# 1 Bayesian Networks

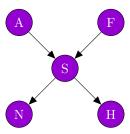
Bayesian Networks are a simple graphical notation for conditional independence assertions, hence for compact specifications of full joint distributions.

A Bayesian Network is directed, acyclic graph with

- Nodes: One node per variable
- Edges: A directed edge from node  $N_i$  to node  $N_j$  indicates that the corresponding variable  $X_i$  has a direct influence on  $X_j$

Set of random variables  $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ 

Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)



## Conditional Probability Distribution (CPD)

• Each randome variable  $X_i$  in the network is associated with a CPD given its parents  $(Pa(X_i))$ 

$$P(X_i|Pa(X_i))$$

• Each variable is probabilistically dependent on its parents

# Joint Distribution:

$$P(X_1,\ldots,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i|Pa(X_i))$$

# **Local Markov Assumption:**

Each random variable  $X_i$  is conditionally independent of its non-descendants, given its parents.

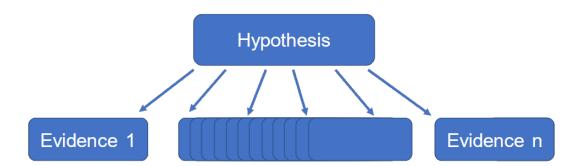
 $X_i \perp \text{nonDescendants} | Pa(X_i)$ 

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# 1.1 Naïve Bayes

A naïve Bayes model assumes that all effects are independent given the cause:

$$P(\text{hypothesis}, \text{evidence}_1, \dots, \text{evidence}_n) = P(\text{hypothesis}) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^n P(\text{evidence}_i | \text{hypothesis})$$



# 1.2 Inference in Bayesian Networks

Query P(X|e)

Definition of conditional probability:  $P(X|e) = \frac{P(X,e)}{P(e)}$ 

Up to normalization:  $P(X|e) \propto P(X,e)$ 

Can be rewritten as:

$$P(Y) = \sum_{\substack{X_i \notin Y \\ \text{Marginalization}}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i | Pa(X_i))$$

#### 1.2.1 Variable Elimination

Given a Bayesian Network and a query P(X|e)/P(X,e).

Instantiate evidence e.

Choose an elimination order over the variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ .

Initial factors of probability distribution comprised of:  $f_1, \ldots, f_n$ .

For i = 1 to n, if  $X_i \notin \{X, E\}$ :

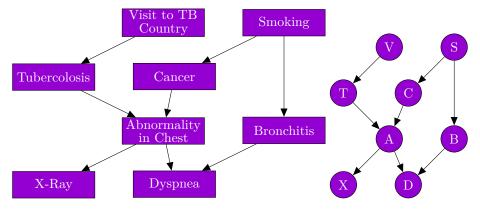
Collect factors  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$  that contain  $X_i$ .

Generate a new factor by eliminating  $X_i$  from  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$ :

$$g = \sum_{X_i} \prod_{j=1}^k f_j$$

Remove all factors  $f_1, \ldots, f_k$  and add new factor g to the network.

Normalize P(X, e) to obtain P(X|e).



Assume we want to compute P(d), so we need to eliminate v,s,t,c,a,b,x.

The **probability distribution** is given as the product of multiple factors:

$$P(v,s,t,c,a,b,x,c) = P(v)P(s)P(t|v)P(c|s)P(b|s)P(a|c,l)P(x|a)P(d|a,b) \label{eq:problem}$$

Lets choose the elimination order: v,s,x,t,c,a,b

From that we get:

This unfortunately is not efficient.

# Theorem

Inference (even approximate in Bayesion networks is NP-Hard)

## 1.2.2 Approximate Inference by Stochastic Sampling

#### Basic Idea:

- 1. Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
- 2. Compute an approximate posterior probability  $\hat{P}$
- 3. Show this converges to the true probability P

#### Draw samples

#### Given:

- Random Variable  $X|D(X) = \{0,1\}$
- $P(X) = \{0.3, 0.7\} (P(X=0) = 0.3, P(X=1) = 0.7)$

## Sample X = P(X)

- Get a random number  $r \in [0,1]$
- If r < 0.3 then X = 0
- Else X = 1

Can be generalized to any domain size.

# Sampling from "Empty Network"

Ergo, generating samples from a network that has no evidence associated with it.

#### Basic Idea:

- Sample a value for each variable in topological (in respect to dependencies) order
- Using the specified conditional probabilities

```
1 // belief network specifies joint distribution P(X_1, ..., X_n)

2 Function prior_sample(belief_network) \rightarrow event sampled from belief network:

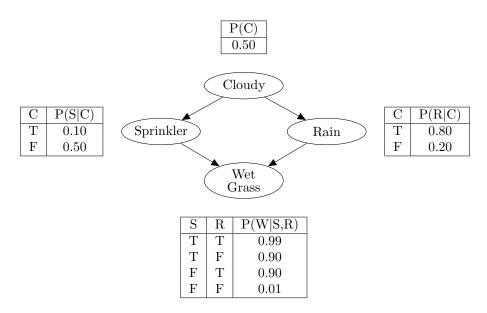
3 | x = event with n elements;

4 | For i = 1 to n do

5 | | x_i = \text{random sample from } P(X_i|Pa(X_i)) given the values of Pa(X_i) in x;

6 | return x
```

#### Example:



Bayesian Network for Weather and Wet Grass

#### Probability Estimation using Sampling

Calculating a probability estimation:

- Sample many points using the algorithm above
- Count how often each possible combination  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  occurs

• Estimate the probability by the observed percentages

```
\hat{P}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=N_{PS}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)/\text{number of samples}
```

This converges towards the joint probability function.

#### Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) Sampling

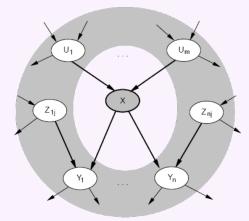
```
1 Function mcmc_ask(X,e,belief\_network, num\_samples) \rightarrow estimate of P(X|e):
       count X = [] // number of times each X occurs, initially 0 for all
       Z = [non-evidence \ variables] // \ list of non-evidence \ variables
 3
 4
       x=\mathrm{e} // current state of the network, initially \mathrm{e}
       initialize non-evidence values in x with random values;
 5
       // Gibbs sampling
 6
       For j=1 to num\_samples do
 7
           For Each Z_i \in Z do
 8
            |\mathbf{x}[Z_i]| = \text{sample from } P(Z_i|\text{markov\_blanket}(Z_i))
 9
           \operatorname{count}\_X[x] \mathrel{+}= 1 \mathrel{//} x is the value of X in x
10
       return normalize(count_X)
11
```

More samples result in better approximates.

## Markov Blanket

A Markov Blanket is a set of variables that are conditionally independent of a variable given all other variables in the network. It consists of parents (direct causes), children (direct effects) and childrens parents (co-causes). Alternatively: A markov blanket includes all variables that directly influence or are influenced by a variable X. Everything outside of the markov blanket is irrelevant to X. This makes it easier to compute probabilities.

$$P(X|U_1,\ldots,U_m,Y_1,\ldots,Y_n,Z_{1j},\ldots,Z_{nj})=P(X|\text{all variables})$$



# Gibbs Sampling

Basic Idea:

- 1. Initialize all variables with random values
- 2. Iterate through each variable, updating it based on Markov Blanket
- 3. Repeat until samples converge to the true distribution

Gibbs Sampling utilized Markov Blankets by reducing the number of variables that need to be considered at each step.

#### Example:

Estimate P(Rain|Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = True)

- 1. Sample Cloudy or Rain given its Markov Blanket, repeat n times
- 2. Count number of times Rain is true and false in the samples

E.g. sample 100 states and count 31 times Rain and 69 times not Rain.

$$P(\text{Rain}|\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}, \text{WetGrass} = \text{True}) = \text{Normalize} < 31,69 > = < 0.31,0.69 >$$

#### Theorem

Chain approaches stationary distribution:

Long-run fraction of time spent in each sate is exactly proprotional to posterior probability.