mathcal{U} : graph wrongly asserts $x_1 \perp \perp x_2 \mid x_3$



▶ Not an I-map for \mathcal{U} : graph wrongly asserts $x_1 \perp x_3$



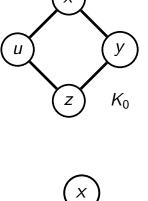
Going through all undirected graphs shows that there is no undirected perfect I-map for U.

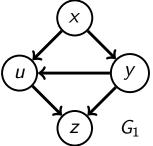
Diamond does not have a directed P-map

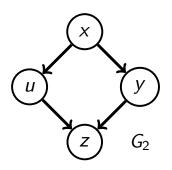
Consider the independencies represented by the diamond configuration K_0 .

$$\blacktriangleright \text{ Let } \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{I}(K_0) = \{x \perp \!\!\! \perp z | u, y; u \perp \!\!\! \perp y | x, z\}$$

- G_1 is an I-map for \mathcal{U} : $\mathcal{I}(G_1) = \{x \perp l | u, y\} \subset \mathcal{U}$
- G_2 is not an I-map for \mathcal{U} : graph wrongly asserts $u \perp y | x$
- Going through all DAGs shows that there is no directed perfect I-map for U.







- Directed or undirected perfect maps may not always exist.
- On the other hand, criterion for a graph to be an I-map is weak (full graph is an I-map!).
- Compromise: Let us "sparsify" I-maps so that they become more useful.
- Definition: A minimal I-map is an I-map such that if you remove an edge (more independencies), the resulting graph is not an I-map any more.
- Note: A perfect map for U is also a minimal I-map for U (being perfect is a stronger requirement than being minimal)

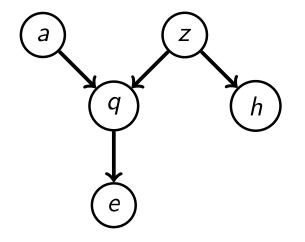
Our previous visualisations of $p(\mathbf{x})$ are minimal I-maps

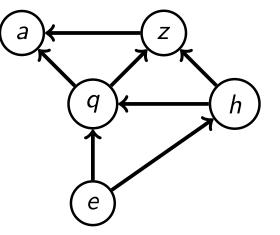
To visualise $p(\mathbf{x})$ as a DAG:

- Ordering + independencies $x_i \perp (\text{pre}_i \setminus \pi_i) \mid \pi_i$ that $p(\mathbf{x})$ satisfies, where π_i is a *minimal* subset of the predecessors
- Construct a graph with the π_i as parents pa_i
- Gives a minimal I-map of $\mathcal{I}(p)$ because the π_i are the minimal subsets.
- To visualise $p(\mathbf{x})$ as an undirected graph:
 - Determine the Markov blanket for each variable x_i
 - Construct a graph where the neighbours of x_i are its Markov blanket.
 - Gives a minimal I-map of I(p) because the Markov blanket is the minimal set of variables that makes the x_i independent from the remaining variables.

Directed minimal I-maps are not unique

Consider *p* with perfect I-map G_1 . Use G_1 to determine $x_i \perp (\text{pre}_i \setminus \pi_i) \mid \pi_i$ for a given ordering of the variables.





Graph G_1

Minimal I-map G_2 for ordering (e, h, q, z, a), see exercises

- Directed (minimal) I-maps are not unique.
- ► Here: $\mathcal{I}(G_2) \subset \mathcal{I}(G_1) = \mathcal{I}(p)$.
- The minimal directed I-maps from different orderings may not represent the same independencies. (they are not I-equivalent)

Pros/cons of directed and undirected graphs

- Some independencies are more easily represented with DAGs, others with undirected graphs.
- Both directed and undirected graphical models have strengths and weaknesses.
- Undirected graphs are suitable when interactions are symmetrical and when there is no natural ordering of the variables, but they cannot represent "explaining away" phenomena (colliders).
- DAGs are suitable when we have an idea of the data generating process (e.g. what is "causing" what), but they may force directionality where there is none.
- It is possible to combine the individual strengths with mixed/partially directed graphs (see e.g. Barber, Section 4.3; Lauritzen, Section 3.2.3, not examinable).

1. Graphs as independency maps (I-maps)

- 2. Equivalence of I-maps (I-equivalence)
 - I-equivalence for DAGs: check the skeletons and the immoralities
 - I-equivalence for undirected graphs: check the skeletons
 - I-equivalence between directed and undirected graphs

I-equivalence for DAGs

- How do we determine whether two DAGs make the same independence assertions (that they are "I-equivalent")?
- From d-separation: what matters is
 - which node is connected to which irrespective of direction (skeleton)

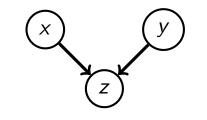
the set of collider (head-to-head) connections

Connection
$$p(x, y)$$
 $p(x, y|z)$ $x \rightarrow z \rightarrow y$ $x \not \perp y$ $x \not \perp y \mid z$ $x \rightarrow z \rightarrow y$ $x \not \perp y$ $x \not \perp y \mid z$ $x \rightarrow z \rightarrow y$ $x \not \perp y$ $x \not \perp y \mid z$

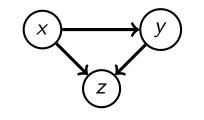
I-equivalence for DAGs

- The situation x ⊥⊥ y and x ⊥⊥ y | z can only happen if we have colliders without a "covering edge" x → y or x ← y, that is when parents of the collider node are not directly connected.
- Colliders without a covering edge are called "immoralities".
- ► Theorem: For two DAGs G_1 and G_2 : G_1 and G_2 are l-equivalent $\iff G_1$ and G_2 have the same skeleton and the same set of immoralities.

(for a proof, see e.g. Theorem 4.4, Koski and Noble, 2009; not examinable)

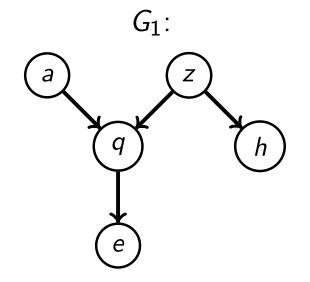


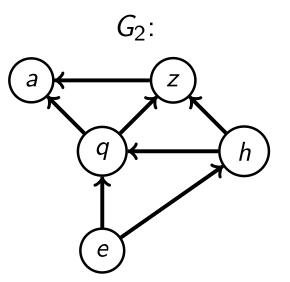
 $x \perp\!\!\!\perp y$ and $x \not\!\!\perp y \mid z$ Collider w/o covering edge



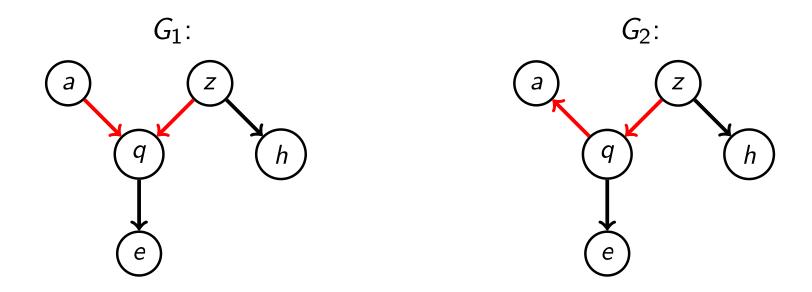
 $x \perp y$ and $x \perp y \mid z$ Collider with covering edge

Not I-equivalent because of skeleton mismatch:

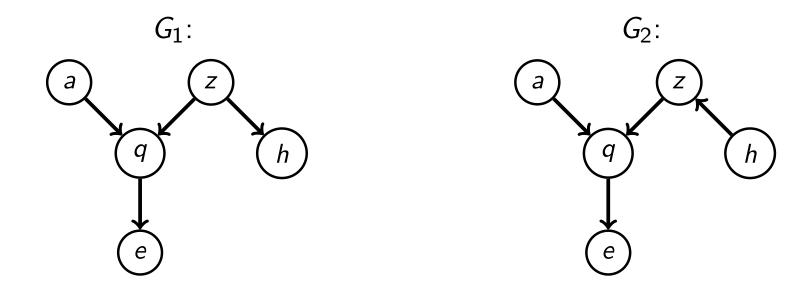




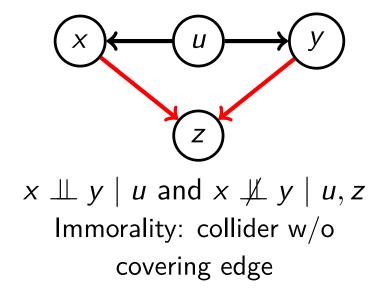
Not I-equivalent because of immoralities mismatch:

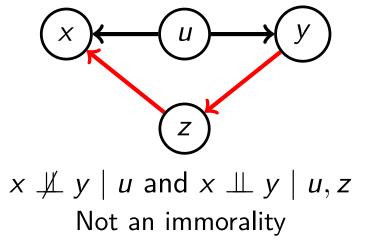


I-equivalent (same skeleton, same immoralities):



Not I-equivalent (immoralities mismatch)



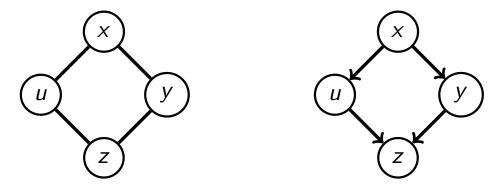


I-equivalence for undirected graphs

- Different undirected graphs make different independence assertions.
- I-equivalent if their skeleton is the same.

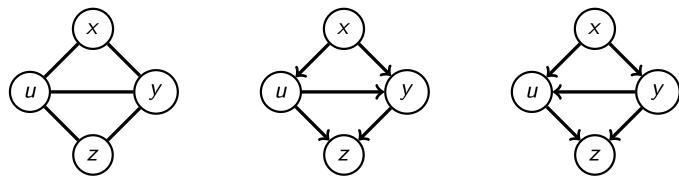
Recall the example about non-existence of P-maps:

- ▶ Immoralities (colliders without a covering edge) allow DAGs to represent independencies that cannot be represented with undirected graphs (e.g. $x \perp y$ without enforcing $x \perp y|z$)
- Diamond configurations (where the loop has length > 3) allow undirected graphs to represent independencies that DAGs cannot represent.
- Connection between the two: Turning a diamond configuration into a DAG introduces an immorality.



I-equivalence between directed and undirected graphs

- For DAGs without immoralities, only the skeleton is relevant for I-equivalence. Since the orientation of the arrows does not matter, we can just replace them with undirected edges to obtain an I-equivalent undirected graph.
- Relatedly, for chordal/triangulated undirected graphs (where the longest loop without shortcuts is a triangle), introducing arrows does not lead to immoralities (there is always a covering edge!) and obtained DAGs are l-equivalent to the undirected graph.
- Example of I-equivalent graphs:



(note the covering edge between u and y)

1. Graphs as independency maps (I-maps)

- I-maps
- Perfect maps
- Minimal I-maps
- Strengths and weaknesses of directed and undirected graphs

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- I-equivalence for DAGs: check the skeletons and the immoralities
- I-equivalence for undirected graphs: check the skeletons
- I-equivalence between directed and undirected graphs

- There is some material on I-maps in Bishop (2006) sec. 8.3.4, but with less detail than here
- Koller and Friedman (2009) cover I-maps (sec. 3.2.3.1 for DGMs, sec. 4.3.3 for UGMs), minimal and perfect I-maps (secs. 3.4.1, 3.4.2) and I-equivalance (sec. 3.3.4).

But following carefully the material (by MG) in the slides and tutorials is sufficient for PMR

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