Jin Gu

Department of Automation, Tsinghua University

Email: jgu@tsinghua.edu.cn Phone: (010) 62794294-866

Chapter 2 Bayesian Networks: Representation

2021 Fall Jin Gu (古槿)

Outlines

- Conditional independence
- Conditional parameterization
- Naïve Bayes model
- Bayesian networks
 - -BNs and local independences
 - −*I*-map and factorization
 - -d-separation
 - -From distribution to BNs

Textbook References

- Textbook 1
 - Chapter 3.1
 - Chapter 3.2
 - Chapter 3.3.1, 3.3.4, 3.4.1
- Textbook 2
 - Chapter 10.1
 - Chapter $10.2.1 \sim 10.2.3$

These chapters are the *minimal* readings!

Decision with Probability

- When the variables you need to consider are very large, human brain will struggle to get an "optimal" decision.
- Why?

The parameters increase **exponentially** with the number of variables!

For binary variables: ~2ⁿ parameters

Representing Joint Distributions

- Random variables: $X_1, ..., X_n$
- P is a joint distribution over $X_1, ..., X_n$



If X_1, \ldots, X_n binary, need 2^n -1 parameters to describe P

Can we represent P more compactly?

■ Key: Exploit independence properties

Independent Random Variables

- Two variables X and Y are independent if
 - -P(X = x | Y = y) = P(X = x) for all values x, y
 - Equivalently, knowing Y does not change predictions of X
- If X and Y are independent then:

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

- If $X_1, ..., X_n$ are independent then:
 - $P(X_1, ..., X_n) = P(X_1) ... P(X_n)$
 - -O(n) parameters are needed
 - All 2^n probabilistic states are implicitly defined

This independent assumption is too strong to model complex problems!

Conditional Independence

- Two variables *X* and *Y* are *conditionally independent* given *Z*, if:
 - -P(X = x | Y = y, Z = z) = P(X = x | Z = z) for all values x, y, z
 - Equivalently, if we know Z, then knowing Y does not change predictions of X
 - Notation: $Ind(X; Y \mid Z)$ or $(X \perp Y \mid Z)$

Can *conditional independence* reduce the required parameters?

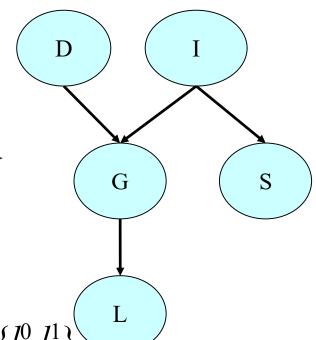
Student Example

A concrete example to show that independences can reduce the required parameters for representing a distribution



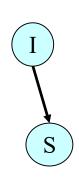
- I = Intelligence, $Val(I) = \{i^0, i^1\}$
- S =Score on SAT, $Val(S) = \{s^0, s^1\}$
- G = Course grade, $Val(G) = \{g^0, g^1, g^2\}$
- $L = \text{Recommendation letter, Val}(L) = \{l^0, l^1\}$

• Assume that G and S are independent given I



Conditional Parameterization

- S =Score on SAT, $Val(S) = \{s^0, s^1\}$
- I = Intelligence, $Val(I) = \{i^0, i^1\}$



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	(I	,	J	J

I	<i>S</i>	P(I,S)
i ⁰	s^0	0.665
i ⁰	S^1	0.035
j1	S^0	0.06
j ¹	S^1	0.24

P(I)

P(S|I)

I			
j ⁰ j ¹			
0.7	0.3		

	5		
I	s ⁰	S^1	
i ⁰	0.95	0.05	
j ¹	0.2	0.8	

Joint parameterization



3 parameters

Conditional parameterization



3 parameters

Alternative **conditional parameterization**: P(S) and P(I|S)

Conditional Parameterization

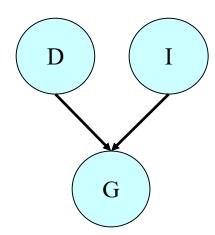
- $I = \text{Intelligence}, \text{Val}(I) = \{i^0, i^1\}$
- D = Difficulty, $\text{Val}(D) = \{d^0, d^1\}$ the required parameters

Independences can reduce the required parameters

- $G = \text{Grade}, \text{Val}(G) = \{g^0, g^1, g^2\}$
- We know *I* and *D* are independent



- Joint parameterization
 - $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 1 = 12 1 = 11$ independent parameters
- Conditional parameterization has
 - P(D, I, G) = P(D)P(I)P(G|D, I)
 - $P(D) \sim 1$ independent parameter
 - $P(I) \sim 1$ independent parameter
 - $P(G|D, I) \sim 4*(3-1) = 8$ independent parameters
 - 10 independent parameters



Naïve Bayes Model

- Class variable C, $Val(C) = \{c_1, ..., c_k\}$
- Evidence variables $X_1, ..., X_n$





$$P(C, X_1,...,X_n) = P(C) \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid C)$$

- Applications in medical diagnosis, text classification
- Used as a classifier (i.e. k=2):

$$\frac{P(C=c_1 \mid x_1,...,x_n)}{P(C=c_2 \mid x_1,...,x_n)} = \frac{P(C=c_1)}{P(C=c_2)} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{P(x_i \mid C=c_1)}{P(x_i \mid C=c_2)}$$

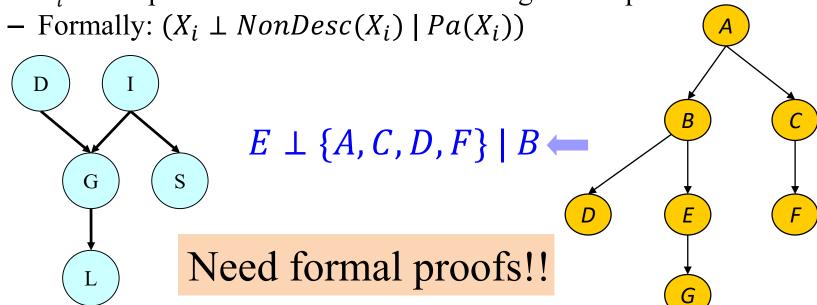
• Problem: Double counting correlated evidence. For example, fever and headache are highly correlated..

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Bayesian Networks (Intuitive)

Can we find a simple graph model to equally or partially represent the probability with the same independences?

- Directed acyclic graph (DAG) G
 - Nodes X_1, \dots, X_n represent random variables
- G encodes local independence assumptions
 - $-X_i$ is independent of its non-descendants given its parents



Independency Mappings (I-Maps)

- *I*-Maps (Independence Maps)
 - Let P be a distribution over X
 - Let I(P) be the independencies in P
 - A Bayesian network is an *I*-map of *P* if $I(G)\subseteq I(P)$

I

S

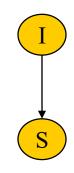
I (G)	=	$\{\mathrm{I} \rfloor$	LS}
•	_			_

I	5	P(I,S)
i 0	s^0	0.25
i ⁰	S^1	0.25
j ¹	s^0	0.25
j ¹	S^1	0.25

$$I(P) = \{I \perp S\}$$

I	5	P(I,S)
i ⁰	s^0	0.4
i ⁰	S^1	0.3
j¹	S^0	0.2
j1	S^1	0.1





$$I(G)=\emptyset$$

Factorization Theorem ***

If we define the independences in G as $X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i)$

• G is an I-Map of $P \to P(X_1,...,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Pa(X_i))$

G is a given graph. If G is an I-Map of P, P can be factorized according to G.

• $P(X_1,...,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Pa(X_i)) \rightarrow G$ is an *I*-Map of *P*

G is a given graph. If P can be factorized according to G, G is an I-Map of P.

Proof: I-Map to Factorization

• If G is an I-Map of P, then

$$P(X_1,...,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Pa(X_i))$$

Proof:

- wlog. $X_1, ..., X_n$ is an ordering consistent with G
- By chain rule: $P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$
- From the ordering assumption

$$-Pa(X_i) \subseteq \{X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}\} \& \{X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}\} - Pa(X_i) \subseteq ND(X_i)$$

• Since G is an I-Map $\rightarrow (X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i)) \subseteq I(P)$

$$P(X_i | X_1,...,X_{i-1}) = P(X_i | Pa(X_i))$$

If we define the independences in G as $X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i)$

Proof: Factorization Implies I-Map

- $P(X_1,...,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Pa(X_i)) \rightarrow G$ is an *I*-Map of *P*
- Need to prove $(X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) | Pa(X_i)) \subseteq I(P)$ or that $P(X_i | NonDesc(X_i)) = P(X_i | Pa(X_i))$

Proof:

• wlog. $X_1, ..., X_n$ is an ordering consistent with G

$$\begin{split} P(X_i \mid NonDesc(X_i)) &= \frac{P(X_i, NonDesc(X_i))}{P(NonDesc(X_i))} \\ &= \frac{\prod\limits_{i=1}^{i} P(X_i \mid Pa(X_k))}{\prod\limits_{k=1}^{i-1} P(X_k \mid Pa(X_k))} \\ &= P(X_i \mid Pa(X_i)) \end{split}$$

Formal Bayesian Network Definition

- A Bayesian network is a pair {P, G}
 - P factorizes over G
 - P is specified as set of conditional probability
 dependences (CPDs) associated with G's nodes

- Parameters
 - Joint distribution: $\sim 2^n$
 - Bayesian network (bounded in-degree k): $\sim n2^k$

How to Use BN Factorization?

A simple example in paper assignment #1

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

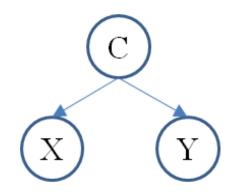


$$-P(x|y) = \sum_{c} P(x|y, C = c)P(C|y)$$

•
$$P(x|y,c) = P(x|c)$$

•
$$P(c|y) = \frac{P(y|c)P(c)}{P(y)}$$
$$- P(y) = \sum_{c} P(y|c)P(c)$$

Try to transform the probability to the form of "local" probability as P(child | Parents)

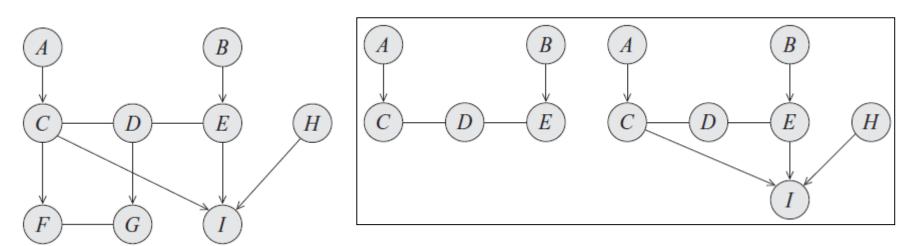


How to Use BN Factorization?



Independence Inference??

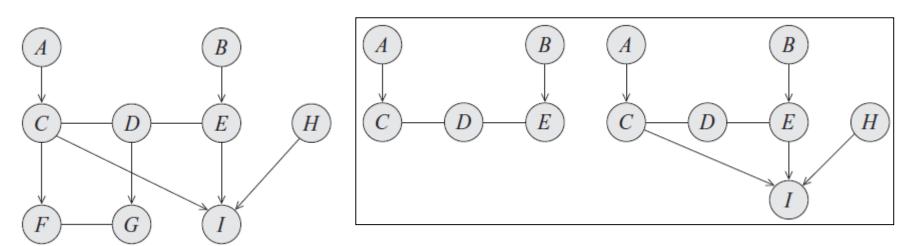
- G encodes local independence assumptions
 - $-X_i$ is independent of its non-descendants given its parents (from the BN definition)
 - Formally: $(X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i))$



If the variables in *upward closure* are given,?

d-Separation in BNs

- G encodes local independence assumptions
 - $-X_i$ is independent of its non-descendants given its parents (from the BN definition)
 - Formally: $(X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i))$



If the variables in *upward closure* are given,?

d-Separation in BNs

- G encodes local independence assumptions
 - $-X_i$ is independent of its non-descendants given its parents (from the BN definition)
 - Formally: $(X_i \perp NonDesc(X_i) \mid Pa(X_i))$

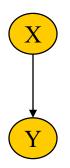
Does *G* encode other independence assumptions that hold in every distribution *P* that factorizes over *G*?



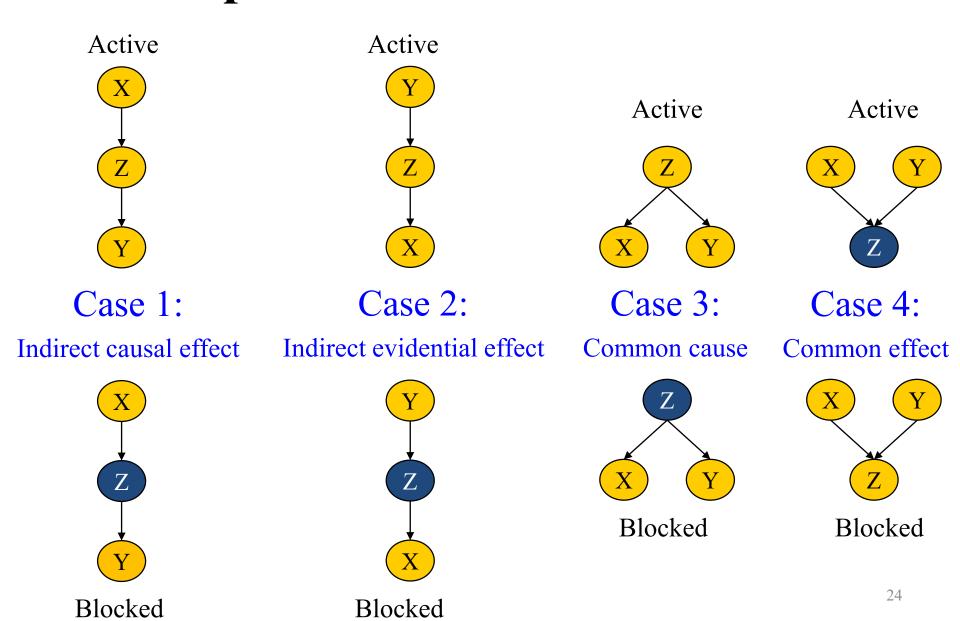
Devise a procedure to find all independencies in G

Not Separated: Direct Connection

- X and Y directly connected in $G \rightarrow$ no Z exists for which $Ind(X; Y \mid Z)$ holds in any factorizing distribution
 - Example: deterministic function



Not Separated: Indirect Connection



Not Separated: the General Case

- Let G be a Bayesian network structure
- Let $X_1 \leftrightarrow ... \leftrightarrow X_n$ be a trail in G
- Let **E** be a subset of evidence nodes in G



The trail $X_1 \leftrightarrow ... \leftrightarrow X_n$ is active given evidence E if:

- For every V-structure $X_{i-1} \rightarrow X_i \leftarrow X_{i+1}$, X_i or one of its descendants is observed
- No other nodes along the trail are in E

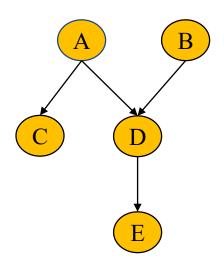
d-Separation

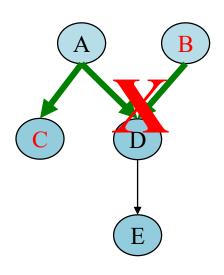
• X and Y are d-separated in G given Z, denoted d-sep_G(X; Y|Z) if there is no active trail between any node $X \in X$ and any node $Y \in Y$ in G

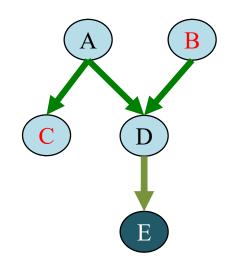
• Get all independences from d-separation

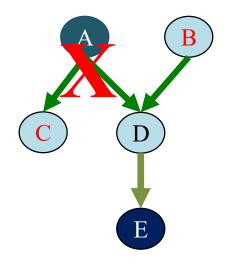
$$-I(G) = \{(\mathbf{X} \perp \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z}) : d - sep_G(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z})\}$$

d-Separation Examples









d-seq(B, C)=yes

d-sep(B, C|E)=no

Forward vs Backward in BNs

• According to above examples, we should intuitively know that the *backward* process (given results, infer causes or learn parameters) is much harder than the *forward* process

• Why?

 The child nodes will activate the trails (probabilistic dependences) between their parents and these dependences can propagate upward in the graphs

Algorithm for d-Separation

```
Procedure Reachable ( \mathcal{G}, // Bayesian network graph X, // Source variable Z // Observations ) 

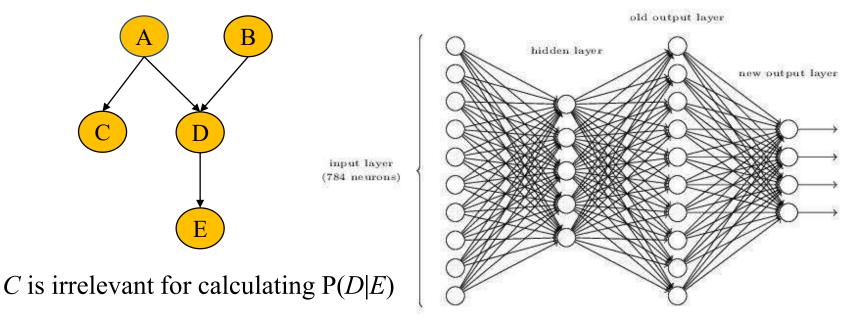
// Phase I: Insert all ancestors of Z into A L \leftarrow Z // Nodes to be visited A \leftarrow \emptyset // Ancestors of Z while L \neq \emptyset Select some Y from L L \leftarrow L - \{Y\} if Y \not\in A then L \leftarrow L \cup \operatorname{Pa}_Y // Y's parents need to be visited A \leftarrow A \cup \{Y\} // Y is ancestor of evidence
```

Aim: find all reachable nodes from X given Z

```
// Phase II: traverse active trails starting from X
 L \leftarrow \{(X,\uparrow)\} // (Node, direction) to be visited
 V \leftarrow \emptyset // (Node, direction) marked as visited
 R \leftarrow \emptyset // Nodes reachable via active trail
 while L \neq \emptyset
    Select some (Y, d) from L
    L \leftarrow L - \{(Y, d)\}
    if (Y, d) \not\in V then
       if Y \not\in Z then
          R \leftarrow R \cup \{Y\} // Y is reachable
       V \leftarrow V \cup \{(Y,d)\} // Mark (Y,d) as visited
       if d = \uparrow and Y \notin Z then // Trail up through Y active if Y not in Z
          for each Z \in Pa_V
            L \leftarrow L \cup \{(Z,\uparrow)\} // Y's parents to be visited from bottom
          for each Z \in Ch_Y
             L \leftarrow L \cup \{(Z,\downarrow)\} // Y's children to be visited from top
       else if d = \downarrow then // Trails down through Y
          if Y \not\in Z then
                // Downward trails to Y's children are active
             for each Z \in Ch_V
              L \leftarrow L \cup \{(Z,\downarrow)\} // Y's children to be visited from top
          if Y \in A then // y-structure trails are active
             for each Z \in Pa_V
              L \leftarrow L \cup \{(Z,\uparrow)\} // Y's parents to be visited from bottom
return R
```

Independences Ease Inferences

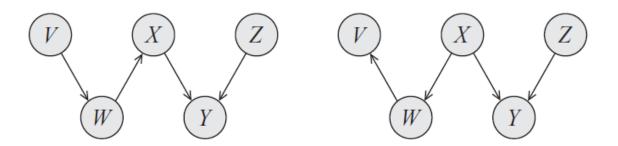
• Except less parameters, for inferences, you can only consider the *local dependent sub-graphs*



P(A), P(B), P(D|A,B), P(E|D) are needed

I-Equivalence

- Two graphs G1 and G2 are I-equivalent, if I(G1) = I(G2). It means that the independences encoded by the two graphs should be the same.
- G1 and G2 have the same skeleton and the same set of immoralities (v-structures) if and only if they are I-equivalent.



From Distributions to BNs

- If *P* factorizes over *G*, we can derive a rich set of independence assertions that hold for P by simply examining *G*.
- Given a distribution P (a complex distribution hard to get the encoded independencies), to what extent can we construct a graph G whose independencies are a reasonable surrogate for the independencies in P?

Minimal I-Maps

• A graph G is a minimal I-map for a set of independences 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. Removal of an edge means additional independences!

```
Procedure Build-Minimal-I-Map ( X_1,\ldots,X_n // an ordering of random variables in \mathcal{X} \mathcal{I} // Set of independencies )

Set \mathcal{G} to an empty graph over \mathcal{X} for i=1,\ldots,n U \leftarrow \{X_1,\ldots,X_{i-1}\} // U is the current candidate for parents of X_i for U' \subseteq \{X_1,\ldots,X_{i-1}\} if U' \subset U and (X_i \perp \{X_1,\ldots,X_{i-1}\}-U'\mid U') \in \mathcal{I} then U \leftarrow U' // At this stage U is a minimal set satisfying (X_i \perp \{X_1,\ldots,X_{i-1}\}-U\mid U) // Now set U to be the parents of X_i for X_j \in U Add X_i \to X_i to \mathcal{G}
```

return \mathcal{G}

Note: different initial orderings may generate different networks.

Basic idea: for i-th variable X_i , find the minimal sets of parents of X_i from the previous variables.

Perfect Maps

- A graph G is a perfect map (P-map) for a set of independences I if I(G) = I or I(G) = I(P). P is a distribution.
- Enumerate all independences in *G* and *P* to see weather *G* is a P-map of *P*.

• How a find a graph which is a P-map of distribution? (Please read textbook 3.4.3)

Summary

• Independences can reduce the required parameters to represent a distribution

• ***Factorization theorem*** establish a mapping from a distribution and a graph

• Minimal *I*-Maps provide a possible way to find a graph representation of a distribution

Further Thinking

- Less links ⇔ more independences
- With the similar losses, do you prefer:
 - the models with fewer links?
 - the models with more links?

- Why?
- Random dropouts in deep learning..
- Densely connected CNNs..

Further Thinking: Causality / Intervention

• If the directed edges mean "causal effects"

Theoretical Impediments to Machine Learning With Seven Sparks from the Causal Revolution

Judea Pearl
University of California, Los Angeles
Computer Science Department
Los Angeles, CA, 90095-1596, USA
judea@cs.ucla.edu

January 15, 2018

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Level (Symbol)	Typical Activity	Typical Questions	Examples
1. Association $P(y x)$	Seeing	What is? How would seeing X change my belief in Y ?	What does a symptom tell me about a disease? What does a survey tell us about the election results?
2. Intervention $P(y do(x), z)$	Doing Intervening	What if? What if I do X?	What if I take aspirin, will my headache be cured? What if we ban cigarettes?
3. Counterfactuals $P(y_x x',y')$	Imagining, Retrospection	Why? Was it X that caused Y? What if I had acted differently?	Was it the aspirin that stopped my headache? Would Kennedy be alive had Oswald not shot him? What if I had not been smoking the past 2 years?



(picture from a friend) This is a sad scene at NIPS 2017. Being alchemy is certainly not a shame, not wanting to work on advancing to chemistry is a shame!



For *causal edge*, *intervention* on child node can be regarded as "*delete the edge*"

• I-equivalence

- If only consider dependence
- $-X \rightarrow Y \Leftrightarrow Y \rightarrow X$

Causality

- X: speed by a detector follows a conditional distribution P(X|Y)
- Y: car speed follows a distribution P(Y)
- -Y->X is causal
- If we *manually* set X=100, how about P(Y|do(X=x))?

Seven Pillars for Representing Causality

- Encoding causal assumptions transparency and testability
- Do-calculus and the control of confounding
- The algorithmization of counterfactuals
- Mediation analysis and the assessment of direct and indirect effects
- External validity and sample selection bias
- Missing data
- Causal discovery

A Paradox for Drug Effect

• Does the drug take effect?

	Recovery	No recovery	Total
Drug	20	20	40
No drug	16	24	40
Total	36	44	80

• Please answer the question again!!

Females	Recovery	No recovery	Total
Drug	2	8	10
No drug	9	21	30
Total	11	29	40

Males	Recovery	No recovery	Total
Drug	18	12	30
No drug	7	3	10
Total	25	15	40