



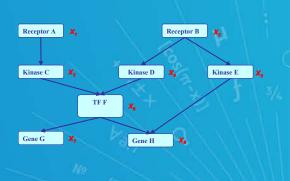
Probabilistic Graphical Models

Directed GMs: Bayesian Networks

01010001 Ω

Eric Xing
Lecture 3, January 22, 2019

Reading: see class homepage





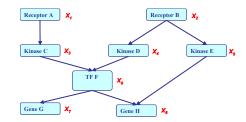
Two types of GMs

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

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

$$= P(X_1) P(X_2) P(X_3 | X_1) P(X_4 | X_2) P(X_5 | X_2)$$

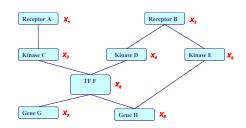
$$P(X_6 | X_3, X_4) P(X_7 | X_6) P(X_8 | X_5, X_6)$$



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

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

$$= \frac{1}{Z} \exp\{E(X_1) + E(X_2) + E(X_3, X_1) + E(X_4, X_2) + E(X_5, X_2) + E(X_6, X_3, X_4) + E(X_7, X_6) + E(X_8, X_5, X_6)\}$$





Example: Expert systems

- Beinlich et al. 1989
- Encodes medical knowledge
- Patient monitoring system
 - Measurements:
 - Blood pressure 120/80 mmHg
 - Heart rate 80/min
 - Respiratory rate 10/min
 - ...
 - Query:
 - Pr(kinked tube=true | measurements) = ?

The ALARM Monitoring System: A Case Study with two Probabilistic Inference Techniques for Belief Networks

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Abstract ALARM (A Logical Alarm Reduction Mechanism) is a diagnostic application used to explore probabilistic reasoning techniques in belief networks. ALARM implements an alarm message system for patient monitoring; it calculates probabilities for a differential diagnosis based on available evidence. The medical knowledge is encoded in a graphical structure connecting 8 diagnoses, 16 findings and 13 intermediate variables. Two algorithms were applied to this belief network: (1) a message-passing algorithm by Pearl for probability updating in multiply connected networks using the method of conditioning; and (2) the Lauritzen-Spiegelhalter algorithm for local probability computations on graphical structures. The characteristics of both algorithms are analyzed and their specific applications and time complexities are shown.

Introduction

The goal of the ALARM monitoring system is to provide specific text messages advising the user of possible problems. This is a diagnostic task, and we have chosen to represent the relevant knowledge in the language of a belief network (Fig. 1). This graphical representation [Pearl 86b] facilitates the integration of qualitative and quantitative knowledge, the assessment of multiple faults, as required by our domain, and nonmonotonic and bidirectional reasoning.

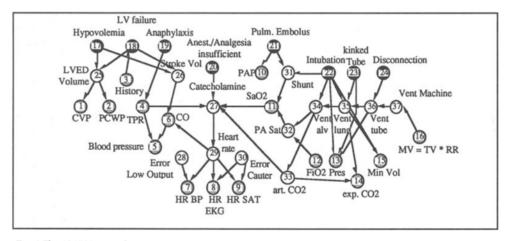


Fig. 1 The ALARM network representing causal relationships is shown with diagnostic (●), intermediate (○) and measurement (●) nodes. CO: cardiac output, CVP: central venous pressure, LVED volume: left ventricular end-diastolic volume, LV failure: left ventricular failure, MV: minute ventilation, PA Sat: pulmonary artery oxygen saturation, PAP: pulmonary artery pressure, PCWP: pulmonary capillary wedge pressure, Pres: breathing pressure, RR: respiratory rate, TPR: total peripheral resistance, TV: tidal volume



Example: The Dishonest Casino

- A casino has two dice:
 - □ Fair die

$$P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6$$

■ Loaded die

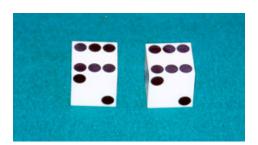
$$P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(5) = 1/10$$

$$P(6) = 1/2$$

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

Game:

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









Puzzles regarding the dishonest casino

GIVEN: A sequence of rolls by the casino player

1245526462146146136136661664661636616366163616515615115146123562344

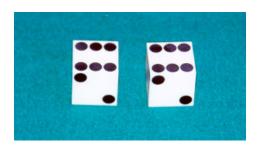
QUESTION

- How likely is this sequence, given our model of how the casino works?
 - □ This is the **EVALUATION** problem
- What portion of the sequence was generated with the fair die, and what portion with the loaded die?
 - This is the DECODING question
- 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





Knowledge Engineering



- Picking variables
 - Observed
 - Hidden
 - Discrete
 - Continuous
- Picking structure
 - CAUSAL
 - Generative
 - Coupling
- Picking Probabilities
 - "Natural"
 - Zero probabilities
 - Orders of magnitudes
 - Relative values



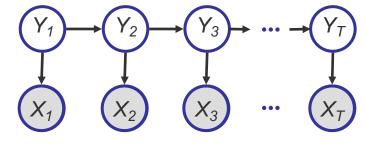
Hidden Markov Model

The underlying source:

Speech signal genome function dice

The sequence:

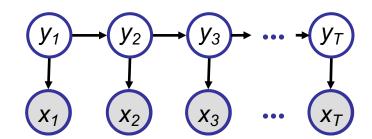
Phonemes
DNA sequence
sequence of rolls





Probability of a parse

- Given a sequence $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_T$ and a parse $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_T$
- □ To find how likely is the parse: (given our HMM and the sequence)



$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(x_1, \dots, x_T, y_1, \dots, y_T)$$
 (Joint probability)

$$= p(y_1) p(x_1 | y_1) p(y_2 | y_1) p(x_2 | y_2) \dots p(y_T | y_{T-1}) p(x_T | y_T)$$

$$= p(y_1) P(y_2 | y_1) \dots p(y_T | y_{T-1}) \times p(x_1 | y_1) p(x_2 | y_2) \dots p(x_T | y_T)$$

$$= p(y_1, \dots, y_T) p(x_1, \dots, x_T | y_1, \dots, y_T)$$

- □ Marginal probability: $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{y_1} \sum_{y_2} \cdots \sum_{y_N} \pi_{y_1} \prod_{t=2}^{I} a_{y_{t-1}, y_t} \prod_{t=1}^{I} p(x_t \mid y_t)$
- □ Posterior probability: $p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) / p(\mathbf{x})$
- We will learn how to do this efficiently (polynomial time)





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.





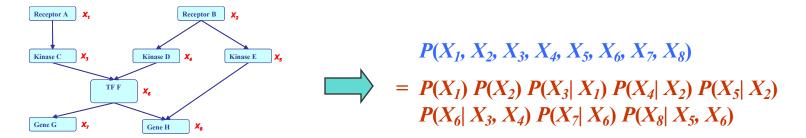
Bayesian Network: Factorization Theorem

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_{π_i} is the set of parents of X_i , d is the number of nodes (variables) in the graph.

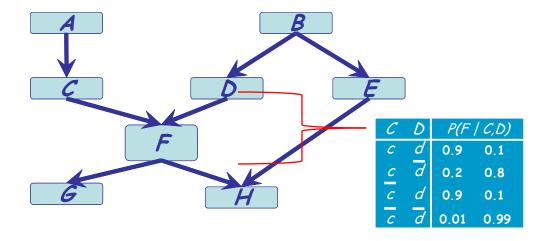






Specification of a directed GM

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





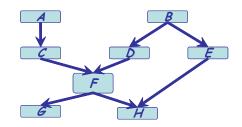


Qualitative Specification

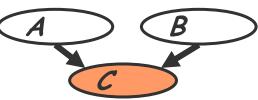
- Where does the qualitative specification come from?
 - Prior knowledge of causal relationships
 - Prior knowledge of modular relationships
 - Assessment from experts
 - Learning from data
 - We simply like a certain architecture (e.g. a layered graph)
 - **.** . . .





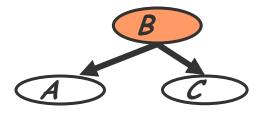


- Common parent
 - Fixing B decouples A and C
 "given the level of gene B, the levels of A and C are independent"
- Cascade
 - Knowing B decouples A and C
 "given the level of gene B, the level gene A provides no extra prediction value for the level of gene C"
- V-structure
 - Knowing C couples A and 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!





A simple justification







I-maps (Recap)

- **Defn**: 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: 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, if 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.



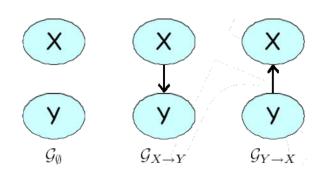


Facts about I-map

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 independencies that are not reflected in G

Example:



$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} X & Y & P(X,Y) \\ \hline x^0 & y^0 & 0.08 \\ x^0 & y^1 & 0.32 \\ \hline x^1 & y^0 & 0.12 \\ x^1 & y^1 & 0.48 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} X & Y & P(X,Y) \\ \hline x^0 & y^0 & 0.4 \\ x^0 & y^1 & 0.3 \\ x^1 & y^0 & 0.2 \\ x^1 & y^1 & 0.1 \\ \end{array}$$



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 :

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 *local conditional independence assumptions* $I_{\mathcal{E}}(G)$:

```
I_{\ell}(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.



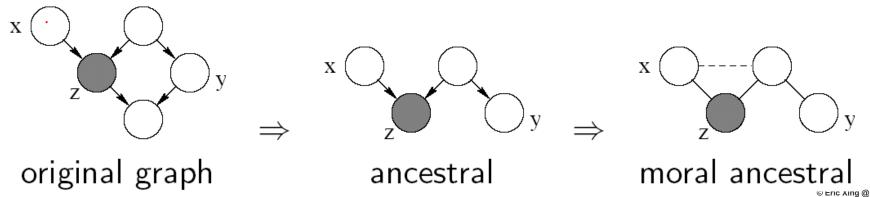


Graph separation criterion

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:

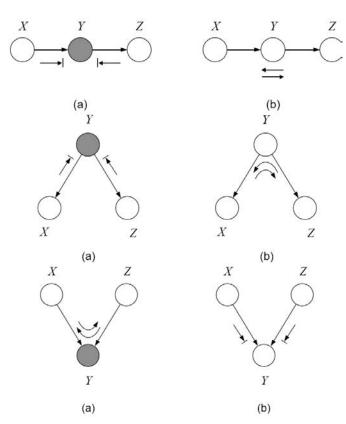






What is in I(G) --Global Markov properties of BN

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 "Bayes-ball" algorithm illustrated bellow (and plus some boundary conditions):



• Defn: I(G)=all independence properties that correspond to d-separation:

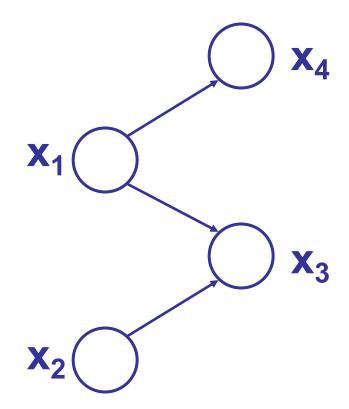
$$I(G) = \{ X \perp Z | Y : dsep_G(X; Z | Y) \}$$

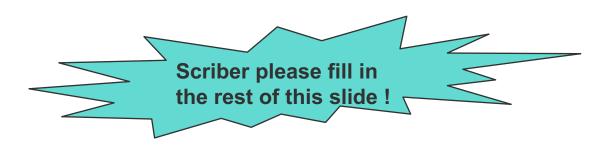
 D-separation is sound and complete (more details later)



Example:

Complete the I(G) of this graph:









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 D_1 denote the family of all distributions that satisfy I(G), Let D_2 denote the family of all distributions that factor according to G,

Then $D_1 \equiv D_2$.

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

 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



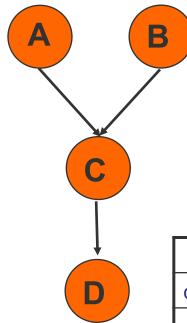


Conditional probability tables (CPTs)

a^0	0.75
a ¹	0.25

b ⁰	0.33
b ¹	0.67

P(a,b,c.d) = P(a)P(b)P(c|a,b)P(d|c)



	a ⁰ b ⁰	a ⁰ b ¹	a ¹ b ⁰	a ¹ b ¹
c 0	0.45	1	0.9	0.7
c ¹	0.55	0	0.1	0.3

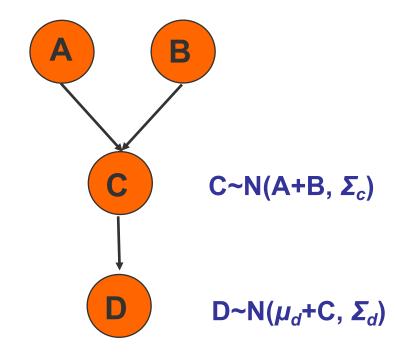
	c ₀	c ¹
d^0	0.3	0.5
d ¹	07	0.5

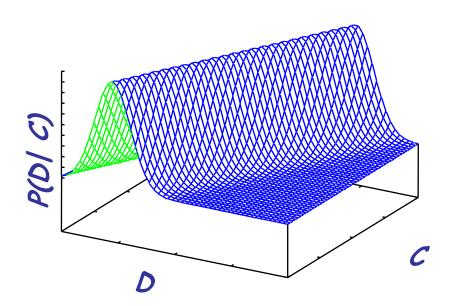


Conditional probability density func. (CPDs)



P(a,b,c.d) = P(a)P(b)P(c|a,b)P(d|c)









Summary of BN semantics

- Defn: 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?





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 $(X \perp Y \mid Z) \in I(P)$ then $d\text{-}sep_G(X; Y \mid Z)$.

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?





Distributional equivalence and I-equivalence

- \Box All independence in $I_d(G)$ will be captured in $I_f(G)$, is the reverse true?
- Are "not-independence" from G all honored in P_f?





Distributional equivalence and I-equivalence

- \Box All independence in $I_d(G)$ will be captured in $I_f(G)$, is the reverse true?
- Are "not-independence" from G all honored in P_f?





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.





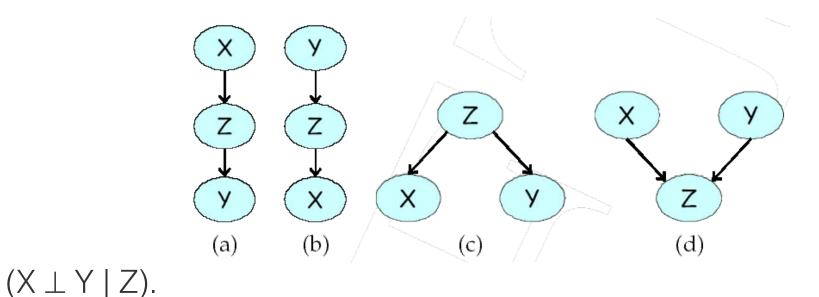
Theorem: For almost all distributions P that factorize over G, i.e., for all distributions except for a set of "measure zero" in the space of CPD parameterizations, we have that I(P) = I(G)





Uniqueness of BN

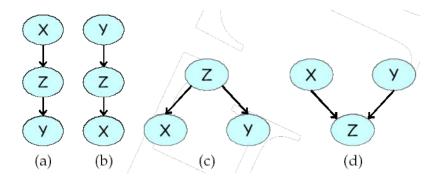
 Very different BN graphs can actually be equivalent, in that they encode precisely the same set of conditional independence assertions.





I-equivalence

- **Defn**: Two BN graphs G1 and G2 over X are I-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.

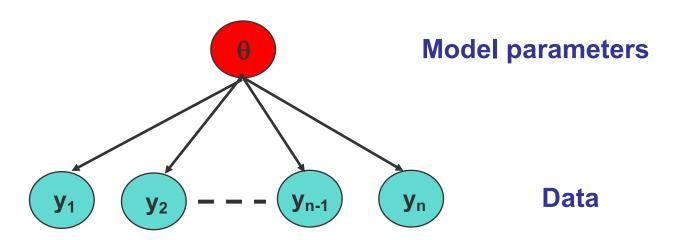


- Any distribution P that can be factorized over one of these graphs can be factorized over the other.
- □ Furthermore, there is no intrinsic property of P that would allow us associate it with one graph rather than an equivalent one.
- This observation has important implications with respect to our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





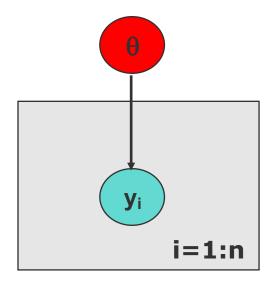
Simple BNs: Conditionally Independent Observations







The "Plate" Micro



Model parameters

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

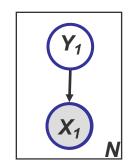
Plate = rectangle in graphical model

variables within a plate are replicated in a conditionally independent manner

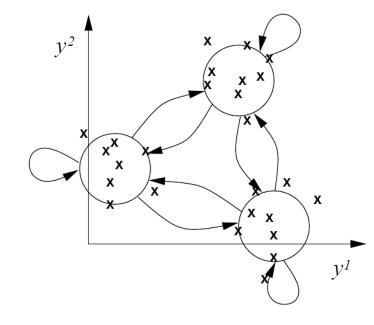


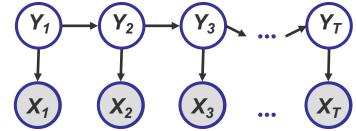
Hidden Markov Model: from static to dynamic mixture models

Static mixture



Dynamic mixture





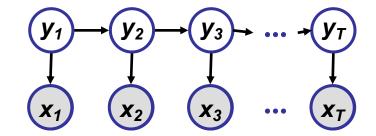


Definition (of HMM)

- Observation space
 - Alphabetic set:

Euclidean space:

 $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k\}$ R^{d}



Index set of hidden states

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

Transition probabilities between any two states

$$p(y_t^j = 1 | y_{t-1}^i = 1) = a_{i,j},$$

or

$$p(y_t \mid y_{t-1}^i = 1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(a_{i,1}, a_{i,1}, \dots, a_{i,M}), \forall i \in I.$$

Start probabilities

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

Emission probabilities associated with each state

or in general:

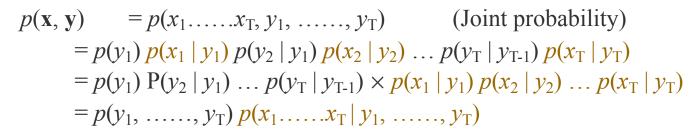
$$p(x_t \mid y_t^i = 1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(b_{i,1}, b_{i,1}, ..., b_{i,K}), \forall i \in I.$$

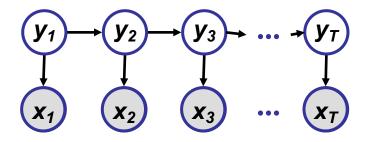
$$p(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{y}_t^i = \mathbf{1}) \sim f(\cdot \mid \theta_i), \forall i \in I.$$



Probability of a parse

- Given a sequence $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_T$ and a parse $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_T$
- To find how likely is the parse:(given our HMM and the sequence)









Summary: 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?
- 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?
- \Box If X_i 's are independent: $(P(X_i/\bullet) = P(X_i))$

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

$$= P(X_1)P(X_2)P(X_3)P(X_4)P(X_5)P(X_6)P(X_7)P(X_8) = \prod_{i} P(X_i)$$

What do we gain?

A

В

E

> What do we lose?





Summary: take home messages

- 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 local conditional probability dist.
 CPDs associated with G's nodes.
- A BN capture "causality", "generative schemes", "asymmetric influences", etc., between entities
- Local and global independence properties identifiable via d- separation criteria (Bayes ball)
- Computing joint likelihood amounts multiplying CPDs
 - But computing marginal can be difficult
 - Thus inference is in general hard
- Important special cases:
 - Hidden Markov models
 - Tree models





A few myths about graphical models

They require a localist semantics for the nodes



They require a causal semantics for the edges



They are necessarily Bayesian



They are intractable



