

- Recitation?
- Exam dates, poster dates, etc.
- Mailing list
- Questions?

Eric Xin

#### **Representing Multivariate Distribution**



 Representation: what is the joint probability dist. on multiple variables?

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8,)$$

- How many state configurations in total? --- 28
- Are they all needed to be represented?
- Do we get any scientific/medical insight?



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Factored representation: the chain-rule

$$\begin{split} &P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) \\ &= P(X_1)P(X_2 \mid X_1)P(X_3 \mid X_1, X_2)P(X_4 \mid X_1, X_2, X_3)P(X_5 \mid X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4)P(X_6 \mid X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5) \\ &P(X_7 \mid X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6)P(X_8 \mid X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7) \end{split}$$

- This factorization is true for any distribution and any variable ordering
- Do we save any parameterization cost?
- If  $X_i$ 's are independent:  $(P(X_i|\cdot) = P(X_i))$

```
\begin{split} &P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) \\ &= P(X_1) P(X_2) P(X_3) P(X_4) P(X_5) P(X_6) P(X_7) P(X_8) = \prod P(X_i) \end{split}
```

What do we gain?What do we lose?

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- Even in the simplest case where these variables are binary-valued, a joint distribution requires the specification of 2<sup>n</sup> numbers the probabilities of the 2<sup>n</sup> different assignments of values x<sub>1</sub>, . . . , x<sub>n</sub>
- Today's lecture is about ...
  - how independence properties in the distribution can be used to represent such high-dimensional distributions much more compactly.
  - how a combinatorial data structure a directed acyclic graph can provide us with a general-purpose modeling language for exploiting this type of structure in our representation.

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#### Two types of GMs



 Directed edges give causality relationships (Bayesian Network or Directed Graphical Model):

$$\begin{split} &P(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, X_{5}, X_{6}, X_{7}, X_{8}) \\ &= P(X_{1}) P(X_{2}) P(X_{3} | X_{1}) P(X_{4} | X_{2}) P(X_{5} | X_{2}) \\ &P(X_{6} | X_{3}, X_{4}) P(X_{7} | X_{6}) P(X_{8} | X_{5}, X_{6}) \end{split}$$



 Undirected edges simply give correlations between variables (Markov Random Field or Undirected Graphical model):

```
\begin{split} &P(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, X_{4}, X_{5}, X_{6}, X_{7}, X_{8}) \\ &= \frac{1/Z}{E} \exp\{E(X_{1}) + E(X_{2}) + E(X_{3}, X_{1}) + E(X_{4}, X_{2}) + E(X_{5}, X_{2}) \\ &+ E(X_{6}, X_{3}, X_{4}) + E(X_{7}, X_{6}) + E(X_{8}, X_{5}, X_{6})\} \end{split}
```

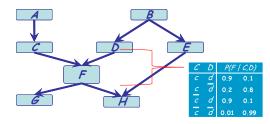


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#### **Specification of a directed GM**



- There are two components to any GM:
  - the *qualitative* specification
  - the quantitative specification



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#### **Bayesian Network:**



- A BN is a directed graph whose nodes represent the random variables and whose edges represent direct influence of one variable on another.
- It is a data structure that provides the skeleton for representing a
  joint distribution compactly in a factorized way;
- It offers a compact representation for a set of conditional independence assumptions about a distribution;
- We can view the graph as encoding a generative sampling process executed by nature, where the value for each variable is selected by nature using a distribution that depends only on its parents. In other words, each variable is a stochastic function of its parents.

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#### Bayesian Network: Factorization Theorem

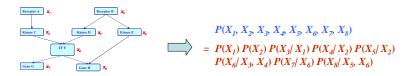


• Theorem:

Given a DAG, The most general form of the probability distribution that is consistent with the graph factors according to "node given its parents":

$$P(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1:d} P(X_i \mid \mathbf{X}_{\pi_i})$$

where  $X_{\pi_i}$  is the set of parents of  $X_i$ , d is the number of nodes (variables) in the graph.



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### **Qualitative Specification**



- Where does the qualitative specification come from?
  - Prior knowledge of causal relationships
  - Prior knowledge of modular relationships
  - Assessment from experts
  - Learning from data
  - We simply link a certain architecture (e.g. a layered graph)
  - •

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# Local Structures & Independencies



- Common parent
  - Fixing B decouples A and C
     "given the level of gene B, the levels of A and C are independent"



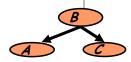


- Knowing B decouples A and C
   "given the level of gene B, the level gene A provides no extra prediction value for the level of gene C"
- V-structure
  - Knowing C couples A and B
     because A can "explain away" B w.r.t. C
     "If A correlates to C, then chance for B to also correlate to B will decrease"
- The language is compact, the concepts are rich!

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### A simple justification





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#### **I-maps**



- **Defn (3.2.2):** Let P be a distribution over X. We define I(P) to be the set of independence assertions of the form  $(X \perp Y \mid Z)$  that hold in P (however how we set the parameter-values).
- Defn (3.2.3): Let K be any graph object associated with a set of independencies I(K). We say that K is an I-map for a set of independencies I, I(K) 

  I.
- We now say that G is an I-map for P if G is an I-map for I(P), where we use I(G) as the set of independencies associated.

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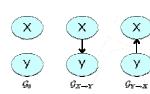
#### **Facts about I-map**



 For G to be an I-map of P, it is necessary that G does not mislead us regarding independencies in P:

any independence that G asserts must also hold in P. Conversely, P may have additional dependencies that are not reflected in G

• Example:



	X	Y	P(X,Y)
	x0	$v_0$	80.0
$P_1$	20	$y^1$	0.32
	$x^1$	$y^0$	-0.12
	$x^1$	y1	0.48

$$P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} X & Y & P(X,Y) \\ x^0 & y^0 & 0.4 \\ x^0 & y^1 & 0.3 \\ x^1 & y^0 & 0.2 \\ x^1 & y^1 & 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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# What is in I(G) --- local Markov assumptions of BN



A *Bayesian network structure* G is a directed acyclic graph whose nodes represent random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ .

#### **local Markov assumptions**

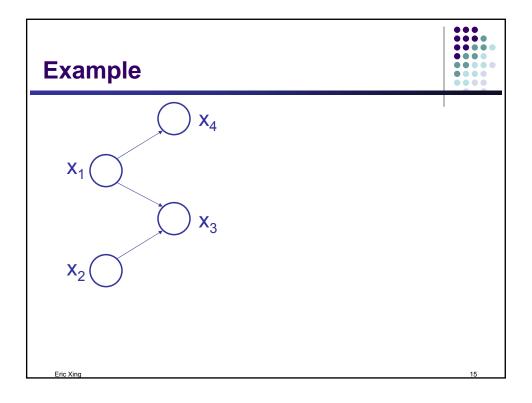
• Defn (3.2.1):

Let  $Pa_{xi}$  denote the parents of  $X_i$  in G, and  $NonDescendants_{xi}$  denote the variables in the graph that are not descendants of  $X_i$ . Then G encodes the following set of **conditional independence assumptions**  $I_k(G)$ :

$$I_i(G)$$
:  $\{X_i \perp NonDescendants_{x_i} \mid Pa_{x_i} : \forall i\}$ ,

In other words, each node  $X_i$  is independent of its nondescendants given its parents.

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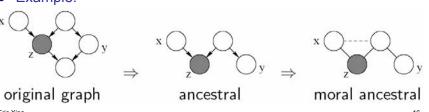
## **Graph separation criterion**



• D-separation criterion for Bayesian networks (D for Directed edges):

**Defn**: variables x and y are *D-separated* (conditionally independent) given z if they are separated in the *moralized* ancestral graph

• Example:



#### **Active trail**



- Causal trail X → Z → Y: active if and only if Z is not observed.
- Evidential trail X ← Z ← Y : active if and only if Z is not observed.
- Common cause X ← Z → Y : active if and only if Z is not observed.
- Common effect X → Z ← Y : active if and only if either Z or one of Z's descendants is observed

**Definition (3.3.2):** Let X, Y, Z be three **sets** of nodes in G. We say that X and Y are d-separated given Z, denoted d-sep $_{\mathcal{G}}(X;Y\mid Z)$ , if there is **no** active trail between any node  $X\subseteq X$  and  $Y\subseteq Y$  given Z.

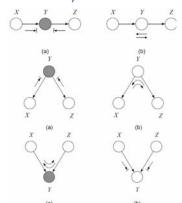
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# What is in I(G) --Global Markov properties of BN



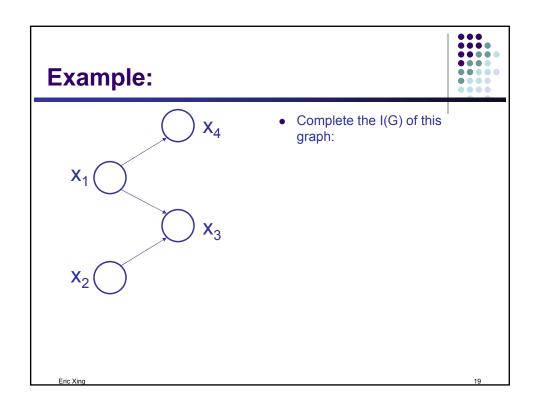
 X is d-separated (directed-separated) from Z given Y if we can't send a ball from any node in X to any node in Z using the "Bayesball" algorithm illustrated bellow (and plus some boundary conditions):

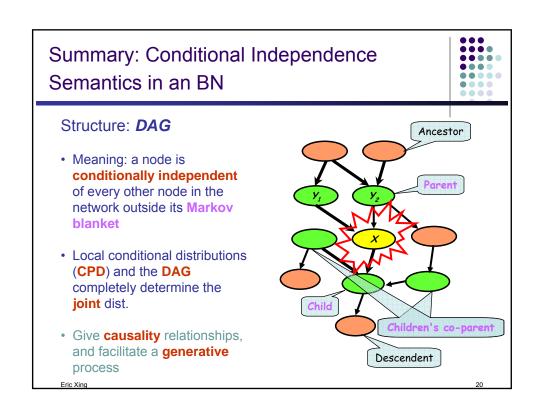


 Defn: I(G)=all independence properties that correspond to dseparation:

$$I(G) = \left\{ X \perp Z \middle| Y : dsep_G(X; Z \middle| Y) \right\}$$

 D-separation is sound and complete (more details later)





# Toward quantitative specification of probability distribution



- Separation properties in the graph imply independence properties about the associated variables
- The Equivalence Theorem

For a graph G,

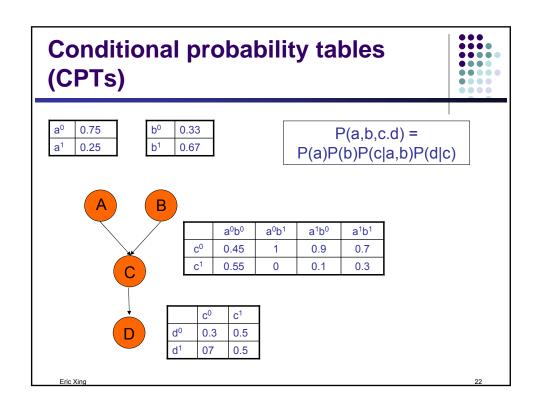
Let  $\mathcal{D}_1$  denote the family of **all distributions** that satisfy I(G), Let  $\mathcal{D}_2$  denote the family of **all distributions** that factor according to G.

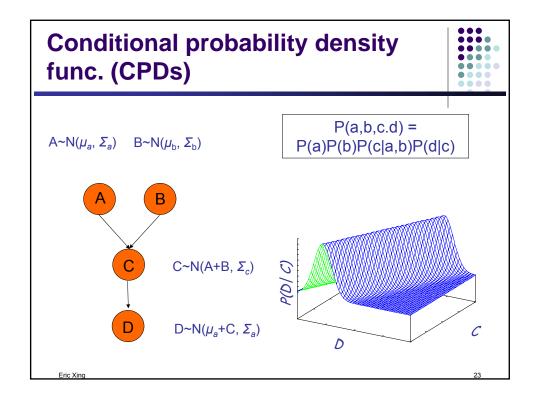
$$P(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1:d} P(X_i \mid \mathbf{X}_{\pi_i})$$

Then  $\mathfrak{D}_1 \equiv \mathfrak{D}_2$ .

 For the graph to be useful, any conditional independence properties we can derive from the graph should hold for the probability distribution that the graph represents

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### **Summary of BN semantics**



- **Defn (3.2.5):** A *Bayesian network* is a pair (G, P) where P factorizes over G, and where P is specified as set of CPDs associated with G's nodes.
  - Conditional independencies imply factorization
  - Factorization according to G implies the associated conditional independencies.
  - Are there other independences that hold for every distribution P that factorizes over G?

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## Soundness and completeness



D-separation is sound and "complete" w.r.t. BN factorization law

#### Soundness:

**Theorem**: If a distribution P factorizes according to G, then  $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$ .

#### "Completeness":

**"Claim"**: For any distribution P that factorizes over G, if  $(X \perp Y \mid Z) \subseteq I(P)$  then  $\textit{d-sep}_G(X; Y \mid Z)$ .

Contrapositive of the completeness statement

- "If X and Y are not d-separated given Z in G, then X and Y are dependent in all distributions P that factorize over G."
- Is this true?

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#### Soundness and completeness



- Contrapositive of the completeness statement
  - "If X and Y are not d-separated given Z in G, then X and Y are dependent in all
    distributions P that factorize over G."
  - Is this true?
- No. Even if a distribution factorizes over G, it can still contain additional independencies that are not reflected in the structure
  - Example: graph A->B, for actually independent A and B (the independence can be captured by some subtle way of parameterization)

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} A & b^0 & b^1 \\ \hline a^0 & 0.4 & 0.6 \\ a^1 & 0.4 & 0.6 \\ \end{array}$$

• **Thm**: Let G be a BN graph. If X and Y are not d-separated given Z in G, then X and Y are dependent in some distribution P that factorizes over G.

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 Theorem 3.3.6: For almost all distributions P that factorize over G, i.e., for all distributions except for a set of "measure zero" in the space of CPD parameterizations, we have that I(P) = I(G)

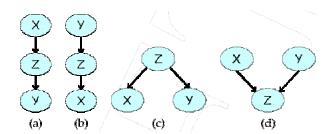
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### **Uniqueness of BN**



 Very different BN graphs can actually be equivalent, in that they encode precisely the same set of conditional independence assertions.



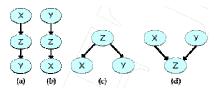
(X  $\perp$  Y | Z).

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### I-equivalence



- **Defn (3.3.9):** Two BN graphs G1 and G2 over *X* are *l*-equivalent if I(G1) = I(G2).
  - The set of all graphs over *X* is partitioned into a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive *I-equivalence classes*, which are the set of equivalence classes induced by the I-equivalence relation.



- Any distribution P that can be factorized over one of these graphs can be factorized over the other.
- Furthermore, there is no intrinsic property of P that would allow us associate it with one graph rather than an equivalent one.
- This observation has important implications with respect to our ability to determine the directionality of influence.

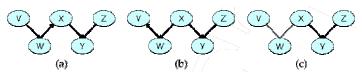
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#### **Detecting I-equivalence**



• **Defn (3.3.10):** The *skeleton* of a Bayesian network graph G over *V* is an undirected graph over *V* that contains an edge {*X*, *Y*} for every edge (*X*, *Y*) in G.



- Thm (3.3.11): Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  be two graphs over V. If  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  have the same skeleton and the same set of v-structures then they are l-equivalent.
  - graph equivalence
  - Same trail
  - But not necessarily active

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#### **Minimum I-MAP**

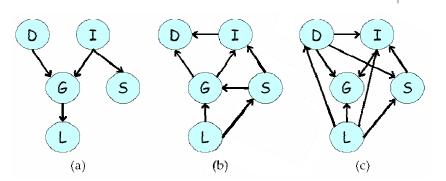


- Complete graph is a (trivial) I-map for any distribution, yet it does not reveal any of the independence structure in the distribution.
  - Meaning that the graph dependence is arbitrary, thus by careful parameterization an dependencies can be captured
  - We want a graph that has the maximum possible I(G), yet still  $\subseteq I(P)$
- **Defn 3.4.1:** A graph object G is a *minimal I-map* for a set of independencies I if it is an I-map for I, and if the removal of even a single edge from G renders it not an I-map.

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## Minimum I-MAP is not unique





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### **Perfect Map**

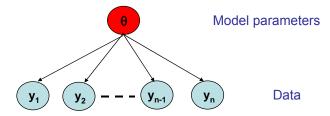


- Defn (3.4.3): We say that a graph object G is a perfect map (P-map) for a set of independencies I if we have that I(G) = I.
   We say that G is a perfect map for P if I(G) = I(P).
  - The fact that G is a minimal I-map for P is far from a guarantee that G captures the independence structure in P
  - Not all P has a perfect map as DAG!
  - The P-map of a distribution is unique up to I-equivalence between networks. That is, a distribution P can have many P-maps, but all of them are I-equivalent.

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# **Conditionally Independent Observations**

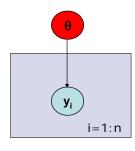




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#### "Plate" Notation





Model parameters

Data = 
$$\{y_1, ..., y_n\}$$

Plate = rectangle in graphical model

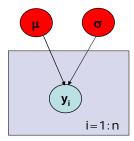
variables within a plate are replicated in a conditionally independent manner

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#### **Example: Gaussian Model**



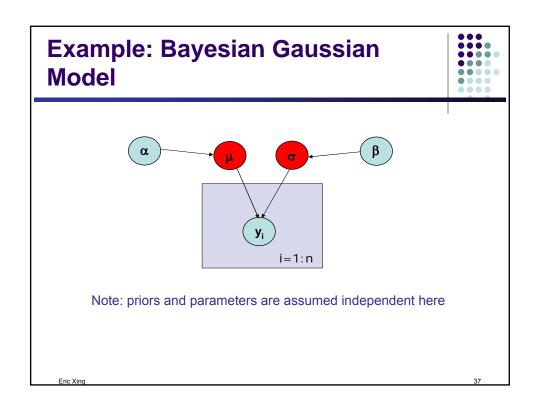


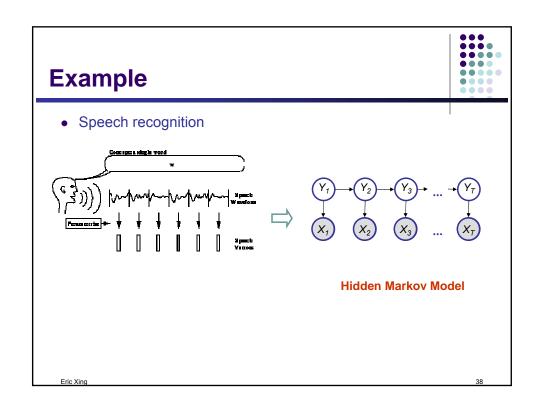
Generative model:

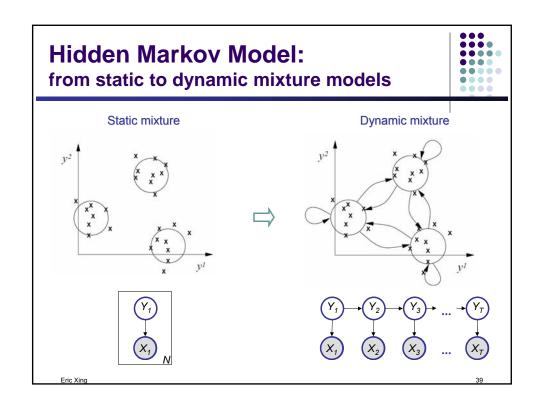
$$\begin{split} p(y_1, \dots y_n \mid \mu, \, \sigma) &= \prod_i p(y_i \mid \mu, \, \sigma) \\ &= p(\text{data} \mid \text{parameters}) \\ &= p(D \mid \theta) \\ \text{where } \theta = \{\mu, \, \sigma\} \end{split}$$

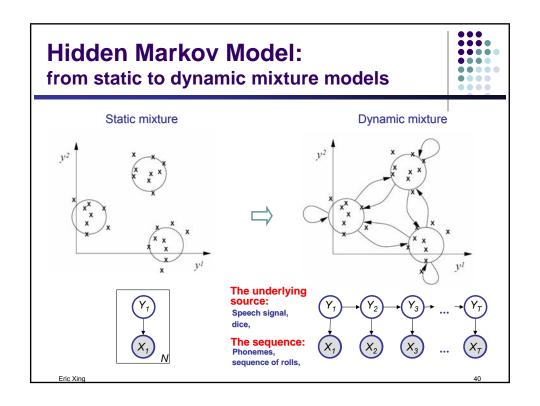
- Likelihood = p(data | parameters)= p( D | θ )= L (θ)
- Likelihood tells us how likely the observed data are conditioned on a particular setting of the parameters
  - Often easier to work with log L (θ)

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#### **The Dishonest Casino**



A casino has two dice:

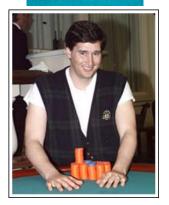
- Fair die P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6
- Loaded die
   P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(5) = 1/10
   P(6) = 1/2

Casino player switches back-&-forth between fair and loaded die once every 20 turns

#### Game:

- 1. You bet \$1
- 2. You roll (always with a fair die)
- 3. Casino player rolls (maybe with fair die, maybe with loaded die)
- 4. Highest number wins \$2



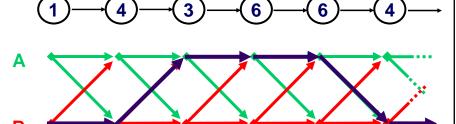


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### A stochastic generative model



• Observed sequence:



Hidden sequence (a parse or segmentation):



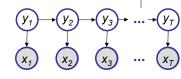
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#### **Definition (of HMM)**



Observation space

Alphabetic set:  $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{k}\}$ Euclidean space:  $\mathbb{R}^d$ 



Index set of hidden states

$$I = \{1, 2, \cdots, M\}$$

• Transition probabilities between any two states

$$\begin{split} & p(y_t^{\,j} = 1 \,|\, y_{t-1}^{\,i} = 1) = a_{i,j}, \\ \text{or} & p(y_t \,|\, y_{t-1}^{\,i} = 1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(a_{i,1}, a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,M}), \forall \, i \in I. \end{split}$$

Start probabilities

$$p(y_1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_M)$$
.

Emission probabilities associated with each state

$$p(x_t \mid y_t^i = 1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(b_{i,1}, b_{i,1}, \dots, b_{i,K}), \forall i \in I.$$

or in general:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{y}_t^i = 1) \sim f(\cdot | \theta_i), \forall i \in \mathbb{I}.$$

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# Puzzles regarding the dishonest casino



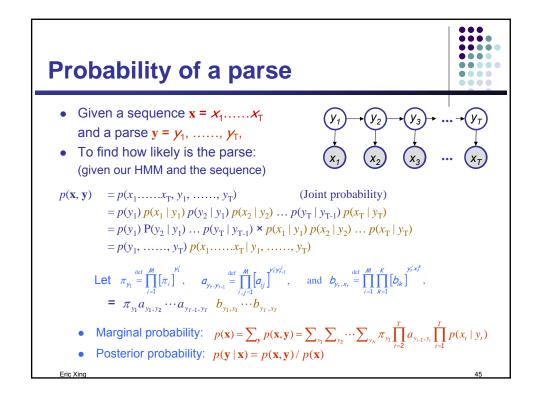
GIVEN: A sequence of rolls by the casino player

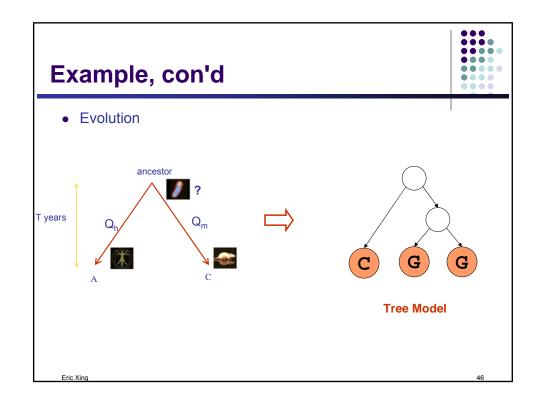
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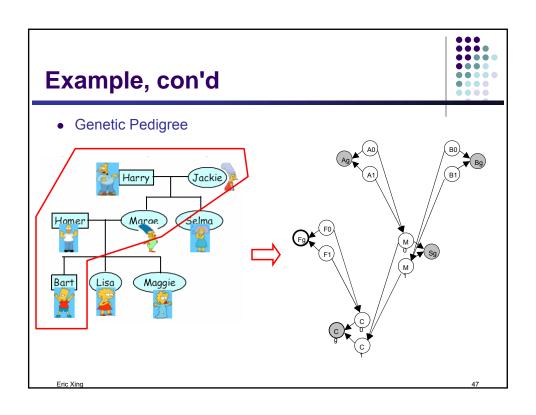
#### **QUESTION**

- How likely is this sequence, given our model of how the casino works?
  - This is the **EVALUATION** problem in HMMs
- What portion of the sequence was generated with the fair die, and what portion with the loaded die?
  - This is the **DECODING** question in HMMs
- How "loaded" is the loaded die? How "fair" is the fair die? How often does the casino player change from fair to loaded, and back?
  - This is the **LEARNING** question in HMMs

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## **Summary of BN semantics**



• **Defn (3.2.5):** A *Bayesian network* is a pair (G, P) where P factorizes over G, and where P is specified as set of CPDs associated with G's nodes.

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## **Knowledge Engineering**



- Picking variables
  - Observed
  - Hidden
- Picking structure
  - CAUSAL
  - Generative
- Picking Probabilities
  - Zero probabilities
  - Orders of magnitudes
  - Relative values

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