Directed Acyclic Graphical Models, and Causal Models 9.S918: Statistical Inference in Brain and Cognitive Sciences Spring 2024

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Today's content

- ► Conditional Independence
- ▶ Bayes Nets (a.k.a. directed acyclic graphical models, DAGs)

(Conditional) Independence

Events A and B are said to be Conditionally Independent given information C if

$$P(A,B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$$

Conditional independence of A and B given C is often expressed as

$$A \perp B \mid C$$

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- ▶ And I hope that you'll agree that the framework is intuitive too!
- ► The intuitiveness is because a causal interpretation of the framework is natural—and, indeed, this is formalized in the causal treatment of Bayes nets

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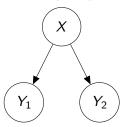
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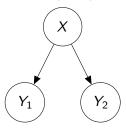
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- Receiving a coin from the factory and flipping it twice is **sampling** (or **taking a sample**) from the joint distribution $P(X, Y_1, Y_2)$

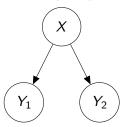
The directed acyclic graphical model (DAG), or Bayes net:



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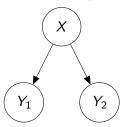


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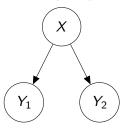
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$X P(X) \mid X P(Y_1 = H X) P(Y_1 = T X)$
Fair $\frac{1}{3}$ Fair $\frac{1}{2}$
$2-H = \frac{1}{2}$ $2-H = 1$ 0
$2-T = \frac{3}{2}$ 2-T 0 1



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X	P(X)	X	$P(Y_1 = H X)$	$P(Y_1 = T X)$	X	$P(Y_2 = H X)$	$P(Y_2 = T X)$
Fair	1/3	Fair	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	Fair	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
2-H	1/2	2-H	1	Ó	2-H	1	Õ
Fair 2-H 2-T	1/2	2-T	0	1	2-T	0	1

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▶ But
$$P(Y_2 = H|Y_1 = H) = \overbrace{\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{2}}^{2} + \overbrace{\frac{2}{3} \times 1}^{2} = \frac{5}{6}$$

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- ▶ A node on the path has non-converging arrows if two edges on the path connect to it, but at least one does not point to it.
- ▶ A third disjoint node set *C* d-separates *A* and *B* if for every path between *A* and *B*, either:
 - 1. there is some node *N* on the path whose arrows do not converge and which *is* in *C*; or
 - 2. there is some node N on the path with converging arrows, and neither N nor any of its descendants is in C.

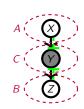
Major types of d-separation

A node set C d-separates A and B if for every path between A and B, either:

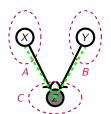
- 1. there is some node N on the path whose arrows do not converge and which is in C; or
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 $\begin{array}{ccc} {\sf Common-} \\ {\sf cause} & {\sf d-} \\ {\sf separation} \\ {\sf (from \ knowing} \\ {\it Z)} \end{array}$

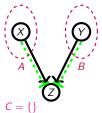
Mediating d-separation (from knowing Y)



Explaining away: knowing Z prevents d-separation



D-separation in the absence of knowledge of \boldsymbol{Z}



(Shaded node=in C)

D-separation and conditional independence

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 - **Example:** let X_1, X_2, Y_1, Y_2 each be 0/1 random variable, and let the joint distribution reflect the constraint that $Y_1 = (X_1 == X_2)$ and $Y_2 = \text{xor}(X_1, X_2)$. This gives us $Y_1 \perp Y_2 | \{X_1, X_2\}$, but you won't be able to write a Bayes net involving these four variables such that $\{X_1, X_2\}$ d-separates Y_1 and Y_2 .

Conditional independencies not expressible in a Bayes net

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Suppose the joint distribution is determined entirely by adjacent nodes "liking" to have the same value. Formally, for example:

$$P(X_1, X_2, Y_1, Y_2) \propto \prod_{i=1}^4 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{f_i(X_1, X_2, Y_1, Y_2)}$$

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But this set of conditional independencies cannot be expressed in a Bayes Net.



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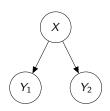
► This example is an instance of an Ising model, the prototypical case of a Markov random field, a model class that can be represented as undirected graphs



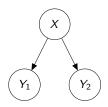
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- ▶ We won't look at these further, but you can read about them in books and papers about graphical models (e.g., (Bishop, 2006, Section 8.3)

Back to our example



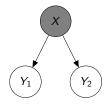
Back to our example



Without looking at the coin before flipping it, the outcome Y_1 of the first flip gives me information about the type of coin, and affects my beliefs about the outcome of Y_2



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▶ Without looking at the coin before flipping it, the outcome Y_1 of the first flip gives me information about the type of coin, and affects my beliefs about the outcome of Y_2



▶ But if I *look* at the coin before flipping it, Y_1 and Y_2 are rendered independent

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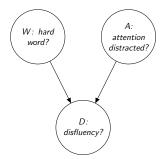
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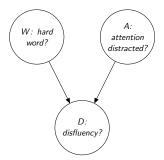
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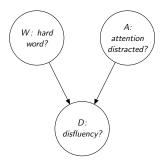
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A reasonable graphical model:

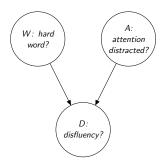




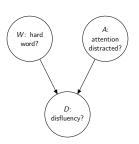
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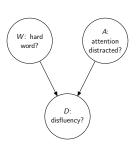
- ▶ Without knowledge of D, there's no reason to expect that W and A are correlated
- But hearing a disfluency demands a cause
- Knowing that there was a distraction explains away the disfluency, reducing the probability that the speaker was planning to utter a hard word



► Let's suppose that both hard words and distractions are unusual, the latter more so

$$P(W = \mathsf{hard}) = 0.25$$

 $P(A = \mathsf{distracted}) = 0.15$



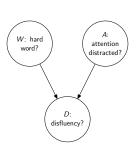
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 Hard words and distractions both induce disfluencies; having both makes a disfluency really likely

W	Α	D=no disfluency	D=disfluency
easy	undistracted	0.99	0.01
easy	distracted undistracted	0.7	0.3
hard	undistracted	0.85	0.15
hard	distracted	0.4	0.6

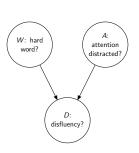


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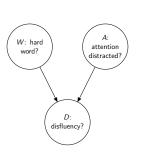


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- Now suppose we also learn that her attention is distracted. What does that do to our beliefs about *W*
- ▶ That is, what is P(W = hard|D = disfluent, A = distracted)?



$$P(W = hard) = 0.25$$

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 $P(W = \text{hard}|D = \text{disfluent}) = 0.57$

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$$P(W=\mathsf{hard}|D=\mathsf{disfluent},A=\mathsf{distracted}) = 0.40$$

Fortunately, there is automated machinery to "turn the Bayesian crank":

$$P(W=\mathsf{hard}) = 0.25$$
 $P(W=\mathsf{hard}|D=\mathsf{disfluent}) = 0.57$ $P(W=\mathsf{hard}|D=\mathsf{disfluent},A=\mathsf{distracted}) = 0.40$

Knowing that the speaker was distracted (A) decreased the probability that the speaker was about to utter a hard word (W)—A explained D away.

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- ► Knowing that the speaker was distracted (A) decreased the probability that the speaker was about to utter a hard word (W)—A explained D away.
- ▶ A caveat: the type of relationship among *A*, *W*, and *D* will depend on the values one finds in the probability table!

$$P(W)$$

 $P(A)$
 $P(D|W,A)$

Summary thus far

Key points:

- Bayes' Rule is a compelling framework for modeling inference under uncertainty
- DAGs/Bayes Nets are a broad class of models for specifying joint probability distributions with conditional independencies
- ► Classic Bayes Net references: Pearl (1988, 2000); Jordan (1998); Russell and Norvig (2003, Chapter 14); Bishop (2006, Chapter 8).

$$P(W = hard | D = disfluent, A = distracted)$$

hard W=hard easy W=easy disfl D=disfluent distr A=distracted undistr A=undistracted

$$P(\mathsf{hard}|\mathsf{disfl},\mathsf{distr}) = \frac{P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard},\mathsf{distr})P(\mathsf{hard}|\mathsf{distr})}{P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{distr})}$$

$$= \frac{P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard},\mathsf{distr})P(\mathsf{hard})}{P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{distr})}$$

$$P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{distr}) = \sum_{w'} P(\mathsf{disfl}|W = w')P(W = w')$$

$$= P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard})P(\mathsf{hard}) + P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{easy})P(\mathsf{easy})$$

$$= 0.6 \times 0.25 + 0.3 \times 0.75$$

$$= 0.375$$

$$P(\mathsf{hard}|\mathsf{disfl},\mathsf{distr}) = \frac{0.6 \times 0.25}{0.375}$$

$$= 0.4$$

(Bayes' Rule)

(Independence from the DAG)

 $\big(\mathsf{Marginalization}\big)$

$$P(W = hard | D = disfluent)$$

$$\begin{split} P(\mathsf{hard}|\mathsf{disfl}) &= \frac{P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard})P(\mathsf{hard})}{P(\mathsf{disfl})} \\ P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard}) &= \sum_{a'} P(\mathsf{disfl}|A = a', \mathsf{hard})P(A = a'|\mathsf{hard}) \\ &= P(\mathsf{disfl}|A = \mathsf{distr}, \mathsf{hard})P(A = \mathsf{distr}|\mathsf{hard}) + P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{undistr}, \mathsf{hard})P(\mathsf{undistr}|\mathsf{hard}) \\ &= 0.6 \times 0.15 + 0.15 \times 0.85 \\ &= 0.2175 \\ P(\mathsf{disfl}) &= \sum_{w'} P(\mathsf{disfl}|W = w')P(W = w') \\ &= P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{hard})P(\mathsf{hard}) + P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{easy})P(\mathsf{easy}) \\ P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{easy}) &= \sum_{a'} P(\mathsf{disfl}|A = a', \mathsf{easy})P(A = a'|\mathsf{easy}) \\ &= P(\mathsf{disfl}|A = \mathsf{distr}, \mathsf{easy})P(A = \mathsf{distr}|\mathsf{easy}) + P(\mathsf{disfl}|\mathsf{undistr}, \mathsf{easy})P(\mathsf{undistr}|\mathsf{easy}) \\ &= 0.3 \times 0.15 + 0.01 \times 0.85 \\ &= 0.0535 \\ P(\mathsf{disfl}) &= 0.2175 \times 0.25 + 0.0535 \times 0.75 \\ &= 0.0945 \\ P(\mathsf{hard}|\mathsf{disfl}) &= \frac{0.2175 \times 0.25}{0.0945} \\ &= 0.575396825396825 \end{split}$$

(Baves' Rule)

Interventions

▶ Suppose we have a collection of random variables *V* that follow some joint probability distribution. We define an "intervention" operator that can be conditioned on in probabilistic queries (Pearl, 2009):

 $\mathsf{Do}(\cdot)$

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Interventions

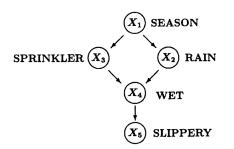
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- Intuitively, conditioning on Do(X = x), where X ⊆ V and x are values for X, means "intervening" exogeneously to the "system" constituted by V, to "set" the value(s) of X to x.
- ▶ In general, P(V|X) and P(V|Do(X = x)) will **NOT** be the same distribution. P(V|Do(X = x)), also notated as $P_x(V)$, is sometimes called an interventional distribution.

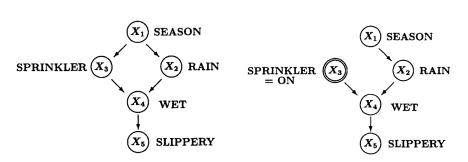
Causal Bayes Nets and interventions as "graph surgery"

▶ If *V* can be organized into a causal Bayes Net *G*, then the relationship between the base joint distribution (no interventions) and the set of interventional distributions can be characterized succinctly.



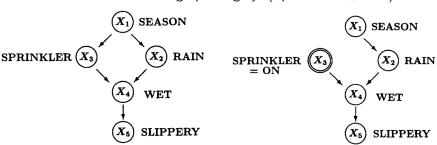
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- ▶ This is sometimes called "graph surgery" (Spirtes et al., 1993)





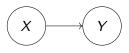
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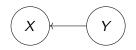


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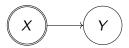


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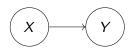


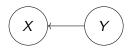
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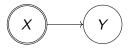








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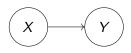


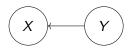


 $X = \mathsf{smoking}$

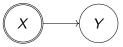
Y = lung cancer

► This is a simple instance of distinguishing association from causation





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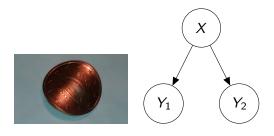




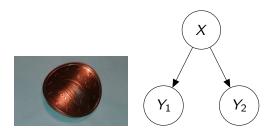
X =thermometer reading

Y = ambient temperature

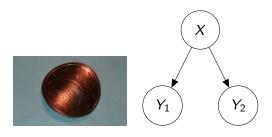
➤ This is a simple instance of distinguishing association from causation



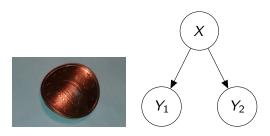
▶ Imagine a factory that produces three types of coins in equal volumes:



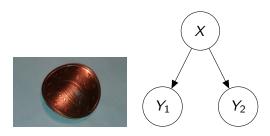
- Imagine a factory that produces three types of coins in equal volumes:
 - ► Fair coins;



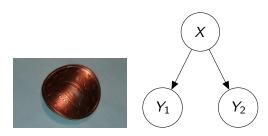
- Imagine a factory that produces three types of coins in equal volumes:
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 - ► A slightly **bent** coin that lands heads with ³/₅ probability;



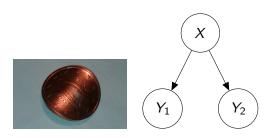
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 - ► The factory produces a coin of type *X* and sends it to you;
 - You receive the coin and flip it twice, with H(eads)/T(ails) outcomes Y_1 and Y_2

Predictive value \neq influence through intervention

Three types of coins in equal volumes:

- Fair coins;
- ▶ A slightly **bent** coin that lands heads with ³/₅ probability;
- ightharpoonup A slightly bent coin that lands tails with $m ^3/_5$ probability.



▶ The outcome of the first coin flip Y_1 has **predictive value** for the outcome of the second coin flip Y_2 , and vice versa

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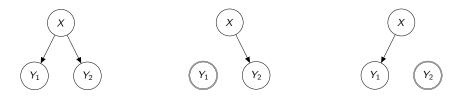


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- ▶ I could learn this association from observing pairs of flips of coins from the coin factory

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- ▶ The outcome of the first coin flip Y_1 has **predictive value** for the outcome of the second coin flip Y_2 , and vice versa
- ▶ I could learn this **association** from observing pairs of flips of coins from the coin factory
- But I cannot intervene on either variable to influence the other, because neither is causally upstream of the other!

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- ► Typically, organizing information this way will help ensure that our statistical inferences actually answer our scientific questions of interest
- ► Traditional statistical tools are associational, so we need this top-down machinery (here, the mind of the scientist!) to ensure that they're being deployed appropriately
- We must also stay cognizant of possible "unseen" latent causes, and that we may be uncertain about the true causal relationship among our observable variables

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