



# **Methods of Artificial Intelligence: Lecture**

## **9. Session: Vagueness and Uncertainty II (FINAL PART)**

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- Bayesian Networks
  - Bayes' Rule
  - Example
  - Constructing Bayesian Networks

# Bayesian Networks

## Bayes' Rule & Example

# Bayes' Rule

Product rule  $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Bayes' rule } P(a|b) = \frac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)}$$

- Example: *Sore throat*  $\rightarrow$  *flu*

- Known facts

- $P(\text{sore throat}) = 0.3$
    - $P(\text{flu}) = 0.4$
    - $P(\text{sore throat} \mid \text{flu}) = 0.6$

$$P(\text{flu} \mid \text{sore throat}) = \frac{P(\text{sore throat} \mid \text{flu})P(\text{flu})}{P(\text{sore throat})}$$

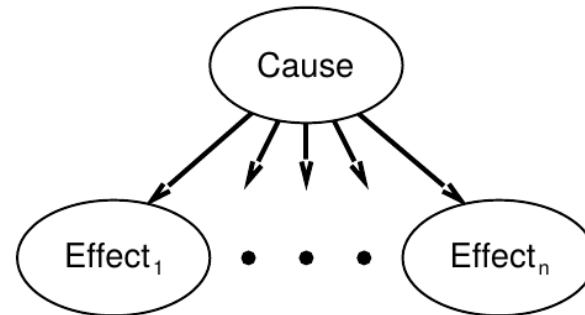
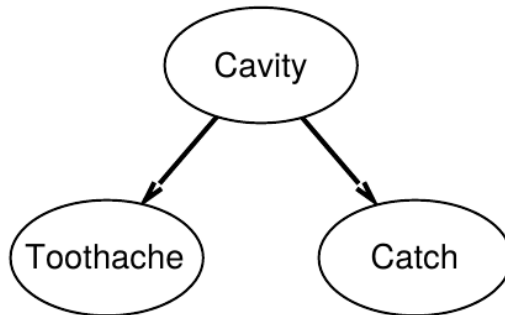
- With  $P = 0.8$  we can infer that someone has the flu if she reports a sore throat

# Towards Bayesian Networks

Idea: A single cause directly influences several effects and all effects are conditionally independent given the cause.

This is an example of a **naive Bayes** model:

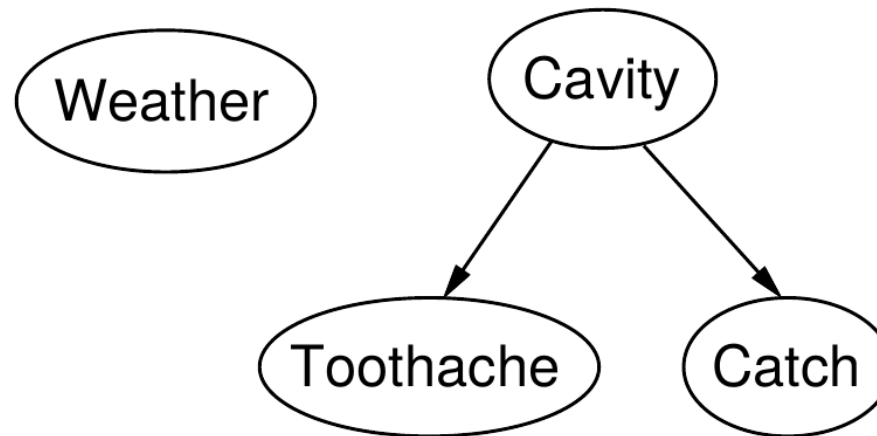
$$\mathbf{P}(\text{Cause}, \text{Effect}_1, \dots, \text{Effect}_n) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Cause}) \prod_i \mathbf{P}(\text{Effect}_i | \text{Cause})$$



Total number of parameters is **linear** in  $n$

# Towards Bayesian Networks

Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:

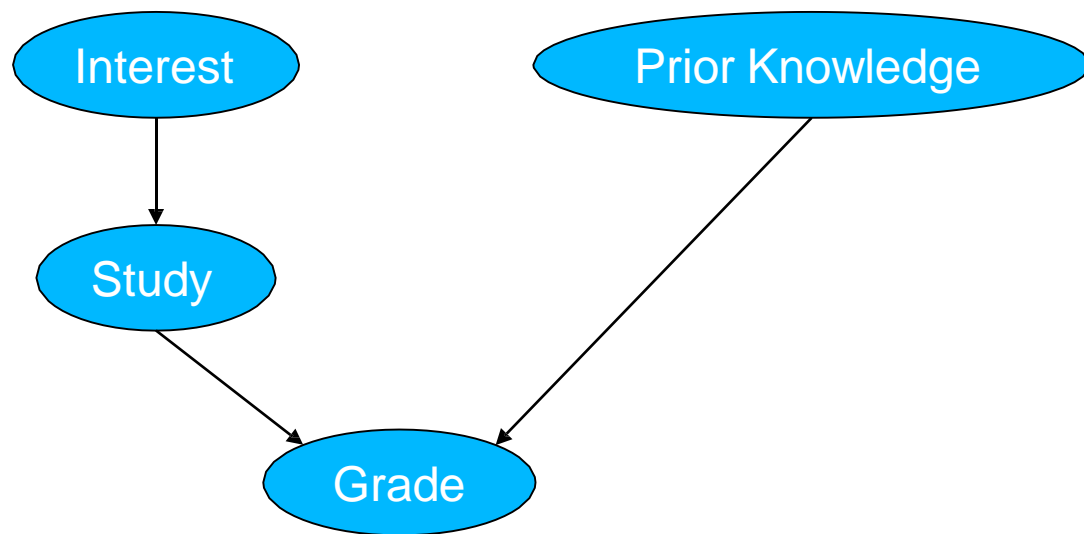


*Weather* is independent of the other variables

*Toothache* and *Catch* are conditionally independent given *Cavity*

# Bayesian Networks

- Bayesian network implicitly specifies a **joint probability distribution**  $P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  over random variables
- Explicitly, we only have to **define n conditional probability distributions**  $P(X_i \mid \text{Parents}(X_i))$  for  $i=1, \dots, n$
- $\text{Parents}(X_i)$  denotes a subset of  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$  called the set of **parents of  $X_i$**



$\text{Parents}(I) = \{ \}$

$\text{Parents}(PK) = \{ \}$

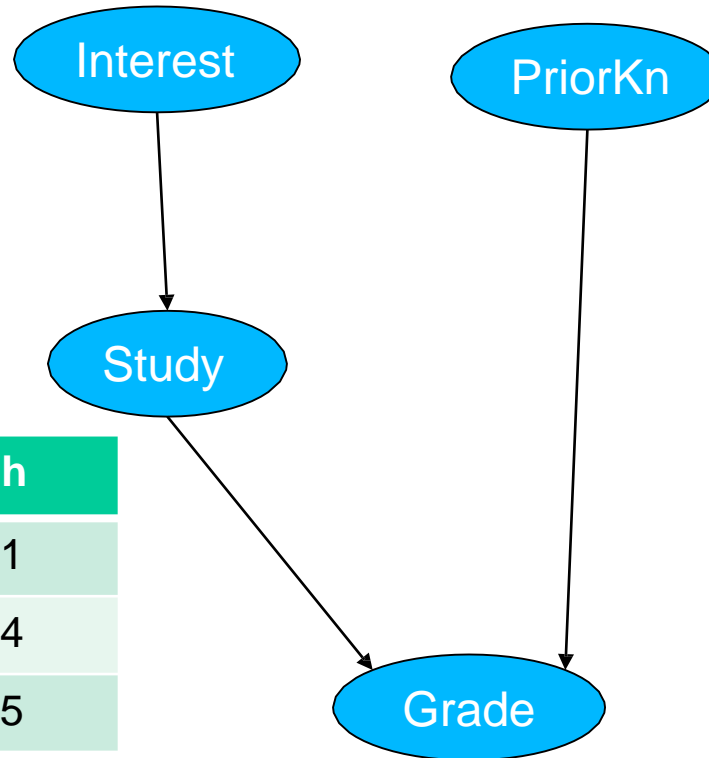
$\text{Parents}(S) = \{I\}$

$\text{Parents}(G) = \{S, PK\}$

# Bayesian Networks Example

Interest	P(Interest)
low	0.1
normal	0.7
high	0.2

Study	I=low	I=n	I=h
little	0.6	0.3	0.1
normal	0.3	0.4	0.4
much	0.1	0.3	0.5



PK	P(PK)
no	0.8
yes	0.2

Grade	(S=little, PK=no)	(S=little, PK=yes)	...
1.0	0.01	0.02	...
1.3	0.02	0.04	...
...	...	...	...



# Bayesian Networks Definition

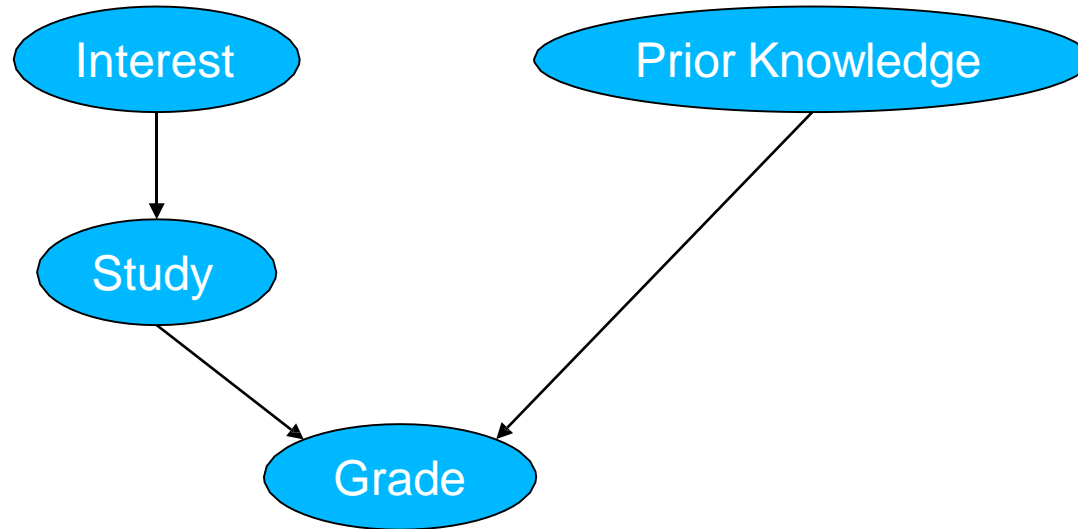
- Formally, a **Bayesian network** is a pair  $(P(X_1, \dots, X_n), G)$ , where
  - $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  is a **joint distribution** over random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$
  - $G$  is a **directed, acyclic graph** (DAG) over  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  (**BN Structure**)
  - $P$  **factorizes according to  $G$** , that is,

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = P(X_1 | \text{Parents}(X_1)) * \dots * P(X_n | \text{Parents}(X_n)),$$

where  $\text{Parents}(X_i)$  is the set of parents of  $X_i$  in  $G$

- Important:** a Bayesian network is not just a DAG, but also consists of a probabilistic model

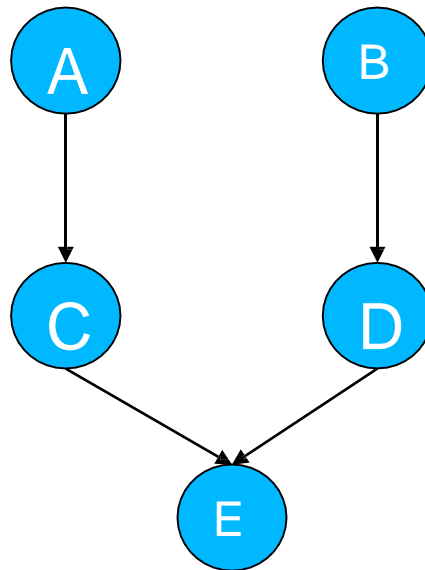
# Bayesian Networks Factorization



$$P(I, PK, S, G) = P(I) * P(PK) * P(S | I) * P(G | S, PK)$$

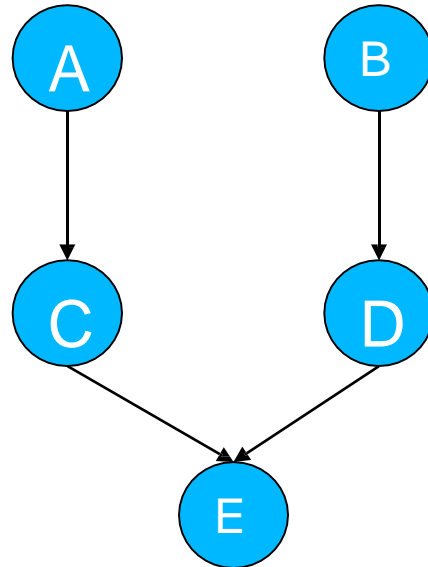
# Exercise

- Assume we are given a Bayesian network  $(P, G)$  and the BN structure  $G$  looks as follows:



- Write down the factorization of  $P$ .

# Solution



$$P(A,B,C,D,E) = P(A) * P(B) * P(C | A) * P(D | B) * P(E | C, D)$$

# Bayesian Networks

## Constructing a Bayesian Network

# Example

Scenario:

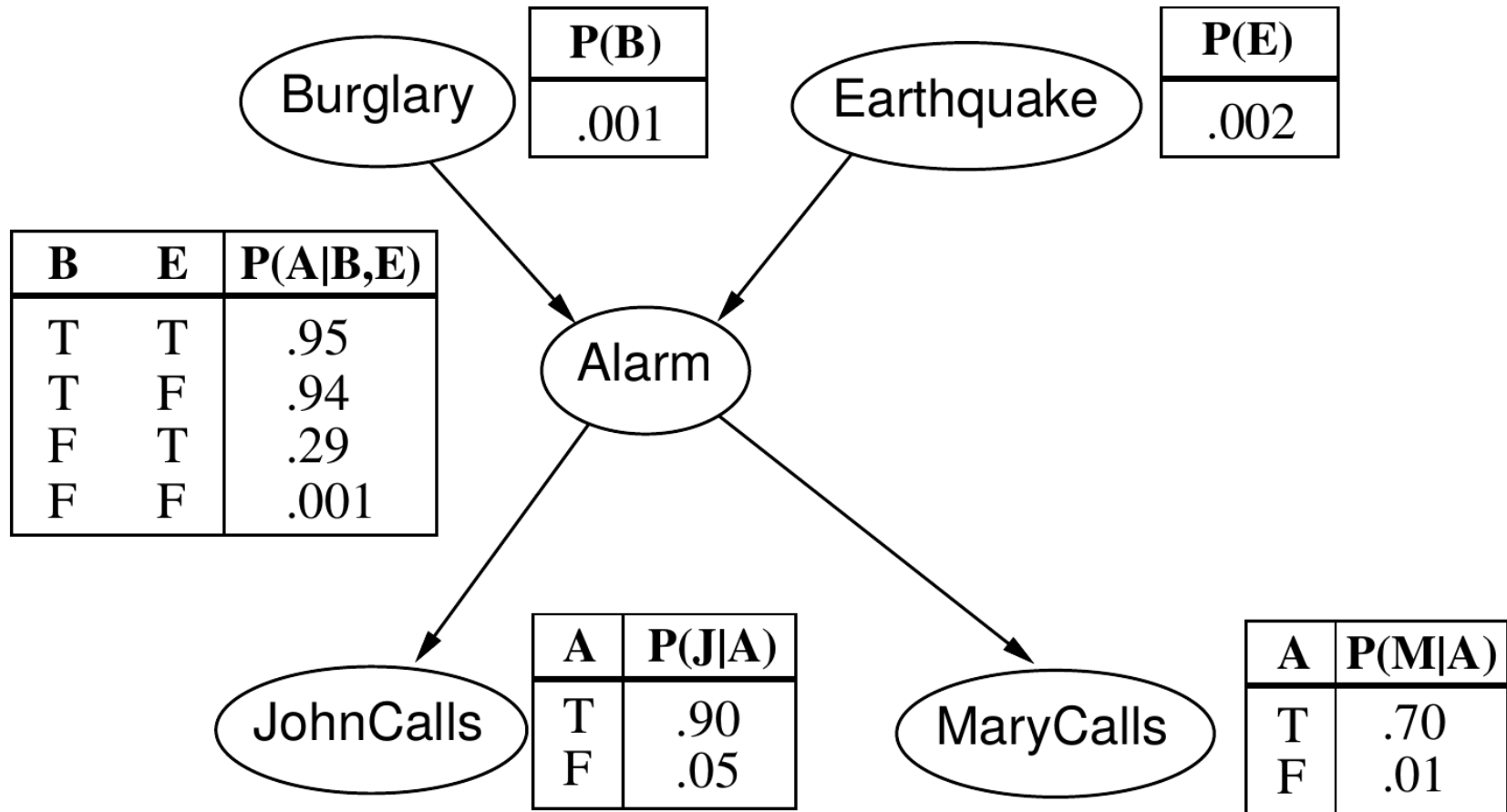
I'm at work, neighbor John calls to say my alarm is ringing, but neighbor Mary doesn't call. Sometimes it's set off by minor earthquakes. Is there a burglar?

Variables: *Burglar*, *Earthquake*, *Alarm*, *JohnCalls*, *MaryCalls*

Network topology reflects “causal” knowledge:

- A burglar can set the alarm off
- An earthquake can set the alarm off
- The alarm can cause Mary to call
- The alarm can cause John to call

# Example



# Properties

- CPT: Conditional Probability Table

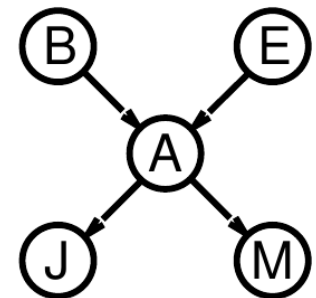
A CPT for Boolean  $X_i$  with  $k$  Boolean parents has  $2^k$  rows for the combinations of parent values

Each row requires one number  $p$  for  $X_i = \text{true}$  (the number for  $X_i = \text{false}$  is just  $1 - p$ )

If each variable has no more than  $k$  parents, the complete network requires  $O(n \cdot 2^k)$  numbers

I.e., grows linearly with  $n$ , vs.  $O(2^n)$  for the full joint distribution

For burglary net,  $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$  numbers (vs.  $2^5$  numbers)





# Global Semantics

“Global” semantics defines the full joint distribution as the product of the local conditional distributions:

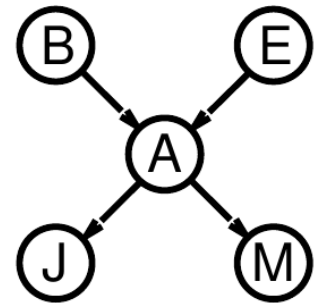
$$P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

e.g.,  $P(j \wedge m \wedge a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg e)$

$$= P(j|a)P(m|a)P(a|\neg b, \neg e)P(\neg b)P(\neg e)$$

$$= 0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998$$

$$\approx 0.00063$$



# Constructing Bayesian Networks

Need a method such that a series of locally testable assertions of conditional independence guarantees the required global semantics

1. Choose an ordering of variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$
2. For  $i = 1$  to  $n$ 
  - add  $X_i$  to the network
  - select parents from  $X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}$  such that
$$\mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) = \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \quad (\text{chain rule}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) \quad (\text{by construction})\end{aligned}$$

# Example

Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$

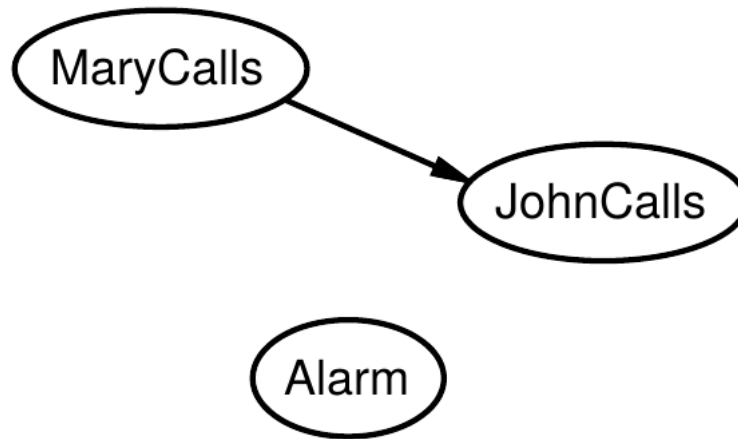
MaryCalls

JohnCalls

$$P(J|M) = P(J)?$$

# Example

Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$

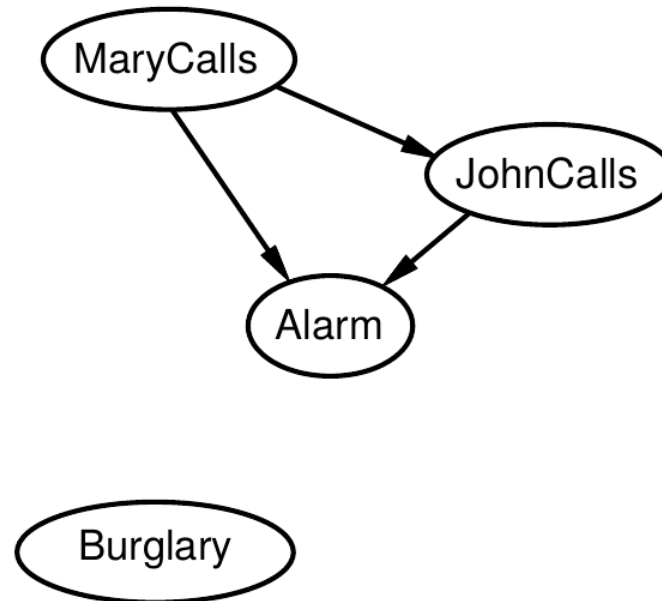


$P(J|M) = P(J)$ ? No

$P(A|J, M) = P(A|J)$ ?  $P(A|J, M) = P(A)$ ?

# Example

Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$



$P(J|M) = P(J)$ ? No

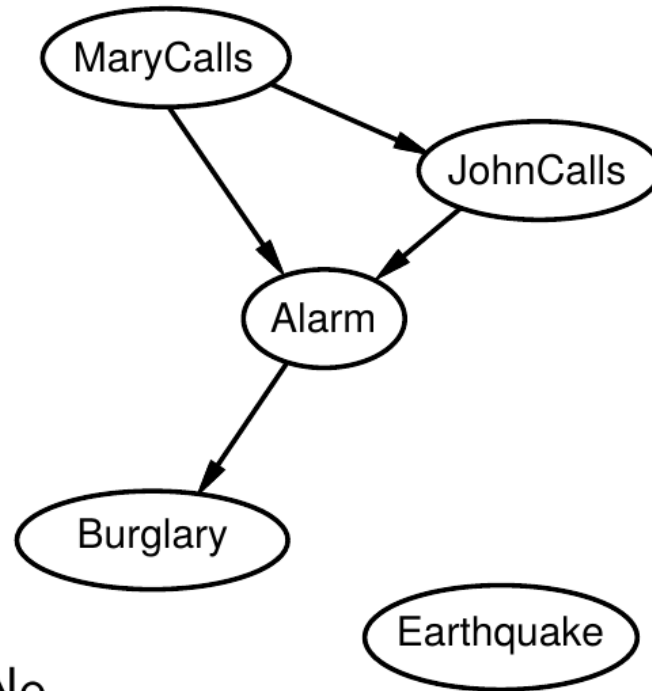
$P(A|J, M) = P(A|J)$ ?  $P(A|J, M) = P(A)$ ? No

$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B|A)$ ?

$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B)$ ?

# Example

Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$



$P(J|M) = P(J)$ ? No

$P(A|J, M) = P(A|J)$ ?  $P(A|J, M) = P(A)$ ? No

$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B|A)$ ? Yes

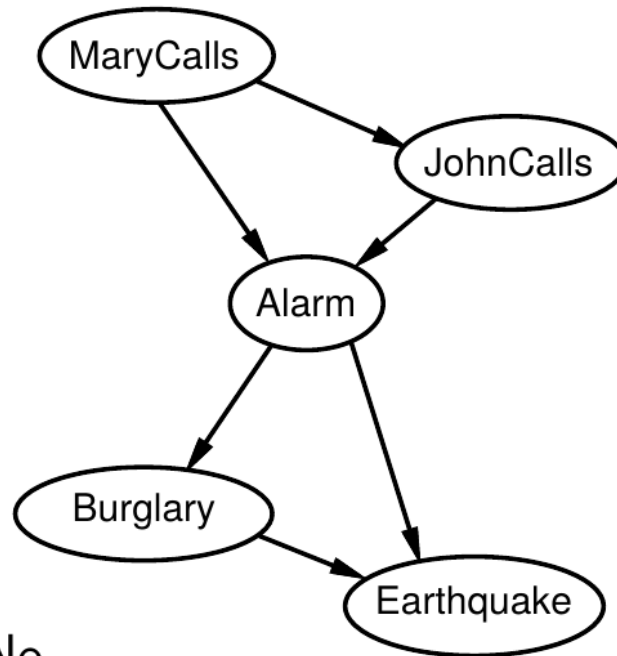
$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B)$ ? No

$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A)$ ?

$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A, B)$ ?

# Example

Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$



$P(J|M) = P(J)$ ? No

$P(A|J, M) = P(A|J)$ ?  $P(A|J, M) = P(A)$ ? No

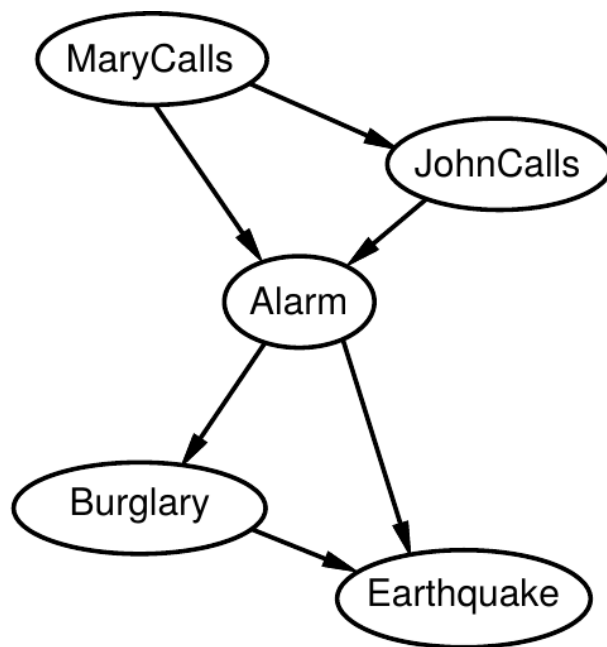
$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B|A)$ ? Yes

$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B)$ ? No

$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A)$ ? No

$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A, B)$ ? Yes

# Example



Deciding conditional independence is hard in noncausal directions

(Causal models and conditional independence seem hardwired for humans!)

Assessing conditional probabilities is hard in noncausal directions

Network is less compact:  $1 + 2 + 4 + 2 + 4 = 13$  numbers needed



# Further Readings

Most topics can be found in:

- S. Russell, P. Norvig.  
*Artificial Intelligence - A modern approach.*  
Pearson Education. 2010. 3rd Edition.  
Sections 13.1: Introduction to acting under uncertainty  
Sections 13.2–3: Basic probability and probabilistic logic notions  
Sections 14.7.3: Fuzzy sets and fuzzy logics
- T.J. Ross.  
*Fuzzy logic with engineering applications.*  
John Wiley & Sons. 2009.
- D. Koller, N. Friedman.  
*Probabilistic graphical models: principles and techniques.*  
MIT Press. 2009.