

# Bayesian Belief Networks

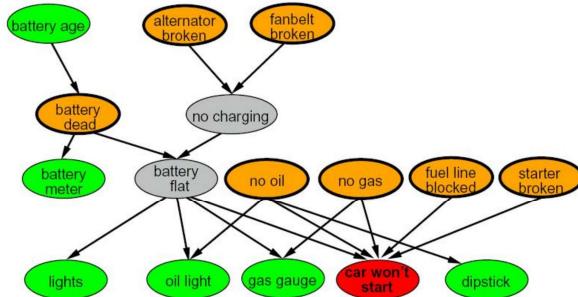
AIMA, Chapter 14



Kunstmatige Intelligentie / RuG



Initial evidence: car won't start  
Testable variables (green), "broken, so fix it" variables (orange)  
Hidden variables (gray) ensure sparse structure, reduce parameters



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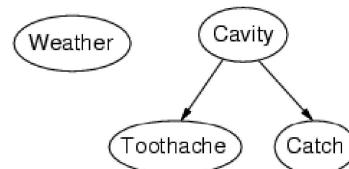
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## Bayesian Networks

- A simple, graphical notation for conditional independence assertions and hence for compact specification of full joint distributions
- The constituents of a Bayesian network:
  - a set of nodes, one per variable
  - a directed, acyclic graph (link  $\approx$  "directly influences")
  - a conditional distribution for each node given its parents  $P(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i))$
- In the simplest case, conditional distribution represented as a [conditional probability table](#) (CPT) giving the distribution over  $X_i$  for each combination of parent values

## Example

- Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:



- Weather* is independent of the other variables
- Toothache* and *Catch* are conditionally independent given *Cavity* (e.g.:  $p(T|Cav) = p(T|Cav, Catch) = p(T|Cav, \text{not } Catch)$ )

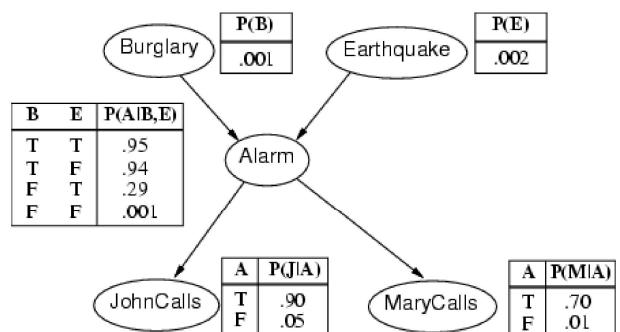
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## Example

- 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: *Burglary*, *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 contd.

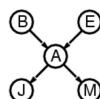


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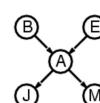
## Compactness

- 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.  $2^5 - 1 = 31$ )

## Computing the Full Joint Distribution



- The full joint distribution is equal to the product of the local conditional distributions:

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{e.g. } & P(j \wedge m \wedge a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg e) \\ &= P(j | a) P(m | a) P(a | \neg b, \neg e) P(\neg b) P(\neg e) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$P(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) = P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

▪ This choice of parents guarantees:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_i P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \text{ (chain rule)}$$

$$= \prod_i P(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) \text{ (by construction)}$$

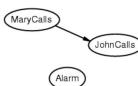
▪ Suppose we choose the ordering  $M, J, A, B, E$



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

## Example

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

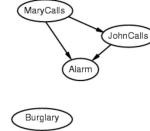


$$P(J | M) = P(J)? \text{ No, John can decide for himself}$$

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

## Example

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



$$P(J | M) = P(J)? \text{ No}$$

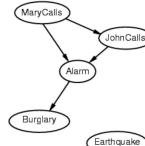
$$P(A | J, M) = P(A | J)? P(A | J, M) = P(A)? \text{ No}$$

$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B | A)? \text{ Yes}$$

$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B)? \text{ No, the burglar decides himself}$$

## Example

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



$$P(J | M) = P(J)? \text{ No}$$

$$P(A | J, M) = P(A | J)? P(A | J, M) = P(A)? \text{ No}$$

$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B | A)? \text{ Yes}$$

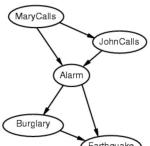
$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B)? \text{ No, the burglar decides himself}$$

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

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

## Example

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



$$P(J | M) = P(J)? \text{ No}$$

$$P(A | J, M) = P(A | J)? P(A | J, M) = P(A)? \text{ No}$$

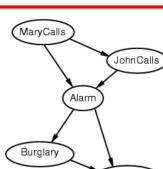
$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B | A)? \text{ Yes}$$

$$P(B | A, J, M) = P(B)? \text{ No, the burglar decides himself}$$

$$P(E | B, A, J, M) = P(E | A)? \text{ No, earthquakes don't wait for an alarm to go off}$$

$$P(E | B, A, J, M) = P(E | A, B)? \text{ Yes} \rightarrow \text{unclear picture}$$

## Example contd.

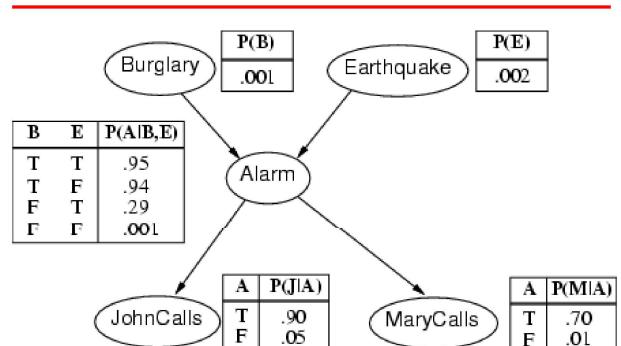


▪ Deciding conditional independence is difficult in **noncausal** directions.

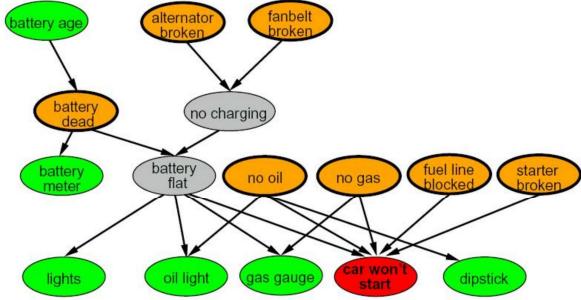
▪ Causal models and conditional independence seem hardwired in human reasoning!

▪ Also: the bad network was less compact:  
 $1 + 2 + 4 + 2 + 4 = 13$  numbers needed.

## Causal ordering is natural, easy



Initial evidence: car won't start  
 Testable variables (green), "broken, so fix it" variables (orange)  
 Hidden variables (gray) ensure sparse structure, reduce parameters



## Summary

- Bayesian networks provide a natural representation for (causally induced) conditional independence.
- Topology + CPTs = compact representation of joint distribution.
- Generally easy for domain experts to construct.
- Belief networks have found increasing use in complex diagnosis problems (medical, cars, PC operating systems).

## All is well in Belief Network Land?

- Problems:
  - Network construction: often gofai human construction labor (knowledge based, 'Cyc' etc.)
  - Estimation of probabilities
  - Product of probabilities:
    - Not  $p$  but  $p' = p + \epsilon$  therefore

$$\prod_i (p_i + \epsilon) \quad \text{propagation of errors! especially in a long chain}$$

## Summary for Bayesian Methods

- Bayesian methods:
  - Learning = estimation of probability distributions of samples from different classes
  - Classification = use these estimates to determine which class is more likely for a new instance
- Naive Bayes:
  - Assumes that attributes are independent.
- Bayesian Belief Networks:
  - Assumes that subsets of attributes are independent.
  - Bayesian methods allow combining prior knowledge about the world with evidence from the data stream.