AI3603: Artificial Intelligence: Principles and Applications

Probabilistic Graphical Model I: Bayes Nets

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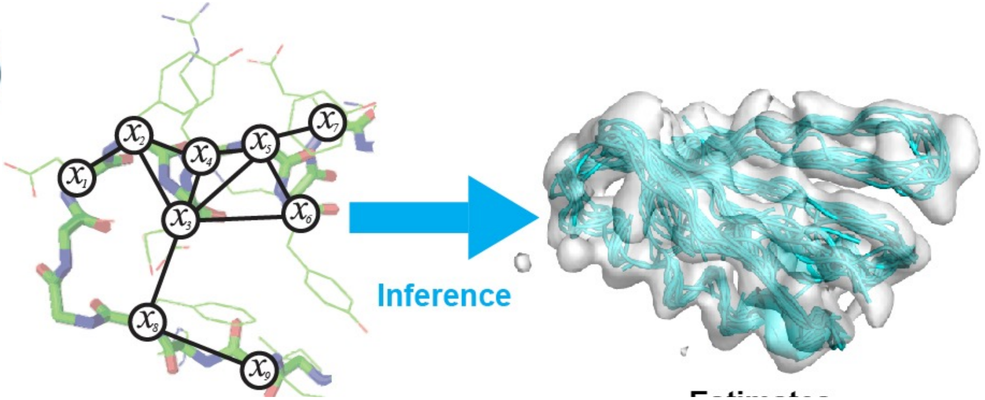
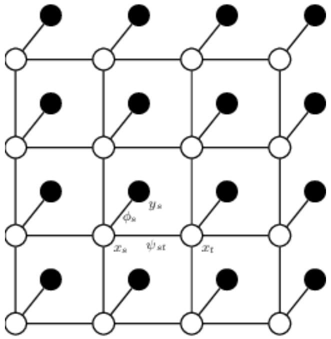
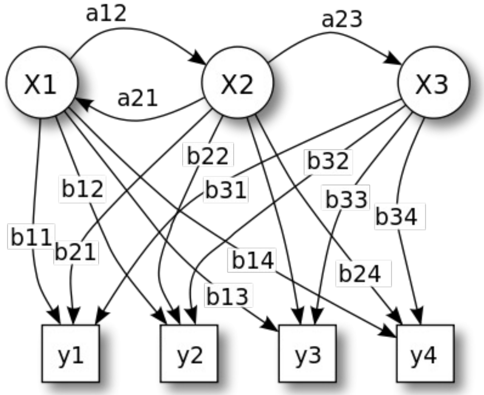






Contents

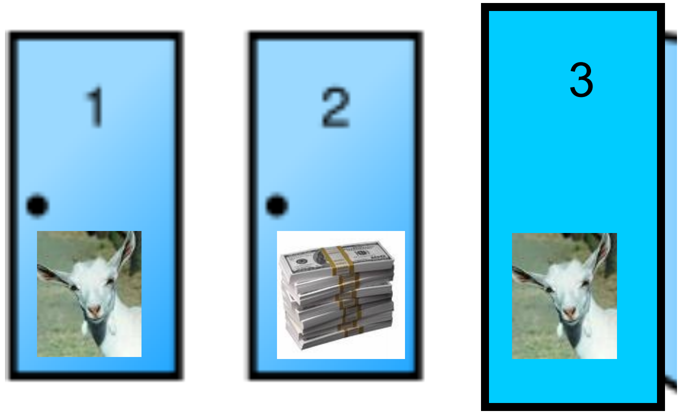
Probabilistic Graphical Models (PGM)

- Models describe how a portion of the world works

- Models are always simplifications
  - May not account for every variable
  - May not account for all interactions between variables
  - "All models are wrong; but some are useful."
    – George E. P. Box

Monty Hall Problem

- You're in a game show. Behind one door is a prize. Behind the others, goats.
- You pick one of three doors, say #1
- The host, Monty Hall, who knows everything, opens one door, revealing…a goat!



You now can either

- stick with your guess
- always change doors

Monty Hall Problem

What are graphical models?

- Informally, a graphical model(GM) is just a graph representing relationship among random variables
  - Nodes: random variables (features)
  - Edges (or absence of edges): relationship
  - What exactly do we mean by relationship?

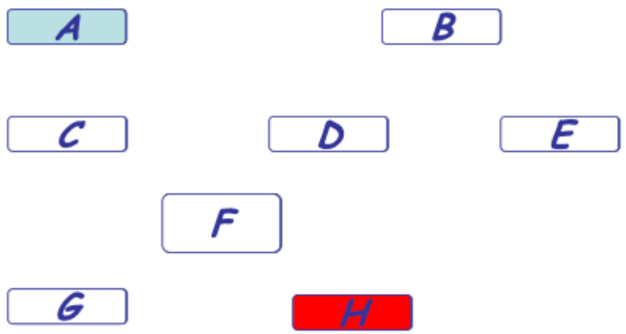
What are graphical models?

- 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 insight?

What are graphical models?

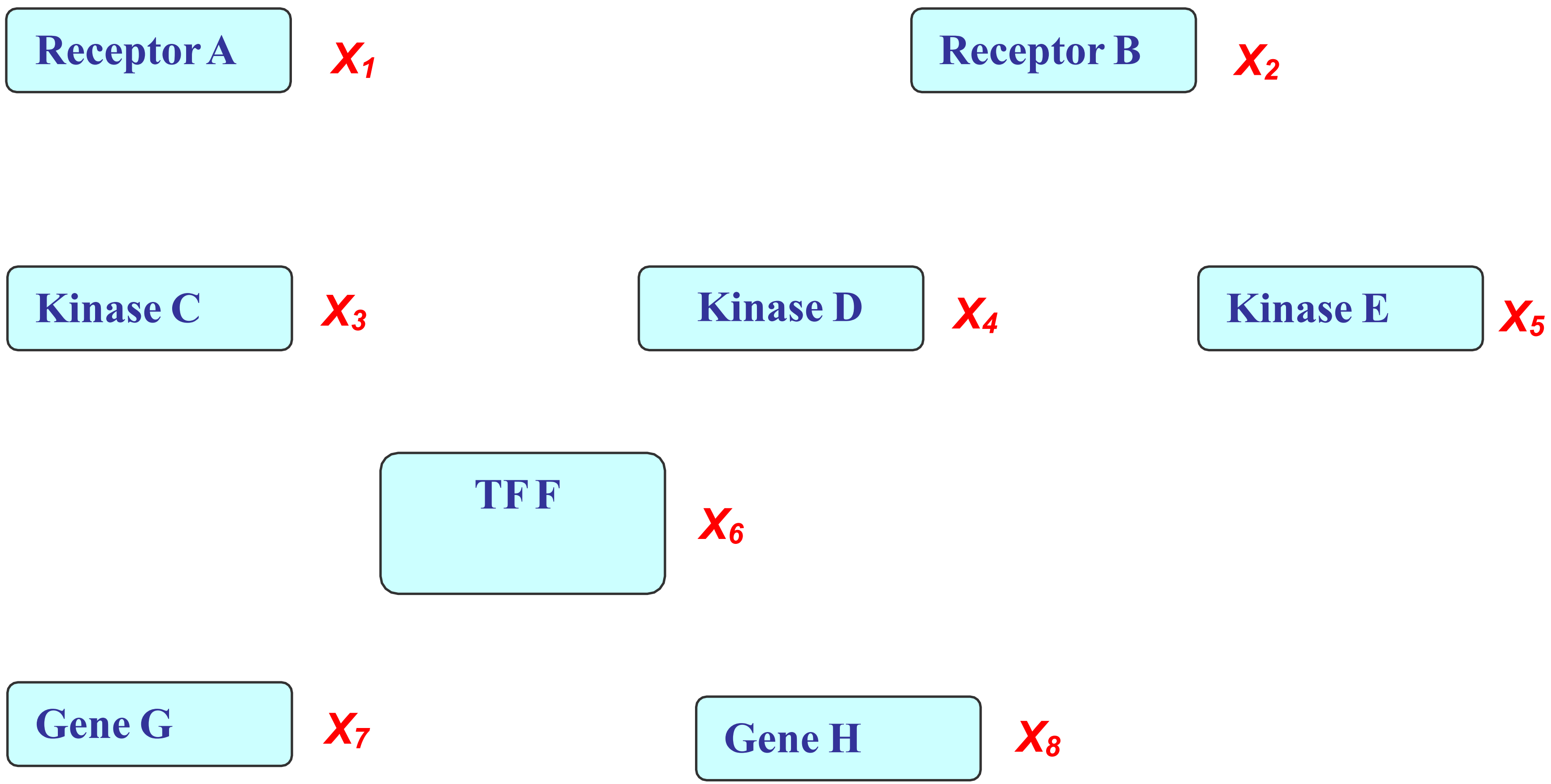
- Learning: where do we get all this probabilities?
  - Maximal-likelihood estimation? but how many data do we need?
  - Are there other est. principles?
  - Where do we put domain knowledge in terms of plausible relationships between variables, and plausible values of the probabilities?

- Inference: If not all variables are observable, how to compute the conditional distribution of latent variables given evidence?
  - Computing p(H|A) would require summing over all 2^6 configurations of the unobserved variables



Multivariate Distribution in High-D Space

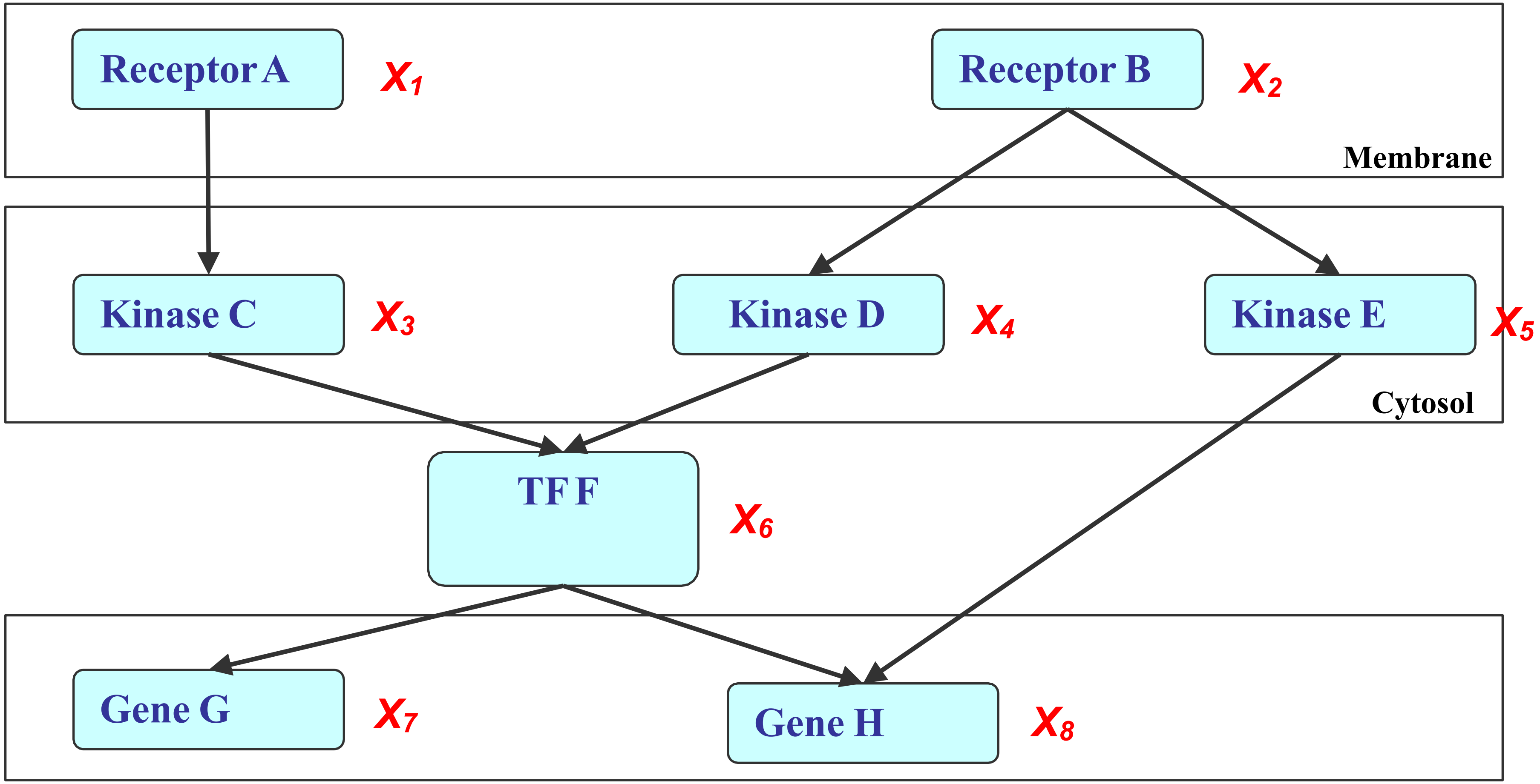
- A possible world for cellular signal transduction:



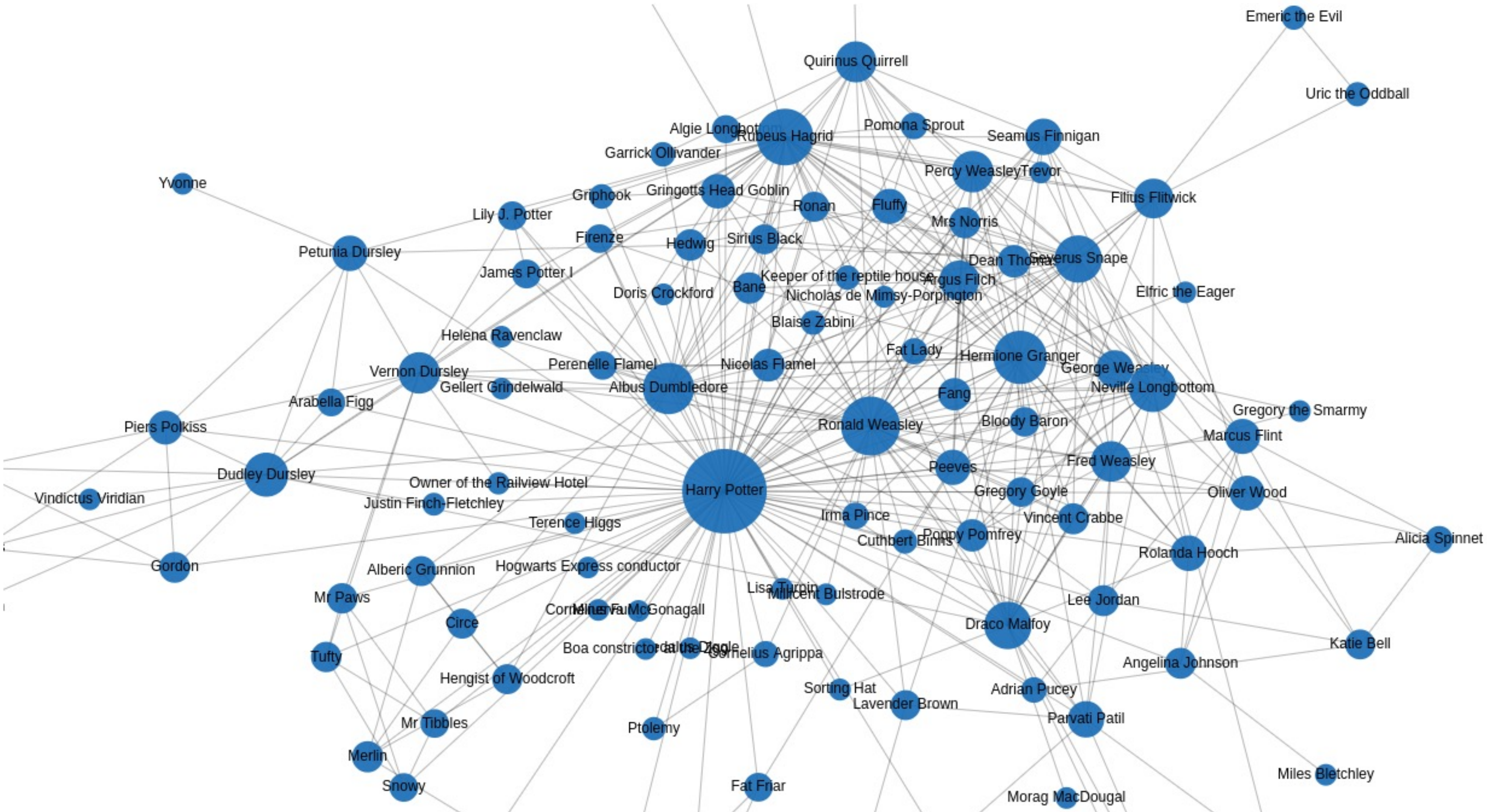
A Structured View From Domain Experts

- Dependencies among variables

构建一些关系



How to compute a graphical models?



Relationship between two random variables

- Many types of relationships exist: X and Y are correlated
  - X and Y are dependent
  - X and Y are independent
  - X and Y are partially correlated given Z
  - X and Y are conditionally dependent given Z
  - X and Y are conditionally independent given Z
  - X causes Y
  - Y causes X
  - ...

Measure of association between two random variables

- Measures of association:
  - Pearson's correlation 线性的
  - Mutual information 下面三个是非线性的
  - Hilbert-Schmidt Independence Criterion (HSIC)
  - Partial correlation
  - ………..

Pearson's correlation

线性关系

- Normalized covariance

$$\rho(X,Y) = \frac{\mathrm{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}(X)}\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}(Y)}}$$

- Captures linear dependency
- Important properties:

  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ implies $\rho(X,Y) = 0$ (Why?)
  $\rho(X,Y) = 0$ does not imply $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ (Counterexamples?)

- Q1: Is there any measure that implies independence?
- Q2: What kind of dependency should they consider?

Strong measure of association

- One way to construct such a measure of dependence:
- If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ then joint pdf factorizes $P_{XY} = P_X P_Y$
- Measure "distance" between P_{XY} and $P_X P_Y$
- distance == 0 if and only if $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$

How to construct graphical models?

- Marginal correlation/dependency graph for $\mathbf{x} = \{X_1, . . ., X_d\}$
- Most primitive form of graphical models one can think of
- Connect variables that have nontrivial pairwise correlation/mutual information/HSIC/etc.

- Not very informative. Why?
  - X = height of a kid
  - Y = vocabulary of a kid
  - Z = age of a kid
  - Q1: What is the marginal dependency graph?
  - Q2: What is the graph that you think will make more sense?

Partial correlation: accounting for other variables

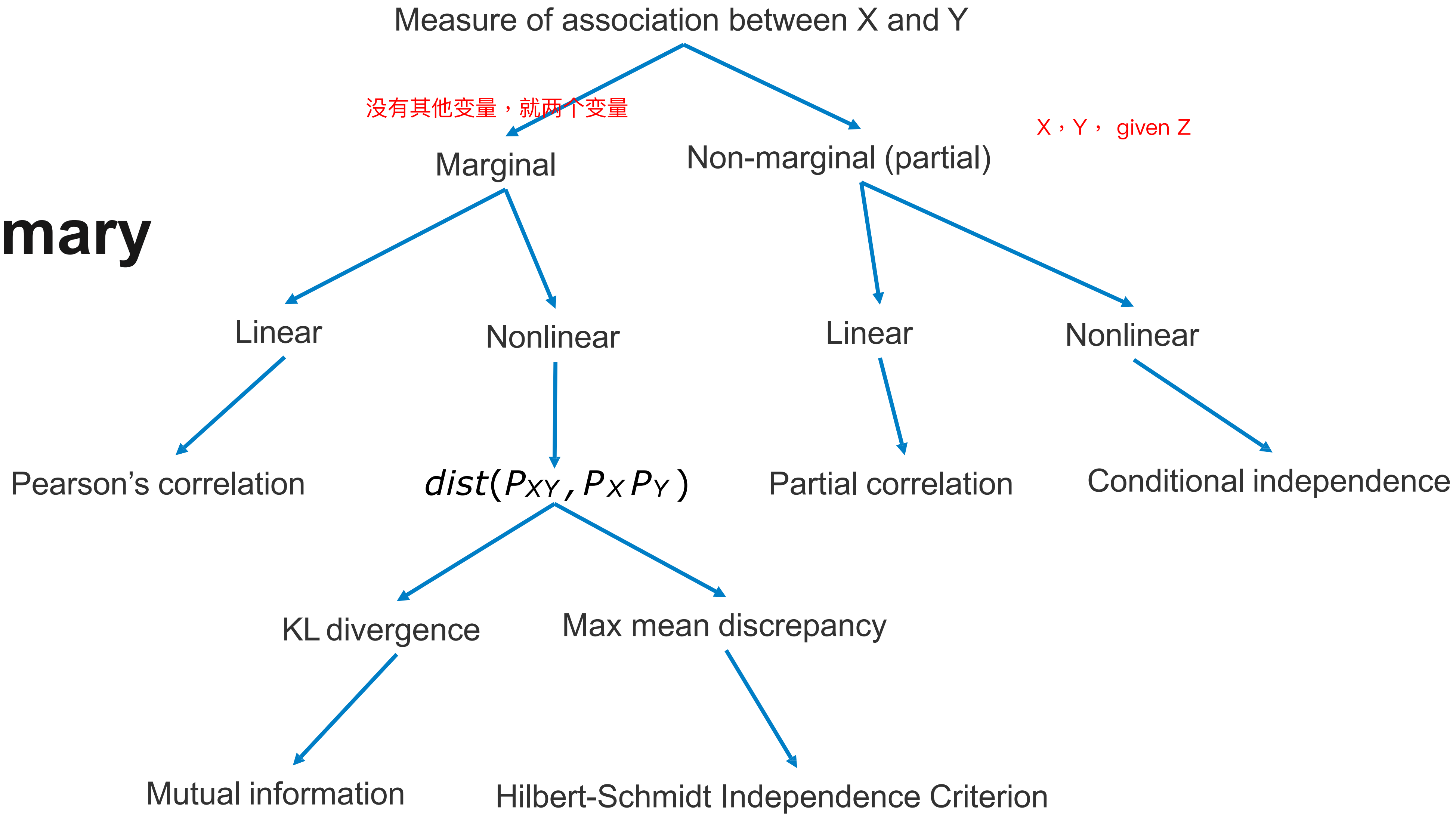
- Partial correlation between X and Y given a random vector Z
  - Correlation measured after eliminating linear effect of Z
  - i.e. correlation between residuals from regressing Z to X and Z to Y
- Similar to Pearson's correlation:
  - $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ implies $\rho(X,Y \mid Z) = 0$
  - $\rho(X,Y \mid Z) = 0$ does not imply $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$

$$\rho(X, Y|\mathbf{Z}) = \rho(e_X, e_Y) = \frac{\mathrm{Cov}(e_X, e_Y)}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}(e_X)]}\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}(e_Y)}}$$

$$e_X = X - (\boldsymbol{\beta}_X^T \mathbf{Z} + \mathrm{intercept}_X)$$

$$e_Y = Y - (\boldsymbol{\beta}_Y^T \mathbf{Z} + \mathrm{intercept}_Y)$$

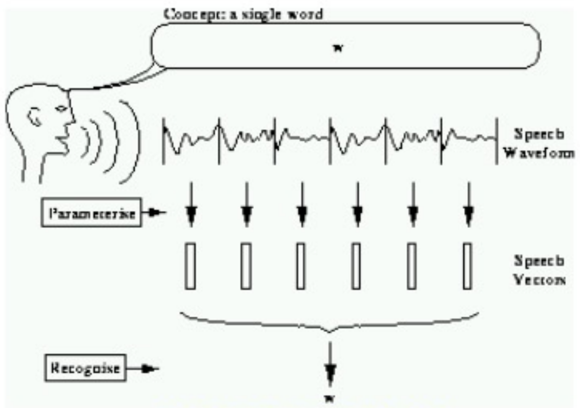
Short Summary



Why graphical models

- Probability theory provides the glue whereby the parts are combined, ensuring that the system as a whole is consistent, and providing ways to interface models to data.
- Many of the classical multivariate probabilistic systems studied in fields such as statistics, systems engineering, information theory, pattern recognition and statistical mechanics are special cases of the general graphical model formalism
- The graphical model framework provides a way to view all of these systems as instances of a common underlying formalism.
  --- M. Jordan

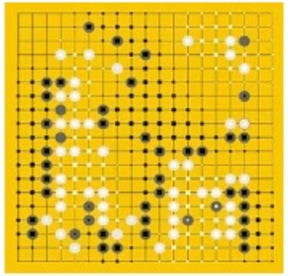
Reasoning under uncertainty!



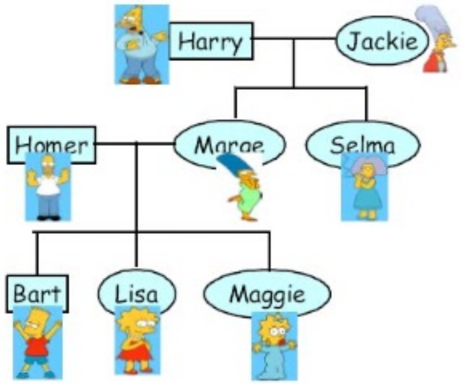
Speech recognition

Information retrieval

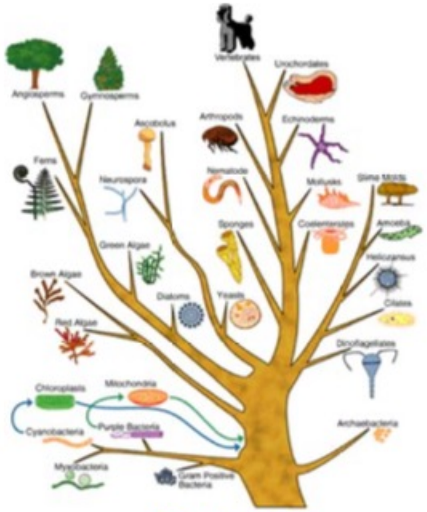
Computer vision



Games



Pedigree



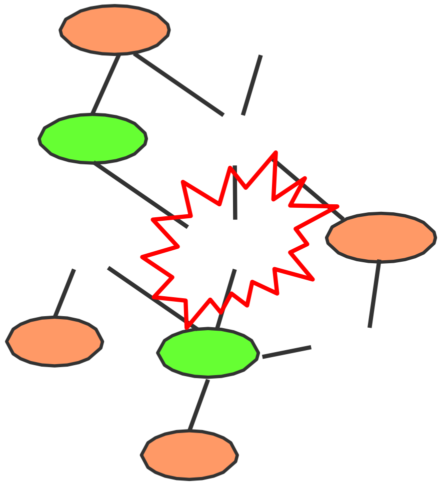
Evolution

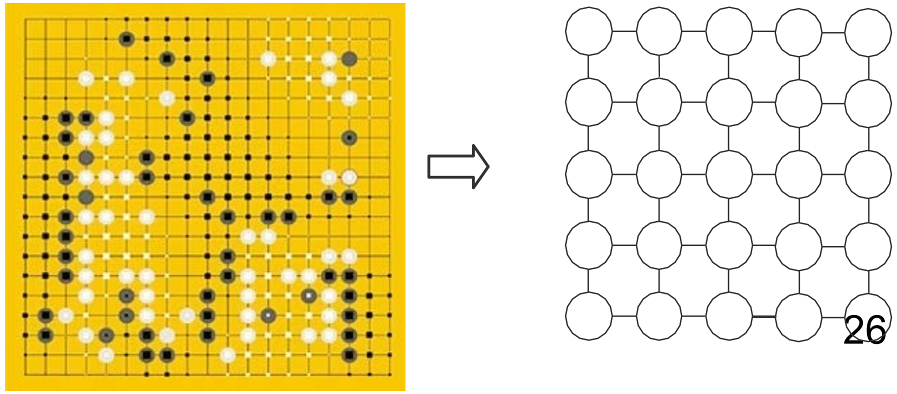
Robotic control

Planning

Conditional independence graph

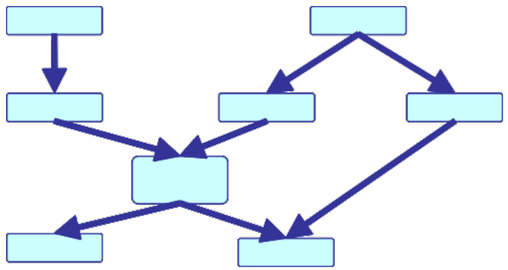
- Go by many different names:
- Conditional independence graphs (CIG)
- Markov networks (MN)
- Markov random fields (MRF)
- Undirected graphical models (UG)
- Many interesting properties, widely used in physics, statistics, computer vision, NLP, deep learning, bioinformatics, coding theory, finance, …



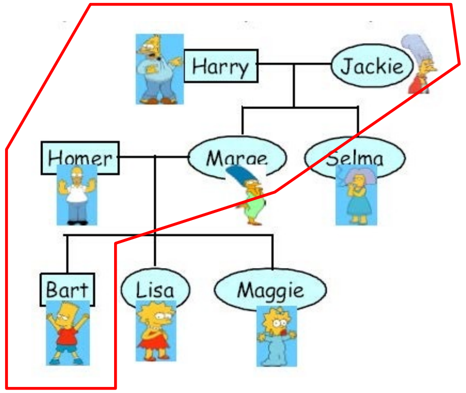


Directed graphical models

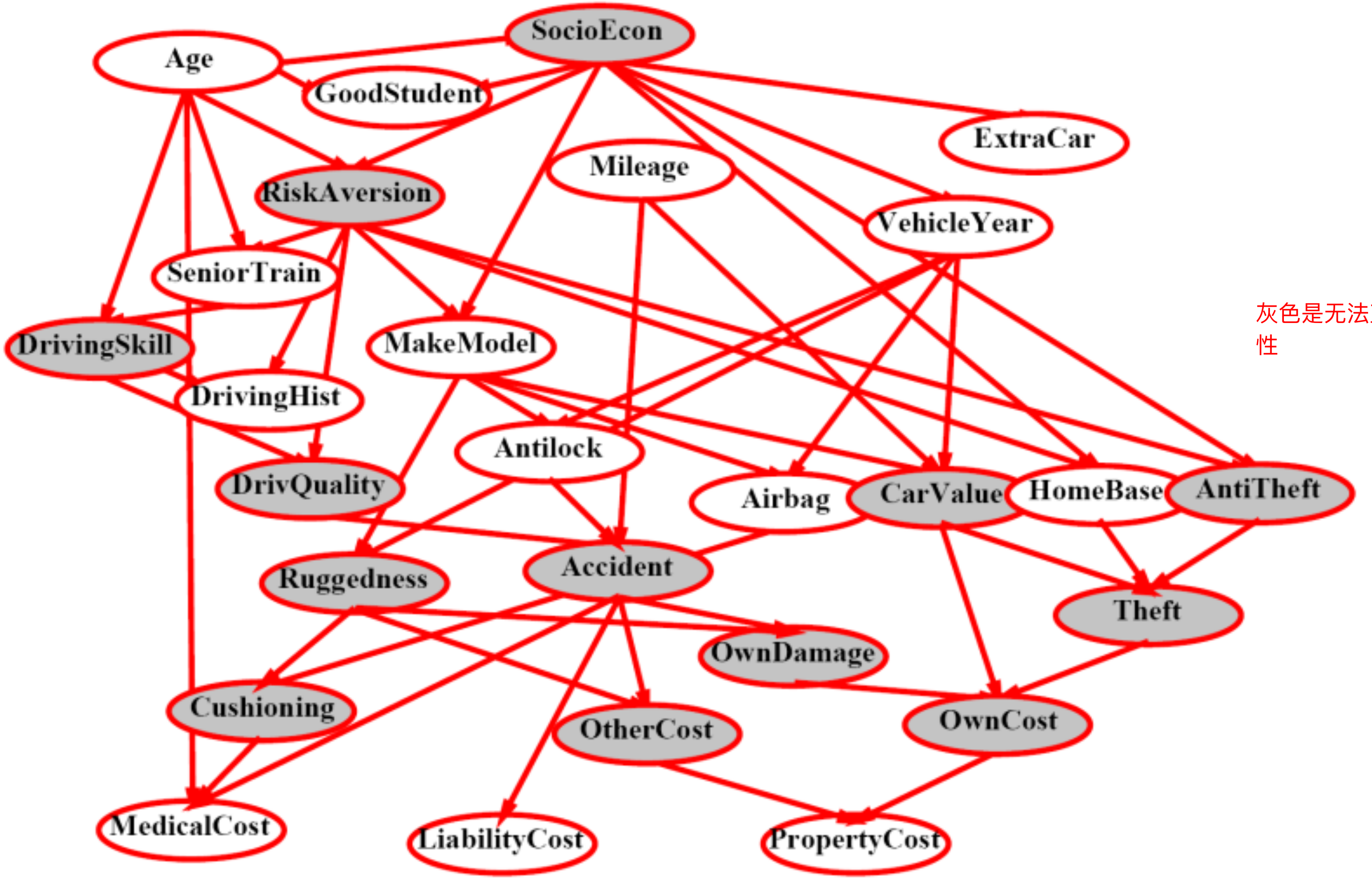
- Another major class of models, also has many names:
- Directed graphical models
- Directed acyclic graphs (DAG)
- Bayesian networks (BN)
- Structural equation models (SEM)
- Structural causal models (SCM)



$$P(X_{1:8}) = P(X_1)P(X_2)P(X_3 \mid X_1 X_2)P(X_4 \mid X_2)P(X_5 \mid X_2)$$
$$P(X_6\ X_3, X_4)P(X_7 X_6)P(X_8\ X_5, X_6)$$



Directed graphical models



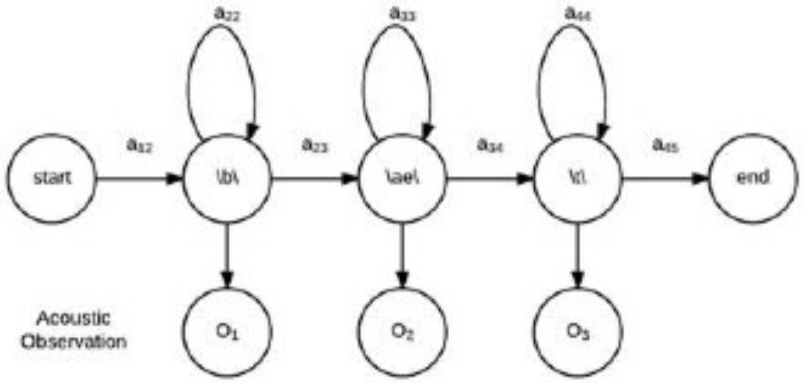
灰色是无法直接观测的，是推理的属性

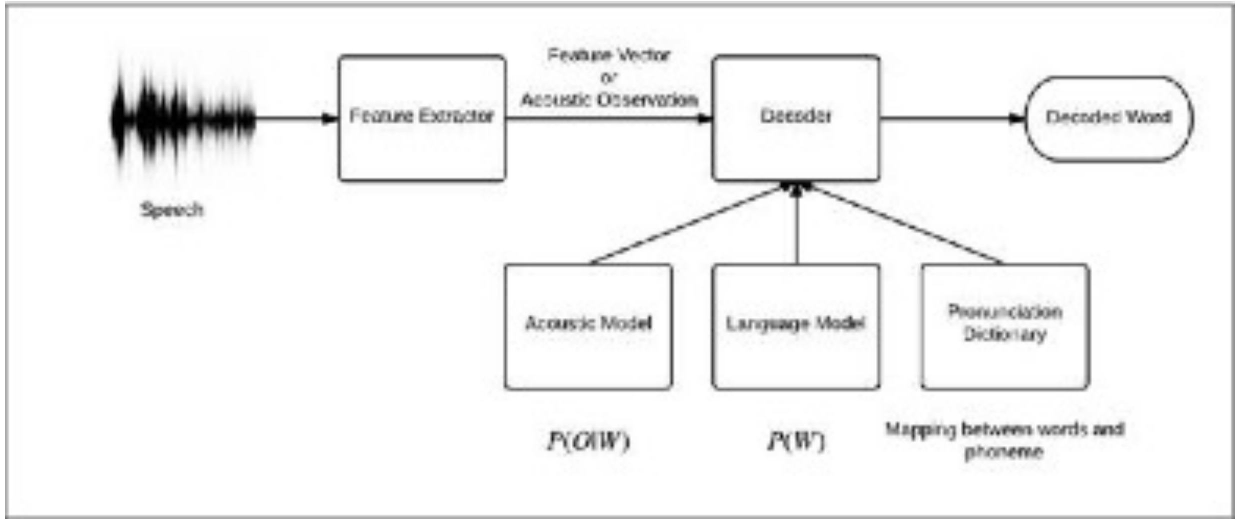
Inference and Learning

- Given a graphical model representing our knowledge
- Inference:
  - What is the marginal/conditional density?
  - What is the mean of the marginal/conditional?
  - What is the mode of the marginal/conditional?
  - Can we draw samples from the marginal/conditional?
- …
- Learning: Statistical parameter estimation and model selection

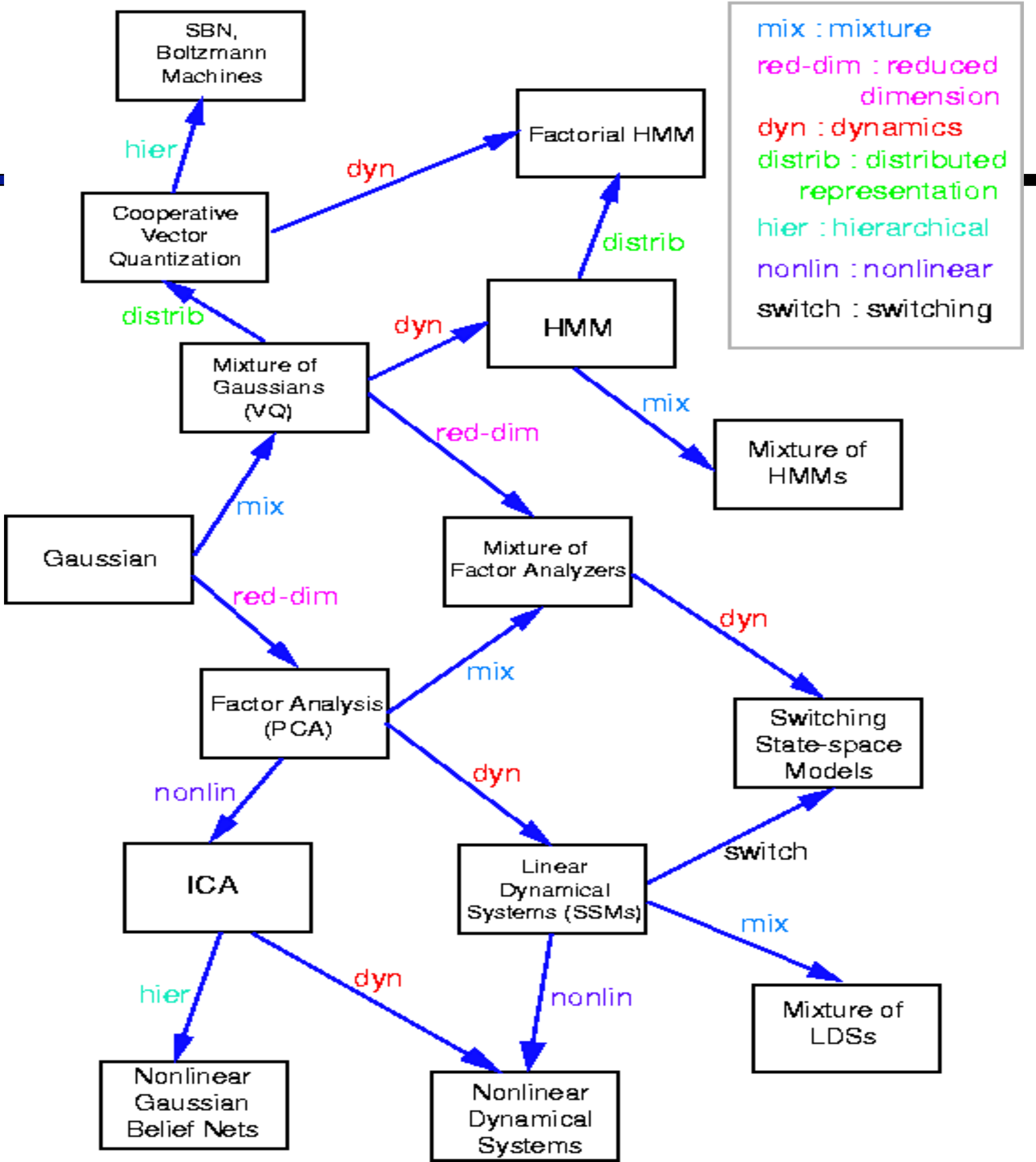
HMM is in the field of speech recognition

- The architecture of an HMM-based speech recognition system. There are three major components:
- Acoustic model
- Language model
- Pronunciation dictionary





- An (incomplete) genealogy of graphical models
- Picture by Zoubin Ghahramani and Sam Roweis



Modern GMs

- Relationship between deep learning and graphical models
- Deep generative models and their unified view
- Reinforcement learning as probabilistic inference
- GMs on functions and sets
- Bayesian nonparametrics
- Large-scale algorithms and systems

So What Is a PGM After All?

In a nutshell:

PGM = Multivariate Statistics + Structure

GM = Multivariate Obj. Func. + Structure

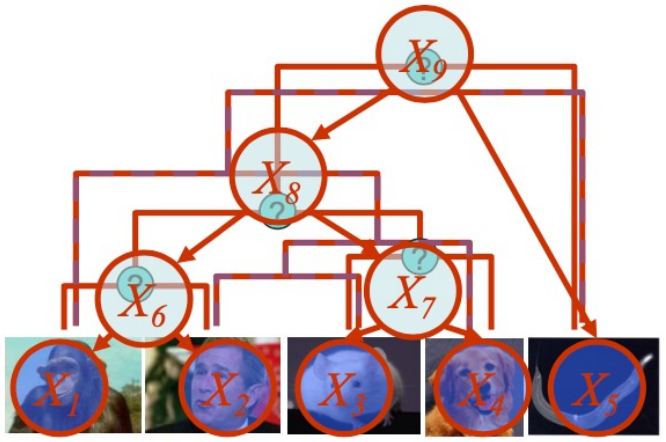
The Fundamental Questions

- Representation
  - How to capture/model uncertainties in possible worlds?
  - How to encode our domain knowledge/assumptions/constraints?
- Inference
  - How do I answer questions/queries according to my model and/or based given data?

$$\text{e.g.:}\quad P(X_i \mid \mathcal{D})$$

- Learning
  - What model is "right" for my data?

$$\text{e.g.:}\quad \mathcal{M} = \arg\max_{\mathcal{M} \in \mathbf{M}} F(\mathcal{D}; \mathcal{M})$$



Contents

Foundations for PGM

- Probability
  - Random Variables
  - Joint and Marginal Distributions
  - Conditional Distribution
  - Product Rule, Chain Rule, Bayes' Rule
  - Inference
  - Independence

Random Variables

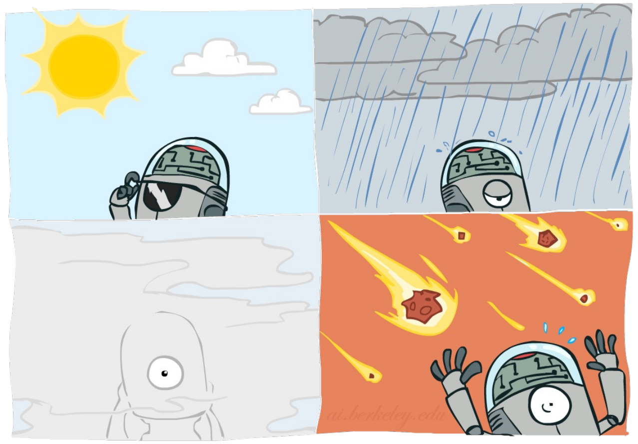
- A random variable is some aspect of the world about which we may have uncertainty
    - R = Is it raining?
    - T = Is it hot or cold?
    - D = How long will it take to drive to work?
    - L = Where is the ghost?
- We denote random variables with capital letters
- Like variables in a CSP, random variables have domains
    - R in {true, false}
    - T in {hot, cold}
    - D in $[0, \infty)$
    - L in possible locations, maybe {(0,0), (0,1), …}

What is....?

Value

Random Variable

$$P(W)$$



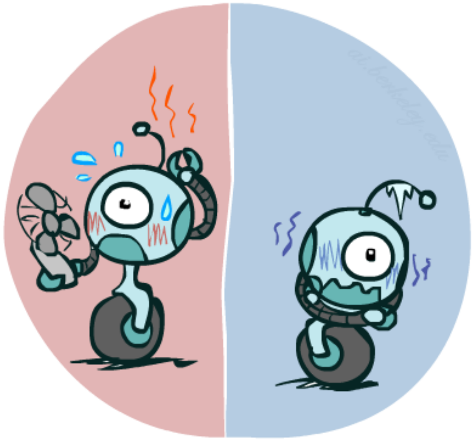
W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.1
fog	0.3
meteor	0.0

Probability Distribution

Probability Distributions

- Associate a probability with each value

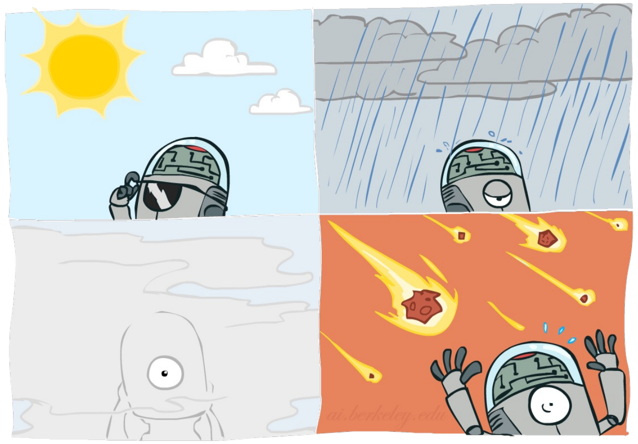
  - Temperature:



$$P(T)$$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

  - Weather:



$$P(W)$$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.1
fog	0.3
meteor	0.0

Probability Distributions

- Unobserved random variables have distributions

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.1
fog	0.3
meteor	0.0

Shorthand notation:

$$P(hot) = P(T = hot),$$
$$P(cold) = P(T = cold),$$
$$P(rain) = P(W = rain),$$
$$\ldots$$

OK *if* all domain entries are unique

- A distribution is a TABLE of probabilities of values

- A probability (lower case value) is a single number

$$P(W = rain) = 0.1$$

- Must have: $\forall x \;\; P(X = x) \geq 0$ and $\sum_x P(X = x) = 1$

Joint Distributions

- A *joint distribution* over a set of random variables: $X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n$ specifies a real number for each assignment (or *outcome*):

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

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n)$$

  - Must obey: $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) \geq 0$

$$\sum_{(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n)} P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = 1$$

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

- Size of distribution if n variables with domain sizes d?
  - For all but the smallest distributions, impractical to write out!

Probabilistic Models

- A probabilistic model is a joint distribution over a set of random variables
- Probabilistic models:
  - Random variables with domains
  - Assignments are called *outcomes*
  - Joint distributions: say whether assignments (outcomes) are likely
  - *Normalized:* sum to 1.0
  - Ideally: only certain variables directly interact
- Constraint satisfaction problems:
  - Variables with domains
  - Constraints: state whether assignments are possible
  - Ideally: only certain variables directly interact

Distribution over T,W

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

Constraint over T,W

T	W	P
hot	sun	T
hot	rain	F
cold	sun	F
cold	rain	T

Events

- An *event* is a set E of outcomes

$$P(E) = \sum_{(x_1 \ldots x_n) \in E} P(x_1 \ldots x_n)$$

- From a joint distribution, we can calculate the probability of any event
  - Probability that it's hot AND sunny?
  - Probability that it's hot?
  - Probability that it's hot OR sunny?
- Typically, the events we care about are *partial assignments*, like P(T=hot)

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

Quiz: Events

- P(+x, +y) ?

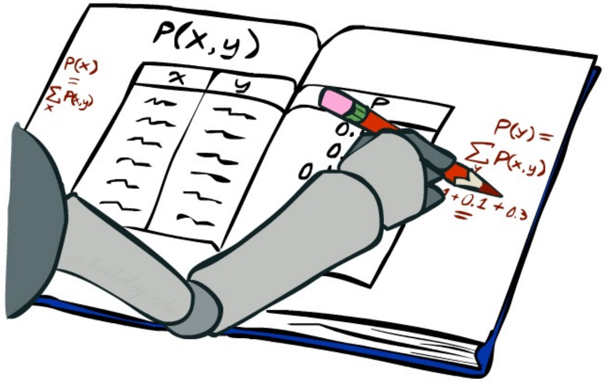
- P(+x) ?

- P(-y OR +x) ?

$$P(X, Y)$$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

Marginal Distributions



- Marginal distributions are sub-tables which eliminate variables
- Marginalization (summing out): Combine collapsed rows by adding

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$$P(t) = \sum_s P(t, s)$$

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$$P(s) = \sum_t P(t, s)$$

$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

$$P(X_1 = x_1) = \sum_{x_2} P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2)$$

Quiz: Marginal Distributions

$$P(X,Y)$$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

$$P(x) = \sum_y P(x,y)$$

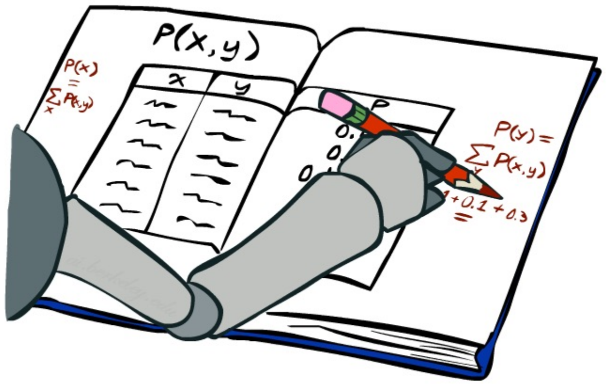
$$P(y) = \sum_x P(x,y)$$

$$P(X)$$

X	P
+x	
-x	

$$P(Y)$$

Y	P
+y	
-y	



Quiz: Marginal Distributions

$P(X,Y)$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

$$P(x) = \sum_y P(x,y)$$

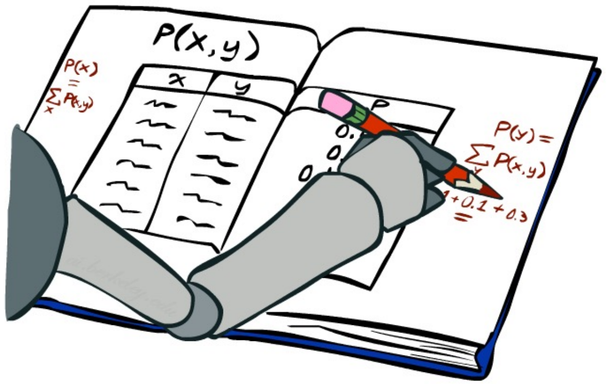
$$P(y) = \sum_x P(x,y)$$

$P(X)$

X	P
+x	.5
-x	.5

$P(Y)$

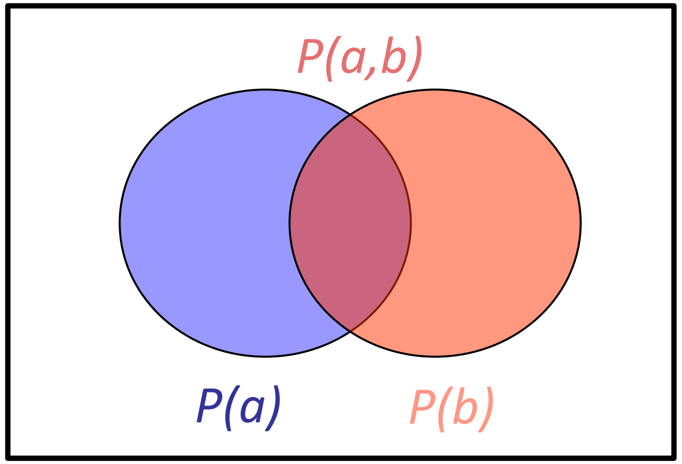
Y	P
+y	.6
-y	.4



Conditional Probabilities

- A simple relation between joint and conditional probabilities
  - In fact, this is taken as the *definition* of a conditional probability

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a,b)}{P(b)}$$



$$P(T,W)$$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$$P(W=s|T=c) = \frac{P(W=s,T=c)}{P(T=c)} = \frac{0.2}{0.5} = 0.4$$

$$= P(W=s,T=c) + P(W=r,T=c)$$

$$= 0.2 + 0.3 \quad = 0.5$$

Quiz: Conditional Probabilities

$P(X, Y)$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

- P(+x | +y) ?
- P(-x | +y) ?
- P(-y | +x) ?

Conditional Distributions

- Conditional distributions are probability distributions over some variables given fixed values of others

Conditional Distributions

$P(W|T)$

$P(W|T = hot)$

W	P
sun	0.8
rain	0.2

$P(W|T = cold)$

W	P
sun	0.4
rain	0.6

Joint Distribution

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

Normalization Trick

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$$P(W = s|T = c) = \frac{P(W = s, T = c)}{P(T = c)}$$
$$= \frac{P(W = s, T = c)}{P(W = s, T = c) + P(W = r, T = c)}$$
$$= \frac{0.2}{0.2 + 0.3} = 0.4$$

$$P(W = r|T = c) = \frac{P(W = r, T = c)}{P(T = c)}$$
$$= \frac{P(W = r, T = c)}{P(W = s, T = c) + P(W = r, T = c)}$$
$$= \frac{0.3}{0.2 + 0.3} = 0.6$$

$P(W|T = c)$

W	P
sun	0.4
rain	0.6

Normalization Trick

$$\begin{aligned} P(W=s|T=c) &= \frac{P(W=s,T=c)}{P(T=c)} \\ &= \frac{P(W=s,T=c)}{P(W=s,T=c)+P(W=r,T=c)} \\ &= \frac{0.2}{0.2+0.3} = 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

$P(T,W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

SELECT the joint probabilities matching the evidence

$P(c,W)$

T	W	P
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

NORMALIZE the selection (make it sum to one)

$P(W|T=c)$

W	P
sun	0.4
rain	0.6

$$\begin{aligned} P(W=r|T=c) &= \frac{P(W=r,T=c)}{P(T=c)} \\ &= \frac{P(W=r,T=c)}{P(W=s,T=c)+P(W=r,T=c)} \\ &= \frac{0.3}{0.2+0.3} = 0.6 \end{aligned}$$

Normalization Trick

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

SELECT the joint probabilities matching the evidence

$P(c, W)$

T	W	P
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

NORMALIZE the selection (make it sum to one)

$P(W|T = c)$

W	P
sun	0.4
rain	0.6

- Why does this work? Sum of selection is P(evidence)! (P(T=c), here)

$$P(x_1|x_2) = \frac{P(x_1, x_2)}{P(x_2)} = \frac{P(x_1, x_2)}{\sum_{x_1} P(x_1, x_2)}$$

Quiz: Normalization Trick

- P(X | Y=-y) ?

$$P(X, Y)$$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

SELECT the joint probabilities matching the evidence

→

NORMALIZE the selection (make it sum to one)

→

Quiz: Normalization Trick

- P(X | Y=-y) ?

$$P(X,Y)$$

X	Y	P
+x	+y	0.2
+x	-y	0.3
-x	+y	0.4
-x	-y	0.1

SELECT the joint probabilities matching the evidence

→

X	Y	P
+x	-y	0.3
-x	-y	0.1

NORMALIZE the selection (make it sum to one)

→

X	P
+x	0.75
-x	0.25

To Normalize

- (Dictionary) To bring or restore to a normal condition

All entries sum to ONE

- Procedure:
  - Step 1: Compute Z = sum over all entries
  - Step 2: Divide every entry by Z

- Example 1

W	P
sun	0.2
rain	0.3

Normalize

Z = 0.5

W	P
sun	0.4
rain	0.6

- Example 2

T	W	P
hot	sun	20
hot	rain	5
cold	sun	10
cold	rain	15

Normalize

Z = 50

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

Contents

Probabilistic Inference

- Probabilistic inference: compute a desired probability from other known probabilities (e.g. conditional from joint)

- We generally compute conditional probabilities
  - P(on time | no reported accidents) = 0.90
  - These represent the agent's *beliefs* given the evidence

- Probabilities change with new evidence:
  - P(on time | no accidents, 5 a.m.) = 0.95
  - P(on time | no accidents, 5 a.m., raining) = 0.80
  - Observing new evidence causes *beliefs to be updated*

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W)?
- P(W | winter)?
- P(W | winter, hot)?

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W)?

P(sun)=.3+.1+.1+.15=.65

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W)?

P(sun)=.3+.1+.1+.15=.65
P(rain)=1-.65=.35

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter, hot)?

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter, hot)?

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter, hot)?

P(sun|winter,hot)~.1
P(rain|winter,hot)~.05

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter, hot)?

P(sun|winter,hot)~.1
P(rain|winter,hot)~.05
P(sun|winter,hot)=2/3
P(rain|winter,hot)=1/3

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter)?

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter)?

P(sun|winter)~.1+.15=.25

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- $P(W \mid winter)$?

P(rain|winter)~.05+.2=.25

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- P(W | winter)?

P(sun|winter)~.25
P(rain|winter)~.25
P(sun|winter)=.5
P(rain|winter)=.5

S	T	W	P
summer	hot	sun	0.30
summer	hot	rain	0.05
summer	cold	sun	0.10
summer	cold	rain	0.05
winter	hot	sun	0.10
winter	hot	rain	0.05
winter	cold	sun	0.15
winter	cold	rain	0.20

Inference by Enumeration

- General case:
  - Evidence variables: $E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k$
  - Query* variable: Q
  - Hidden variables: $H_1 \dots H_r$

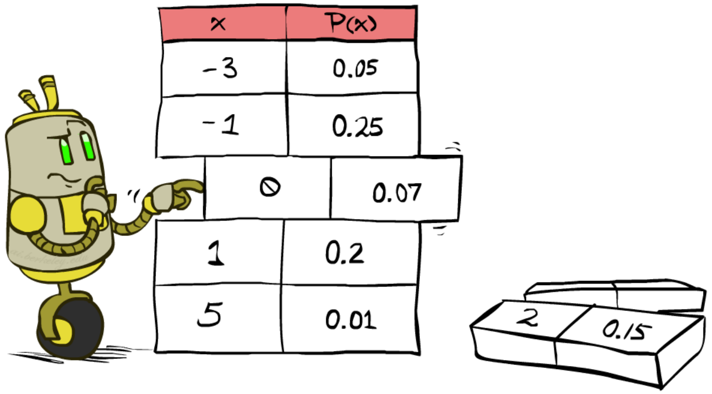
$\left.\begin{array}{l} E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k \\ Q \\ H_1 \dots H_r \end{array}\right\} X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ *All variables*

- We want:

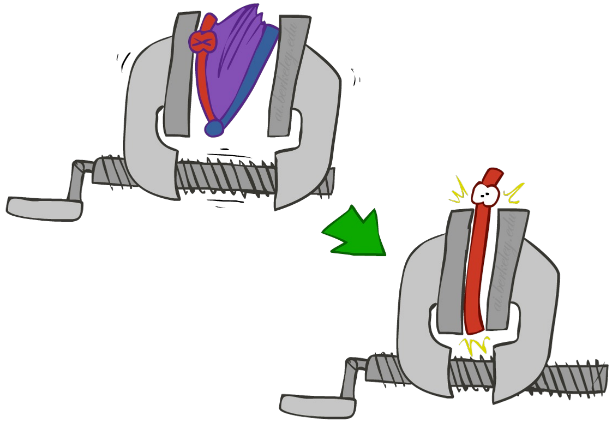
** Works fine with multiple query variables, too*

$$P(Q|e_1 \dots e_k)$$

- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence



- Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence



$$P(Q, e_1 \dots e_k) = \sum_{h_1 \dots h_r} \underbrace{P(Q, h_1 \dots h_r, e_1 \dots e_k)}_{X_1, X_2, \dots X_n}$$

- Step 3: Normalize

$$\times \frac{1}{Z}$$

$$Z = \sum_q P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

$$P(Q|e_1 \cdots e_k) = \frac{1}{Z} P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

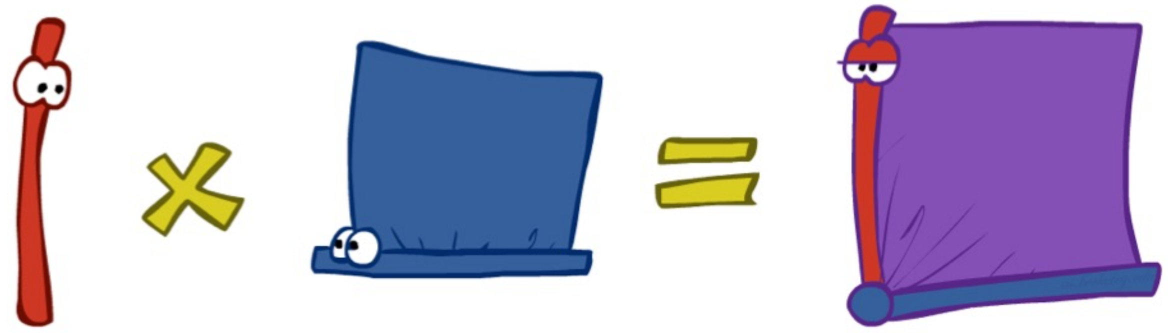
Inference by Enumeration

- Obvious problems:
  - Worst-case time complexity $O(d^n)$
  - Space complexity $O(d^n)$ to store the joint distribution
  - d is the number of domain, n is the number of variables

The Product Rule

- Sometimes have conditional distributions but want the joint

$$P(y)P(x|y) = P(x,y) \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad P(x|y) = \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)}$$



The Product Rule

$$P(y)P(x|y) = P(x,y)$$

- Example:

$P(W)$

R	P
sun	0.8
rain	0.2

$P(D|W)$

D	W	P
wet	sun	0.1
dry	sun	0.9
wet	rain	0.7
dry	rain	0.3

$P(D,W)$

D	W	P
wet	sun	
dry	sun	
wet	rain	
dry	rain	

The Chain Rule

- More generally, can always write any joint distribution as an incremental product of conditional distributions

$$P(x_1, x_2, x_3) = P(x_1)P(x_2|x_1)P(x_3|x_1, x_2)$$

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_i P(x_i|x_1 \ldots x_{i-1})$$

Bayes' Rule

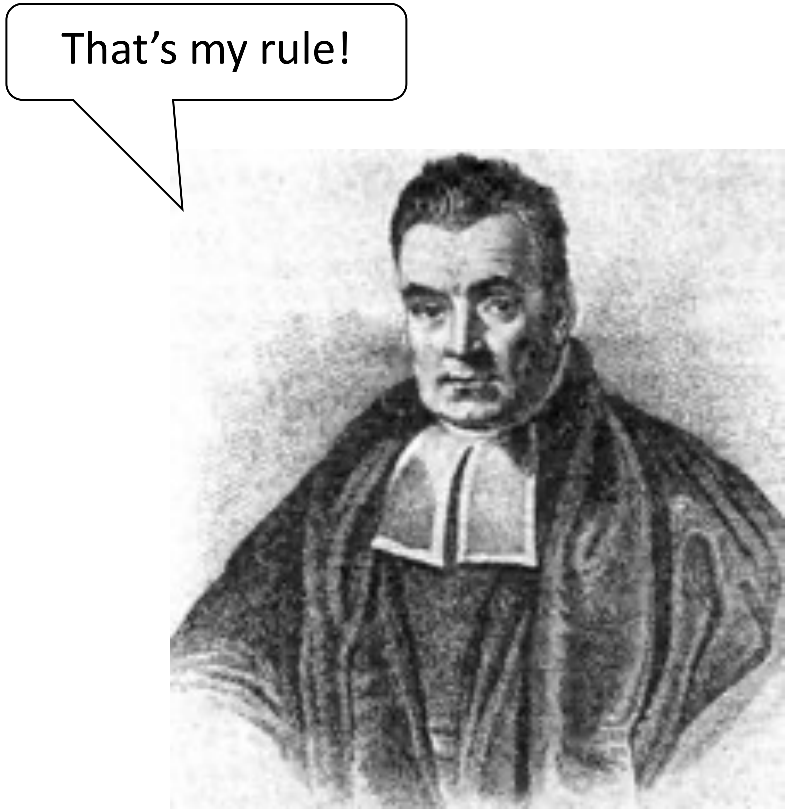
- Two ways to factor a joint distribution over two variables:

$$P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(y|x)P(x)$$

- Dividing, we get:

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x)}{P(y)}P(x)$$

- Why is this at all helpful?
  - Lets us build one conditional from its reverse
  - Often one conditional is tricky but the other one is simple
  - Foundation of many systems we'll see later



Inference with Bayes' Rule

- Example: Diagnostic probability from causal probability (Prior, likelihood, posterior):

$$P(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{P(\text{effect}|\text{cause})P(\text{cause})}{P(\text{effect})}$$

- Example:
  - M: spine infection, S: stiff neck

$$\left.\begin{aligned} P(+m) &= 0.0001 \\ P(+s|+m) &= 0.8 \\ P(+s|-m) &= 0.01 \end{aligned}\right\} \text{Example givens}$$

$$P(+m|+s) = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s)} = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s|+m)P(+m) + P(+s|-m)P(-m)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.8 \times 0.0001 + 0.01 \times 0.999}$$

=0.0079

  - Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small
  - Note: you should still get stiff necks checked out! Why?

Inference with Bayes' Rule

- Example: Diagnostic probability from causal probability (Prior, likelihood, posterior):

$$P(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{P(\text{effect}|\text{cause})P(\text{cause})}{P(\text{effect})}$$

- Example:
  - M: spine infection, S: stiff neck

$$\left.\begin{aligned} P(+m) &= 0.0001 \\ P(+s|+m) &= 0.8 \\ P(+s|-m) &= 0.01 \end{aligned}\right\} \text{Example givens}$$

$$P(+m|+s) = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s)} = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s|+m)P(+m) + P(+s|-m)P(-m)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.8 \times 0.0001 + 0.01 \times 0.999}$$

  - Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small
  - Note: you should still get stiff necks checked out! Why?

=0.0079

Quiz: Bayes' Rule

- Given:

$P(W)$

R	P
sun	0.8
rain	0.2

$P(D|W)$

D	W	P
wet	sun	0.1
dry	sun	0.9
wet	rain	0.7
dry	rain	0.3

- What is P(W | dry) ?

$$P(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{P(\text{effect}|\text{cause})P(\text{cause})}{P(\text{effect})}$$

Quiz: Bayes' Rule

- Given:

$P(W)$

R	P
sun	0.8
rain	0.2

$P(D|W)$

D	W	P
wet	sun	0.1
dry	sun	0.9
wet	rain	0.7
dry	rain	0.3

- What is P(W | dry) ?

P(sun|dry) ~ P(dry|sun)P(sun) = .9*.8 = .72
P(rain|dry) ~ P(dry|rain)P(rain) = .3*.2 = .06
P(sun|dry)=12/13
P(rain|dry)=1/13

Contents

Independence

- Two variables are *independent* if:

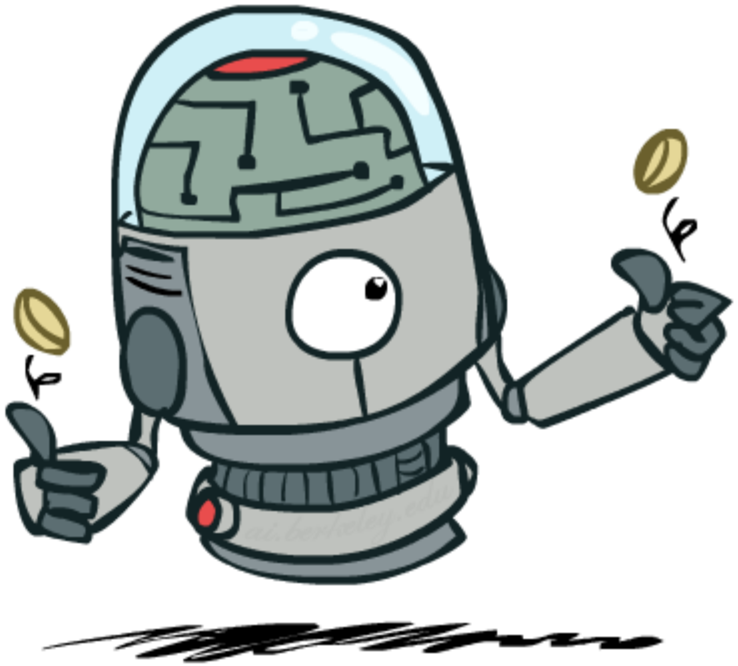
$$\forall x, y : P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$$

  - This says that their joint distribution *factors* into a product two simpler distributions
  - Another form:

$$\forall x, y : P(x|y) = P(x)$$

  - We write: $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$

- Independence is a simplifying *modeling assumption*
  - *Empirical* joint distributions: at best "close" to independent
  - What could we assume for {Weather, Traffic, Cavity, Toothache}?



Example: Independence?

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$P_1(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$P_2(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.3
hot	rain	0.2
cold	sun	0.3
cold	rain	0.2

$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

Example: Independence

- N fair, independent coin flips:

$P(X_1)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

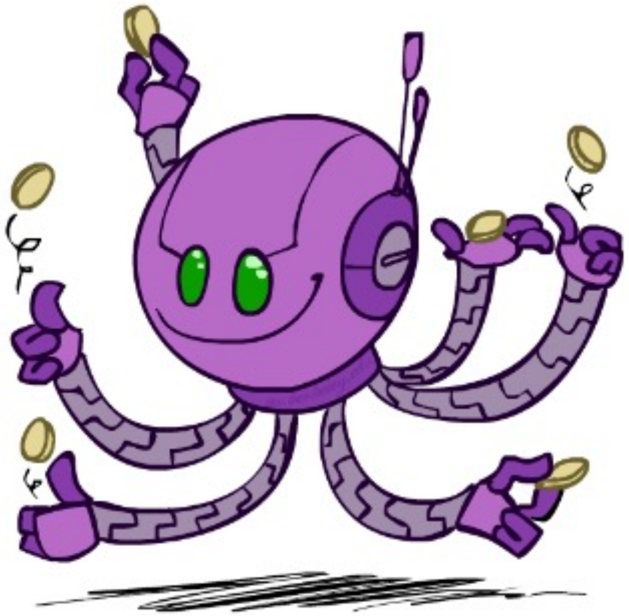
$P(X_2)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

$\cdots$

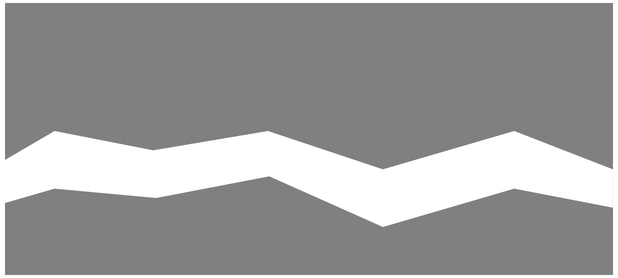
$P(X_n)$

H	0.5
T	0.5



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

2^n



Conditional Independence

- P(Toothache, Cavity, Catch)

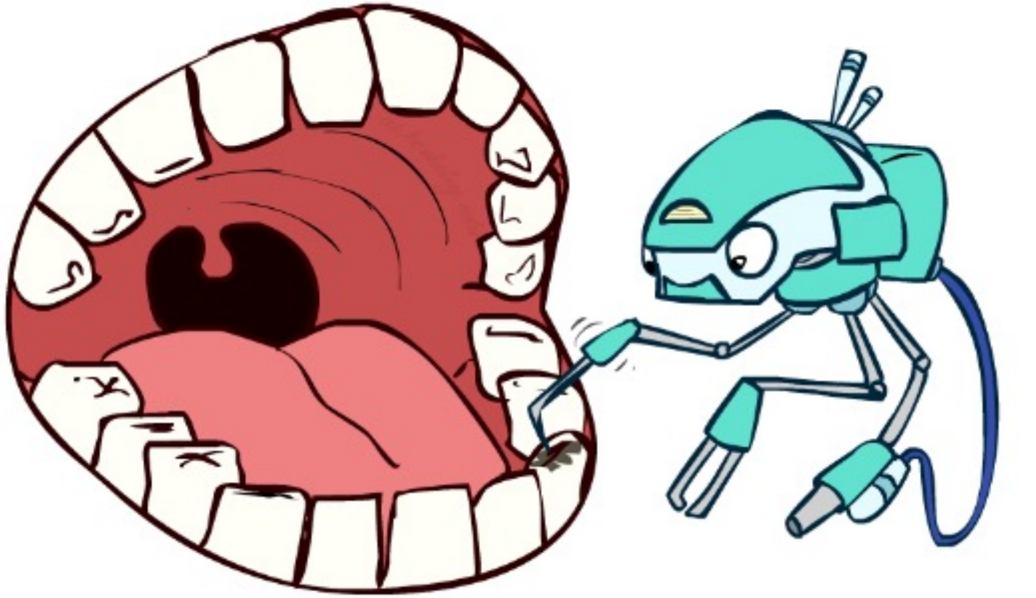
- If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:
  - P(+catch | +toothache, +cavity) = P(+catch | +cavity)

- The same independence holds if I don't have a cavity:
  - P(+catch | +toothache, -cavity) = P(+catch| -cavity)

- Catch is *conditionally independent* of Toothache given Cavity:
  - P(Catch | Toothache, Cavity) = P(Catch | Cavity)

- Equivalent statements:
  - P(Toothache | Catch , Cavity) = P(Toothache | Cavity)
  - P(Toothache, Catch | Cavity) = P(Toothache | Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity)
  - One can be derived from the other easily

Dentist robot



Conditional Independence

- Unconditional (absolute) independence very rare (why?)

- *Conditional independence* is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.

- X is conditionally independent of Y given Z $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$

  if and only if:

$$\forall x, y, z : P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$$

  or, equivalently, if and only if

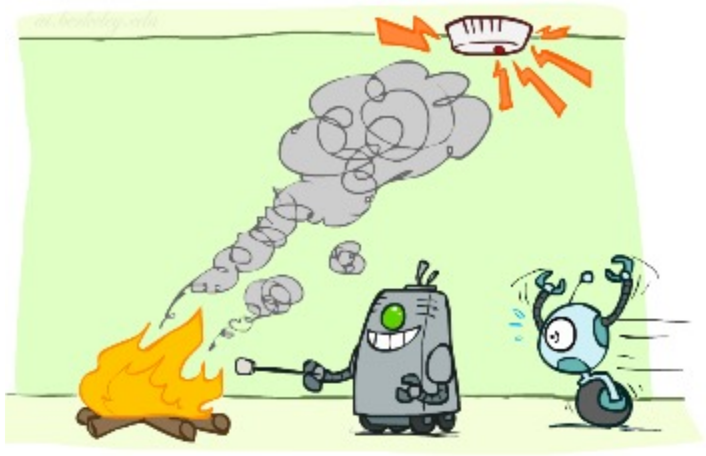
$$\forall x, y, z : P(x|z, y) = P(x|z)$$

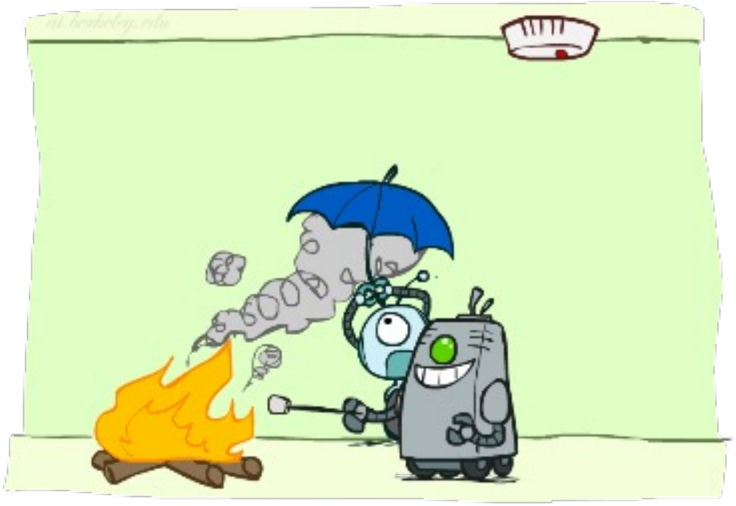
Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Traffic
  - Umbrella
  - Raining

Conditional Independence

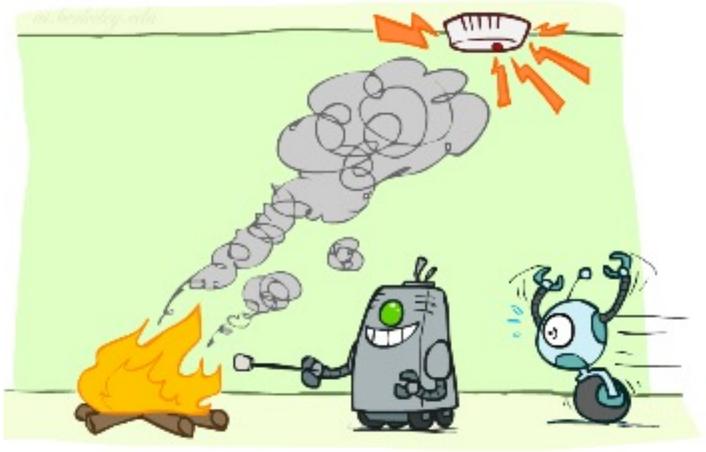
- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm （ Alarm is only based on smoke)





Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm （ Alarm is only based on smoke)

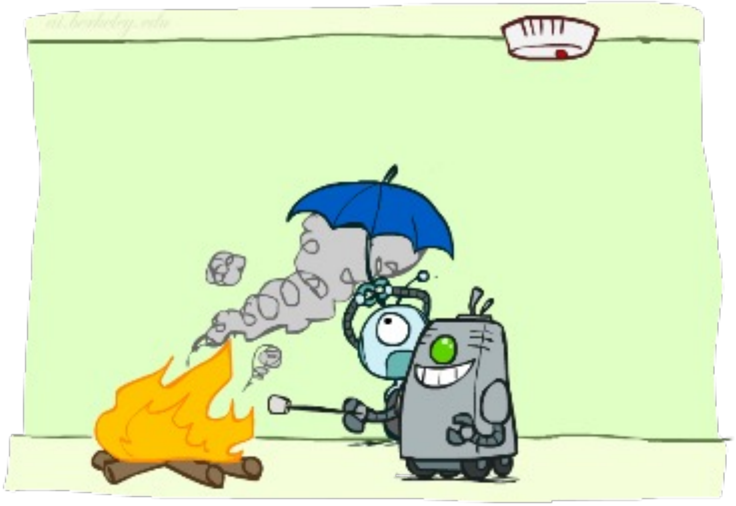


This configuration is a "causal chain"

$$X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$$

$$P(x, y, z) = P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)$$

- Is it guaranteed that X is independent of Z ?



Conditional Independence

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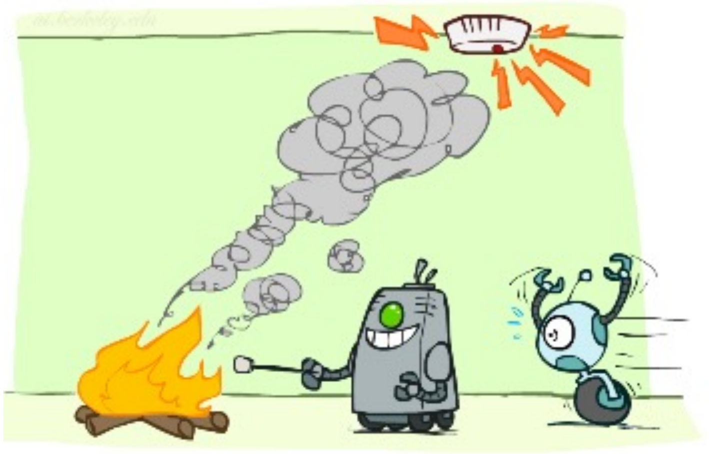
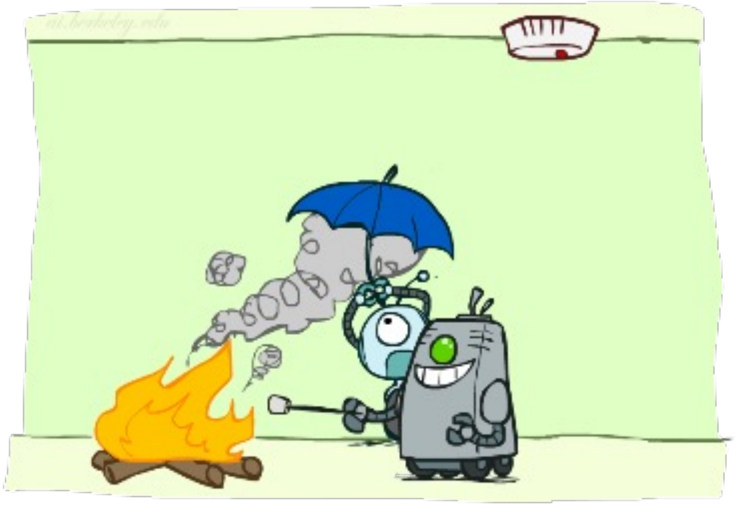


This configuration is a “causal chain”

$$X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$$

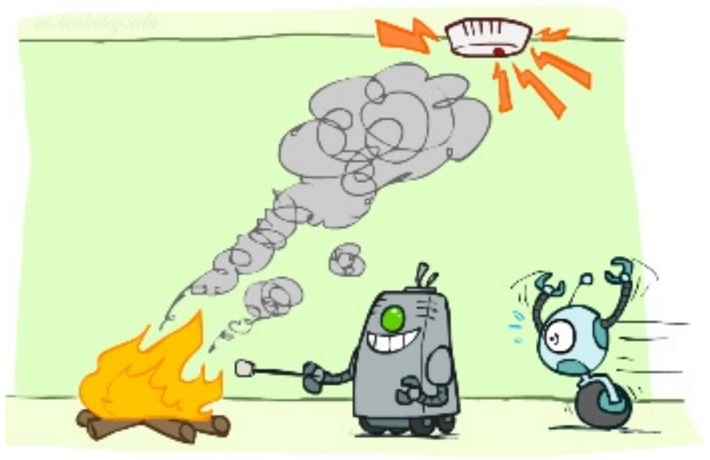
$$P(x, y, z) = P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)$$

- Is it guaranteed that X is independent of Z given Y?



Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm （ Alarm is only based on smoke)

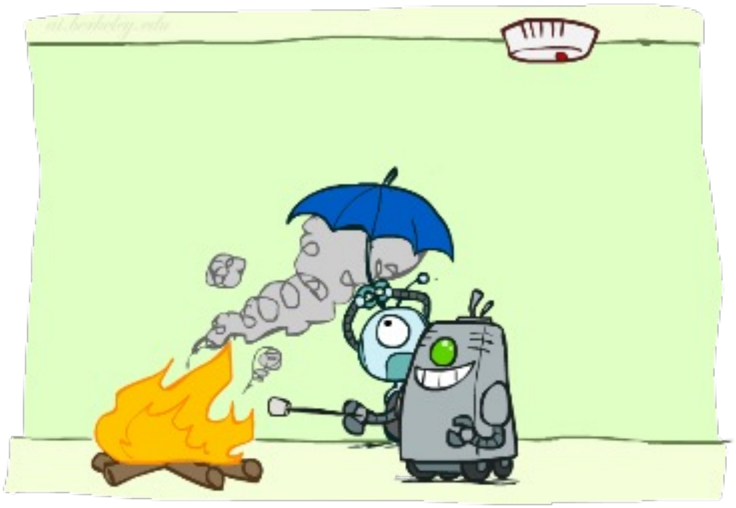


- Is it guaranteed that X is independent of Z given Y?

$$P(z|x,y) = \frac{P(x,y,z)}{P(x,y)} = \frac{P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)}{P(x)P(y|x)}$$

$$= P(z|y)$$

Yes!



Conditional Independence and the Chain Rule

- Chain rule: $$P(X_1, X_2, \dots X_n) = P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\dots$$

- Trivial decomposition:

$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) = P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain}, \text{Traffic})$$

- With assumption of conditional independence:

$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) = P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain})$$

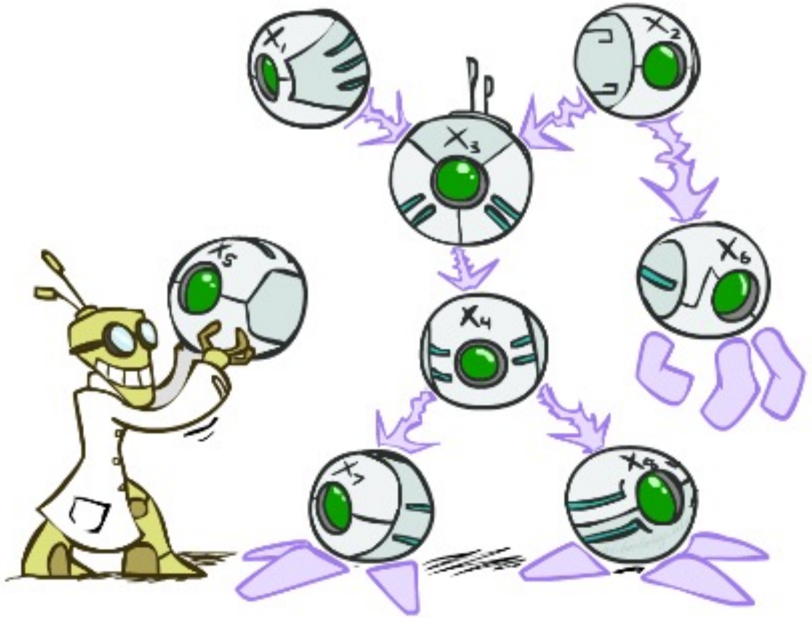
- Bayes'nets / graphical models help us express conditional independence assumptions

Contents

Bayes' Nets: Big Picture

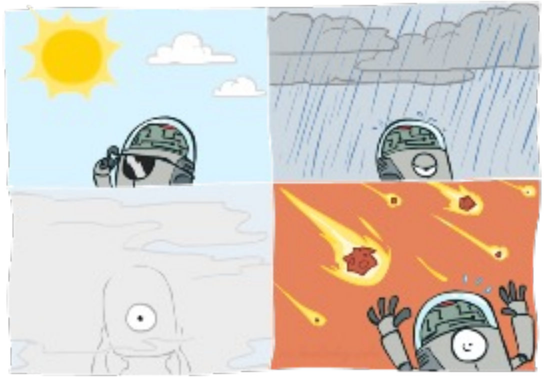
- Two problems with using full joint distribution tables as our probabilistic models:
  - Unless there are only a few variables
  - Hard to learn and estimate everything

- Bayes' nets: a technique for describing complex joint distributions (models) using simple, local distributions (conditional probabilities)
  - More properly called graphical models
  - We describe how variables locally interact
  - Local interactions chain together to give global, indirect interactions

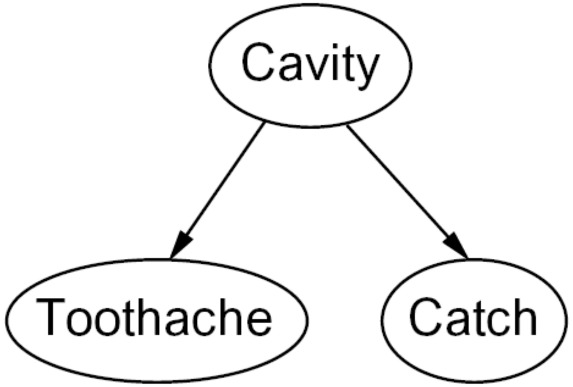


Graphical Model Notation

- Nodes: variables (with domains)
  - Can be assigned (observed) or unassigned (unobserved)



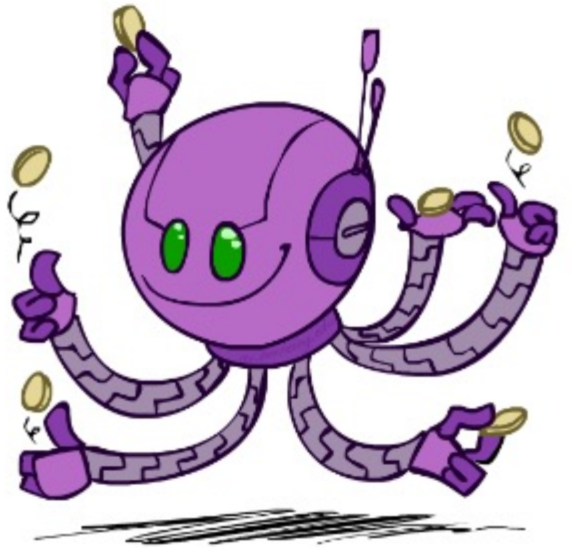
- Arcs: interactions
  - Similar to CSP constraints
  - Indicate "direct influence" between variables
  - Formally: encode conditional independence (more later)



- For now: imagine that arrows mean direct causation (in general, they don't!)

Example: Coin Flips

- N independent coin flips



X_1 $\quad$ X_2 $\quad \cdots \quad$ X_n

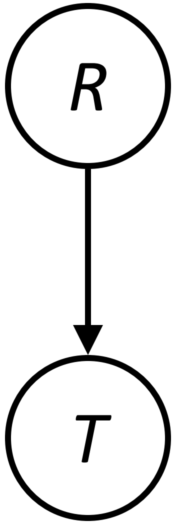
No interactions between variables: absolute independence

Example: Traffic

- Variables:
  - R: It rains
  - T: There is traffic

- Model 1: independence

- Model 2: rain causes traffic



- Why is an agent using model 2 better?

Example: Traffic II

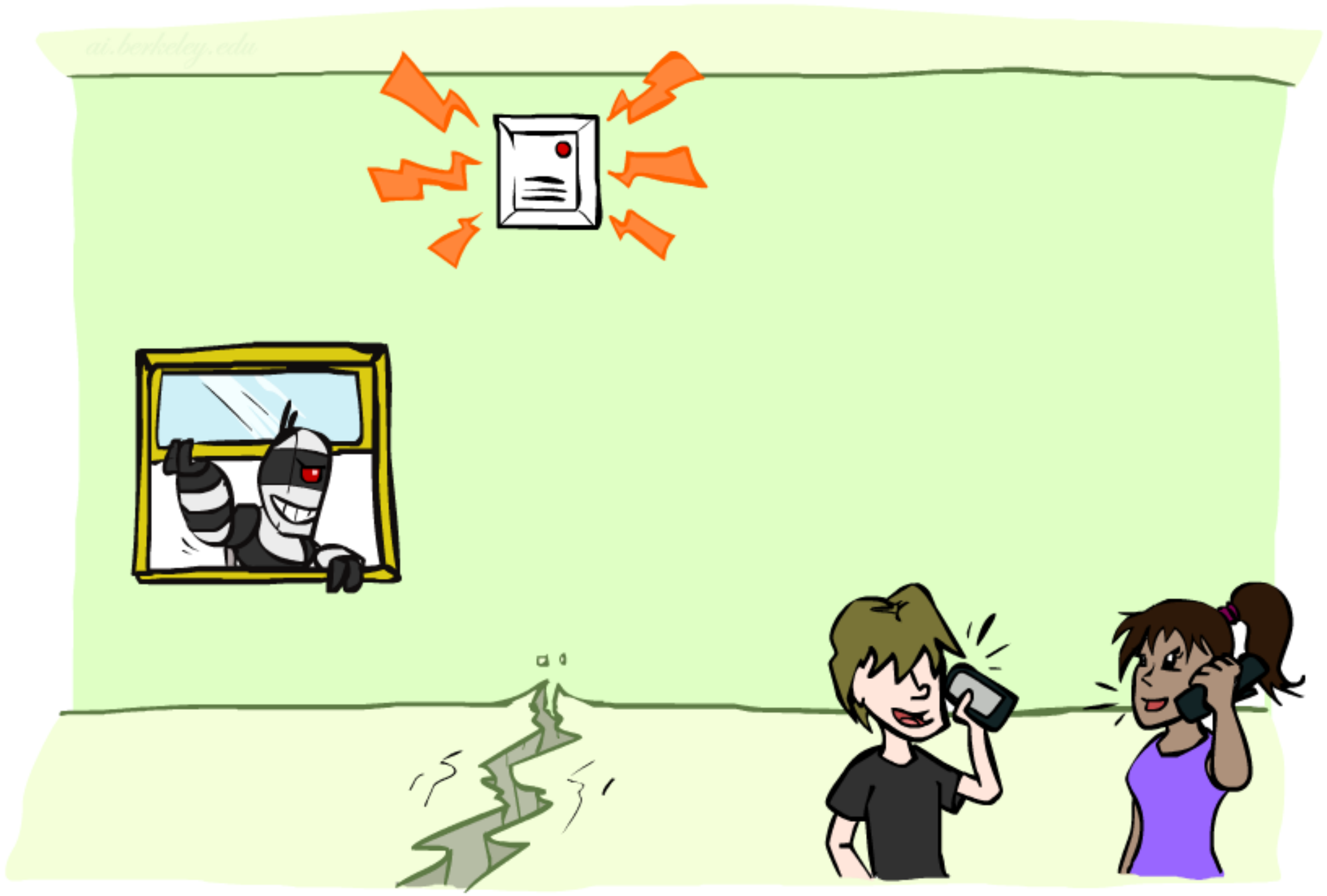
- Let's build a causal graphical model!
- Variables
  - T: Traffic
  - R: It rains
  - L: Low pressure
  - D: Roof drips
  - B: Ballgame
  - C: Cavity

A Simple Example

- We want to model whether our neighbor will inform us of the alarm being set off
- The alarm can set off if
  - There is a burglary
  - There is an earthquake
- Whether our neighbor calls depends on whether the alarm is set off

Example: Alarm Network

- Variables
  - B: Burglary
  - A: Alarm goes off
  - M: Mary calls
  - J: John calls
  - E: Earthquake!



A Simple Example

- Variables
  - Earthquake (E), Burglary (B), Alarm (A), NeighborCalls (N)

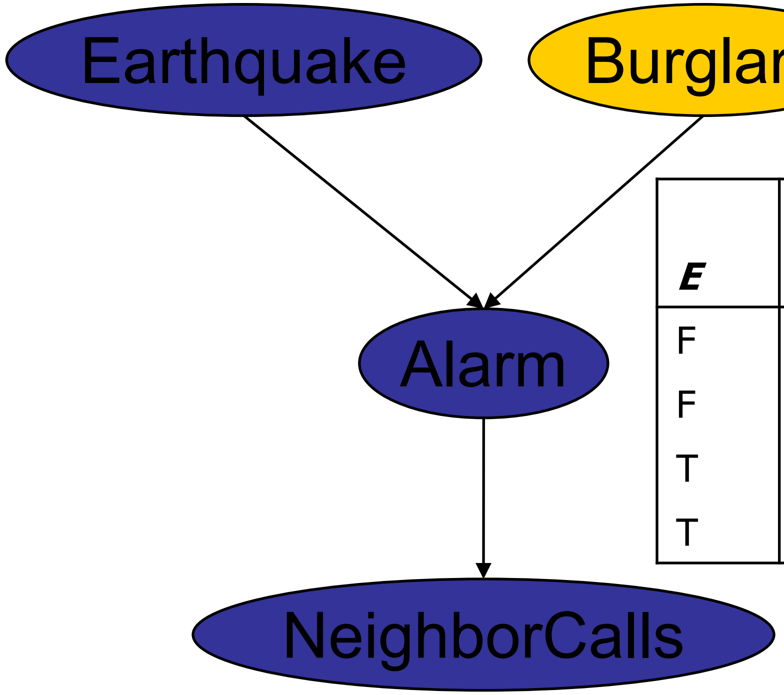
E	**B**	**A**	**N**	**Prob.**
F	F	F	F	0.01
F	F	F	T	0.04
F	F	T	F	0.05
F	F	T	T	0.01
F	T	F	F	0.02
F	T	F	T	0.07
F	T	T	F	0.2
F	T	T	T	0.1
T	F	F	F	0.01
T	F	F	T	0.07
T	F	T	F	0.13
T	F	T	T	0.04
T	T	F	F	0.06
T	T	F	T	0.05
T	T	T	F	0.1
T	T	T	T	0.05

2^4-1 independent parameters

A Simple Example

E	
F	T
0.9	0.1

B	
F	T
0.7	0.3

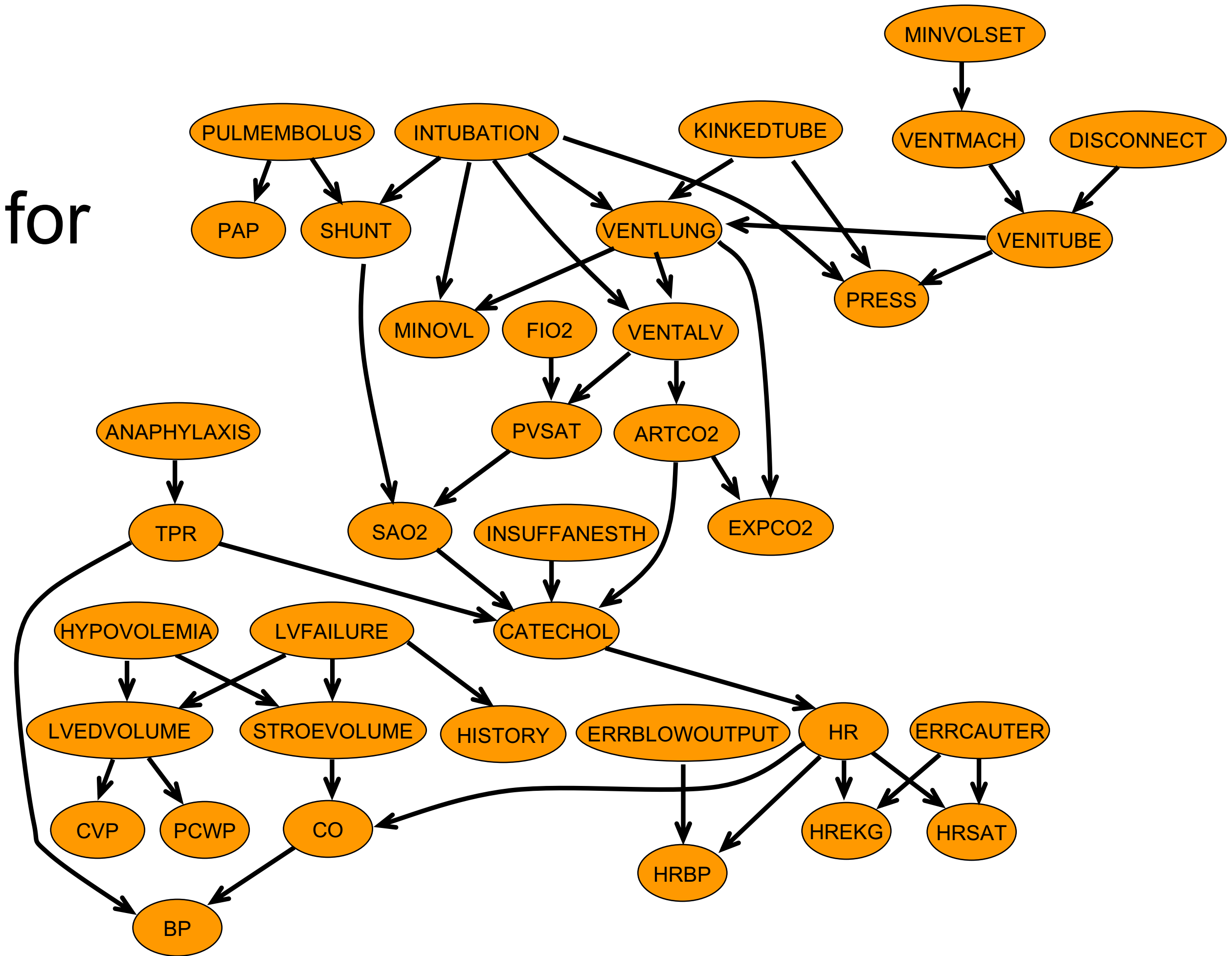


		A	
E	*B*	F	T
F	F	0.99	0.01
F	T	0.1	0.9
T	F	0.3	0.7
T	T	0.01	0.99

	N	
A	F	T
F	0.9	0.1
T	0.2	0.8

Example Bayesian Network

- The ICU "Alarm" network for monitoring intensive care patients
  - 37 variables (full joint 2^{37})
  - 509 parameters
  - Gold standard benchmark for many learning algorithms

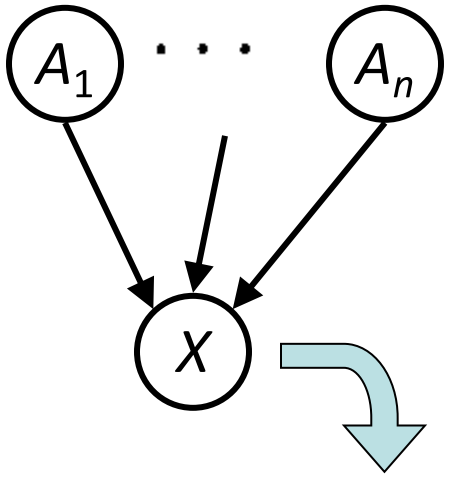


Bayes' Net Semantics

- A set of nodes, one per variable X
- A directed, acyclic graph
- A conditional distribution for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

  - CPT: conditional probability table
  - Description of a noisy "causal" process



$$P(X|A_1 \ldots A_n)$$

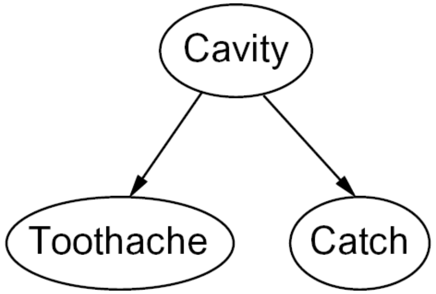
A Bayes net = Topology (graph) + Local Conditional Probabilities

Probabilities in BNs

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
  - As a product of local conditional distributions
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

  - Example:



$P(+cavity,\ +catch,\ -toothache)$

Probabilities in BNs

- Why are we guaranteed that setting

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

results in a proper joint distribution?

- Chain rule (valid for all distributions): $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | x_1 \ldots x_{i-1})$

- <u>Assume</u> conditional independences: $P(x_i | x_1, \ldots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i | parents(X_i))$

→ Consequence: $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$

- Not every BN can represent every joint distribution
  - The topology enforces certain conditional independencies

Example: Coin Flips

X_1 X_2 $\cdots$ X_n

$P(X_1)$

h	0.5
t	0.5

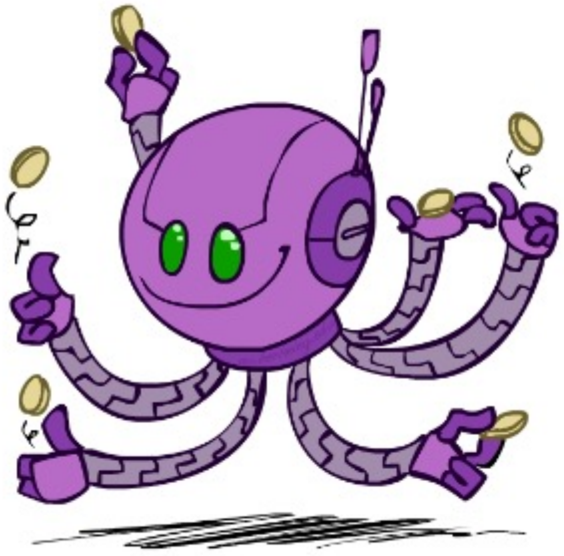
$P(X_2)$

h	0.5
t	0.5

$\cdots$

$P(X_n)$

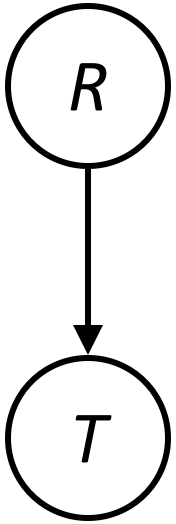
h	0.5
t	0.5



$$P(h, h, t, h) =$$

Only distributions whose variables are absolutely independent can be represented by a Bayes' net with no arcs.

Example: Traffic



$P(R)$

+r	1/4
-r	3/4

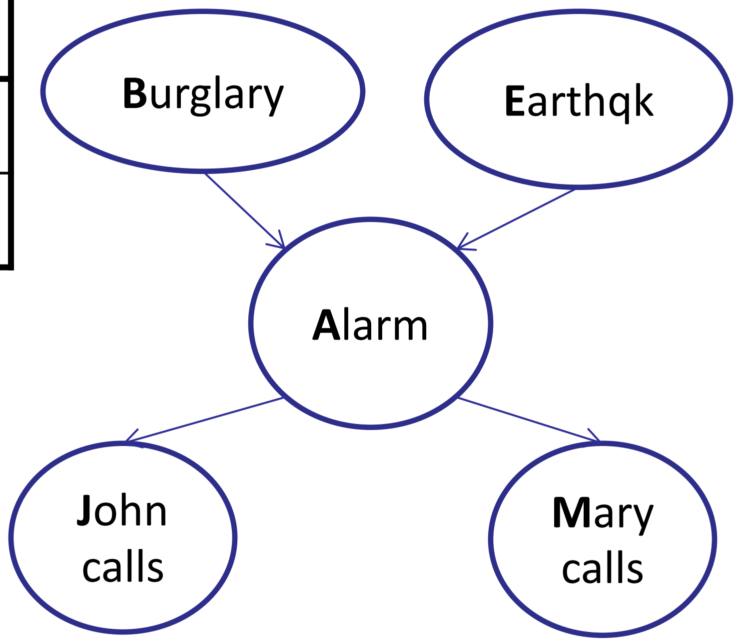
$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	3/4
	-t	1/4
-r	+t	1/2
	-t	1/2

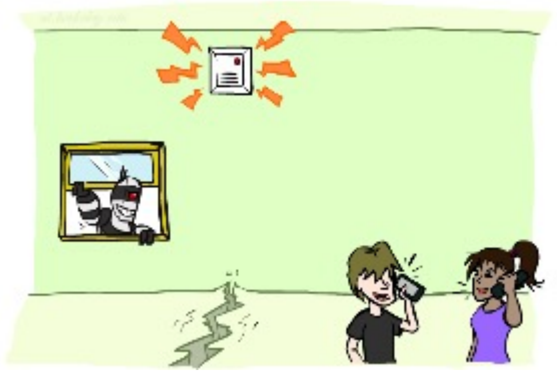
$P(+r, -t) =$

Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999



E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998



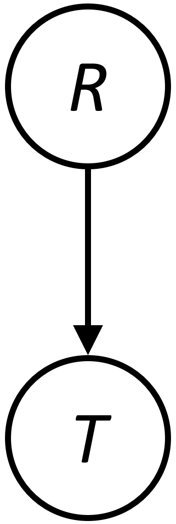
A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	-j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

Example: Traffic

- Causal direction



$P(R)$

+r	1/4
-r	3/4

$P(T|R)$

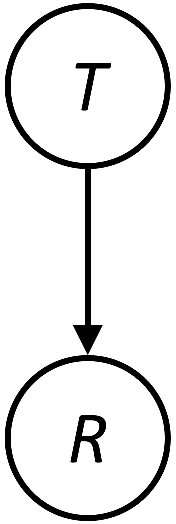
+r	+t	3/4
	-t	1/4
-r	+t	1/2
	-t	1/2

$P(T,R)$

+r	+t	3/16
+r	-t	1/16
-r	+t	6/16
-r	-t	6/16

Example: Reverse Traffic

- Reverse causality?



$P(T)$

+t	9/16
-t	7/16

$P(R|T)$

+t	+r	1/3
	-r	2/3

-t	+r	1/7
	-r	6/7

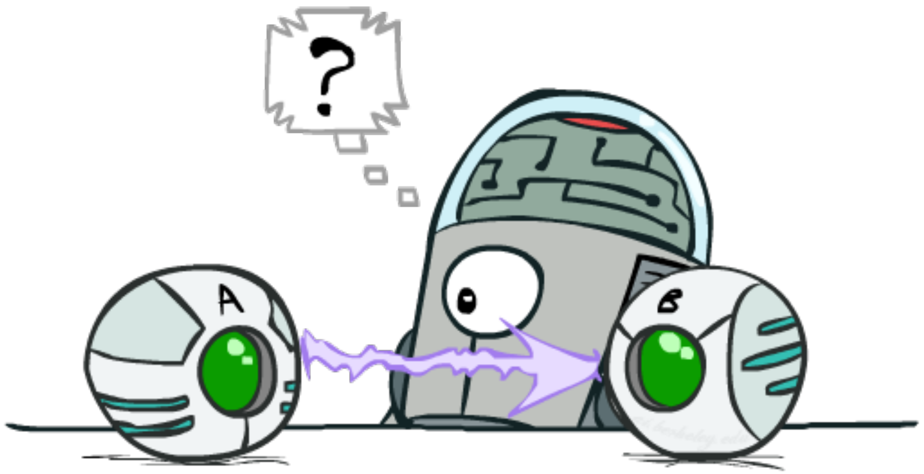
$P(T, R)$

+r	+t	3/16
+r	-t	1/16
-r	+t	6/16
-r	-t	6/16

Causality?

- When Bayes' nets reflect the true causal patterns:
  - Often simpler (nodes have fewer parents)
  - Often easier to think about
  - Often easier to elicit from experts
- BNs need not actually be causal
  - Sometimes no causal net exists over the domain (especially if variables are missing)
  - E.g. consider the variables *Traffic* and *Drips*
  - End up with arrows that reflect correlation, not causation
- What do the arrows really mean?
  - Topology may happen to encode causal structure
  - Topology really encodes conditional independence

$$P(x_i|x_1, \ldots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$

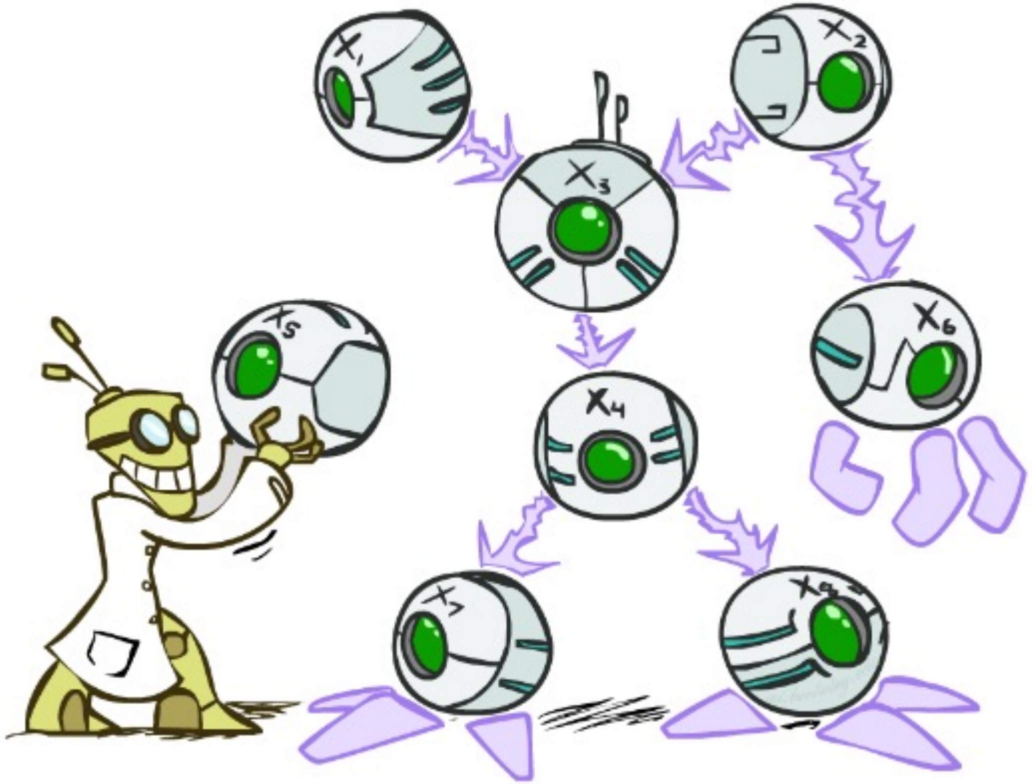


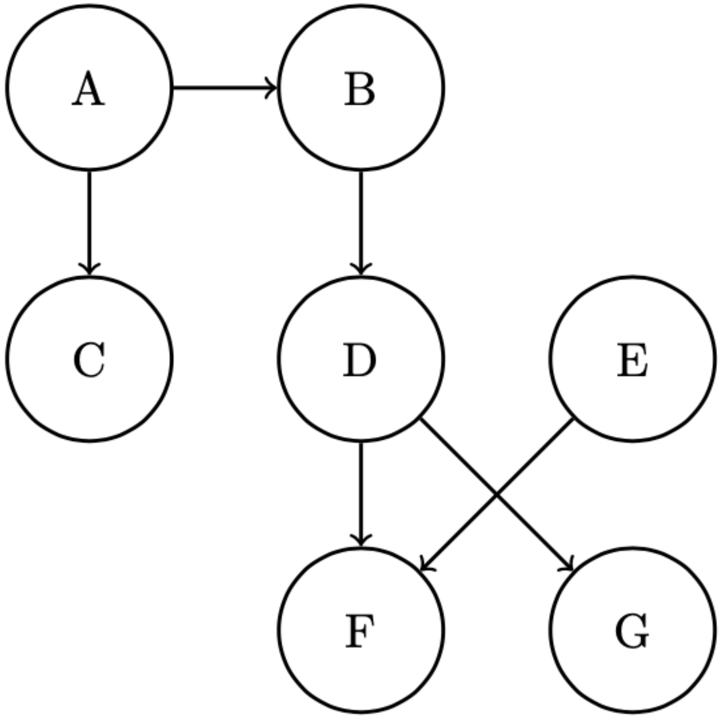
Bayes' Nets

- So far: how a Bayes' net encodes a joint distribution

- Next: how to answer queries about that distribution
  - Main goal: answer queries about conditional independence and influence

- After that: how to answer numerical queries (inference)





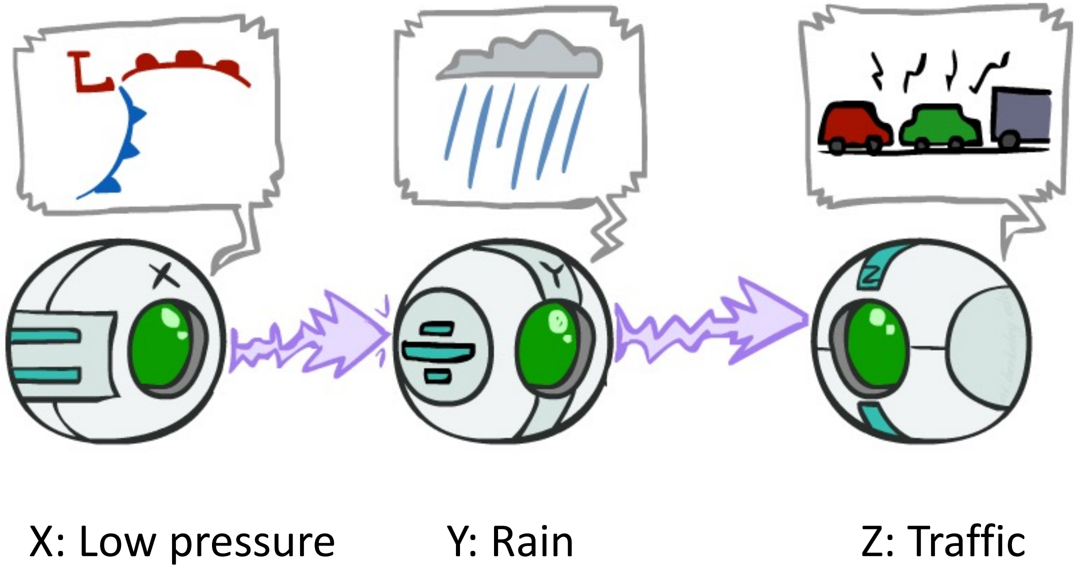
Express the joint probability distribution as a product of terms representing individual conditional probabilities tables associated with the Bayes Net.

D-separation: Outline

- Study independence properties for triples
- Analyze complex cases in terms of member triples
- D-separation: a condition / algorithm for answering such queries

Causal Chains

- This configuration is a "causal chain"



$$P(x, y, z) = P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)$$

- Guaranteed X independent of Z ? *No!*
  - One example set of CPTs for which X is not independent of Z is sufficient to show this independence is not guaranteed.
  - Example:
    - Low pressure causes rain causes traffic, high pressure causes no rain causes no traffic
    - In numbers:

      P(+y | +x) = 1, P(-y | - x) = 1,
      P(+z | +y) = 1, P(-z | -y) = 1

Causal Chains

- This configuration is a "causal chain"

X: Low pressure Y: Rain Z: Traffic

$$P(x, y, z) = P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)$$

- Guaranteed X independent of Z given Y?

$$P(z|x, y) = \frac{P(x, y, z)}{P(x, y)}$$

$$= \frac{P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)}{P(x)P(y|x)}$$

$$= P(z|y)$$

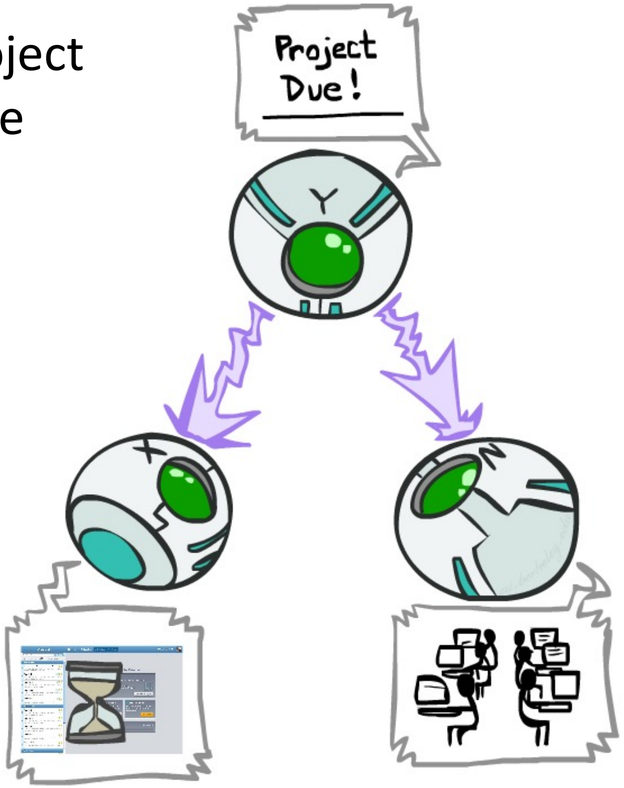
Yes!

- Evidence along the chain "blocks" the influence

Common Cause

- This configuration is a "common cause"

Y: Project due



X: Server busy

Z: Lab full

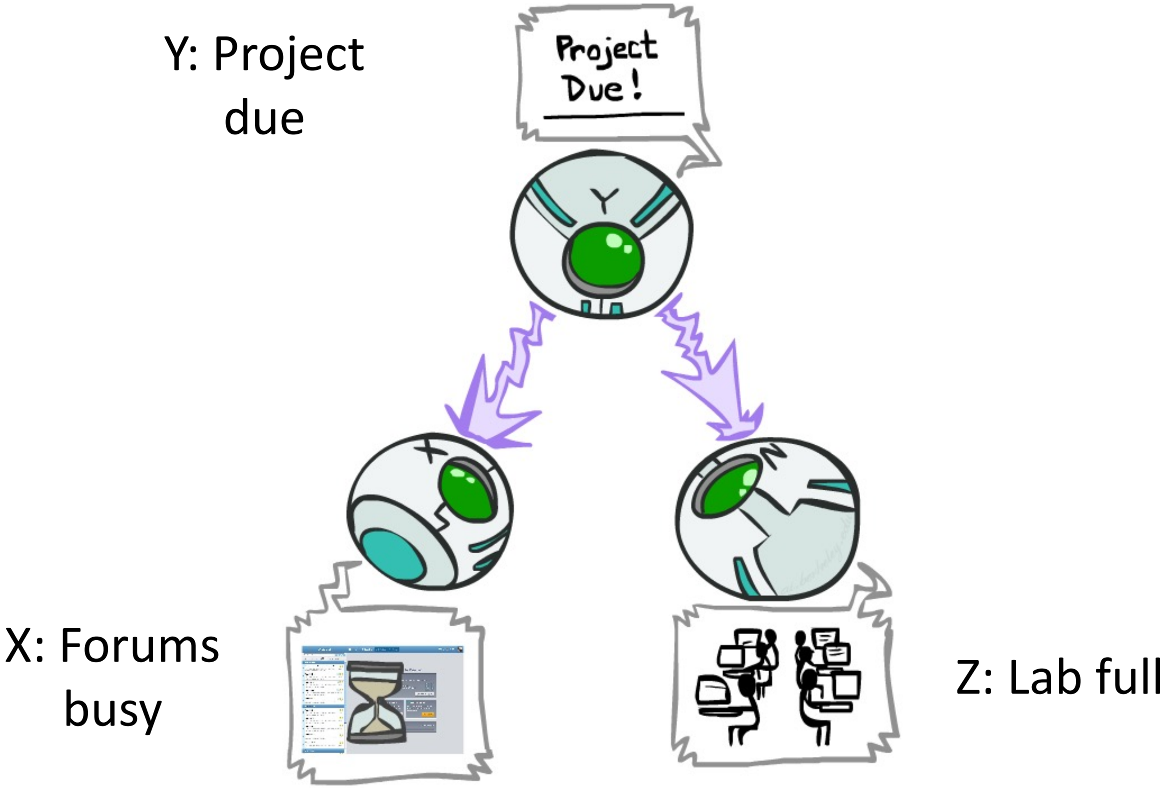
$$P(x, y, z) = P(y)P(x|y)P(z|y)$$

- Guaranteed X independent of Z ? *No!*
  - One example set of CPTs for which X is not independent of Z is sufficient to show this independence is not guaranteed.
  - Example:
    - Project due causes both forums busy and lab full
    - In numbers:

      P(+x | +y) = 1, P(-x | -y) = 1,
      P(+z | +y) = 1, P(-z | -y) = 1

Common Cause

- This configuration is a "common cause"



$$P(x, y, z) = P(y)P(x|y)P(z|y)$$

- Guaranteed X and Z independent given Y?

$$P(z|x, y) = \frac{P(x, y, z)}{P(x, y)}$$

$$= \frac{P(y)P(x|y)P(z|y)}{P(y)P(x|y)}$$

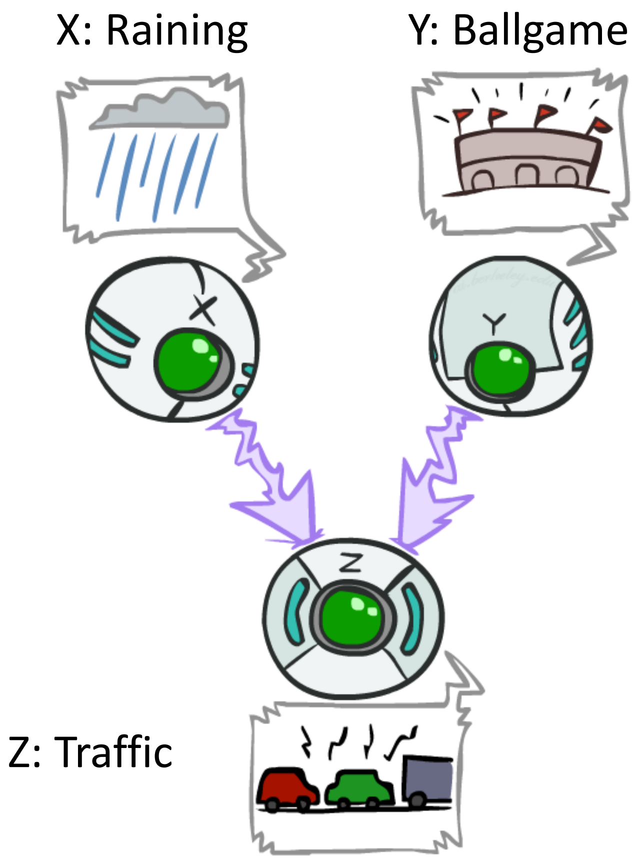
$$= P(z|y)$$

Yes!

- Observing the cause blocks influence between effects.

Common Effect

- Last configuration: two causes of one effect (v-structures)



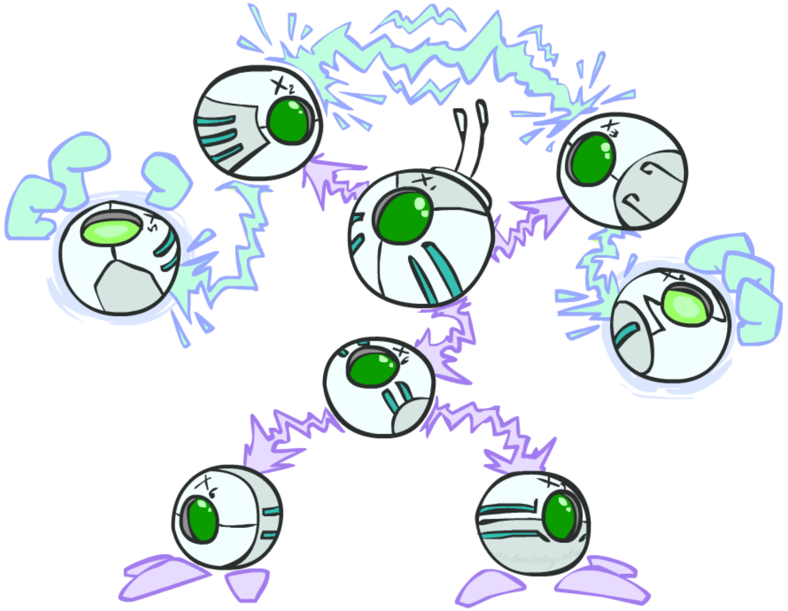
- Are X and Y independent?
  - *Yes*: the ballgame and the rain cause traffic, but they are not correlated
  - Still need to prove it.
- Are X and Y independent given Z?
  - *No*: seeing traffic puts the rain and the ballgame in competition as explanation.
- This is backwards from the other cases
  - Observing an effect activates influence between possible causes.

The General Case

- General question: in a given BN, are two variables independent (given evidence)?

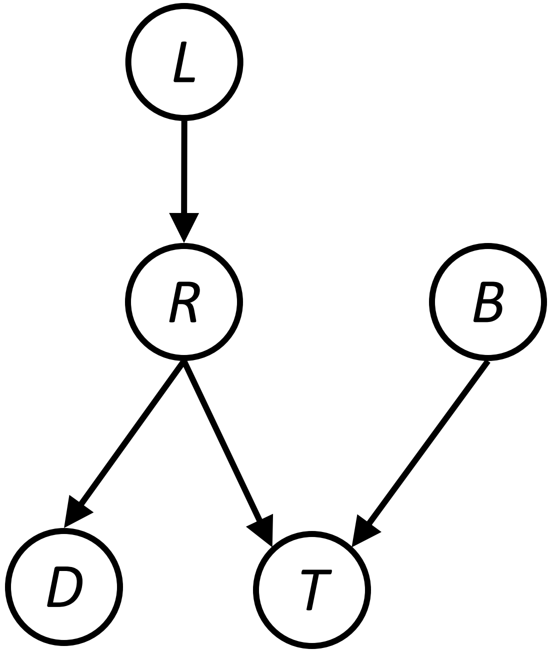
- Solution: analyze the graph

- Any complex example can be broken into repetitions of the three canonical cases



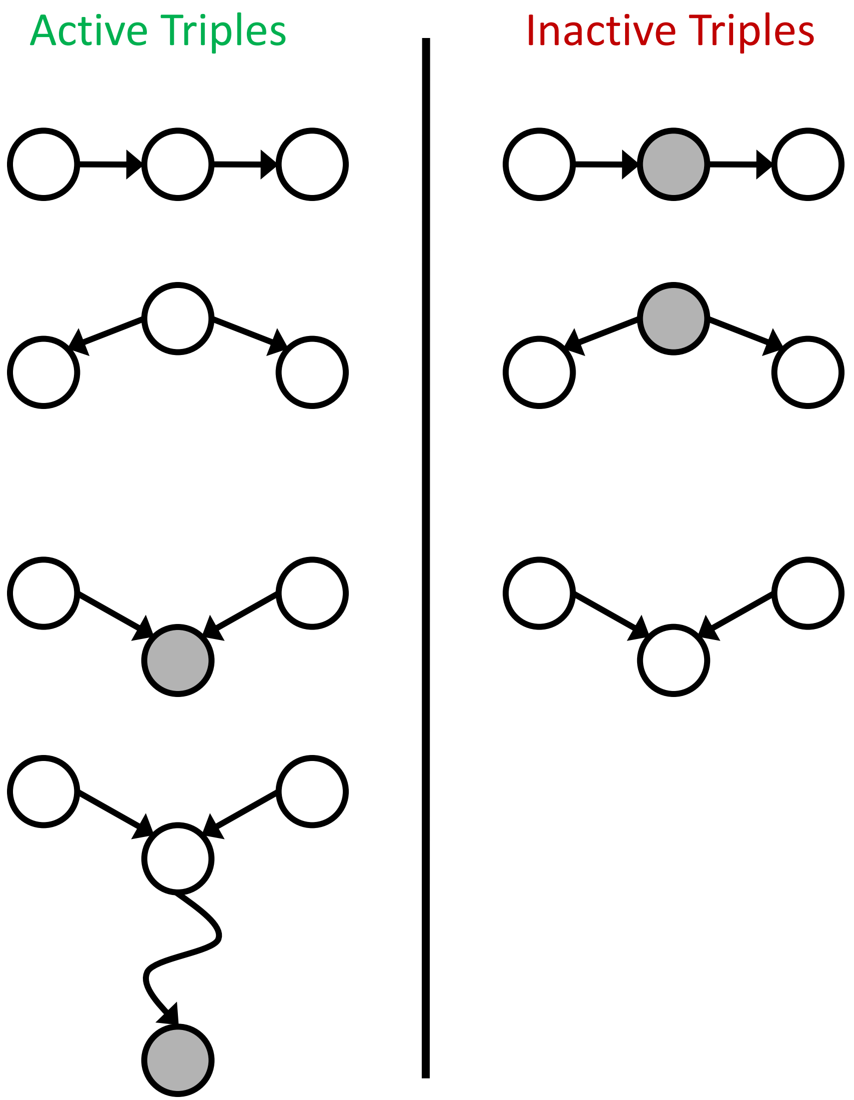
Reachability

- Recipe: shade evidence nodes, look for paths in the resulting graph
- Attempt 1: if two nodes are connected by an undirected path not blocked by a shaded node, they are conditionally independent
- Almost works, but not quite
  - Where does it break?
  - Answer: the v-structure at T doesn't count as a link in a path unless "active"



Active / Inactive Paths

- Question: Are X and Y conditionally independent given evidence variables {Z}?
  - Yes, if X and Y "d-separated" by Z
  - Consider all (undirected) paths from X to Y
  - No active paths = independence!
- A path is active if each triple is active:
  - Causal chain A $\rightarrow$ B $\rightarrow$ C where B is unobserved (either direction)
  - Common cause A $\leftarrow$ B $\rightarrow$ C where B is unobserved
  - Common effect (aka v-structure)
    A $\rightarrow$ B $\leftarrow$ C where B *or one of its descendents* is observed
- All it takes to block a path is a single inactive segment



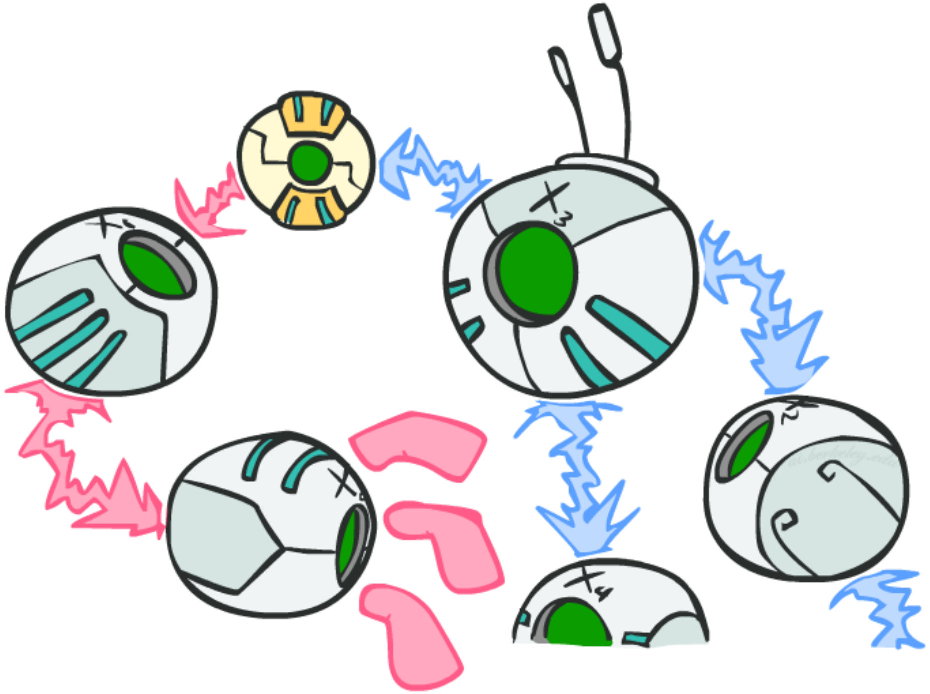
D-Separation

- Query: $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$?
- Check all (undirected!) paths between X_i and X_j
  - If one or more active, then independence not guaranteed

$$X_i \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

  - Otherwise (i.e. if all paths are inactive), then independence is guaranteed

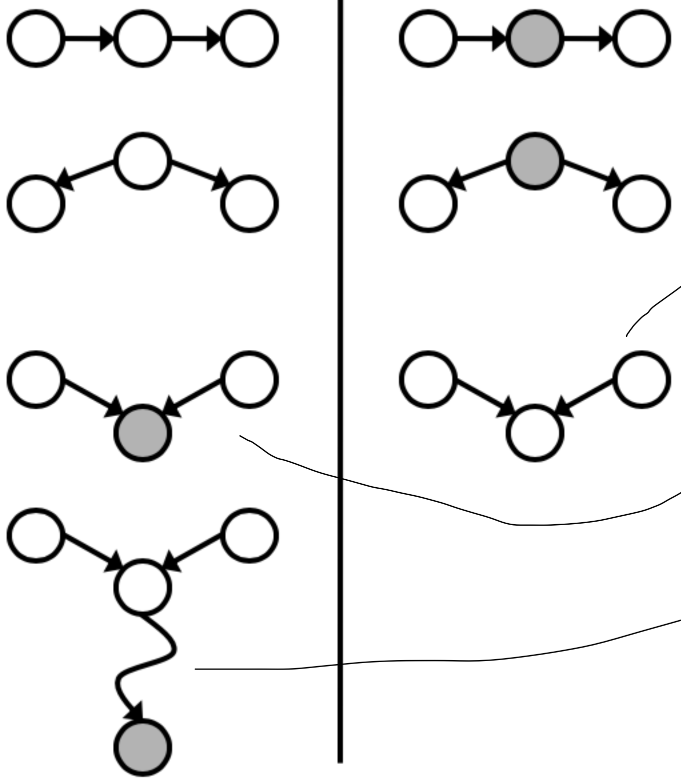
$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$



Example

Active Triples

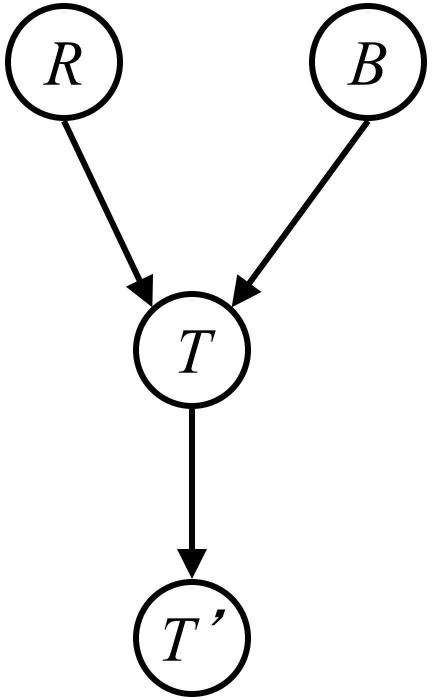
Inactive Triples



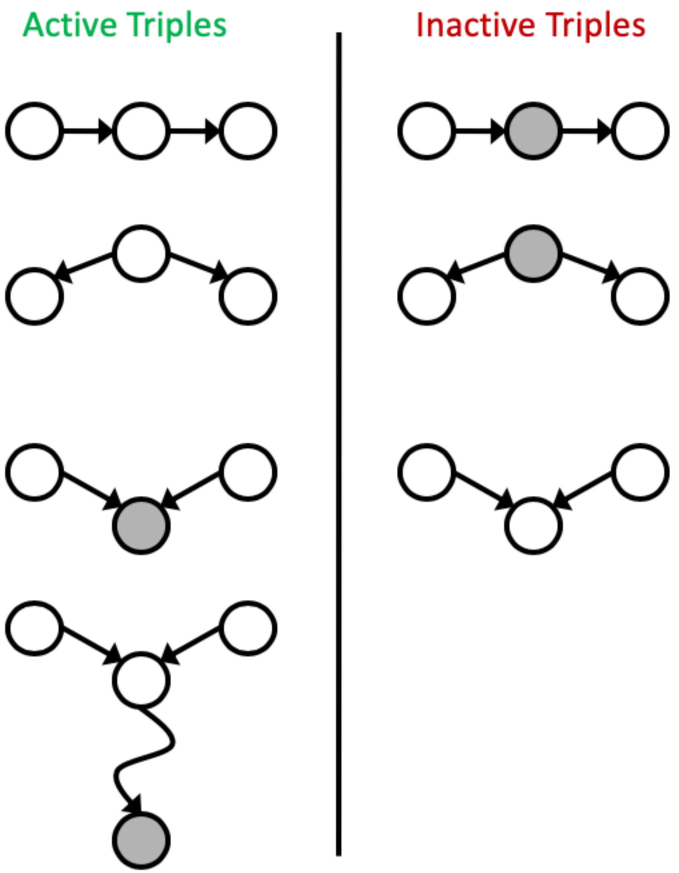
$$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B$$ *Yes*

$$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T$$

$$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T'$$



Example



T被灰掉了，但是L，R，T还算是Active Triples里的第一个

conditional independent $L \perp\!\!\!\perp T' | T$

有多条通路，都要check，conditional independent就是都要check，都是inactive

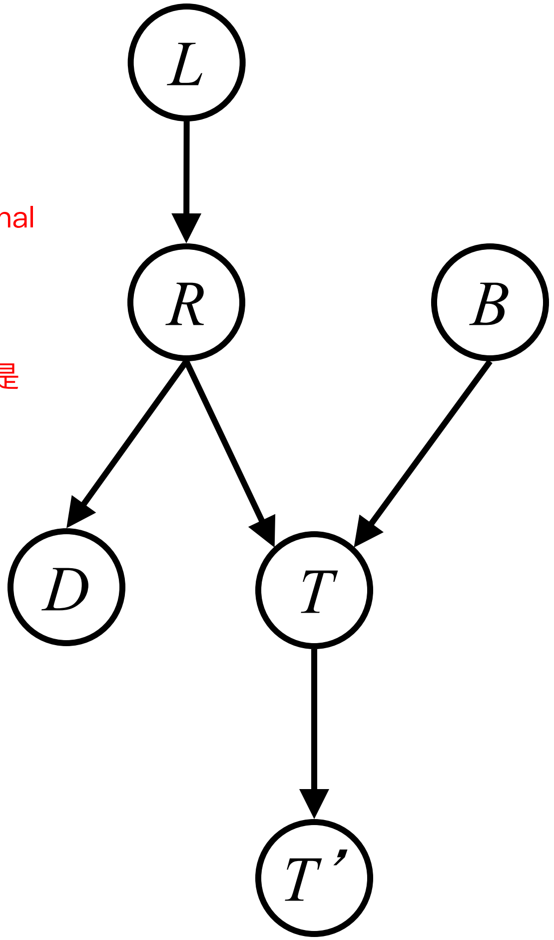
$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B$

有一个active就不是independent了

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T$

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T'$

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T, R$

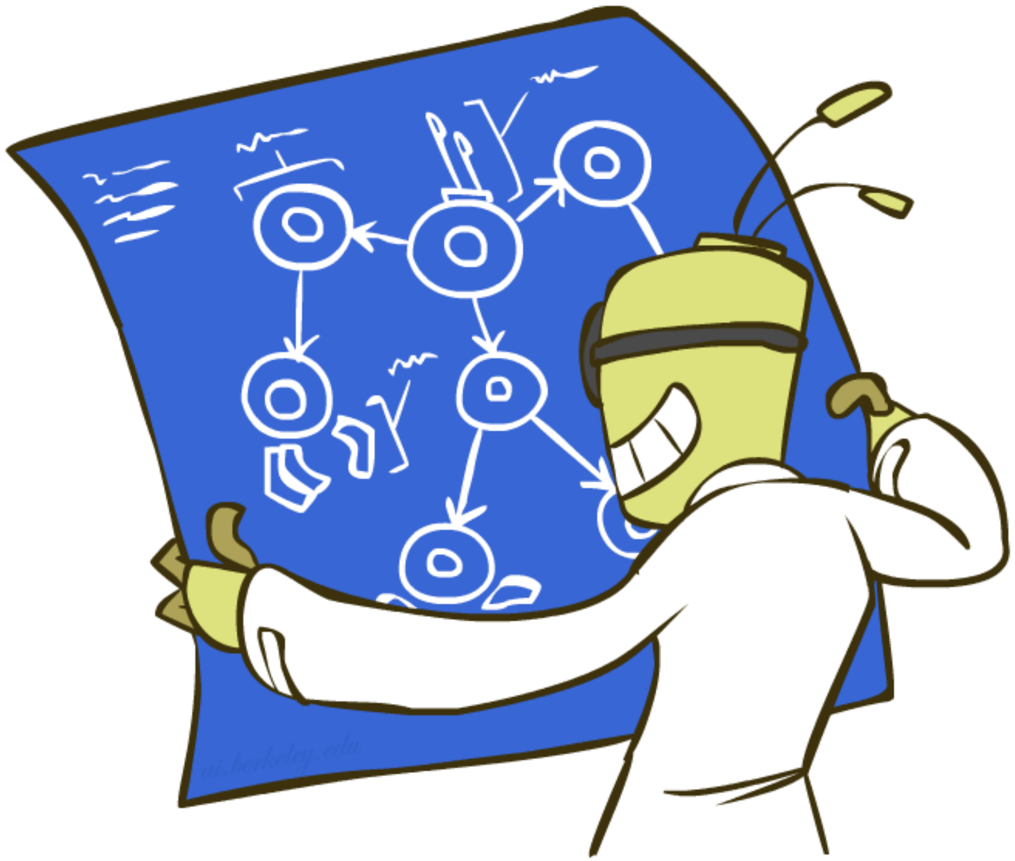


Structure Implications

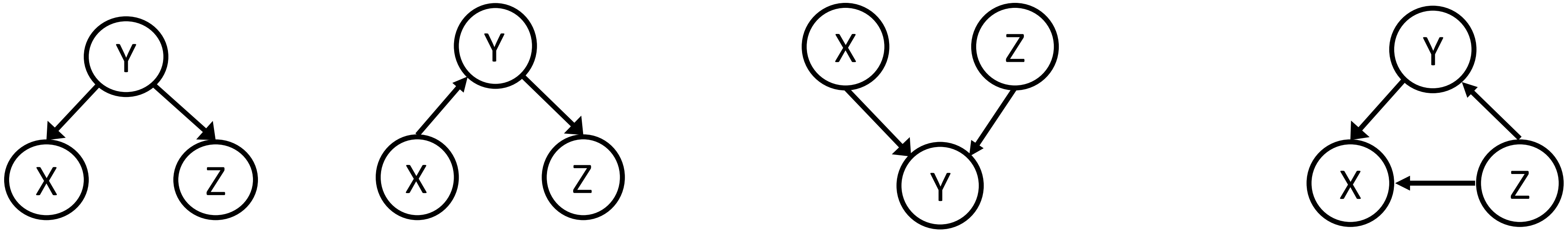
- Given a Bayes net structure, can run d-separation algorithm to build a complete list of conditional independences that are necessarily true of the form

$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

- This list determines the set of probability distributions that can be represented



Computing All Independences



Topology Limits Distributions

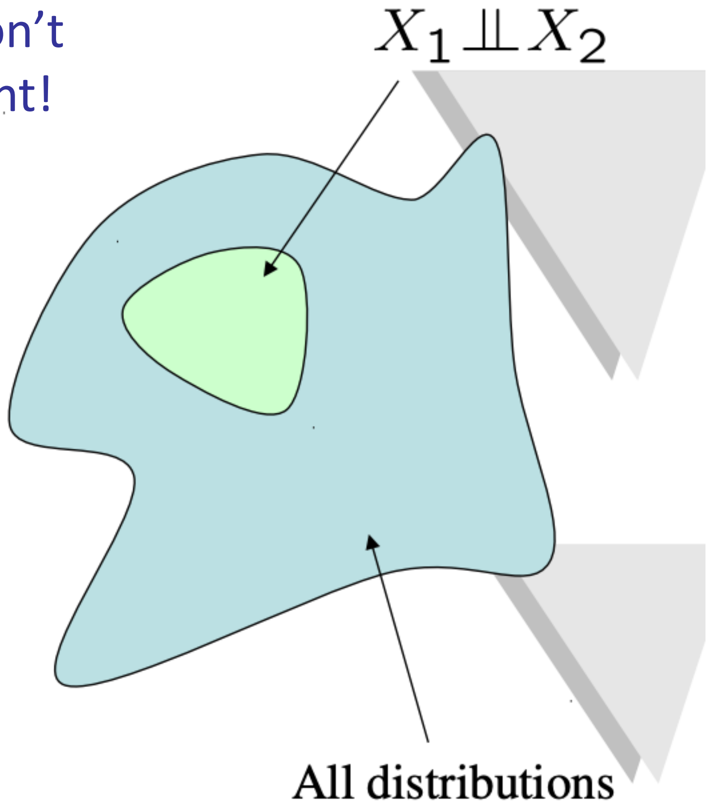
- Given some graph topology G, only certain joint distributions can be encoded
- For this graph, you can fiddle with the CPTs all you want, but you won't be able to represent any distribution in which the flips are dependent!

$P(X_1)$

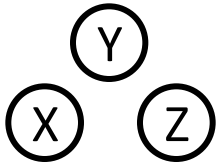
h	0.5
t	0.5

$P(X_2)$

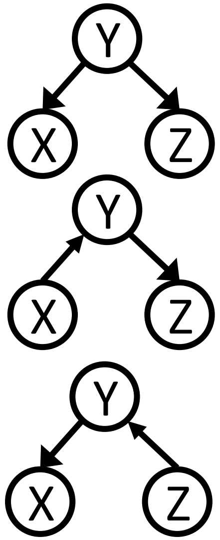
h	0.5
t	0.5



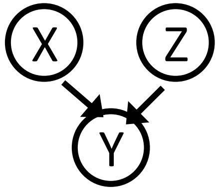
Topology Limits Distributions



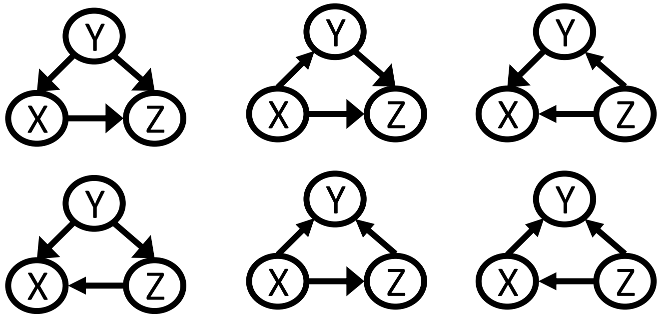
A



B



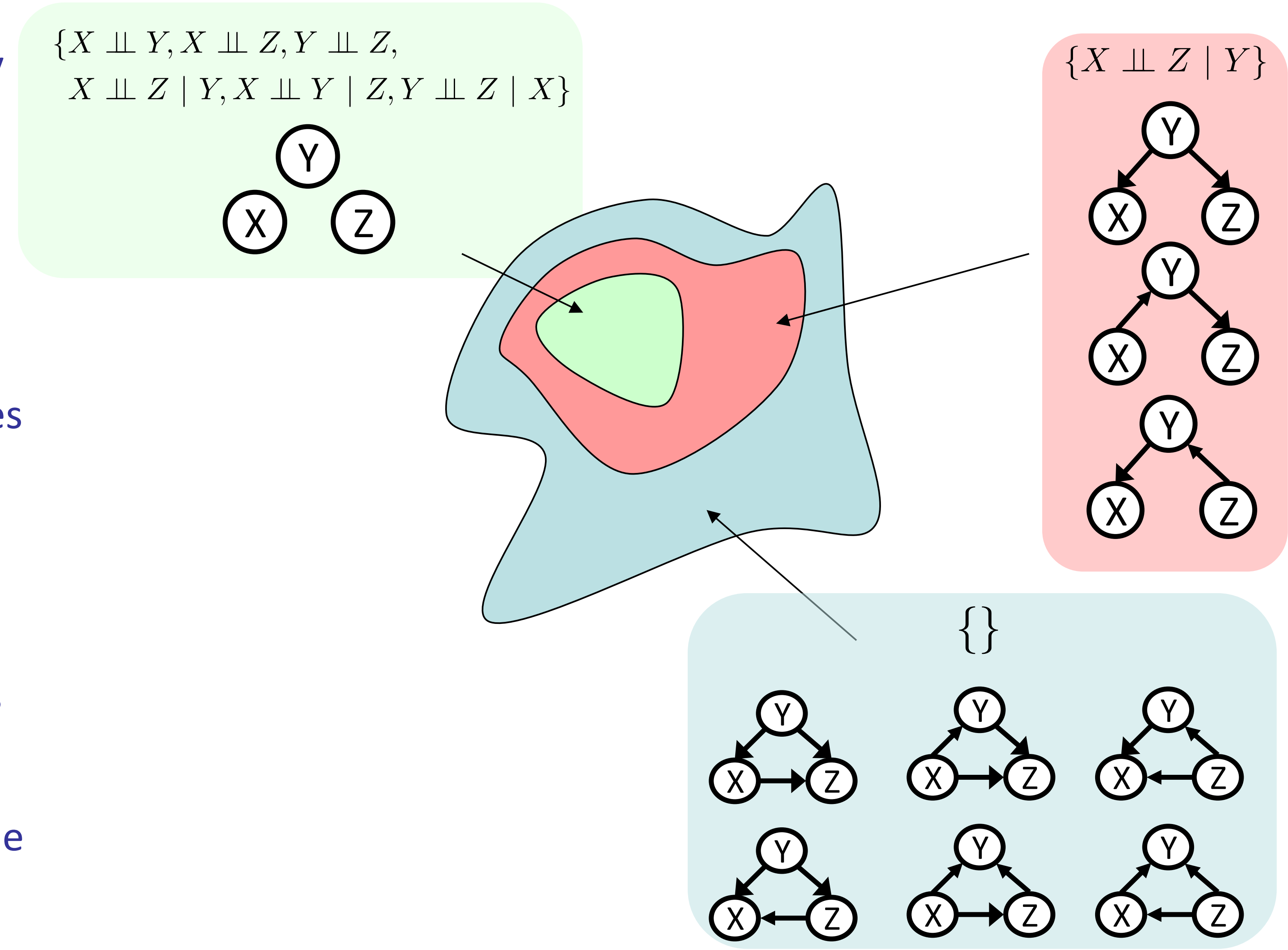
C



D

Topology Limits Distributions

- Given some graph topology G, only certain joint distributions can be encoded
- The graph structure guarantees certain (conditional) independences
- (There might be more independence)
- Adding arcs increases the set of distributions, but has several costs
- Full conditioning can encode any distribution

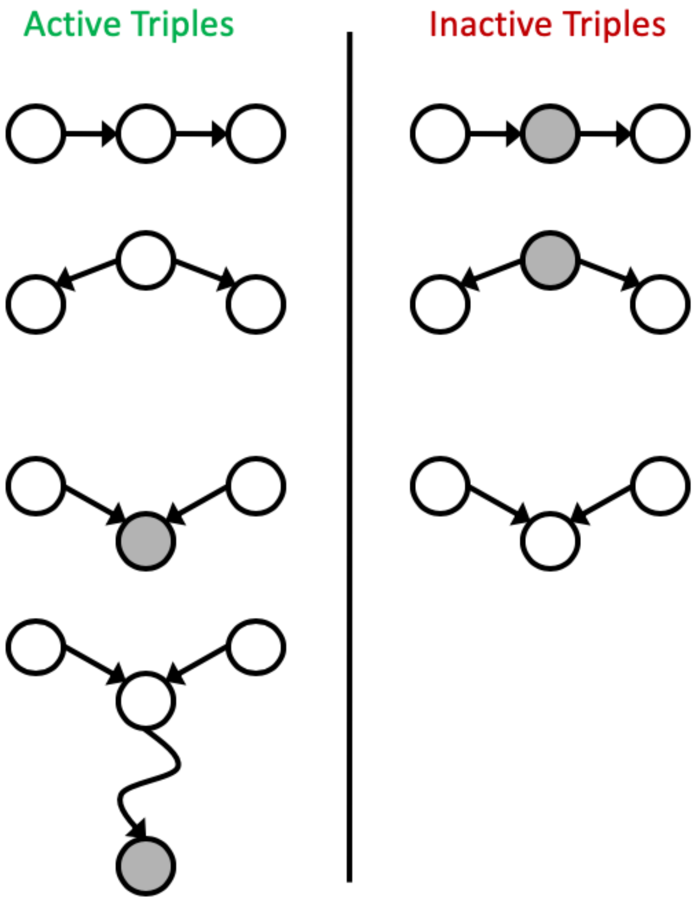


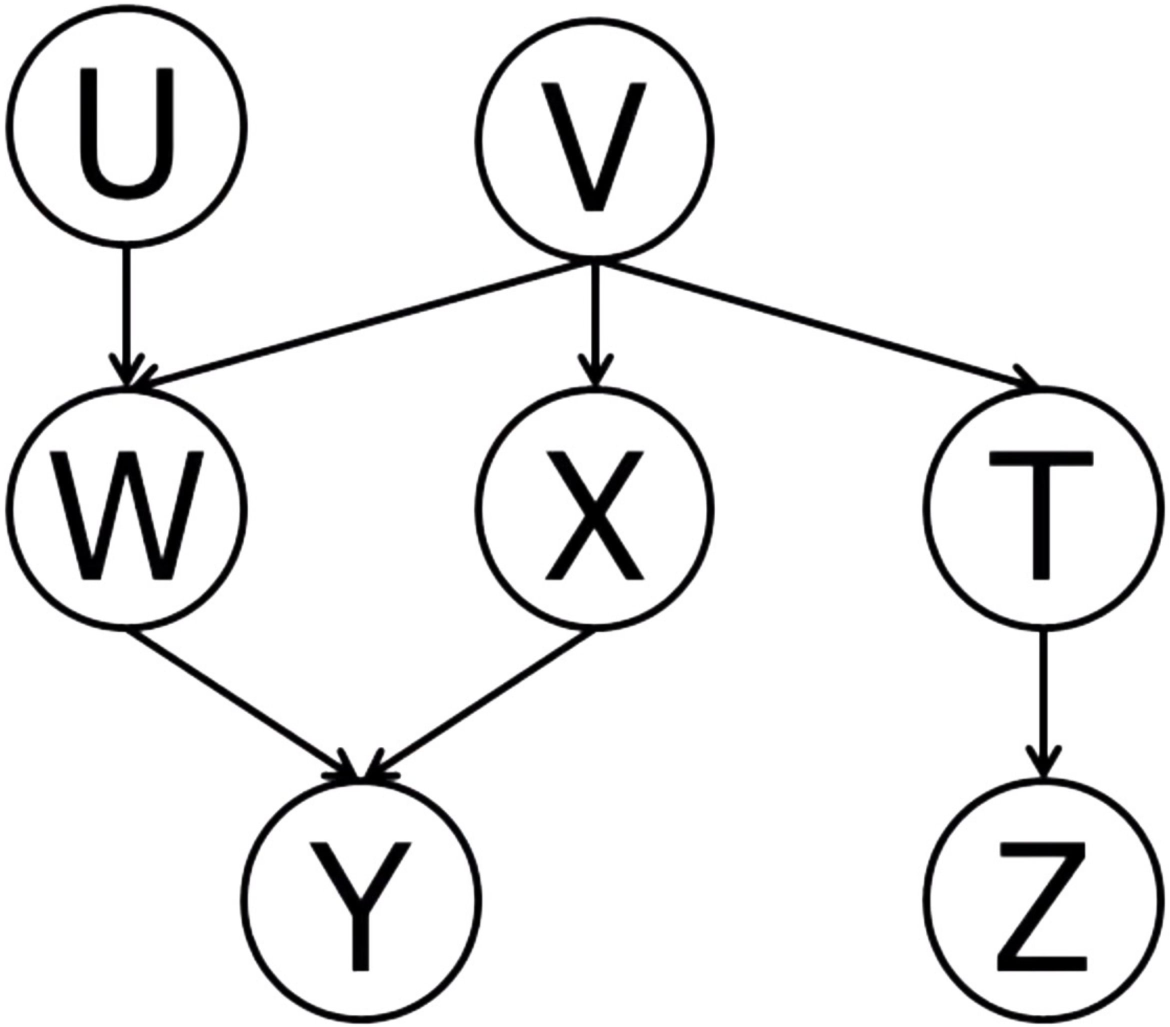
Bayes Nets Representation Summary

- Bayes nets compactly encode joint distributions
- Guaranteed independencies of distributions can be deduced from BN graph structure
- D-separation gives precise conditional independence guarantees from graph alone
- A Bayes net's joint distribution may have further (conditional) independence that is not detectable until you inspect its specific distribution

Quiz 1

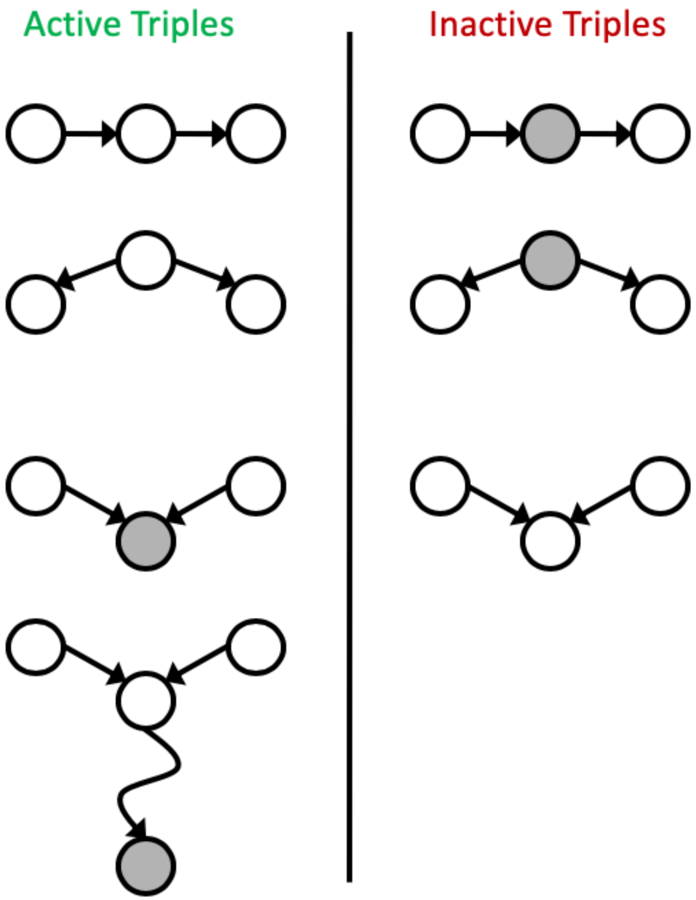
V _||_ Z

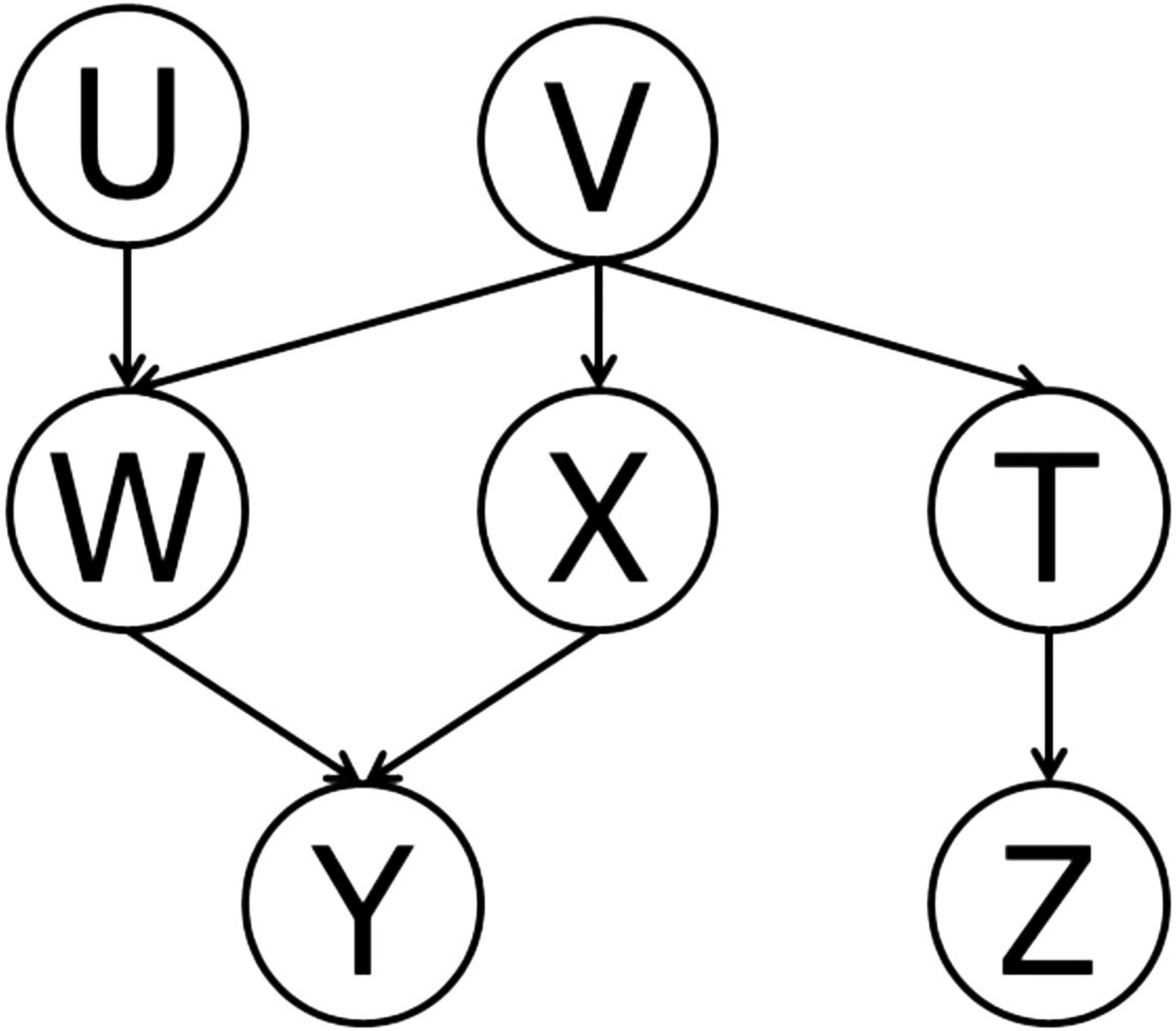




Quiz 2

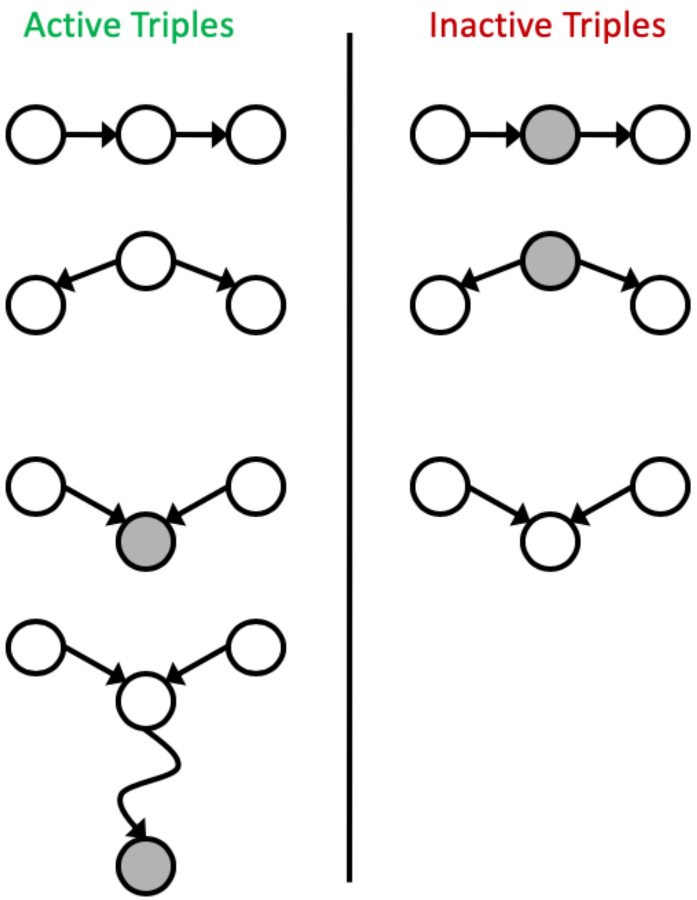
$V \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid T$

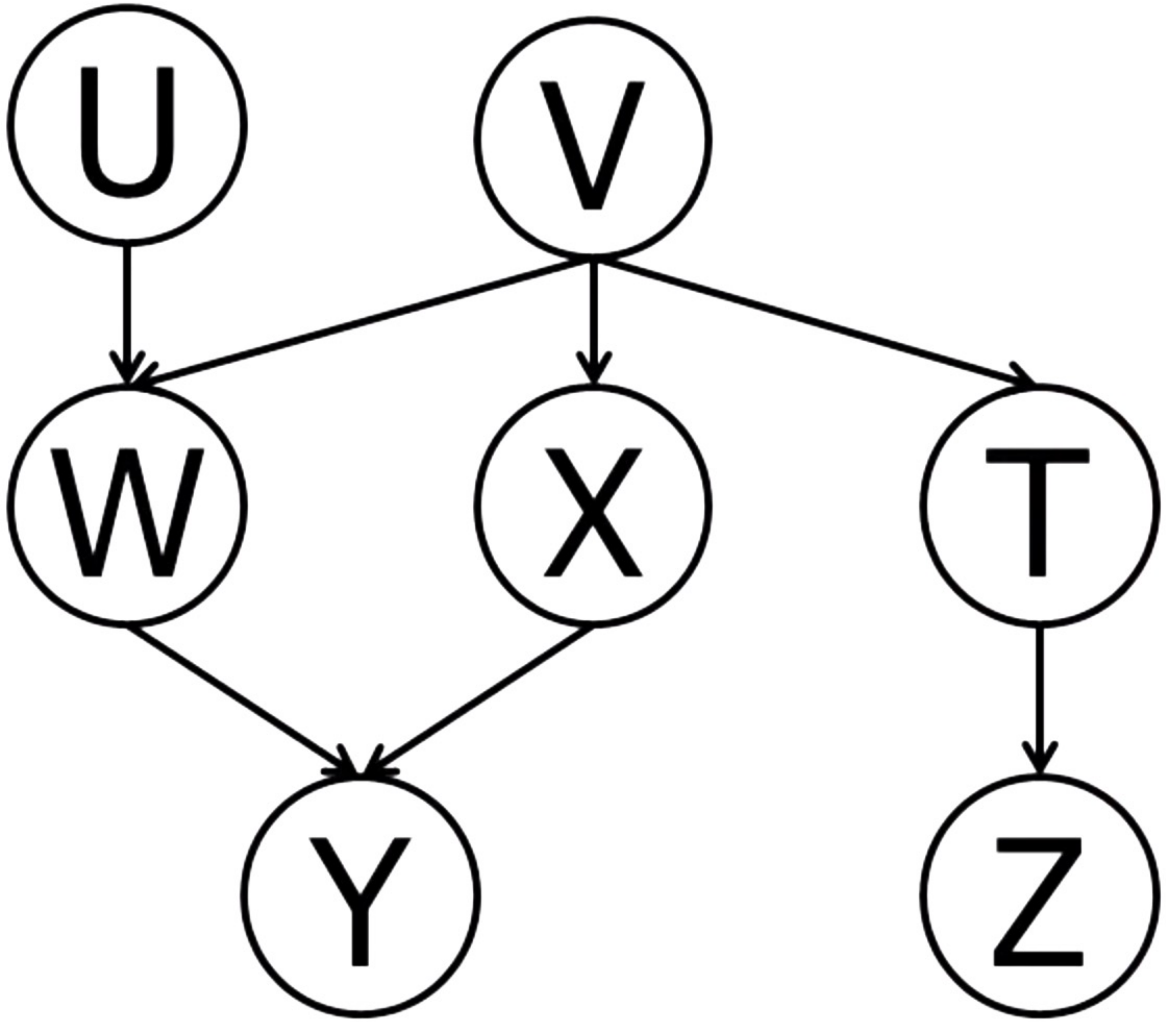




Quiz 3

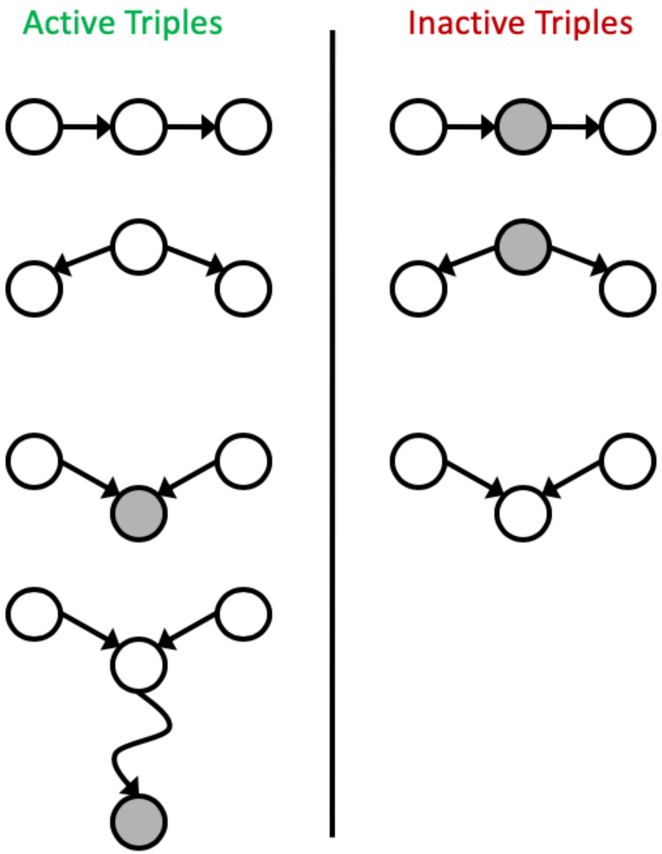
U _||_ V

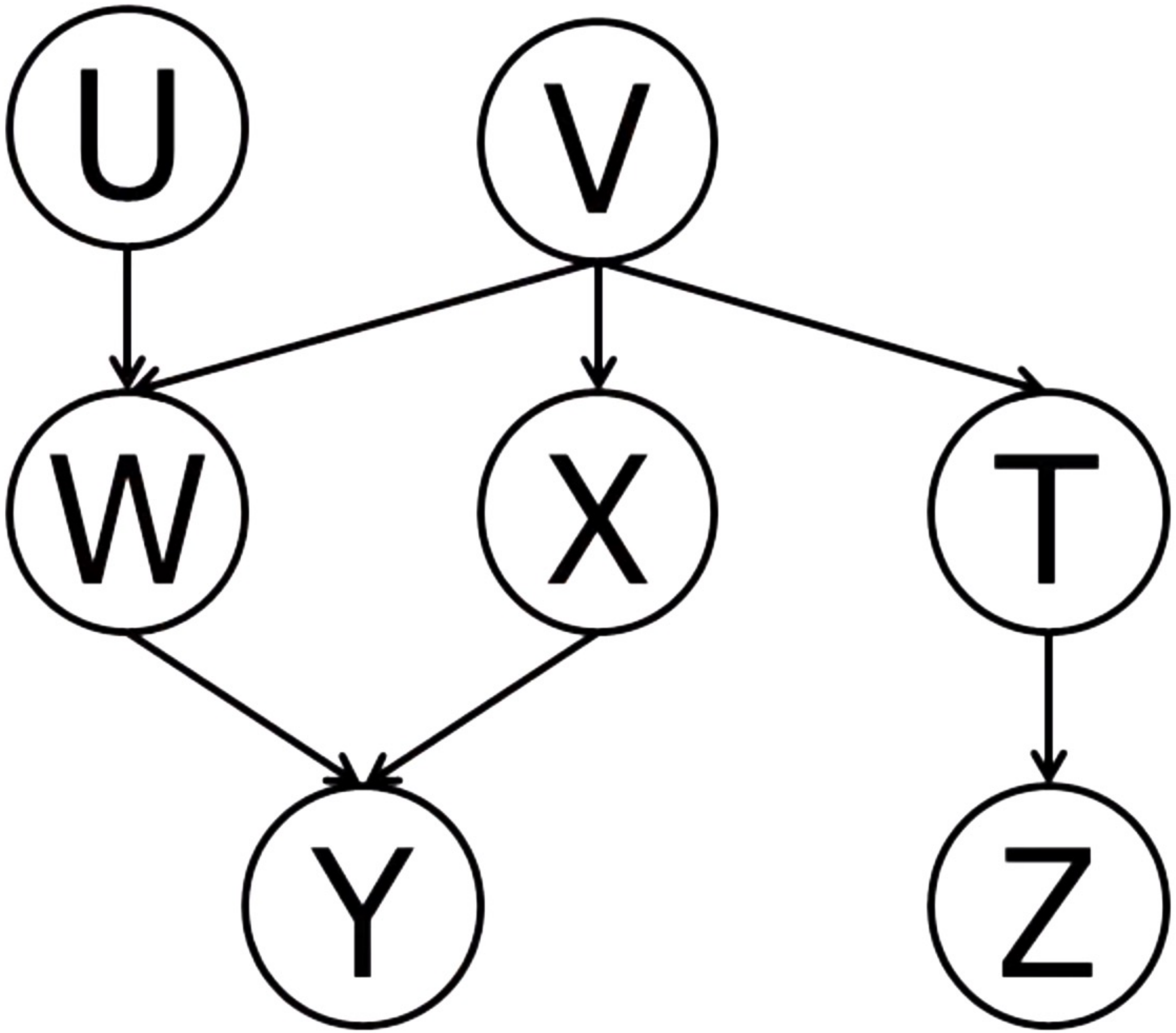




Quiz 4

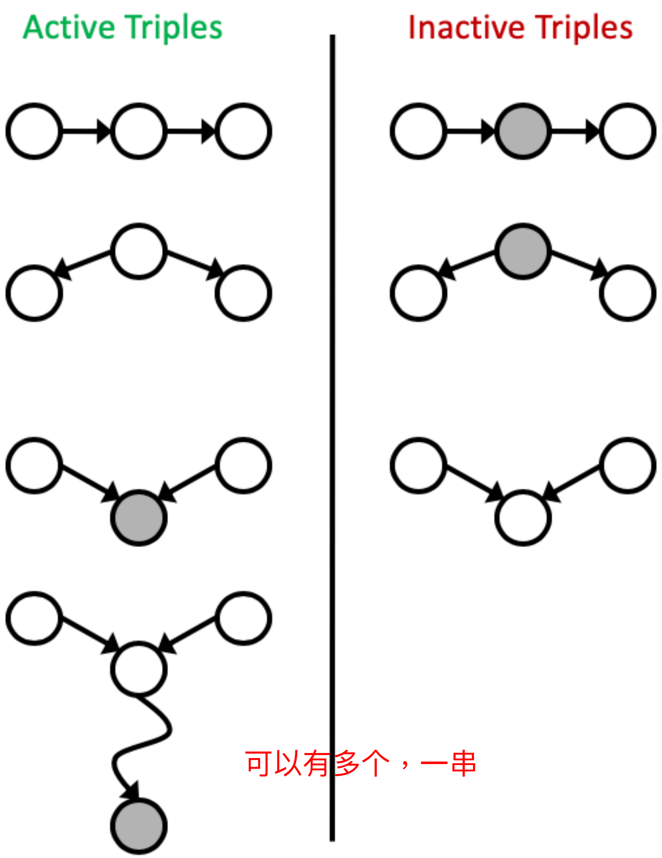
U _||_ V | W

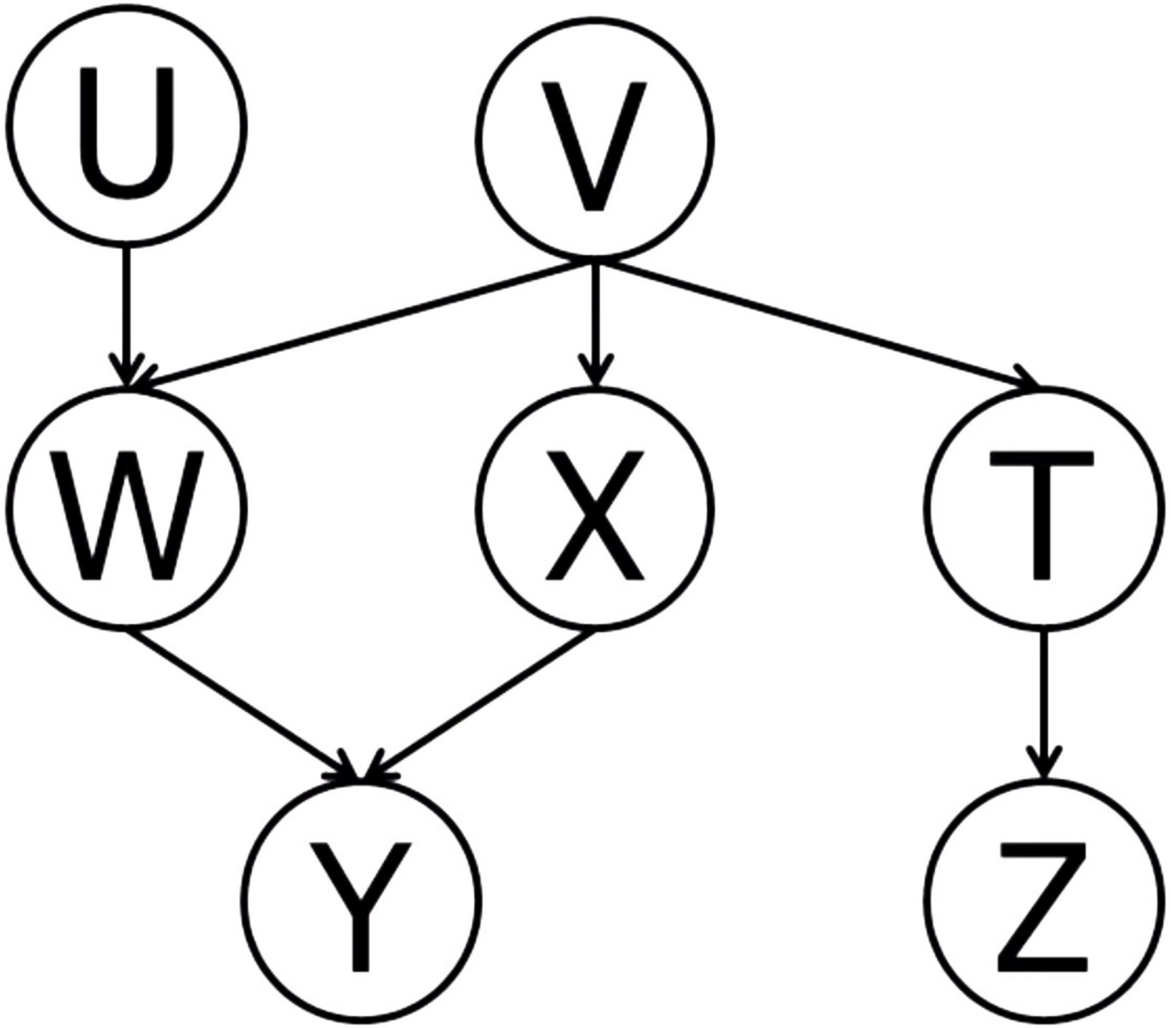




Quiz 5

$U \perp\!\!\!\perp V \mid X$





Quiz 6

不是

U _||_ V | Y