

Constraints on marginalized DAGs and their uses.

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Algebraic Statistics Workshop, NIMS
17th July 2014

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Conditional Independence and Algebraic Models
- 3 DAGs
- 4 Margins of DAG Models
- 5 Ordinary Markov Model
- 6 Verma Constraints
- 7 Results
- 8 Inequalities
- 9 Summary

Correlation does not imply causation

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How a short nap can raise the risk of diabetes: Study finds people who have a siesta are more likely to have high blood pressure and high cholesterol

- Napping for more than 30 minutes at a time can raise the risk of diabetes, according to a new study
- It can also increase likelihood of high blood pressure and high cholesterol

By [PAT HAGAN](#)

PUBLISHED: 01/04, 21 September 2013 | **UPDATED:** 10/34, 21 September 2013

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They were much favoured by Margaret Thatcher, Albert Einstein and Winston Churchill.

But while afternoon naps may revitalise tired brains, they can also increase the risk of diabetes, according to new research.

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Sleep Medicine

Volume 14, Issue 10, October 2013, Pages 950-954



Original Article

Longer habitual afternoon napping is associated with a higher risk for impaired fasting plasma glucose and diabetes mellitus in older adults: results from the Dongfeng-Tongji cohort of retired workers

Weimin Fang^{a, b}, Zhongliang Li^a, Li Wu^a, Zhongqiang Cao^a, Yuan Liang^{a, c}, Handong Yang^d, Youjie Wang^{a, b}, Tangchun Wu^a

^a Ministry of Education Key Laboratory of Environment and Health, School of Public Health, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, China

^b Department of Maternal and Child Health, School of Public Health, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, China

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^d Dongfeng General Hospital, Dongfeng Motor Corporation and Hubei University of Medicine, China

Abstract

Objectives

Afternoon napping is a common habit in China. We used data obtained from the Dongfeng-Tongji cohort to examine if duration of habitual afternoon napping was associated with risks for impaired fasting plasma glucose (IFG) and diabetes mellitus (DM) in a Chinese elderly population.

Methods

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“Dr Matthew Hobbs, head of research for Diabetes UK, said there was no proof that napping **actually caused** diabetes.”

But while afternoon naps may revitalise tired brains, the new research suggests that taking a siesta is associated with a higher risk of high blood pressure and cholesterol, according to new research.



ELSEVIER

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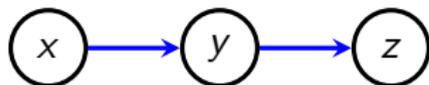
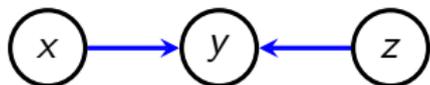
Methods

Distinguishing Between Causal Models

But can we still tell what causes what from observational data?

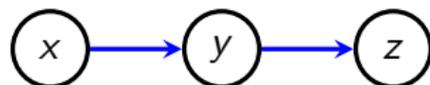
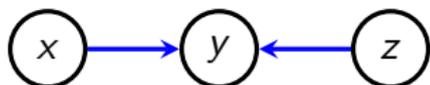
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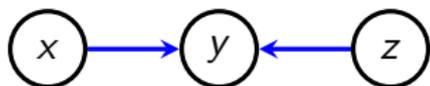


$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z$$

$$p(x, z) = p(x)p(z)$$

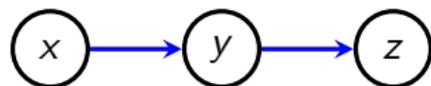
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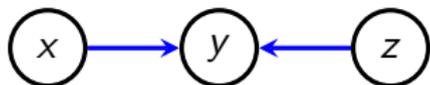


$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y$$

$$p(y)p(x, y, z) = p(x, y)p(y, z)$$

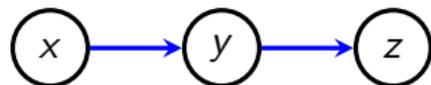
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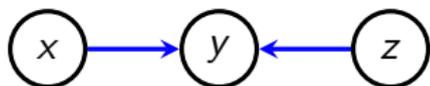
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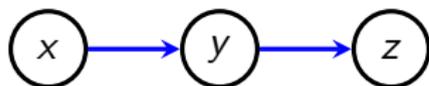
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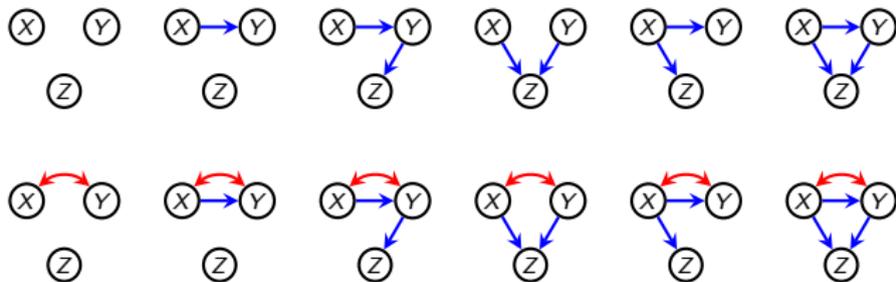
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Maybe!

In order to do this well, we need to understand in what ways causal models will be **observationally** different.

Structure Learning

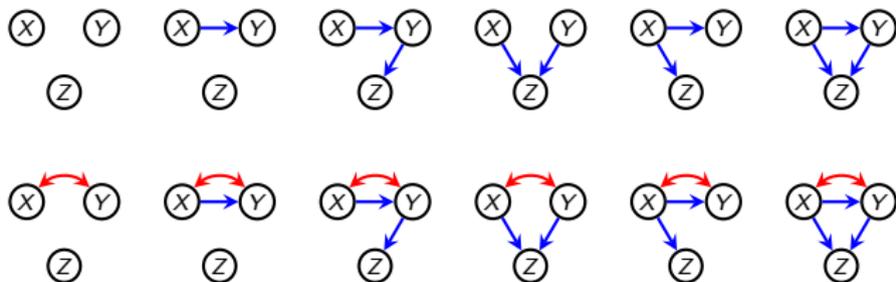
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...return list of models which are compatible with data.

Structure Learning

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...return list of models which are compatible with data.

We can do this by testing whether constraints implied by the model(s) are satisfied by P . e.g. PC, FCI algorithms.

To do this we need to know what the constraints are (the focus of this talk).

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Models for Contingency Tables

Take finite discrete random variables $X_V = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$.

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For $x_V = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, joint distribution is parameterized by

$$p(x_V) = p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n).$$

We can consider a statistical model defined by polynomial constraints in the indeterminates $p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. We always assume

$$\sum_{x_V} p(x_V) = 1, \quad p(x_V) > 0 \quad \forall x_V.$$

Margins

For $M \subseteq V$, the **marginal distribution** over X_M is

$$p(x_M) = \sum_{x_{V \setminus M}} p(x_V) = \sum_{x_{V \setminus M}} p(x_M, x_{V \setminus M}).$$

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A **conditional independence** statement $X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B | X_C$ assumes that $p(x_A | x_B, x_C) = p(x_A | x_C)$, or equivalently

$$p(x_A, x_B, x_C) \cdot p(x_C) - p(x_A, x_C) \cdot p(x_B, x_C) = 0$$

for all x_A, x_B, x_C .

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Directed Acyclic Graphs

vertices 

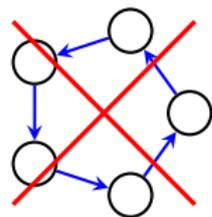
edges 

Directed Acyclic Graphs

vertices 

edges 

no directed cycles

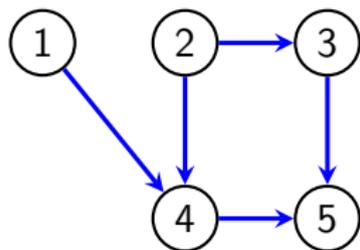
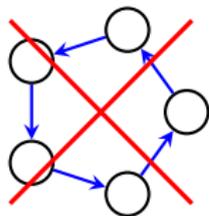


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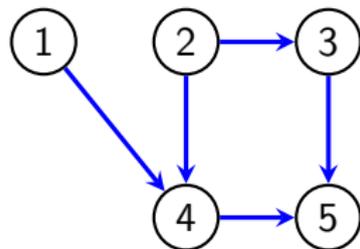
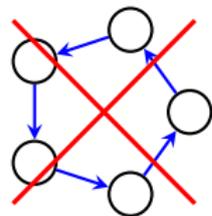
directed acyclic graph (DAG), \mathcal{G}

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directed acyclic graph (DAG), \mathcal{G}

If $w \rightarrow v$ then w is a **parent** of v : $\text{pa}_{\mathcal{G}}(4) = \{1, 2\}$.

If $w \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v$ then w is a **ancestor** of v : $\text{an}_{\mathcal{G}}(5) = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

An **ancestral set** contains all its own ancestors.

DAG Models

vertex



random variable

X_a

DAG Models

vertex

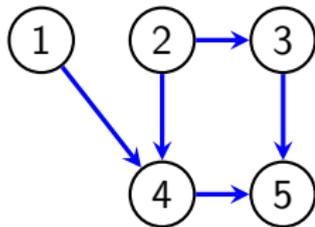


random variable

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graph \mathcal{G}



model \mathcal{M}

$\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G}) = \{P \text{ satisfying } (*)\}$



$$p(x_V) = \prod_{i \in V} p(x_i | x_{\text{pa}(i)}). \quad (*)$$

DAG Models

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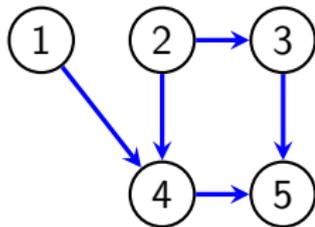


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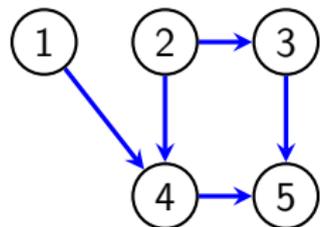
$$p(x_V) = \prod_{i \in V} p(x_i | x_{\text{pa}(i)}). \quad (*)$$

So in example above:

$$p(x_V) = p(x_1) \cdot p(x_2) \cdot p(x_3 | x_2) \cdot p(x_4 | x_1, x_2) \cdot p(x_5 | x_3, x_4)$$

Algebraic Models

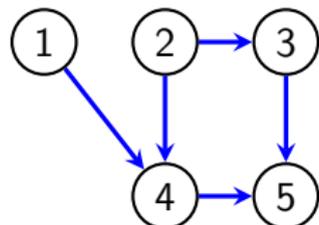
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pick an topological
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1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

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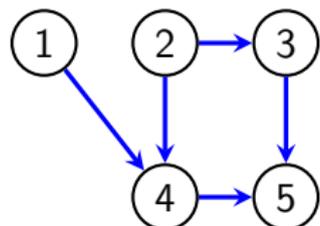
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Can *always* factorize a joint distribution as:

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So by identifying this with (*), see the model is the same as setting

$$p(x_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}) = p(x_i | x_{\text{pa}(i)}), \quad \text{for each } i.$$

Algebraic Models

Thus $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ is precisely distributions such that:

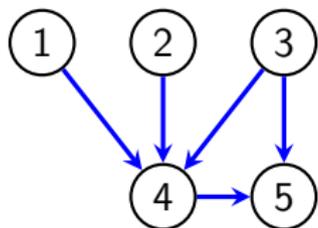
$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_{[i-1] \setminus \text{pa}(i)} \mid X_{\text{pa}(i)}, \quad i \in V.$$

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Example:



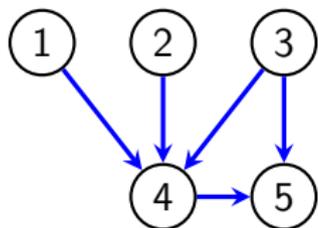
$$\begin{aligned} X_2 &\perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \\ X_3 &\perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \mid X_2 \\ X_4 &\perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 \mid X_1, X_2 \\ X_5 &\perp\!\!\!\perp X_1, X_2 \mid X_3, X_4. \end{aligned}$$

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So for discrete variables this is an algebraic model.

Structural Equation Model View

There is a second way to think about DAG models.

A distribution $P \in \mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ iff^a there exist functions f_i and independent variables E_i such that recursively setting

$$X_i = f_i(X_{\text{pa}(i)}, E_i)$$

gives X_V the distribution P .

^aThis only makes sense if P has a density.

Structural Equation Model View

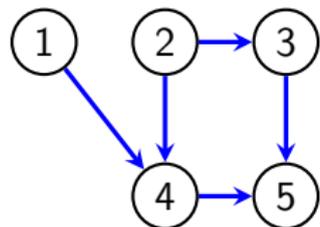
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$$X_1 = f_1(E_1)$$

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Reasons to Like DAG Models

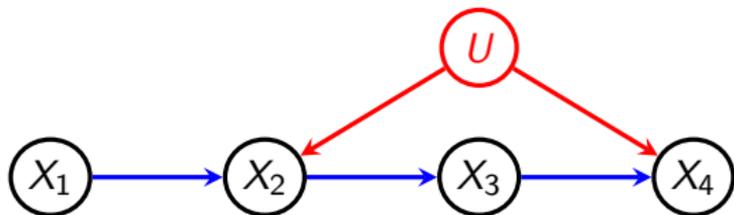
- Induced constraints are all conditional independences:
(reasonably) intuitive and simple to interpret;
- causal interpretation;
- modular structure is useful computationally and statistically;
- curved exponential families, known dimension;
- **algebraic model** for discrete variables.

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Marginalization

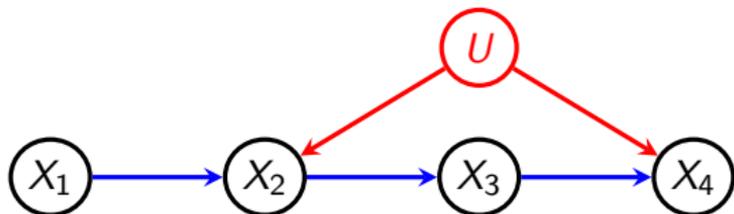
Sometimes we cannot observe all the variables. Consider:



with U unobserved.

Marginalization

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with U unobserved. This is a model defined (implicitly) by an integral:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \int p(u) p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1, u) p(x_3 | x_2) p(x_4 | x_3, u) du$$

We do **not** assume U is discrete, since we cannot observe it.

Marginalization

What we consider is **not** a latent variable model in the usual sense. **No state-space is assumed** for hidden variables (though uniform on $(0, 1)$ is sufficient).

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But:

- cannot directly test membership of the model;
- model is complicated (as we shall see);
- not even clear it is a (semi-)algebraic model.

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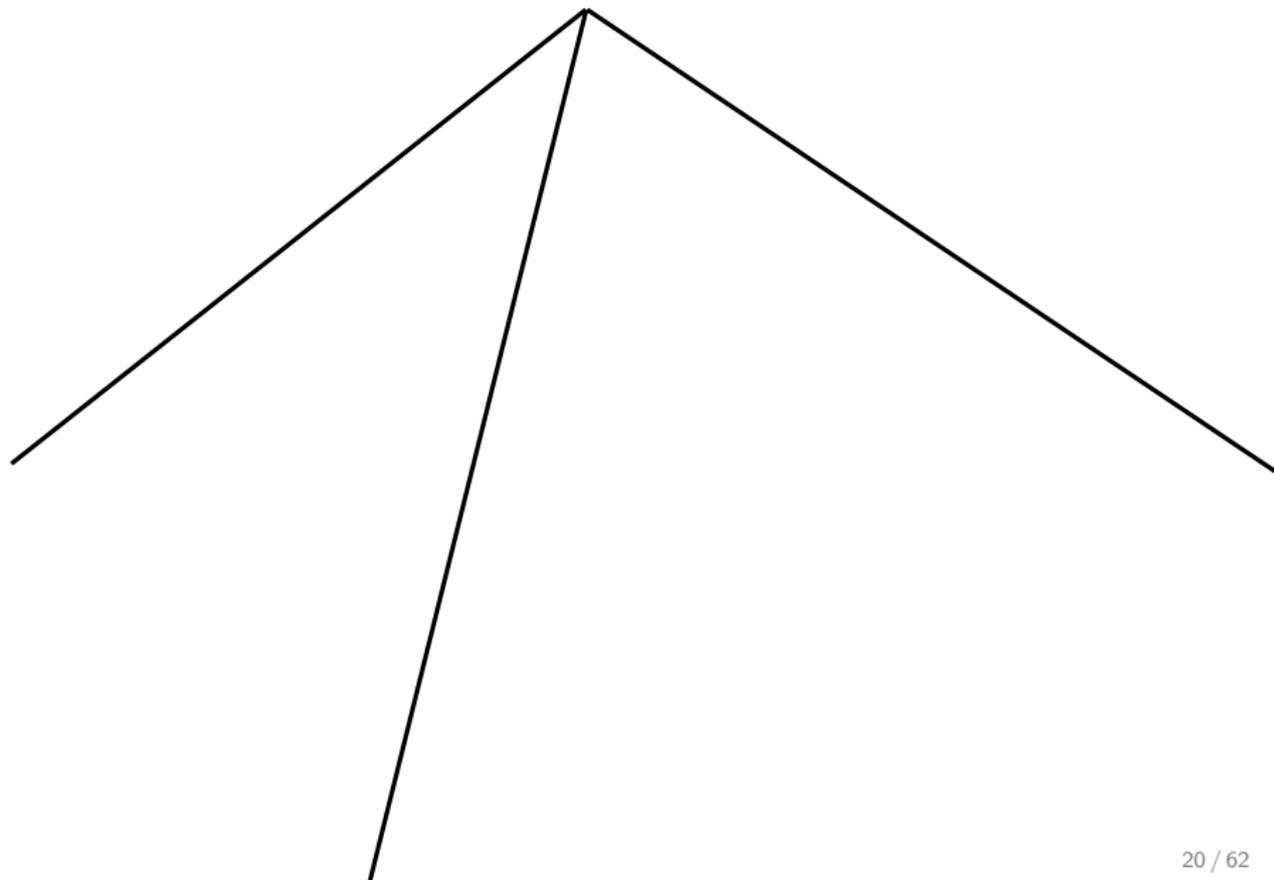
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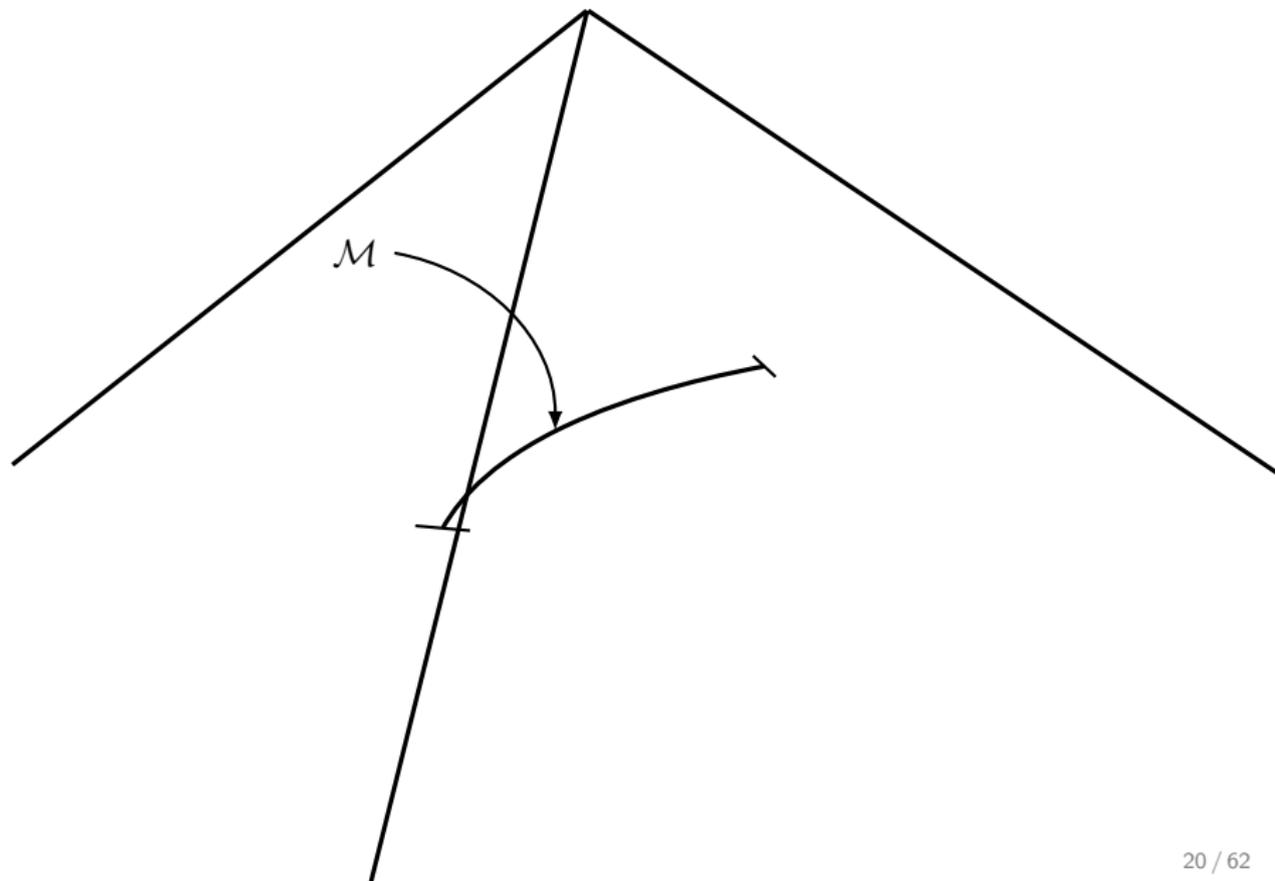
We aim to study the set of distributions constructed in this way.

Strategy: find some constraints satisfied by these models, define a new larger model using these constraints, and study that.

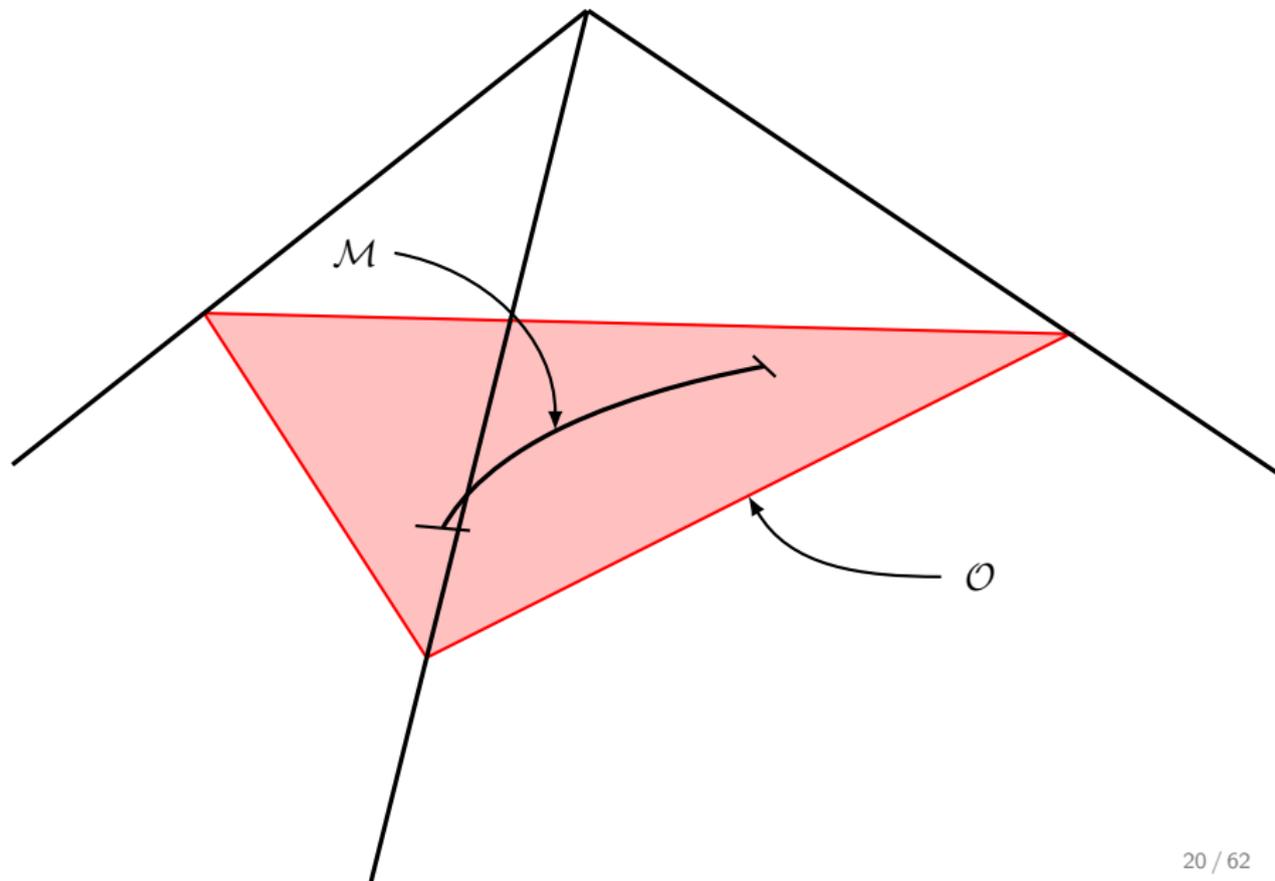
Getting the Picture



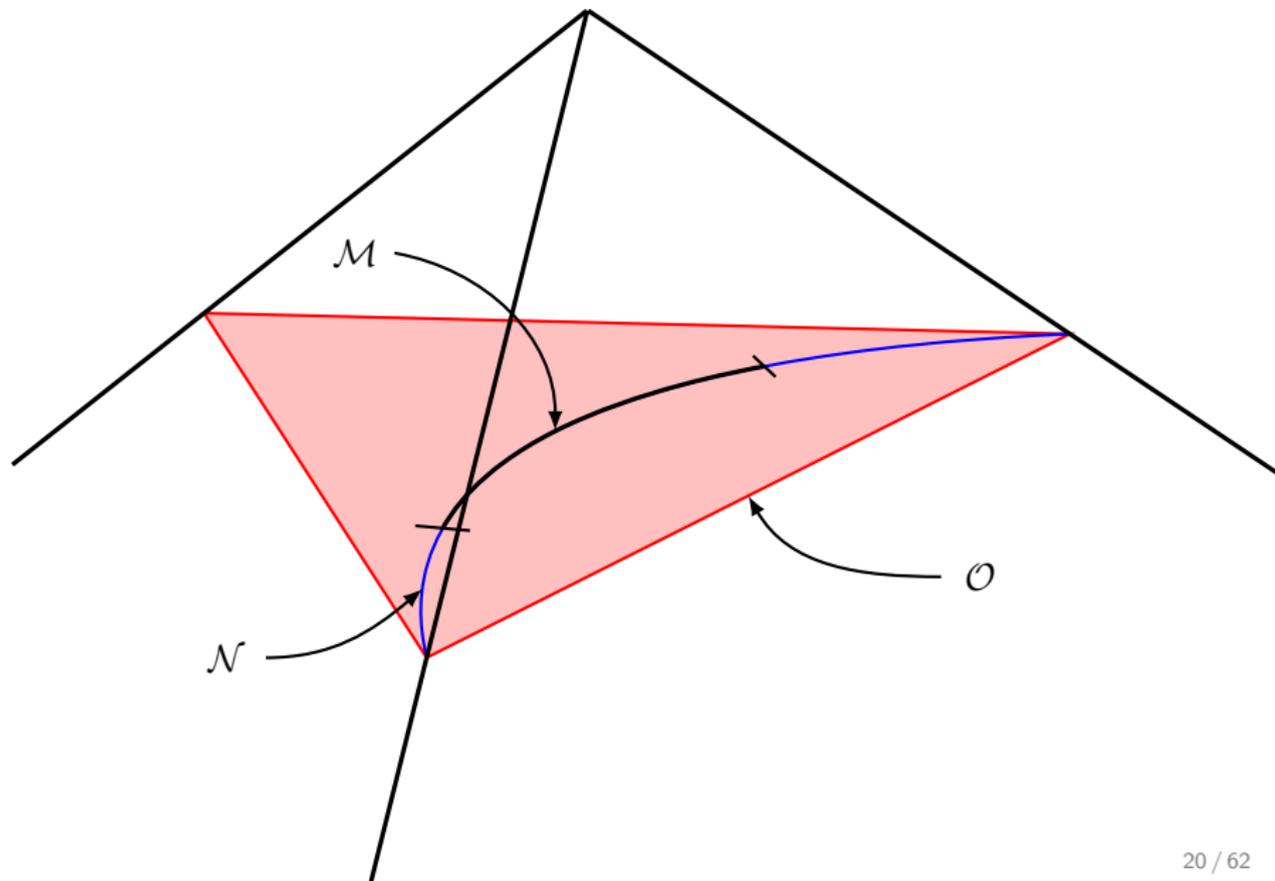
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Latent Variable Models

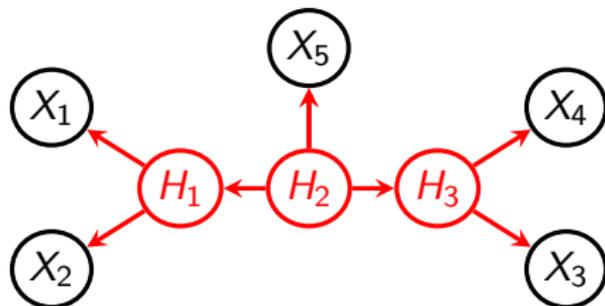
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Advantages: semi-algebraic model after eliminating variables is semi-algebraic, and can fit with (e.g.) EM algorithm.

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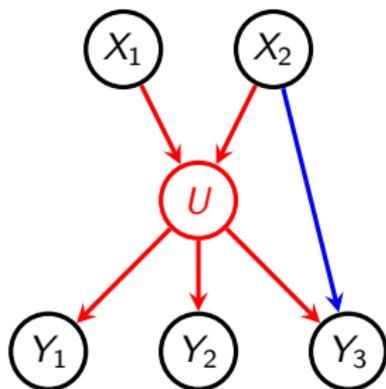
Advantages: semi-algebraic model after eliminating variables is semi-algebraic, and can fit with (e.g.) EM algorithm.



But: latent variables lead to singularities and nasty statistical properties (see e.g. Drton, Sturmfels and Sullivant, 2009)

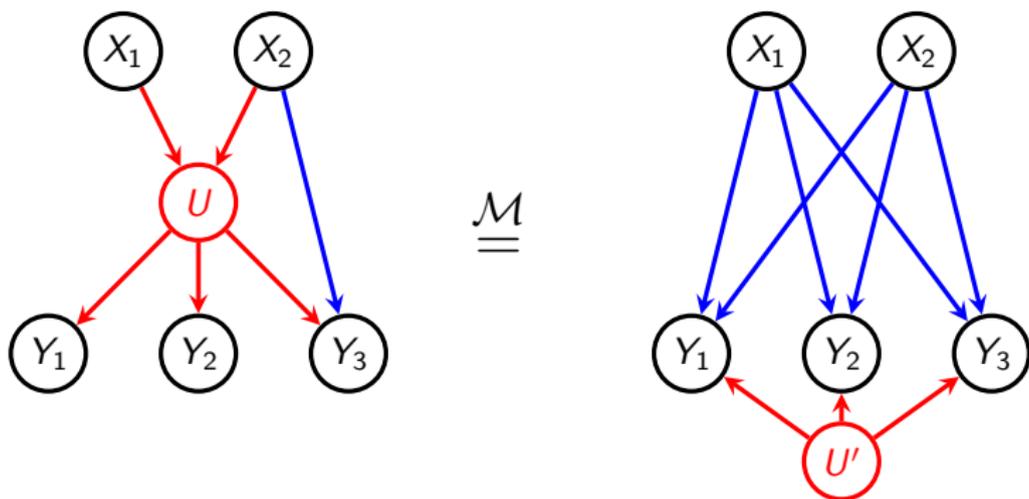
Simplifications

Simplification 1. WLOG latents vertices have no parents.



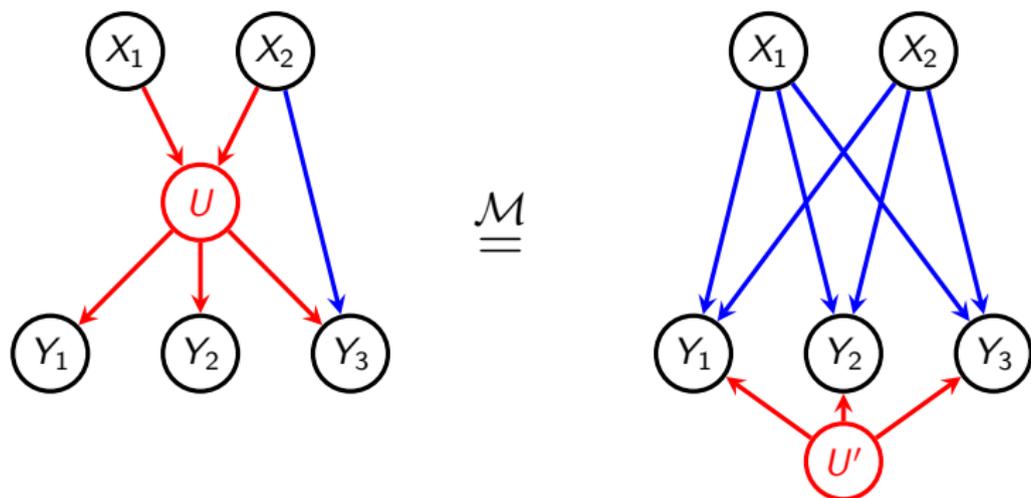
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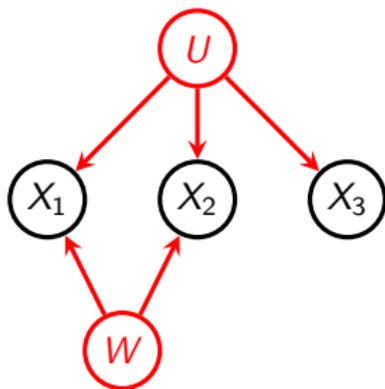
Simplification 1. WLOG latent vertices have no parents.



(Of course, this is not true if we assume a specific state-space: e.g. phylogenetic model)

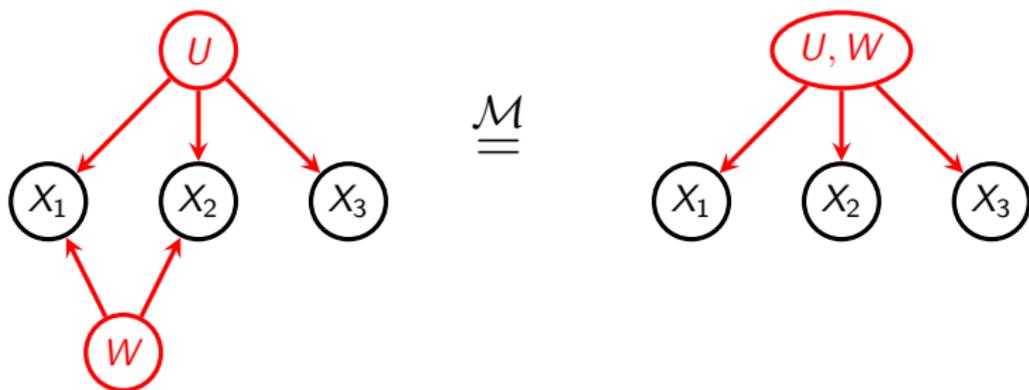
Simplifications

Simplification 2. If U, W are latent with $\text{ch}_G(W) \subseteq \text{ch}_G(U)$, then we don't need W .



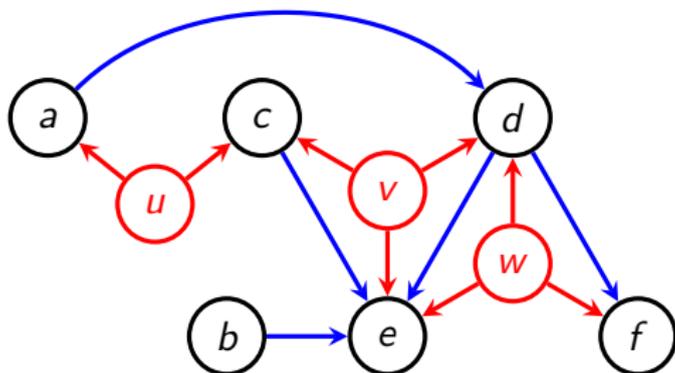
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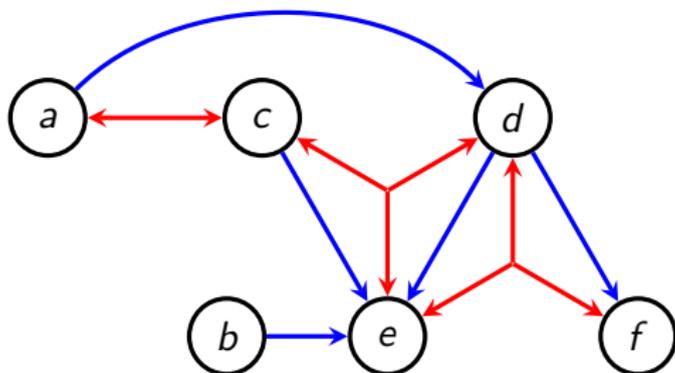
mDAGs

So we only need to consider models like this:



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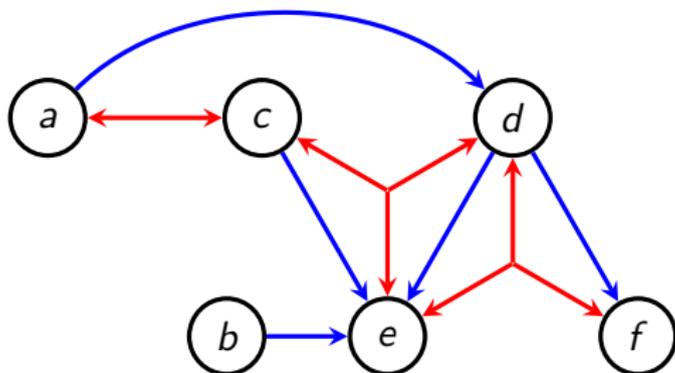


...which we represent with a hyper-graph called an **mDAG**.

The red edges \leftrightarrow are called **bidirected**.

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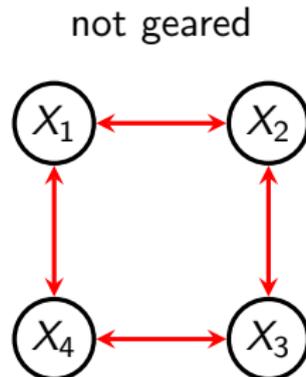
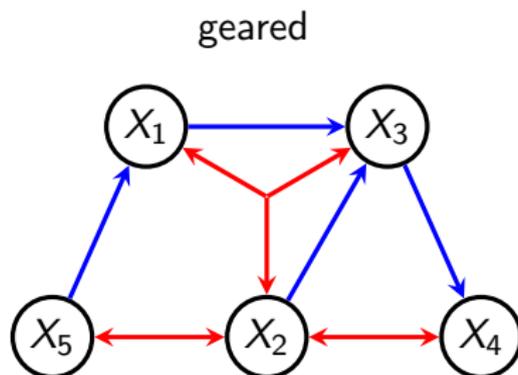
We want the set of distributions that can be obtained by the latent variable; this is the **complete model** $\mathcal{M}(\mathcal{G})$ for mDAG \mathcal{G} .

Geared Graphs

Call an mDAG **geared** if its bidirected edges satisfy the running intersection property.

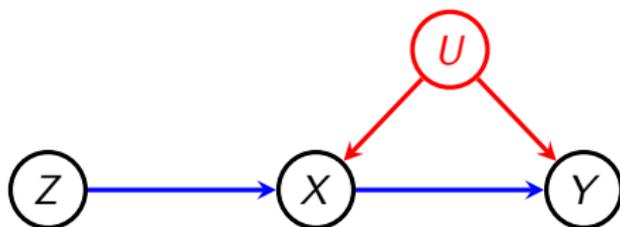
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Call an mDAG **geared** if its bidirected edges satisfy the running intersection property. Examples:



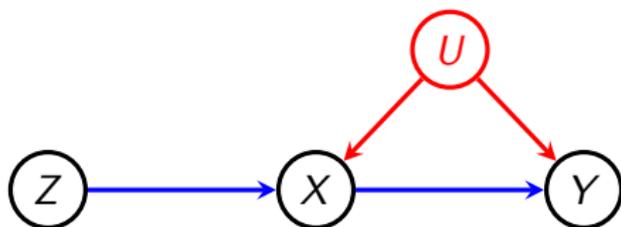
Functional Dependences

Consider the situation below.



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Recall the structural equation view: for some 'error' variables E_x, E_y :

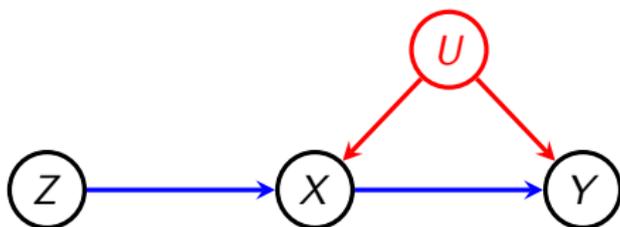
$$X = f_X(Z, U, E_x)$$

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Without loss of generality, can assume $U' = (U, E_x, E_y)$, so all additional randomness is contained in U' .

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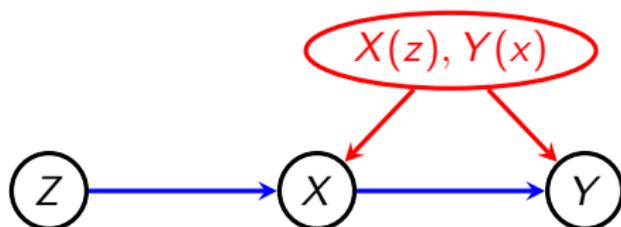
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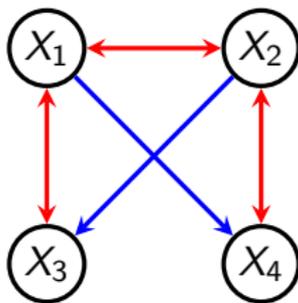
Set $U = (X(z), Y(x))$, drawn from **finite** set of functions.

Geared Graphs

If a graph is geared we can iterate this process to show that a finite state-space is sufficient:

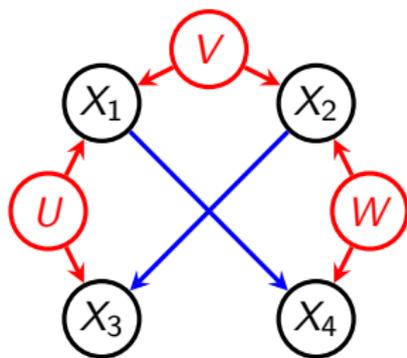
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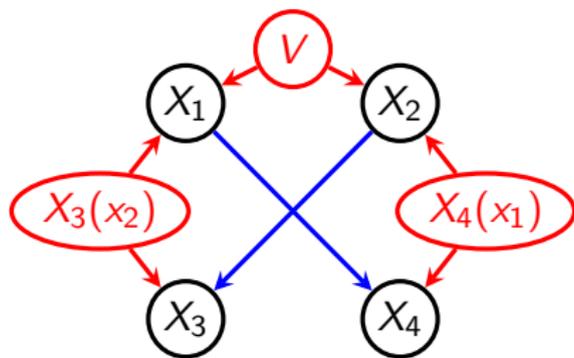
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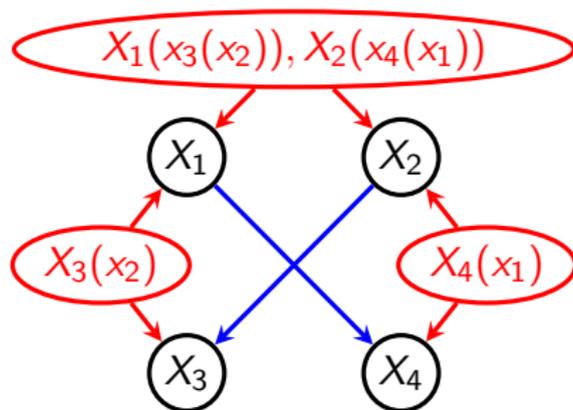
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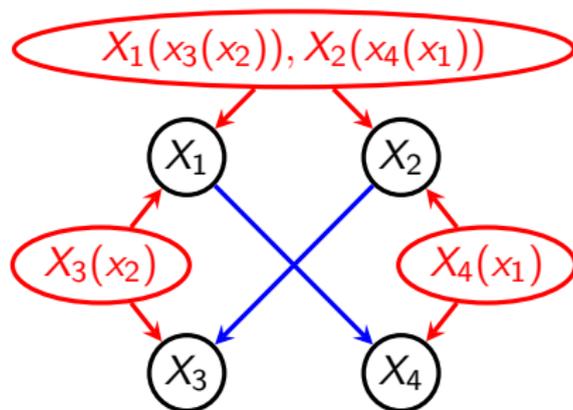
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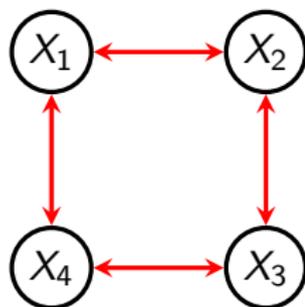
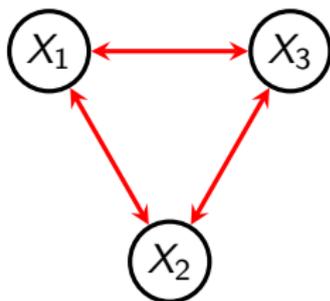


This shows that geared graphs do represent semi-algebraic models.

This representation turns out to be important in proving completeness of constraints.

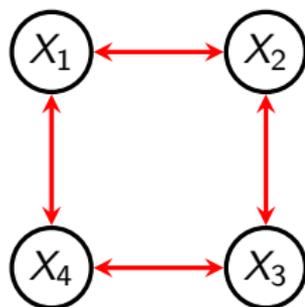
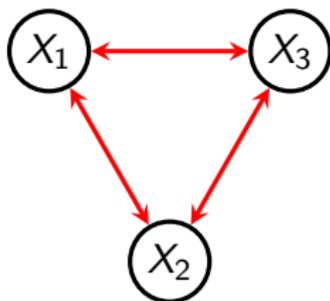
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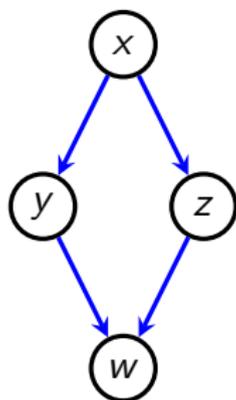
Open Problem: These models may or may not be semi-algebraic.

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Ancestral Sets

Recall an **ancestral set** contains its own ancestors, e.g. $\{x, y, z\}$.

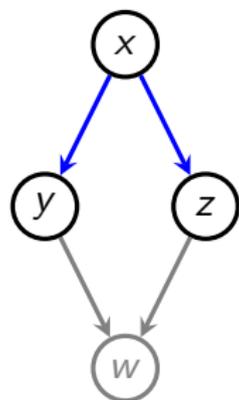


Marginalize w :

$$p(x, y, z) = \sum_w p(x) p(y | x) p(z | x) p(\mathbf{w} | y, z)$$

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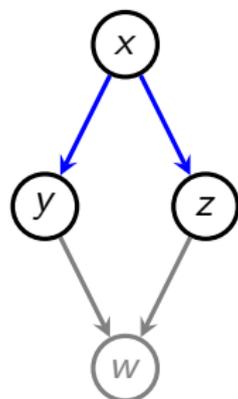
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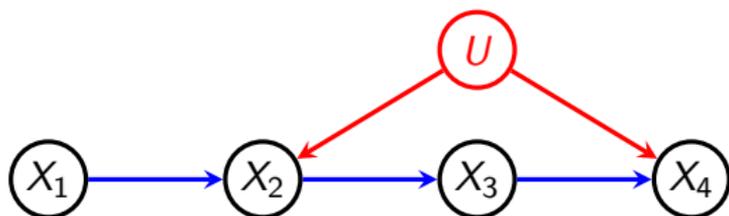
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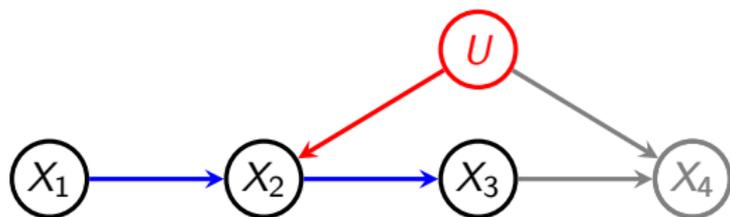
Models 'closed' under marginalization of vertices with no children.

Ancestral Sets



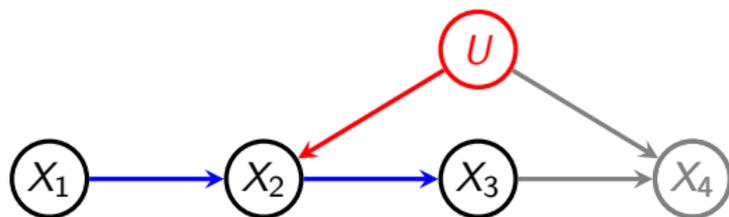
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Ancestral Sets



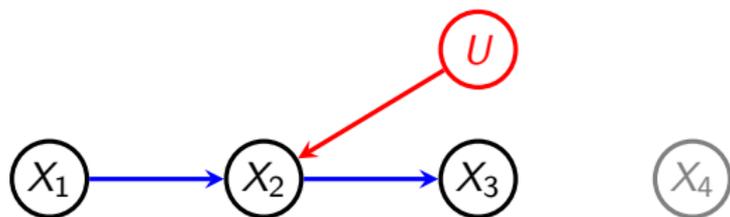
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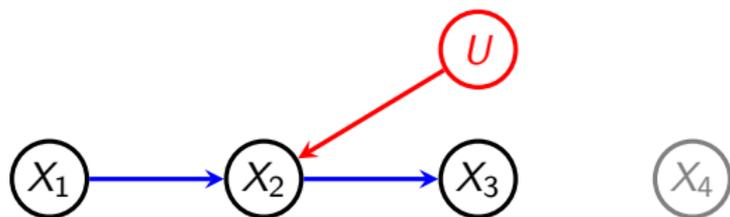
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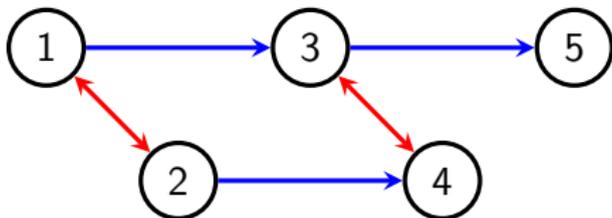


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gives $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_2$.

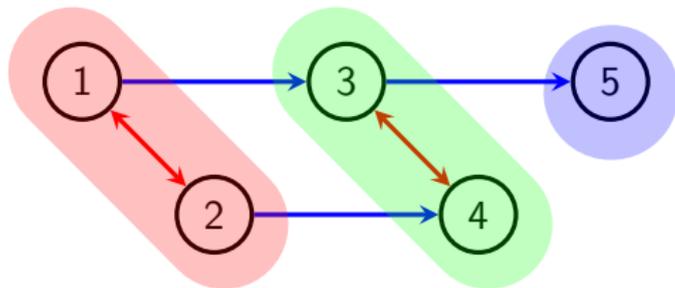
Districts

Define a **district** in an mDAG to be maximal sets connected by latent variables:



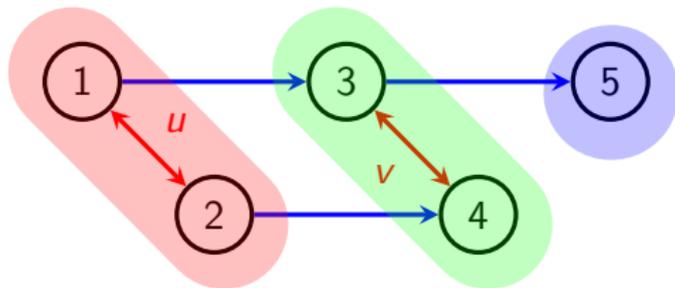
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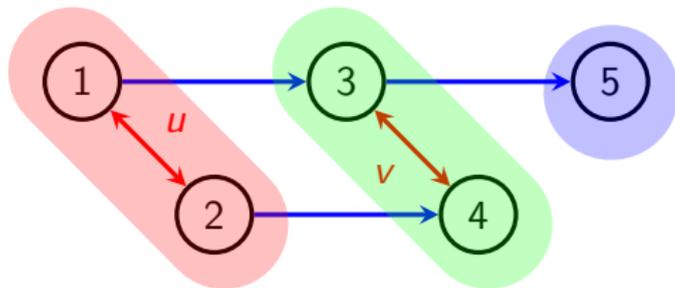
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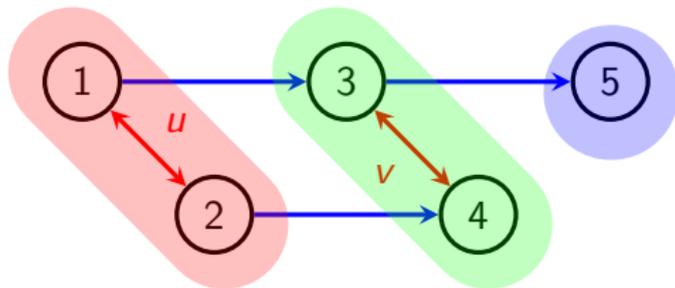
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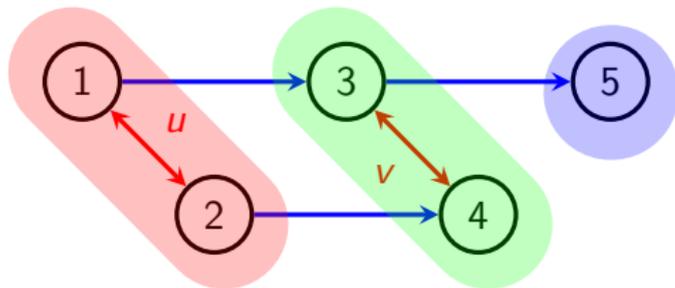
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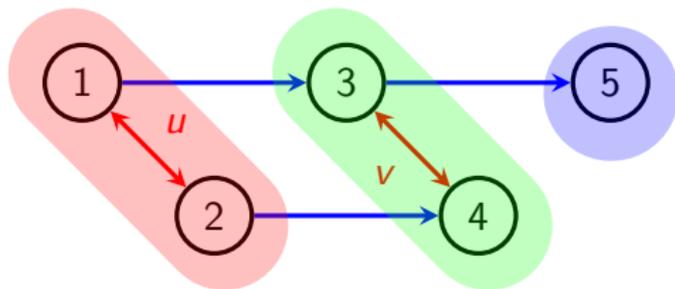
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Axiomatic Approach

Define $\mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G})$ as set of P satisfying:

1. Ancestrality: $P \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G})$ only if

$$\sum_{x_w} p(x_V) \in \mathcal{O}(\mathcal{G}_{-w})$$

for each childless w .

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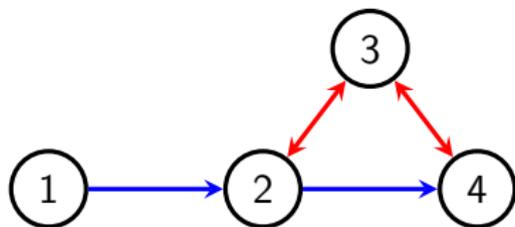
Call this the **ordinary Markov model** (OMM).

Properties of the OMM

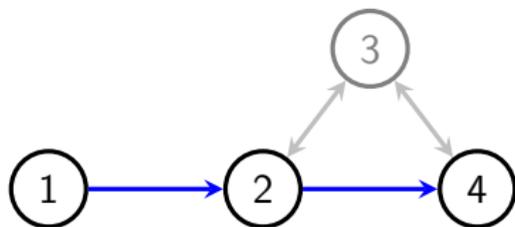
First described by Richardson (2003, 2009); factorization and parametrizations in Evans and Richardson (2013, 2014).

- Strict superset of latent variable model;
- equivalent to taking all the conditional independences from the original model which only involve 'visible' variables;
- therefore algebraic (quadratic constraints in the probabilities);
- has parametrization, so irreducible variety;
- curved exponential families.

Example

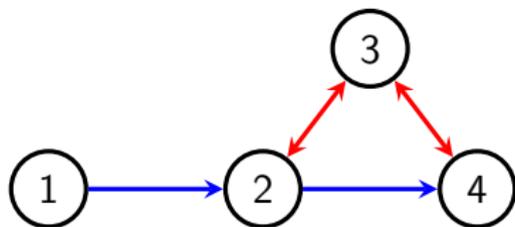


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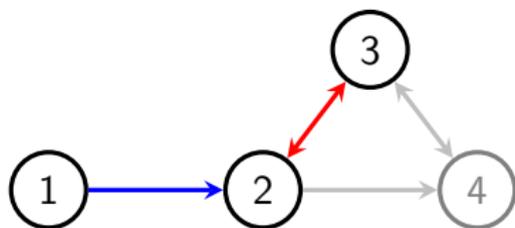
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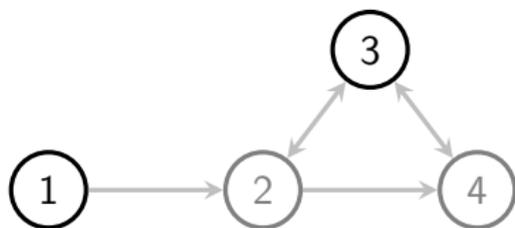
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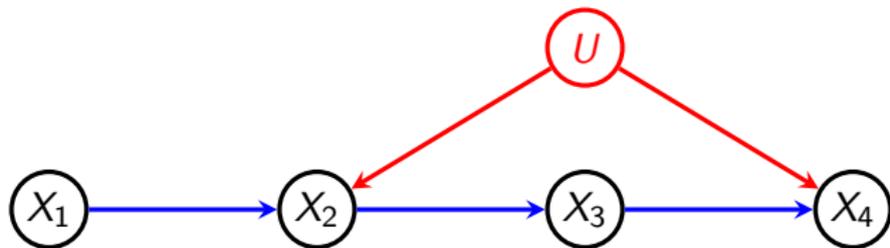


So $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_4 \mid X_2$ and $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$.

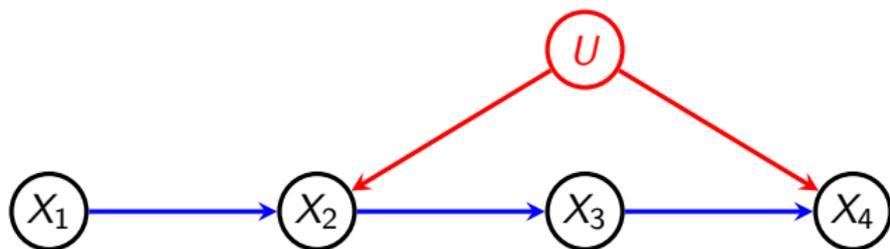
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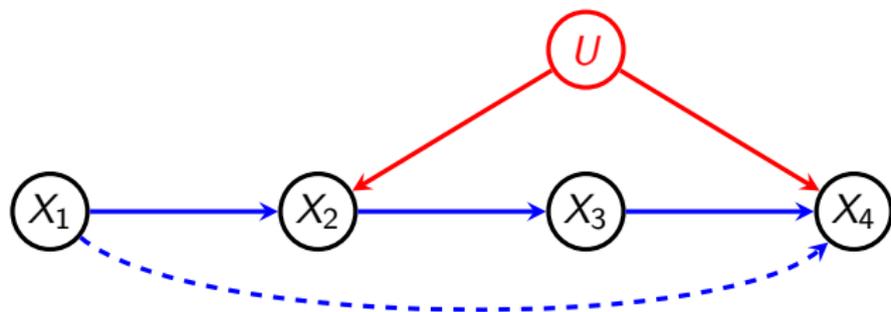


A Deficiency



If U is latent, OMM gives only $X_3 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \mid X_2$.

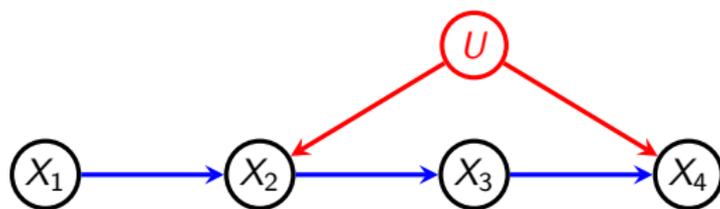
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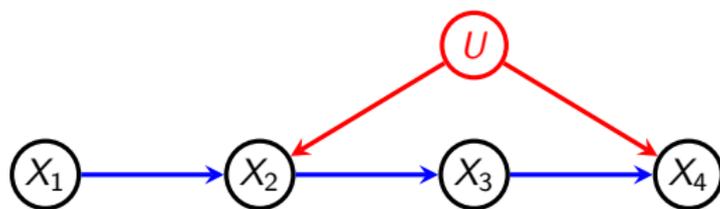
But if we add an arrow $X_1 \rightarrow X_4$, we still have $X_3 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 \mid X_2$.
So can we detect that $X_1 \not\rightarrow X_4$?

The Verma Constraint



$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \int p(\mathbf{u}) p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1, \mathbf{u}) p(x_3 | x_2) p(x_4 | x_3, \mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

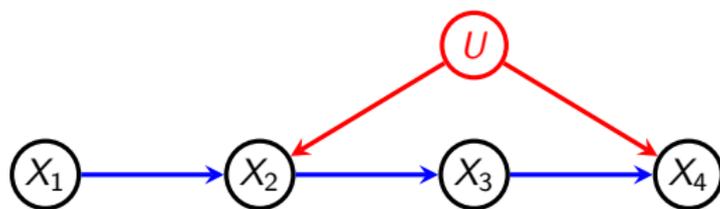
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(This is our district factorization.)

The Verma Constraint



$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= \int p(\mathbf{u}) p(x_1) p(x_2 | x_1, \mathbf{u}) p(x_3 | x_2) p(x_4 | x_3, \mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u} \\ &= p(x_1) p(x_3 | x_2) \int p(\mathbf{u}) p(x_2 | x_1, \mathbf{u}) p(x_4 | x_3, \mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u} \\ &= p(x_1) p(x_3 | x_2) q(x_2, x_4 | x_1, x_3). \end{aligned}$$

(This is our district factorization.) But note that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{x_2} q(x_2, x_4 | x_1, x_3) &= \sum_{x_2} \int p(u) p(x_2 | x_1, u) p(x_4 | x_3, u) du \\ &= p(x_4 | x_3) \end{aligned}$$

is independent of x_1 , precisely because $X_1 \not\leftrightarrow X_4$.

Verma Constraints are Polynomials

This is the **Verma constraint** (Pearl and Verma, 1990):

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Gives degree-4 polynomial (662 terms) in binary case.

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Note degree increases with number of states of X_1 and X_2 .

Generally:

$$|\mathfrak{X}_1| + |\mathfrak{X}_2| \quad (\text{or } |\mathfrak{X}_1|(1 + |\mathfrak{X}_2|))$$

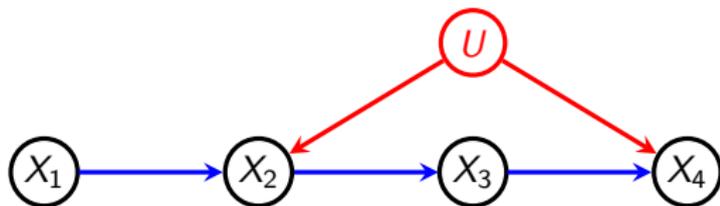
Reflects difficulty of estimating $p(x_1)$ and $p(x_3 \mid x_1, x_2)$ and dividing out by them(?)

Subgraphs

$q(x_2, x_4 | x_1, x_3)$ behaves as a density in which $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_4 | X_3$,
though this does not hold under p .

Subgraphs

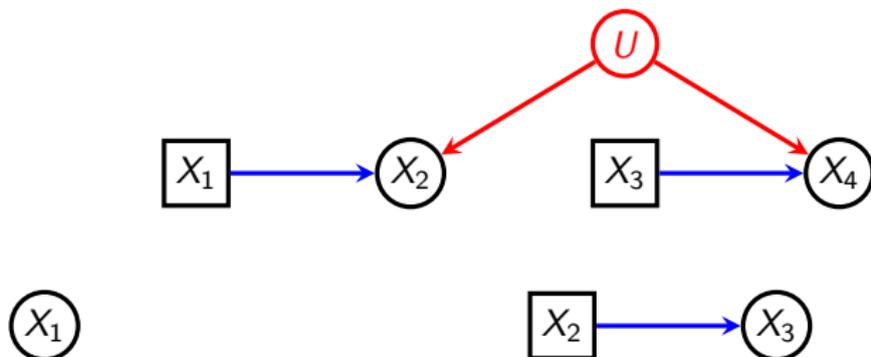
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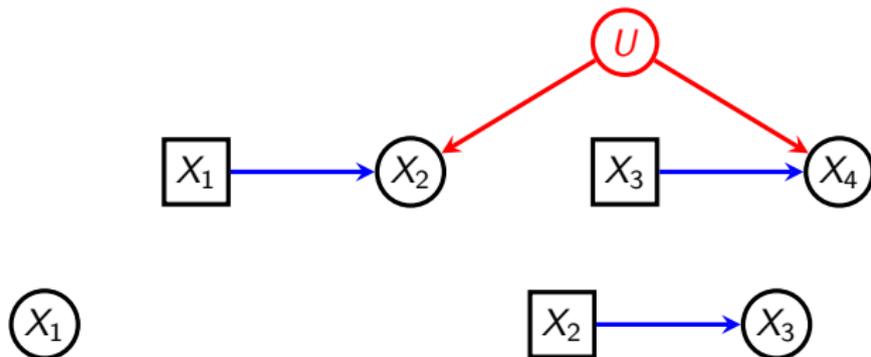
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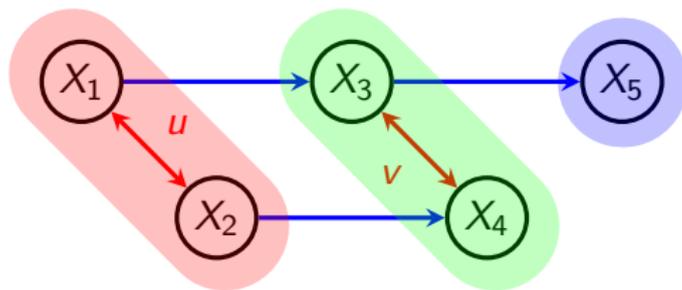
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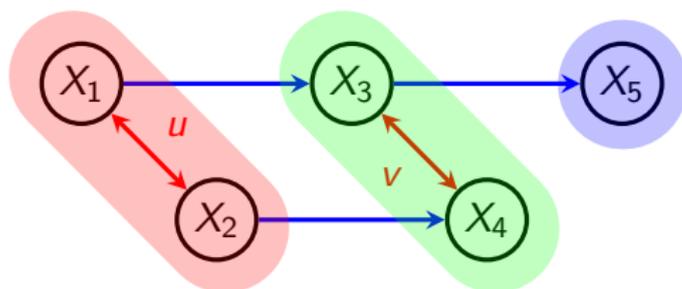
So each factor of the distribution q_D corresponds to a 'piece' of the graph $\mathcal{G}[D]$.

Districts



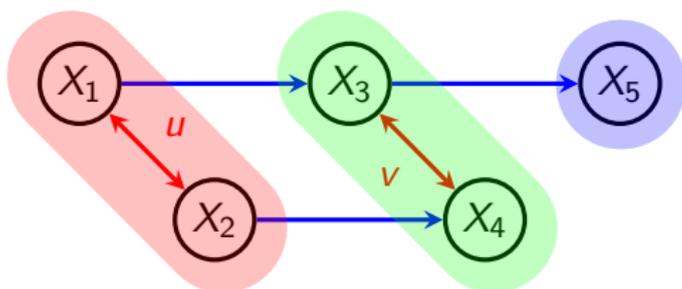
$$\int p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) p(x_5 | x_3) du dv$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \int p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) p(x_5 | x_3) du dv \\ &= \int p(x_1 | u) p(x_2 | u) du \cdot \int p(x_3 | x_1, v) p(x_4 | x_2, v) dv \cdot p(x_5 | x_3) \\ &= q(x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_3, x_4 | x_1, x_2) \cdot q(x_5 | x_3). \end{aligned}$$

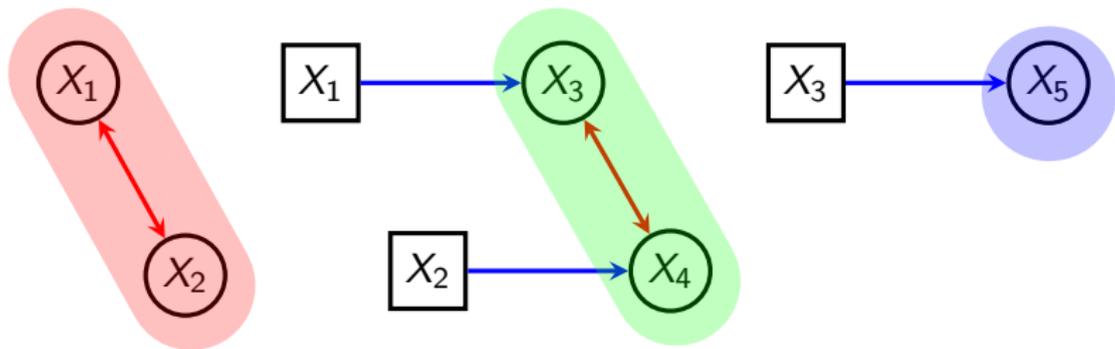
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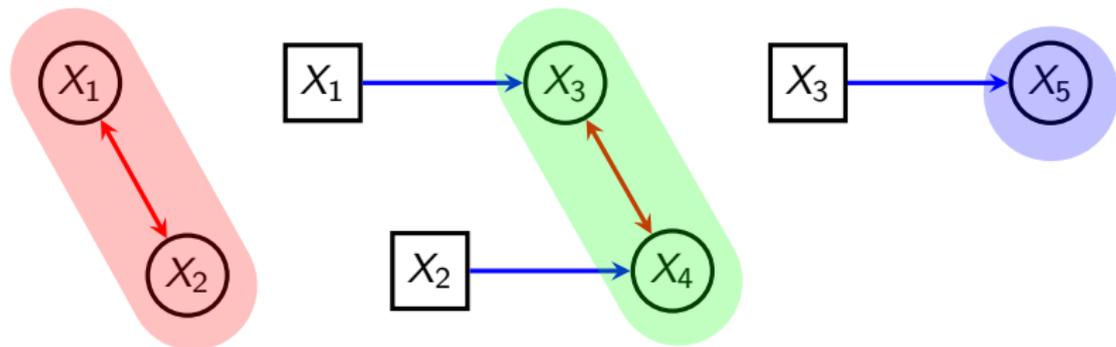
The form of each q is important.

Districts



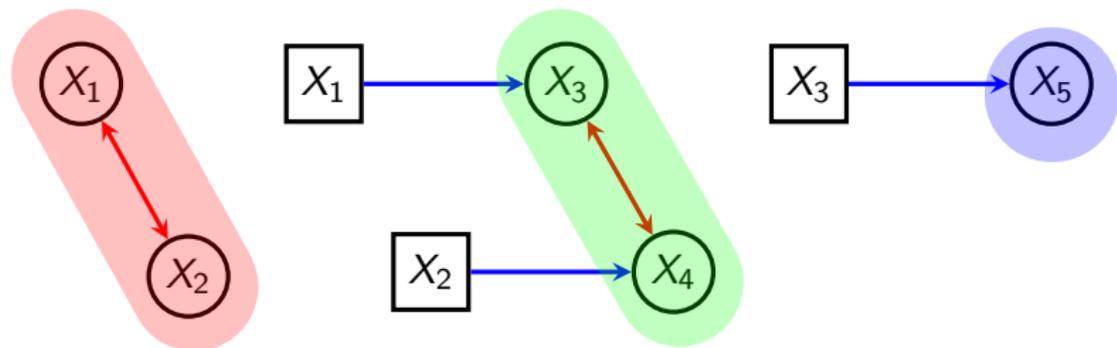
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Each q_D piece should come from the model based on district subgraph and its parents ($\mathcal{G}[D]$).

Axiomatic Approach II

Define $\mathcal{N}(\mathcal{G})$ as a model satisfying:

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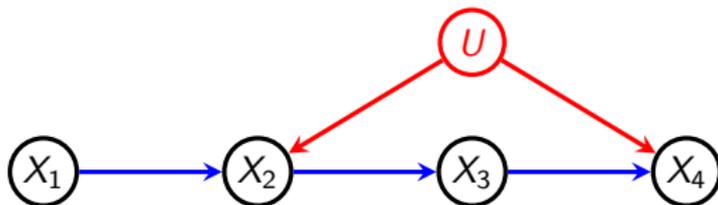
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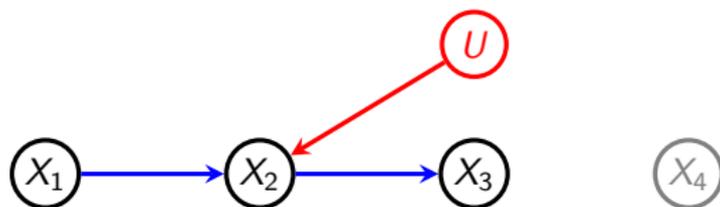
Call this the **nested Markov model** (NMM).

Verma Example



X_4 childless,

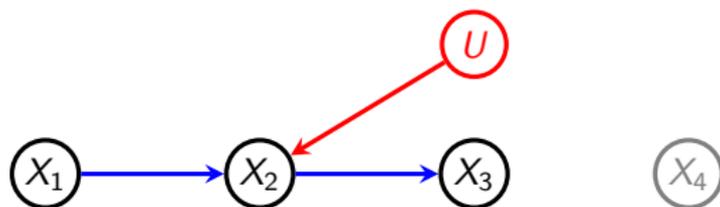
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X_4 childless, so if $P \in \mathcal{N}(\mathcal{G})$, then

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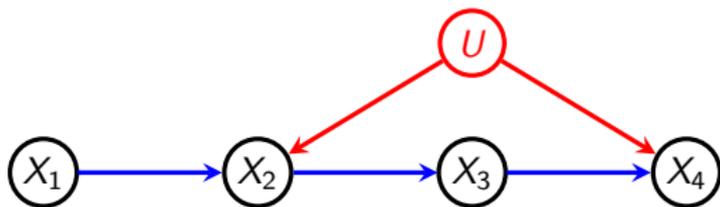


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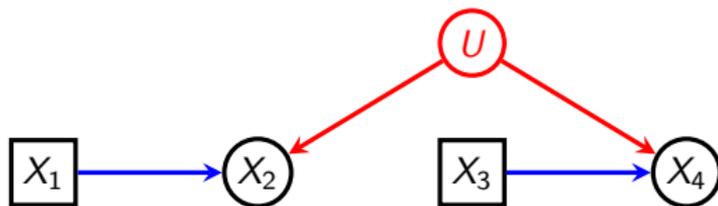
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and therefore $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_2$.

Verma Example

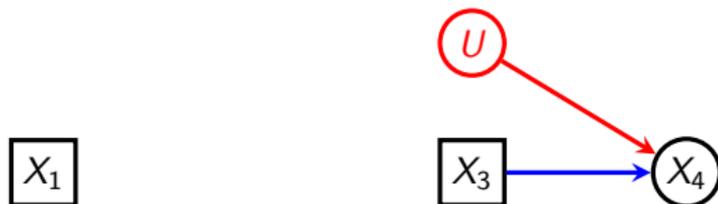


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We see that $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3, X_4 [q_{24}]$.

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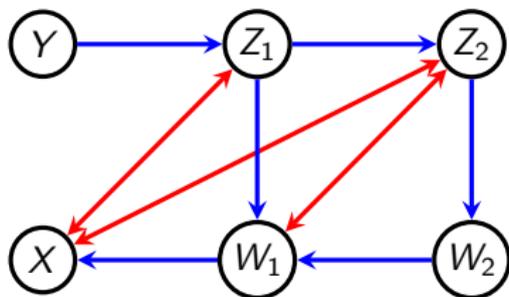
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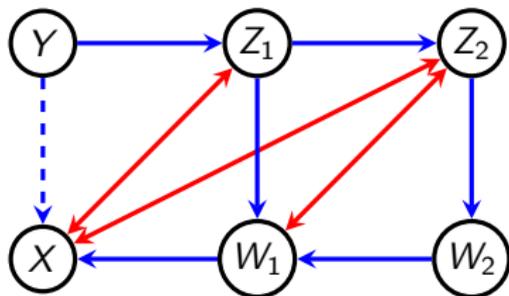
Example

In the below example, X and Y are not adjacent: is there a constraint implied?



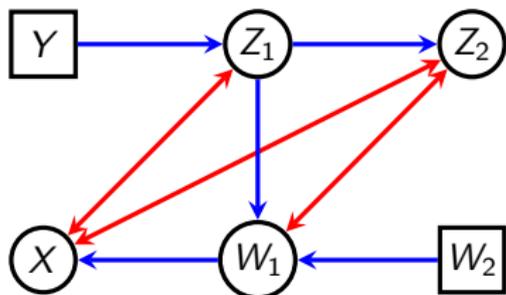
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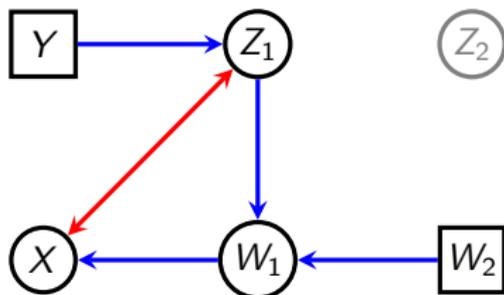
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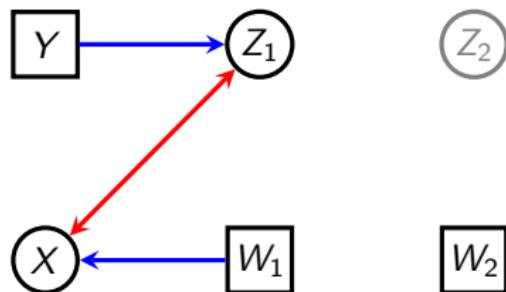
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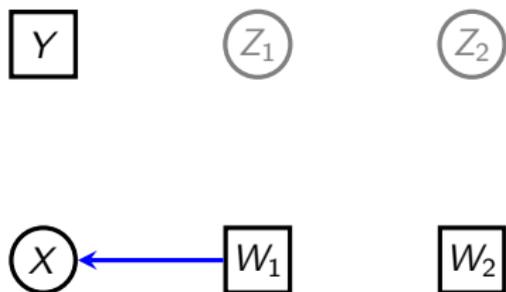
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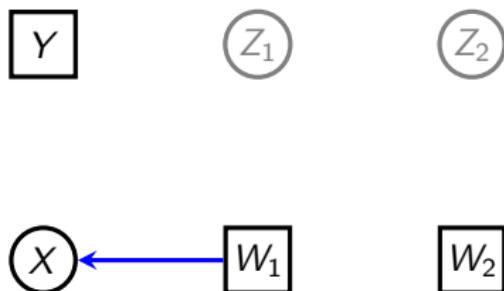
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So can distinguish between these two structures...
...but this is a degree-12 polynomial!

Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Conditional Independence and Algebraic Models
- 3 DAGs
- 4 Margins of DAG Models
- 5 Ordinary Markov Model
- 6 Verma Constraints
- 7 Results**
- 8 Inequalities
- 9 Summary

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For any discrete DAG model, the nested and complete Markov models are algebraically equivalent (i.e. same dimension):

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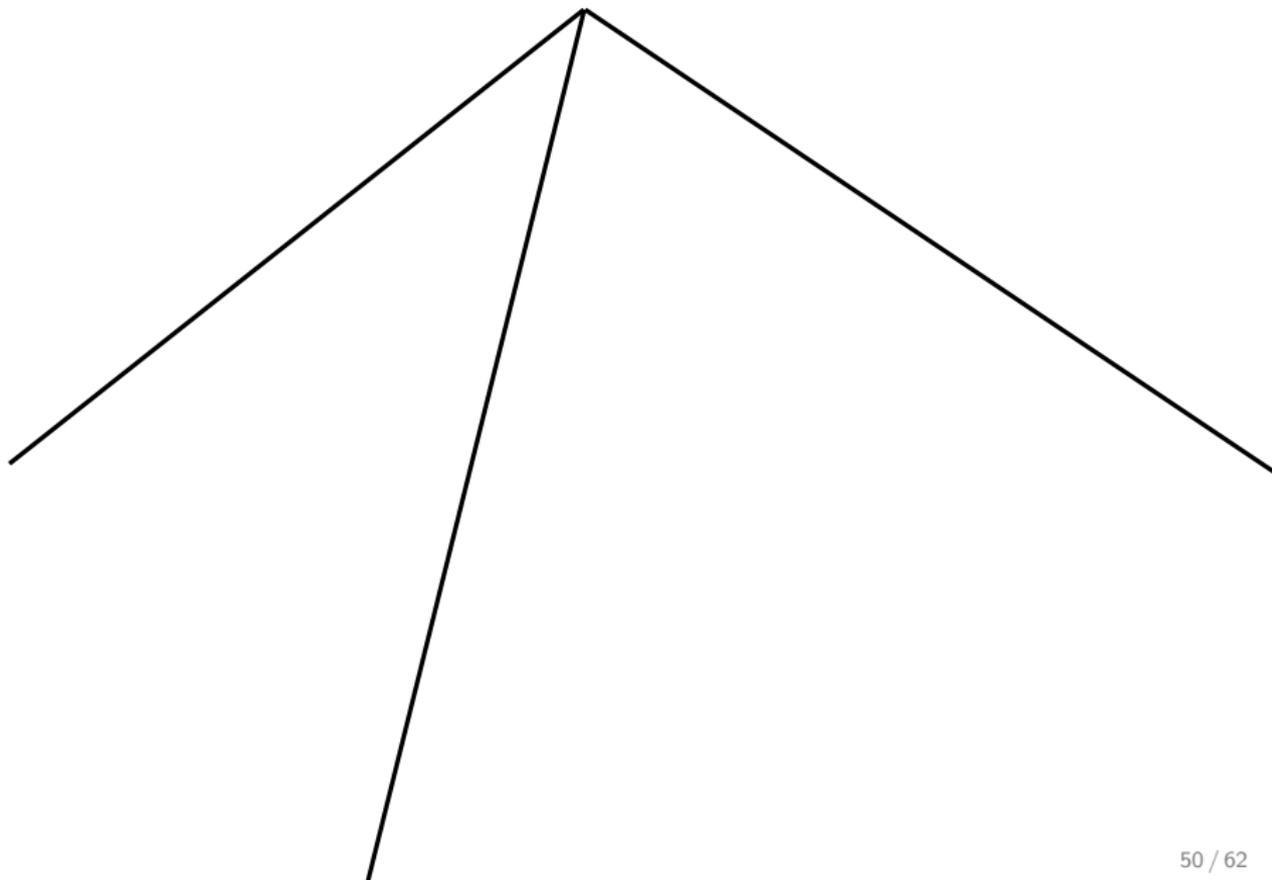
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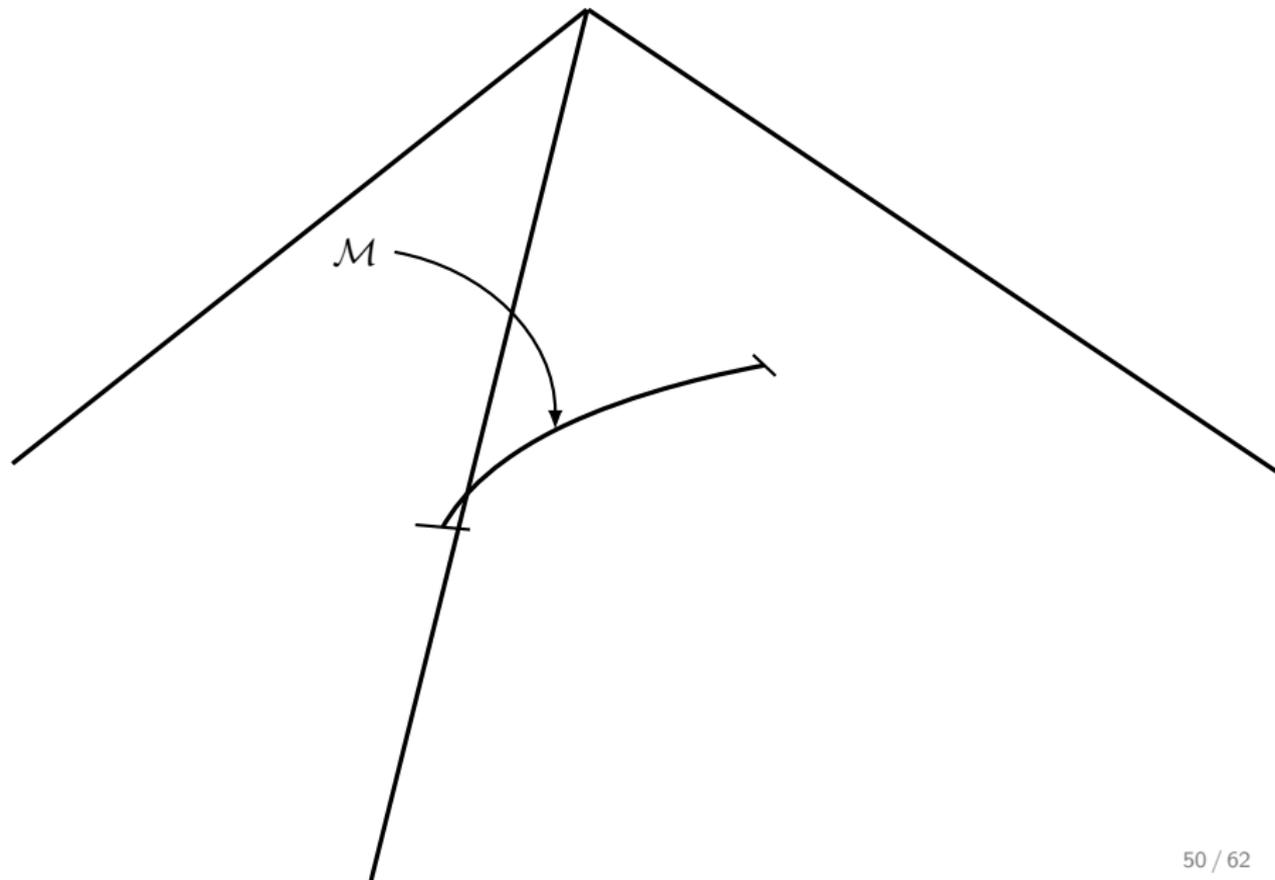
Nested models are curved exponential families.

This has very nice statistical implications.

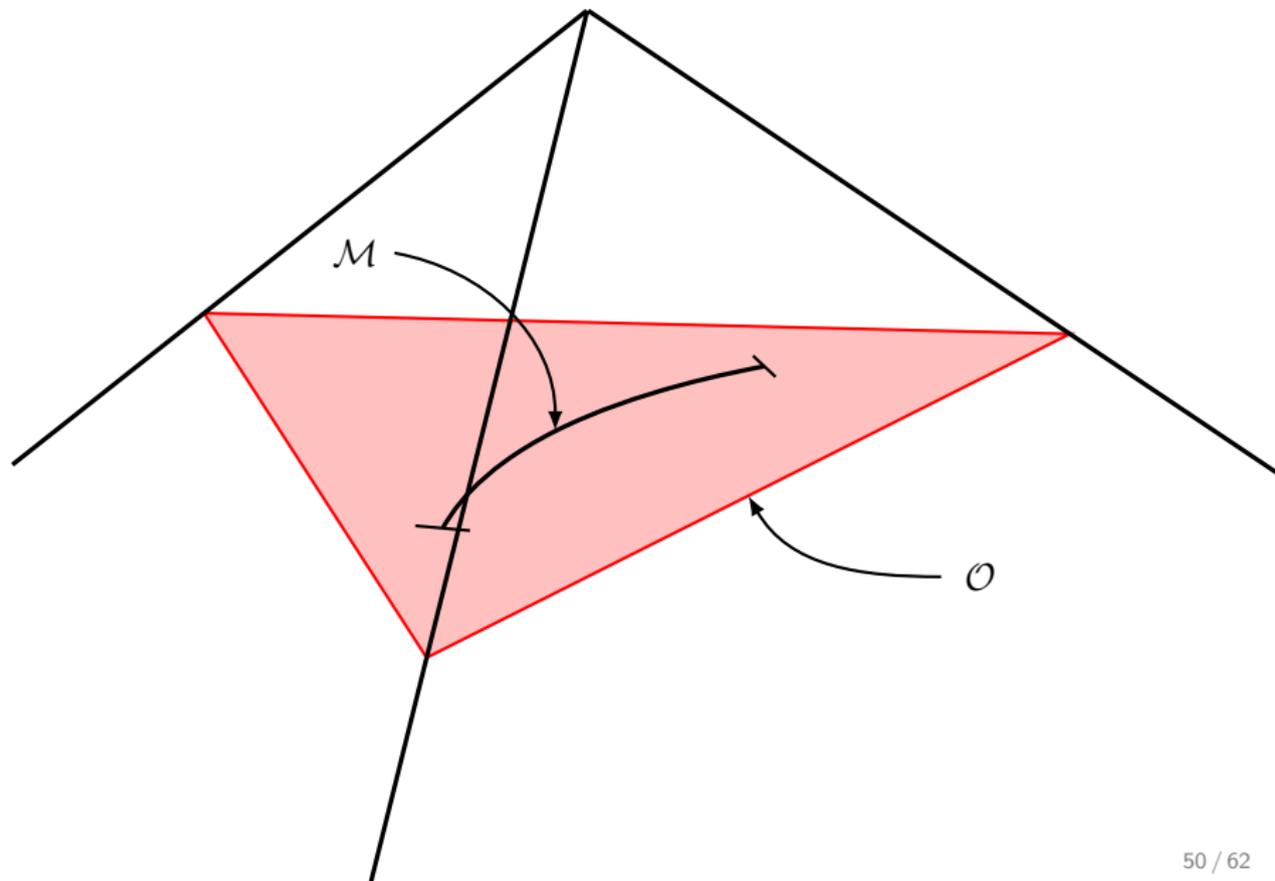
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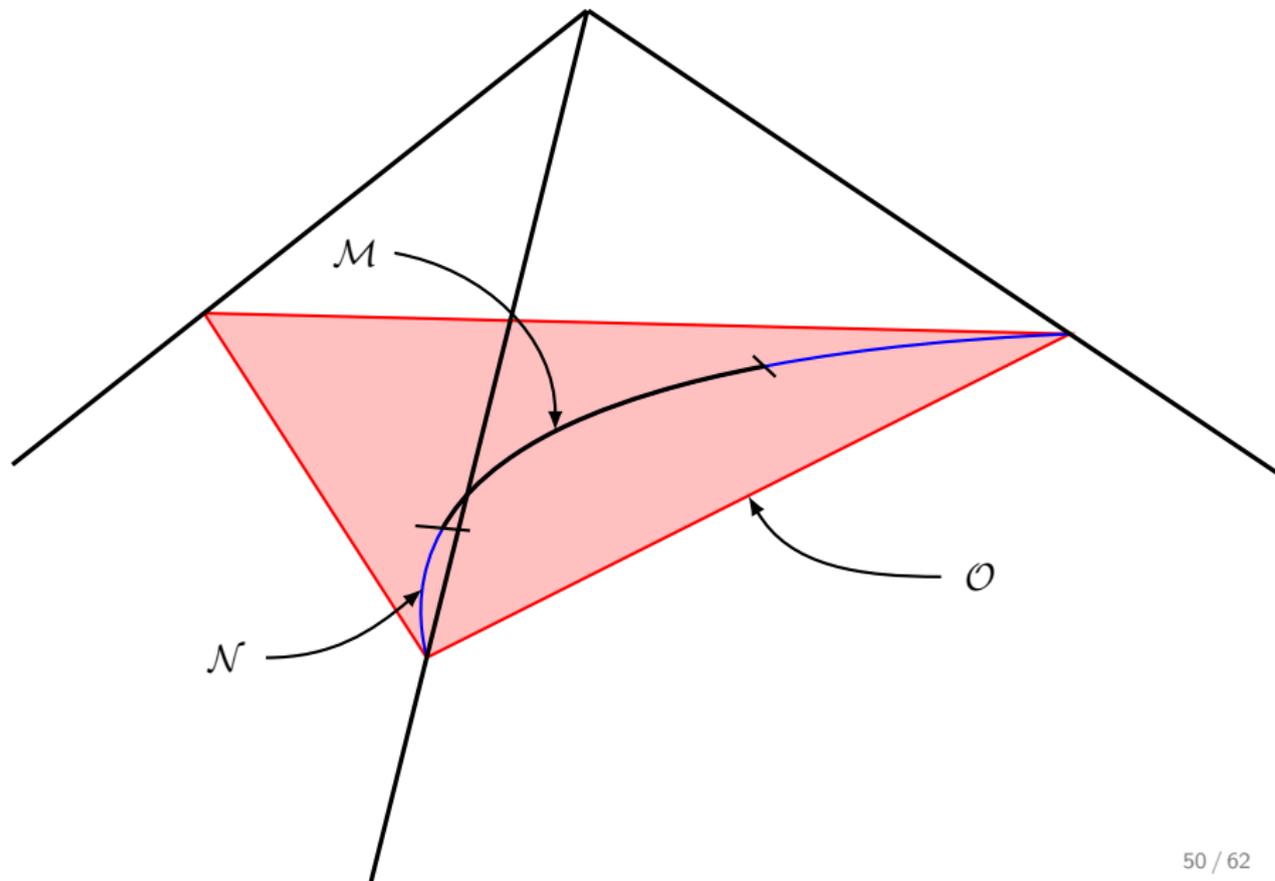
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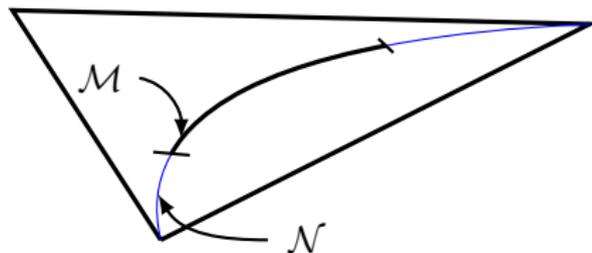


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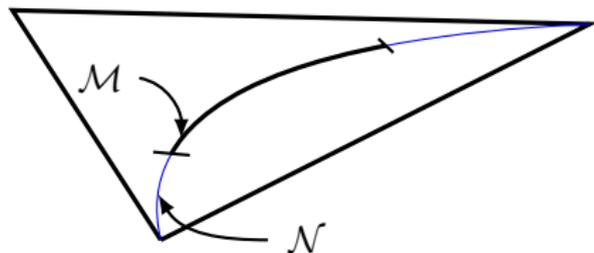
Proof idea for main result

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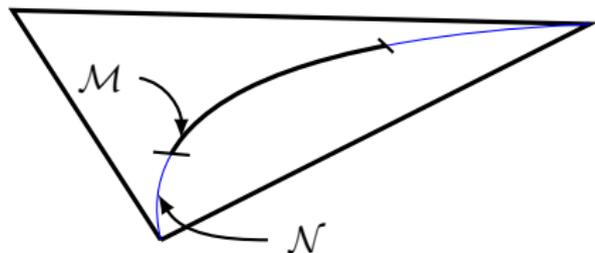
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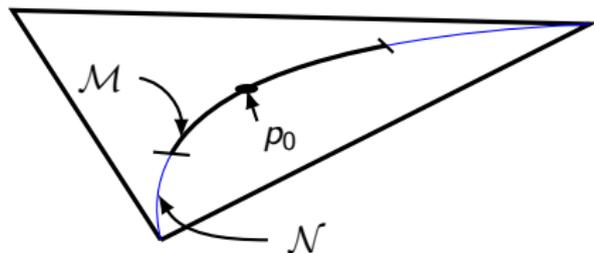
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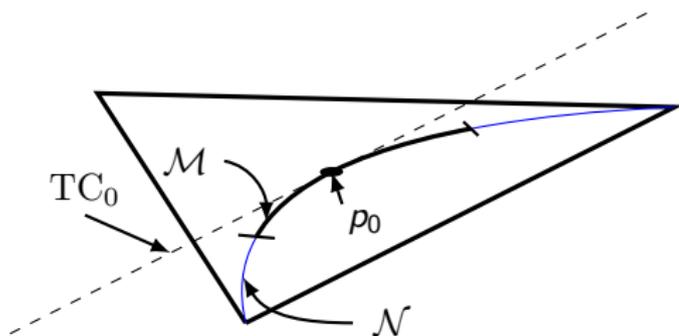
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- the uniform distribution (complete independence, all states equally likely) is contained in any mDAG model;
- we can perturb the relationship between latent and observed variables to 'move' \mathcal{M} in any direction within the tangent space of \mathcal{N} .



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$$\log p(x_V) = \sum_{A \subseteq V} \lambda_A(x_A).$$

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$$D \subseteq A \cup B \cup C, \quad D \cap A \neq \emptyset, \quad D \cap B \neq \emptyset.$$

Lemma

If $X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B \mid X_C$ under \mathcal{M} , then $\Lambda_D \perp TC_0(\mathcal{M})$ for D as above.

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$$\log p(x_V) = \sum_{A \subseteq V} \lambda_A(x_A).$$

Uniform distribution has $\lambda_A = 0$ for all $A \neq \emptyset$.

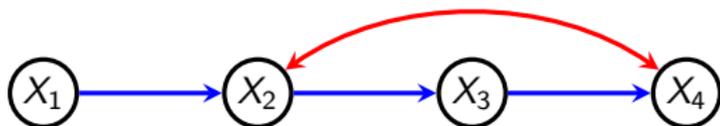
If $X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B \mid X_C$, then $\lambda_D(x_D) \approx 0$ for D such that

$$D \subseteq A \cup B \cup C, \quad D \cap A \neq \emptyset, \quad D \cap B \neq \emptyset.$$

Lemma

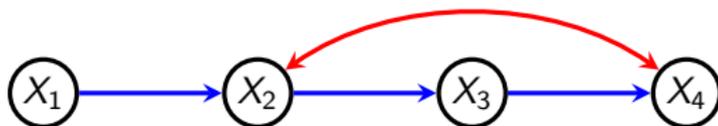
If $X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B \mid X_C$ under \mathcal{M} , then $\Lambda_D \perp TC_0(\mathcal{M})$ for D as above.
In fact, this is true even for a dormant independence.

Verma Example



We have $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 \mid X_2$ and (after a re-weighting) $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_4 \mid X_3$.

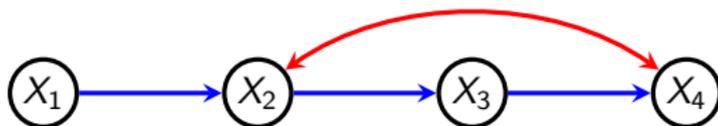
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Hence $\Lambda_{13} + \Lambda_{123} + \Lambda_{14} + \Lambda_{134} \perp\!\!\!\perp TC_0(\mathcal{M})$.

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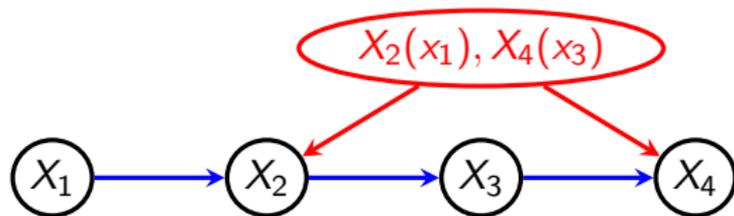


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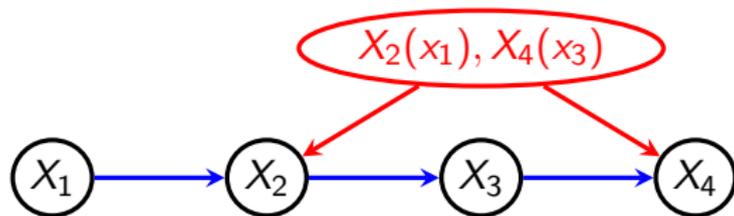
So: need to show all the *other* spaces λ_A are inside the tangent cone.

Verma Example



Perturbing	controls
X_1	Λ_1
$X_3 \mid X_2$	$\Lambda_3 + \Lambda_{23}$
$X_2(x_1)$	$\Lambda_2 + \Lambda_{12}$
$X_4(x_3)$	$\Lambda_4 + \Lambda_{34}$
$X_2(x_1), X_4(x_3)$ jointly	$\Lambda_{24} + \Lambda_{124} + \Lambda_{234} + \Lambda_{1234}$

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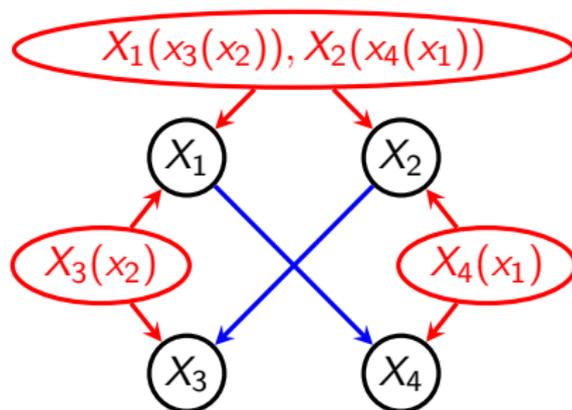


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$\Lambda_{13}, \Lambda_{123}, \Lambda_{14}, \Lambda_{134}$ are constrained, so that's all of them!

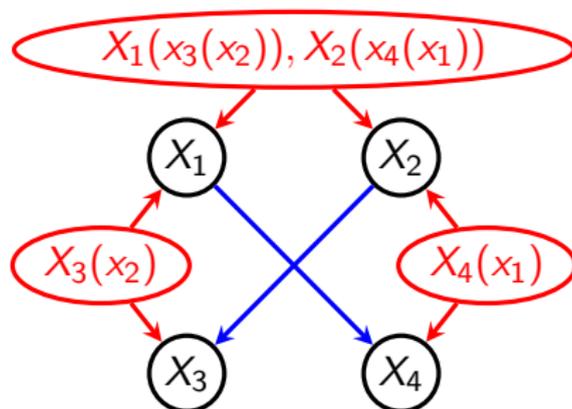
Geared Graphs

Back to our harder example:



Geared Graphs

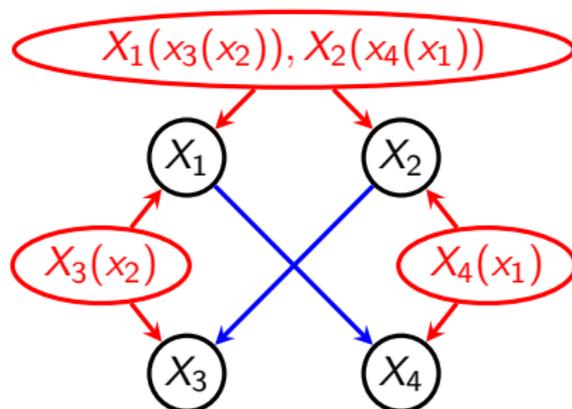
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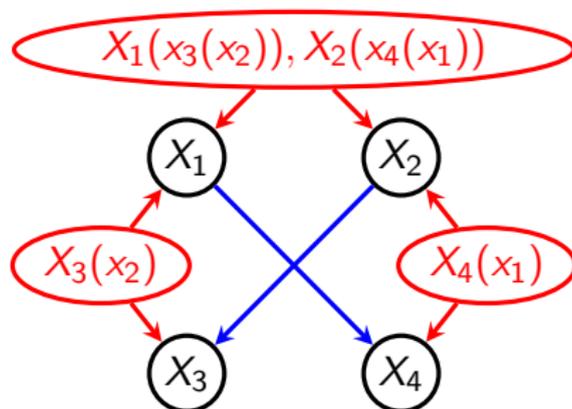
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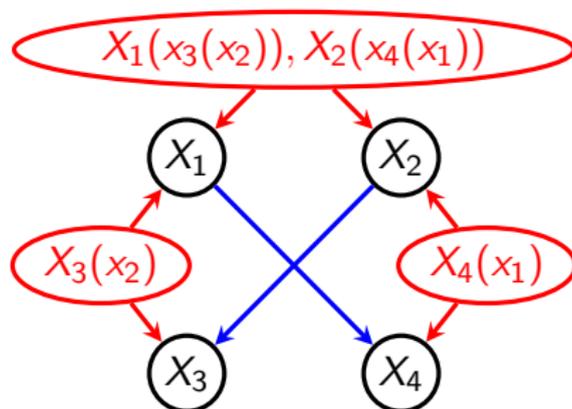
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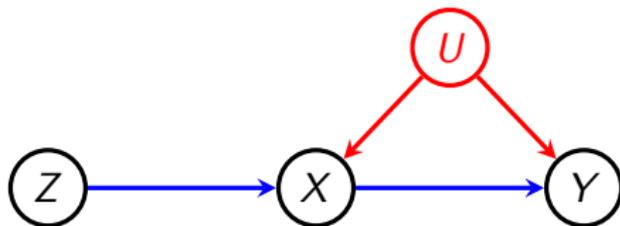


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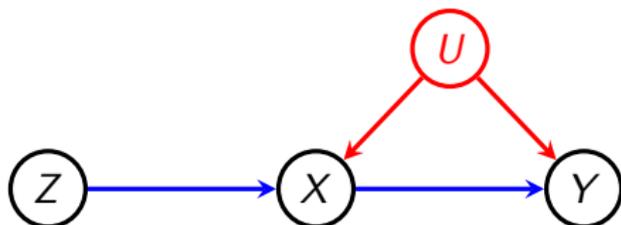
Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Conditional Independence and Algebraic Models
- 3 DAGs
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- 5 Ordinary Markov Model
- 6 Verma Constraints
- 7 Results
- 8 Inequalities**
- 9 Summary

Inequality Results

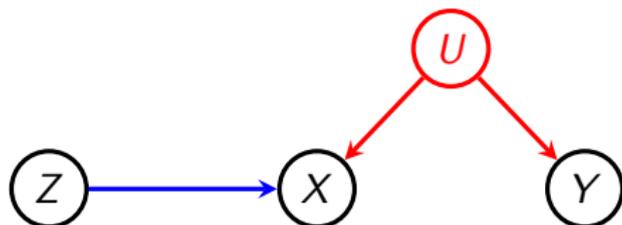


Inequality Results



$$p(x, y | z) = \int p(u) p(x | z, u) \cdot p(y | x, u) du$$

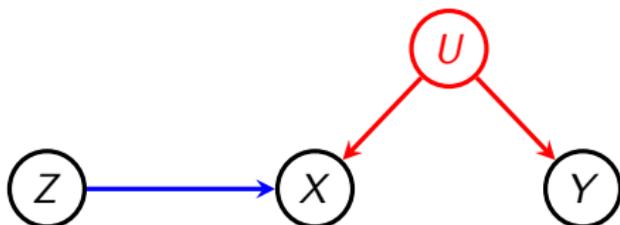
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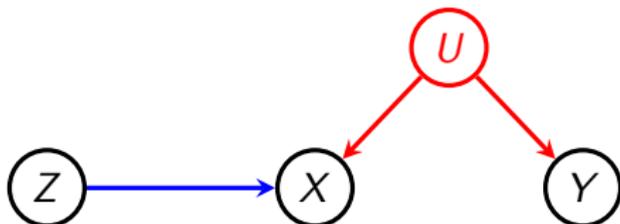
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This 'compatibility' requirement turns out to place an inequality restriction on p :

$$\max_x \sum_y \max_z p(x, y | z) \leq 1.$$

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Maybe the nested model is a good compromise!

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We have seen that:

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- statistical and practical properties generally better than latent variable models;
- we can also give graphical derivations for some inequalities.

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We've dealt with marginalization, but what about conditioning?

Thank you!

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d-Separation

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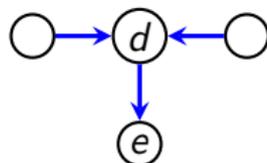
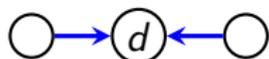
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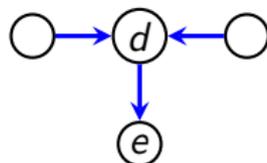
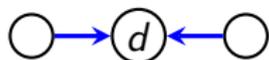
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Two vertices a and b are **d-separated** given $C \subseteq V \setminus \{a, b\}$ if **all** paths are blocked.

Parameterizations

The nested and ordinary Markov models are also defined by

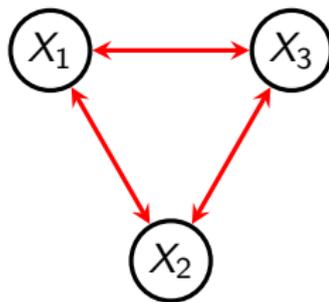
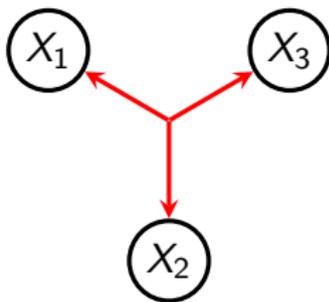
$$P(X_V = x_V) = \sum_{O \subseteq C \subseteq V} (-1)^{|C \setminus O|} \prod_{H \in [C]_{\mathcal{G}}} q_H(x_T).$$

for some pairs of sets (H, T) , and partitioning function $[\cdot]_{\mathcal{G}}$. (See Evans and Richardson, 2014, for details)

Note the form is the same for the ordinary and nested models, but the partitioning function differs (as does the interpretation of the parameters q).

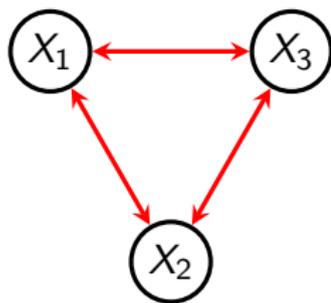
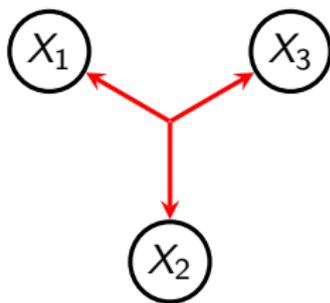
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The model on the right is not saturated. Still true if we dichotomize.

ADMGs are not sufficient

Lemma

Let \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{G} , \mathcal{H} be mutually independent σ -algebras (so that $\mathcal{F} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathcal{G} \vee \mathcal{H}$ and so on), and let X , Y and Z be random variables such that

- (i) X is $\mathcal{F} \vee \mathcal{G}$ -measurable;
- (ii) Y is $\mathcal{G} \vee \mathcal{H}$ -measurable;
- (iii) Z is $\mathcal{F} \vee \mathcal{H}$ -measurable.

Then $P(X = Y = Z) > 1 - \epsilon$ implies

$$\text{Var } X < 3\epsilon.$$