

CS486/686: Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 7b - Bayesian Networks

Jesse Hoey & Victor Zhong

School of Computer Science, University of Waterloo

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Readings: Poole & Mackworth Chap. 9-9.5

Review: Semantics of a Bayes' Net

The structure of the BN means that:

every X_i is **conditionally independent** of all its **nondescendants** given its parents:

$$P(X_i | S, Parents(X_i)) = P(X_i | Parents(X_i))$$

for any subset $S \subseteq NonDescendants(X_i)$

The BN defines a **factorization** of the **joint probability** distribution. The joint distribution is formed by multiplying the conditional probability tables together.

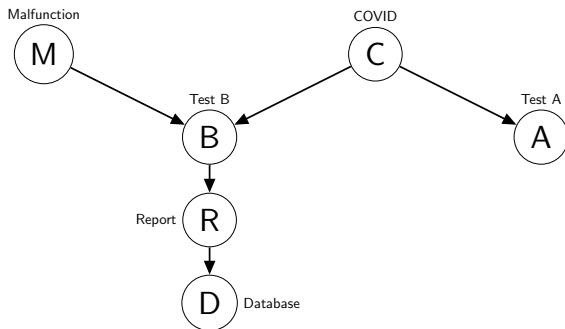
$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \prod_i P(X_i | parents(X_i))$$

Constructing Belief Networks

To represent a domain in a belief network, you need to consider:

- What are the **relevant variables**?
 - What will you observe? - This is the **evidence**
 - What would you like to find out? - This is the **query**
 - What other features make the model simpler? - These are the other variables
- What **values** should these variables take?
- What is the **relationship** between them? This should be expressed in terms of **local influence**.
- How does the value of each variable **depend on its parents**? This is expressed in terms of the **conditional probabilities**.

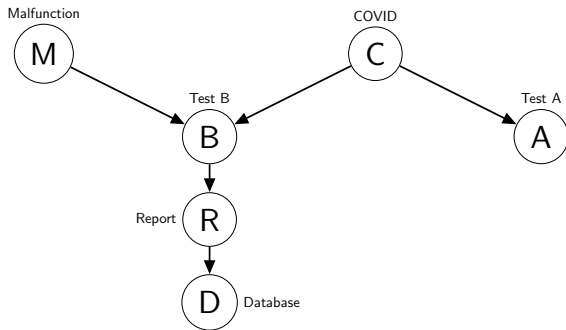
Bayesian Networks - Independence Assumptions



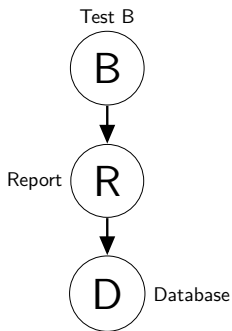
- **Test B** depends on **COVID** and **Malfunction**
- **Test A** depends only on **COVID**
- **Report** depends only on **Test B**
- **Database** depends only on **Report**

What are the **independencies**?

Three Basic Bayesian Networks

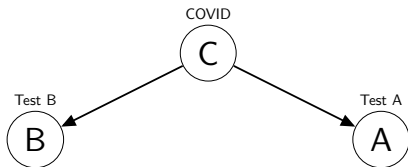


Three Basic Bayesian Networks



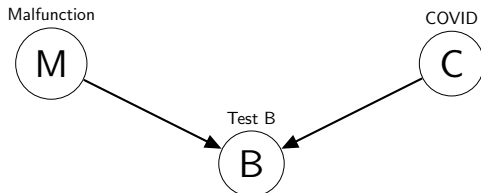
Database and Test B independent if Report is observed

Three Basic Bayesian Networks



Test B and Test A are independent if COVID is observed

Three Basic Bayesian Networks

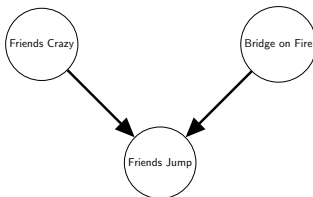


Malfunction and COVID are independent if Test B is not observed

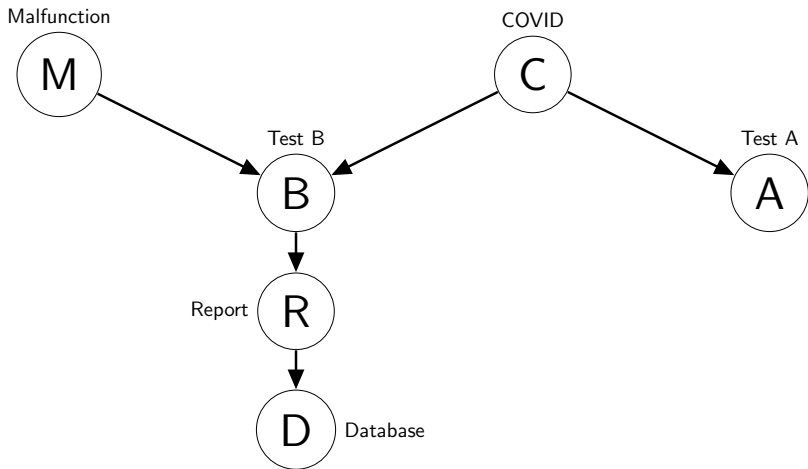
Three Basic Bayesian Networks



<http://imgs.xkcd.com/comics/bridge.png>



Three Basic Bayesian Networks...Recap



Updating belief: Bayes' Rule

Agent has a **prior belief** in a **hypothesis**, h , $P(h)$,

Agent observes some **evidence** e
that has a **likelihood** given the hypothesis: $P(e|h)$.

The agent's **posterior belief** about h after observing e , $P(h|e)$,

is given by **Bayes' Rule**:

$$P(h|e) = \frac{P(e|h)P(h)}{P(e)} = \frac{P(e|h)P(h)}{\sum_h P(e|h)P(h)}$$

Why is Bayes' theorem interesting?

- Often you have **causal knowledge**:

$$P(\text{symptom} \mid \text{disease})$$

$$P(\text{light is off} \mid \text{status of switches and switch positions})$$

$$P(\text{alarm} \mid \text{fire})$$

$$P(\text{image looks like } \text{🚗} \mid \text{a tree is in front of a car})$$

- And want to do **evidential reasoning**:

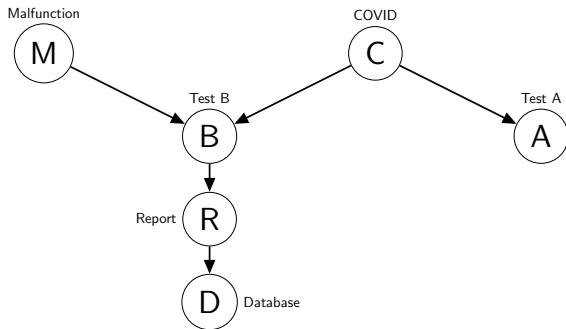
$$P(\text{disease} \mid \text{symptom})$$

$$P(\text{status of switches} \mid \text{light is off and switch positions})$$

$$P(\text{fire} \mid \text{alarm})$$

$$P(\text{a tree is in front of a car} \mid \text{image looks like } \text{🚗})$$

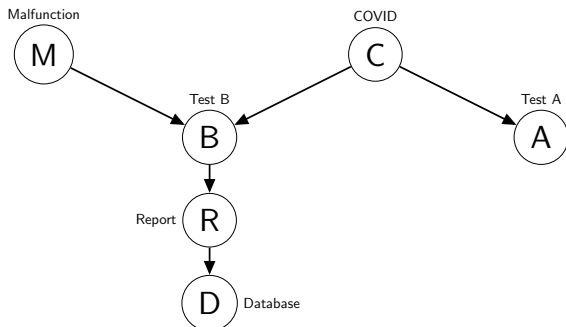
Probabilistic Inference



Before you get any information

- $P(\text{COVID}) = 0.32$
- $P(\text{Malfunction}) = 0.08$

Probabilistic Inference

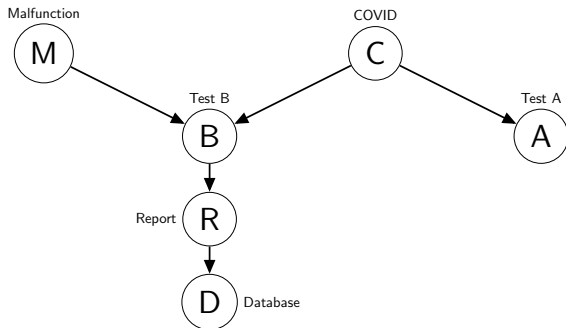


Suppose the doctor reads a **positive Test B in the Database**
evidence gives $\text{Database} = \text{true}$ (not directly $\text{Test B} = \text{true}$)
we want to know $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true})$

- $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true}) = 0.80$
- $P(\text{Malfunction} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true}) = 0.14$

(we will see how to get these numbers later)

Probabilistic Inference



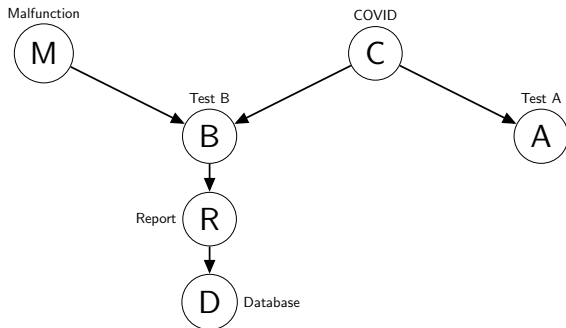
Suppose **Test A is positive** as well

we want $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{true})$

- $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{true}) = 0.95$
- $P(M = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{true}) = 0.08$

(we will see how to get these numbers later)

Probabilistic Inference



Suppose **Test A is negative**, though!

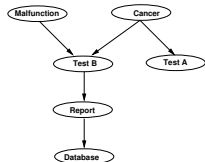
we want $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{false})$

- $P(\text{COVID} = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{false}) = 0.48$
- $P(M = \text{true} | \text{Database} = \text{true} \wedge \text{TestA} = \text{false}) = 0.27$

(we will see how to get these numbers later)

Simple Forward Inference (Chain)

Computing marginal requires simple forward propagation of probabilities

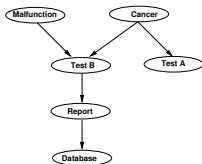


- $P(B) = \sum_{m,c} P(M = m, C = c, B)$
(marginalization - sum rule)
- $P(B) = \sum_{m,c} P(B | m, c) P(m | c) P(c)$
(chain rule)
- $P(B) = \sum_{m,c} P(B | m, c) P(m) P(c)$
(independence)
- $P(B) = \sum_m P(m) \sum_c P(c) P(B | m, c)$
(distribution of product over sum)

Note: all terms on the last line are CPTs in the BN
Note: only ancestors of B are considered. Why?

Simple Forward Inference (Chain)

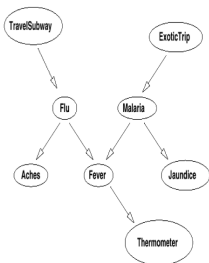
Same idea when evidence $COVID = true$ (denoted by c)
“upstream”



- $P(R | c) = \sum_{m,b} P(R, b, m | c)$
(marginalization)
- $P(R | c) = \sum_{m,b} P(R | b, m, c)P(b | m, c)P(m | c)$
(chain rule)
- $P(R | c) = \sum_{m,b} P(R | b)P(b | m, c)P(m)$
(independence and conditional independence)

Simple Forward Inference

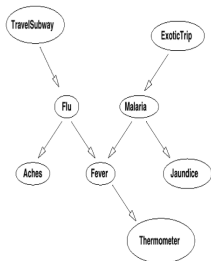
With multiple parents the evidence is “pooled”



$$\begin{aligned} P(Fev) &= \sum_{Flu, M, TS, ET} P(Fev, Flu, M, TS, ET) \\ &= \sum_{Flu, M} P(Fev | M, Flu) \\ &\quad \left[\sum_{TS} P(Flu | TS) P(TS) \right] \\ &\quad \left[\sum_{ET} P(M | ET) P(ET) \right] \end{aligned}$$

Simple Forward Inference

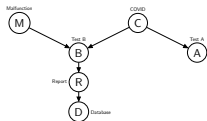
Also works with “upstream” evidence



$$\begin{aligned} P(Fev|ts, \bar{m}) &= \sum_{Flu} P(Fev, Flu|\bar{m}, ts) \\ &= \sum_{Flu} P(Fev|Flu, ts, \bar{m}) P(Flu|ts, \bar{m}) \\ &= \sum_{Flu} P(Fev|Flu, \bar{m}) P(Flu|ts) \end{aligned}$$

Simple Backward Inference

When evidence is downstream of query, then we must reason “backwards,” which requires Bayes’ rule



$$P(B \mid r) = P(r \mid B)P(B)/P(r) \propto P(r, B)$$

$$P(r, B) = \sum_{m,c} P(m, c, B, r)$$

$$= \sum_{m,c} P(m)P(c \mid m)P(B \mid m, c)P(r \mid B, m, c)$$

(marginalization)

$$= \sum_{m,c} P(m)P(c)P(B \mid m, c)P(r \mid B)$$

(independence and conditional independence)

Normalizing constant is $\frac{1}{P(r)}$, but this can be computed as

$$P(r) = \sum_b P(r, b)$$

Backward Inference



<http://imgs.xkcd.com/comics/bridge.png>

F: Bridge on Fire

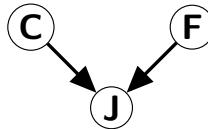
C: All friends Crazy

J: All friends Jump

What is $P(F|J = \text{true})$?

$$P(C = \text{true}) = 0.0001$$

$$P(F = \text{true}) = 0.1$$



	F	C	$P(J = \text{true} F, C)$
$P(J = \text{true} F, C) =$	t	t	0.95
	t	f	0.99
	f	t	0.99
	f	f	0.01

Variable Elimination

- Intuitions above: **polytree** algorithm
- Works for simple networks without loops
- More general algorithm: **Variable Elimination**
- Applies sum-out rule repeatedly
- Distributes sums

Factors

A **factor** is a representation of a function from a tuple of random variables into a number.

We will write factor f on variables X_1, \dots, X_j as $f(X_1, \dots, X_j)$.

We can assign some or all of the variables of a factor

→ (this is **restricting** a factor):

- $f(X_1 = v_1, X_2, \dots, X_j)$, where $v_1 \in \text{dom}(X_1)$, is a **factor on** X_2, \dots, X_j .
- $f(X_1 = v_1, X_2 = v_2, \dots, X_j = v_j)$ is a number that is the **value of** f when each X_i has value v_i .

The former is also written as $f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_j)_{X_1=v_1}$, etc.

Example Factors - Restricting a Factor

$r(X, Y, Z):$

X	Y	Z	val
t	t	t	0.1
t	t	f	0.9
t	f	t	0.2
t	f	f	0.8
f	t	t	0.4
f	t	f	0.6
f	f	t	0.3
f	f	f	0.7

$r(X=t, Y, Z):$

Y	Z	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	0.9
f	t	0.2
f	f	0.8

$r(X=t, Y, Z=f):$

Y	val
t	0.9
f	0.8

$$r(X=t, Y=f, Z=f) = 0.8$$

Multiplying Factors

The **product** of factor $f_1(X, Y)$ and $f_2(Y, Z)$, where Y are the variables in common, is the factor $(f_1 \times f_2)(X, Y, Z)$ defined by:

$$(f_1 \times f_2)(X, Y, Z) = f_1(X, Y)f_2(Y, Z).$$

Multiplying Factors: Example

f_1 :

A	B	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	0.9
f	t	0.2
f	f	0.8

f_2 :

B	C	val
t	t	0.3
t	f	0.7
f	t	0.6
f	f	0.4

$f_1 \times f_2$:

A	B	C	val
t	t	t	0.03
t	t	f	0.07
t	f	t	0.54
t	f	f	0.36
f	t	t	0.06
f	t	f	0.14
f	f	t	0.48
f	f	f	0.32

Summing out Variables

We can **sum out** a variable, say X_1 with domain $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$, from factor $f(X_1, \dots, X_j)$, resulting in a factor on X_2, \dots, X_j defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\sum_{X_1} f)(X_2, \dots, X_j) \\ &= f(X_1 = v_1, \dots, X_j) + \dots + f(X_1 = v_k, \dots, X_j) \end{aligned}$$

Summing out a Variable: Example

f_3 :

A	B	C	val
t	t	t	0.03
t	t	f	0.07
t	f	t	0.54
t	f	f	0.36
f	t	t	0.06
f	t	f	0.14
f	f	t	0.48
f	f	f	0.32

$\sum_B f_3$:

A	C	val
t	t	0.57
t	f	0.43
f	t	0.54
f	f	0.46

Evidence

If we want to compute the posterior probability of Z given evidence $Y_1 = v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge Y_j = v_j$:

$$\begin{aligned} P(Z|Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j) \\ &= \frac{P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)}{P(Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)} \\ &= \frac{P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)}{\sum_Z P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)}. \end{aligned}$$

The computation reduces to the **joint** probability of $P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)$.

normalize at the end.

can also restrict the query variable, e.g. compute:

$$P(Z = z|Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)$$

Probability of a Conjunction

Suppose the variables of the belief network are X_1, \dots, X_n .

To compute $P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j)$, we **sum out the variables other than query Z and evidence Y** ,

$Z_1, \dots, Z_k = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\} - \{Z\} - \{Y_1, \dots, Y_j\}$.

We order the Z_i into an **elimination ordering $Z_1 \dots Z_k$** .

$$\begin{aligned} &P(Z, Y_1 = v_1, \dots, Y_j = v_j) \\ &= \sum_{Z_k} \cdots \sum_{Z_1} P(X_1, \dots, X_n)_{Y_1=v_1, \dots, Y_j=v_j} \cdot \\ &= \sum_{Z_k} \cdots \sum_{Z_1} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))_{Y_1=v_1, \dots, Y_j=v_j} \cdot \end{aligned}$$

Computing sums of products

Computation in belief networks reduces to **computing the sums of products**

- How can we compute $ab + ac$ efficiently?

Computing sums of products

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- How can we compute $ab + ac$ efficiently?
- **Distribute** out the a giving $a(b + c)$

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- How can we compute $ab + ac$ efficiently?
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- How can we compute $\sum_{Z_1} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$ efficiently?

Computing sums of products

Computation in belief networks reduces to **computing the sums of products**

- How can we compute $ab + ac$ efficiently?
- **Distribute** out the a giving $a(b + c)$
- How can we compute $\sum_{Z_1} \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$ efficiently?
- Distribute out those factors that don't involve Z_1

Variable elimination algorithm

To compute $P(Z|Y_1 = v_1 \wedge \dots \wedge Y_j = v_j)$:

- Construct a **factor for each conditional probability**.
- **Restrict** the observed variables to their observed values
- **Sum out** each of the other variables (the $\{Z_1, \dots, Z_k\}$ from frame 23) according to some **elimination ordering**:
for each Z_i in order starting from $i = 1$:
 - collect all factors that contain Z_i
 - multiply together and sum out Z_i
 - add resulting new factor back to the pool
- **Multiply** the remaining factors
- **Normalize** by dividing
the resulting factor $f(Z)$ by $\sum_Z f(Z)$

Summing out a variable

To sum out a variable Z_j from a product f_1, \dots, f_k of factors:

- **Partition** the factors into
 - those that don't contain Z_j , say f_1, \dots, f_i ,
 - those that contain Z_j , say f_{i+1}, \dots, f_k

We know:

$$\sum_{Z_j} f_1 \times \dots \times f_k = f_1 \times \dots \times f_i \times \left(\sum_{Z_j} f_{i+1} \times \dots \times f_k \right).$$

- **Explicitly construct** a representation of the rightmost factor $\left(\sum_{Z_j} f_{i+1} \times \dots \times f_k \right)$.
- **Replace** the factors f_{i+1}, \dots, f_k by the new factor.

Example I

$P(A = \text{true}) = 0.3$

	A	$P(C = \text{true} A)$
$P(C = \text{true} A) =$	t	0.8
	f	0.15

	C	$P(G = \text{true} C)$
$P(G = \text{true} C) =$	t	1.0
	f	0.2

	G	$P(L = \text{true} G)$
$P(L = \text{true} G) =$	t	0.7
	f	0.2

	L	$P(S = \text{true} L)$
$P(S = \text{true} L) =$	t	0.9
	f	0.3

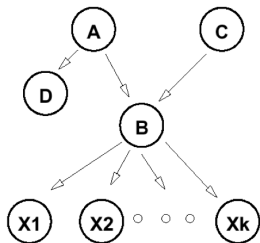


see note [variableelim.pdf](#)

Notes on VE

- Complexity is **linear** in number of variables, and **exponential** in the size of the largest factor
- When we create new factors: sometimes this **blows up**
- Depends on the **elimination ordering**
- For **polytrees**: work outside in
- For general BNs this can be hard
- simply **finding** the optimal elimination ordering is NP-hard for general BNs
- inference in general is NP-hard

Variable Ordering: Polytrees



- eliminate **singly-connected** nodes (D, A, C, X_1, \dots, X_k) first
- Then no factor is ever larger than original CPTs
- If you eliminate B first, a **large factor** is created that includes A, C, X_1, \dots, X_k

Variable Ordering: Relevance



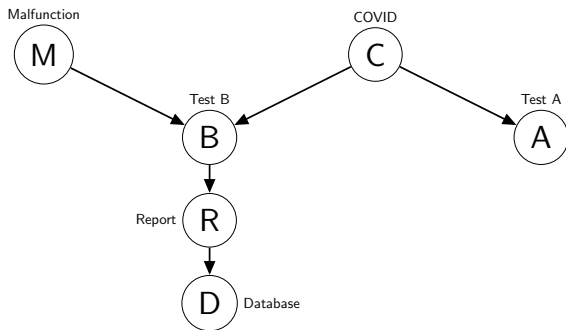
- Certain variables have **no impact**
- In ABC network above, computing $P(A)$ does **not require** summing over B and C

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= \sum_{B,C} P(C|B)P(B|A)P(A) \\ &= P(A) \sum_B P(B|A) \sum_C P(C|B) = P(A) * 1.0 * 1.0 \end{aligned}$$

Variable Ordering: Relevance

- Can restrict attention to **relevant** variables:
- Given query Q and evidence \mathbf{E} , **complete** approximation is:
 - Q is relevant
 - if any node is relevant, its parents are relevant
 - if $E \in \mathbf{E}$ is a descendent of a relevant variable, then E is relevant
- irrelevant variable: a node that is not an ancestor of a query or evidence variable
- this will only remove irrelevant variables, but may not remove them all

Example II



see note [variableelim.pdf](#)

Next

Uncertainty (cont.): Advanced techniques in Modeling Uncertainty