

# TDT4171 Artificial Intelligence Methods

## Lecture 3 – Bayesian Networks

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## 1 Bayesian Networks

- Setup
- Syntax
- Semantics
- The model building process
- The quantitative part
- Inference

## 2 Summary

- **Probability** is a rigorous formalism for uncertain knowledge
- **Joint probability distribution** specifies probability of every **atomic event**
- Queries can be answered by **summing** over atomic events
- For nontrivial domains, we must find a way to **reduce** the size of the joint distribution, as it grows like  $O(d^n)$
- **Independence** and **conditional independence** provide the tools for simplification.
- Calculations can be rather heavy; today we will **start using a SW tool**, which does this for us

# Chapter 13: Bayesian networks



## Curriculum:

- Syntax of Bayesian networks
- Semantics
- **Modelling**
- Inference (superficially)

## Announcements:

- New week, new assignment!

# Basic statistics – Bayes' rule



The product rule  $P(x \wedge y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(y|x)P(x)$ , can be used to prove **Bayes' rule**:

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

## Calculation challenge:

- Two factories, **Factory A** and **Factory B**, make light-bulbs. **Factory A** produces 60% of the bulbs, **Factory B** the rest.
- The probability of a light-bulb from **Factory A** being defect is 0.01, from **Factory B** the probability is 0.02.
- What is the probability of a lightbulb being from **Factory A** **given that it is defect**?

**Discuss with neighbour for a couple of minutes.**

BAYES RULE

FACTORY A: 60% OF BULBS. DEFECT-PROB 0.01

FACTORY B: 40% OF BULBS. DEFECT-PROB 0.02

$$P(\text{Factory}=a \mid \text{defect}) = \frac{P(\text{defect} \mid \text{Factory}=a) \cdot P(\text{Factory}=a)}{P(\text{defect})}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{defect}) &= P(\text{defect} \wedge \text{Factory}=a) + \\ &\quad P(\text{defect} \wedge \text{Factory}=b) \\ &= 0.6 \cdot 0.01 + 0.4 \cdot 0.02 = 0.014 \end{aligned}$$

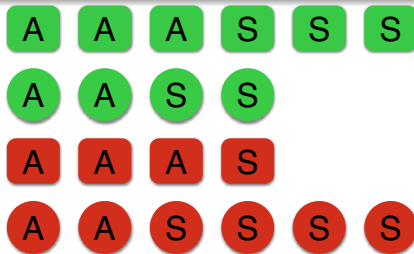
$$P(\text{Factory}=a \mid \text{defect}) = \frac{0.01 \cdot 0.6}{0.014} = \underline{\underline{0.429}}$$

# Important concept: Independence



- Independence is an extremely powerful, albeit quite rare property when making models.
- If  $X$  is independent of  $Y$  (often written as  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$ ) then  $\mathbf{P}(X|Y) = \mathbf{P}(X)$  and — equivalently —  $\mathbf{P}(Y|X) = \mathbf{P}(Y)$ .
- Independence leads to **more compact representation** and **simplified inference**:
  - $\mathbf{P}(X, Y) = \mathbf{P}(X | Y)\mathbf{P}(Y) = \mathbf{P}(X)\mathbf{P}(Y)$ .
- Independence statements sanctioned by either of the two:
  - Domain knowledge, e.g.,  $\text{Cavity} \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{WinRBK}$
  - Quantifications, e.g.,  $\mathbf{P}(\text{Cavity} | \text{WinRBK}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Cavity})$

# Independence – Example

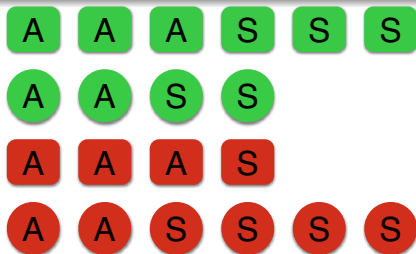


- ① Are **Shape** and **Color** independent?
- ② Are **Shape** and **Letter** independent?
- ③ Are **Letter** and **Color** independent?

Discuss with your neighbour for a couple of minutes.



# Independence – Example



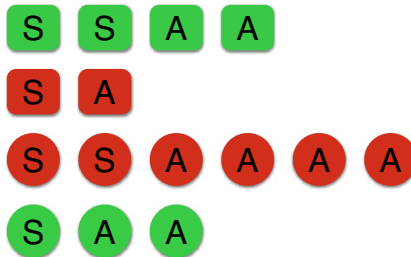
- ① Are **Shape** and **Color** independent?  
**No!** E.g.,  $0.6 = P(\text{circle} \mid \text{red}) \neq P(\text{circle}) = 0.5$ .
- ② Are **Shape** and **Letter** independent?  
**No!** E.g.,  $0.4 = P(a \mid \text{circle}) \neq P(a) = 0.5$ .
- ③ Are **Letter** and **Color** independent?  
**YES!**  $P(\text{Letter} \mid \text{Color}) = P(\text{Letter}) = [0.5 \ 0.5]$ .

# Important concept: Conditional independence



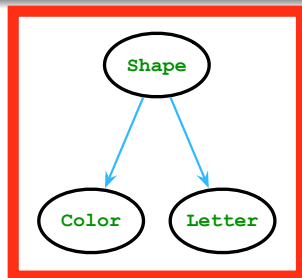
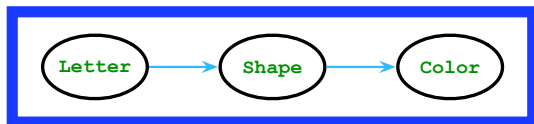
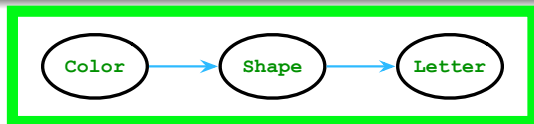
- Independence extremely powerful, but also extremely rare in applications  $\Rightarrow$  **Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.**
- If  $X$  is independent of  $Y$  given  $Z$  (often written as  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ ) then  $\mathbf{P}(X|Y, Z) = \mathbf{P}(X \mid Z)$  and  $\mathbf{P}(Y|X, Z) = \mathbf{P}(Y \mid Z)$ .
- Conditional independence leads to **more compact representation** and **simplified inference**.
  - $\mathbf{P}(X, Y, Z) = \mathbf{P}(X \mid Y, Z) \cdot \mathbf{P}(Y, Z) = \mathbf{P}(X \mid Z) \cdot \mathbf{P}(Y, Z)$ .
- Conditional independence statements sanctioned by either of the two:
  - Domain knowledge, e.g.,  $\text{Catch} \perp\!\!\!\perp \text{Toothache} \mid \text{Cavity}$
  - Quantifications, e.g.,  
 $\mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Cavity})$
- Conditional independence sounds a bit involved, but really isn't! **Think of it as “irrelevance of new information”.**

# Conditional independence – Example



- All variables are dependent:
  - Color is not independent of Shape.
  - Letter is not independent of Shape.
  - Letter is not independent of Color.
- But Letter is cond. independent of Color given Shape.  
$$P(\text{Letter} \mid \text{Shape}, \text{Color}) = P(\text{Letter} \mid \text{Shape})$$

# Conditional independence and Causality



Three “causal stories” can generate the data:

- 1 **Nature** first determines **Color**, thereafter chooses **Shape**.  
Based on the value of **Shape** she determines **Letter**.
- 2 **Letter** first, then **Letter**  $\rightarrow$  **Shape** and **Shape**  $\rightarrow$  **Color**.
- 3 **Nature** first determines **Shape**, thereafter chooses **Color** and **Letter** independently, but based on the value of **Shape**.

Only with domain knowledge (e.g., what does **Letter** represent?) can we choose between the three alternative stories.

# Conditional independence and Causality (cont'd)



- ❶ Looking for independence and conditional independence in a large data set with many attributes is **difficult**.
- ❷ ... but we need to find them in order to **reduce the number** of necessary probabilities down to a reasonable size.
- ❸ Via **background knowledge** about the domain, we can see the raw data as more than just meaningless vectors of attribute values.
- ❹ This will lead to good **hypotheses** about possible independences and causal independences.
- ❺ These can be easily **checked** against the raw data.
- ❻ Structuring the “causal stories” turns out to be **helpful**.

# Bayesian networks



A Bayesian Network is a simple, graphical notation for conditional independence assertions and hence for compact specification of full joint distributions.

## Syntax:

- a set of nodes, one per variable
- a directed, acyclic graph (link  $\approx$  “directly influences”)
- a conditional distribution for each node given its parents:

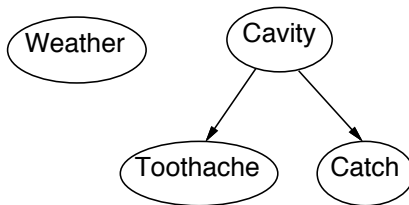
$$P(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i))$$

Today, all conditional distribution represented as a **conditional probability table** (CPT) giving the distribution over  $X_i$  for each combination of parent values (all nodes are discrete).

# Example – The Dentist's Domain



Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:



- **Weather** is **independent** of the other variables as it does not influence anything, and is not influenced by anything.
- **Toothache** and **Catch** are **conditionally independent** given **Cavity** because any variable is **conditionally independent of all its non-descendants given its parents**.

# Example – Hypothetical Covid Domain (in 2020)



*Vaccination hinders covid. In 2020, vaccines were limited, so people with pre-existing conditions were prioritized. Smokers were under-represented among those infected. Smoking is more common among male than female. Infected people typically cough and have a fever. **Interesting question:** Is a person infected?*

To make a model we must decide . . .

- Which are the **random variables**?
- What is the resulting BN **structure**?

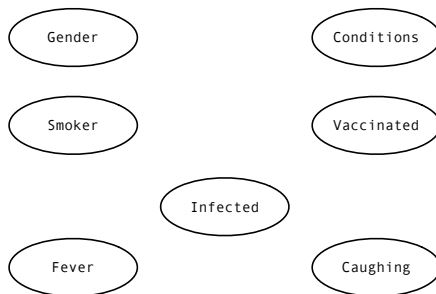
**Discuss with your neighbour for a couple of minutes.**



# Example – Hypothetical Covid Domain (in 2020)



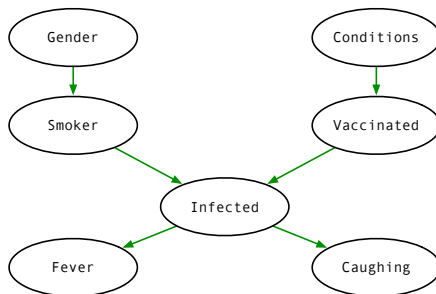
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# Example – Hypothetical Covid Domain (in 2020)



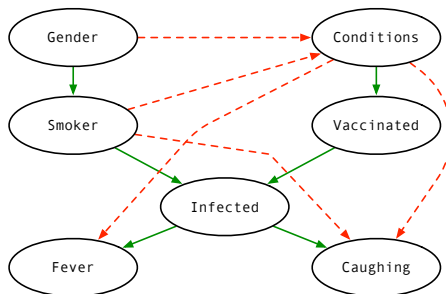
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# Example – Hypothetical Covid Domain (in 2020)



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# Example – The Burglary Domain



*I'm at work, neighbour John has called (to say my alarm is ringing?), but neighbour Mary hasn't called. Sometimes it's set off by minor earthquakes. **Interesting question:** Is there a burglar?*

To make a model we must decide . . .

- Which are the **random variables**?
- How is the **casual structure** of the story?
- What is the resulting BN **structure**?

**Discuss with your neighbour for a couple of minutes.**

# Example – The Burglary Domain



*I'm at work, neighbour John has called (to say my alarm is ringing?), but neighbour Mary hasn't called. Sometimes it's set off by minor earthquakes. **Interesting question:** Is there a burglar?*

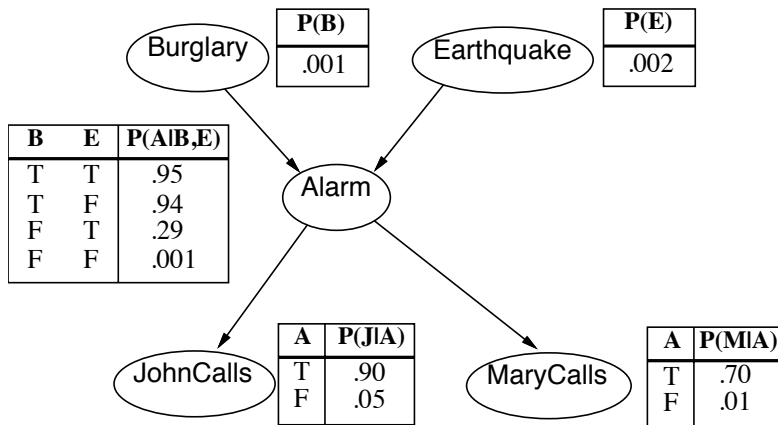
## Variables:

- Burglar, Earthquake
- Alarm
- JohnCalls, MaryCalls

## Network topology reflects “causal” knowledge:

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

## Example cont'd.



# Example contd.



Demo of the **GeNIe** system: `burglary.xdsl`

**System availability:**

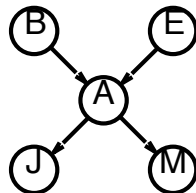
<https://download.bayesfusion.com/files.html?category=Academia>

# Compactness



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

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



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

**I.e., grows linearly with  $n$ , vs.  $O(2^n)$  for the full joint distribution!** For burglary net,  $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$  numbers (vs.  $2^5 - 1 = 31$ )



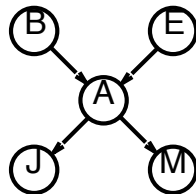
# Global semantics



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

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

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

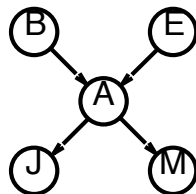


# Global semantics



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



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

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

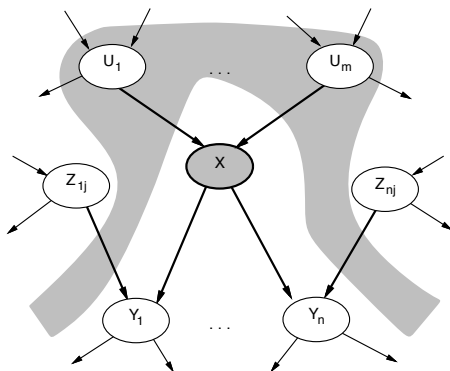
$$= 0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998$$

$$\approx 0.0006$$

# Local semantics



**Local** semantics: each node is conditionally independent of its nondescendants given its parents



**Theorem:** Local semantics  $\Leftrightarrow$  global semantics

# Local semantics (Example)



## 4 models in GeNIe:

- Defect Lightbulbs: `Factory.xdsl`
- Cause & Effect: `CauseEffect.xdsl`
- Dividing structure (fork): `Divider.xdsl`
- V-structure (collider): `Collider.xdsl`

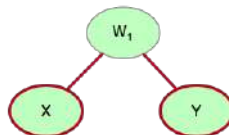
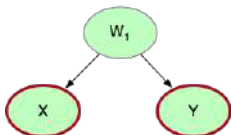
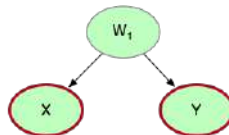
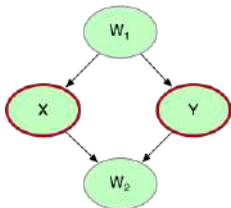
# Checking for conditional independence



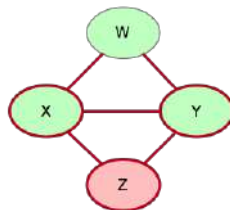
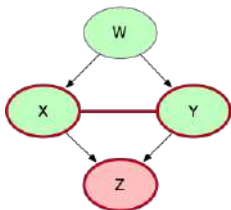
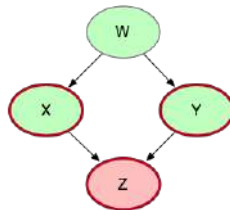
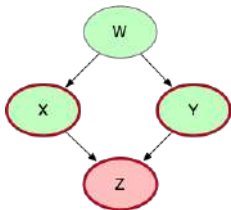
To check if a set of variables  $X$  is independent of  $Y$  given  $Z$  do the following:

- ① Create the **ancestral graph**:  $\{X, Y, Z\}$  and their ancestral nodes
- ② **Moralize** the graph: Every pair of nodes with a common child must be connected.
- ③ Drop all directions.
- ④ **Check**: Does  $Z$  block all paths between  $X$  and  $Y$ ?
  - If all paths are blocked, then  $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ .
  - If there is at least one unblocked path, then  $X \not\perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ .

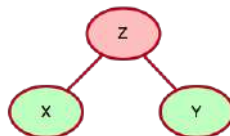
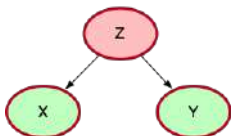
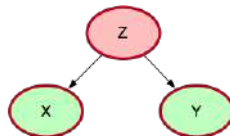
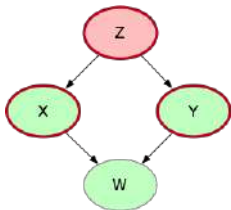
# Checking for conditional independence – Examples



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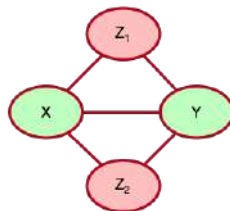
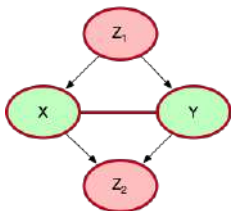
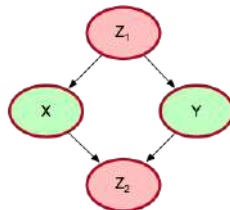
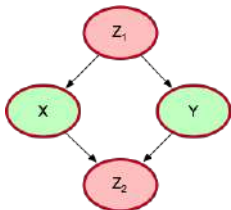


# Checking for conditional independence – Examples





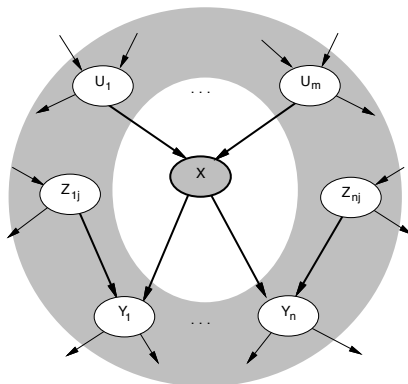
# Checking for conditional independence – Examples



# Markov blanket



Each node is conditionally independent of all others given its  
**Markov blanket**: parents + children + children's parents



# Yet another example



## Conditional independence in GeNIe – Forest\_Fire.xdsl

- Are **Storm** and **Thunder** ...
  - **independent**?
  - **conditionally independent** given **Lightning**?
- Which variables are ...
  - **independent** of **BusTourGroup**?
  - **conditionally independent** of **BusTourGroup** given **ForestFire**?

Discuss with your neighbour for a couple of minutes.

# Constructing Bayesian networks



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

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

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

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

# Example



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



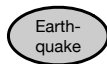
Burglary

**Burglary** is the only variable, so cannot have parents. Move on...

# Example



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

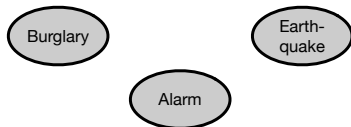


$$P(E|B) = P(E)?$$

# Example



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



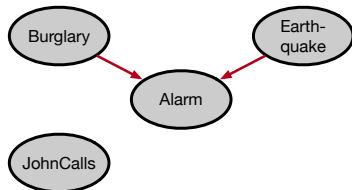
$P(E|B) = P(E)$ ? Yes

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

# Example



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



$$P(E|B) = P(E)? \quad \text{Yes}$$

$$P(A|B, E) = P(A|B)? \quad P(A|B, E) = P(A|E)? \quad \text{No}$$

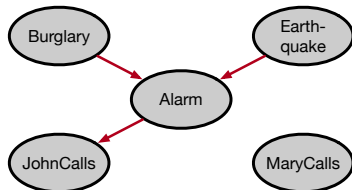
$$P(J|A, B, E) = P(J|A)?$$



# Example



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



$$P(E|B) = P(E)? \quad \text{Yes}$$

$$P(A|B, E) = P(A|B)? \quad P(A|B, E) = P(A|E)? \quad \text{No}$$

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

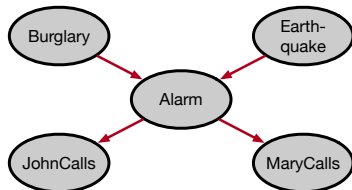
$$P(M|A, B, J, E) = P(M)?$$

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

# Example



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



$P(E|B) = P(E)$ ? Yes

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

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

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

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

Finding the structure was fairly easy in this case, and the result is a “sparse” network with  $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$  required parameters.

# Example



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

MaryCalls

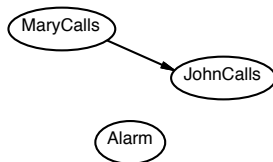
JohnCalls

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

# Example



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



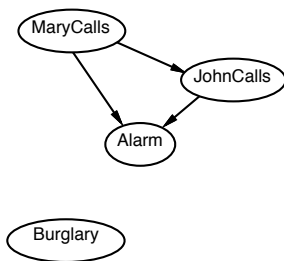
$P(J|M) = P(J)$ ? No

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

# Example



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



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

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

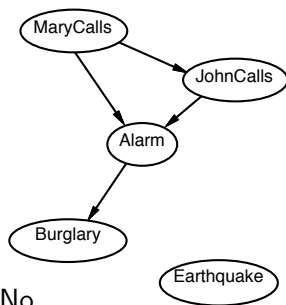
$P(B|A, J, M) = P(B|A)$ ?

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

# Example



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



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

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

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

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

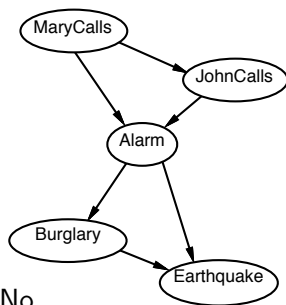
$$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A)?$$

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

# Example



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



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

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

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

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

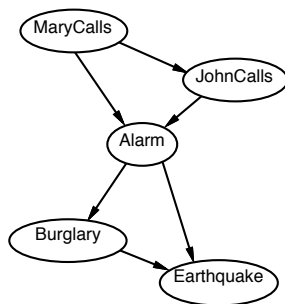
$P(E|B, A, J, M) = P(E|A)$ ? No

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

# Example



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



Deciding conditional independence is hard in non-causal directions  
– Causal models and conditional independence seem hardwired for humans!

Assessing conditional probabilities is hard in non-causal directions

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



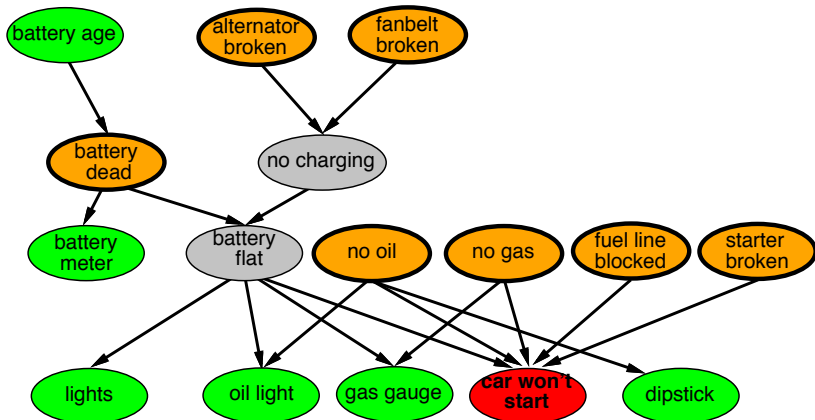
# Example: Car diagnosis



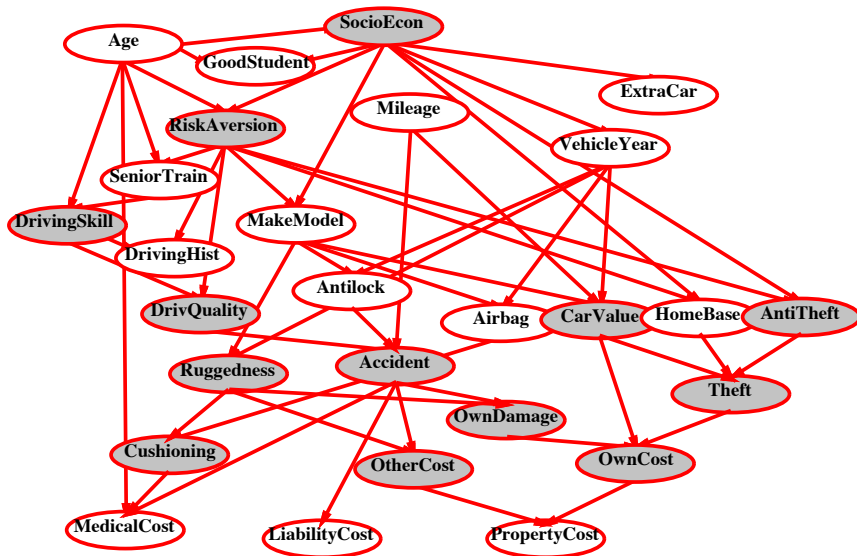
**Initial evidence:** car won't start

**Testable variables** (green), **"broken, so fix it" variables** (orange)

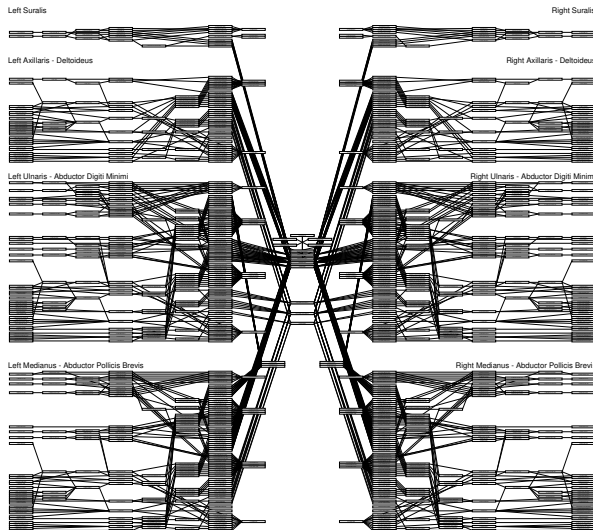
**Hidden variables** (gray) ensure sparse structure, reduce parameters



# Example: Car insurance



# Example: MUNIN



# Phases of the model building process

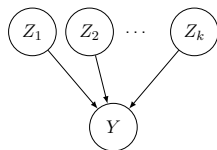


- Step 0 – Decide what to model:** Select the boundary for what to include in the model.
- Step 1 – Defining variables:** Select the important variables in the domain.
- Step 2 – The qualitative part:** Define the graphical structure that connects the variables.
- Step 3 – The quantitative part:** Fix parameters to specify each  $P(x_i \mid \text{pa}(x_i))$ . **This is the difficult part.**
- Step 4 – Verification:** Verification of the model.

# The quantitative part: Defining $P(y|\text{pa}(y))$



Consider a binary node with  $k$  binary parents. The CPT  $P(y|z_1, \dots, z_k)$  contains  $2^k$  parameters.



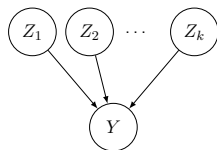
**Naïve approach:**  $2^k$  conditional probabilities:

All parameters are required if no other assumptions can be made.

# The quantitative part: Defining $P(y|\text{pa}(y))$



Consider a binary node with  $k$  binary parents. The CPT  $P(y|z_1, \dots, z_k)$  contains  $2^k$  parameters.



**Naïve approach:**  $2^k$  conditional probabilities

**Deterministic relations:** Parameter free:

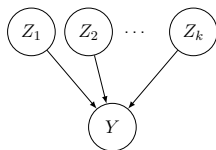
$Y$  considered a deterministic function of its parents, e.g.,

$$\{Y = \text{true}\} \iff \{Z_1 = \text{true}\} \vee \{Z_2 = \text{true}\} \vee \dots \vee \{Z_k = \text{true}\}.$$

# The quantitative part: Defining $P(y|\text{pa}(y))$



Consider a binary node with  $k$  binary parents. The CPT  $P(y|z_1, \dots, z_k)$  contains  $2^k$  parameters.



**Naïve approach:**  $2^k$  conditional probabilities

**Deterministic relations:** Parameter free

**Noisy OR relation:**  $k + 1$  conditional probabilities:

Independent inhibitors  $Q_1, \dots, Q_k$ ; Assume  $\{Q_1 = \text{true}\} \vee \dots \vee \{Q_k = \text{true}\} \Rightarrow \{Y = \text{true}\}$ .

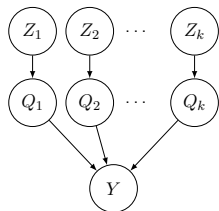
For each  $Q_i$  we have

$$P(Q_i = \text{true} | Z_i = \text{true}) = q_i,$$

$$P(Q_i = \text{true} | Z_i = \text{false}) = 0.$$

“Leak probability”:

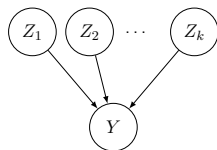
$$P(Y = \text{true} | Q_1 = \dots = Q_k = \text{false}) = q_0.$$



# The quantitative part: Defining $P(y|\text{pa}(y))$



Consider a binary node with  $k$  binary parents. The CPT  $P(y|z_1, \dots, z_k)$  contains  $2^k$  parameters.



**Naïve approach:**  $2^k$  conditional probabilities

**Deterministic relations:** Parameter free

**Noisy OR relation:**  $k + 1$  conditional probabilities

**Special structures:** From 2 to  $2^k$  conditional probabilities:

$Y$  defined, e.g., by *rules* such as

“ $P(Y = \text{true}|Z_1 = \text{true}, \dots, Z_k = \text{true}) = p_1$ , but

$P(Y = \text{true}|z_1, \dots, z_k) = p_2$  for all other configurations  $\mathbf{z}$ ”.



# Inference tasks



Simple queries: compute posterior marginal  $P(X_i | \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e})$ , e.g.,  
 $P(\text{NoGas} | \text{Gauge} = \text{empty}, \text{Lights} = \text{on}, \text{Starts} = \text{false})$

Conjunctive queries:

$$P(X_i, X_j | \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}) = P(X_i | \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e})P(X_j | X_i, \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e})$$

Optimal decisions: decision networks include utility information;  
probabilistic inference required for

$$P(\text{outcome} | \text{action}, \text{evidence})$$

Value of information: which evidence to seek next?

Sensitivity analysis: which probability values are most critical?

Explanation: why do I need a new starter motor?

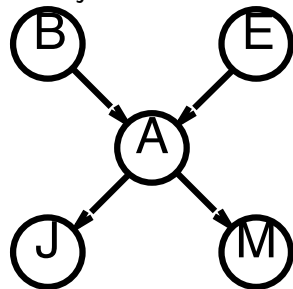
# Inference tasks – Inference by enumeration



Slightly intelligent way to sum out variables from the joint without actually constructing its explicit representation.

**Simple query on the burglary network:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{P}(B|j,m) &= \mathbf{P}(B,j,m)/P(j,m) \\
 &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B,j,m) \\
 &= \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B,e,a,j,m)
 \end{aligned}$$



Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

$$\mathbf{P}(B|j,m) = \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B)P(e)\mathbf{P}(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a)$$

Recursive depth-first enumeration:  $O(n)$  space,  $O(n \cdot d^n)$  time

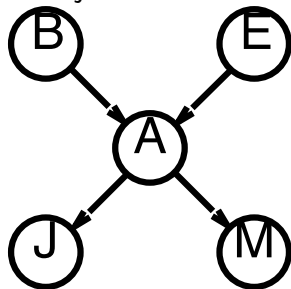
# Inference tasks – Inference by enumeration



Slightly intelligent way to sum out variables from the joint without actually constructing its explicit representation.

**Simple query on the burglary network:**

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 \mathbf{P}(B|j, m) &= \mathbf{P}(B, j, m) / P(j, m) \\
 &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B, j, m) \\
 &= \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B, e, a, j, m)
 \end{aligned}$$



Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{P}(B|j, m) &= \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B) P(e) \mathbf{P}(a|B, e) P(j|a) P(m|a) \\
 &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a \mathbf{P}(a|B, e) P(j|a) P(m|a)
 \end{aligned}$$

Recursive depth-first enumeration:  $O(n)$  space,  $O(d^n)$  time

# Enumeration algorithm



**function** ENUMERATION-ASK( $X, \mathbf{e}, bn$ ) **returns** distr. over  $X$

**inputs:**  $X$ , the query variable

$\mathbf{e}$ , observed values for variables  $\mathbf{E}$

$bn$ , a Bayesian network with variables  $\{X\} \cup \mathbf{E} \cup \mathbf{Y}$

$Q(X) \leftarrow$  a distribution over  $X$ , initially empty

**for each** value  $x_i$  of  $X$  **do**

    extend  $\mathbf{e}$  with value  $x_i$  for  $X$

$Q(x_i) \leftarrow \text{ENUM-ALL}(\text{VARS}[bn], \mathbf{e})$

**return** NORMALIZE( $Q(X)$ )

**function** ENUM-ALL( $vars, \mathbf{e}$ ) **returns** a real number

**if** EMPTY?( $vars$ ) **then return** 1.0

$Y \leftarrow \text{FIRST}(vars)$

**if**  $Y$  has value  $y$  in  $\mathbf{e}$  **then**

**return**  $P(y | \text{Pa}(Y)) \times \text{ENUM-ALL}(\text{REST}(vars), \mathbf{e})$

**else return**  $\sum_y P(y | \text{Pa}(Y)) \times \text{ENUM-ALL}(\text{REST}(vars), \mathbf{e}_y)$   
     where  $\mathbf{e}_y$  is  $\mathbf{e}$  extended with  $Y = y$

# Evaluation of $P(b, j, m)$ with Enum-All



**Level 1:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [B, E, A, J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m\}$ ):

→  $P(b) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([E, A, J, M], \{b, j, m\})$

**Level 2:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [E, A, J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m\}$ ):

→  $P(e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([A, J, M], \{b, j, m, e\})$

+  $P(\neg e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([A, J, M], \{b, j, m, \neg e\})$

**Level 3:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [A, J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e\}$ ):

→  $P(a | b, e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([J, M], \{b, j, m, e, a\})$

+  $P(\neg a | b, e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([J, M], \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\})$

**Level 4:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, a\}$ ):

→  $P(j | a) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([M], \{b, j, m, e, a\})$

**Level 5:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, a\}$ ):

→  $P(m | a) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([:], \{b, j, m, e, a\})$

**Level 6:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [:]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, a\}$ ):

→ 1.0

**Level 4:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\}$ ):

→  $P(j | \neg a) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([M], \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\})$

**Level 5:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\}$ ):

→  $P(m | \neg a) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([:], \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\})$

**Level 6:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [:]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, e, \neg a\}$ ):

→ 1.0

**Level 3:** Enum-All( $\text{vars} = [A, J, M]$ ,  $e = \{b, j, m, \neg e\}$ ):

→  $P(a | b, \neg e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([J, M], \{b, j, m, \neg e, a\})$

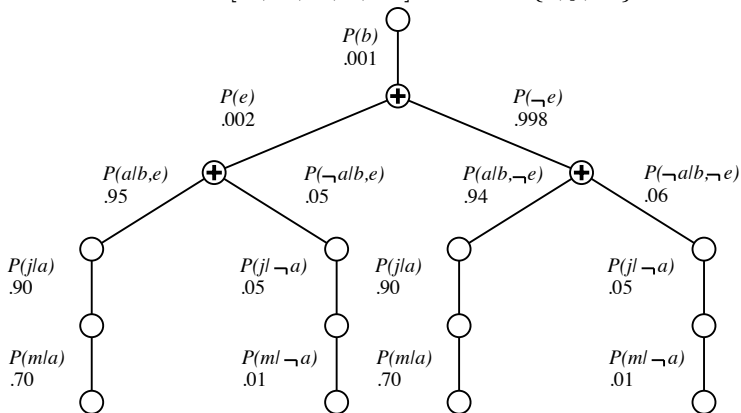
+  $P(\neg a | b, \neg e) \cdot \text{Enum-All}([J, M], \{b, j, m, \neg e, \neg a\})$

...

# Evaluation tree



**Enum-All** with  $\text{vars} = [B, E, A, J, M]$  and  $e = \{b, j, m\}$



Enumeration is still **inefficient**, as we have repeated computation of e.g.,  $P(j|a) \cdot P(m|a)$  for each value of  $e$ .

⇒ Nice to know that even better methods are available...

# Summary



- **Bayes nets** provide a natural representation for (causally induced) conditional independence
- Topology + CPTs = **compact representation** of joint distribution
- Generally **easy to construct** – also for non-experts
- **Canonical distributions** (e.g., noisy-OR) = compact representation of CPTs
- **Efficient inference** calculations are available (but the good ones are outside the scope of this course)