

# Probabilistic Causal Networks

# The Big Objective(s)

In a wide variety of application fields two main problems need to be addressed over and over:

1. **How can (expert) knowledge of complex domains be efficiently represented?**
2. **How can inferences be carried out within these representations?**
3. **How can such representations be (automatically) extracted from collected data?**

We will deal with all three questions during the lecture.

# Example 1: Planning in car manufacturing

Available information

- “Engine type  $e_1$  can only be combined with transmission  $t_2$  or  $t_5$ .”
- “Transmission  $t_5$  requires crankshaft  $c_2$ .”
- “Convertibles have the same set of radio options as SUVs.”

Possible questions/inferences:

- “Can a station wagon with engine  $e_4$  be equipped with tire set  $y_6$ ?”
- “Supplier  $S_8$  failed to deliver on time. What production line has to be modified and how?”
- “Are there any peculiarities within the set of cars that suffered an aircondition failure?”

## Example 2: Medical reasoning

Available information:

- “Malaria is much less likely than flu.”
- “Flu causes cough and fever.”
- “Nausea can indicate malaria as well as flu.”
- “Nausea never indicated pneumonia before.”

Possible questions/inferences

- “The patient has fever. How likely is he to have malaria?”
- “How much more likely does flu become if we can exclude malaria?”

# Common Problems

Both scenarios share some severe problems:

- **Large Data Space**

It is intractable to store all value combinations, i.e. all car part combinations or inter-disease dependencies.

(Example: VW Bora has  $10^{200}$  theoretical value combinations\*)

- **Sparse Data Space**

Even if we could handle such a space, it would be extremely sparse, i.e. it would be impossible to find good estimates for all the combinations.

(Example: with 100 diseases and 200 symptoms, there would be about  $10^{62}$  different scenarios for which we had to estimate the probability.\*)

\* The number of particles in the observable universe is estimated to be between  $10^{78}$  and  $10^{85}$ .

# Idea to Solve the Problems

- **Given:** A large (high-dimensional) distribution  $\delta$  representing the domain knowledge.
- **Desired:** A set of smaller (lower-dimensional) distributions  $\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_s\}$  (maybe overlapping) from which the original  $\delta$  *could* be reconstructed with no (or as few as possible) errors.
- With such a decomposition we can draw any conclusions from  $\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_s\}$  that could be inferred from  $\delta$  — without, however, actually reconstructing it.

# Example: Car Manufacturing

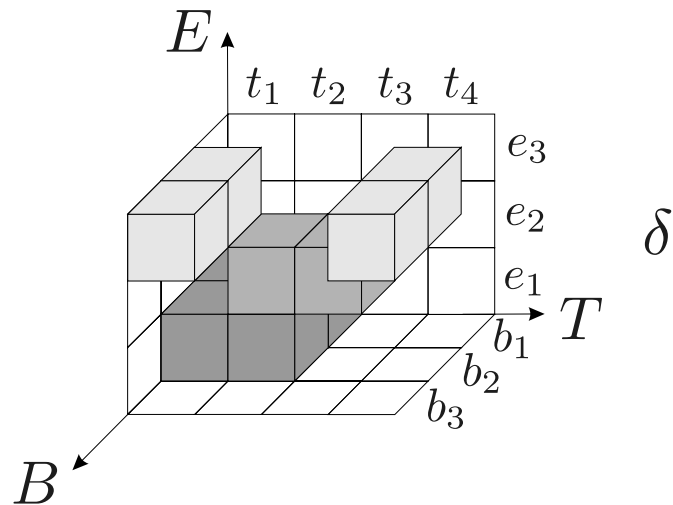
- Let us consider a car configuration is described by three attributes:
  - Engine  $E$ ,  $\text{dom}(E) = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$
  - Breaks  $B$ ,  $\text{dom}(B) = \{b_1, b_2, b_3\}$
  - Tires  $T$ ,  $\text{dom}(T) = \{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$
- Therefore the set of all (theoretically) possible car configurations is:

$$\Omega = \text{dom}(E) \times \text{dom}(B) \times \text{dom}(T)$$

- Since not all combinations are technically possible (or wanted by marketing) a set of rules is used to cancel out invalid combinations.

# Example: Car Manufacturing

Possible car configurations

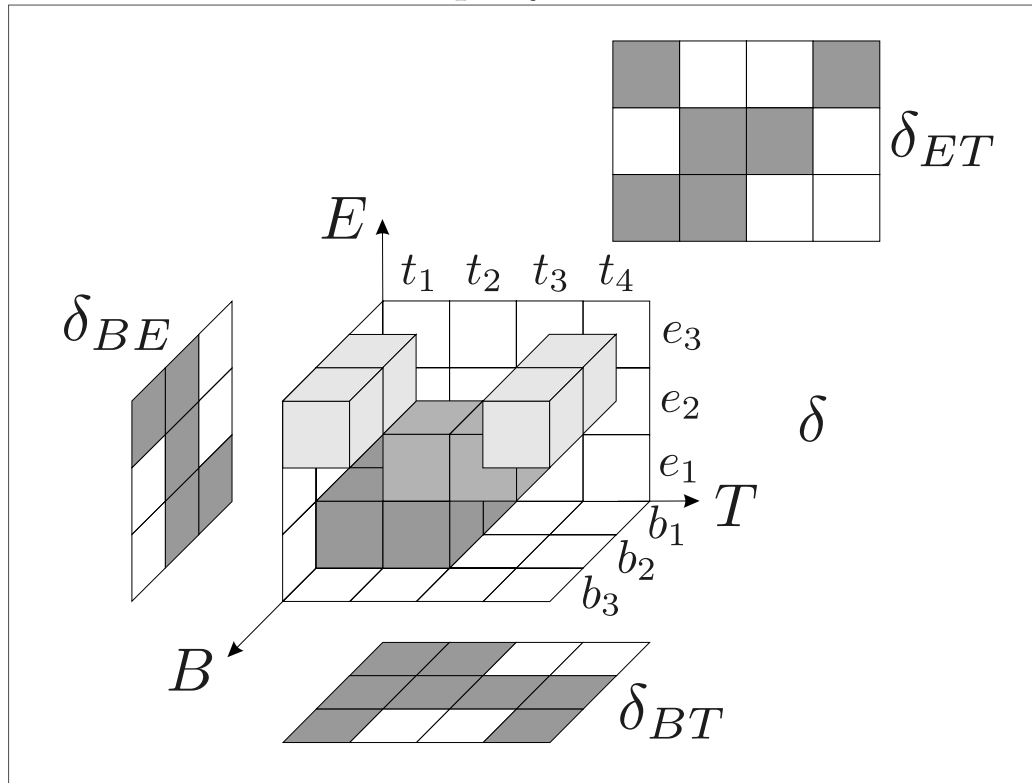


- Every cube designates a valid value combination.
- 10 car configurations in our model.
- Different colors are intended to distinguish the cubes only.



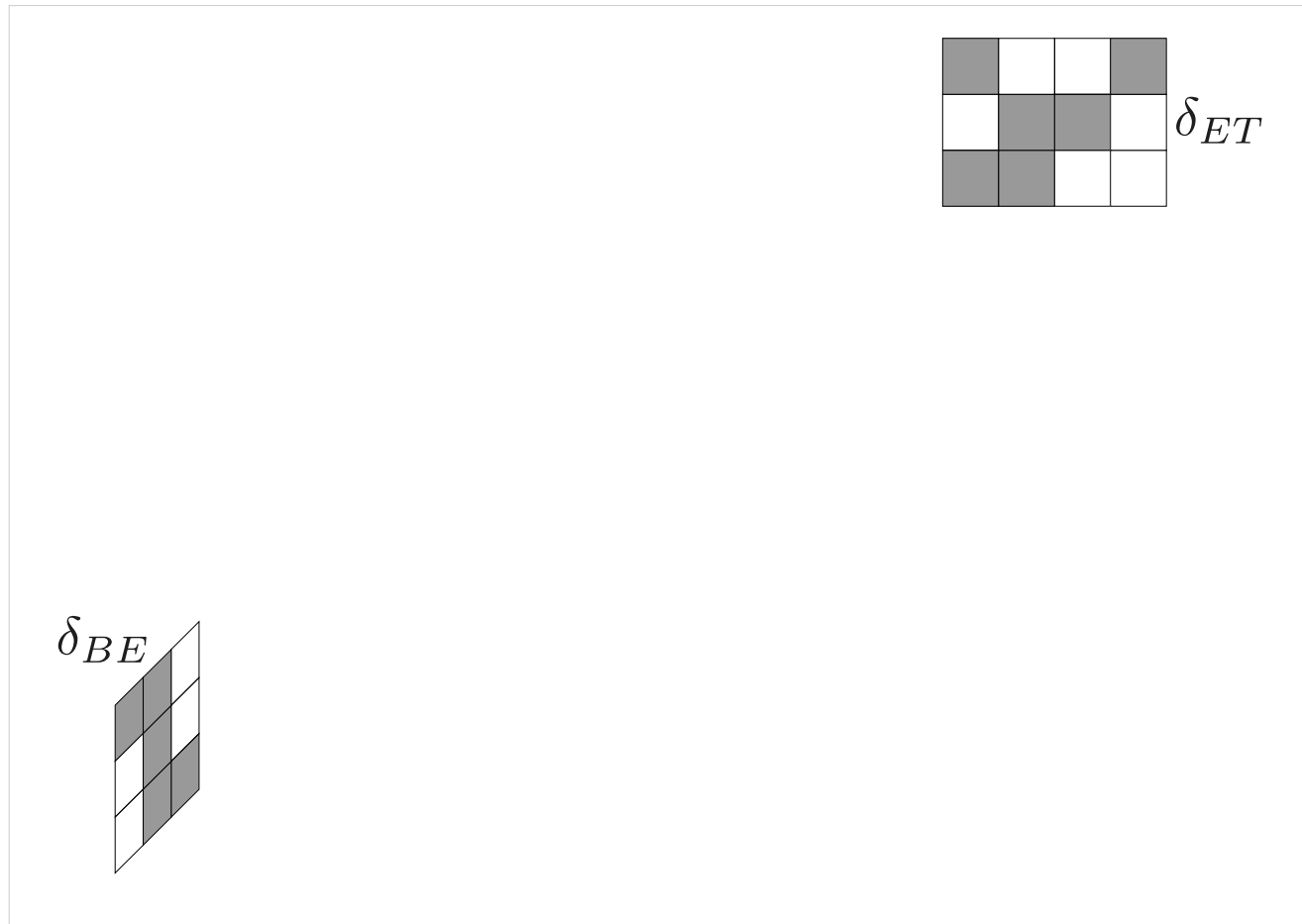
# Example

2-D projections

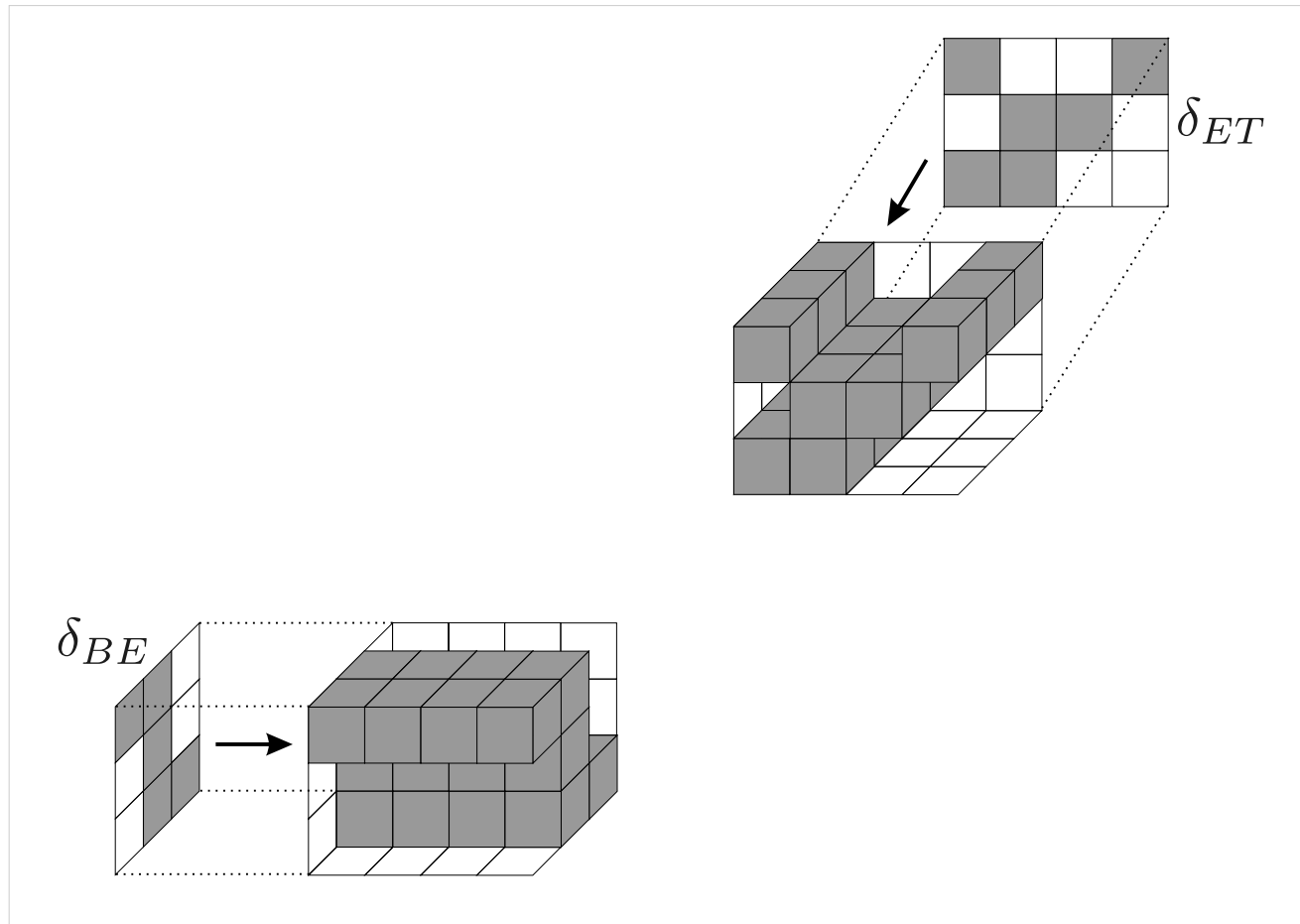


- Is it possible to reconstruct  $\delta$  from the  $\delta_i$ ?

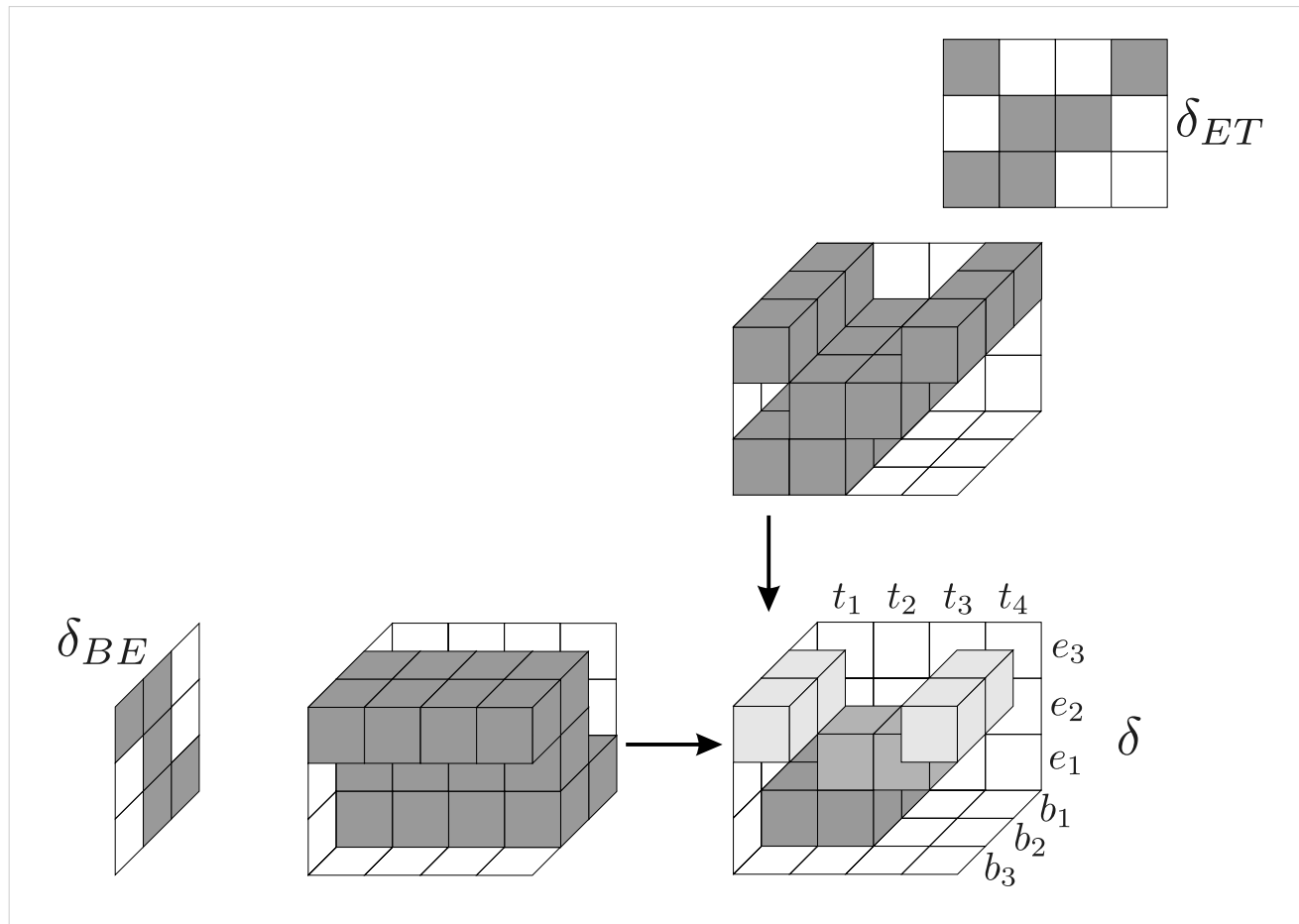
# Example: Reconstruction of $\delta$ with $\delta_{BE}$ and $\delta_{ET}$



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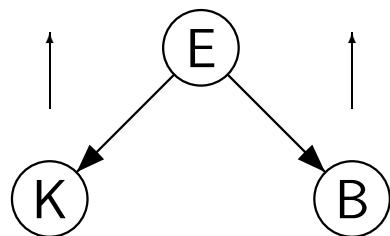


# Example: Reconstruction of $\delta$ with $\delta_{BE}$ and $\delta_{ET}$



## Example — Qualitative Aspects

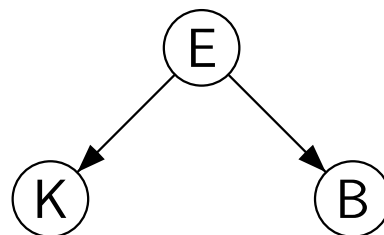
- Lecture theatre in winter: Waiting for Mr. **K** and Mr. **B**.  
Not clear whether there is ice on the roads.
- 3 variables:
  - **E** road condition:  $\text{dom}(\mathbf{E}) = \{\text{ice}, \neg\text{ice}\}$
  - **K** **K** had an accident:  $\text{dom}(\mathbf{K}) = \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$
  - **B** **B** had an accident:  $\text{dom}(\mathbf{B}) = \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$
- Ignorance about these states is modelled via the observer's belief.



- ↓ **E** influences **K** and **B**  
(the more ice the more accidents)
- ↑ Knowledge about accident increases belief in ice

# Example

A priori knowledge	Evidence	Inferences
$E$ unknown	$B$ has accident	$\Rightarrow E = \text{ice}$ more likely $\Rightarrow K$ has accident more likely
$E = \neg \text{ice}$	$B$ has accident	$\Rightarrow$ no change in belief about $E$ $\Rightarrow$ no change in belief about accident of $K$
$E$ unknown		$K$ and $B$ dependent
$E$ known		$K$ and $B$ independent



# Causal Dependence vs. Reasoning

Rule:  $A$  entails  $B$  with certainty  $x$ :  $\boxed{A \xrightarrow{x} B}$

- **Deduction** ( $\rightarrow$ ):  
 $A$  and  $A \xrightarrow{x} B$ , therefore  $B$  more likely as effect (causality)
- **Abduction** ( $\leftarrow$ ):  
 $B$  and  $A \xrightarrow{x} B$ , therefore  $A$  more likely as cause (no causality)

For this reason, the notion “dependency model” is to be preferred to “causal network”.

# Objective

Is it possible to exploit local constraints (wherever they may come from — both structural and expert knowledge-based) in a way that allows for a decomposition of the large (intractable) distribution  $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  into several sub-structures  $\{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$  such that:

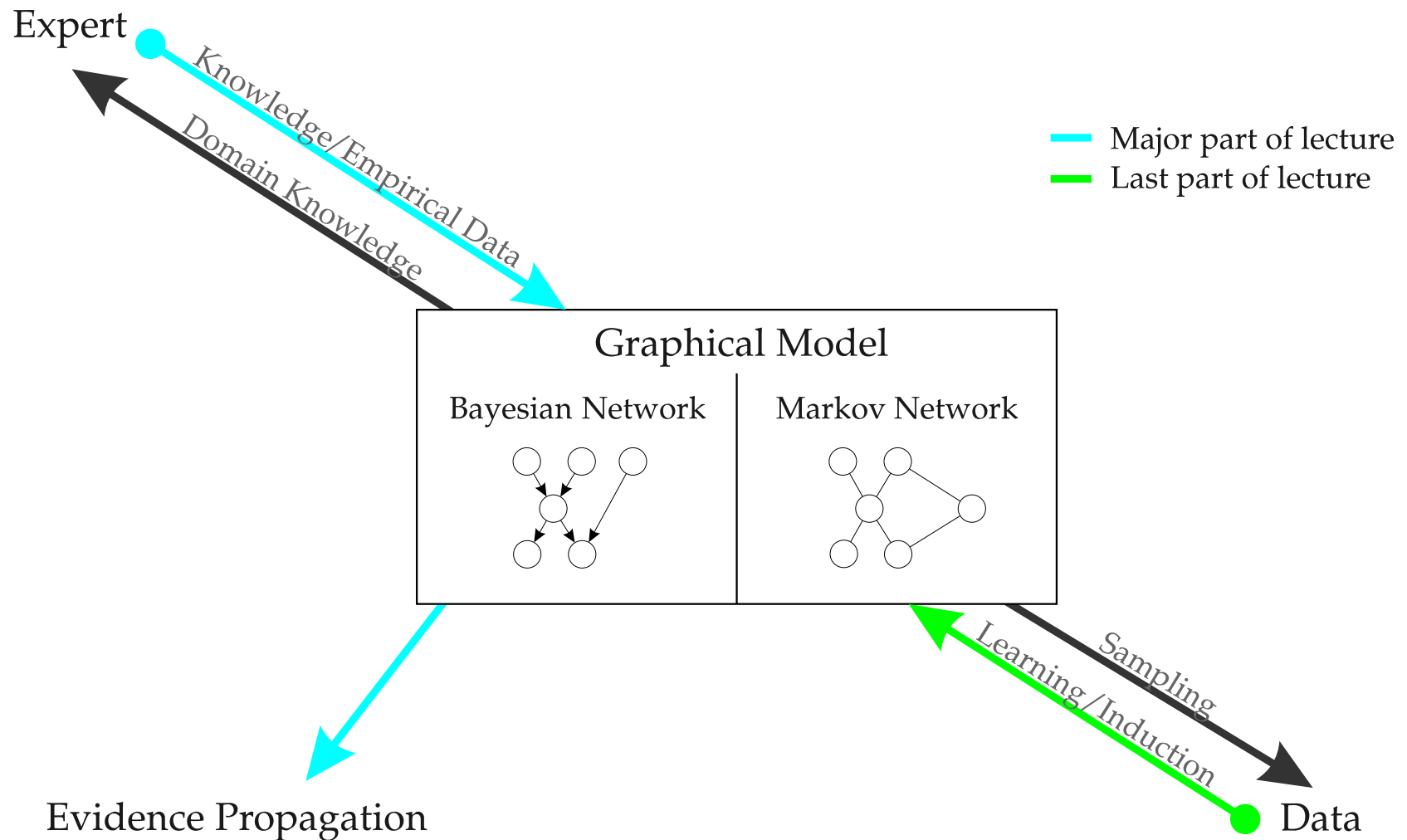
- The collective size of those sub-structures is much smaller than that of the original distribution  $P$ .
- The original distribution  $P$  is recomposable (with no or at least as few as possible errors) from these sub-structures in the following way:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^m \Psi_i(c_i)$$

where  $c_i$  is an instantiation of  $C_i$  and  $\Psi_i(c_i) \in \mathbb{R}^+$  a *factor potential*.

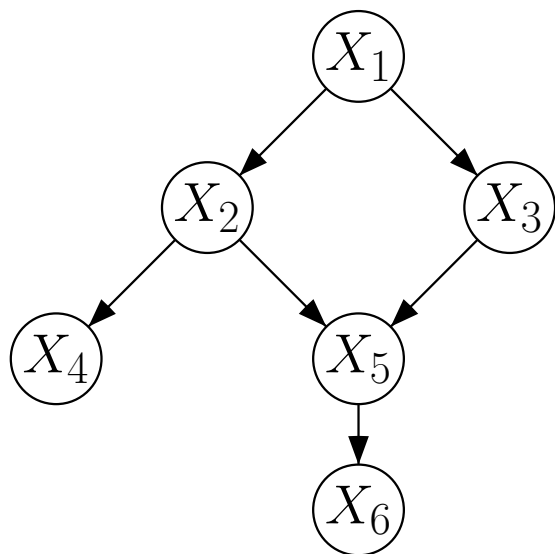


# The Big Picture / Lecture Roadmap



# Probabilistic Causal Networks

Probabilistic causal networks are directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) where the nodes represent propositions or variables and the directed edges model a direct causal dependence between the connected nodes. The strength of dependence is defined by conditional probabilities.

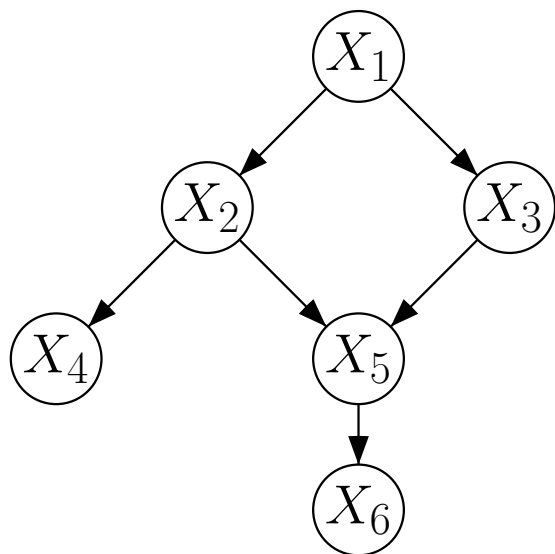


In general (according chain rule):

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, \dots, X_6) = & P(X_6 \mid X_5, \dots, X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_5 \mid X_4, \dots, X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_4 \mid X_3, X_2, X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_3 \mid X_2, X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_2 \mid X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_1) \end{aligned}$$

# Probabilistic Causal Networks

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According graph (independence structure):

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, \dots, X_6) = & P(X_6 \mid X_5) \cdot \\ & P(X_5 \mid X_2, X_3) \cdot \\ & P(X_4 \mid X_2) \cdot \\ & P(X_3 \mid X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_2 \mid X_1) \cdot \\ & P(X_1) \end{aligned}$$

# Formal Framework

Nomenclature for the next slides:

- $X_1, \dots, X_n$  Variables  
(properties, attributes, random variables, propositions)
- $\Omega_1, \dots, \Omega_n$  respective finite domains  
(also designated with  $\text{dom}(X_i)$ )
- $\Omega = \bigtimes_{i=1}^n \Omega_i$  Universe of Discourse (tuples that characterize objects described by  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ )
- $\Omega_i = \{x_i^{(1)}, \dots, x_i^{(n_i)}\}$   $n = 1, \dots, n, n_i \in \mathbb{N}$

- Let  $\Omega^*$  be the real universe of objects under consideration (e.g. population of people, collection of cars, customer transactions, etc.). Then the random vector  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  *describes* each element  $\omega^* \in \Omega^*$  in terms of the universe of discourse  $\Omega$ :

$$\vec{X} : \Omega^* \rightarrow \Omega \quad \text{with} \quad \vec{X}(\omega^*) = (X_1(\omega^*), \dots, X_n(\omega^*))$$

- If  $(\Omega^*, \mathcal{E}, Q)$  is an intrinsic probability space acting in the background, then it induces — in combination with  $\vec{X}$  — a probability measure  $P$  over  $\Omega$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \forall (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \Omega : \\ P(\{(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}) &= P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n) \\ &= Q(\{\omega^* \in \Omega^* \mid \bigwedge_{i=1}^n X_i = x_i\}) \end{aligned}$$

# Formal Framework

- The product space  $(\Omega, 2^\Omega, P)$  is unique iff  $P(\{(x_1, \dots, x_n)\})$  is specified for all  $x_i \in \{x_i^{(1)}, \dots, x_i^{(n_i)}\}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ .
- When the distribution  $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is given in tabular form, then  $\prod_{i=1}^n |\Omega_i|$  entries are necessary.
- For variables with  $|\Omega_i| \geq 2$  at least  $2^n$  entries.
- The application of DAGs allows for the representation of existing (in)dependencies.

# Constructing a DAG

**input**  $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$

**output** a unique DAG  $G$

- 1: Set the nodes of  $G$  to  $\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ .
- 2: Choose a total ordering on the set of variables  
(e. g.  $X_1 \prec X_2 \prec \dots \prec X_n$ )
- 3: For  $X_i$  find the smallest (uniquely determinable) set  $S_i \subseteq \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$  such that  $P(X_i \mid S_i) = P(X_i \mid X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$ .
- 4: Connect all nodes in  $S_i$  with  $X_i$  and store  $P(X_i \mid S_i)$  as quantization of the dependencies for that node  $X_i$  (given its parents).
- 5: **return**  $G$

# Belief Network

- A *Belief Network*  $(V, E, P)$  consists of a set  $V = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$  of random variables and a set  $E$  of directed edges between the variables.
- Each variable has a finite set of mutual exclusive and collectively exhaustive states.
- The variables in combination with the edges form a directed, acyclic graph.
- Each variable with parent nodes  $B_1, \dots, B_m$  is assigned a potential table  $P(A \mid B_1, \dots, B_m)$ .
- Note, that the connections between the nodes not necessarily express a causal relationship.
- For every belief network, the following equation holds:

$$P(V) = \prod_{v \in V: P(c(v)) > 0} P(v \mid c(v))$$

with  $c(v)$  being the parent nodes of  $v$ .



# Example

- Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  be three blood groups and  $b_1, b_2, b_3$  three indications of a blood group test.

Variables:  $A$  (blood group)     $B$  (indication)

Domains:  $\Omega_A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$      $\Omega_B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3\}$

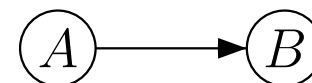
- It is conjectured that there is a causal relationship between the variables.
- $A$  and  $B$  constitute random variables w.r.t.  $(\Omega^*, \mathcal{E}, Q)$ .

$$\Omega = \Omega_A \times \Omega_B \quad A : \Omega^* \rightarrow \Omega_A, \quad B : \Omega^* \rightarrow \Omega_B$$

- $A, B$  and  $(\Omega^*, \mathcal{E}, Q)$  induce the probability space  $(\Omega, 2^\Omega, P)$  with

$$P(\{(a, b)\}) = Q(\{\omega^* \in \Omega^* \mid A(\omega^*) = a \wedge B(\omega^*) = b\}) :$$

$P(\{(a_i, b_j)\})$	$b_1$	$b_2$	$b_3$	$\Sigma$
$a_1$	0.64	0.08	0.08	0.8
$a_2$	0.01	0.08	0.01	0.1
$a_3$	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.1
$\Sigma$	0.66	0.17	0.17	1



$$P(A, B) = P(B \mid A) \cdot P(A)$$

We are dealing with a belief network.

# Example

## Choice of universe of discourse

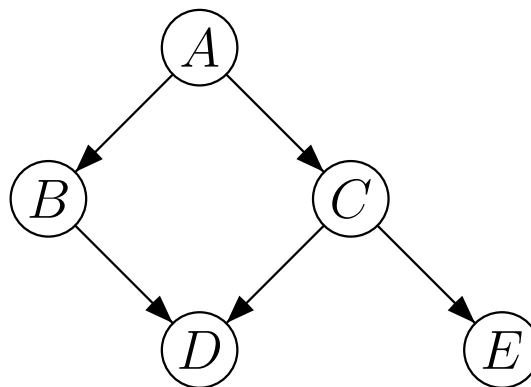
	Variable	Domain
$A$	metastatic cancer	$\{a_1, a_2\}$
$B$	increased serum calcium	$\{b_1, b_2\}$
$C$	brain tumor	$\{c_1, c_2\}$
$D$	coma	$\{d_1, d_2\}$
$E$	headache	$\{e_1, e_2\}$

( $\cdot_1$  — present,  $\cdot_2$  — absent)

$$\Omega = \{a_1, a_2\} \times \cdots \times \{e_1, e_2\}$$

$$|\Omega| = 32$$

## Analysis of dependencies



# Example

## Choice of probability parameters

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P(a, b, c, d, e) & \stackrel{\text{abbr.}}{=} & P(A = a, B = b, C = c, D = d, E = e) \\ & & = P(e \mid c)P(d \mid b, c)P(c \mid a)P(b \mid a)P(a) \\ & \uparrow & \\ & \text{Shorthand notation} & \end{array}$$

- 11 values to store instead of 31
- Consult experts, textbooks, case studies, surveys, etc.

## Calculation of conditional probabilities

## Calculation of marginal probabilities

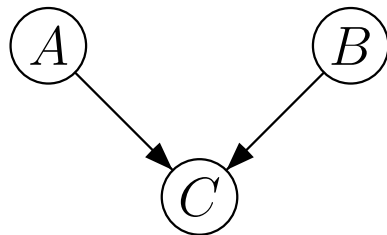
# Crux of the Matter

- Knowledge acquisition (Where do the numbers come from?)  
→ learning strategies
- Computational complexities  
→ exploit independencies

## Problem:

- When does the independency of  $X$  and  $Y$  given  $Z$  hold in  $(V, E, P)$ ?
- How can we determine  $P(X, Y \mid Z) = P(X \mid Z)P(Y \mid Z)$  solely using the graph structure?

## Converging Connection



Meal quality

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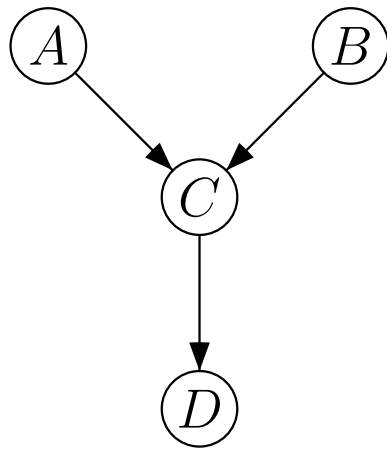
$A$  quality of ingredients

$B$  cook's skill

$C$  meal quality

- If  $C$  is not instantiated (i. e., no value specified/observed),  $A$  and  $B$  are marginally independent.
- After instantiation (observation) of  $C$  the variables  $A$  and  $B$  become conditionally dependent given  $C$ .
- Evidence can only be transferred over a converging connection if the variable in between (or one of its successors) is initialized.

## Converging Connection (cont.)



Meal quality

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$A$  quality of ingredients

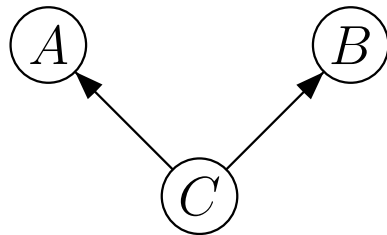
$B$  cook's skill

$C$  meal quality

$D$  restaurant success

- If nothing is known about the restaurant success or meal quality or both, the cook's skills and quality of the ingredients are unrelated, that is, *independent*.
- However, if we observe that the restaurant has no success, we can infer that the meal quality might be bad.
- If we further learn that the ingredients quality is high, we will conclude that the cook's skills must be low, thus rendering both variables *dependent*.

## Diverging Connection



Diagnosis

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$A$  body temperature

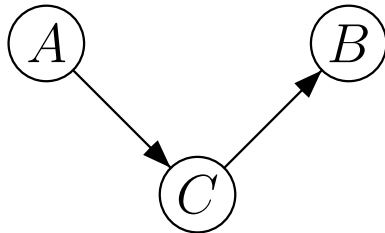
$B$  cough

$C$  disease

- If  $C$  is unknown, knowledge about  $A$  is relevant for  $B$  and vice versa, i. e.  $A$  and  $B$  are marginally dependent.
- However, if  $C$  is observed,  $A$  and  $B$  become conditionally independent given  $C$ .
- $A$  influences  $B$  via  $C$ . If  $C$  is known it in a way blocks the information from flowing from  $A$  to  $B$ , thus rendering  $A$  and  $B$  (conditionally) independent.

# Dependencies

## Serial Connection



### Accidents

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$A$	rain
$B$	accident risk
$C$	road conditions

- Analog scenario to case 2
- $A$  influences  $C$  and  $C$  influences  $B$ . Thus,  $A$  influences  $B$ .  
If  $C$  is known, it blocks the path between  $A$  and  $B$ .



## Converging Connection: Marginal Independence

- Decomposition according to graph:

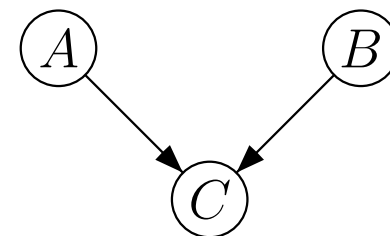
$$P(A, B, C) = P(C \mid A, B) \cdot P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

- Embedded Independence:

$$P(A, B, C) = \frac{P(A, B, C)}{P(A, B)} \cdot P(A) \cdot P(B) \quad \text{with } P(A, B) \neq 0$$

$$P(A, B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$$\Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid \emptyset$$



## Diverging Connection: Conditional Independence

- Decomposition according to graph:

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

- Embedded Independence:

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

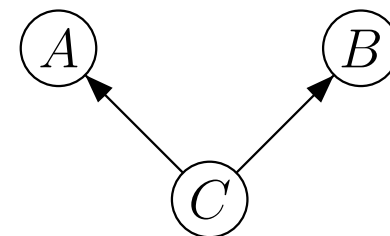
$$\Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp B | C$$

- Alternative derivation:

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

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

$$\Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp B | C$$



## Serial Connection: Conditional Independence

- Decomposition according to graph:

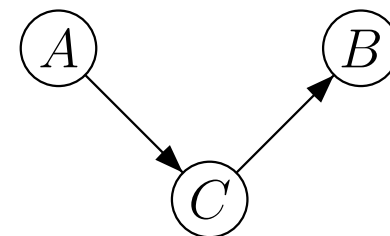
$$P(A, B, C) = P(B \mid C) \cdot P(C \mid A) \cdot P(A)$$

- Embedded Independence:

$$P(A, B, C) = P(B \mid C) \cdot P(C, A)$$

$$P(B \mid C, A) = P(B \mid C)$$

$$\Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid C$$



# Formal Representation

## Trivial Cases:

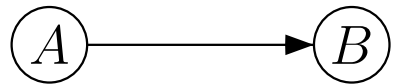
- Marginal Independence:

$\textcircled{A}$

$\textcircled{B}$

$$P(A, B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

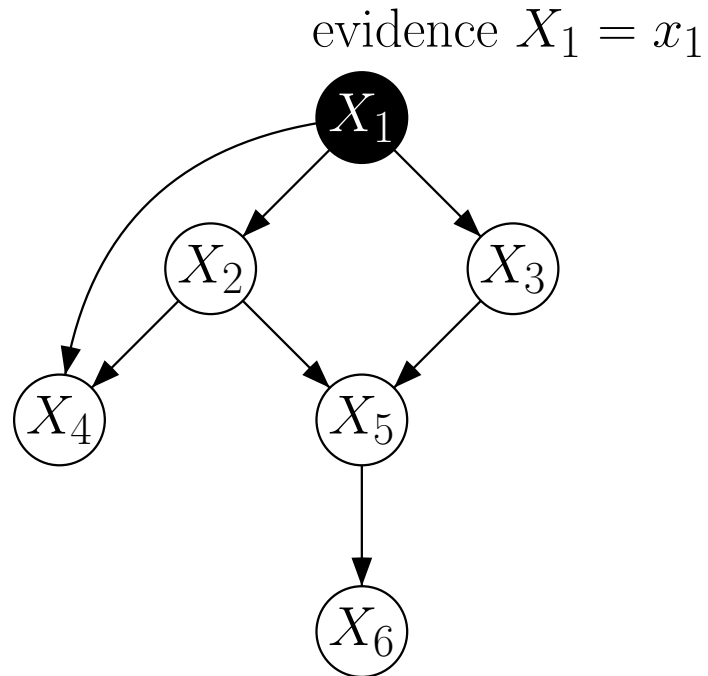
- Marginal Dependence:



$$P(A, B) = P(B \mid A) \cdot P(A)$$

# Question

**Question:** Are  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  independent given  $X_1$ ?



# d-Separation

Let  $G = (V, E)$  a DAG and  $X, Y, Z \in V$  three nodes.

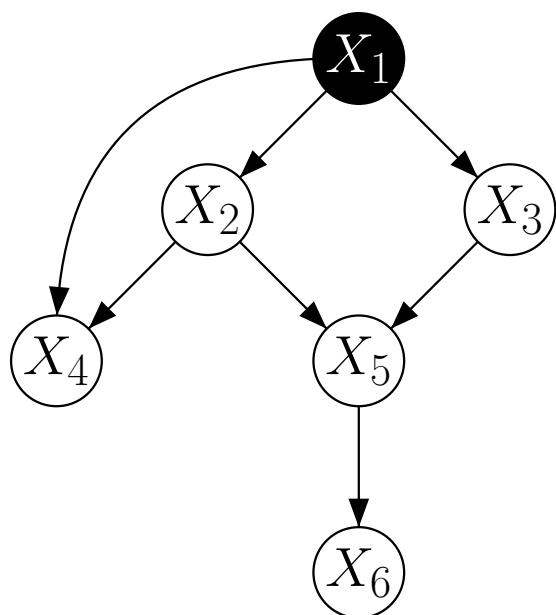
- a) A set  $S \subseteq V \setminus \{X, Y\}$  *d-separates*  $X$  and  $Y$ , if  $S$  blocks all paths between  $X$  and  $Y$ . (paths may also route in opposite edge direction)
- b) A path  $\pi$  is d-separated by  $S$  if at least one pair of consecutive edges along  $\pi$  is blocked. There are the following blocking conditions:
  - 1.  $X \leftarrow Y \rightarrow Z$       tail-to-tail
  - 2.  $X \leftarrow Y \leftarrow Z$       head-to-tail  
 $X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow Z$
  - 3.  $X \rightarrow Y \leftarrow Z$       head-to-head
- c) Two edges that meet tail-to-tail or head-to-tail in node  $Y$  are blocked if  $Y \in S$ .
- d) Two edges meeting head-to-head in  $Y$  are blocked if neither  $Y$  nor its successors are in  $S$ .

# Relation to Conditional independence

If  $S \subseteq V \setminus \{X, Y\}$  d-separates  $X$  and  $Y$  in a Belief network  $(V, E, P)$  then  $X$  and  $Y$  are conditionally independent given  $S$ :

$$P(X, Y \mid S) = P(X \mid S) \cdot P(Y \mid S)$$

Application to the previous example:



Paths:  $\pi_1 = \langle X_2 - X_1 - X_3 \rangle$ ,  $\pi_2 = \langle X_2 - X_5 - X_3 \rangle$   
 $\pi_3 = \langle X_2 - X_4 - X_1 - X_3 \rangle$ ,  $S = \{X_1\}$

$\pi_1$   $X_2 \leftarrow X_1 \rightarrow X_3$  tail-to-tail  
 $X_1 \in S \Rightarrow \pi_1$  is blocked by  $S$

$\pi_2$   $X_2 \rightarrow X_5 \leftarrow X_3$  head-to-head  
 $X_5, X_6 \notin S \Rightarrow \pi_2$  is blocked by  $S$

$\pi_3$   $X_4 \leftarrow X_1 \rightarrow X_3$  tail-to-tail  
 $X_2 \rightarrow X_4 \leftarrow X_1$  head-to-head  
both connections are blocked  $\Rightarrow \pi_3$  is blocked

## Example (cont.)

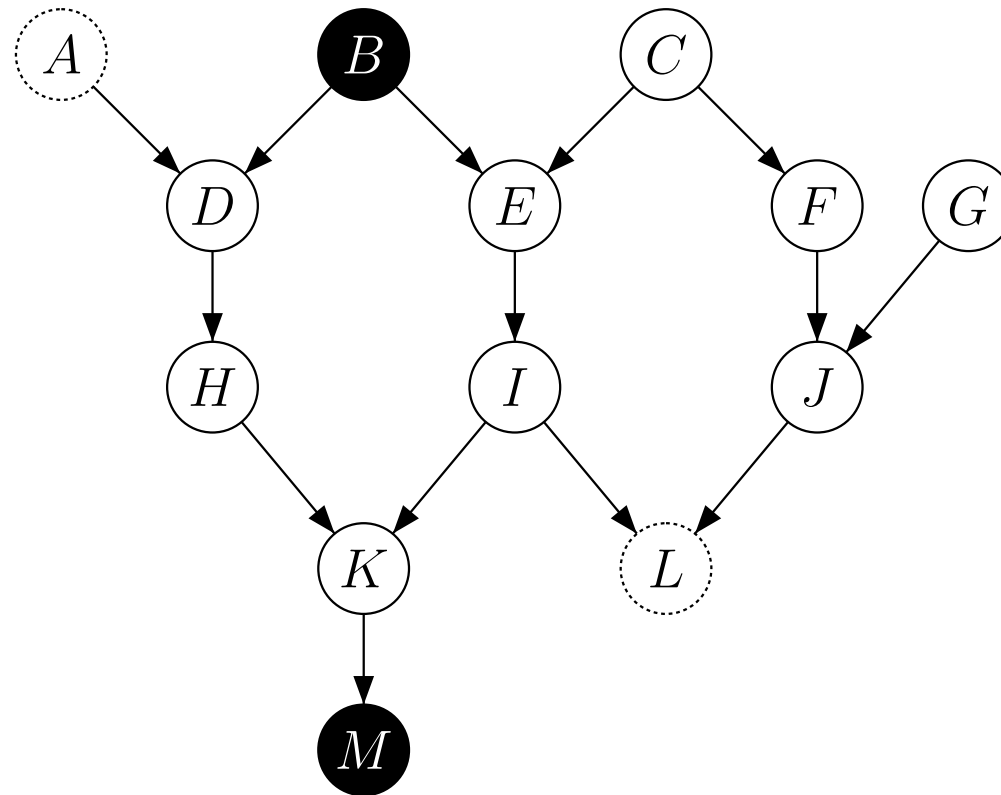
- Answer:  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  are d-separated via  $\{X_1\}$ . Therefore  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  become conditionally independent given  $X_1$ .

$S = \{X_1, X_4\} \Rightarrow X_2$  and  $X_3$  are d-separated by  $S$

$S = \{X_1, X_6\} \Rightarrow X_2$  and  $X_3$  are *not* d-separated by  $S$



## Another Example



Are  $A$  and  $L$  conditionally independent given  $\{B, M\}$ ?

# Algebraic structure of CI statements

**Question:** Is it possible to use a formal scheme to infer new conditional independence (CI) statements from a set of initial CIs?

## Repetition

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, P)$  be a probability space and  $W, X, Y, Z$  disjoint subsets of variables. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are conditionally independent given  $Z$  we write:

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z$$

Often, the following (equivalent) notation is used:

$$I_P(X \mid Z \mid Y) \quad \text{or} \quad I_P(X, Y \mid Z)$$

If the underlying space is known the index  $P$  is omitted.

# (Semi-)Graphoid-Axioms

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{E}, P)$  be a probability space and  $W, X, Y$  and  $Z$  four disjoint subsets of random variables (over  $\Omega$ ). Then the propositions

a) Symmetry:  $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z) \Rightarrow (Y \perp\!\!\!\perp_P X \mid Z)$

b) Decomposition:  $(W \cup X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z) \Rightarrow (W \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z) \wedge (X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z)$

c) Weak Union:  $(W \cup X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z) \Rightarrow (X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z \cup W)$

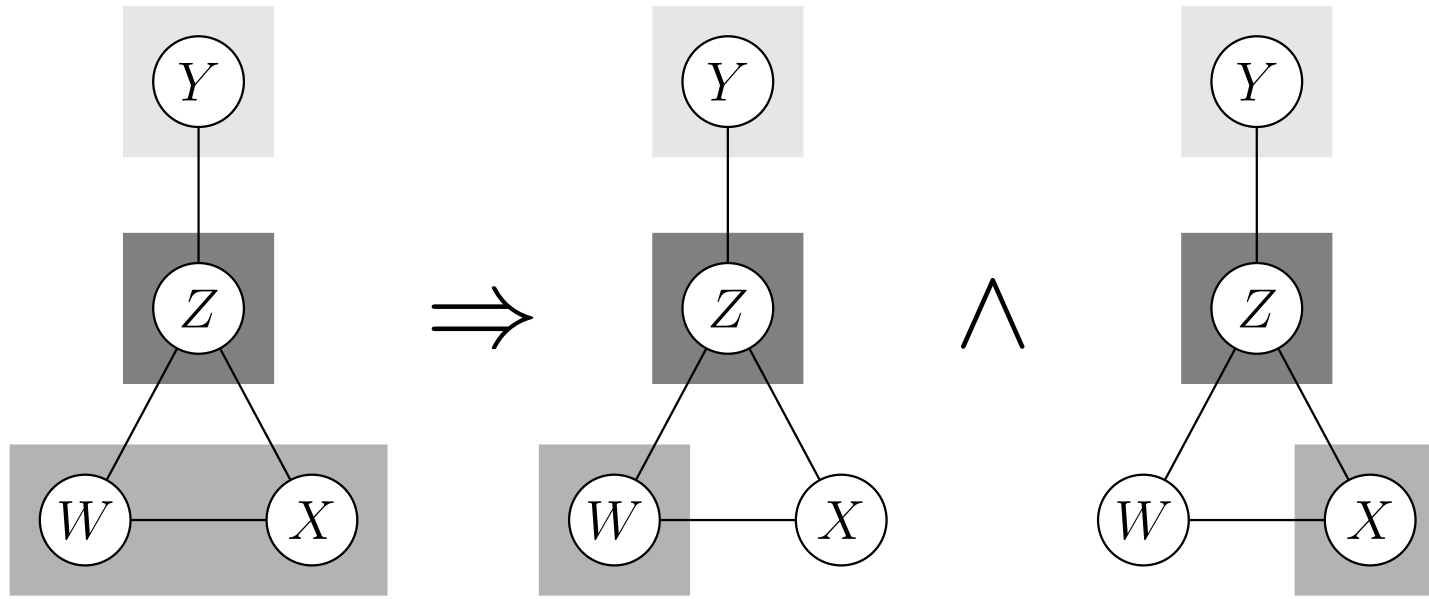
d) Contraction:  $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z \cup W) \wedge (W \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z) \Rightarrow (W \cup X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z)$

are called the **Semi-Graphoid Axioms**. The above propositions and

e) Intersection:  $(W \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z \cup X) \wedge (X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z \cup W) \Rightarrow (W \cup X \perp\!\!\!\perp_P Y \mid Z)$

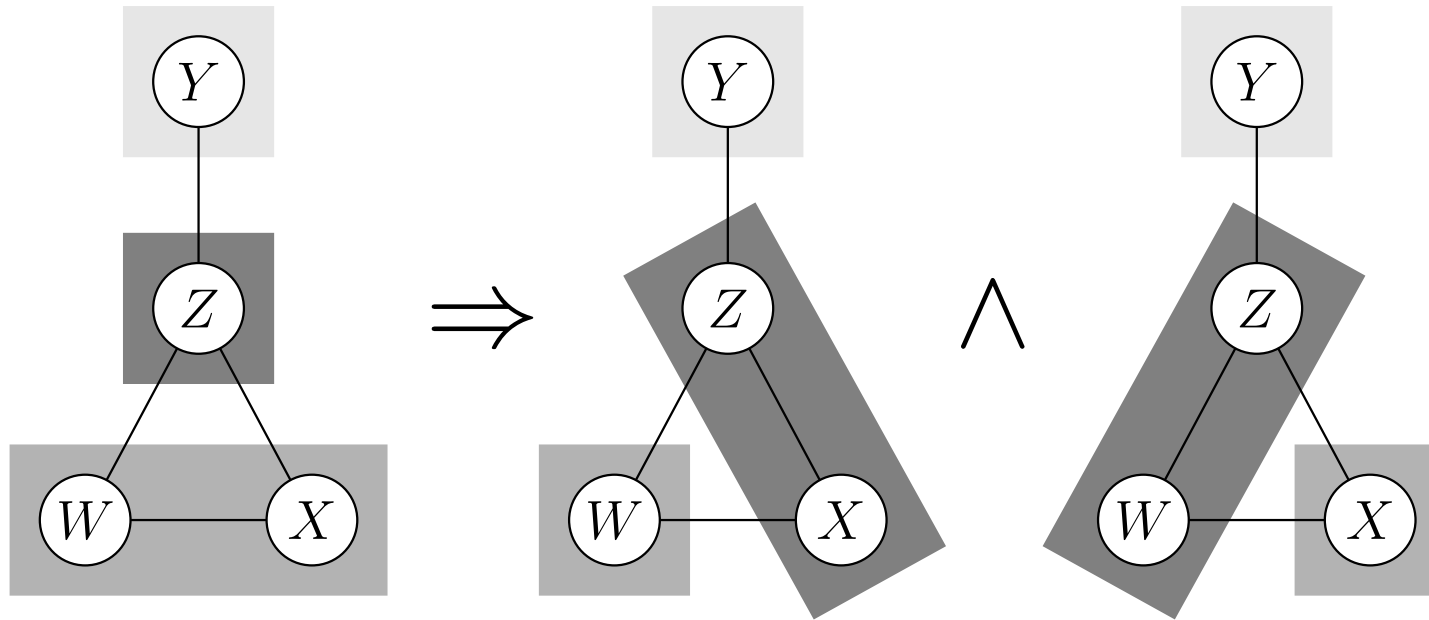
are called the **Graphoid Axioms**.

# Decomposition



Drawings adapted from [Castillo *et al.* 1997].

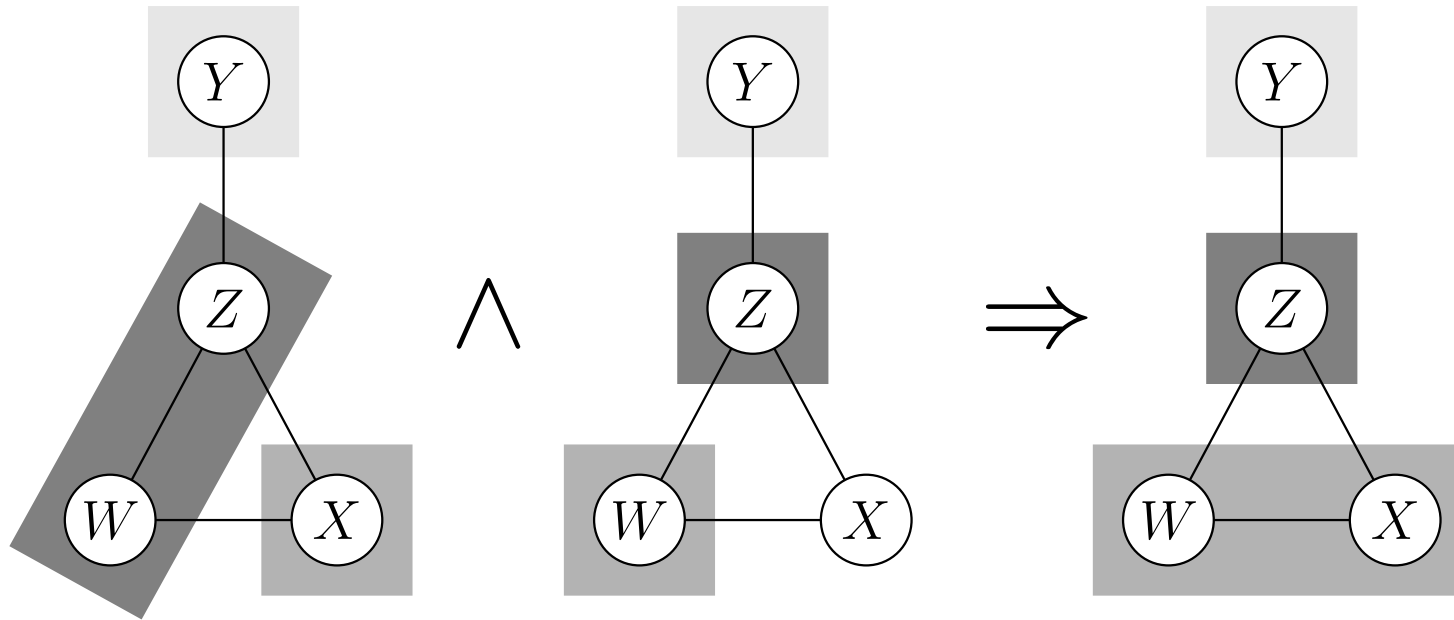
# Weak Union



Learning irrelevant information  $W$  cannot render irrelevant information  $X$  relevant.

Drawings adapted from [Castillo *et al.* 1997].

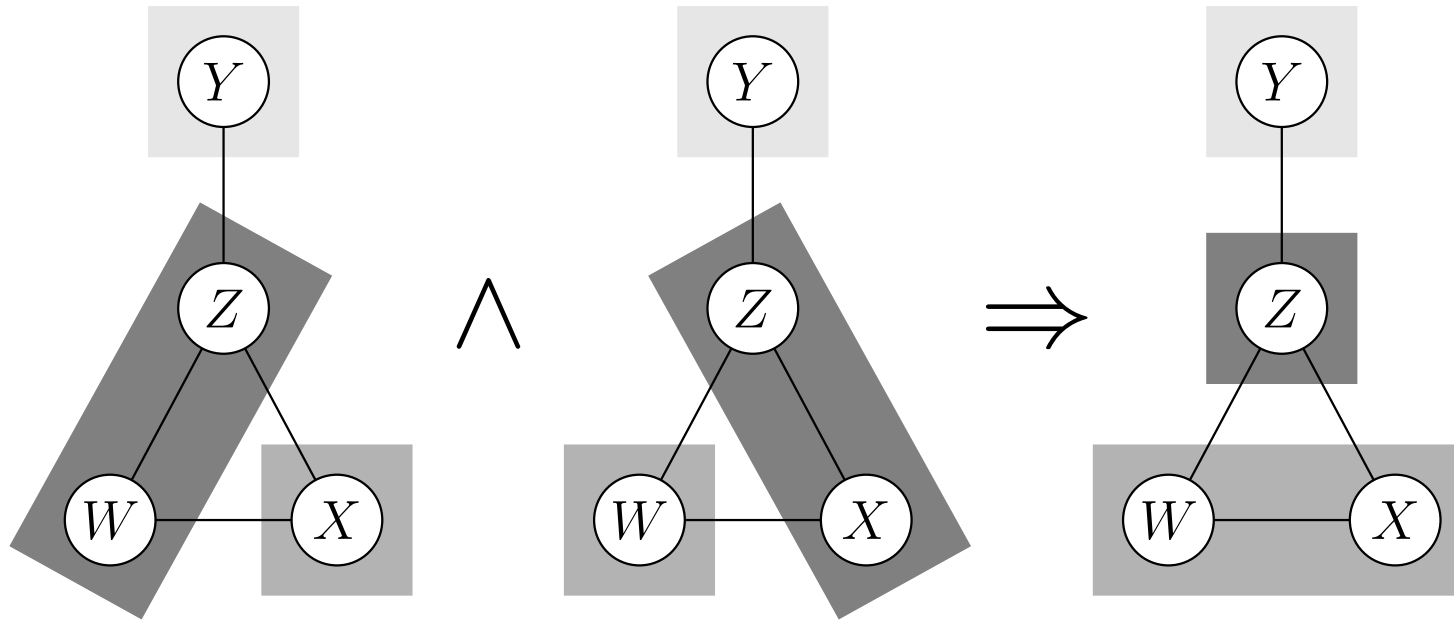
# Contraction



If  $X$  is irrelevant (to  $Y$ ) after having learnt some irrelevant information  $W$ , then  $X$  must have been irrelevant before.

Drawings adapted from [Castillo *et al.* 1997].

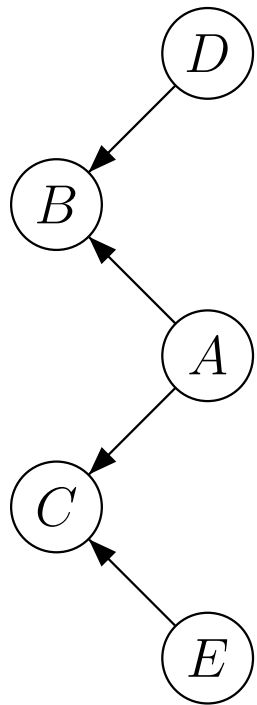
# Intersection



Unless  $W$  affects  $Y$  when  $X$  is known or  $X$  affects  $Y$  when  $W$  is known, neither  $X$  nor  $W$  nor their combination can affect  $Y$ .

Drawings adapted from [Castillo *et al.* 1997].

# Example



Proposition:  $B \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid A$

Proof:  $D \perp\!\!\!\perp A, C \mid \emptyset \quad \wedge \quad B \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid A, D$

w. union  $\implies D \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid A \quad \wedge \quad B \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid A, D$

symm.  $\iff C \perp\!\!\!\perp D \mid A \quad \wedge \quad C \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid A, D$

contr.  $\implies C \perp\!\!\!\perp B, D \mid A$

decomp.  $\implies C \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid A$

symm.  $\iff B \perp\!\!\!\perp C \mid A$



# Conditional (In)Dependence Graphs

**Definition:** Let  $(\cdot \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} \cdot \mid \cdot)$  be a three-place relation representing the set of conditional independence statements that hold in a given distribution  $\delta$  over a set  $U$  of attributes. An undirected graph  $G = (U, E)$  over  $U$  is called a **conditional dependence graph** or a **dependence map** w.r.t.  $\delta$ , iff for all disjoint subsets  $X, Y, Z \subseteq U$  of attributes

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} Y \mid Z \Rightarrow \langle X \mid Z \mid Y \rangle_G,$$

i. e., if  $G$  captures by  $u$ -separation all (conditional) independences that hold in  $\delta$  and thus represents only valid (conditional) dependences. Similarly,  $G$  is called a **conditional independence graph** or an **independence map** w.r.t.  $\delta$ , iff for all disjoint subsets  $X, Y, Z \subseteq U$  of attributes

$$\langle X \mid Z \mid Y \rangle_G \Rightarrow X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} Y \mid Z,$$

i. e., if  $G$  captures by  $u$ -separation only (conditional) independences that are valid in  $\delta$ .  $G$  is said to be a **perfect map** of the conditional (in)dependences in  $\delta$ , if it is both a dependence map and an independence map.

# Markov Properties of Undirected Graphs

**Definition:** An undirected graph  $G = (U, E)$  over a set  $U$  of attributes is said to have (w.r.t. a distribution  $\delta$ ) the

**pairwise Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any pair of attributes which are nonadjacent in the graph are conditionally independent given all remaining attributes, i.e., iff

$$\forall A, B \in U, A \neq B : (A, B) \notin E \Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} B \mid U - \{A, B\},$$

**local Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any attribute is conditionally independent of all remaining attributes given its neighbors, i.e., iff

$$\forall A \in U : A \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} U - \text{closure}(A) \mid \text{boundary}(A),$$

**global Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any two sets of attributes which are  $u$ -separated by a third are conditionally independent given the attributes in the third set, i.e., iff

$$\forall X, Y, Z \subseteq U : \langle X \mid Z \mid Y \rangle_G \Rightarrow X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} Y \mid Z.$$

# Markov Properties of Directed Acyclic Graphs

**Definition:** A directed acyclic graph  $\vec{G} = (U, \vec{E})$  over a set  $U$  of attributes is said to have (w.r.t. a distribution  $\delta$ ) the

**pairwise Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any attribute is conditionally independent of any non-descendant not among its parents given all remaining non-descendants, i.e., iff

$$\forall A, B \in U : B \in \text{non-descs}(A) - \text{parents}(A) \Rightarrow A \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} B \mid \text{non-descs}(A) - \{B\},$$

**local Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any attribute is conditionally independent of all remaining non-descendants given its parents, i.e., iff

$$\forall A \in U : A \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} \text{non-descs}(A) - \text{parents}(A) \mid \text{parents}(A),$$

**global Markov property,**

iff in  $\delta$  any two sets of attributes which are  $d$ -separated by a third are conditionally independent given the attributes in the third set, i.e., iff

$$\forall X, Y, Z \subseteq U : \langle X \mid Z \mid Y \rangle_{\vec{G}} \Rightarrow X \perp\!\!\!\perp_{\delta} Y \mid Z.$$