Math for AI Safety **Lionel Levine Community** Control of Lionel Levine Lionel Levine

Conditional Independence

September 4, 2024 **Notes by Matthew Haulmark** 

# 1 Conditional Independence

We'll be following Pearl's book *Causality* (Chapters 1 and 3).

Setup: Discrete random variables

$$
X_1,\ldots,X_n\colon (\Omega,\mathcal{F},P)\to\mathbb{R}
$$

**Joint Distribution** 

$$
p(x_1, ..., x_n) := P(X_1 = x_1, ..., X_n = x_n)
$$

The joint probability distribution is impractical when  $n$  is large. For example, computing the marginal distribution of  $X_1$  from the joint distribution

$$
p(x_1) = \sum_{x_2,...,x_n} p(x_1, x_2,...,x_n)
$$

involves a sum with exponentially many terms  $(2^{n-1}$  terms if  $X_2, \ldots, X_n$  are binary random variables).

**Definition (Independence):**  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are *independent* if  $p(x_1, x_2) = p(x_1)p(x_2)$  for all  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ 

While there's nothing wrong with this definition, it doesn't always capture how people reason intuitively about independence.

Example: Consider these two events

 $A_1 = \{$ Tompkins county has a forest fire in 2024 $\}$  $A_2 = \{\text{Inflation greater than } 5\% \text{ in } 2024\}$ 

and let  $X_i = 1_{A_i}$  be the corresponding indicator random variables. (Notation: For an event A, the random variable  $1_A$  equals 1 if A occurs and 0 otherwise.)

Accurately estimating  $p(x_1)$ , or  $p(x_2)$ , or  $p(x_1, x_2)$  in this case might require specialized knowledge of weather forecasting, or macroeconomics, or both! On the other hand, it doesn't take specialized knowledge to reason that  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent. What's going on with this kind of reasoning? Can we make it more precise than a general sense that "inflation doesn't have much to do with forest fires"? Whatever this reasoning is doing, it proceeds by some other method that doesn't involve computing the joint and marginal probabilities.

**Definition:** Random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are *conditionally independent* given  $Z$ , if

 $p(x|y, z) = p(x|z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $p(y, z) > 0$ .

Notation:  $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | Z$ .

Intuitively, this means: If we know  $Z = z$ , then learning that  $Y = y$  does not provide any additional information about the value of X.

**Example (Buses):** Let  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  be arrival times of consecutive buses at a bus stop. Then  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are dependent, but

$$
T_2 \perp \!\!\! \perp T_1 \, | \, X_2
$$

where  $X_2$  is the current location of bus 2: Once we know the location of bus 2, the arrival time of bus 1 doesn't provide any additional information about the arrival time of bus 2.

To turn this example into math, let's add some assumptions: the buses move at constant speed  $v = 10$  miles per hour, so  $T_i = X_i/v$  where  $X_i$  is the current distance of bus i from the bus stop. And the spacing is random:  $X_1$  and  $X_2 - X_1$  are independent random variables with the exponential distribution with a mean of 5 miles. If we learn that  $T_1 = 1$ minute (bus 1 is early) that's going to decrease our estimate of  $T_2$ . But if we also learn that  $X_2 = 100$  miles (bus 2 is very far away) then the information about  $T_1$  becomes irrelevant to our estimate of  $T_2$ .

### 1.1 Properties of Conditional Independence

- (1) Symmetry:  $(X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | Z) \Rightarrow (Y \perp \!\!\!\perp X | Z)$
- (2) Decomposition:  $(X \perp \!\!\!\perp (Y,W)|Z) \Rightarrow (X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y|Z)$
- (3) Weak union:  $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp (Y,W)|Z) \Rightarrow (Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X | (Z,W))$
- (4) Contraction:  $(X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | Z) \& (X \perp \!\!\!\perp W | (Y, Z)) \Rightarrow (X \perp \!\!\!\perp (Y, W) | Z)$

Corresponding Cartoons: There is a sense in which we can think of conditional independence in terms of blocking paths between sets.



Pearl observed: In an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  if we let X, Y, W, X be subsets of V, and set  $(X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | Z)_G$  to mean that every path from X to Y in G passes through Z. Then properties 1-4 are satisfied. We will come back to this observation. The analogy between dependence and graph reachability turns out to be much closer when  $G$  is a *directed* graph, and  $(X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | Z)_G$  stands for something called d-separation.

We will prove Symmetry and Decomposition.

Proof of 1. Symmetry: We claim the following:

$$
(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z) \Longleftrightarrow p(x,y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)
$$

for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $p(z) > 0$ .

proof of claim:

$$
p(x|y, z) = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y, z)} = \frac{p(x, y, z)}{p(y, z)} * \frac{p(z)}{p(z)} = p(x, y|z) * \frac{1}{p(y|z)}
$$

Now, if  $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z)$  we have

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

**Proof of 2. Decomposition:** Given  $(X \perp\!\!\!\perp (Y,W))|Z$ . We have  $p(x|y,w,z) = p(x,z)$ whenever  $p(y, w, z) > 0$ .

We want  $p(x|y, z) = p(x|z)$  whenever  $p(y, z) > 0$ .

$$
p(x|y,z) = \frac{p(x,y,z)}{p(y,z)} = \sum_{w} \frac{p(x,y,w,z)}{p(y,z)} = \sum \frac{p(x|y,w,z)p(y,w,z)}{p(y,z)} = \frac{p(x|z)}{p(y|z)} \sum p(y,w,z) = p(x|z)
$$

Notice that the terms where  $p(y, w, z) = 0$  do not contribute.

## Some History

.

1985: Pearl and Paz conjectured that conditions (1)-(4) are complete. In otherwords, for any 3-place relation  $\perp \!\!\! \perp$  satisfying (1)-(4) there is a probability measure P such that conditional independence with respect to P is  $\perp$ .

1992: Studeny disproved the conjecture. Showed:

If 
$$
X_0 \perp \perp X_i | X_{i+1}
$$
 for all  $i = 1, ..., n-1$ ,  
then  $X_0 \perp \perp X_{i+1} | X_i$  for all  $i = 1, ..., n-1$ .

Call this property  $S_n$ . It turns out that  $S_n$  is not implied by the conjunction of  $S_1, \ldots, S_{n-1}$ . In fact, no finite set of axioms is complete for conditional independence!

2006: Simicek and 2007: Sullivant both gave a counterexamples to the conjecture in which  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are jointly Gaussian.

### 1.2 Unconditional Independence

Notation:  $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y | \emptyset$  means  $p(x|y) = p(x)$  for all  $x, y$  such that  $p(y) > 0$ . Equivalently,  $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$  for all x and y.

Question: Which is stronger, conditional independence or unconditional independence?

Example 1:



$$
p(a, b, c) = p(c)p(a|c)p(b|c)
$$

Is  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B|C?$ 

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

Is  $A ⊥ ⊥ B$ | $\emptyset$ ?... not necessarily

Example 2:



$$
p(a, b, c) = p(a)p(b)p(c|a, b)
$$

Is  $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B|C$ ? Not in general

Is  $A ⊥ ⊥ B$ | $\emptyset$ ? Yes

Answer: Neither is stronger!

# 1.3 G-Markov distributions

Next class: we'll talk about G-Markov distributions where, G is a directed acyclic graph (generalizing the examples of three-vertex graphs above). These are also called Bayes Nets. The d-separation theorem of Pearl and Verma will allow us to reason from the graph which conditional independence conditions hold.