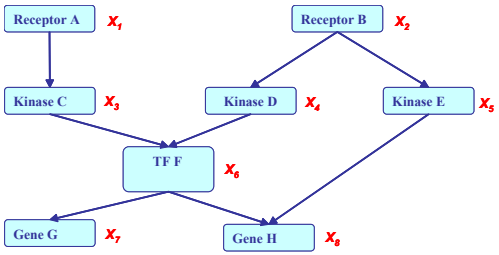
School of Computer Science
Carnegie Mellon

Probabilistic Graphical Models

Directed GMs: Bayesian Networks



Eric Xing

Lecture 2, January 13, 2016

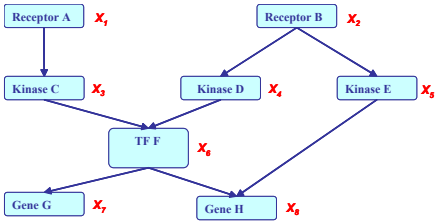
Reading: see class homepage

Two types of GMs

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

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

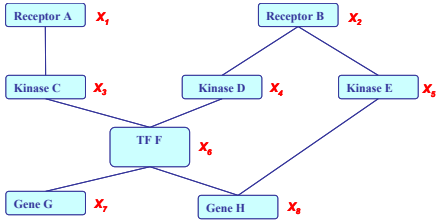
$$= P(X_1)\, P(X_2)\, P(X_3|\, X_1)\, P(X_4|\, X_2)\, P(X_5|\, X_2)$$
$$P(X_6|\, X_3, X_4)\, P(X_7|\, X_6)\, P(X_8|\, X_5, X_6)$$



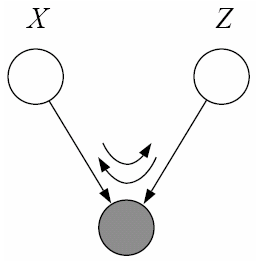
- **Undirected edges simply give correlations between variables (Markov Random Field or Undirected Graphical model):**

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

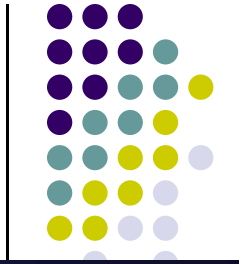
$$= \frac{1}{Z} \exp\{E(X_1)+E(X_2)+E(X_3, X_1)+E(X_4, X_2)+E(X_5, X_2)$$
$$+ E(X_6, X_3, X_4)+E(X_7, X_6)+E(X_8, X_5, X_6)\}$$



- **Representation of directed GM**

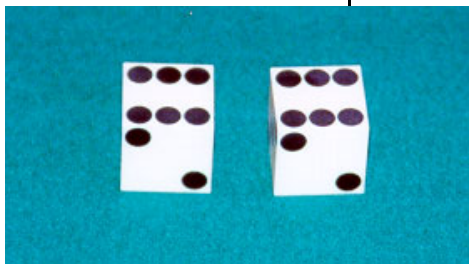


Notation



- Variable, value and index
- Random variable
- Random vector
- Random matrix
- Parameters

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

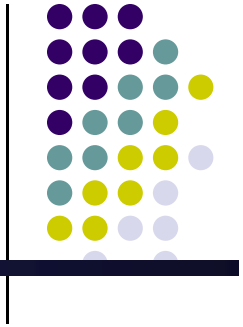
  P(6) = 1/2

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

Game:

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

Puzzles regarding the dishonest casino



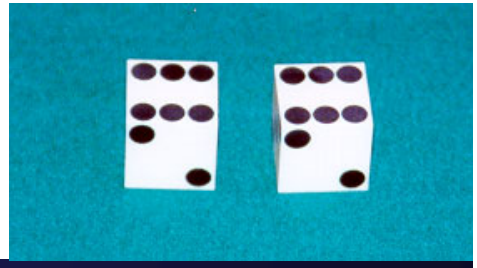
GIVEN: A sequence of rolls by the casino player

1245526462146146136136661664661636616366163616515615115146123562344

QUESTION

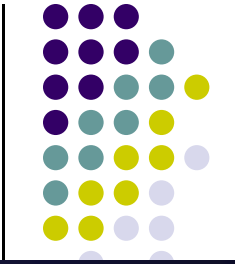
- How likely is this sequence, given our model of how the casino works?
  - This is the **EVALUATION** problem
- What portion of the sequence was generated with the fair die, and what portion with the loaded die?
  - This is the **DECODING** question
- How "loaded" is the loaded die? How "fair" is the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

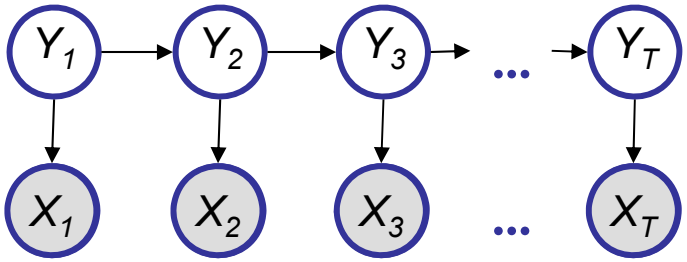


The underlying source:

Speech signal
genome function
dice

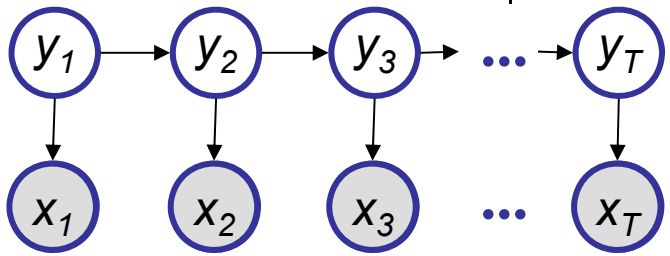
The sequence:

Phonemes
DNA sequence
sequence of rolls



Probability of a parse

- Given a sequence $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T$ and a parse $\mathbf{y} = y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T$,
- To find how likely is the parse: (given our HMM and the sequence)

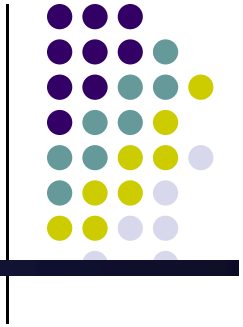


$$
\begin{aligned}
p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= p(x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T, y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T) \qquad \text{(Joint probability)} \\
&= p(y_1)\, p(x_1 \mid y_1)\, p(y_2 \mid y_1)\, p(x_2 \mid y_2) \ldots p(y_T \mid y_{T-1})\, p(x_T \mid y_T) \\
&= p(y_1)\, \mathrm{P}(y_2 \mid y_1) \ldots p(y_T \mid y_{T-1}) \times p(x_1 \mid y_1)\, p(x_2 \mid y_2) \ldots p(x_T \mid y_T) \\
&= p(y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T)\, p(x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T \mid y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Marginal probability: $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{y_1} \sum_{y_2} \cdots \sum_{y_N} \pi_{y_1} \prod_{t=2}^{T} a_{y_{t-1}, y_t} \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(x_t \mid y_t)$
- Posterior probability: $p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{x}) = p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) / p(\mathbf{x})$

- We will learn how to do this efficiently (polynomial time)

Bayesian Network:



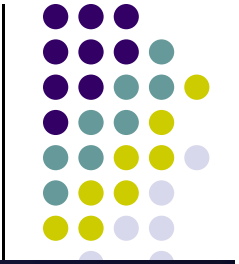
- A BN is a directed graph whose nodes represent the random variables and whose edges represent direct influence of one variable on another.

- 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

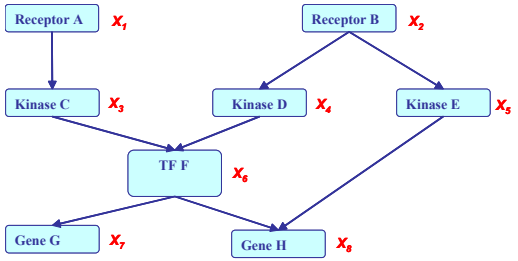


- **Theorem:**

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

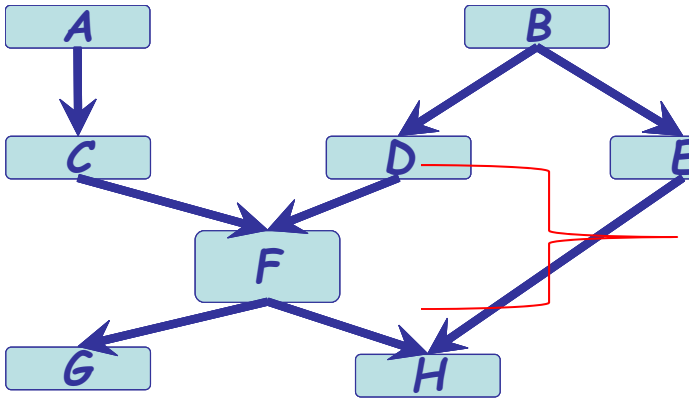


$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8)$$

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

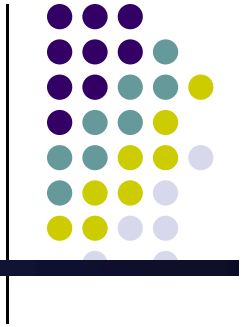
Specification of a directed GM

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



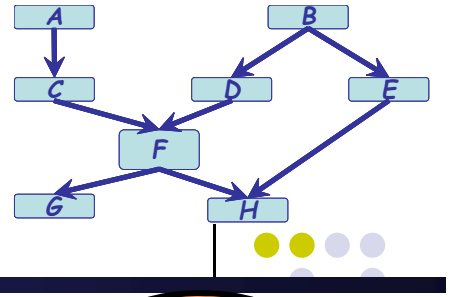
C	D	P(F | C,D)	
c	d	0.9	0.1
c	$\bar{d}$	0.2	0.8
$\bar{c}$	d	0.9	0.1
$\bar{c}$	$\bar{d}$	0.01	0.99

Qualitative Specification



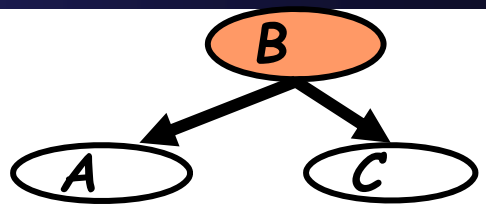
- Where does the qualitative specification come from?
  - Prior knowledge of causal relationships
  - Prior knowledge of modular relationships
  - Assessment from experts
  - Learning from data
  - We simply link a certain architecture (e.g. a layered graph)
  - …

Local Structures & Independencies



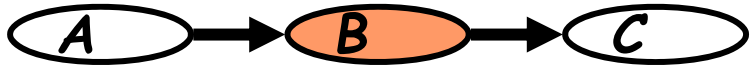
- Common parent
  - Fixing B decouples A and C

    "given the level of gene B, the levels of A and C are independent"



- Cascade
  - Knowing B decouples A and C

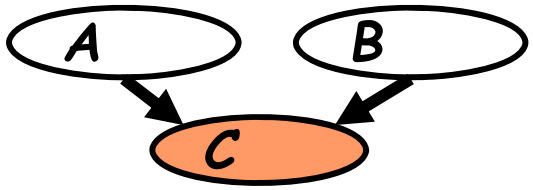
    "given the level of gene B, the level gene A provides no extra prediction value for the level of gene C"



- V-structure
  - Knowing C couples A and B

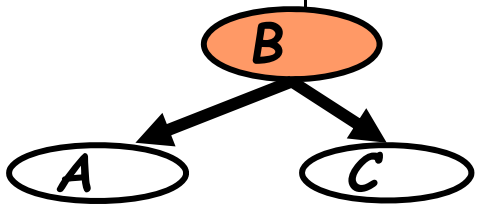
    because A can "explain away" B w.r.t. C

    "If A correlates to C, then chance for B to also correlate to B will decrease"

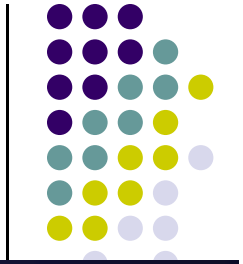


- The language is compact, the concepts are rich!

A simple justification



I-maps



- **Defn :** Let P be a distribution over $\boldsymbol{X}$. 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 $I(K) \subseteq I$.

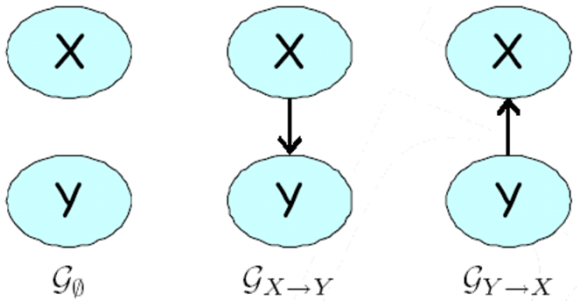
- We now say that G is an I-map for P if G is an I-map for I(P), where we use I(G) as the set of independencies associated.

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:



$\mathcal{G}_{\emptyset}$ $\mathcal{G}_{X \to Y}$ $\mathcal{G}_{Y \to X}$

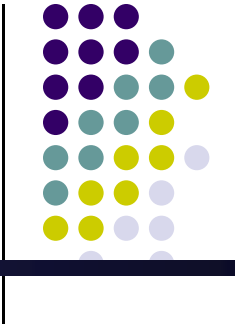
P_1

X	Y	$P(X,Y)$
x^0	y^0	0.08
x^0	y^1	0.32
x^1	y^0	0.12
x^1	y^1	0.48

P_2

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

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

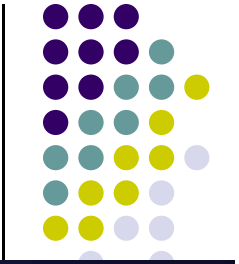
- **Defn :**

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*** $I_\ell(G)$:

$$I_\ell(G): \{X_i \perp NonDescendants_{Xi} \mid \mathrm{Pa}_{Xi} : \forall\ i\},$$

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

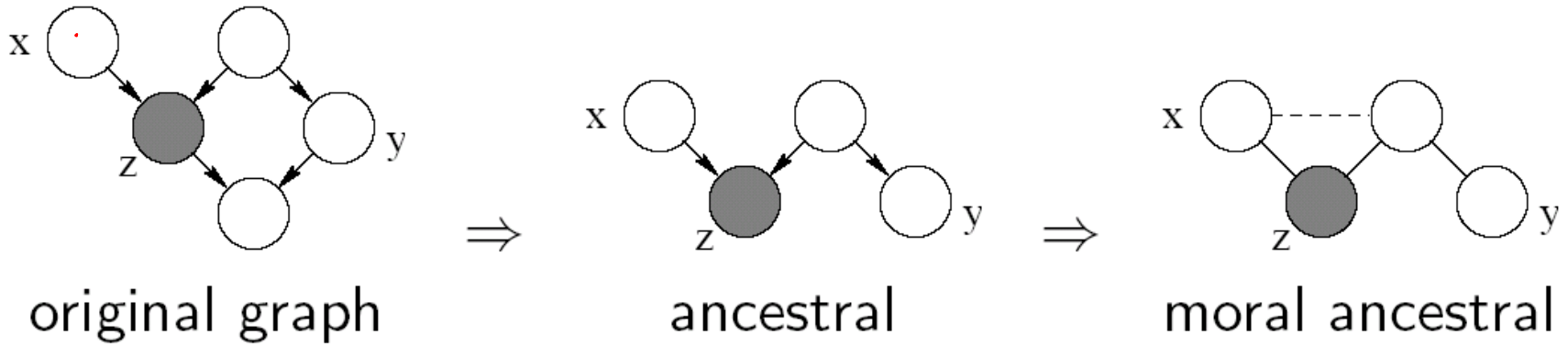
Graph separation criterion



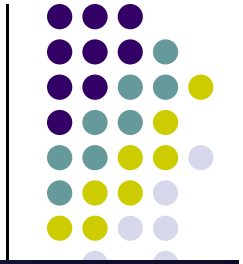
- D-separation criterion for Bayesian networks (D for Directed edges):

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

- Example:



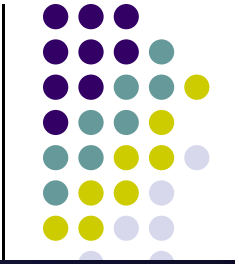
Active trail



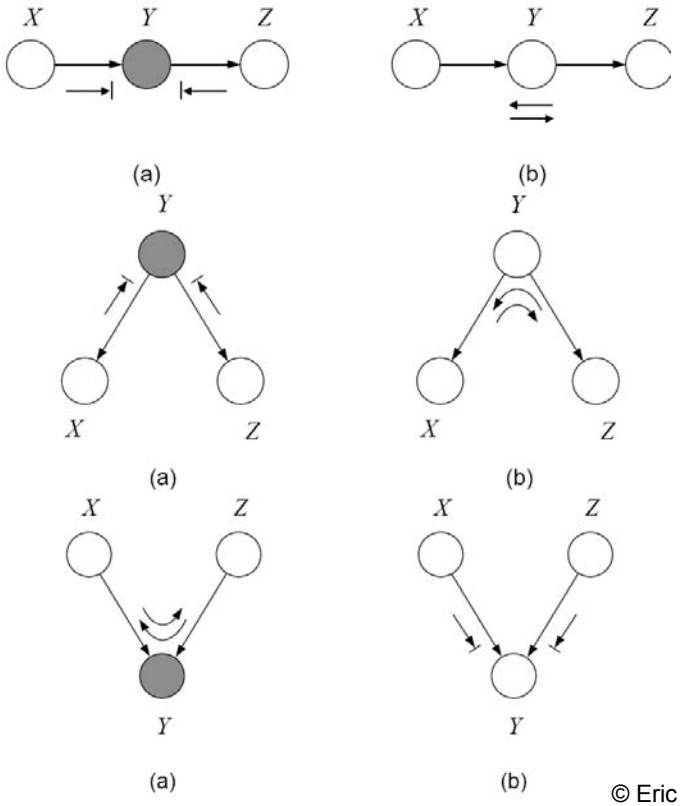
- **Causal trail** X → Z → Y **:** active if and only if Z is not observed.
- **Evidential trail** X ← Z ← Y **:** active if and only if Z is not observed.
- **Common cause** X ← Z → Y **:** active if and only if Z is not observed.
- **Common effect** X → Z ← Y **:** active if and only if either Z or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

Definition : 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 $X \in X$ and $Y \in Y$ given Z.

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):

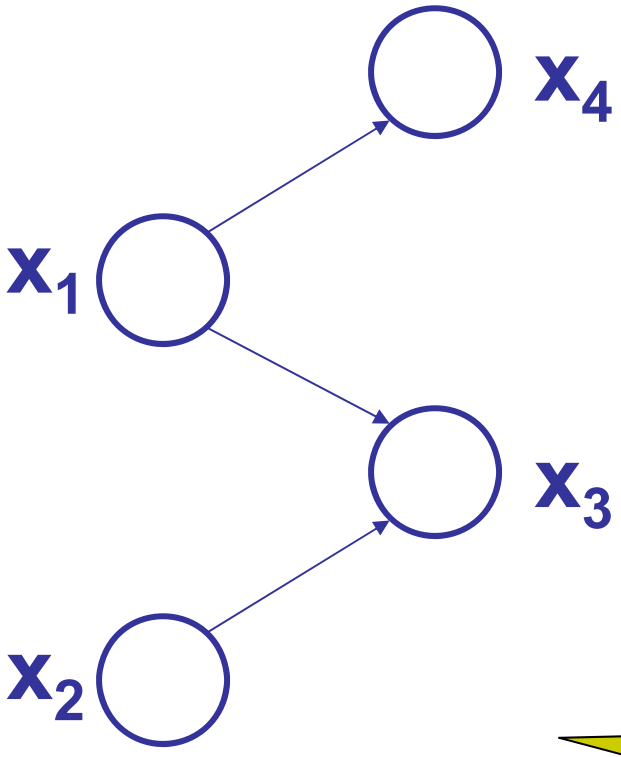


- **Defn: $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{G})$=all independence properties that correspond to d-separation:**

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

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

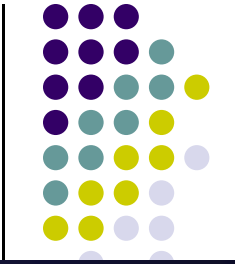
Example:



- Complete the I(G) of this graph:

Scriber please fill in the rest of this slide !

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),

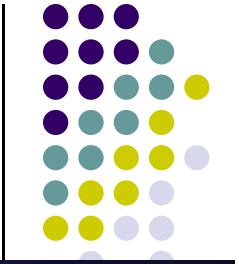
  Let $\mathcal{D}_2$ denote the family of **all distributions** that factor according to G,

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

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

- 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

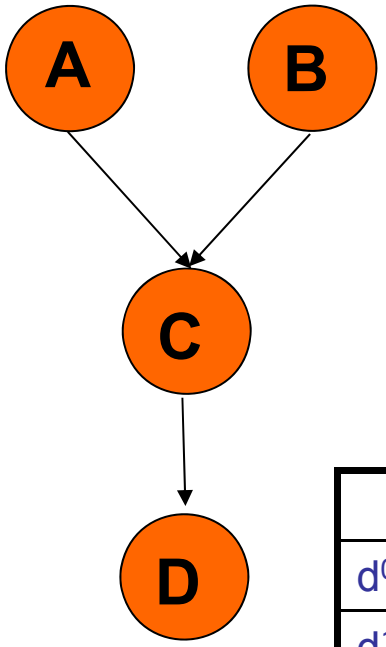
Conditional probability tables (CPTs)



a^0	0.75
a^1	0.25

b^0	0.33
b^1	0.67

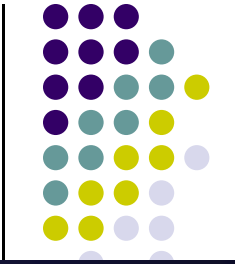
P(a,b,c.d) = P(a)P(b)P(c|a,b)P(d|c)



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

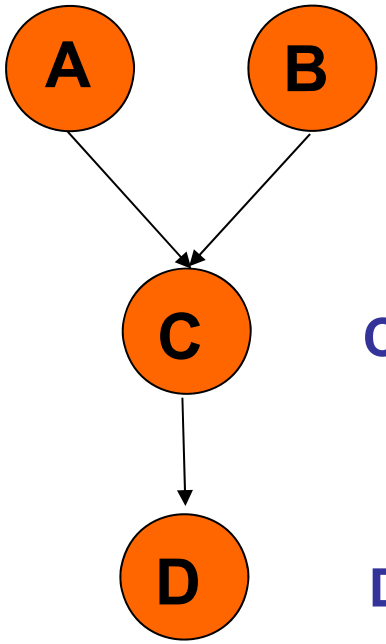
	c^0	c^1
d^0	0.3	0.5
d^1	07	0.5

Conditional probability density func. (CPDs)



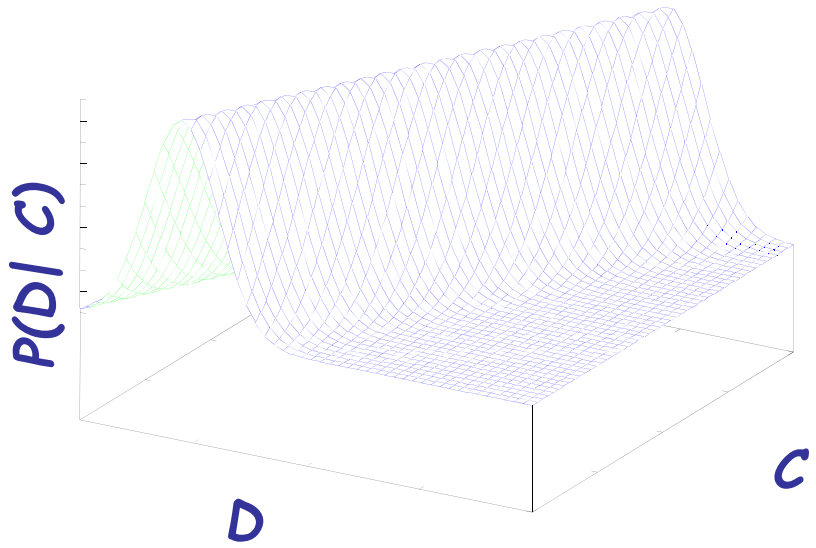
$A \sim N(\mu_a, \Sigma_a)$ $B \sim N(\mu_b, \Sigma_b)$

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

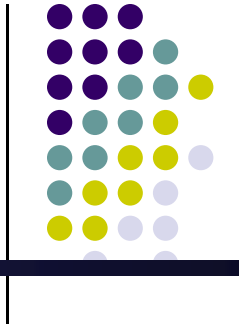


$C \sim N(A+B, \Sigma_c)$

$D \sim N(\mu_d+C, \Sigma_d)$

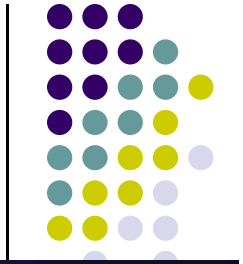


Summary of BN semantics



- **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).

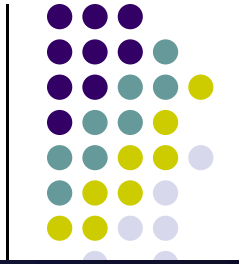
"Completeness":

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

Contrapositive of the completeness statement

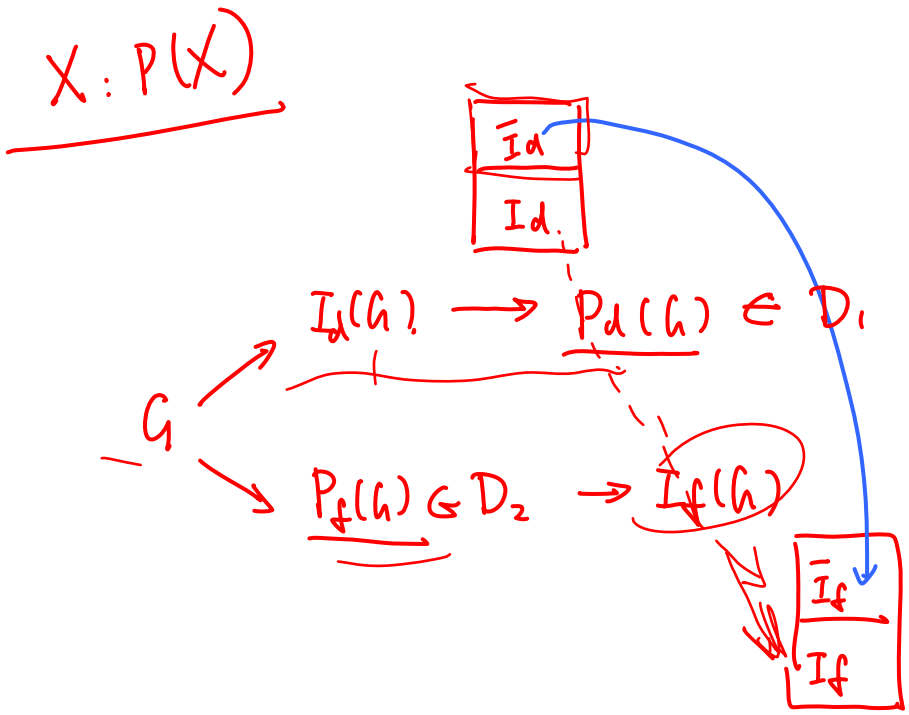
- "If X and Y are ***not*** *d-separated* given Z in G, then X and Y are ***dependent*** *in* ***all*** distributions P that factorize over G."
- Is this true?

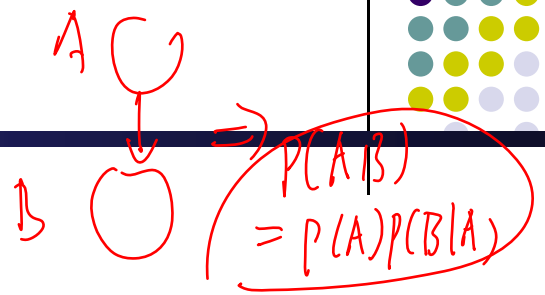
Distributional equivalence and I-equivalence



- 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





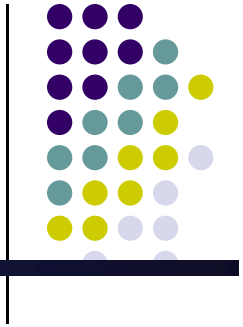
$X \perp Y \mid Z \in I_d$

$\Downarrow$

$X \perp Y \mid Z \in I_f$.

- 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 ?

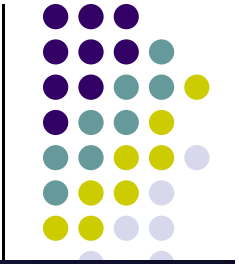
Soundness and completeness



- 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)

A	b^0	b^1
a^0	0.4	0.6
a^1	0.4	0.6

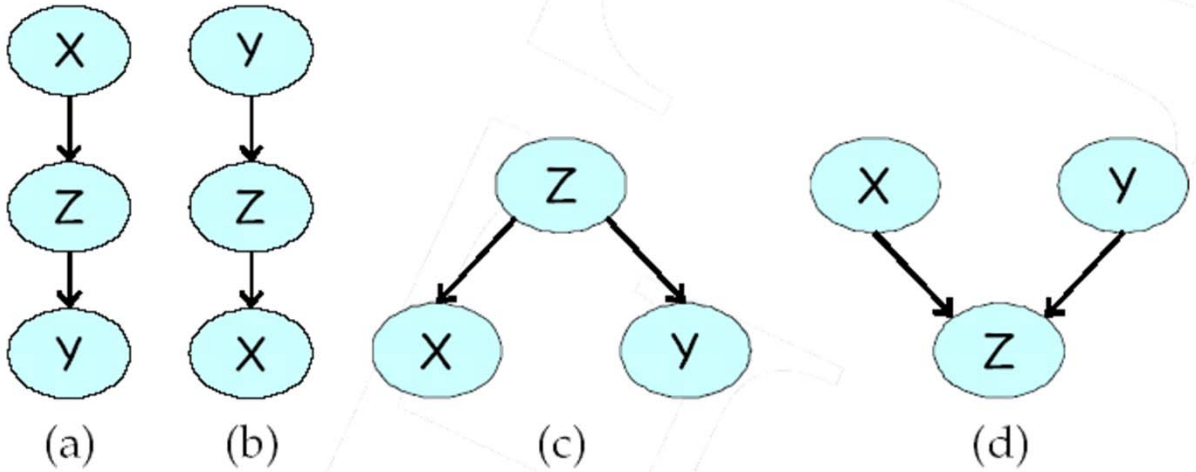
- **Thm**: Let G be a BN graph. If X and Y are not d-*separated* given Z in G, then X and Y are *dependent in* ***some*** distribution P that factorizes over G.



- **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

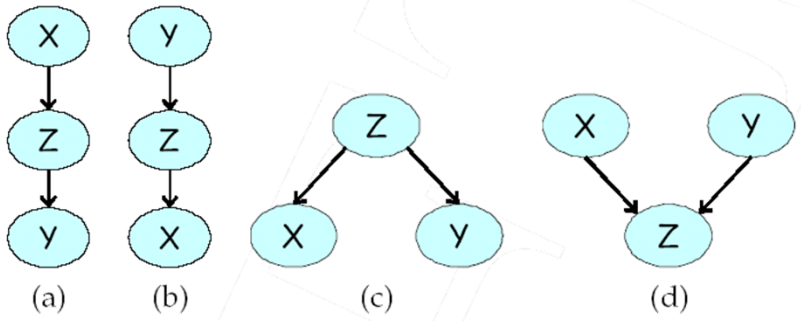
- Very different BN graphs can actually be equivalent, in that they encode precisely the same set of conditional independence assertions.



$(X \perp Y \mid Z)$.

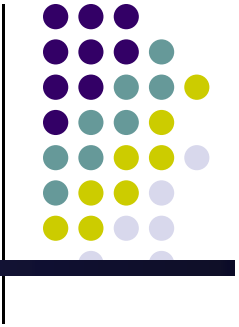
I-equivalence

- **Defn :** Two BN graphs G1 and G2 over $\boldsymbol{X}$ are *I-equivalent* if I(G1) = I(G2).
  - The set of all graphs over $\boldsymbol{X}$ 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.

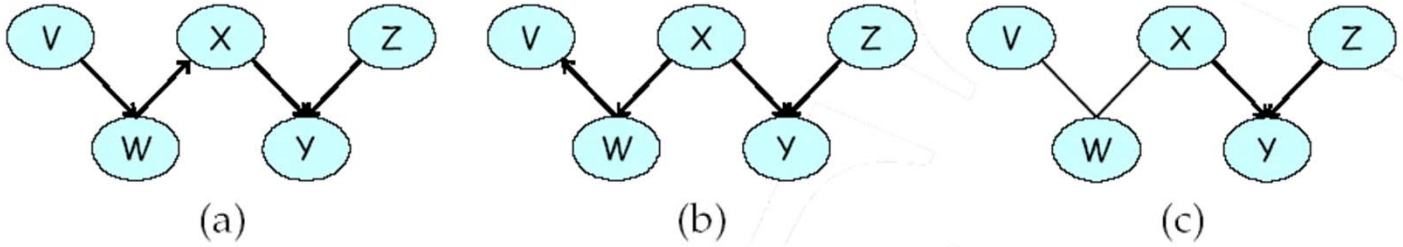


  - Any distribution P that can be factorized over one of these graphs can be factorized over the other.
  - Furthermore, there is no intrinsic property of P that would allow us associate it with one graph rather than an equivalent one.
  - This observation has important implications with respect to our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

Detecting I-equivalence



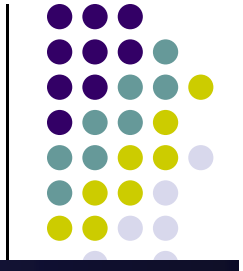
- **Defn :** The *skeleton* of a Bayesian network graph G over $\boldsymbol{V}$ is an undirected graph over $\boldsymbol{V}$ that contains an edge $\{X, Y\}$ for every edge (X, Y) in G.



- **Thm :** Let G_1 and G_2 be two graphs over $\boldsymbol{V}$. If G_1 and G_2 have the same skeleton and the same set of v-structures then they are I-equivalent.

  - graph equivalence
  - Same trail
  - But not necessarily active

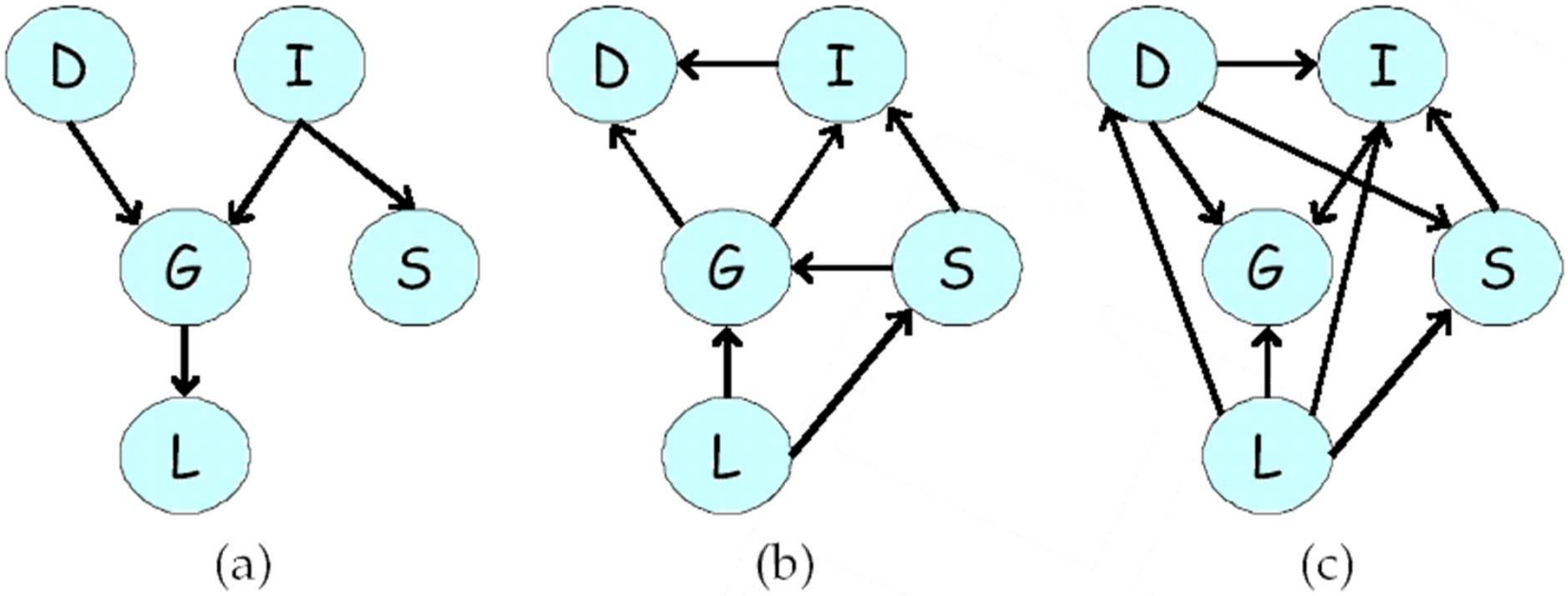
Minimum I-MAP



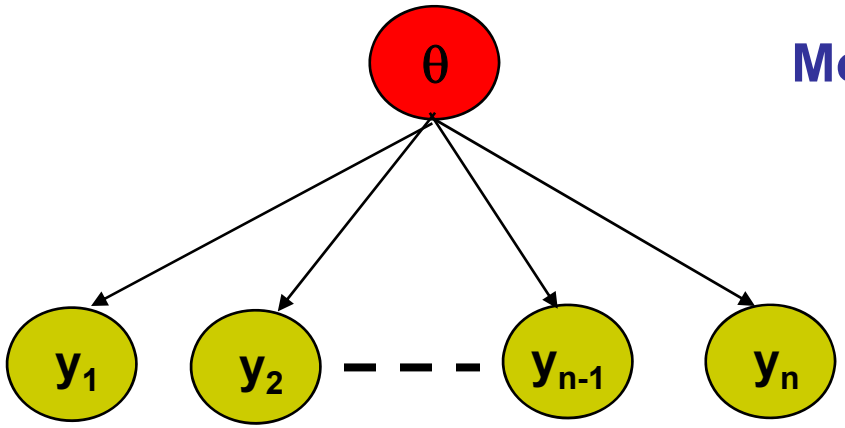
- Complete graph is a (trivial) I-map for any distribution, yet it does not reveal any of the independence structure in the distribution.
  - Meaning that the graph dependence is arbitrary, thus by careful parameterization an dependencies can be captured
  - We want a graph that has the maximum possible I(G), yet still $\subseteq$ I(P)

- **Defn :** 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.

Minimum I-MAP is not unique



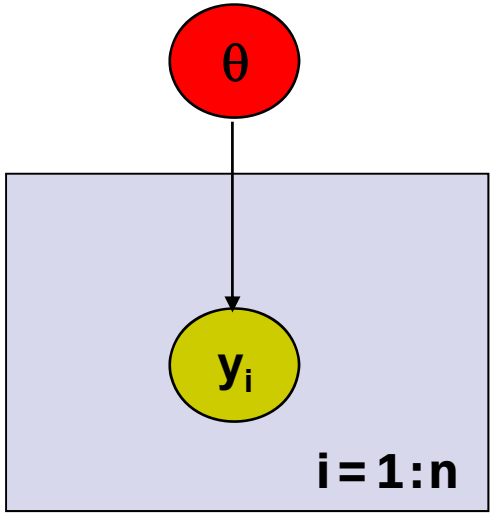
Simple BNs:
Conditionally Independent Observations



Model parameters

Data

The "Plate" Micro



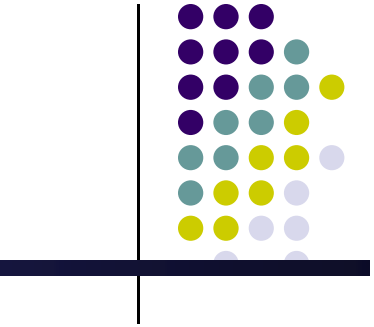
Model parameters

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

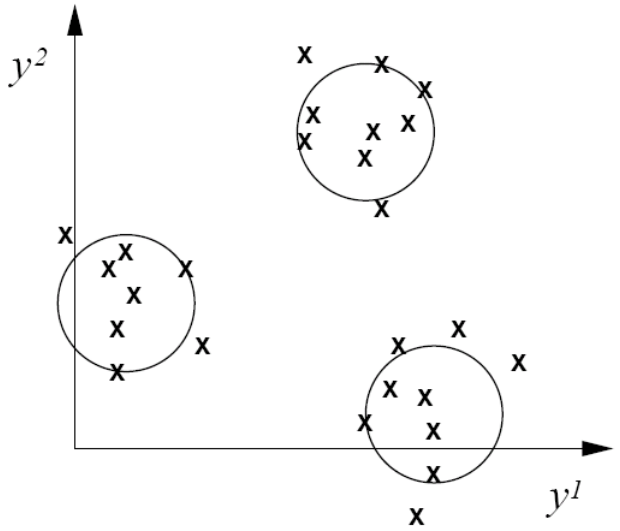
Plate = rectangle in graphical model

variables within a plate are replicated
in a conditionally independent manner

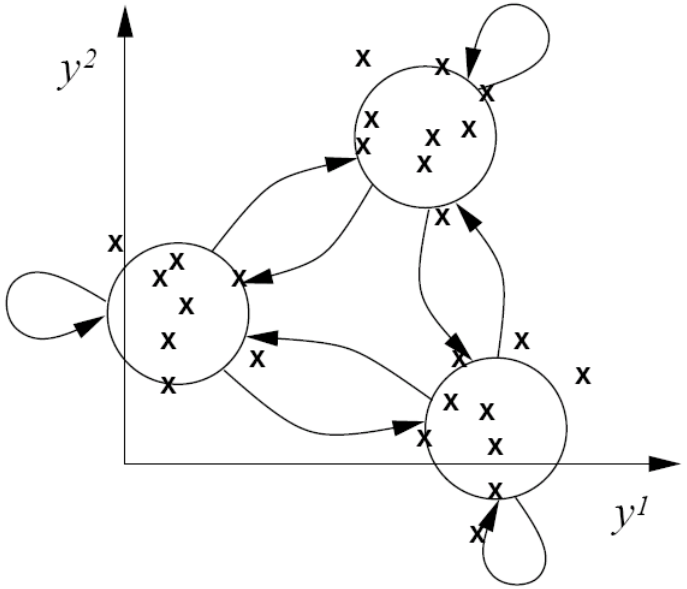
Hidden Markov Model:
from static to dynamic mixture models

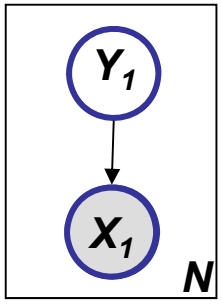


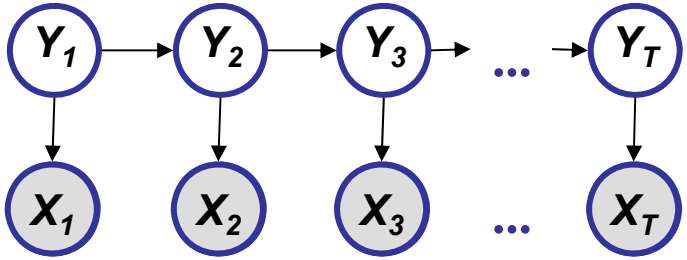
Static mixture



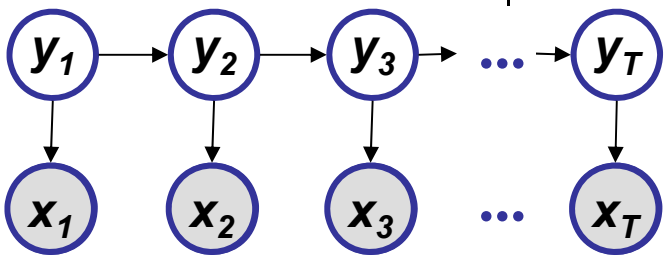
Dynamic mixture







Definition (of HMM)



- Observation space

  Alphabetic set: $\mathbb{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \cdots, c_K\}$

  Euclidean space: $\mathbb{R}^d$

- Index set of hidden states

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

- Transition probabilities between any two states

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

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

- Start probabilities

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

- Emission probabilities associated with each state

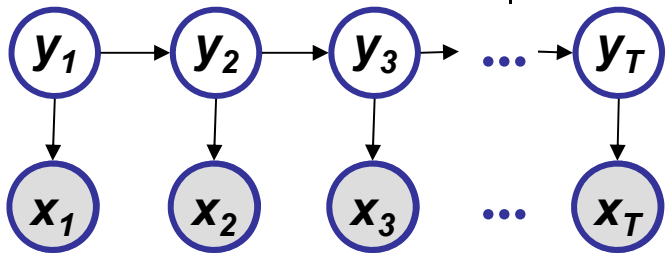
  $p(x_t \mid y_t^i = 1) \sim \text{Multinomial}(b_{i,1}, b_{i,1}, \ldots, b_{i,K}), \forall i \in \mathbb{I}.$

  or in general:

  $p(x_t \mid y_t^i = 1) \sim \text{f}(\cdot \mid \theta_i), \forall i \in \mathbb{I}.$

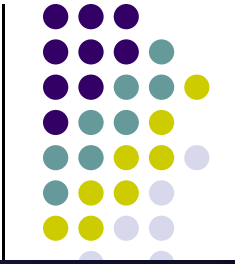
Probability of a parse

- Given a sequence $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T$ and a parse $\mathbf{y} = y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T$,
- To find how likely is the parse: (given our HMM and the sequence)



$$
\begin{aligned}
p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) &= p(x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T, y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T) \qquad \text{(Joint probability)} \\
&= p(y_1)\, p(x_1 \mid y_1)\, p(y_2 \mid y_1)\, p(x_2 \mid y_2) \ldots p(y_T \mid y_{T-1})\, p(x_T \mid y_T) \\
&= p(y_1)\, \mathrm{P}(y_2 \mid y_1) \ldots p(y_T \mid y_{T-1}) \times p(x_1 \mid y_1)\, p(x_2 \mid y_2) \ldots p(x_T \mid y_T) \\
&= p(y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T)\, p(x_1 \ldots\ldots x_T \mid y_1, \ldots\ldots, y_T)
\end{aligned}
$$

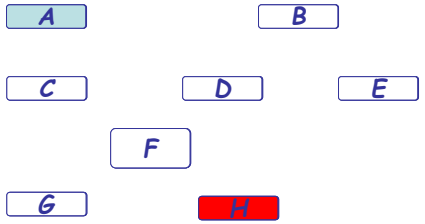
Summary: Representing Multivariate Distribution



- **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? --- 2^8
  - Are they all needed to be represented?
  - Do we get any scientific/medical insight?



- **Factored representation: the chain-rule**

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

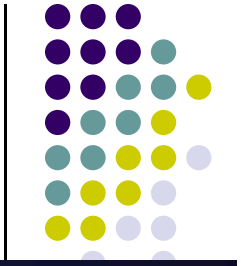
  - This factorization is true for any distribution and any variable ordering
  - Do we save any parameterization cost?

- **If X_i's are independent: ($P(X_i|\cdot)= P(X_i)$)**

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

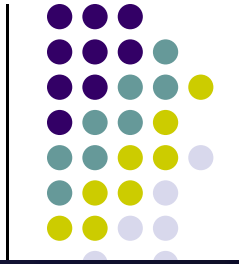
  - What do we gain?
  - What do we lose?

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 √