

# Bayesian Networks

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Probabilistic Decision Making — Lecture 6

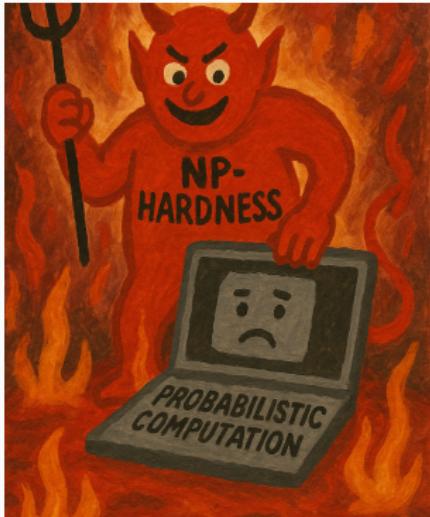
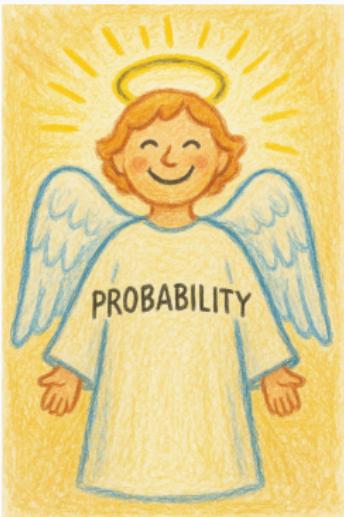
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# Everything is wonderful. . .

Probability is a “faithful guardian of common sense” and “common sense reduced to computation”, but . . .



. . . it is also a **computational nightmare**.



A coin can be modeled using a Bernoulli RV  $X$  with success probability  $\theta$ . The PMF is

$x$	$p(x)$
0	$1 - \theta$
1	$\theta$



1 parameter

**representation, learning, and inference** are trivial

Let  $S$  and  $C$  be RVs indicating whether a person is *smoker* ( $S$ ) and develops *lung cancer* ( $C$ ), respectively. The PMF is

$s$	$c$	$p(s, c)$
0	0	$\theta_1$
0	1	$\theta_2$
1	0	$\theta_3$
1	1	$\theta_4$



3 free parameters (as  $\theta_4 = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^3 \theta_k$ )  
still trivial

Consider a system of 10 physical particles with 'spin up' or 'spin down,' modeled with binary RVs  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{10}$ .

$x$	$p(x)$
(0, 0, ..., 0, 0)	$\theta_1$
(0, 0, ..., 0, 1)	$\theta_2$
(0, 0, ..., 1, 0)	$\theta_3$
...	...
(1, 1, ..., 1, 1)	$\theta_{1024}$



1023 free parameters  
easy

Consider a system of 20 physical particles with 'spin up' or 'spin down,' modeled with binary RVs  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{20}$ .

$x$	$p(x)$
$(0, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$	$\pi_1$
$(0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$	$\pi_2$
$(0, 0, \dots, 1, 0)$	$\pi_3$
$\vdots$	$\vdots$
$(1, 1, \dots, 1, 1)$	$\pi_{1048576}$



1 million parameters  
not really a problem

Consider a system of 30 physical particles with 'spin up' or 'spin down,' modeled with binary RVs  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{30}$ .

$x$	$p(x)$
$(0, 0, \dots, 0, 0)$	$\pi_1$
$(0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$	$\pi_2$
$(0, 0, \dots, 1, 0)$	$\pi_3$
$\dots$	$\dots$
$(1, 1, \dots, 1, 1)$	$\pi_{1073741824}$



1 billion parameters  
getting delicate

# 40 Bernoulli Variables

Example

Consider a system of 40 physical particles with 'spin up' or 'spin down,' modeled with binary RVs  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{40}$ .

$x$	$p(x)$
(0, 0, ..., 0, 0)	$\pi_1$
(0, 0, ..., 0, 1)	$\pi_2$
(0, 0, ..., 1, 0)	$\pi_3$
...	...
(1, 1, ..., 1, 1)	$\pi_{1099511627776}$



1 trillion parameters  
game over

(except for Google and OpenAI)

# Curse of Dimensionality

High dimensional distributions “are hard.”

- hard to **represent**
- hard to **learn**
- hard to perform **inference** in
- holds true for continuous and discrete RVs

Graphical models address these challenges. We will focus on directed graphical models, that utilize two ingredients:

- **chain rule of probability**
- **conditional independence**

Naturally represented with graphs over random variables, hence the name “graphical models”.

Let  $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D)$  be an arbitrary joint distribution. Due to the product rule we can write:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_D) = p(x_D | x_1, \dots, x_{D-1}) p(x_1, \dots, x_{D-1})$$

Applying the chain rule again to the right-most factor

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_D) &= p(x_D | x_1, \dots, x_{D-1}) \\ &\quad p(x_{D-1} | x_1, \dots, x_{D-2}) \\ &\quad p(x_1, \dots, x_{D-2}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by induction

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D) = \prod_{k=1}^D p(x_k | x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}).$$

For  $k = 1$ , we define  $p(x_1 | \dots) := p(x_1)$ .

The chain rule works for any joint.

Moreover, we can apply it to any variable ordering.

### Chain Rule of Probability

Let  $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D)$  be an arbitrary joint distribution, and let  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_D$  be an arbitrary permutation of integers  $1, 2, \dots, D$ . The joint can be written as

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D) = \prod_{k=1}^D p(x_{i_k} | x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_{k-1}}).$$

For  $k = 1$ ,  $p(x_{i_k} | x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_{k-1}}) := p(x_{i_1})$ .

Let  $p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$  be **any** joint distribution. We can write it as

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3) p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ &= p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_1, x_2) \\ &= p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1) \end{aligned}$$

Or, we might also use ordering  $X_4, X_2, X_3, X_1$  and write

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) &= p(x_1 | x_2, x_3, x_4) p(x_2, x_3, x_4) \\ &= p(x_1 | x_2, x_3, x_4) p(x_3 | x_2, x_4) p(x_2, x_4) \\ &= p(x_1 | x_2, x_3, x_4) p(x_3 | x_2, x_4) p(x_2 | x_4) p(x_4) \end{aligned}$$

Note that all conditional distributions are over **single RVs**.

# Is the Chain Rule Enough?

**Course of dimensionality:** joint distributions grow exponentially in the number of RVs. **Does the chain rule already help? No... .**

For example, assume 4 binary RVs and consider the chain rule:

$$\overbrace{p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)}^{15 \text{ params}} = \overbrace{p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3)}^{8 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_3 | x_1, x_2)}^{4 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_2 | x_1)}^{2 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_1)}^{1 \text{ param}}$$

The exhaustive joint distribution (left) and the factorized distribution (right) require the same number of parameters.

A distribution over  $D$  binary RVs requires  $2^D - 1$  free params. Conditioning on  $C$  binary RVs means that we really have  $2^C$  distribution over the “stuff on the left of the conditioning bar”.

## Independence

$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$  if the **equivalent** conditions hold for all  $x, y$ :

- $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$  (joint factorizes)
- $p(x | y) = p(x)$  (marginal equals conditional)
- $p(y | x) = p(y)$  (marginal equals conditional)

## Conditional Independence

$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$  if for all  $x, y, z$ :

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

Factorize the joint of 4 binary RVs:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

Let's make some **conditional independence (CI) assumptions**:

- $X_4 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2, X_3 | X_1$
- $X_3 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 | X_2$

This allows us to **delete** some conditioned RVs:

$$\overbrace{p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)}^{15 \text{ params}} = \overbrace{p(x_4 | x_1, \cancel{x_2}, \cancel{x_3})}^{2 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_3 | \cancel{x_1}, x_2)}^{2 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_2 | x_1)}^{2 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_1)}^{1 \text{ param}}$$

**7 parameters instead of 15!**

## Chain Rule + Conditional Independence

- CI is very common in real data
- savings in representation size can be dramatic in high dimensions
- CI also helps in **learning** and **inference**
- this “trick” works with **any** variable ordering

Let's assume an ordering  $X_3, X_1, X_4, X_2$ . The chain rule following this ordering yields:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_2 | x_1, x_3, x_4) p(x_4 | x_1, x_3) p(x_1 | x_3) p(x_3)$$

### Conditional independence (CI) assumptions:

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$
- $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_4 | X_1, X_3$

$$\overbrace{p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)}^{15 \text{ params}} = \overbrace{p(x_2 | x_1, x_3, \cancel{x_4})}^{4 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_4 | x_1, x_3)}^{4 \text{ params}} \overbrace{p(x_1 | \cancel{x_3})}^{1 \text{ param}} \overbrace{p(x_3)}^{1 \text{ param}}$$

10 parameters instead of 15.

# Graphical Language

In both examples, we

- assumed an **ordering** of the RVs
- wrote the joint using the chain rule
- introduced CI assumptions which “deleted” conditioning RVs

This can be nicely represented with **directed graphs**. Specifically, we construct a directed graph

- whose nodes are the RVs
- introduce a directed edge from  $X_i$  to  $X_j$ , if  $X_i$  is a “conditioner” for  $X_j$

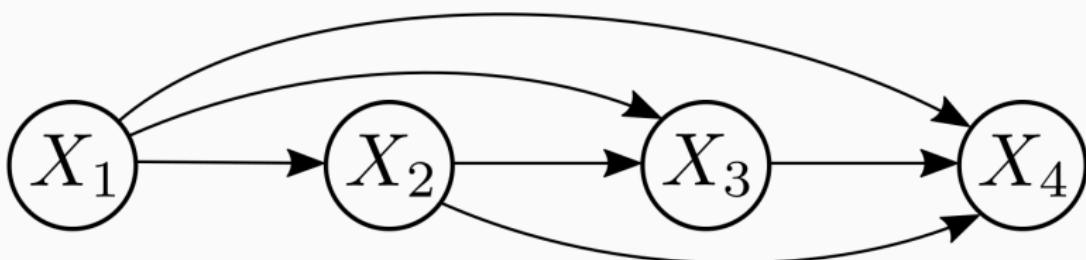
Order:  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$



**Order:**  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$

**Chain Rule:**

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_4 | x_1, x_2, x_3) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$



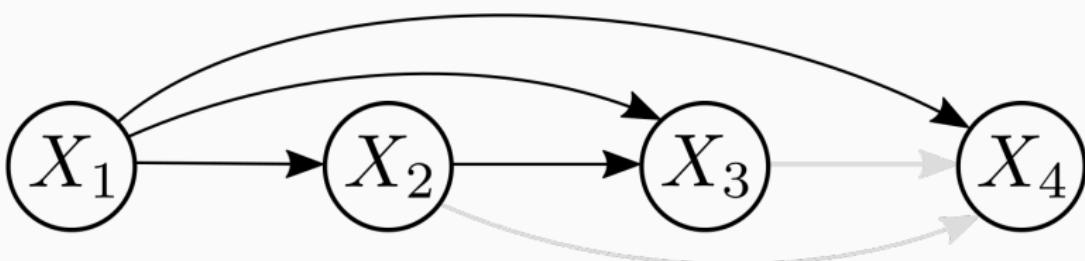
Order:  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$

Chain Rule:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_4 | x_1, \cancel{x_2}, \cancel{x_3}) p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

Conditional independence (CI) assumptions:

- $X_4 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2, X_3 | X_1$



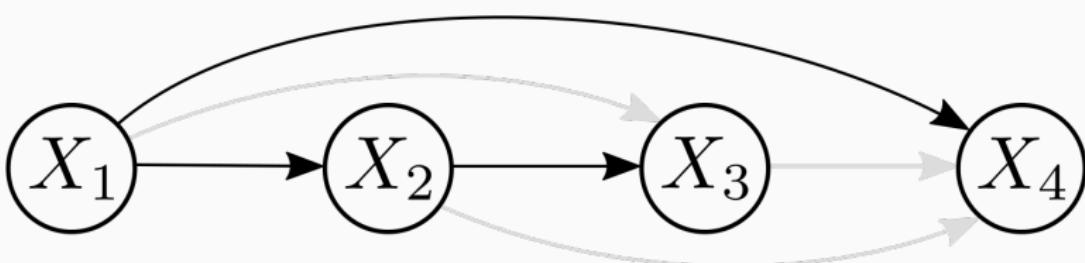
Order:  $X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4$

**Chain Rule:**

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_4 | x_1, \cancel{x_2}, \cancel{x_3}) p(x_3 | \cancel{x_1}, x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

**Conditional independence (CI) assumptions:**

- $X_4 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2, X_3 | X_1$
- $X_3 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_1 | X_2$



Order:  $X_3, X_1, X_4, X_2$

$X_3$

$X_1$

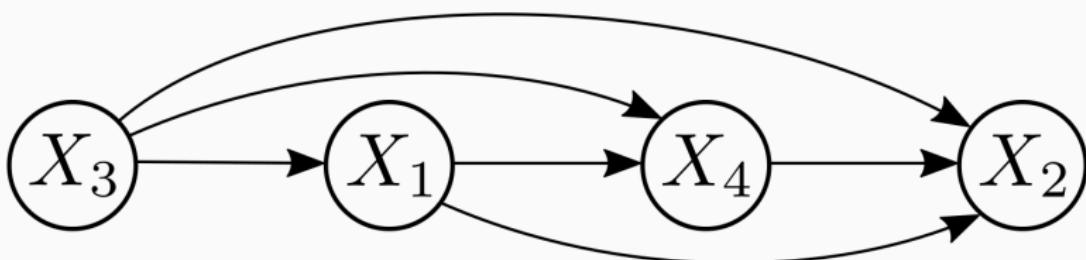
$X_4$

$X_2$

Order:  $X_3, X_1, X_4, X_2$

Chain Rule:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_2 | x_1, x_3, x_4) p(x_4 | x_1, x_3) p(x_1 | x_3) p(x_3)$$



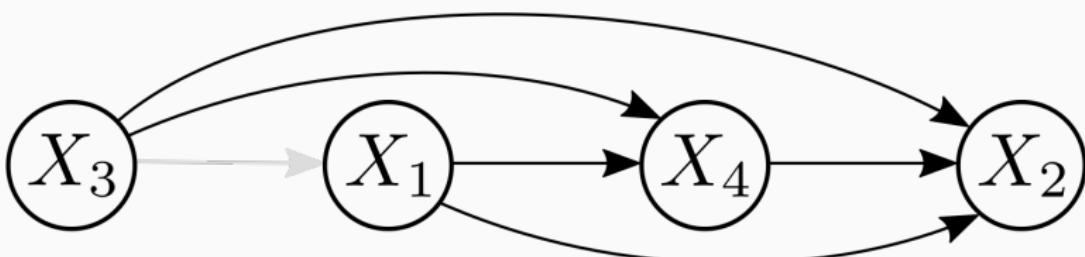
Order:  $X_3, X_1, X_4, X_2$

Chain Rule:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_2 | x_1, x_3, x_4) p(x_4 | x_1, x_3) p(x_1 | \cancel{x_3}) p(x_3)$$

Conditional independence (CI) assumptions:

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$



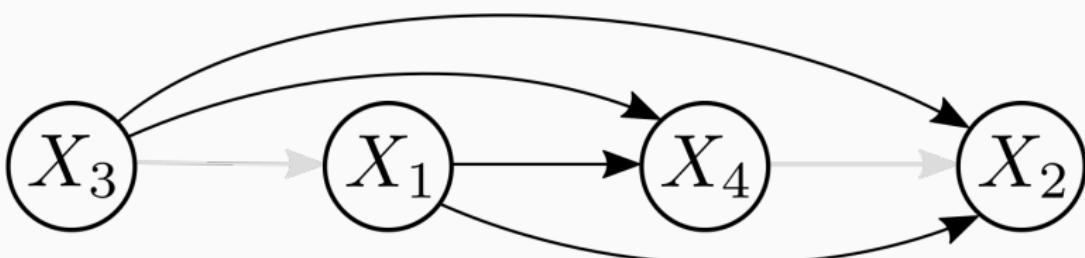
Order:  $X_3, X_1, X_4, X_2$

Chain Rule:

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = p(x_2 | x_1, x_3, \cancel{x_4}) p(x_4 | x_1, x_3) p(x_1 | \cancel{x_3}) p(x_3)$$

Conditional independence (CI) assumptions:

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$
- $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_4 | X_1, X_3$



- note that the directed graphs in the examples were **acyclic**, i.e. there was no directed path from any  $X_i$  to itself—such graphs are called **directed acyclic graphs (DAGs)**
- this is no coincidence, as the graphs were following the **order** assumed in the chain rule: edges can only be drawn from lower-order RVs to higher-order RVs
- in the context of directed graphs, this is called a **topological order** of the nodes (RVs).

### Equivalence Topological Ordering and DAG

A directed graph is **acyclic** (i.e. a DAG) if and only if it has at least one topological ordering.

## DAGs Represent Chain Rule + CI

DAGs over RVs can be used to **analyze**, **describe** and **represent** joint distributions, as they represent

- an RV ordering of the chain rule
- CIs corresponding to missing edges
- factorize the joint according to

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i | \mathbf{pa}_i)$$

where  $\mathbf{pa}_i$  are the states of  $X_i$ 's **parents** in the graph, i.e. all nodes that have an edge directed towards  $X_i$

- this can be used as a language to compactly represent high-dimensional joint distribution—**Bayesian networks**, also called **directed graphical models**

A **Bayesian network** (BN) over RVs  $\mathbf{X}$  is a pair  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{P})$ , where

- $\mathcal{G}$  is a DAG which has RVs  $\mathbf{X}$  as nodes
- $\mathcal{P}$  is a collection of distributions  $p(x | \text{pa}_X)$ , one for each  $X \in \mathbf{X}$ , and conditional on  $X$ 's parents in  $\mathcal{G}$ ; they are called **CPDs** (conditional probability distributions)

The BN represents the joint distribution

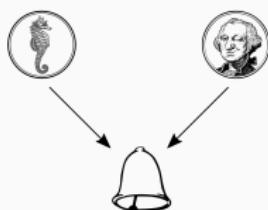
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i | \text{pa}_i)$$

- completely specified by a graph  $\mathcal{G}$  and a set of CPDs  $\mathcal{P}$
- nicely represented on a computer, if the conditionals are small, i.e. if the graph is sparse enough
- many real-world problems **do** translate into sparse graphs.
- often, the graph can be derived from **causal knowledge**
- we can **learn** the joint from data, by optimizing over  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$

## Coins and Bells cont'd

We already saw an example of a BN earlier:

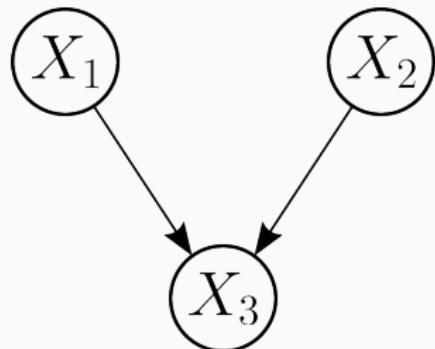
- Two fair coins are tossed, modeled with Bernoulli  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ .
- If both show heads, a Bell (Bernoulli  $X_3$ ) rings.
- If exactly one shows heads, the Bell rings with 50% probability.
- If both show tails, the Bell rings with 1% probability.



$(x_1, x_2, x_3)$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
(0, 0, 0)	0.2475
(0, 0, 1)	0.0025
(0, 1, 0)	0.125
(0, 1, 1)	0.125
(1, 0, 0)	0.125
(1, 0, 1)	0.125
(1, 1, 0)	0
(1, 1, 1)	0.25

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



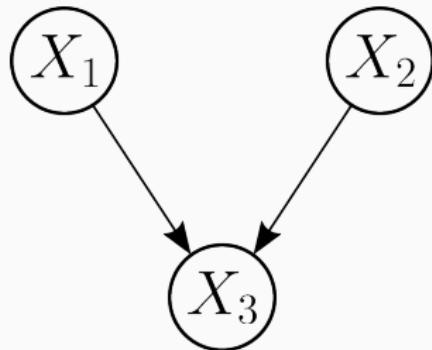
$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

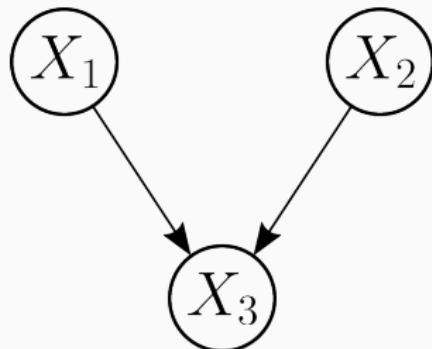
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

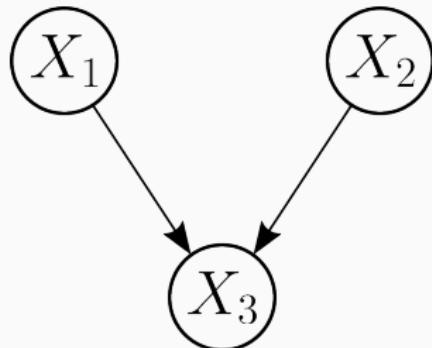
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	$p(x_1 = 0) \times p(x_2 = 0) \times p(x_3 = 0   x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0)$
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

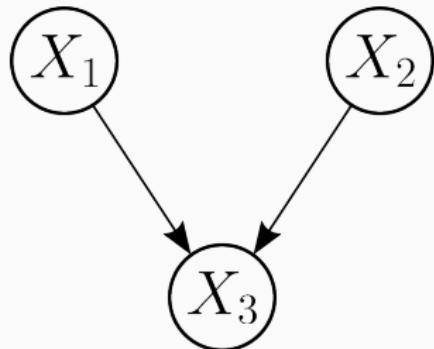
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	$0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.99$
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

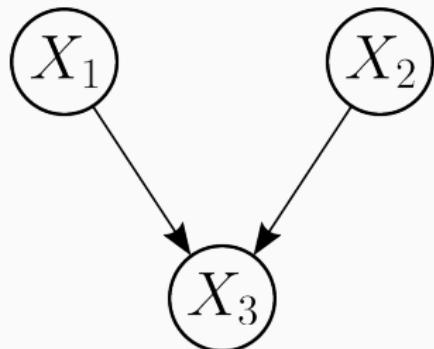
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

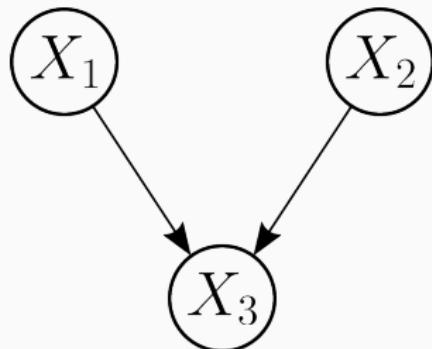
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	$p(x_1 = 0) \times p(x_2 = 0) \times p(x_3 = 1   x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0)$
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

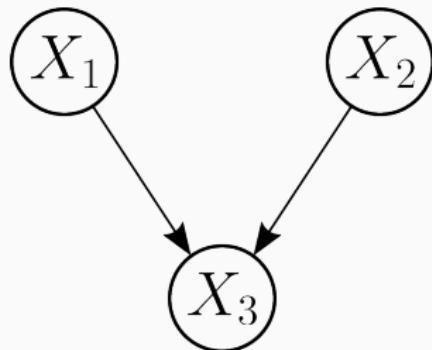
$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	$0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.01$
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Two Coins and a Bell

Example



$x_1$	$p(x_1)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_2$	$p(x_2)$
0	0.5
1	0.5

$x_3$	$p(x_3   x_1, x_2)$	$x_1$	$x_2$
0	0.99	0	0
1	0.01		
0	0.5	0	1
1	0.5		
0	0.5	1	0
1	0.5		
0	0	1	1
1	1		

$x_1$	$x_2$	$b$	$p(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	0.0025
0	1	0	0.125
0	1	1	0.125
1	0	0	0.125
1	0	1	0.125
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0.25

You have a smoke detector in your apartment, where

- each day, there is a 0.01 probability of fire ( $F$ )
- if there is fire, there is with probability 0.995 smoke (S); Even if there is no fire, you might have smoke in the apartment with probability 0.02
- the smoke detector detects smoke with probability 0.98 (D); it has a false alarm probability of 0.015

## Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	$p(f = 0) \times p(s = 0   f = 0) \times p(d = 0   s = 0)$
0	0	1	$p(f = 0) \times p(s = 0   f = 0) \times p(d = 1   s = 0)$
0	1	0	$p(f = 0) \times p(s = 1   f = 0) \times p(d = 0   s = 1)$
0	1	1	$p(f = 0) \times p(s = 1   f = 0) \times p(d = 1   s = 1)$
1	0	0	$p(f = 1) \times p(s = 0   f = 1) \times p(d = 0   s = 0)$
1	0	1	$p(f = 1) \times p(s = 0   f = 1) \times p(d = 1   s = 0)$
1	1	0	$p(f = 1) \times p(s = 1   f = 1) \times p(d = 0   s = 1)$
1	1	1	$p(f = 1) \times p(s = 1   f = 1) \times p(d = 1   s = 1)$

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	$0.99 \times 0.98 \times 0.985$
0	0	1	$0.99 \times 0.98 \times 0.015$
0	1	0	$0.99 \times 0.02 \times 0.02$
0	1	1	$0.99 \times 0.02 \times 0.98$
1	0	0	$0.01 \times 0.005 \times 0.985$
1	0	1	$0.01 \times 0.005 \times 0.015$
1	1	0	$0.01 \times 0.995 \times 0.02$
1	1	1	$0.01 \times 0.995 \times 0.98$

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	0.955647
0	0	1	0.0145530
0	1	0	0.000396
0	1	1	0.019404
1	0	0	0.00004925
1	0	1	0.00000075
1	1	0	0.000199
1	1	1	0.009751

## Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

Joint can be used for inference

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	0.955647
0	0	1	0.0145530
0	1	0	0.000396
0	1	1	0.019404
1	0	0	0.00004925
1	0	1	0.00000075
1	1	0	0.000199
1	1	1	0.009751

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

Joint can be used for inference

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	0.955647
0	0	1	0.0145530
0	1	0	0.000396
0	1	1	0.019404
1	0	0	0.00004925
1	0	1	0.00000075
1	1	0	0.000199
1	1	1	0.00975175

$f$	$d$	$p(f, d)$
0	0	0.956043
0	1	0.033957
1	0	0.00024825
1	1	0.00975175

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

Joint can be used for inference

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	0.955647
0	0	1	0.0145530
0	1	0	0.000396
0	1	1	0.019404
1	0	0	0.00004925
1	0	1	0.00000075
1	1	0	0.000199
1	1	1	0.00975175

$f$	$d$	$p(f, d)$
0	0	0.956043
0	1	0.033957
1	0	0.00024825
1	1	0.00975175

$d$	$p(d)$
0	0.95629125
1	0.04370875

# Fire Detector cont'd

Example



$f$	$p(f)$
0	0.99
1	0.01

$s$	$p(s   f)$	$f$
0	0.98	0
1	0.02	0
0	0.005	1
1	0.995	1

$d$	$p(d   s)$	$s$
0	0.985	0
1	0.015	0
0	0.02	1
1	0.98	1

Joint can be used for inference

$f$	$s$	$d$	$p(f, s, d)$
0	0	0	0.955647
0	0	1	0.0145530
0	1	0	0.000396
0	1	1	0.019404
1	0	0	0.00004925
1	0	1	0.00000075
1	1	0	0.000199
1	1	1	0.00975175

$f$	$d$	$p(f, d)$
0	0	0.956043
0	1	0.033957
1	0	0.00024825
1	1	0.00975175

$d$	$p(d)$
0	0.95629125
1	0.04370875

$f$	$p(f   d)$	$d$
0	0.99974	0
1	0.00026	0
0	0.776892	1
1	0.223108	1

How are **sun shine, crime, ice cream** related?

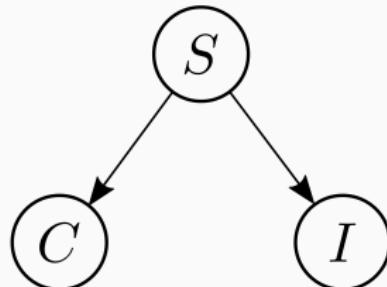
- each day, there is a 0.9 probability of sun-shine ( $S$ )<sup>1</sup>
- on sunny days, the probability of high ice-cream sales ( $I$ ) is 0.8; on cloudy days, the probability of high ice-cream sales is 0.03
- on sunny days the probability of an increased crime rate ( $C$ ) is 0.3 (due to hot temper); on cloudy days the probability of an increased crime rate is 0.08

---

<sup>1</sup>This example is from Judea Pearl, who lives in LA.

# Sun, Crime, Ice Cream cont'd

Example



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

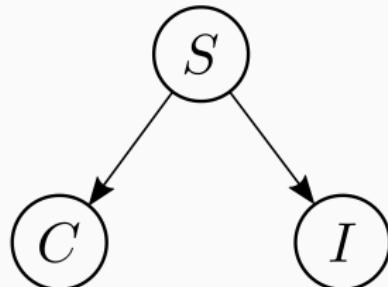
$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	0
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	1

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	0
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	1

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	
0	0	1	
0	1	0	
0	1	1	
1	0	0	
1	0	1	
1	1	0	
1	1	1	

# Sun, Crime, Ice Cream cont'd

Example



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

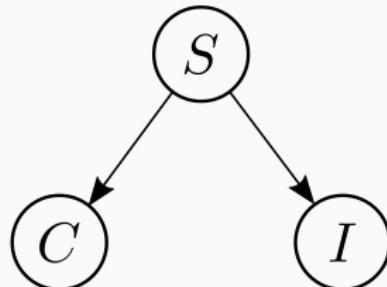
$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	0
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	1

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	0
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	1

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	$p(s = 0) \times p(c = 0   s = 0) \times p(i = 0   s = 0)$
0	0	1	$p(s = 0) \times p(c = 0   s = 0) \times p(i = 1   s = 0)$
0	1	0	$p(s = 0) \times p(c = 1   s = 0) \times p(i = 0   s = 0)$
0	1	1	$p(s = 0) \times p(c = 1   s = 0) \times p(i = 1   s = 0)$
1	0	0	$p(s = 1) \times p(c = 0   s = 1) \times p(i = 0   s = 1)$
1	0	1	$p(s = 1) \times p(c = 0   s = 1) \times p(i = 1   s = 1)$
1	1	0	$p(s = 1) \times p(c = 1   s = 1) \times p(i = 0   s = 1)$
1	1	1	$p(s = 1) \times p(c = 1   s = 1) \times p(i = 1   s = 1)$

# Sun, Crime, Ice Cream cont'd

Example



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

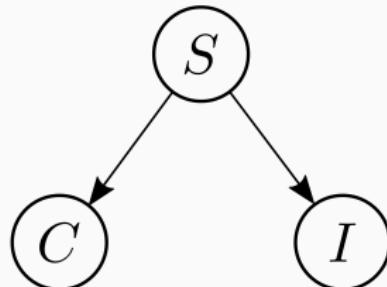
$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	0
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	1

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	0
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	1

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	$0.1 \times 0.92 \times 0.97$
0	0	1	$0.1 \times 0.92 \times 0.03$
0	1	0	$0.1 \times 0.08 \times 0.97$
0	1	1	$0.1 \times 0.08 \times 0.03$
1	0	0	$0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.2$
1	0	1	$0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.8$
1	1	0	$0.9 \times 0.3 \times 0.2$
1	1	1	$0.9 \times 0.3 \times 0.8$

# Sun, Crime, Ice Cream cont'd

Example

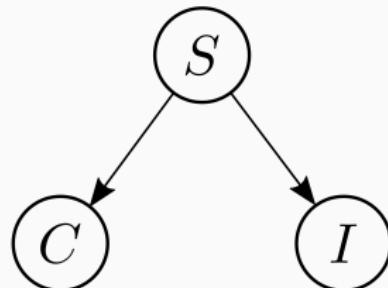


$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	0.08924
0	0	1	0.00276
0	1	0	0.00776
0	1	1	0.00024
1	0	0	0.126
1	0	1	0.504
1	1	0	0.054
1	1	1	0.216



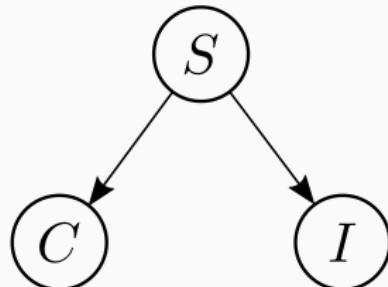
$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	

Joint can be used for inference

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	0.08924
0	0	1	0.00276
0	1	0	0.00776
0	1	1	0.00024
1	0	0	0.126
1	0	1	0.504
1	1	0	0.054
1	1	1	0.216



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	

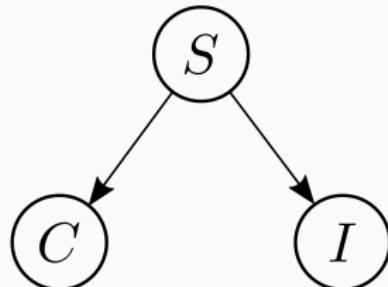
$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	

Joint can be used for inference

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	0.08924
0	0	1	0.00276
0	1	0	0.00776
0	1	1	0.00024
1	0	0	0.126
1	0	1	0.504
1	1	0	0.054
1	1	1	0.216

$\Rightarrow$

$c$	$i$	$p(c, i)$
0	0	0.21524
0	1	0.50676
1	0	0.06176
1	1	0.21624



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	

Joint can be used for inference

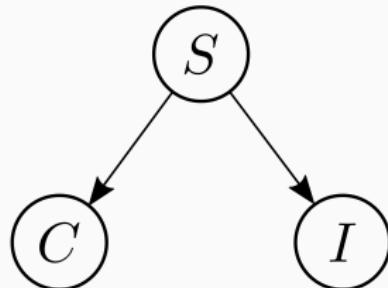
$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	0.08924
0	0	1	0.00276
0	1	0	0.00776
0	1	1	0.00024
1	0	0	0.126
1	0	1	0.504
1	1	0	0.054
1	1	1	0.216

$\Rightarrow$

$c$	$i$	$p(c, i)$
0	0	0.21524
0	1	0.50676
1	0	0.06176
1	1	0.21624

$\Rightarrow$

$i$	$p(i)$
0	0.277
1	0.723



$s$	$p(s)$
0	0.1
1	0.9

$c$	$p(c   s)$	$s$
0	0.92	0
1	0.08	
0	0.7	1
1	0.3	

$i$	$p(i   s)$	$s$
0	0.97	0
1	0.03	
0	0.2	1
1	0.8	

Joint can be used for inference

$s$	$c$	$i$	$p(s, c, i)$
0	0	0	0.08924
0	0	1	0.00276
0	1	0	0.00776
0	1	1	0.00024
1	0	0	0.126
1	0	1	0.504
1	1	0	0.054
1	1	1	0.216

$\Rightarrow$

$c$	$i$	$p(c, i)$
0	0	0.21524
0	1	0.50676
1	0	0.06176
1	1	0.21624

$\Rightarrow$

$i$	$p(i)$
0	0.277
1	0.723

$\Downarrow$

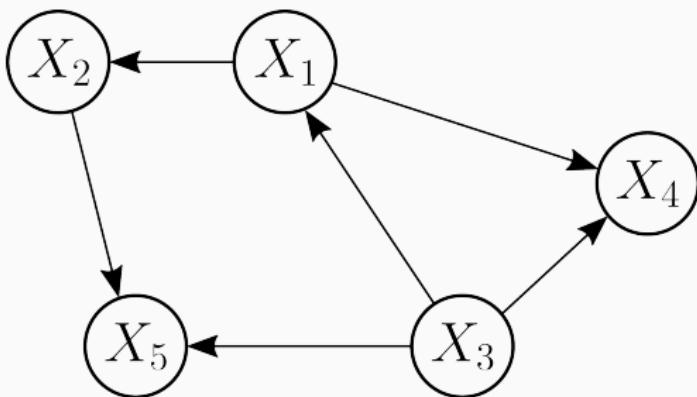
$c$	$p(c   i)$	$i$
0	0.777	0
1	0.223	
0	0.701	1
1	0.299	

## D-Separation

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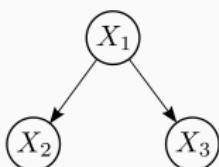
## Conditional Independencies in BNs

- what are the CI assumptions in a given BN?
- generally, they depend on both the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  and the CPDs  $\mathcal{P}$
- however, there are CIs which always follow from the structure  $\mathcal{G}$ , regardless of  $\mathcal{P} \Rightarrow$  **structural CIs**
- how can we read them off the graph?

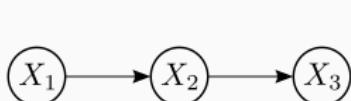


# Canonical Examples

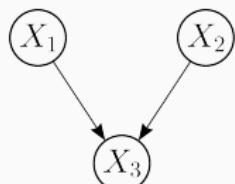
Let's look at the three examples of BNs we have discussed so far.  
They will turn out to be **canonical examples** for CI in BNs:



**tail-to-tail node,  
fork**



**head-to-tail node,  
chain**

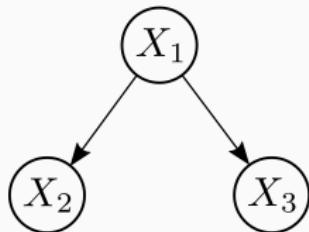


**head-to-head node,  
collider**

## Theorem

Neighboring nodes are in general **not** independent, regardless of the conditioning set. That is, if  $X$  and  $Y$  are connected by an edge then there exist CPDs such that  $X \not\perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$  for any  $Z \subseteq X \setminus \{X, Y\}$ .

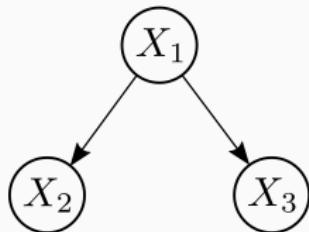
## Fork, Unconditional Independence



$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

- neighbors are in general dependent
- but does  $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$  hold?

## Fork, Unconditional Independence



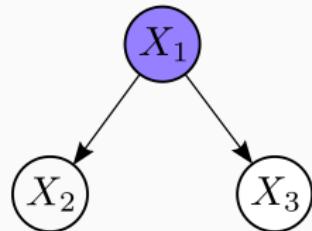
$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

- neighbors are in general dependent
- but does  $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$  hold?
- no, recall the Sun-Crime-Ice Cream example:

$c$	$p(c   i)$	$i$
0	0.777	0
1	0.223	0
0	0.701	1
1	0.299	1

- information “flows” over  $X_1$

## Fork, Conditional Independence

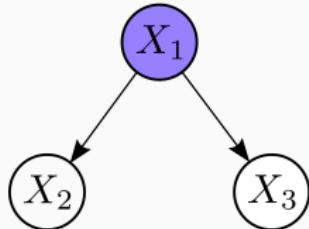


$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

**blue nodes in BNs are observed/conditioned on**

- neighbors are in general dependent
- $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_1$ ?

## Fork, Conditional Independence



$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

**blue nodes in BNs are observed/conditioned on**

- neighbors are in general dependent
- $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_1$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_2 | x_1, x_3) &= \frac{p(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{p(x_1, x_3)} = \frac{p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)}{p(x_1, x_3)} \\ &= p(x_2 | x_1) \frac{p(x_1, x_3)}{p(x_1, x_3)} = p(x_2 | x_1) \end{aligned}$$

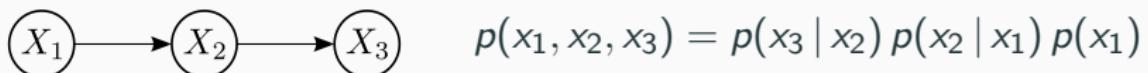
- thus,  $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_1 \Rightarrow$  information gets “blocked” by observing  $X_1$

## Chain, Unconditional Independence


$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$ ?

# Chain, Unconditional Independence

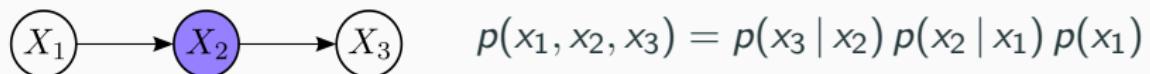


- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3$ ?
- no, recall the Fire Detector example:

$f$	$p(f   d)$	$d$
0	0.99974	0
1	0.00026	
0	0.776892	1
1	0.223108	

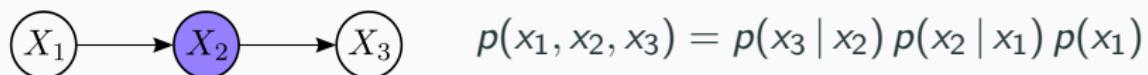
- information “flows” over  $X_2$

## Chain, Conditional Independence



- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_2?$

## Chain, Conditional Independence

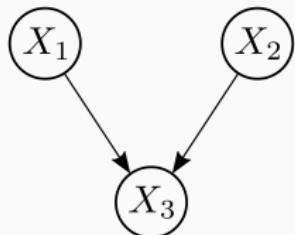


- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_2?$

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) &= \frac{p(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{p(x_1, x_2)} = \frac{p(x_3 | x_2) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)}{p(x_1, x_2)} \\ &= p(x_3 | x_2) \frac{p(x_1, x_2)}{p(x_1, x_2)} = p(x_3 | x_2) \end{aligned}$$

- thus,  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_2 \Rightarrow$  information gets “blocked” by observing  $X_2$

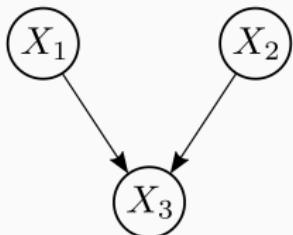
## Collider, Unconditional Independence



$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2) p(x_1)$$

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2$ ?

# Collider, Unconditional Independence



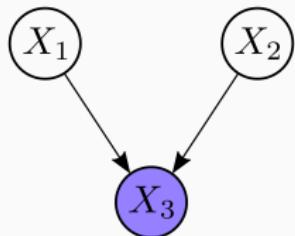
$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2) p(x_1)$$

- $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, x_2) &= \sum_{x_3} p(x_3 | x_1, x_2) p(x_2) p(x_1) \\ &= p(x_2) p(x_1) \underbrace{\sum_{x_3} p(x_3 | x_1, x_2)}_{=1} \\ &= p(x_2) p(x_1) \end{aligned}$$

- thus,  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2$ !

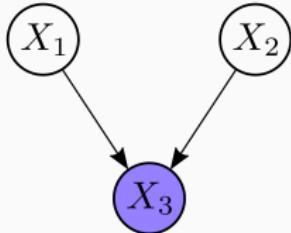
## Head-to-Head Node, Collider



$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_3 | X_1, X_2) p(X_2) p(X_1)$$

**Conditional independence:** Is  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3$ ?

## Head-to-Head Node, Collider



$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_3 | X_1, X_2) p(X_2) p(X_1)$$

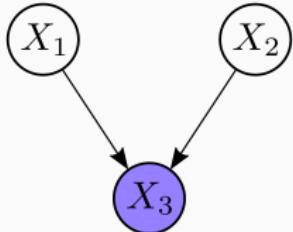
**Conditional independence:** Is  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3$ ?

No, consider the “coins and bell” example:

$c_1$	$c_2$	$b$	$p(c_1, c_2, b)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	0.0025
0	1	0	0.125
0	1	1	0.125
1	0	0	0.125
1	0	1	0.125
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0.25

$b$	$p(b)$
0	0.4975
1	0.5025

## Head-to-Head Node, Collider



$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_3 | X_1, X_2) p(X_2) p(X_1)$$

**Conditional independence:** Is  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3$ ?

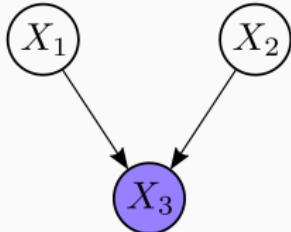
No, consider the “coins and bell” example:

$c_1$	$c_2$	$b$	$p(c_1, c_2, b)$
0	0	0	0.2475
0	0	1	0.0025
0	1	0	0.125
0	1	1	0.125
1	0	0	0.125
1	0	1	0.125
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0.25

$b$	$p(b)$
0	0.4975
1	0.5025

$c_1$	$c_2$	$p(c_1, c_2   b)$	$b$
0	0	0.498	0
	1	0.251	
	0	0.251	
	1	0	
1	0	0.005	1
	1	0.2488	
	0	0.2488	
	1	0.4974	

## Head-to-Head Node, Collider



$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_3 | X_1, X_2) p(X_2) p(X_1)$$

**Conditional independence:** Is  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3$ ?

No, consider the “coins and bell” example:

$c_1$	$c_2$	$b$	$p(c_1, c_2, b)$
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1	1	1	0.25

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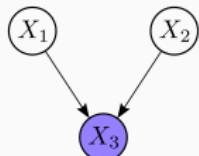
$c_1$	$c_2$	$p(c_1, c_2   b)$	$b$
0	0	0.498	0
	1	0.251	
	0	0.251	
	1	0	
1	0	0.005	1
	1	0.2488	
	0	0.2488	
	1	0.4974	

$p(C_1, C_2 | B)$  does not factorize. E.g.,  $p(C_1 = 1 | B = 0) = 0.251$  and  $p(C_2 = 1 | B = 0) = 0.251$ , but  $p(C_1 = 1, C_2 = 1 | B = 0) = 0$ .

## Explaining Away

We see that the **collider** introduces an interesting independence pattern, that is opposite to **forks** and **chains**.

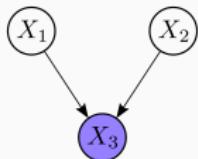
This corresponds to a common sense human reasoning pattern, called **explaining away**.



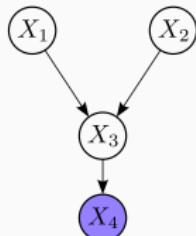
- you have a car, where the battery might be dead ( $X_1 = 0$ , low probability) or alive ( $X_1 = 1$ , high probability)
- the gas tank might be empty ( $X_2 = 0$ , low probability) or full ( $X_2 = 1$ , high probability)
- you observe that the car does not start ( $X_3 = 0$ )
- “gosh, is the battery dead?” (it’s expensive to replace)
- you check the gas tank and see it is empty  $X_2 = 0$
- “oh, fortunately, the battery is probably fine!”
- **gas tank  $X_2$  became predictive for  $X_1$  when  $X_3$  is observed, although  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent a-priori**
- $X_2 = 0$  **explained away** the fact that  $X_3 = 0$

## Explaining Away II

Example

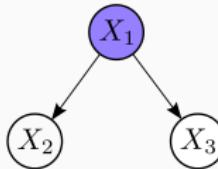
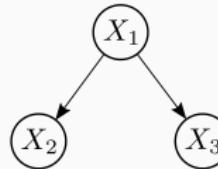
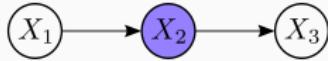
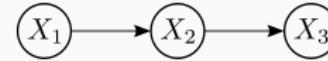
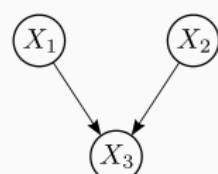
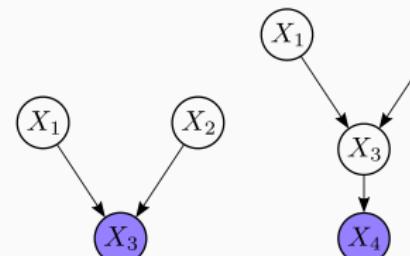


- you might have a burglary in your home ( $X_1 = 1$ , low probability) or not ( $X_1 = 0$ , high probability)
- there might be an earthquake ( $X_2 = 1$ , low probability) or not ( $X_2 = 0$ , high probability)
- both  $X_1$  or  $X_2$  have a high chance to trigger your alarm  $X_3$
- you get a call in your office from your neighbor that ( $X_3 = 1$ )
- “oh dear, a burglary in my home?”
- your drive home and hear in the radio that there was an earthquake in your neighborhood ( $X_2 = 1$ )
- “oh fortunately, it was only an earthquake, not a burglary!”
- $X_2 = 1$  **explained away the fact that  $X_3 = 1$**



- say your neighbor  $X_4$  is not completely reliable
- he might miss an alarm with probability 0.05
- also, he has a funny sense of humor and reports a false alert with probability 0.01
- thus, you are not observing  $X_3$  but a “noisy version”  $X_4$
- yet,  $X_2$  explains away  $X_4$ , decreasing the probability of  $X_1$
- **explaining away extends to descendants of colliders!**

# Basic Dependencies

blocked	unblocked
<b>fork</b>	
	
<b>chain</b>	
	
<b>collider</b>	
	

**These patterns generalize to arbitrary BNs!**

- consider two arbitrary RVs  $X, Y \in \mathbf{X}$
- let  $Z \subseteq \mathbf{X} \setminus \{X, Y\}$  (might also be empty)
- let  $\Pi = (X, \dots, Y)$  be an arbitrary path from  $X$  to  $Y$  in  $\mathcal{G}$

We say that path  $\Pi$  is **blocked by  $Z$**  if for any  $V_k \notin \{X, Y\}$  in  $\Pi$

- $(V_{k-1}, V_k, V_{k+1})$  is a **fork** or a **chain** and  $V_k$  is in  $Z$ .
- $(V_{k-1}, V_k, V_{k+1})$  is a **collider** and neither  $V_k$  nor any of its descendants is in  $Z$ .

**d-separation**

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a DAG over RVs  $\mathbf{X}$ . Consider arbitrary two RVs  $X, Y \in \mathbf{X}$  and let  $Z \subseteq \mathbf{X} \setminus \{X, Y\}$ . We say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are **d-separated by  $Z$**  if **all** paths from  $X$  to  $Y$  are blocked by  $Z$ .

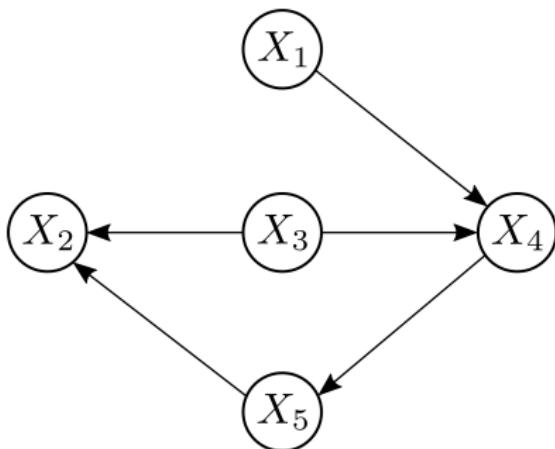
**Theorem (Geiger, Verma, and Pearl, 1990)**

Let  $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{P})$  be a Bayesian network. If  $X$  and  $Y$  are d-separated by  $Z$  in  $\mathcal{G}$ , then  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$  in the BN distribution.

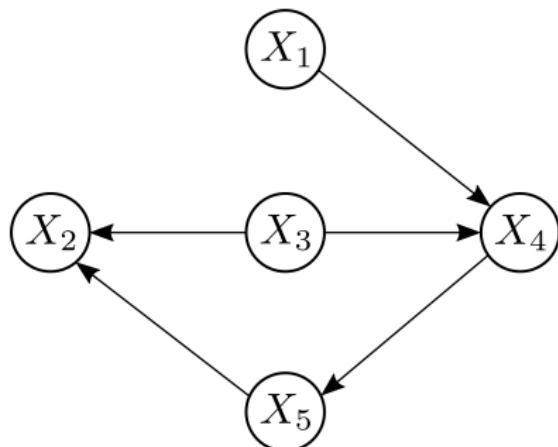
**Note:** this is a **graphical condition** and holds for any collection of CPDs  $\mathcal{P}$ .

**Note:** it is a sufficient, not necessary condition—even a fully connected DAG can have arbitrary CIs encoded in  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\emptyset$ ?

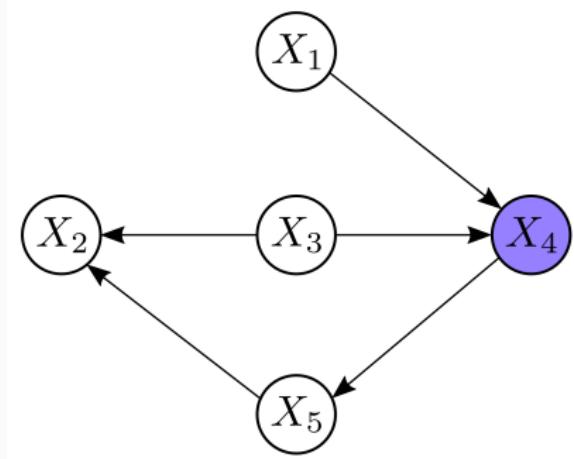


Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\emptyset$ ?

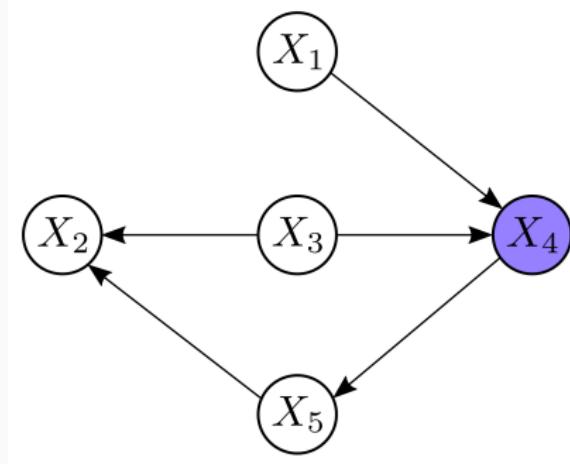


No, since path  $(X_1, X_4, X_5, X_2)$  is not blocked.

Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\{X_4\}$ ?

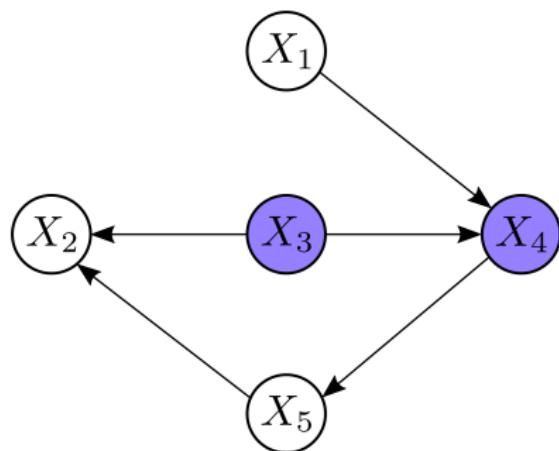


Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\{X_4\}$ ?

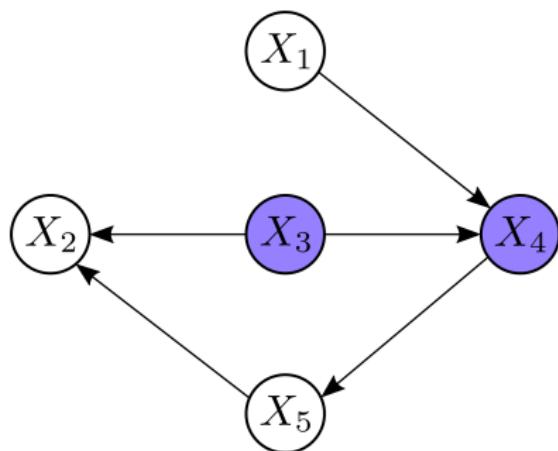


No, since path  $(X_1, X_4, X_3, X_2)$  is not blocked.

Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\{X_3, X_4\}$ ?

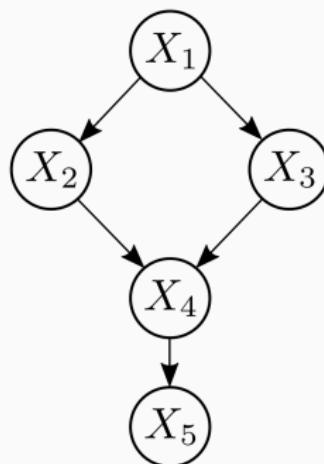


Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_2$  by  $\{X_3, X_4\}$ ?

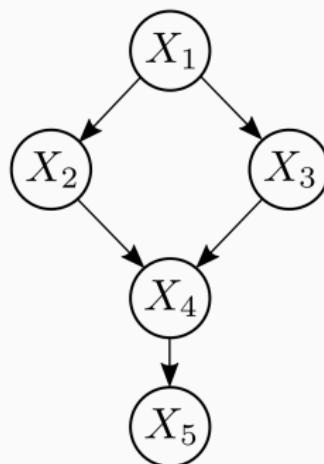


Yes! Thus any BN with this graph will have  $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2 | X_3, X_4$ .

Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_5$ ?

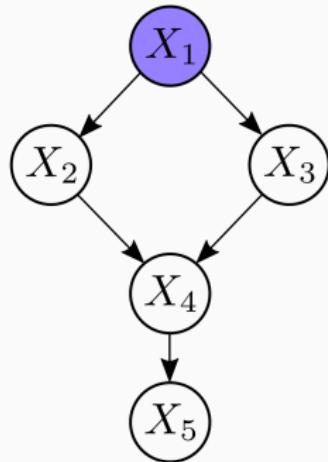


Is  $X_1$  d-separated from  $X_5$ ?

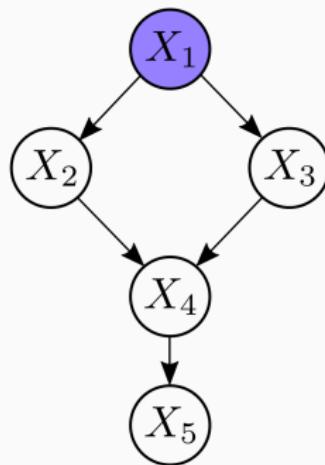


No, the paths  $(X_1, X_2, X_4, X_5)$  and  $(X_1, X_3, X_4, X_5)$  are not blocked.

Is  $X_2$  d-separated from  $X_3$  by  $\{X_1\}$ ?

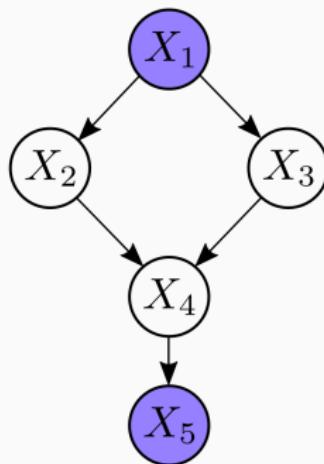


Is  $X_2$  d-separated from  $X_3$  by  $\{X_1\}$ ?

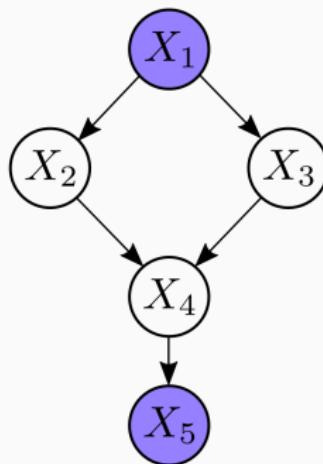


Yes! Thus any BN with this graph will have  $X_2 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_3 | X_1$ .

Is  $X_2$  d-separated from  $X_3$  by  $\{X_1, X_5\}$ ?



Is  $X_2$  d-separated from  $X_3$  by  $\{X_1, X_5\}$ ?



No, the path  $X_2, X_4, X_3$  is not blocked, as  $X_5$  is a descendant of collider  $X_4$ .

## So, why does this matter?

- **graphical models** such as **Bayesian networks** are usually understood as a “type of model”
- however, the real benefit is to understand **dependency structure** and information flow
- basically, all probabilistic models can be interpreted through a graphical models lens
- authors and researchers can easily **communicate ideas and assumptions** using graphical models