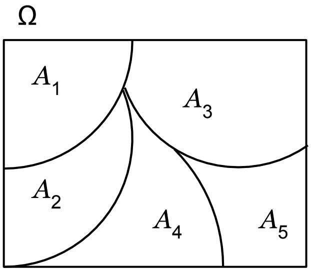


Axioms of Probability

- For any event A,

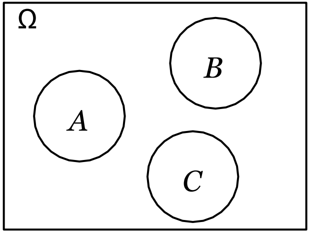
$$P(A) \geq 0$$

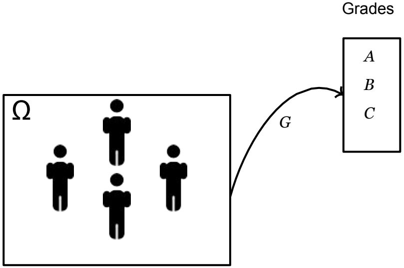
- If $A_1, A_2, A_3, ..., A_n$ are disjoint events (i.e., $A_i \cap A_j = \varphi \quad \forall i \neq j$) then

$$P(\cup A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$$

- If Ω is the universal set containing all events then

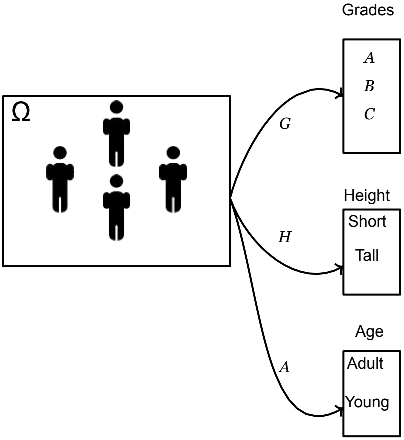
$$P(\Omega) = 1$$





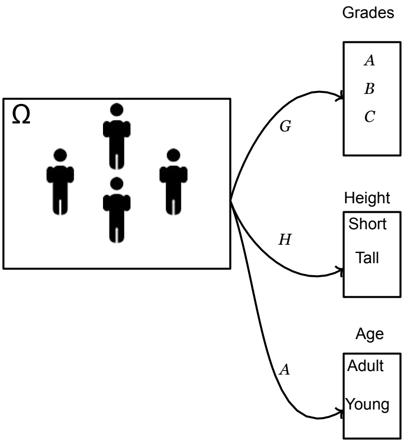
Random Variable (intuition)

- Suppose a student can get one of 3 possible grades in a course: A, B, C
- One way of interpreting this is that there are 3 possible events here
- Another way of looking at this is there is a *random variable* G which each student to one of the 3 possible values
- And we are interested in $P(G = g)$ where $g \in \{A, B, C\}$
- Of course, both interpretations are conceptually equivalent



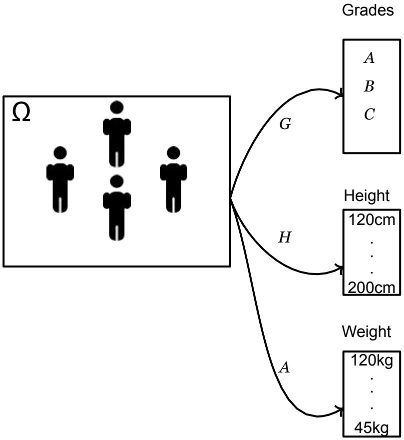
Random Variable (intuition)

- But the second one (using random variables) is more compact
- Specially, when there are multiple attributes associated with a student (outcome) - *grade, height, age, etc.*
- We could have one random variable corresponding to each attribute
- And then ask for outcomes (or students) where $Grade = g$, $Height = h$, $Age = a$ and so on



Random Variable (formal)

- A random variable is a ***function*** which maps each outcome in Ω to a value
- In the previous example, G (or f_{grade}) maps each student in Ω to a value: A, B or C
- The event $Grade = A$ is a shorthand for the event $\{\omega \in \Omega : f_{Grade} = A\}$



Random Variable (continuous v/s discrete)

- A random variable can either take continuous values (for example, *weight*, *height*)
- Or discrete values (for example, *grade*, *nationality*)
- For this discussion we will mainly focus on discrete random variables

G	$P(G=g)$
A	0.1
B	0.2
C	0.7

Marginal Distribution

- What do we mean by ***marginal distribution*** over a random variable ?
- Consider our random variable G for grades
- Specifying the marginal distribution over G means specifying

$$P(G=g) \quad \forall g \in A, B, C$$

- We denote this marginal distribution compactly by $P(G)$

Joint Distribution

G	I	$P(G = g, I = i)$
A	High	0.3
A	Low	0.1
B	High	0.15
B	Low	0.15
C	High	0.1
C	Low	0.2

- Consider two random variable G (grade) and I (intellegence $\in$ {**H**igh, **L**ow})
- The joint distribution over these two random variables assigns probabilities to all events in- volving these two random variables

  $P(G = g, I = i) \quad \forall (g, i) \in \{A, B, C\} \times \{H, L\}$
- We denote this joint distribution compactly by $P(G, I)$

G	$P(G\|I = H)$
A	0.6
B	0.3
C	0.1
G	$P(G\|I = L)$
A	0.3
B	0.4
C	0.3

Conditional Distribution

- Consider two random variable G (grade) and I (intelligence)
- Suppose we are given the value of I (say, $I = H$) then the conditional distribution $P(G|I)$ is defined as

$$P(G = g|I = H) = \frac{P(G = g, I = H)}{P(I = H)} \quad \forall g \in \{A, B, C\}$$

- More compactly defined as

$$P(G|I) = \frac{P(G, I)}{P(I)}$$

$$or \quad \underbrace{P(G, I)}_{joint} = \underbrace{P(G|I)}_{conditional} * \underbrace{P(I)}_{marginal}$$

Joint Distribution (n random variables)

X_1	$\dots$	X_n	$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$
$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$
$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$
$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$	$\dots$

$\Sigma = 1$

- The joint distribution of n random variables assigns probabilities to all events involving the n random variables,
- In other words it assigns

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_n = x_n)$$

for all possible values that variable X_i can take

- If each random variable X_i can take two values then the joint distribution will assign probab- ilities to the 2^n possible events

X_1	$\ldots$	X_n	$P(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$
$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$
$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$
$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$	$\ldots$

Joint Distribution (n random variables)

- The joint distribution over two random variables X_1 and X_2 can be written as,

  $$P(X_1, X_2) = P(X_2|X_1)P(X_1) = P(X_1|X_2)P(X_2)$$

- Similarly for n random variables

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)
&= P(X_2, ..., X_n|X_1)P(X_1) \\
&= P(X_3, ..., X_n|X_1, X_2)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_1) \\
&= P(X_4, ..., X_n|X_1, X_2, X_3)P(X_3|X_2, X_1) \\
&\quad P(X_2|X_1)P(X_1) \\
&= P(X_1)\prod_{i=2}^{n} P(X_i|X_1^{i-1})
\end{aligned}
$$

(chain rule)

A	B	$P(A=a, B=b)$
High	High	0.3
High	Low	0.25
Low	High	0.35
Low	Low	0.1

A	$P(A=a)$
High	0.55
Low	0.45

B	$P(B=a)$
High	0.65
Low	0.35

From Joint Distributions to Marginal Distributions

- Suppose we are given a joint distribtion over two random variables A, B
- The marginal distributions of A and B can be computed as

$$P(A=a) = \sum_{\forall b} P(A=a, B=b)$$

$$P(B=b) = \sum_{\forall a} P(A=a, B=b)$$

- More compactly written as

$$P(A) = \sum_{B} P(A, B)$$

$$P(B) = \sum_{A} P(A, B)$$

A	B	$P(A=a, B=b)$
High	High	0.3
High	Low	0.25
Low	High	0.35
Low	Low	0.1

A	$P(A=a)$
High	0.55
Low	0.45

B	$P(B=a)$
High	0.65
Low	0.35

What if there are n random variables ?

- Suppose we are given a joint distribtion over n random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$
- The marginal distributions over X_1 can be computed as

$$P(X_1 = x_1) = \sum_{\forall x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n} P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, ..., X_n = x_n)$$

- More compactly written as

$$P(X_1) = \sum_{X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n} P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$$

- Recall that by Chain Rule of Probability

$$P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y|X)$$

- However, if X and Y are independent, then

$$P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y)$$

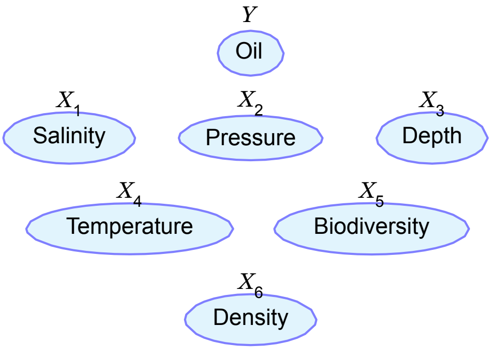
Conditional Independence

- Two random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$P(X|Y) = P(X)$$

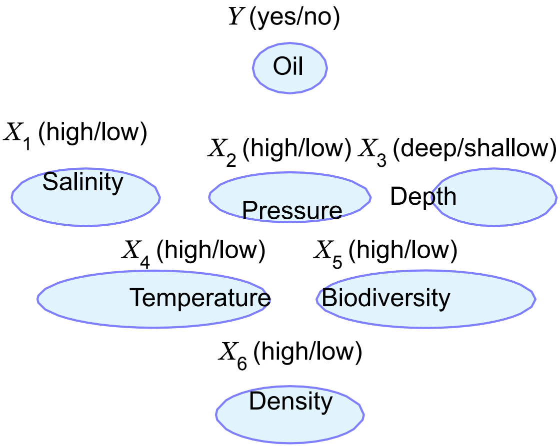
- We denote this as $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$
- In other words, knowing the value of Y does not change our belief about X
- We would expect ***Grade*** to be dependent on ***Intelligence*** but independent of ***Weight***

Okay, we are now ready to move on to Bayesian Networks or Directed Graphical Models



$$P(Y, X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6)$$

- In many real world applications, we have to deal with a large number of random variables
- For example, an oil company may be interested in computing the probabil- ity of finding oil at a particular loca- tion
- This may depend on various (ran- dom) variables
- The company is interested in knowing the joint distribution



$$P(Y, X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6)$$

- Let us return to the case of n random variables
- For simplicity assume each of these variables can take binary values
- To specify the joint distribution, we need to specify $2^n - 1$ values. Why not (2^n)?
- If we specify these $2^n - 1$ values, we have an explicit representation for the joint distribution

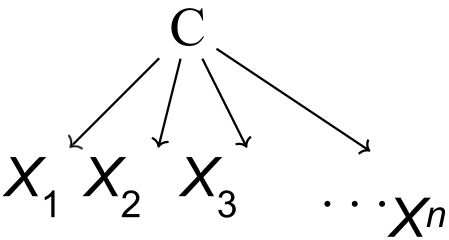
X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	...	X_n	P
0	0	0	0	...	0	0.01
1	0	0	0	...	0	0.03
0	1	0	0	...	0	0.05
1	1	0	0	...	0	0.1
				...		
				...		
				...		
1	1	1	1	...	1	0.002

(Once the first $2^n - 1$ values are specified the last value is deterministic as the values need to sum to 1)

Challenges with explicit representation

- **Computational:** Expensive to manipulate and too large to to store
- **Cognitive:** Impossible to acquire so many numbers from a human
- **Statistical:** Need huge amounts of data to learn the parameters

Module 17.4: Can we use a graph to represent a joint distribution?

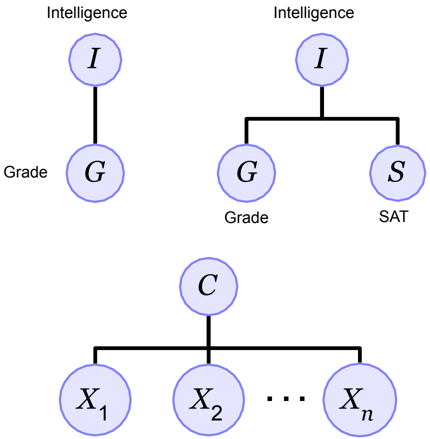


- This is called the Naive Bayes model It makes the Naive assumption that ${}^nC_2$ pairs are independent given C

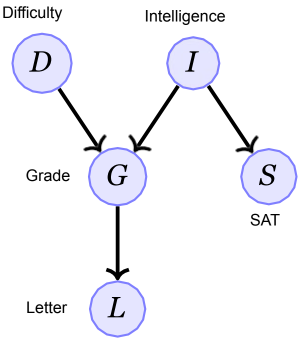
- Suppose we have n random variables, all of which are independent given an- other random variable C
- The joint distribution factorizes as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(C, X_1, ..., X_n) &= P(C)P(X_1|C) \\
&\quad P(X_2|X_1, C) \\
&\quad P(X_3|X_2, X_1, C)... \\
&= P(C)\prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i|C)
\end{aligned}
$$

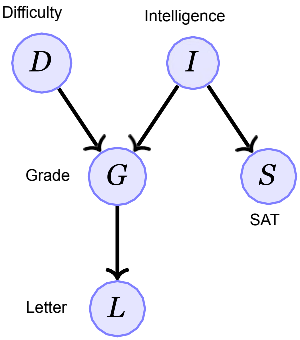
since $X_i \perp X_j | C$



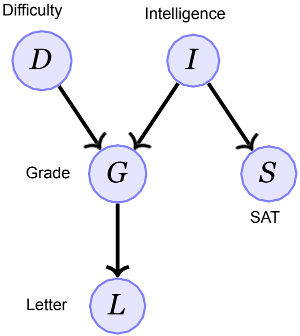
- Bayesian networks build on the intuitions that we developed for the Naive Bayes model
- But they are not restricted to strong (naive) independence assumptions
- We use graphs to represent the joint distribution
- **Nodes:** Random Variables
- **Edges:** Indicate dependence



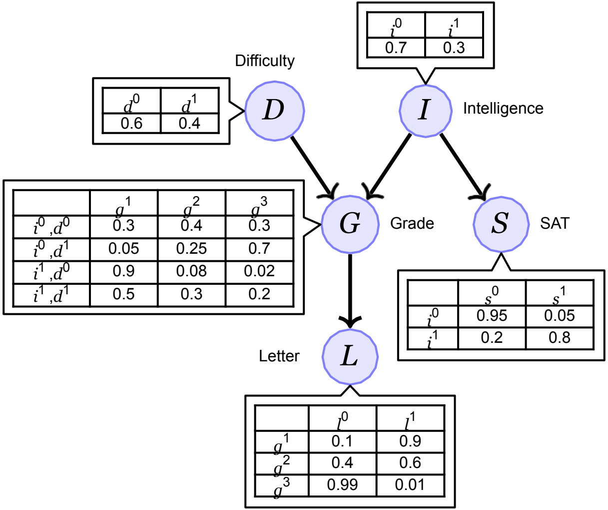
- Let's revisit the student example
- We will introduce a few more random variables and independence assump- tions
- The grade now depends on student's Intelligence & exam's Difficulty level
- The SAT score depends on Intelli- gence
- The recommendation Letter from the course instructor depends on the Grade



- The Bayesian network contains a node for each random variable
- The edges denote the dependencies between the random variables
- Each variable depends directly on its parents in the network



- The Bayesian network can be viewed as a data structure
- It provides a skeleton for representing a joint distribution compactly by factorization
- Let us see what this means



d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

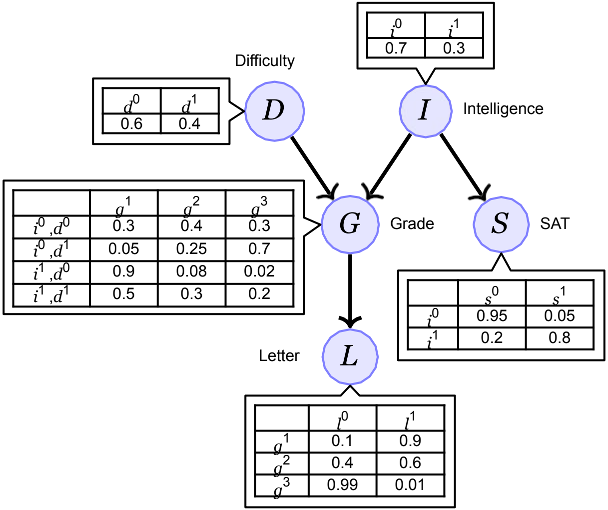
i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0, d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0, d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1, d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1, d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

- Each node is associated with a local probability model
- Local, because it represents the dependencies of each variable on its par- ents
- There are 5 such local probability models associated with the graph
- Each variable (in general) is associated with a conditional probability distribution (conditional on its parents)



d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0,d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0,d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1,d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1,d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

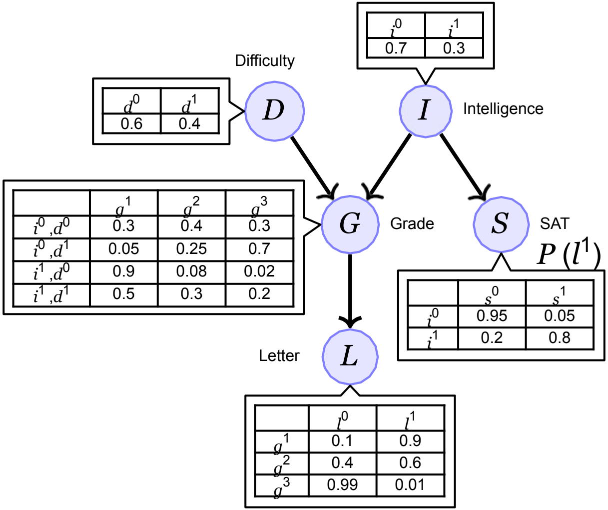
- The graph gives us a natural factorization for the joint distribution
- In this case,
$$P(I, D, G, S, L) = P(I)P(D) P(G|I, D)P(S|I)P(L|G)$$
- For example,
$$P(I = 1, D = 0, G = B, S = 1, L = 0) = 0.3 \times 0.6 \times 0.08 \times 0.8 \times 0.4$$
- The graph structure (nodes, edges) along with the conditional probability distribution is called a Bayesian Network

Module 17.5: Different types of reasoning in a Bayesian network

New Notations

- We will denote $P(I = 0)$ by $P(i^0)$
- In general, we will denote $P(I = 0, D = 1, G = B, S = 1, L = 0)$ by $P(i^0, d^1, g^b, s^1, l^0)$

Causal Reasoning



i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0,d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0,d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1,d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1,d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

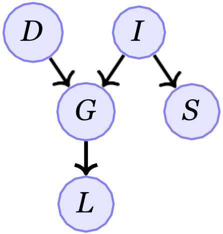
- Here, we try to predict downstream effects of various factors
- Let us consider an example
- What is the probability that a student will get a good recommendation letter, $P(l^1)$?

$$P(l^1) = \sum_{I\epsilon(0,1)} \sum_{D\epsilon(0,1)} \sum_{S\epsilon(0,1)} \sum_{t\epsilon(A,B,C)} P(I,D,G,S,l^1)$$

$$P(l^1) = \sum_{I \epsilon (0,1)} \sum_{D \epsilon (0,1)} \sum_{S \epsilon (0,1)} \sum_{t \epsilon (A,B,C)} P(I, D, G, S, l^1)$$

$$= \sum_{I \epsilon (0,1)} P(I) \sum_{D \epsilon (0,1)} P(D|I) \sum_{S \epsilon (0,1)} P(S|I, D) \sum_{t \epsilon (A,B,C)} P(G|I, D, S).P(l^1|G, I, D, S)$$

$$= \sum_{I \epsilon (0,1)} P(I) \sum_{D \epsilon (0,1)} P(D) \sum_{S \epsilon (0,1)} P(S|I) \sum_{t \epsilon (A,B,C)} P(G|I, D).P(l^1|G)$$

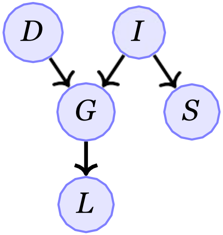


$$P(l^1) = \sum_{I\epsilon(0,1)} P(I) \sum_{D\epsilon(0,1)} P(D) \sum_{S\epsilon(0,1)} P(S|I) \sum_{G\epsilon(A,B,C)} P(G|I,D)P(l^1|G)$$

$$= \sum_{I\epsilon(0,1)} P(I) \sum_{D\epsilon(0,1)} P(D) \sum_{S\epsilon(0,1)} P(S|I) 0.9(P(g^1|I,D)) + 0.6(P(g^2|I,D)) + 0.01(P(g^3|I,D))$$

- Similarly using the other tables, we can evaluate this equation

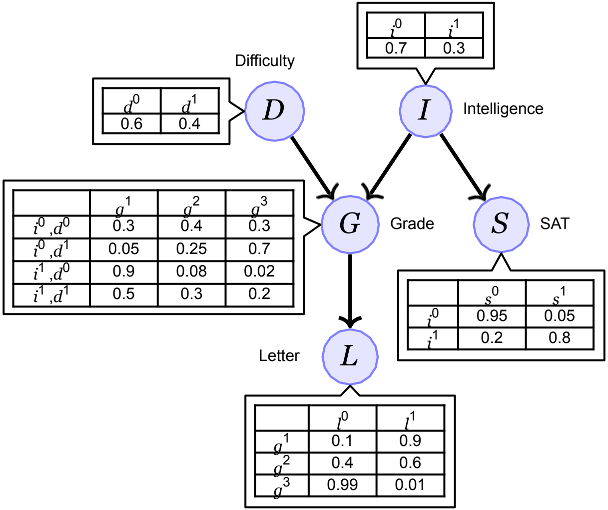
$$P(l^1) = 0.502$$



	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0,d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0,d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1,d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1,d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

Causal Reasoning



d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0, d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0, d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1, d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1, d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

- Now what if we start adding information about the factors that could influence l^1
- What if someone reveals that the stu- dent is not intelligent?
- Intelligence will affect the score and hence the grade

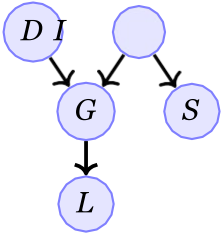
$$P(l^1|i^0) = \frac{P(l^1, i^0)}{P(i^0)}$$

$$P(l^1, i^0) = \sum_{D\in\{0,1\}} \sum_{S\in\{0,1\}} \sum_{G\in\{A,B,C\}} P(i^0, D, G, S, l^1)$$

$$= \sum_{D\in\{0,1\}} P(D) \sum_{S\in\{0,1\}} P(S|i^0) \sum_{G\in\{A,B,C\}} P(G|D, i^0)P(l^1|G)$$

$$= \sum_{D\in\{0,1\}} P(D) \sum_{S\in\{0,1\}} P(S|i^0) \sum_{G\in\{A,B,C\}} 0.9P(g^1|D, i^0) + 0.6P(g^2|D, i^0) + 0.01P(g^3|D, i^0)$$

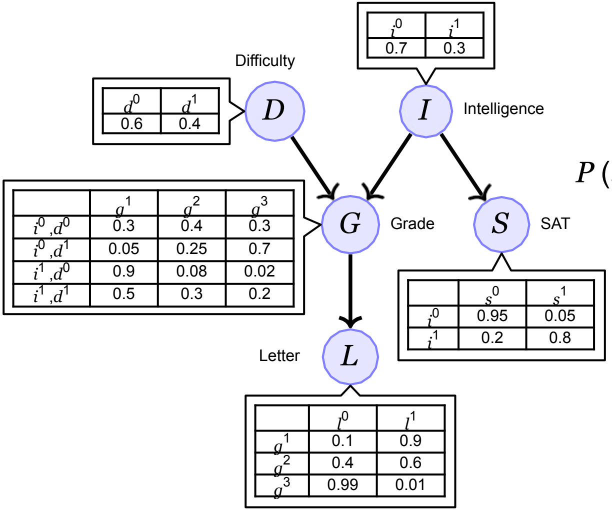
$$P(l^1|i^0) = 0.389$$



	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0,d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0,d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1,d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1,d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

Causal Reasoning



d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0,d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0,d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1,d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1,d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

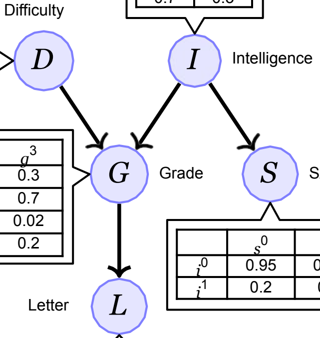
	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

- What if the course was easy?
- A not so intelligent student may still be able to get a good grade and hence a good letter

$$P(l^1|i^0,d^0) = \sum_{t\epsilon(A,B,C)} \sum_{S\epsilon(0,1)} P(i^0,d^0,G,S,l^1)$$

$P(l^1|i^0,d^1) = 0.513$
(increases)



d^0	d^1
0.6	0.4

i^0	i^1
0.7	0.3

	g^1	g^2	g^3
i^0, d^0	0.3	0.4	0.3
i^0, d^1	0.05	0.25	0.7
i^1, d^0	0.9	0.08	0.02
i^1, d^1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s^0	s^1
i^0	0.95	0.05
i^1	0.2	0.8

	l^0	l^1
g^1	0.1	0.9
g^2	0.4	0.6
g^3	0.99	0.01

Evidential Reasoning

- Here, we reason about causes by look- ing at their effects
- What is the probability of the student being intelligent?
- What is the probability of the course being difficult?
- Now let us see what happens if we observe some effects

$$P(i^1) = ?$$

$$P(i^1) = 0.3$$

$$P(d^1) = ?$$

$$P(d^1) = 0.4$$

$P(i^1) = 0.3$

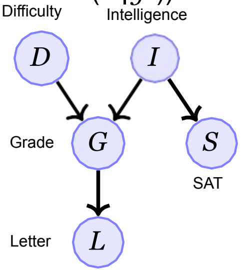
$P(d^1) = 0.4$
$P(i^1|g^3) = 0.079(drops)$ P

$(d^1|g^3) = 0.629(increases)$ P

$(i^1|l^0) = 0.14(drops)$

$P(l^1|l^0, g^3) = 0.079$

(same as $P(i^1|g^3)$)



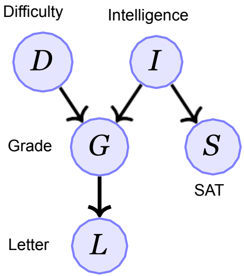
Evidential Reasoning

- What if someone tells us that the stu- dent secured C grade?
- What if instead of getting to know the grade, we get to know that the student got a poor recommendation letter?
- What if we know about the grade as well as the recommendation letter?
- The last case is interesting! (We will return to it later)

$P(i^1) = 0.3$

$P(i^1|g^3) = 0.079(drops)$

$P(i^1|g^3, d^1) =$
$0.11(improves)$



Explaining Away

- Here, we see how different causes of the same effect can interact
- We already saw how knowing the grade influences our estimate of intelligence
- What if we were told the course was difficult?
- Our belief in the student's intelligence improves
- Why? Let us see

$P(i^1) = 0.3 \quad P$

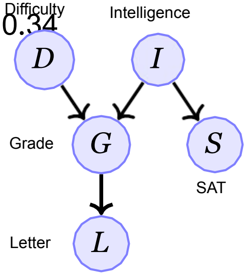
$(i^1|g^3) = 0.079\ P$

$(i^1|g^3, d^1) = 0.11$

$P(i^1|g^2) = 0.175$

$P(i^1|g^2, d^1) =$

0.34



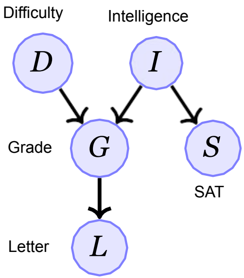
Explaining Away

- Knowing that the course was difficult explains away the bad grade
- “Oh! Maybe the course was just too difficult and the student might have received a bad grade despite being in- telligent!”
- The explaining away effect could be even more dramatic
- Let us consider the case when the grade was B

$P(d^1) = 0.40 \quad P$

$(d^1 | g^3) = 0.629 \; P$

$(d^1 | s^1, g^3) = 0.76$



Explaining Away

- Suppose we know that the student had a high SAT Score, what happens to our belief about the difficulty of the course?
- Knowing that the SAT score was high tells us that the student seems intel- ligent and perhaps the reason why he scored a poor grade is that the course was difficult

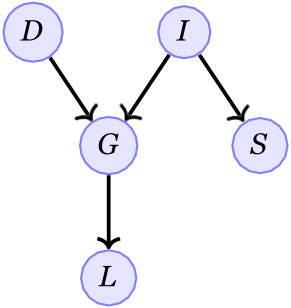
Module 17.6: Independencies encoded by a Bayesian network (Case 1: Node and its parents)

Why do we care about independencies encoded in a Bayesian network?

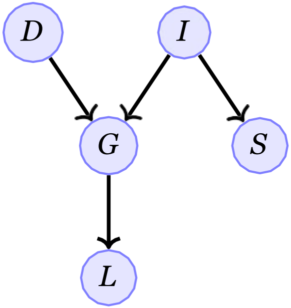
- We saw that if two variables are independent then the chain rule gets simplified, resulting in simpler factors which in turn reduces the number of parameters.
- In the extreme case, we say that in the Bayesian network model, each factor was very simple (just $P(X_i|Y)$ and as a result each factor just added 3 parameters
- The more the number of independencies, the fewer the parameters and the lesser is the inference time
- For example, if we want to the compute the marginal $P(S)$ then we just need to sum over the values of I and not on any other variables
- Hence we are interested in finding the independencies encoded in a Bayesian network

In general, given n random variables, we are interested in knowing if

- $X_i \perp X_j$
- $X_i \perp X_j | Z$, where $Z \subseteq X_1, X_2, ..., X_n / X_i, X_j$
- Let us answer some of the questions for our student Bayesian Network

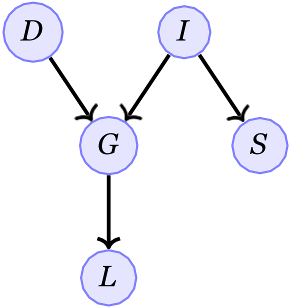


- To understand this let us return to our student example
- First, let us see some independencies which clearly do not exist in the graph
- Is $L \perp G$? (No, by construction)
- Is $G \perp D$? (No, by construction)
- Is $G \perp I$? (No, by construction)
- Is $S \perp I$? (No, by construction)
- **Rule?**
- **Rule:** A node is not independent of its parents



- No, the instructor is not going to look at the SAT score but the grade
- **Rule?**
- **Rule**: A node is not independent of its parents even when we are given the values of other variables

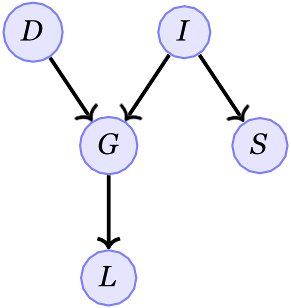
- Let us focus on G and L.
- We already know that $G \not\perp L$.
- What if we know the value of I? Does G become independent of L?
- No (intuitively, the student may be intelligent or not but ultimately, the letter depends on the performance in the course.)
- If we know the value of D, does G become independent of L.
- No (intuitively, the course may be easy or hard but the letter would depend on the performance in the course)
- What if we know the value of S? G become independent of



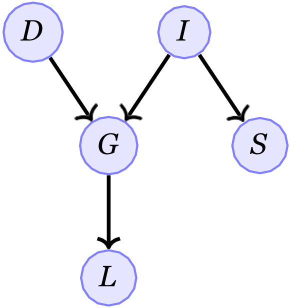
- **Rule?**
- **Rule:** A node is not independent of its parents even when we are given the values of other variables

- The same argument can be made about the following pairs
- $G \not\perp D$ (even when other variables are given)
- $G \not\perp I$ (even when other variables are given)
- $S \not\perp I$ (even when other variables are given)

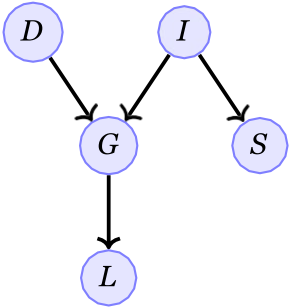
Module 17.7: Independencies encoded by a Bayesian network (Case 2: Node and its non-parents)



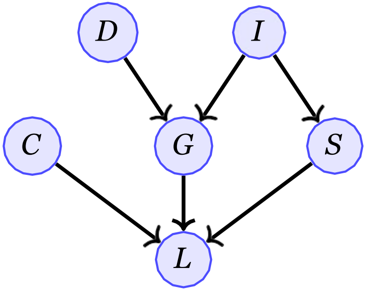
- Now let's look at the relation between a node and its non-parent nodes
- Is $L \perp S$?
- No, knowing the SAT score tells us about I which in turn tells us something about G and hence L
- Hence we expect $P(l^1|s^1) > P(l^1|s^0)$
- Similarly we can argue $L \not\perp D$ and $L \not\perp I$



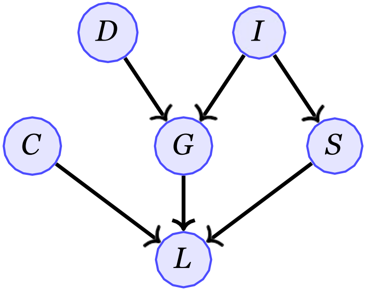
- But what if we know the value of G?
- Is $(L \perp S)|G$?
- Yes, the grade completely determines the recommendation letter
- Once we know the grade, other variables do not add any information
- Hence $(L \perp S)|G$
- Similarly we can argue $(L \perp I)|G$ and $(L \perp D)|G$



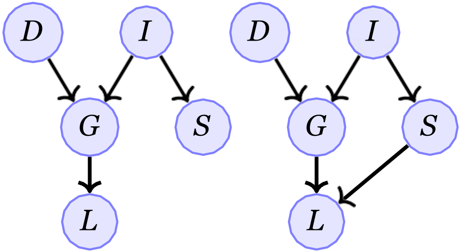
- But, wait a minute!
- The instructor may also want to look at the SAT score in addition to the grade
- Well, we “assumed” that the instructor only relies on the grade.
- That was our “belief” of how the world works
- And hence we drew the network accordingly



- Of course we are free to change our assumptions
- We may want to assume that the in- structor also looks at the SAT score
- But if that is the case we have to change the network to reflect this de- pendence
- Why just SAT score? The instructor may even consult one of his colleagues and seek his/her opinion



- Remember: The graph is a reflection of our assumptions about how the world works
- Our assumptions about dependencies are encoded in the graph
- Once we build the graph we freeze it and do all the reasoning and analysis (independence) on this graph
- It is not fair to ask “what if” questions involving other factors (For example, what if the professor was in a bad mood?)

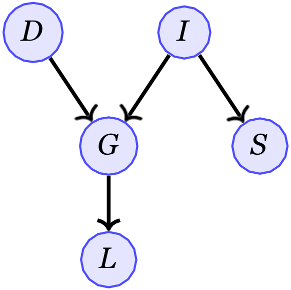


(a) (b)

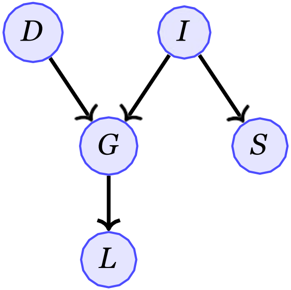
- If we believe Graph (a) is how the world works then $(L \perp S)|G$
- If we believe Graph(b) is how the world works then $(L \not\perp S)|G$
- We will stick to Graph(a) for the discussion

- Let's return back to our discussion of finding independence relations in the graph
- So far we have seen three cases as summarized in the next module

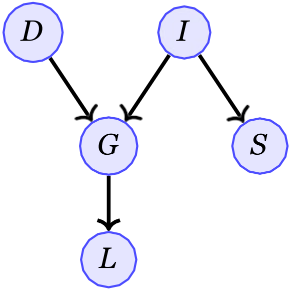
Module 17.8: Independencies encoded by a Bayesian network (Case 3: Node and its descendants)



- $(G \not\perp D)$ $(G \not\perp I)$ $(S \not\perp I)$ $(L \not\perp G)$
  A node is not independent of its parents
- $(G \not\perp D, I) | S, L$
  $(S \not\perp I) | D, G, L$
  $(L \not\perp G) | D, I, S$
  A node is not independent of its parents even when other variables are given
- $(S \perp G) | I$?
  $(L \perp D, I, S) | G$?
  $(G \perp L) | D, I$?
  A node **seems to be** independent of other variables given its parents



- Let us inspect this last rule
- Is $(G \perp L)|D, I$?
- If you know that $d = 0$ and $i = 1$ then you would expect the student to get a good grade
- But now if someone tells you that the student got a poor letter, your belief will change
- So $(G \not\perp L)|D, I$
- The effect (letter) actually gives us in- formation about the cause (grade)



- $(G \not\perp D)$ $(G \not\perp I)$ $(S \not\perp I)$ $(L \not\perp G)$
  A node is not independent of its parents
- $(S \not\perp I)|D, G, L$
  $(L \not\perp G)|D, I, S$
  A node is not independent of its parents even when other variables are given
- $(S \perp G)|I$
  $(L \perp D, I, S)|G$
  $(G \not\perp L)|D, I$
  Given its parents, a node is independent of all variables except its descendants

Module 17.9: Bayesian Networks: Formal Semantics

We are now ready to formally define the semantics of a Bayesian Network

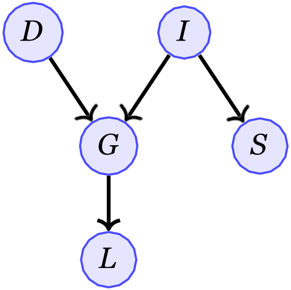
Bayesian Network Semantics:

A Bayesian Network structure G is a directed acyclic graph where nodes represent random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$. Let $P^t{}_{a_{Xi}}$ denote the parents of X_i in G and NonDescendants(X_i) denote the variables in the graph that are not descendants of X_i. Then G encodes the following set of conditional independence assumptions called the local independencies and denoted by $I_l(G)$ for each variable X_i.

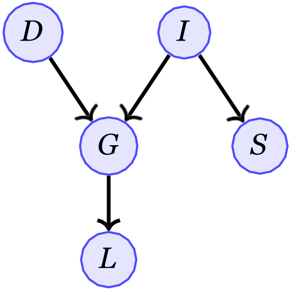
$(X_i \perp \text{NonDescendants}(X_i) | P^t_{a_{Xi}})$

- We will see some more formal definitions and then return to the question of independencies.

Module 17.10: I Maps



- Let P be a joint distribution over $X = X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$
- We define $I(P)$ as the set of independence assumptions that hold in P.
- For Example: $I(P) = \{(G \perp S|I, D), ...\}$
- Each element of this set is of the form $X_i \perp X_j|Z, Z \subseteq X|X_i, X_j$
- Let $I(G)$ be the set of independence assumptions associated with a graph G.



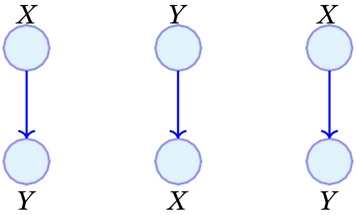
- We say that G is an I-map for P if $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$
- G does not mislead us about independencies in P
- Any independence that G states must hold in P
- But P can have additional independencies.

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

- Consider this joint distribution over X, Y
- We need to find a G which is an I-map for this P
- How do we find such a G?

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

- Well since there are only 2 variables here the only possibilities are $I(P) = \{(X \perp Y)\}$ or $I(P) = \Phi$
- From the table we can easily check $P(X, Y) = P(X).P(Y)$
- $I(P) = \{(X \perp Y)\}$
- Now can you come up with a G which satisfies $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$?

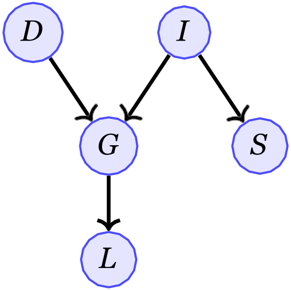


$I(G) = \Phi$ $\quad I(G_2) = \Phi$ $\quad I(G_3) = \{(X \perp Y)\}$

- Since we have only two variables there are only 3 possibilities for G Which of these is an I-Map for P?
- Well all three are I-Maps for P
- They all satisfy the condition
- $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$

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

- Of course, this was just a toy example
- In practice, we do not know P and hence can't compute $I(P)$
- We just make some assumptions about $I(P)$ and then construct a G such that $I(G) \subseteq I(P)$



- So why do we care about I-Map?
- If G is an I-Map for a joint distribution P then P factorizes over G
- What does that mean?
- Well, it just means that P can be written as a product of factors where each factor is a c.p.d associated with the nodes of G

Theore

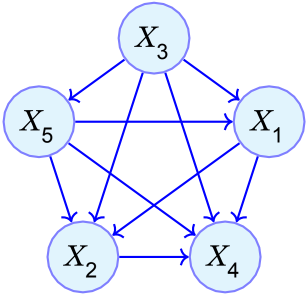
Let G be a BN structure over a set of random variables X and let P be a joint distribution over these variables. If G is an I-Map for P, then P factorizes according to G

Proof:Exercise

Theore

Let G be a BN structure over a set of random variables X and let P be a joint distribution over these variables. If P factorizes according to G, then G is an I-Map of P

Proof:Exercise



- Answer: A complete graph
- The factorization entailed by the above graph is $P(X_3)P(X_5|X_3)P(X_1|X_3, X_5)$ $P(X_2|X_1, X_3, X_5)P(X_4|X_1, X_2, X_3, X_5)$
- which is just chain rule of probability which holds for any distribution

- Consider a set of random variables X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5
- There are many joint distributions possible
- Each may entail different independence relations
- For example, in some cases L could be independent of S; in some not.
- Can you think of a G which will be an I-Map for any distribution over P?