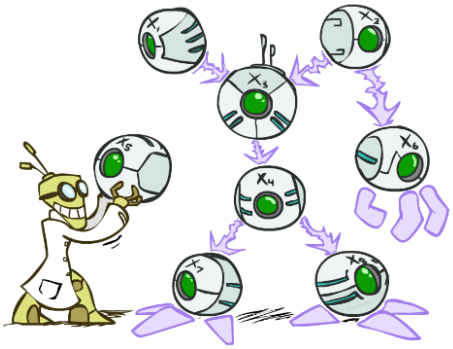
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Bayes' Nets



Instructors: Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel --- University of California, Berkeley

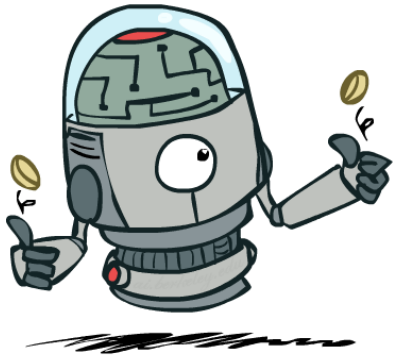
Probabilistic Models

- Models describe how (a portion of) the world works

- Models are always simplifications
  - May not account for every variable
  - May not account for all interactions between variables
  - "All models are wrong; but some are useful."
    – George E. P. Box

- What do we do with probabilistic models?
  - We (or our agents) need to reason about unknown variables, given evidence
  - Example: explanation (diagnostic reasoning)
  - Example: prediction (causal reasoning)
  - Example: value of information

Independence



Independence

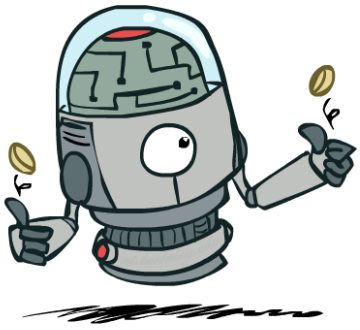
- Two variables are *independent* if:

$$\forall x, y : P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$$

  - This says that their joint distribution *factors* into a product two simpler distributions
  - Another form:

$$\forall x, y : P(x|y) = P(x)$$

  - We write: $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$



- Independence is a simplifying *modeling assumption*
  - *Empirical* joint distributions: at best "close" to independent
  - What could we assume for {Weather, Traffic, Cavity, Toothache}?

Example: Independence?

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$P_1(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$P(W)$

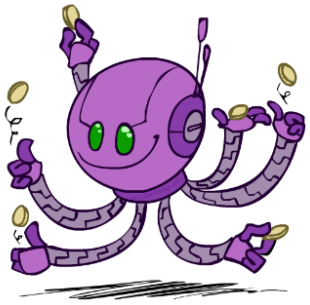
W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

$P_2(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.3
hot	rain	0.2
cold	sun	0.3
cold	rain	0.2

Example: Independence

- N fair, independent coin flips:



$P(X_1)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

$P(X_2)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

$\cdots$

$P(X_n)$

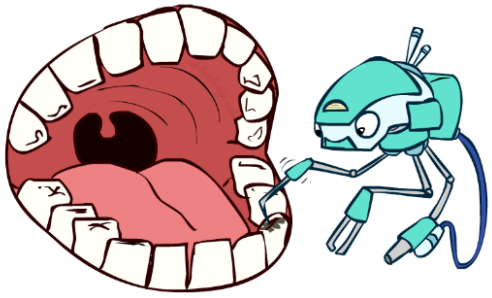
H	0.5
T	0.5

$P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n)$

2^n

Conditional Independence

- P(Toothache, Cavity, Catch)
- If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:
  - P(+catch | ~~+toothache~~, +cavity) = P(+catch | +cavity)
- The same independence holds if I don't have a cavity:
  - P(+catch | +toothache, -cavity) = P(+catch| -cavity)
- Catch is *conditionally independent* of Toothache given Cavity:
  - P(Catch | Toothache, Cavity) = P(Catch | Cavity)
- Equivalent statements:
  - P(Toothache | Catch , Cavity) = P(Toothache | Cavity)
  - P(Toothache, Catch | Cavity) = P(Toothache | Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity)
  - One can be derived from the other easily



Conditional Independence

- Unconditional (absolute) independence very rare (why?)
- *Conditional independence* is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.
- X is conditionally independent of Y given Z

$$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$$

if and only if:

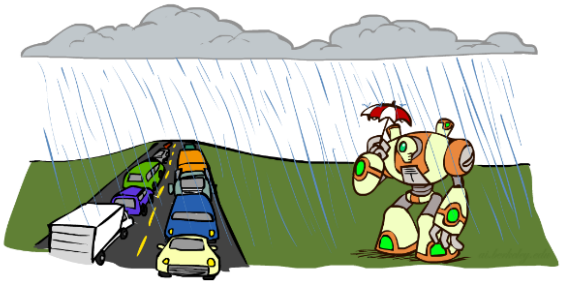
$$\forall x, y, z : P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$$

or, equivalently, if and only if

$$\forall x, y, z : P(x|z, y) = P(x|z)$$

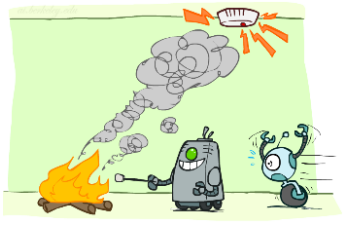
Conditional Independence

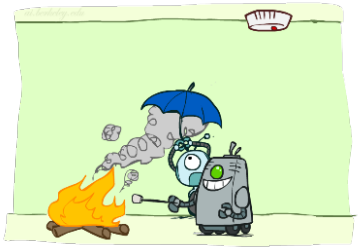
- What about this domain:
  - Traffic
  - Umbrella
  - Raining



Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm



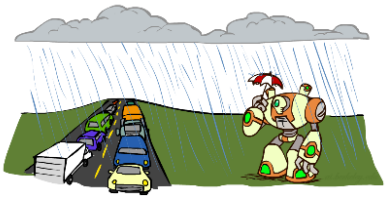


Conditional Independence and the Chain Rule

- Chain rule: $P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n) = P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\ldots$

- Trivial decomposition:

$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) = P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain}, \text{Traffic})$$



- With assumption of conditional independence:

$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) = P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain})$$

- Bayes'nets / graphical models help us express conditional independence assumptions

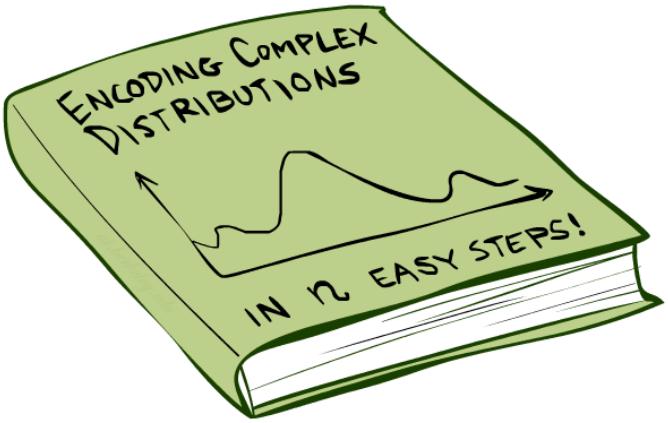
Ghostbusters Chain Rule

- Each sensor depends only on where the ghost is
- That means, the two sensors are conditionally independent, given the ghost position
- T: Top square is red
  B: Bottom square is red
  G: Ghost is in the top
- Givens:
  P(+g) = 0.5
  P(-g) = 0.5
  P(+t | +g) = 0.8
  P(+t | -g) = 0.4
  P(+b | +g) = 0.4
  P(+b | -g) = 0.8

P(T,B,G) = P(G) P(T|G) P(B|G)

T	B	G	P(T,B,G)
+t	+b	+g	0.16
+t	+b	-g	0.16
+t	-b	+g	0.24
+t	-b	-g	0.04
-t	+b	+g	0.04
-t	+b	-g	0.24
-t	-b	+g	0.06
-t	-b	-g	0.06

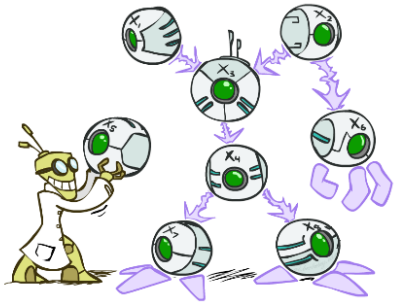
Bayes'Nets: Big Picture



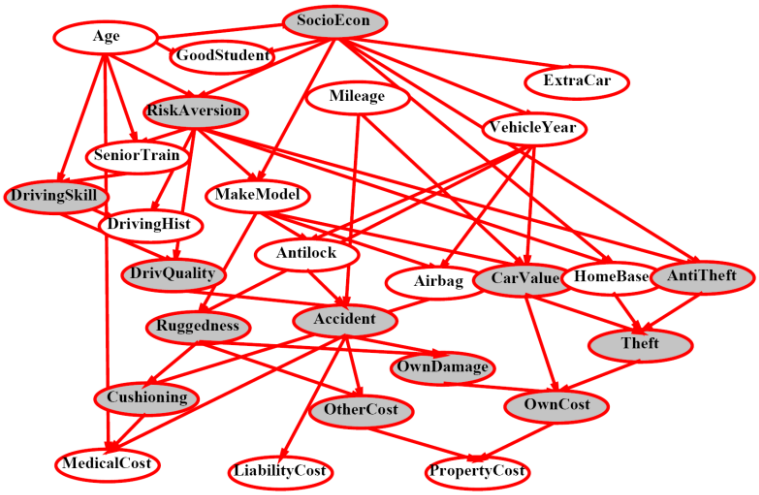
Bayes' Nets: Big Picture

- Two problems with using full joint distribution tables as our probabilistic models:
  - Unless there are only a few variables, the joint is WAY too big to represent explicitly
  - Hard to learn (estimate) anything empirically about more than a few variables at a time

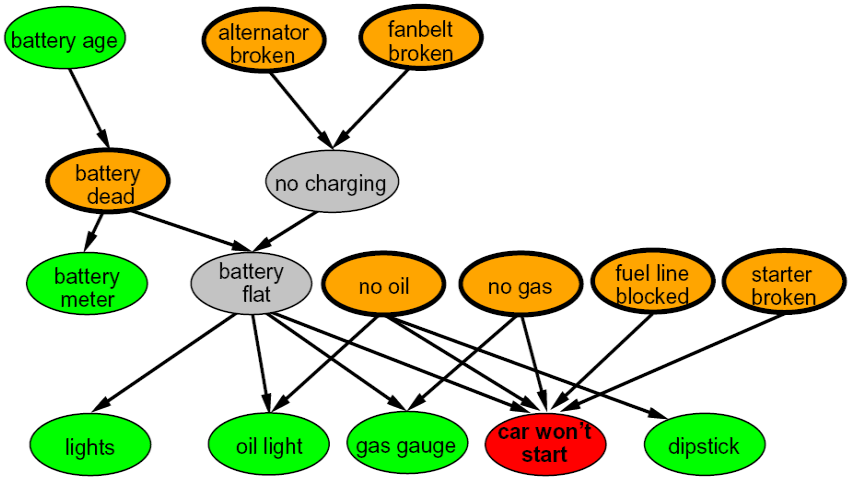
- Bayes' nets: a technique for describing complex joint distributions (models) using simple, local distributions (conditional probabilities)
  - More properly called graphical models
  - We describe how variables locally interact
  - Local interactions chain together to give global, indirect interactions
  - For about 10 min, we'll be vague about how these interactions are specified



Example Bayes' Net: Insurance

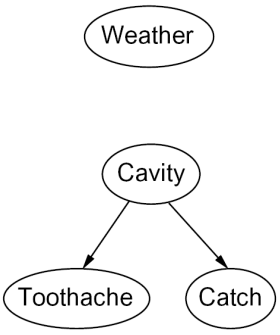


Example Bayes' Net: Car



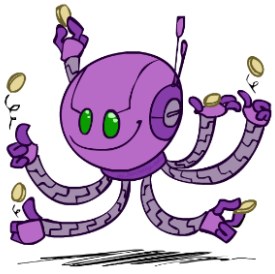
Graphical Model Notation

- Nodes: variables (with domains)
  - Can be assigned (observed) or unassigned (unobserved)
- Arcs: interactions
  - Similar to CSP constraints
  - Indicate "direct influence" between variables
  - Formally: encode conditional independence (more later)
- For now: imagine that arrows mean direct causation (in general, they don't!)



Example: Coin Flips

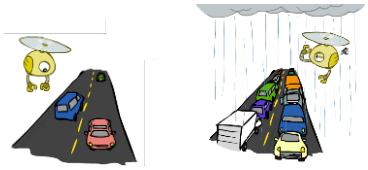
- N independent coin flips



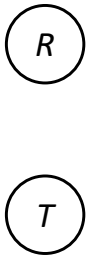
- No interactions between variables: absolute independence

Example: Traffic

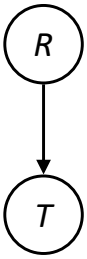
- Variables:
  - R: It rains
  - T: There is traffic



- Model 1: independence



- Model 2: rain causes traffic



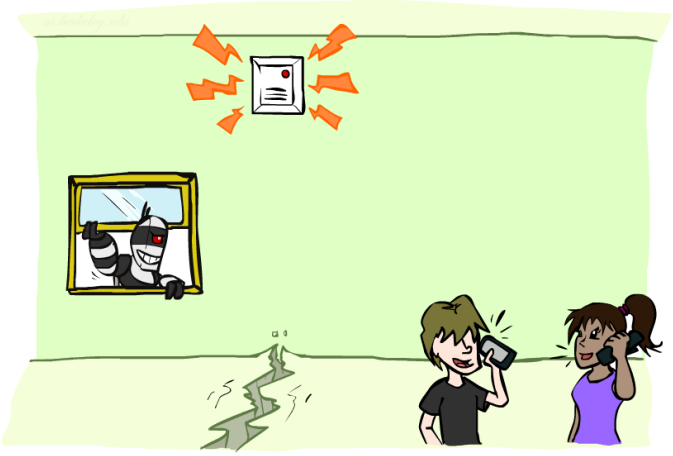
- Why is an agent using model 2 better?

Example: Traffic II

- Let's build a causal graphical model!
- Variables
  - T: Traffic
  - R: It rains
  - L: Low pressure
  - D: Roof drips
  - B: Ballgame
  - C: Cavity

Example: Alarm Network

- Variables
  - B: Burglary
  - A: Alarm goes off
  - M: Mary calls
  - J: John calls
  - E: Earthquake!



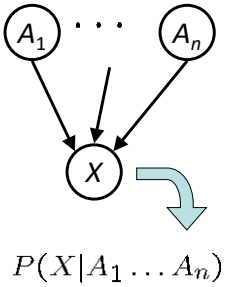
Bayes' Net Semantics

Bayes' Net Semantics

- A set of nodes, one per variable X
- A directed, acyclic graph
- A conditional distribution for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \dots a_n)$$

  - CPT: conditional probability table
  - Description of a noisy "causal" process



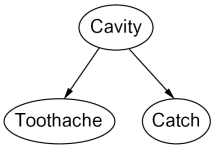
A Bayes net = Topology (graph) + Local Conditional Probabilities

Probabilities in BNs

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
  - As a product of local conditional distributions
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|\mathit{parents}(X_i))$$

  - Example:



$P(+\mathit{cavity}, +\mathit{catch}, -\mathit{toothache})$

Probabilities in BNs

- Why are we guaranteed that setting

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

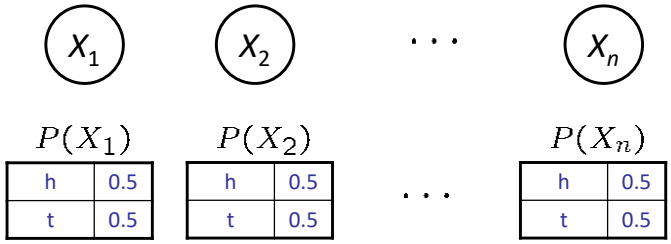
results in a proper joint distribution?

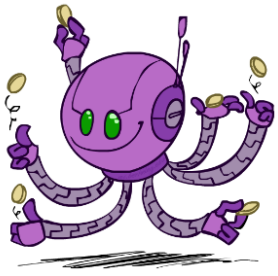
- Chain rule (valid for all distributions): $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | x_1 \ldots x_{i-1})$
- Assume conditional independences: $P(x_i | x_1, \ldots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i | parents(X_i))$

→ Consequence: $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$

- Not every BN can represent every joint distribution
  - The topology enforces certain conditional independencies

Example: Coin Flips





$$P(h, h, t, h) =$$

Only distributions whose variables are absolutely independent can be represented by a Bayes' net with no arcs.

Example: Traffic

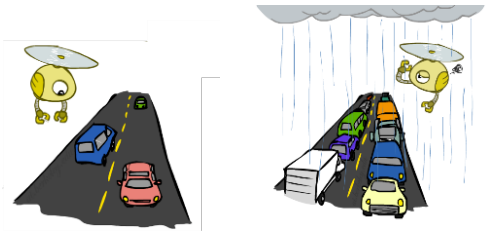
$P(R)$

+r	1/4
-r	3/4

$P(T|R)$

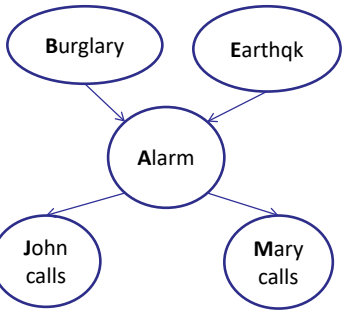
+r	+t	3/4
	-t	1/4
-r	+t	1/2
	-t	1/2

$$P(+r, -t) =$$



Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999



E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998

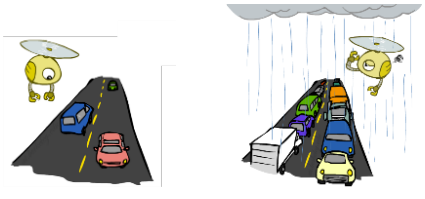
A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	-j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

Example: Traffic

- Causal direction



$P(R)$

+r	1/4
-r	3/4

$P(T|R)$

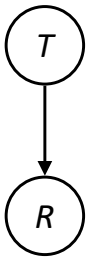
+r	+t	3/4
	-t	1/4
-r	+t	1/2
	-t	1/2

$P(T, R)$

+r	+t	3/16
+r	-t	1/16
-r	+t	6/16
-r	-t	6/16

Example: Reverse Traffic

- Reverse causality?



$P(T)$

+t	9/16
-t	7/16

$P(R|T)$

+t	+r	1/3
	-r	2/3
-t	+r	1/7
	-r	6/7

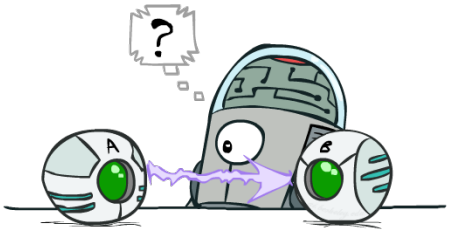
$P(T, R)$

+r	+t	3/16
+r	-t	1/16
-r	+t	6/16
-r	-t	6/16

Causality?

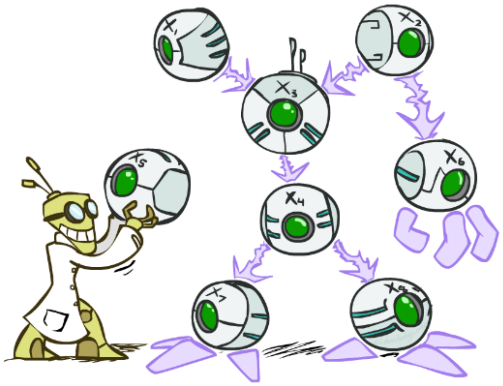
- When Bayes' nets reflect the true causal patterns:
  - Often simpler (nodes have fewer parents)
  - Often easier to think about
  - Often easier to elicit from experts
- BNs need not actually be causal
  - Sometimes no causal net exists over the domain (especially if variables are missing)
  - E.g. consider the variables *Traffic* and *Drips*
  - End up with arrows that reflect correlation, not causation
- What do the arrows really mean?
  - Topology may happen to encode causal structure
  - Topology really encodes conditional independence

$$P(x_i|x_1, \ldots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$



Bayes' Nets

- So far: how a Bayes' net encodes a joint distribution
- Next: how to answer queries about that distribution
  - Today:
    - First assembled BNs using an intuitive notion of conditional independence as causality
    - Then saw that key property is conditional independence
  - Main goal: answer queries about conditional independence and influence
- After that: how to answer numerical queries (inference)



CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Bayes' Nets: Independence

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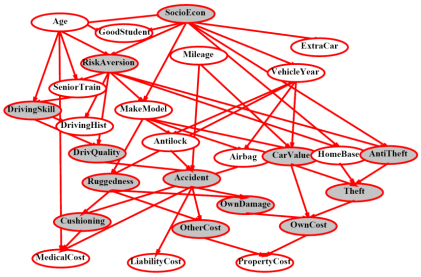
Probability Recap

- Conditional probability $P(x|y) = \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)}$
- Product rule $P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y)$
- Chain rule $$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, X_2, \dots X_n) &= P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\dots \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$
- X, Y independent if and only if: $\forall x, y : P(x,y) = P(x)P(y)$
- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if and only if:

$$\forall x, y, z : P(x,y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z) \qquad X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$$

Bayes' Nets

- A Bayes' net is an efficient encoding of a probabilistic model of a domain



- Questions we can ask:
  - Inference: given a fixed BN, what is P(X | e)?
  - Representation: given a BN graph, what kinds of distributions can it encode?
  - Modeling: what BN is most appropriate for a given domain?

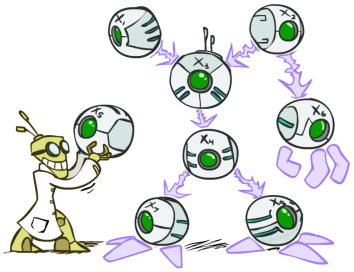
Bayes' Net Semantics

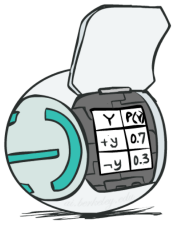
- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \dots a_n)$$

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
  - As a product of local conditional distributions
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$

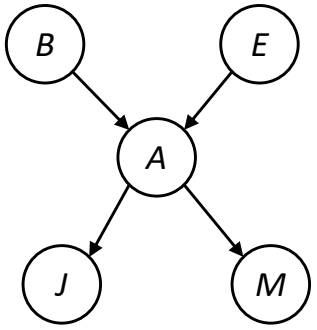


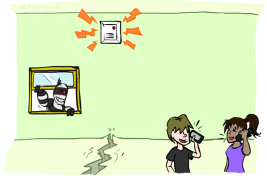


Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999

E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998





A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	-j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

$$P(+b, -e, +a, -j, +m) =$$

Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999

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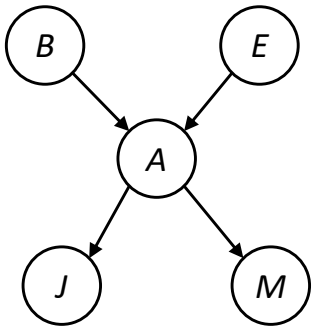
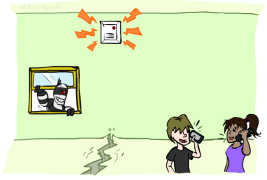
+e	0.002
-e	0.998





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-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

$$P(+b, -e, +a, -j, +m) =$$
$$P(+b)P(-e)P(+a|+b,-e)P(-j|+a)P(+m|+a) =$$
$$0.001 \times 0.998 \times 0.94 \times 0.1 \times 0.7$$

Size of a Bayes' Net

- How big is a joint distribution over N Boolean variables?

  2^N

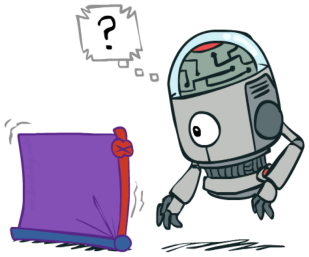
- How big is an N-node net if nodes have up to k parents?

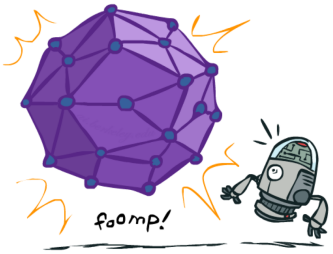
  $O(N * 2^{k+1})$

- Both give you the power to calculate

  $$P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n)$$

- BNs: Huge space savings!
- Also easier to elicit local CPTs
- Also faster to answer queries (coming)





Bayes' Nets

- ✔ Representation
- Conditional Independences
- Probabilistic Inference
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data

Conditional Independence

- X and Y are independent if

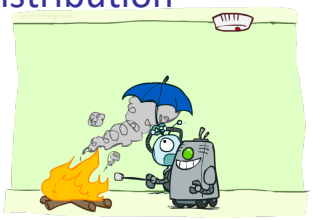
$$\forall x, y \;\; P(x, y) = P(x)P(y) \;\; \dashrightarrow \;\; X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$$

- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z

$$\forall x, y, z \;\; P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z) \dashrightarrow X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y|Z$$

- (Conditional) independence is a property of a distribution

- Example: $Alarm \perp\!\!\!\perp Fire|Smoke$

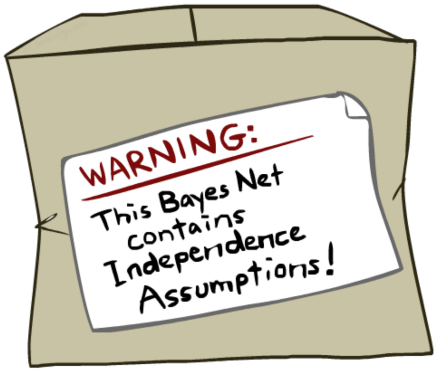


Bayes Nets: Assumptions

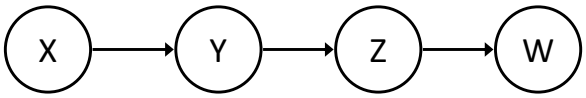
- Assumptions we are required to make to define the Bayes net when given the graph:

$$P(x_i|x_1 \cdots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$

- Beyond above "chain rule → Bayes net" conditional independence assumptions
  - Often additional conditional independences
  - They can be read off the graph
- Important for modeling: understand assumptions made when choosing a Bayes net graph



Example

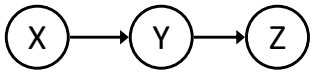


- Conditional independence assumptions directly from simplifications in chain rule:

- Additional implied conditional independence assumptions?

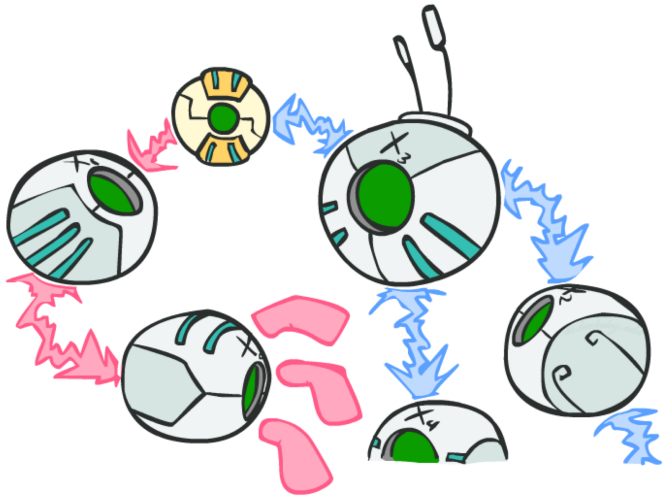
Independence in a BN

- Important question about a BN:
  - Are two nodes independent given certain evidence?
  - If yes, can prove using algebra (tedious in general)
  - If no, can prove with a counter example
  - Example:



  - Question: are X and Z necessarily independent?
    - Answer: no. Example: low pressure causes rain, which causes traffic.
    - X can influence Z, Z can influence X (via Y)
    - Addendum: they *could* be independent: how?

D-separation: Outline



D-separation: Outline

- Study independence properties for triples
- Analyze complex cases in terms of member triples
- D-separation: a condition / algorithm for answering such queries

Causal Chains

- This configuration is a "causal chain"

X: Low pressure Y: Rain Z: Traffic

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

- Guaranteed X independent of Z ? *No!*
  - One example set of CPTs for which X is not independent of Z is sufficient to show this independence is not guaranteed.
  - Example:
    - Low pressure causes rain causes traffic, high pressure causes no rain causes no traffic
    - In numbers:

      P(+y | +x) = 1, P(-y | - x) = 1,
      P(+z | +y) = 1, P(-z | -y) = 1

Causal Chains

- This configuration is a "causal chain"

X: Low pressure Y: Rain Z: Traffic

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

- Guaranteed X independent of Z given Y?

$$P(z|x, y) = \frac{P(x, y, z)}{P(x, y)}$$

$$= \frac{P(x)P(y|x)P(z|y)}{P(x)P(y|x)}$$

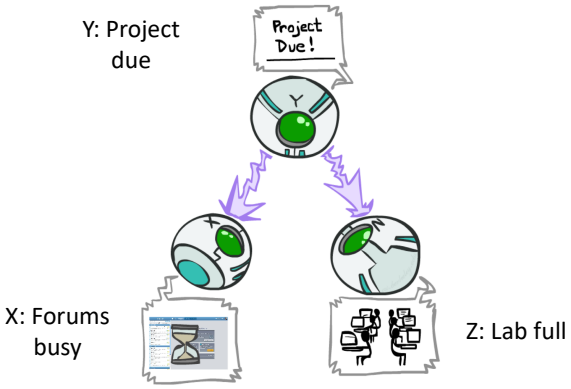
$$= P(z|y)$$

Yes!

- Evidence along the chain "blocks" the influence

Common Cause

- This configuration is a "common cause"



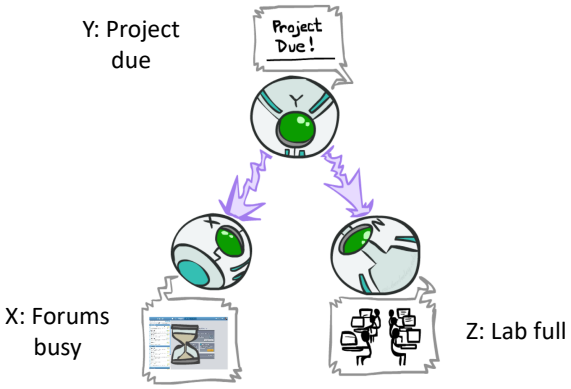
$$P(x, y, z) = P(y)P(x|y)P(z|y)$$

- Guaranteed X independent of Z ? *No!*
  - One example set of CPTs for which X is not independent of Z is sufficient to show this independence is not guaranteed.
  - Example:
    - Project due causes both forums busy and lab full
    - In numbers:

      P(+x | +y) = 1, P(-x | -y) = 1,
      P(+z | +y) = 1, P(-z | -y) = 1

Common Cause

- This configuration is a "common cause"



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

- Guaranteed X and Z independent given Y?

$$P(z|x, y) = \frac{P(x, y, z)}{P(x, y)}$$

$$= \frac{P(y)P(x|y)P(z|y)}{P(y)P(x|y)}$$

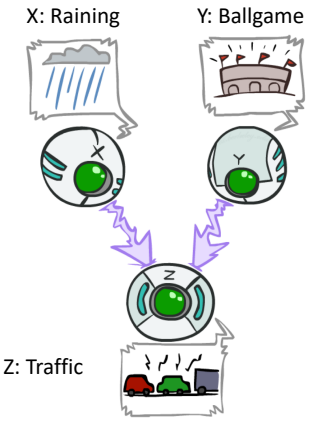
$$= P(z|y)$$

Yes!

- Observing the cause blocks influence between effects.

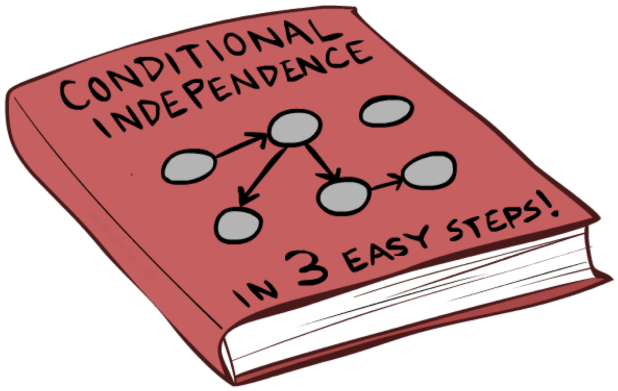
Common Effect

- Last configuration: two causes of one effect (v-structures)



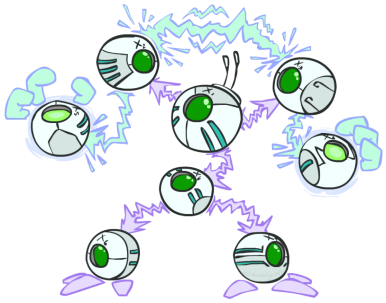
- Are X and Y independent?
  - *Yes*: the ballgame and the rain cause traffic, but they are not correlated
  - Still need to prove they must be (try it!)
- Are X and Y independent given Z?
  - *No*: seeing traffic puts the rain and the ballgame in competition as explanation.
- This is backwards from the other cases
  - Observing an effect activates influence between possible causes.

The General Case



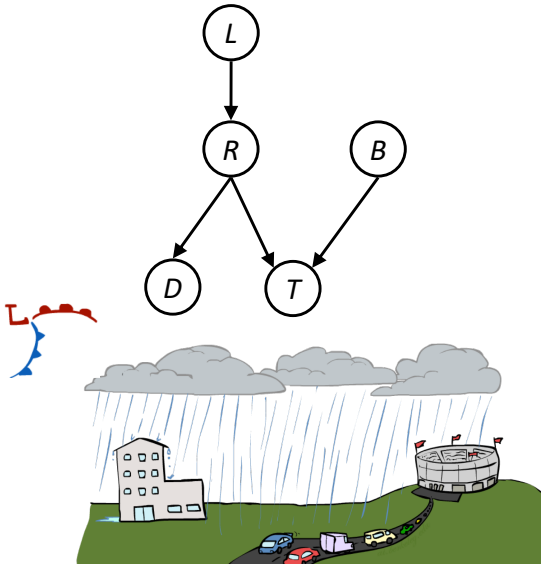
The General Case

- General question: in a given BN, are two variables independent (given evidence)?
- Solution: analyze the graph
- Any complex example can be broken into repetitions of the three canonical cases



Reachability

- Recipe: shade evidence nodes, look for paths in the resulting graph
- Attempt 1: if two nodes are connected by an undirected path not blocked by a shaded node, they are conditionally independent
- Almost works, but not quite
  - Where does it break?
  - Answer: the v-structure at T doesn't count as a link in a path unless "active"

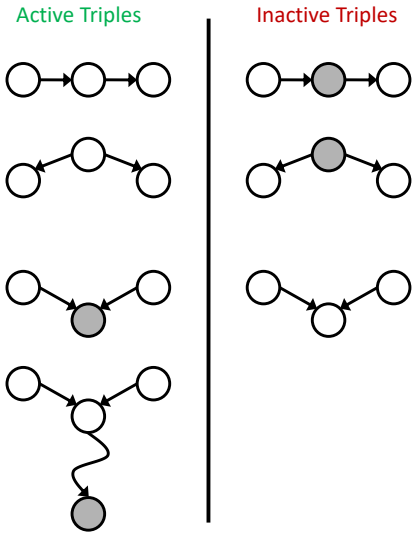


Active / Inactive Paths

- Question: Are X and Y conditionally independent given evidence variables {Z}?
  - Yes, if X and Y "d-separated" by Z
  - Consider all (undirected) paths from X to Y
  - No active paths = independence!

- A path is active if each triple is active:
  - Causal chain A → B → C where B is unobserved (either direction)
  - Common cause A ← B → C where B is unobserved
  - Common effect (aka v-structure)
    A → B ← C where B *or one of its descendents* is observed

- All it takes to block a path is a single inactive segment



D-Separation

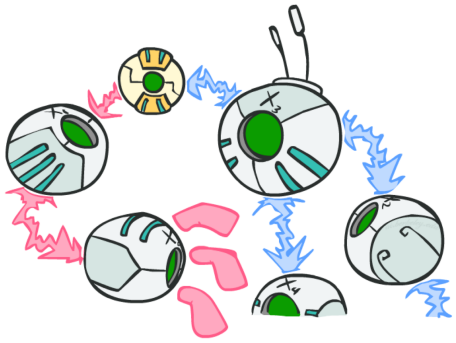
- Query: $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$?

- Check all (undirected!) paths between X_i and X_j
  - If one or more active, then independence not guaranteed

$$X_i \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

  - Otherwise (i.e. if all paths are inactive), then independence is guaranteed

$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

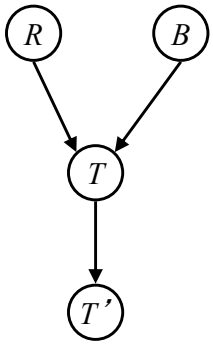


Example

$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ *Yes*

$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T$

$R \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T'$



Example

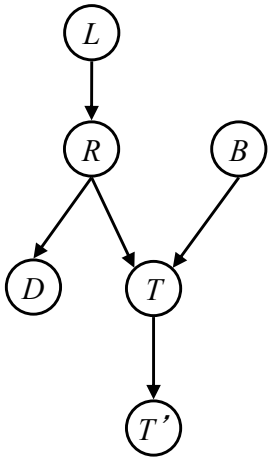
$L \perp\!\!\!\perp T' | T$ *Yes*

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B$ *Yes*

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T$

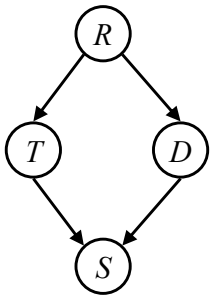
$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T'$

$L \perp\!\!\!\perp B | T, R$ *Yes*



Example

- Variables:
  - R: Raining
  - T: Traffic
  - D: Roof drips
  - S: I'm sad
- Questions:



$T \perp\!\!\!\perp D$

$T \perp\!\!\!\perp D | R$ *Yes*

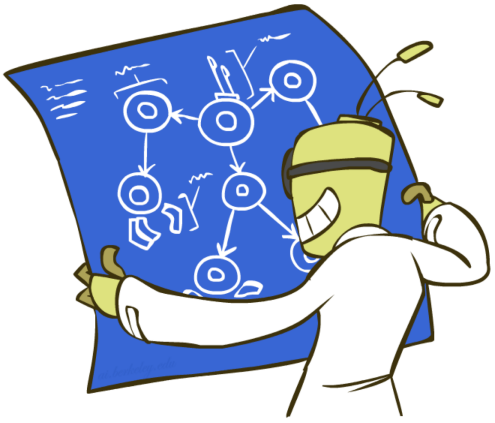
$T \perp\!\!\!\perp D | R, S$

Structure Implications

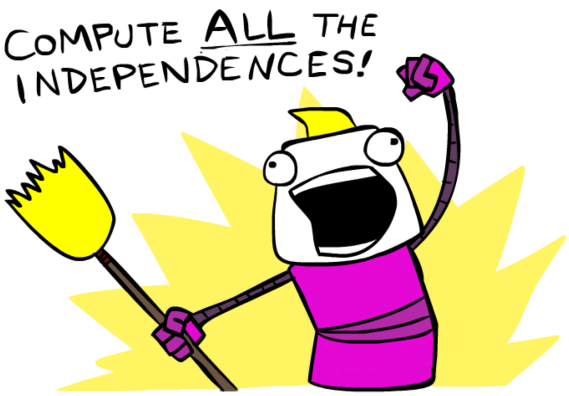
- Given a Bayes net structure, can run d-separation algorithm to build a complete list of conditional independences that are necessarily true of the form

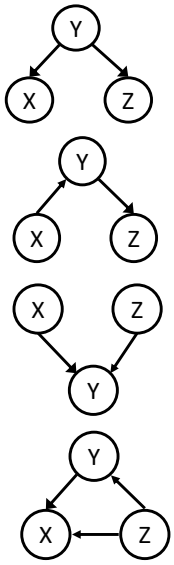
$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

- This list determines the set of probability distributions that can be represented



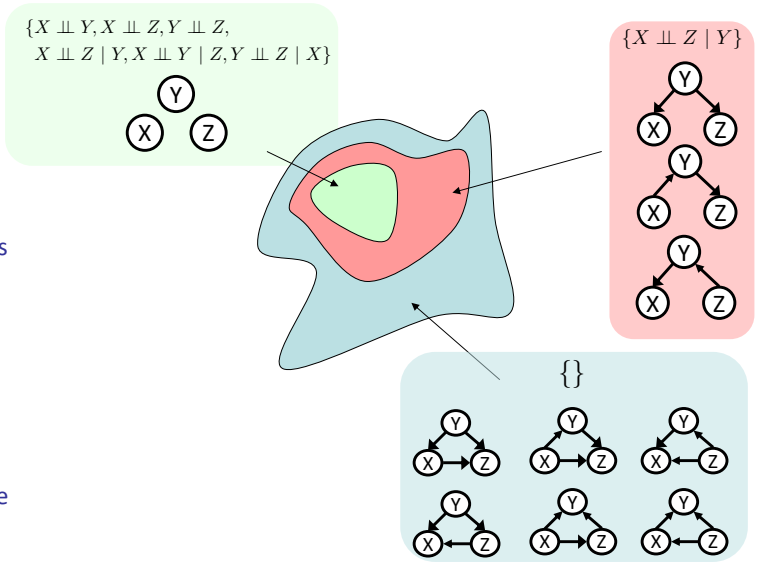
Computing All Independences





Topology Limits Distributions

- Given some graph topology G, only certain joint distributions can be encoded
- The graph structure guarantees certain (conditional) independences
- (There might be more independence)
- Adding arcs increases the set of distributions, but has several costs
- Full conditioning can encode any distribution



Bayes Nets Representation Summary

- Bayes nets compactly encode joint distributions
- Guaranteed independencies of distributions can be deduced from BN graph structure
- D-separation gives precise conditional independence guarantees from graph alone
- A Bayes' net's joint distribution may have further (conditional) independence that is not detectable until you inspect its specific distribution

Bayes' Nets

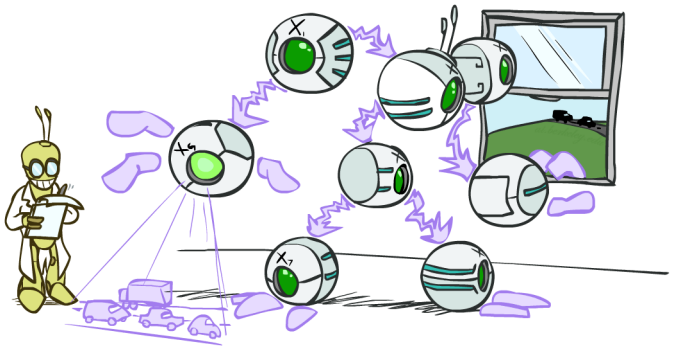
✔ Representation

✔ Conditional Independences

- Probabilistic Inference
  - Enumeration (exact, exponential complexity)
  - Variable elimination (exact, worst-case exponential complexity, often better)
  - Probabilistic inference is NP-complete
  - Sampling (approximate)
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data

CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Bayes' Nets: Inference



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- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
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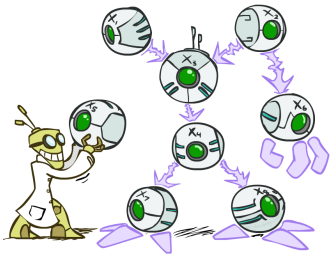
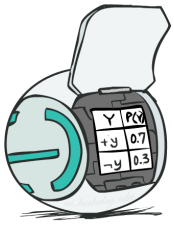
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

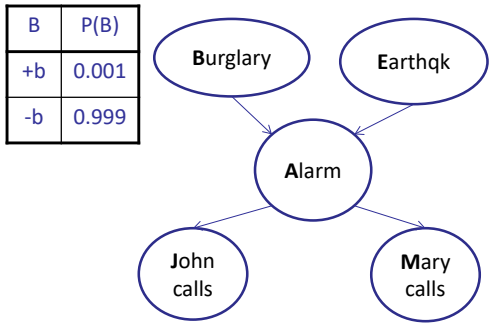
$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$





Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999



E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998

A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	-j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

[Demo: BN Applet]

Example: Alarm Network

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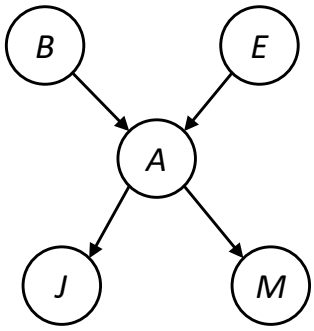

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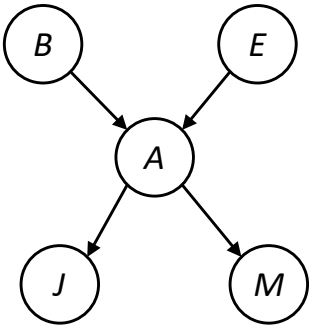
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

$$P(+b,-e,+a,-j,+m) =$$
$$P(+b)P(-e)P(+a|+b,-e)P(-j|+a)P(+m|+a) =$$

Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999

E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998



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+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

$$P(+b,-e,+a,-j,+m) =$$
$$P(+b)P(-e)P(+a|+b,-e)P(-j|+a)P(+m|+a) =$$
$$0.001 \times 0.998 \times 0.94 \times 0.1 \times 0.7$$

Bayes' Nets

- ✔ Representation
- ✔ Conditional Independences
- Probabilistic Inference
  - Enumeration (exact, exponential complexity)
  - Variable elimination (exact, worst-case exponential complexity, often better)
  - Inference is NP-complete
  - Sampling (approximate)
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data

Inference

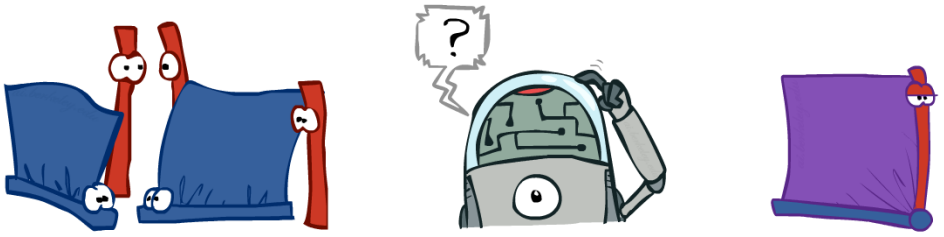
- Inference: calculating some useful quantity from a joint probability distribution

- Examples:
  - Posterior probability

    $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \ldots E_k = e_k)$

  - Most likely explanation:

    $\text{argmax}_q \; P(Q = q|E_1 = e_1 \ldots)$



Inference by Enumeration

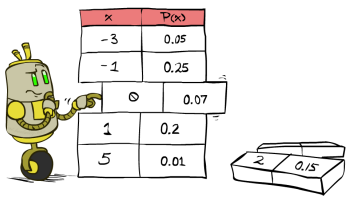
- General case:
  - Evidence variables: $E_1 \ldots E_k = e_1 \ldots e_k$
  - Query* variable: Q
  - Hidden variables: $H_1 \ldots H_r$

  $X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n$ — *All variables*

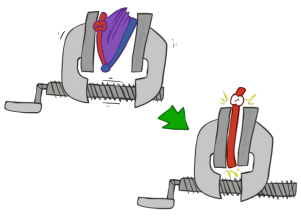
- We want: $P(Q|e_1 \ldots e_k)$

  ** Works fine with multiple query variables, too*

- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence



- Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence



$$P(Q, e_1 \ldots e_k) = \sum_{h_1 \ldots h_r} \underbrace{P(Q, h_1 \ldots h_r, e_1 \ldots e_k)}_{X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n}$$

- Step 3: Normalize

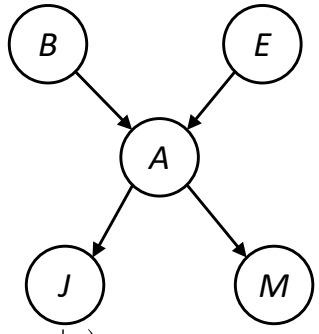
$$\times \frac{1}{Z}$$

$$Z = \sum_q P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

$$P(Q|e_1 \cdots e_k) = \frac{1}{Z} P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

Inference by Enumeration in Bayes' Net

- Given unlimited time, inference in BNs is easy
- Reminder of inference by enumeration by example:



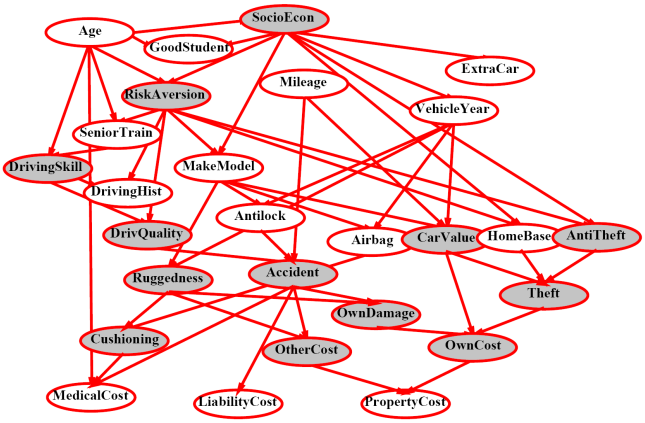
$$P(B \mid +j, +m) \propto_B P(B, +j, +m)$$

$$= \sum_{e,a} P(B, e, a, +j, +m)$$

$$= \sum_{e,a} P(B)P(e)P(a|B,e)P(+j|a)P(+m|a)$$

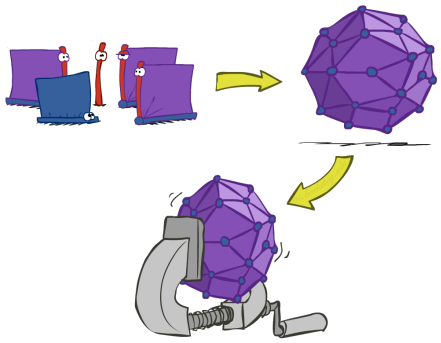
$$= P(B)P(+e)P(+a|B,+e)P(+j|+a)P(+m|+a) + P(B)P(+e)P(-a|B,+e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)$$
$$P(B)P(-e)P(+a|B,-e)P(+j|+a)P(+m|+a) + P(B)P(-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)$$

Inference by Enumeration?

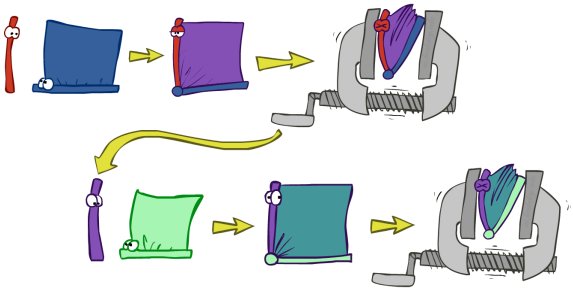


Inference by Enumeration vs. Variable Elimination

- Why is inference by enumeration so slow?
  - You join up the whole joint distribution before you sum out the hidden variables

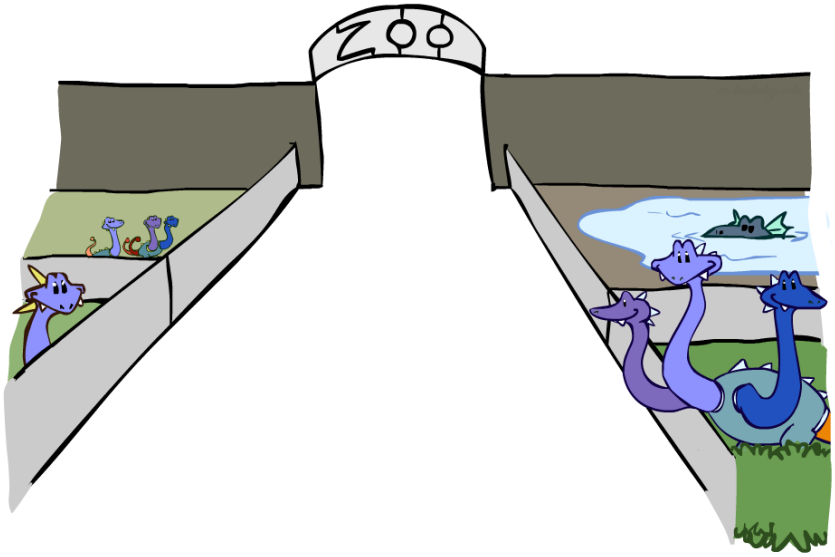


- Idea: interleave joining and marginalizing!
  - Called "Variable Elimination"
  - Still NP-hard, but usually much faster than inference by enumeration



  - First we'll need some new notation: factors

Factor Zoo



Factor Zoo I

- Joint distribution: P(X,Y)
  - Entries P(x,y) for all x, y
  - Sums to 1

$P(T, W)$

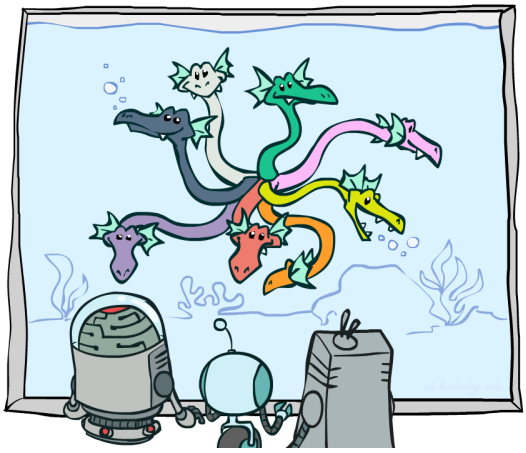
T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

- Selected joint: P(x,Y)
  - A slice of the joint distribution
  - Entries P(x,y) for fixed x, all y
  - Sums to P(x)

$P(cold, W)$

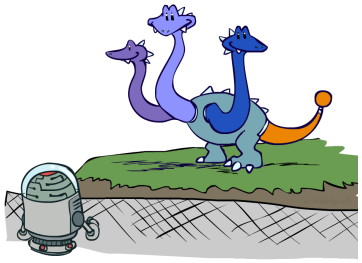
T	W	P
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

- Number of capitals = dimensionality of the table



Factor Zoo II

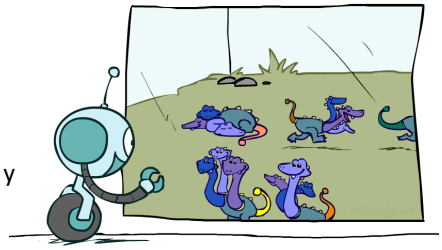
- Single conditional: P(Y | x)
  - Entries P(y | x) for fixed x, all
  - Sums to 1



$P(W|cold)$

T	W	P
cold	sun	0.4
cold	rain	0.6

- Family of conditionals: P(Y | X)
  - Multiple conditionals
  - Entries P(y | x) for all x, y
  - Sums to |X|

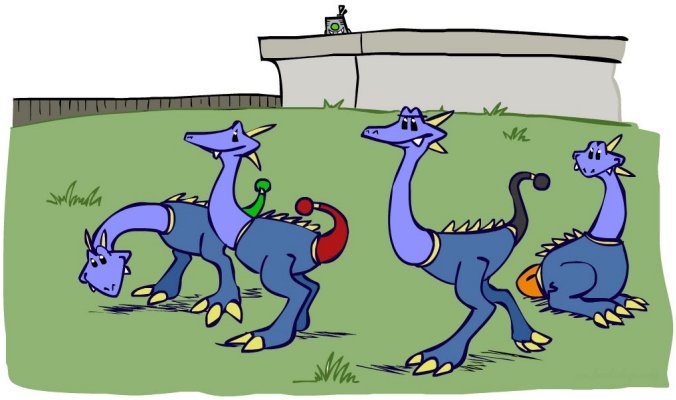


$P(W|T)$

T	W	P	
hot	sun	0.8	$P(W|hot)$
hot	rain	0.2	
cold	sun	0.4	$P(W|cold)$
cold	rain	0.6	

Factor Zoo III

- Specified family: P(y | X)
  - Entries P(y | x) for fixed y, but for all x
  - Sums to … who knows!

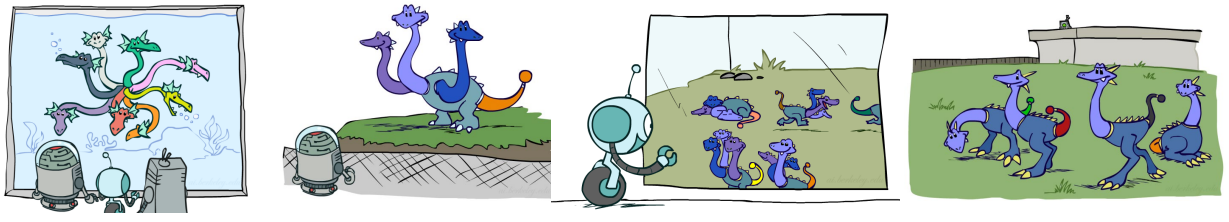


$P(rain|T)$

T	W	P	
hot	rain	0.2	$P(rain|hot)$
cold	rain	0.6	$P(rain|cold)$

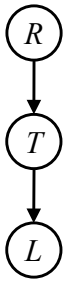
Factor Zoo Summary

- In general, when we write P(Y_1 … Y_N | X_1 … X_M)
  - It is a "factor," a multi-dimensional array
  - Its values are P(y_1 … y_N | x_1 … x_M)
  - Any assigned (=lower-case) X or Y is a dimension missing (selected) from the array



Example: Traffic Domain

- Random Variables
  - R: Raining
  - T: Traffic
  - L: Late for class!



$$P(L) = ?$$

$$= \sum_{r,t} P(r,t,L)$$

$$= \sum_{r,t} P(r)P(t|r)P(L|t)$$

$P(R)$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9

Inference by Enumeration: Procedural Outline

- Track objects called factors
- Initial factors are local CPTs (one per node)

$P(R)$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9

- Any known values are selected
  - E.g. if we know $L = +\ell$ the initial factors are

$P(R)$

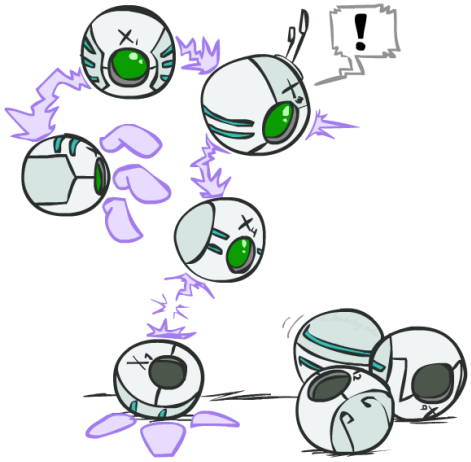
+r	0.1
-r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

$P(+\ell|T)$

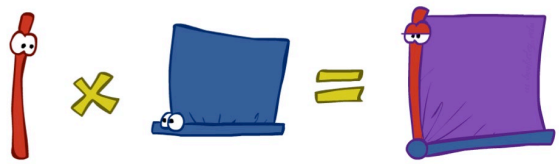
+t	+l	0.3
-t	+l	0.1



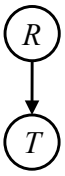
- Procedure: Join all factors, eliminate all hidden variables, normalize

Operation 1: Join Factors

- First basic operation: joining factors
- Combining factors:
  - Just like a database join
  - Get all factors over the joining variable
  - Build a new factor over the union of the variables involved



- Example: Join on R



$$P(R) \times P(T|R) \Rightarrow P(R,T)$$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

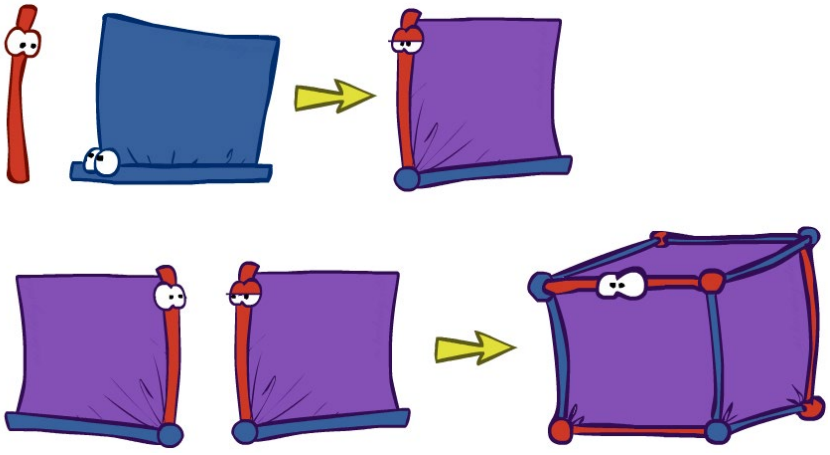
+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

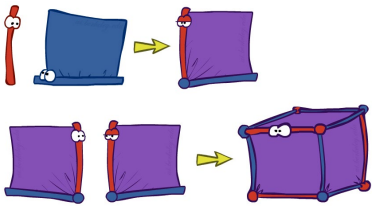
R,T

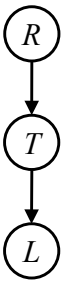
- Computation for each entry: pointwise products $\forall r, t: \quad P(r,t) = P(r) \cdot P(t|r)$

Example: Multiple Joins



Example: Multiple Joins





$P(R)$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9

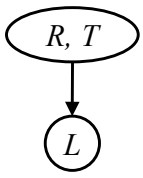
Join R

$P(R,T)$

+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9



Join T

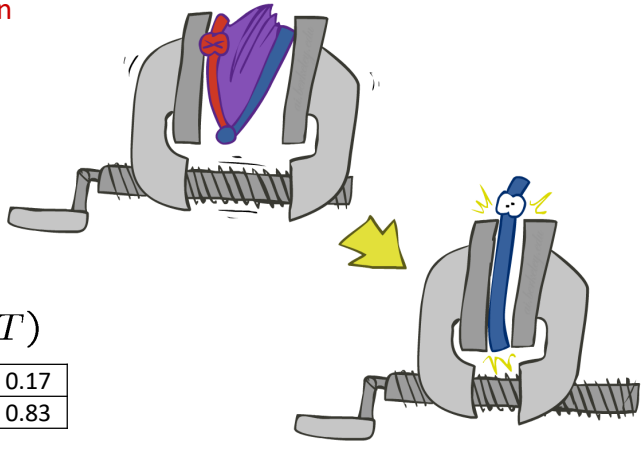
R, T, L

$P(R,T,L)$

+r	+t	+l	0.024
+r	+t	-l	0.056
+r	-t	+l	0.002
+r	-t	-l	0.018
-r	+t	+l	0.027
-r	+t	-l	0.063
-r	-t	+l	0.081
-r	-t	-l	0.729

Operation 2: Eliminate

- Second basic operation: marginalization
- Take a factor and sum out a variable
  - Shrinks a factor to a smaller one
  - A projection operation
- Example:



$P(R,T)$

+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

sum R

$P(T)$

+t	0.17
-t	0.83

Multiple Elimination

$P(R, T, L)$

+r	+t	+l	0.024
+r	+t	-l	0.056
+r	-t	+l	0.002
+r	-t	-l	0.018
-r	+t	+l	0.027
-r	+t	-l	0.063
-r	-t	+l	0.081
-r	-t	-l	0.729

Sum out R

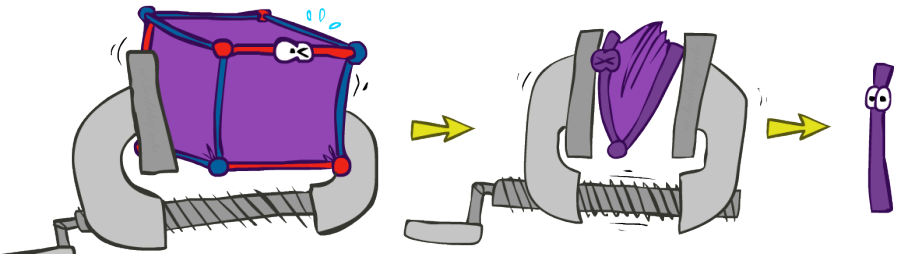
$P(T, L)$

+t	+l	0.051
+t	-l	0.119
-t	+l	0.083
-t	-l	0.747

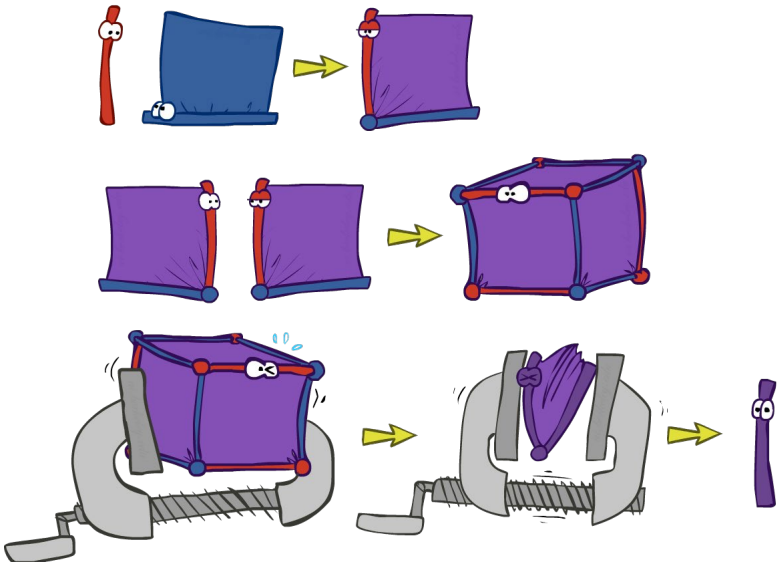
Sum out T

$P(L)$

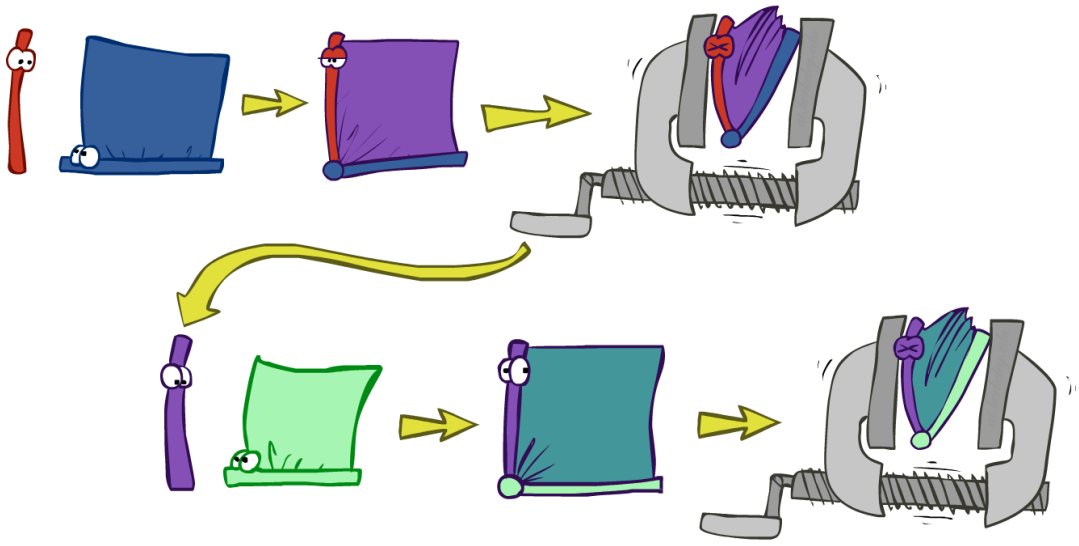
+l	0.134
-l	0.886



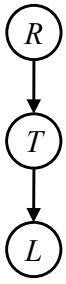
Thus Far: Multiple Join, Multiple Eliminate (= Inference by Enumeration)



Marginalizing Early (= Variable Elimination)



Traffic Domain



$$P(L) = ?$$

- Inference by Enumeration

$$= \sum_t \sum_r P(L|t)P(r)P(t|r)$$

Join on r

Join on t

Eliminate r

Eliminate t

- Variable Elimination

$$= \sum_t P(L|t) \sum_r P(r)P(t|r)$$

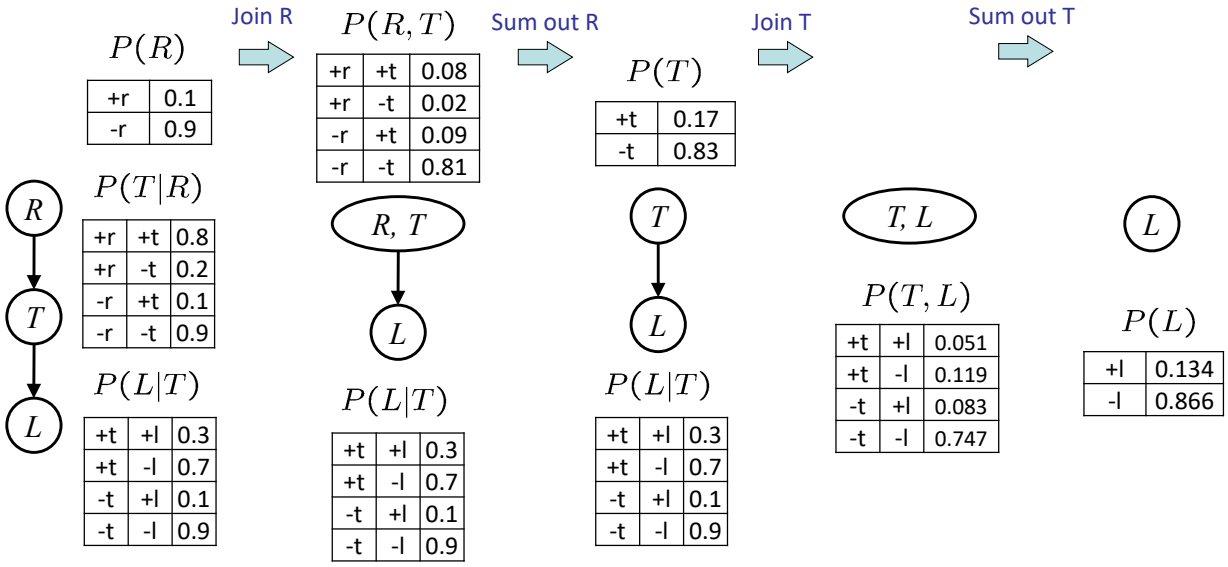
Join on r

Eliminate r

Join on t

Eliminate t

Marginalizing Early! (aka VE)



Evidence

- If evidence, start with factors that select that evidence
  - No evidence uses these initial factors:

$P(R)$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

$P(T|R)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9

  - Computing $P(L|+r)$ the initial factors become:

$P(+r)$

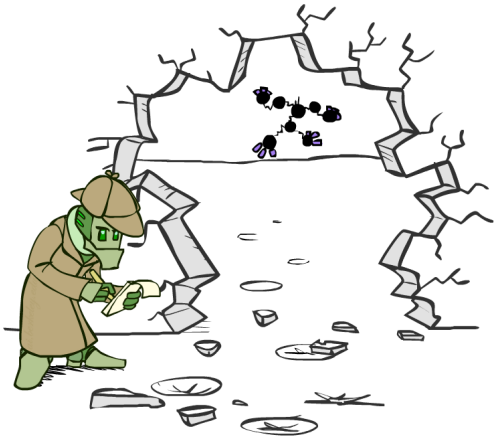
+r	0.1

$P(T|+r)$

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2

$P(L|T)$

+t	+l	0.3
+t	-l	0.7
-t	+l	0.1
-t	-l	0.9



- We eliminate all vars other than query + evidence

Evidence II

- Result will be a selected joint of query and evidence
  - E.g. for P(L | +r), we would end up with:

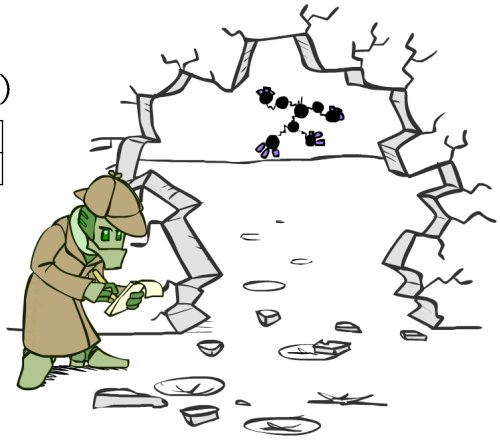
$P(+r, L)$

+r	+l	0.026
+r	-l	0.074

Normalize

$P(L|+r)$

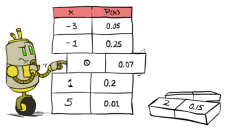
+l	0.26
-l	0.74

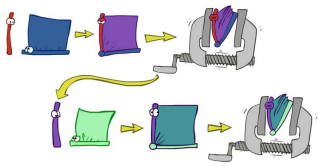


- To get our answer, just normalize this!
- That's it!

General Variable Elimination

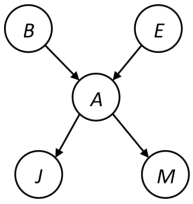
- Query: $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \ldots E_k = e_k)$
- Start with initial factors:
  - Local CPTs (but instantiated by evidence)
- While there are still hidden variables (not Q or evidence):
  - Pick a hidden variable H
  - Join all factors mentioning H
  - Eliminate (sum out) H
- Join all remaining factors and normalize





Example

$P(B|j,m) \propto P(B,j,m)$



$P(B)$	$P(E)$	$P(A\|B,E)$	$P(j\|A)$	$P(m\|A)$

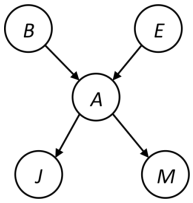
Choose A

$P(A|B,E)$
$P(j|A)$
$P(m|A)$

$\times$ → $P(j,m,A|B,E)$ → $\sum$ → $P(j,m|B,E)$

$P(B)$	$P(E)$	$P(j,m\|B,E)$

Example



$P(B)$	$P(E)$	$P(j,m\|B,E)$

Choose E

$P(E)$
$P(j,m|B,E)$

$\times$ → $P(j,m,E|B)$ → $\sum$ → $P(j,m|B)$

$P(B)$	$P(j,m\|B)$

Finish with B

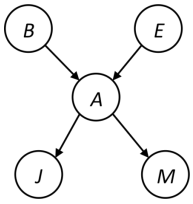
$P(B)$
$P(j,m|B)$

$\times$ → $P(j,m,B)$ → Normalize → $P(B|j,m)$

Same Example in Equations

$$P(B|j,m) \propto P(B,j,m)$$

$P(B)$	$P(E)$	$P(A\|B,E)$	$P(j\|A)$	$P(m\|A)$



$$\begin{aligned}
P(B|j,m) &\propto P(B,j,m) \\
&= \sum_{e,a} P(B,j,m,e,a) && \text{marginal obtained from joint by summing out} \\
&= \sum_{e,a} P(B)P(e)P(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a) && \text{use Bayes' net joint distribution expression} \\
&= \sum_{e} P(B)P(e)\sum_{a} P(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a) && \text{use x*(y+z) = xy + xz} \\
&= \sum_{e} P(B)P(e)f_1(B,e,j,m) && \text{joining on a, and then summing out gives } f_1 \\
&= P(B)\sum_{e} P(e)f_1(B,e,j,m) && \text{use x*(y+z) = xy + xz} \\
&= P(B)f_2(B,j,m) && \text{joining on e, and then summing out gives } f_2
\end{aligned}$$

All we are doing is exploiting uwy + uwz + uxy + uxz + vwy + vwz + vxy +vxz = (u+v)(w+x)(y+z) to improve computational efficiency!

Another Variable Elimination Example

Query: $P(X_3|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, Y_3 = y_3)$

Start by inserting evidence, which gives the following initial factors:

$$p(Z)p(X_1|Z)p(X_2|Z)p(X_3|Z)p(y_1|X_1)p(y_2|X_2)p(y_3|X_3)$$

Eliminate X_1, this introduces the factor $f_1(Z, y_1) = \sum_{x_1} p(x_1|Z)p(y_1|x_1)$, and we are left with:

$$p(Z)f_1(Z, y_1)p(X_2|Z)p(X_3|Z)p(y_2|X_2)p(y_3|X_3)$$

Eliminate X_2, this introduces the factor $f_2(Z, y_2) = \sum_{x_2} p(x_2|Z)p(y_2|x_2)$, and we are left with:

$$p(Z)f_1(Z, y_1)f_2(Z, y_2)p(X_3|Z)p(y_3|X_3)$$

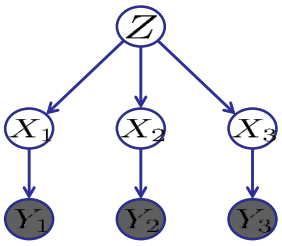
Eliminate Z, this introduces the factor $f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3) = \sum_z p(z)f_1(z, y_1)f_2(z, y_2)p(X_3|z)$, and we are left:

$$p(y_3|X_3), f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3)$$

No hidden variables left. Join the remaining factors to get:

$$f_4(y_1, y_2, y_3, X_3) = P(y_3|X_3)f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3).$$

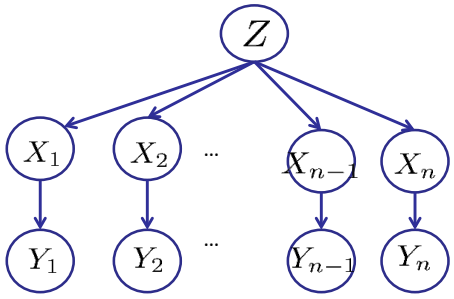
Normalizing over X_3 gives $P(X_3|y_1, y_2, y_3)$.



Computational complexity critically depends on the largest factor being generated in this process. Size of factor = number of entries in table. In example above (assuming binary) all factors generated are of size 2 --- as they all only have one variable (Z, Z, and X_3 respectively).

Variable Elimination Ordering

- For the query $P(X_n|y_1,\ldots,y_n)$ work through the following two different orderings as done in previous slide: $Z, X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}$ and $X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}, Z$. What is the size of the maximum factor generated for each of the orderings?



- Answer: 2^{n+1} versus 2^2 (assuming binary)
- In general: the ordering can greatly affect efficiency.

VE: Computational and Space Complexity

- The computational and space complexity of variable elimination is determined by the largest factor
- The elimination ordering can greatly affect the size of the largest factor.
  - E.g., previous slide's example 2^n vs. 2
- Does there always exist an ordering that only results in small factors?
  - No!

Worst Case Complexity?

- CSP:

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \neg x_3) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_3 \vee \neg x_4) \wedge (x_2 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_4) \wedge (\neg x_3 \vee \neg x_4 \vee \neg x_5) \wedge (x_2 \vee x_5 \vee x_7) \wedge (x_4 \vee x_5 \vee x_6) \wedge (\neg x_5 \vee x_6 \vee \neg x_7) \wedge (\neg x_5 \vee \neg x_6 \vee x_7)$$

$$P(X_i = 0) = P(X_i = 1) = 0.5$$

$$Y_1 = X_1 \vee X_2 \vee \neg X_3$$

$$\dots$$

$$Y_8 = \neg X_5 \vee X_6 \vee X_7$$

$$Y_{1,2} = Y_1 \wedge Y_2$$

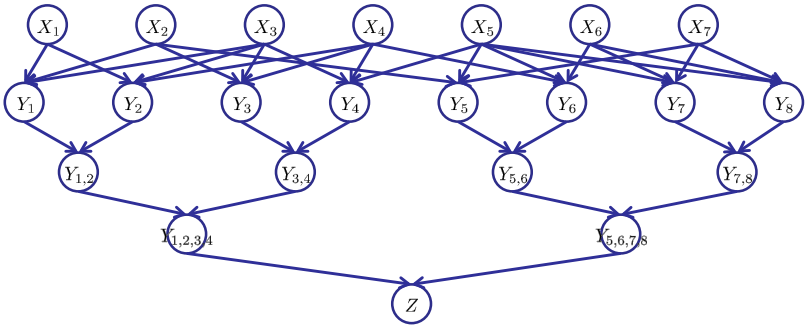
$$\dots$$

$$Y_{7,8} = Y_7 \wedge Y_8$$

$$Y_{1,2,3,4} = Y_{1,2} \wedge Y_{3,4}$$

$$Y_{5,6,7,8} = Y_{5,6} \wedge Y_{7,8}$$

$$Z = Y_{1,2,3,4} \wedge Y_{5,6,7,8}$$



- If we can answer P(z) equal to zero or not, we answered whether the 3-SAT problem has a solution.
- Hence inference in Bayes' nets is NP-hard. No known efficient probabilistic inference in general.

Polytrees

- A polytree is a directed graph with no undirected cycles
- For poly-trees you can always find an ordering that is efficient
  - Try it!!
- Cut-set conditioning for Bayes' net inference
  - Choose set of variables such that if removed only a polytree remains
  - Exercise: Think about how the specifics would work out!

Bayes' Nets

- ✔ Representation
- ✔ Conditional Independences
- Probabilistic Inference
  - ✔ Enumeration (exact, exponential complexity)
  - ✔ Variable elimination (exact, worst-case exponential complexity, often better)
  - ✔ Inference is NP-complete
    - Sampling (approximate)
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data