CausalityBackgrounds II

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Last Meeting

- Motivation
- Backgrounds
 - Probabilities and Independencies
 - Graphs and Probabilities
 - Bayesian Networks
 - d-separation
 - An Algorithm for d-Separation (presented on the next slides)

- Assume P is a distribution that factorizes over a DAG G, i.e. $P(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \prod_j P(x_j \mid pa_j)$
- Recall, d-separation in such G allows to infer independences of P simply by examining the d-separation in G
- We have given a definition for d-separation

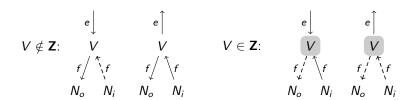
$$(\mathbf{X} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z})_G$$

in a non-constructive way: every path between a node $X \in \mathbf{X}$ and $Y \in \mathbf{Y}$ should be blocked by \mathbf{Z}

- Remark: by X, Y, etc. we will denote sets
- In this lecture we present very elegant and efficient algorithm for d-Separation, called Bayes-Ball, that requires only linear time in the size of the graph
- Bayes-Ball was proposed by Shachter in 1998

- More precisely,
 - ▶ for a given $G = (V = \{X_1, ..., X_n\}, E)$ and two disjoint subsets $X \subseteq V$, and $Z \subseteq V$
 - ▶ the algorithm finds nodes reachable from **X** given **Z** via open *d*-paths

- More precisely,
 - for a given $G = (V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}, E)$ and two disjoint subsets $X \subseteq V$, and $Z \subseteq V$
 - ▶ the algorithm finds nodes reachable from **X** given **Z** via open *d*-paths
- The algorithm runs BFS from **X** using the following rules:
 - ▶ the Bayes ball goes through the entering top edge e and passes through the node V to nodes N_o (out-node), resp. N_i (in-node)
 - Forbidden passes are marked as dashed arrows
 - ▶ The figure shows all possible combinations of types of entering e and leaving edges f and considers two cases: $V \notin \mathbf{Z}$ and $V \in \mathbf{Z}$ (gray)
 - ► The leaving edge f can correspond to the entering edge e in which case the ball might return to the start node of the entering edge, which is called a bouncing ball in the original Bayes-Ball algorithm



```
1: function Bayes-Ball G = (V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}, E), X \subseteq V, Z \subseteq V)
2:
        function Visit(f, j)
                                                                         \triangleright Visit node X_i from direction f
            if Mark(f,j) = 0 \land X_i \not\in X then
3:
                                                                            If no such visit is scheduled
                push (f, j) to queue toVisit
4:
                                                                                            ▷ Schedule visit
5:
                Mark(f, i) \leftarrow 1
                                                                                       ▶ Mark as scheduled
                                                                                             ▶ Initial values
6:
        for all j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} do
7:
            for all f \in \{parent, child\} do
8:
                Mark(f, j) \leftarrow 0
                                                                         ▶ Mark all nodes as unreachable
9:
        toVisit = ()

    Start visiting at the neighbours of X

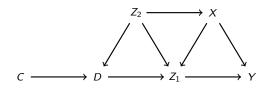
10:
        for all X_i \in X do
             for all X_i \in Pa(X_i) do Visit(child, j)
11:
12:
            for all X_i \in Ch(X_i) do Visit(parent, j)
                                                                                Visit all reachable nodes
13:
        while toVisit not empty do
14:
             pop (f, k) from queue toVisit

    Visit the next (from, node)-tuple

15:
            if X_k \in \mathbf{Z} \wedge f = parent then
                                                       ▶ Node in Z bounces back balls from the parent
                 for all X_i \in Pa(X_k) do Visit(child, j)
16:
17:
            if X_k \notin \mathbf{Z} \wedge f = parent then
                                                          Node not in Z passes balls from the parent
18:
                 for all X_i \in Ch(X_k) do Visit(parent, j)
19:
            if X_k \notin \mathbf{Z} \land f = child then \triangleright Node not in \mathbf{Z} passes and bounces balls from the child
20:
                 for all X_i \in Pa(X_k) do Visit(child, j)
                 for all X_i \in Ch(X_k) do Visit(parent, j)
21:
22:
        return \{X_i : Mark(f, j) = 1 \text{ for some } f\}
```

Theorem (Bayes-Ball Algorytm)

The algorithm Bayes-Ball($G = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E}), \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}$) returns the set of all nodes reachable from \mathbf{X} via d-paths that are active in G given \mathbf{Z} . It runs in linear time in the size of the graph: $|\mathbf{V}| + |\mathbf{E}|$.



Basic Independencies

BNs combine two related concepts:

- Independencies in distributions and
- Independencies induced by graphs

Basic Independencies

- Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be random variables
- Let $G = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E})$ be a DAG with $\mathbf{V} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$
- We denote parents of X_i in G as Pa_i or $Pa(X_i)$
- Recall, if P admits the factorization

$$P(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=\prod_j P(x_j\mid pa_j)$$

relative to DAG G, we say

- ▶ that G represents P,
- that G and P are compatible,
- ▶ that *P* is Markov relative to *G*

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relative to DAG G, we say

- ▶ that G represents P,
- ▶ that *G* and *P* are compatible,
- that P is Markov relative to G
- BN: a DAG G which represents a probability distribution P
- BN = "structure G" + "conditional probability distributions (CPDs)"
- Formally: A BN \mathcal{B} is a pair $\mathcal{B} = (G, P)$ where P factorizes over G, and where P is specified as a set of CPDs associated with G's nodes

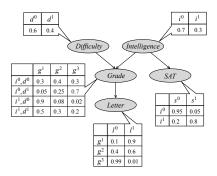
BN Example Used in this Lecture

Koller, Friedman (2009)

Consider the problem faced by a company trying to hire a recent college graduate:

- I student's intelligence: low, high
- D difficulty of the course: easy, hard
- G student's grade in some course: 1, 2, 3
- L the quality of the recommendation letter : strong, weak
- S the student's SAT score: low, high

The joint distribution has 48 entries. The corresponding example Bayesian network:



Reasoning Pattern in BNs: $P(H = h \mid E = e)$

Basic Independencies

- Question: which independencies induces (encodes) a DAG?
- E.g.:
 - \triangleright $D \rightarrow G \rightarrow L$
 - $ightharpoonup R o H \leftarrow S$

Basic Independencies

- Alternatively, the formal semantics of a BN graph G can be defined as a set of independence assertions as follows
- Let $De(X_i)$ denote the set of descendants of X_i in G
- Note that

$$\mathbf{V} \setminus De(X_i)$$

are the variables in G that are non descendants of X_i

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 Then G in a BN encodes the following set of conditional independence assumptions, called the local independencies, and denoted by \(\mathcal{I}_{local}(G) : \)

$$\forall X_i \quad (X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{V} \setminus (De(X_i) \cup Pa(X_i)) \mid Pa(X_i))$$

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- In other words, the local independencies state that each variable X_i is conditionally independent of its non-descendants given its parents
- We show that this definition is, in fact, equivalent with our first definition of a BN as a DAG annotated with CPDs, which define a joint distribution P via the chain rule

I-map

- Let P be a distribution over $\mathbf{V} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$
- We define $\mathcal{I}(P)$ to be the set of independence assertions of the form $(\mathbf{X} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z})$ that hold in P

I-map

Example

Consider a joint probability P over two independent random variables X and Y

X	Y	P(X,Y)
0	0	0.08
0	1	0.32
1	0	0.12
1	1	0.48

- It is easy to see that $(X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y)$ in P. E.g. we have
- $P(X = 1) = 0.6, P(Y = 1) = 0.8, P(X = 1) \cdot P(Y = 1) = 0.48$ and
- P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 0.48
- Thus $\mathcal{I}(P) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$

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- P(X = 1, Y = 1) = 0.48
- Thus $\mathcal{I}(P) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$
- For the distribution P':

X	Y	P'(X,Y)
0	0	0.10
0	1	0.16
1	0	0.64
1	1	0.10

we have $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y) \not\in \mathcal{I}(P')$. In fact, $\mathcal{I}(P') = \emptyset$

I-map

- Let P be a distribution over $\mathbf{V} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$
- Let $\mathcal{I}(P) = \{ (\mathbf{X} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z}) : \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \subseteq \mathbf{V} \}$
- We can now express the statement that "P satisfies the local independencies associated with G" as

$$\mathcal{I}_{local}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$$

• In this case, we say that G is an independency map, I-map for short, for P

I-map

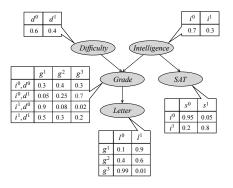
- However, it is useful to define the concept I-map more broadly
- Let G be a DAG with a set of independencies $\mathcal{I}(G)$
- We say that

G is an I-map for P if
$$\mathcal{I}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$$

- Intuitively, a DAG G is an I-map of a distribution P if all Markov assumptions implied by G
 are satisfied by P
- From direction of inclusion $\mathcal{I}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$:
 - Distribution can have more CIs than the graph
 - Graph does not mislead in independencies existing in P: any CI that G asserts must also hold in P

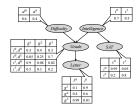
I-map

Can we read off all independencies $\mathcal{I}(G)$ from a BN defined as a DAG annotated with CPDs?



I-map

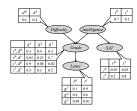
Independencies in a DAG G with CPDs



- G encodes factorization: P(d, i, g, s, l) = P(d)P(i)P(g|i, d)P(s|i)P(l|g)
- Local (conditional) independencies $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G)$ are the following

I-map

Independencies in a DAG G with CPDs



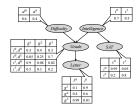
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(L \perp\!\!\!\perp I, D, S \mid G) L is cond. indep. on all other variables given parent G (S \perp\!\!\!\perp D, G, L \mid I) L is cond. indep. on all other variables given parent I G \perp\!\!\!\perp S \mid D, I) G is cond. indep. on G given parents but even given parents, G is not cond. indep. on descendent G variables with no parents are marginally independent G is marginally independent G
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 Parents of a variable X shield it from a "probabilistic influence": if values of parents are known, we do not learn more about X when we know additionally the values of non-descendants (excluding parents)

I-map

Independencies in a DAG G with CPDs



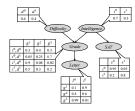
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- Parents of a variable X shield it from a "probabilistic influence": if values of parents are known, we do not learn more about X when we know additionally the values of non-descendants (excluding parents)
 - Information about descendants can change beliefs about a node

I-map

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```

- Using properties satisfied by the above CI relations we also get, for example:
- $(L \perp \!\!\!\perp I, D \mid G), (L \perp \!\!\!\perp I, S \mid G), (L \perp \!\!\!\perp I \mid G)$, etc.
- In general: $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(G)$ and, typically, the inclusion is proper

I-map

G is an I-map for P if $\mathcal{I}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$

• Example Consider the following DAGs

DAG			$\mathcal{I}(G)$
$\overline{G_0}$:	Χ	Y	$\mathcal{I}(G_0) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$
G_1 :	Χ –	<i>Y</i>	$\mathcal{I}(G_1) = \emptyset$
G_2 :	$X \leftarrow$	- Y	$\mathcal{I}(G_2) = \emptyset$

• For the probability:

X	Y	P(X,Y)
0	0	0.08
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we have
$$\mathcal{I}(P) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$$

- Thus:
 - ▶ G_0 is an I-map of P, since $\{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\} \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$
 - G_1 is an I-map of P, since $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$
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• Example Consider the following DAGs

DA	G	$\mathcal{I}(G)$
$G_0: X$. Y	$\mathcal{I}(G_0) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$
$G_1: \lambda$	$X \to Y$	$\mathcal{I}(G_1) = \emptyset$
$G_2: \lambda$	$X \leftarrow Y$	$\mathcal{I}(G_2) = \emptyset$

• For the probability:

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- If G is an I-map of P then it captures some of the independences, but not necessarily all of them

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• Example Consider the following DAGs

DAG	$\mathcal{I}(G)$
$G_0: X Y$	$\mathcal{I}(G_0) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$
$G_1: X \to Y$	$\mathcal{I}(G_1) = \emptyset$
$G_2: X \leftarrow Y$	$\mathcal{I}(G_2) = \emptyset$

• For the probability:

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we have
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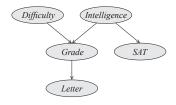
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 - G_1 is an I-map of P, since $\emptyset \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P')$
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I-map and Factorization

- A DAG G of a BN encodes a factorization of a distribution P
- ullet Every distribution P for which G is an I-map should satisfy the CIs assumptions encoded by G
- ullet We show the fundamental connection between the CIs encoded by the structure G and the factorization of the distribution P
- We discuss two directions:
 - I-map to Factorization
 - Factorization to I-map

I-map to Factorization

A DAG representation of our example BN



encodes the factorization of the joint distribution:

$$P(i,d,g,l,s) = P(d)P(i)P(g|i,d)P(s|i)P(l|g)$$

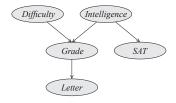
However we can also factorize P as follows

$$P(i, d, g, l, s) = P(i)P(d|i)P(g|i, d)P(l|i, d, g)P(s|i, d, g, l)$$

- This factorization relies on no assumptions and it holds for any joint distribution P. Why?
- A drawback: It provides an inefficient representation for CPDs

I-map to Factorization

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- This factorization relies on no assumptions and it holds for any joint distribution P. Why?
- A drawback: It provides an inefficient representation for CPDs
- The key observation which allows the compact factorized representation: take into consideration only Cls of distributions for which G should be an I-map

I-map to Factorization

Example: From Cls $\mathcal{I}(P)$ to factorization of P

- Consider our example, with $V = \{I, D, G, L, S\}$
- Due to the chain rule, we get, e.g., the following factorization

$$P(i,d,g,l,s) = P(i) \cdot P(d|i) \cdot P(g|i,d) \cdot P(l|i,d,g) \cdot P(s|i,d,g,l)$$

 Let us assume that the resulting DAG is an I-map for the distribution P for our example "student"

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- Let us assume that the resulting DAG is an I-map for the distribution P for our example "student"
- In particular, we assume implicitly that Intelligence (of a student) and Difficulty (of the course) are independent, i.e. we have that $(D \perp \!\!\!\perp I) \in \mathcal{I}(P)$
- This means: P(d|i) = P(d)

I-map to Factorization

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- This means: P(d|i) = P(d)
- Similarly, we take assertion: "the professor's recommendation letter depends only on the student's grade in the class", i.e. that we have $(L \perp\!\!\!\perp I, D, S \mid G) \in \mathcal{I}(P)$
- Hence P(I|i,d,g) = P(I|g)

I-map to Factorization

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- This means: P(d|i) = P(d)
- Similarly, we take assertion: "the professor's recommendation letter depends only on the student's grade in the class", i.e. that we have $(L \perp\!\!\!\perp I, D, S \mid G) \in \mathcal{I}(P)$
- Hence P(I|i,d,g) = P(I|g)
- Finally, we assert $(S \perp \!\!\! \perp D, G, L \mid I) \in \mathcal{I}(P)$ that implies: P(s|i,d,g,I) = P(s|i)
- This leads to the following factorization

$$P(i,d,g,l,s) = P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g|i,d) \cdot P(l|g) \cdot P(s|i)$$

I-map to Factorization

 Now we are ready to show the first direction of the fundamental connection between the CIs encoded by G and the factorization of P

Theorem (I-map to Factorization)

Let G be a BN structure over a set of random variables V, and let P be a joint distribution over the same space. If G is an I-map for P, then P factorizes according to G.

- Assume G is an I-map for P, i.e. $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$
- ullet To prove the theorem, we need to show that P factorizes according to G
- To this end, we generalise our example analysis

Factorization to I-map

• The opposite direction says the following:

Theorem (Factorization to I-map)

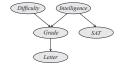
Let G be a BN structure over a set of random variables V, and let P be a joint distribution over the same space. If P factorizes according to G, then G is an I-map for P.

- Let P be some distribution that factorizes according to G
- ullet To prove the theorem, we need to show that $\mathcal{I}_{\textit{local}}(G) \subseteq \mathcal{I}(P)$

Factorization to I-map

Example: Illustration of the theorem

Assume the DAG representation:



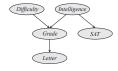
that encodes the factorization: $P(i, d, g, l, s) = P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g \mid i, d) \cdot P(s \mid i) \cdot P(l \mid g)$

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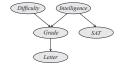
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- Consider e.g. variable S; The analysis for other variables is analogous
- We have that $(S \perp \!\!\!\perp D, G, L \mid I)$ belongs to local independencies $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G)$
- The task is to prove that $(S \perp D, G, L \mid I)_P$, i.e. that $P(s \mid i, d, g, I) = P(s \mid i)$

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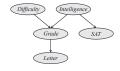
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- By definition: $P(s \mid i, d, g, l) = \frac{P(s, i, d, g, l)}{P(i, d, g, l)}$

Factorization to I-map

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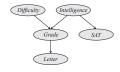
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- ullet From the marginalizing over a joint distribution and factorization of P we get

$$P(i,d,g,l) = P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g \mid i,d) \cdot P(l \mid g) \cdot \sum_{s} P(s \mid i) = P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g \mid i,d) \cdot P(l \mid g)$$

Factorization to I-map

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• Then we can conclude

$$P(s \mid i, d, g, l) = \frac{P(s, i, d, g, l)}{P(i, d, g, l)} = \frac{P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g \mid i, d) \cdot P(s \mid i) \cdot P(l \mid g)}{P(i) \cdot P(d) \cdot P(g \mid i, d) \cdot P(l \mid g)} = P(s \mid i)$$

 As we have seen a graph structure G encodes a certain set of conditional independence assumptions:

$$\mathcal{I}_{local}(G) = \{ (X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{V} \setminus (De(X_i) \cup Pa(X_i)) \mid Pa(X_i)) : \forall X_i \in \mathbf{V} \}$$

- Question:
 - which independencies ($\mathbf{X} \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z}$) hold in a distribution associated with a BN with the structure G or, equivalently,
 - which independencies follow from $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G)$?
- We will denote all CIs which follows from $\mathcal{I}_{local}(G)$ as $\mathcal{I}(G)$

We analyse the problem as follows

- W start with the case of single variables X and Y in G
- Assume X and Y are not directly connected in G, but they are connected via Z as

$$X \sim Z \sim Y$$

- When "influence" can flow from X to Y via Z, we say that the path $X \sim Z \sim Y$ is active
- By case analysis for active two-edge paths we get

Causal path $X \to Z \to Y$: active iff Z is not observed

Evidential path $X \leftarrow Z \leftarrow Y$: active iff Z is not observed

Common cause $X \leftarrow Z \rightarrow Y$: active iff Z is not observed

Common effect $X \to Z \leftarrow Y$: active iff either Z or one of Z's descendants is observed

Definition

A structure $X \to Z \leftarrow Y$, where X and Y are not directly connected is called v-structure

We can generalize this analysis to longer paths $X_1 \sim X_2 \sim \ldots \sim X_n$ in G

- ullet Let G be a BN structure, and $X_1 \sim X_2 \sim \ldots \sim X_n$ be a path in G.
- Let **Z** be a subset of observed variables
- The path $X_1 \sim X_2 \sim \ldots \sim X_n$ is active given **Z** if
 - ▶ Whenever we have a v-structure $X_{i-1} \to X_i \leftarrow X_{i+1}$, then X_i or one of its descendants are in **Z**
 - ▶ no other node along the path is in **Z**

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- Putting these together, we get justification for the notion of d-separation and the following definition

$$\mathcal{I}(G) = \{ (\mathbf{X} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z}) : \text{ for all } \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \text{ sets of nodes in } G \text{ with } (\mathbf{X} \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{Y} \mid \mathbf{Z})_G \}$$

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The important result is that (local) basis set of d-separation statements

$$\{(X_i \perp \!\!\! \perp \mathbf{V} \setminus (De(X_i) \cup Pa(X_i)) \mid Pa(X_i))_G : \forall X_i \in \mathbf{V}\}$$

entails all other statements $\mathcal{I}(G)$ when combining them using the axioms of conditional independence

Markov equivalence

• Let us consider the sets $\mathcal{I}(G)$ of the following four DAGs

$$G_1: X \to Z \to Y$$
 $G_2: X \leftarrow Z \leftarrow Y$ $G_3: X \leftarrow Z \to Y$ and $G_4: X \to Z \leftarrow Y$

Interestingly, we get that

$$\mathcal{I}(G_1) = \mathcal{I}(G_2) = \mathcal{I}(G_3) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z)\}$$

and

$$\mathcal{I}(G_4) = \{(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y)\}$$

- Thus, G_1, G_2, G_3 encode the same CIs, while G_4 not
- This leads to the following

Definition Two DAGs G and G' over \mathbf{V} are Markov equivalent (called also I-equivalent) if $\mathcal{I}(G) = \mathcal{I}(G')$

Markov equivalence

- ullet Question: how can we verify that two DAGs G and G' are Markov equivalent?
- The skeleton of a graph G over V is an undirected graph over V that contains an edge X-Y for every edge $X\to Y$ or $X\leftarrow Y$ in G

Theorem (Verma, Pearl)

Let G and G' be two DAGs over \mathbf{V} . The graphs are Markov equivalent if and only if G and G' have the same skeleton and the same set of v-structures.

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For example

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G_1: X \to Z \to Y G_2: X \leftarrow Z \leftarrow Y G_3: X \leftarrow Z \to Y and G_4: X \to Z \leftarrow Y all graphs have he same skeleton X - Z - Y
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- ullet The set of v-structures for G_1, G_2, G_3 is empty, thus they are Markov equivalent
- G_4 has a v-structure $X \to Z \leftarrow Y$, thus it is not Markov equivalent with G_i , i = 1, 2, 3

Markov equivalence

Fact

The set of all DAGs over ${\bf V}$ is partitioned into a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive Markov equivalent classes, which are the set of equivalence classes induced by the Markov equivalence relation

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For example, for $\mathbf{V} = \{X, Y, Z\}$ the equivalence classes induced by the Markov equivalence are the following

- $\{G = (\{X, Y, Z\}, \mathbf{E}) : |\mathbf{E}| = 3 \text{ and } G \text{ is no cycle}\}$
- ullet For DAGs with $|\mathbf{E}|=2$ we show only the case, when X and Y are not incident

$$\blacktriangleright \ X \to Z \leftarrow Y$$

- DAGs with $|\mathbf{E}| = 1$
 - $ightharpoonup X o Z Y, X \leftarrow Z Y$
 - $\blacktriangleright \ \, X \to Y \quad Z, \quad X \leftarrow Y \quad Z$
 - $ightharpoonup Y
 ightharpoonup Z X, Y \leftarrow Z X$
- $\bullet \ \ \mathsf{DAGs} \ \mathsf{with} \ |\textbf{E}| = 0$
 - ► X Z Y

Literatur

- D. Koller and N. Friedman (2009), Ch.3
- J. Pearl (2009), Ch.1
- J. Pearl, M. Glymour, and N.P. Jewell (2016), Ch. 1,2