

# Bayesian Networks

CSE 4308/5360: Artificial Intelligence I  
University of Texas at Arlington

# Motivation for Bayesian Networks

- An important task for probabilistic systems is inference.
- In probability, inference is the task of computing:

$$P(A_1, \dots, A_k \mid B_1, \dots, B_m)$$

where  $A_1, \dots, A_k, B_1, \dots, B_m$  are any random variables.

- Note that  $m$  can be zero, in which case we simply want to compute  $P(A_1, \dots, A_k)$ .
- So far we have seen one way to solve the inference problem:  
???

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- In probability, inference is the task of computing:

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where  $A_1, \dots, A_k, B_1, \dots, B_m$  are any random variables.

- Note that  $m$  can be zero, in which case we simply want to compute  $P(A_1, \dots, A_k)$ .
- So far we have seen one way to solve the inference problem: Inference by enumeration (using a joint distribution table).
- However, inference by enumeration has three limitations:
  - Too slow: time exponential to  $k+m$ .
  - Too much memory needed: space exponential to  $k+m$ .
  - Too much training data and effort are needed to compute the entries in the joint distribution table.

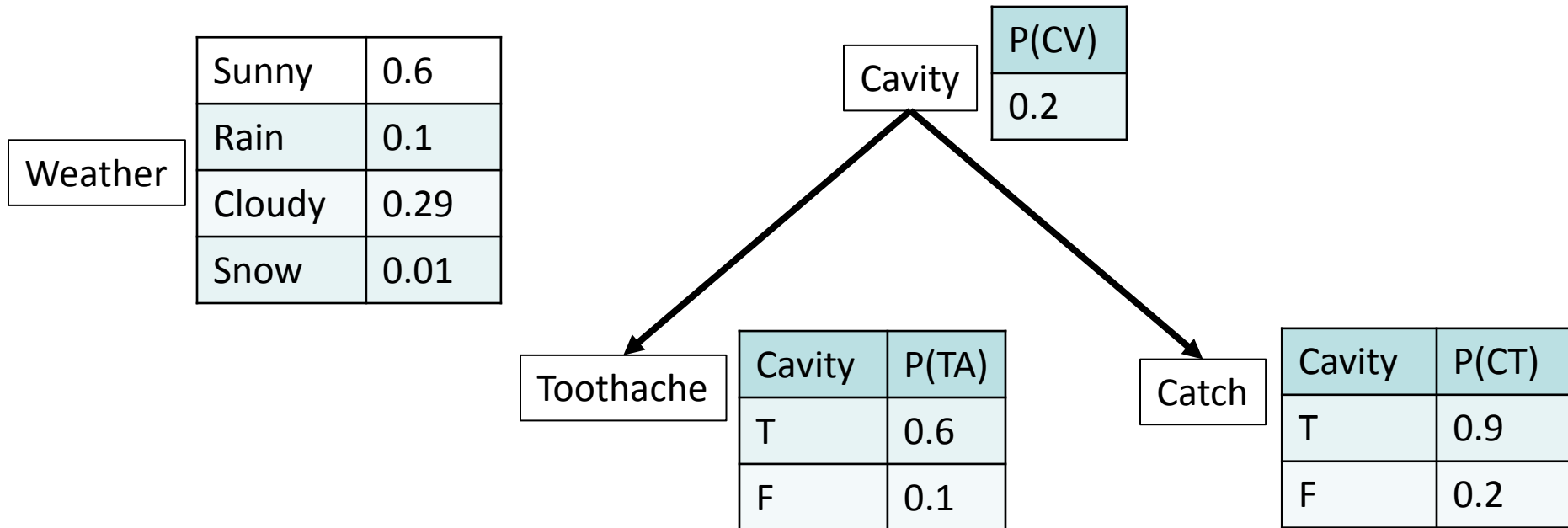
# Motivation for Bayesian Networks

- Bayesian networks offer a different way to represent joint probability distributions.
- They require space linear to the number of variables, as opposed to exponential.
  - This means fewer numbers need to be stored, so less memory is needed.
  - This also means that fewer numbers need to be computed, so less effort is needed to compute those numbers and specify the probability distribution.
- Also, in specific cases, Bayesian networks offer polynomial-time algorithms for inference, using dynamic programming.
  - In this course, we will not cover such polynomial time algorithms, but it is useful to know that they exist.
  - If you are curious, see the **variable elimination algorithm** in the textbook, Chapter 14.4.2.

# Definition of Bayesian Networks

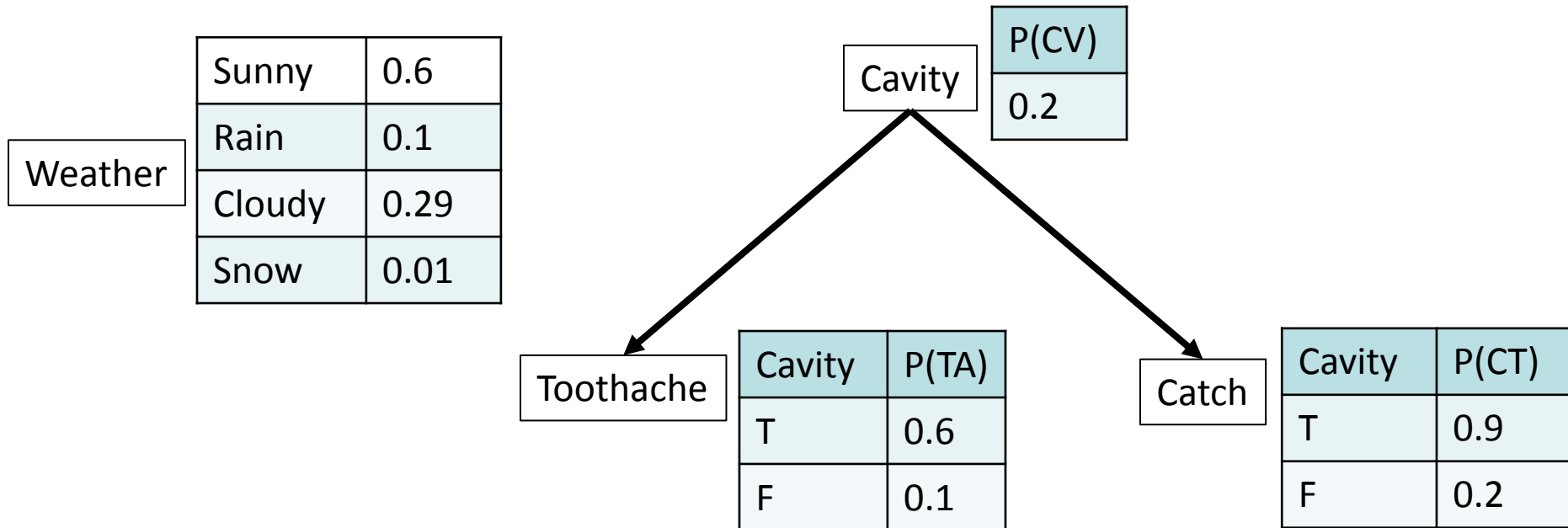
- A Bayesian network is a directed acyclic graph, that defines a joint probability distribution over  $N$  random variables.
- The Bayesian network contains  $N$  nodes, and each node corresponds to one of the  $N$  random variables.
- If there is a directed edge from node  $X$  to node  $Y$ , then we say that  $X$  is a *parent* of  $Y$ .
- Each node  $X$  has a conditional probability distribution  $P(X \mid \text{Parents}(X))$  that describes the probability of any value of  $X$  given any combination of values for the parents of  $X$ .

# An Example from the Textbook



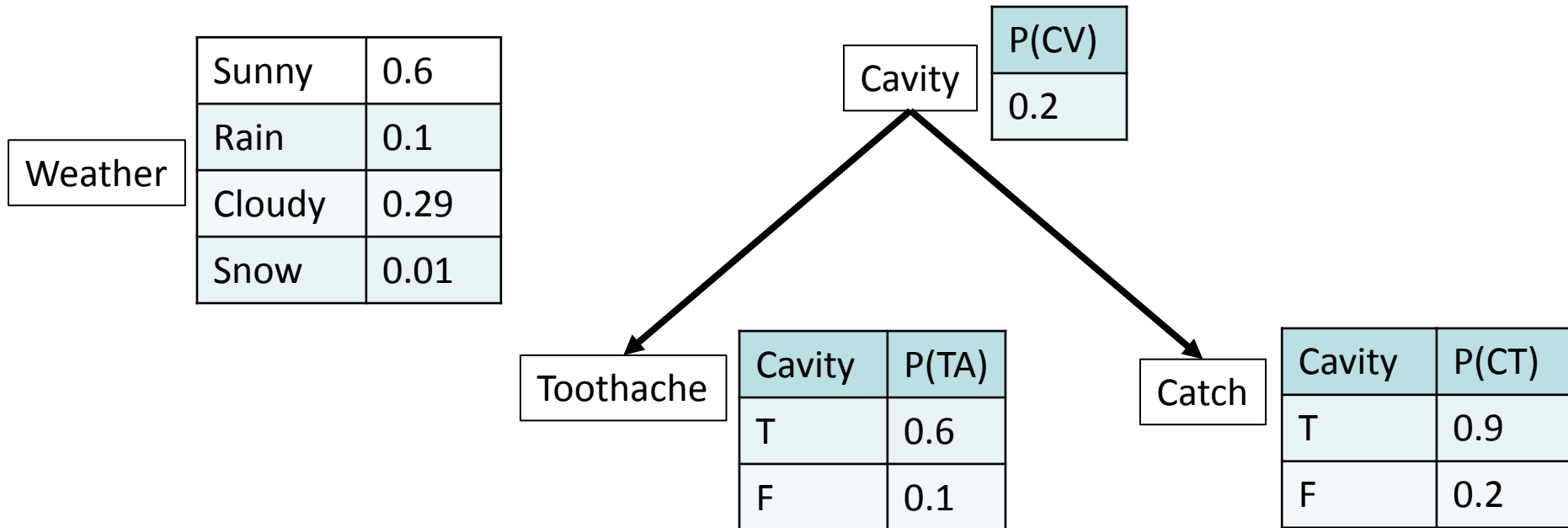
- How many random variables do we have?

# An Example from the Textbook



- How many random variables do we have?
  - 4: Weather, Cavity, Toothache, Catch.
- Note that Weather can take 4 discrete values.
- The other three variables are boolean.

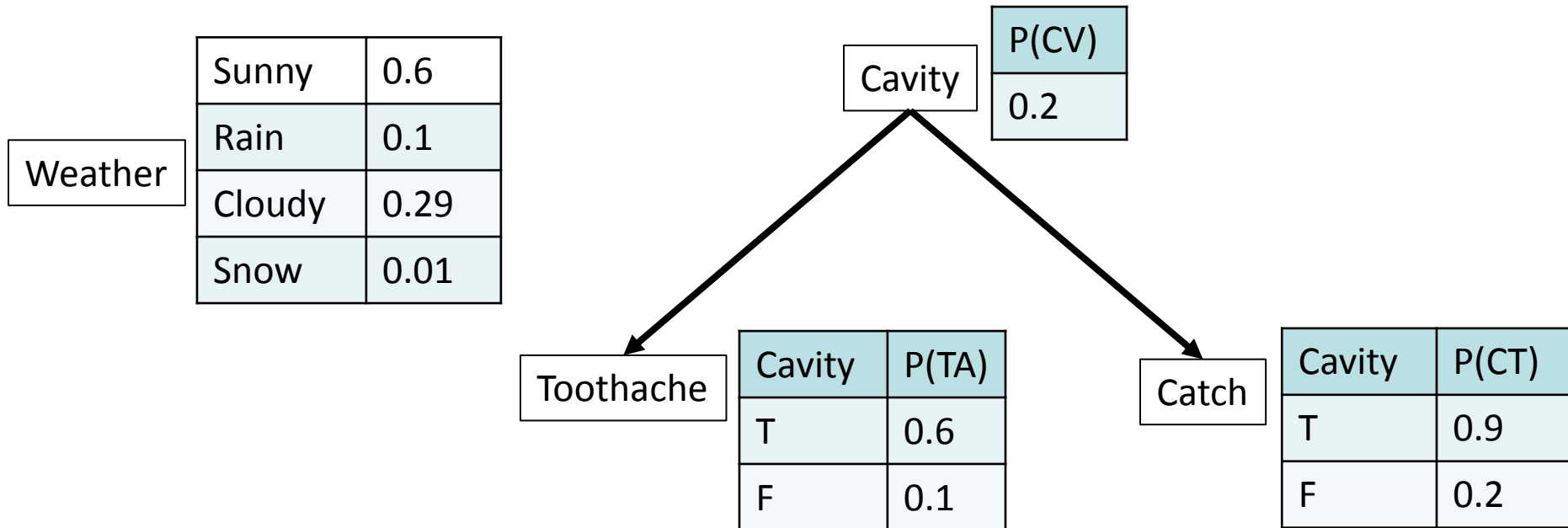
# An Example from the Textbook



- What are the parents of Weather?
- What are the parents of Cavity?
- What are the parents of Toothache?
- What are the parents of Catch?

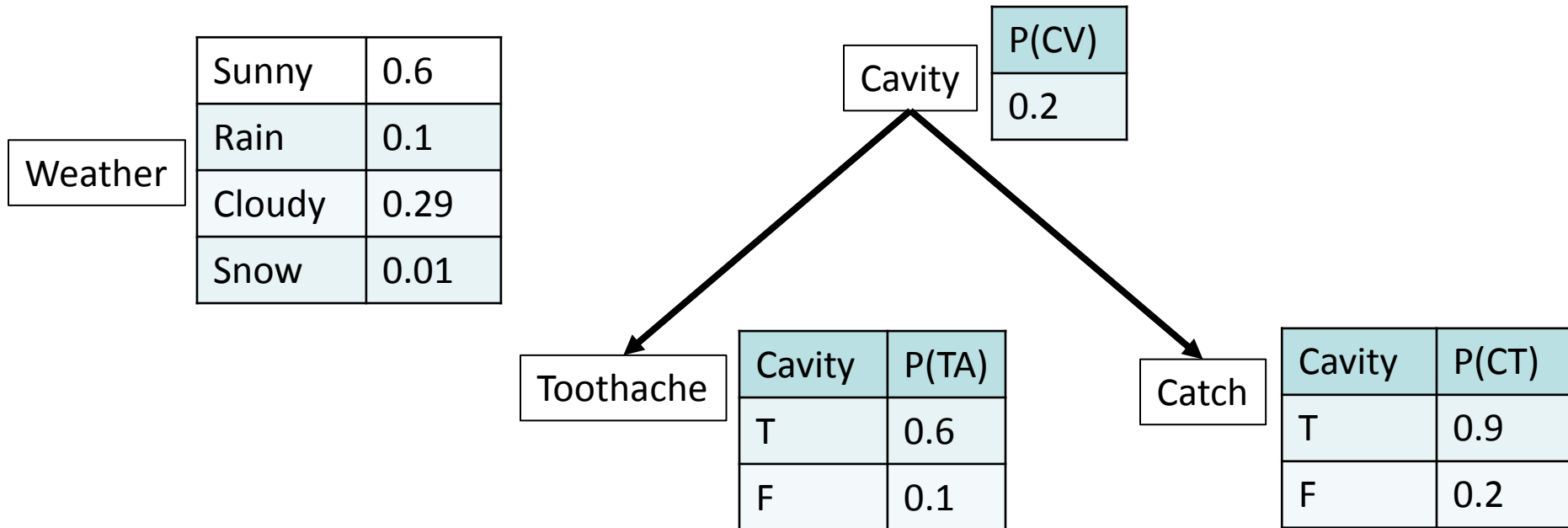


# An Example from the Textbook



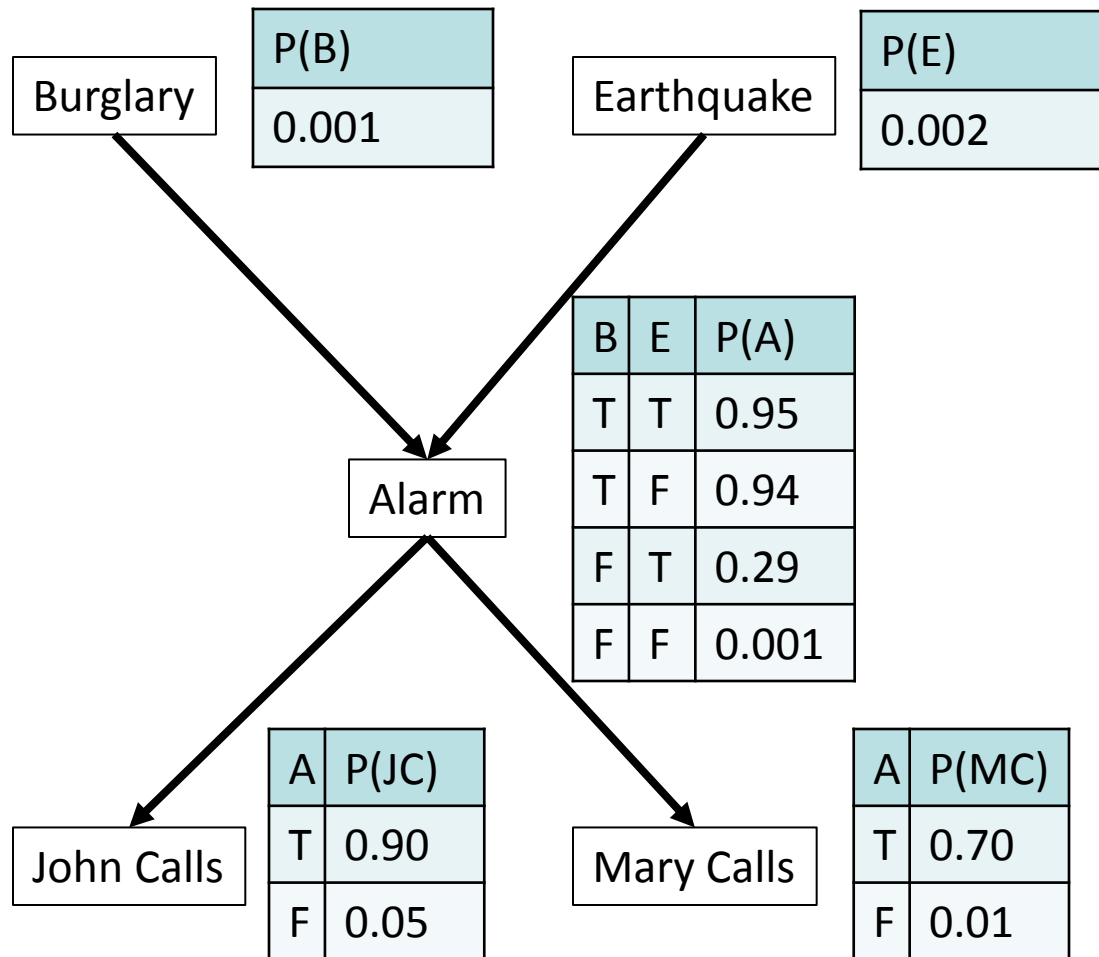
- What are the parents of Weather? None.
- What are the parents of Cavity? None.
- What are the parents of Toothache? Cavity.
- What are the parents of Catch? Cavity.

# An Example from the Textbook



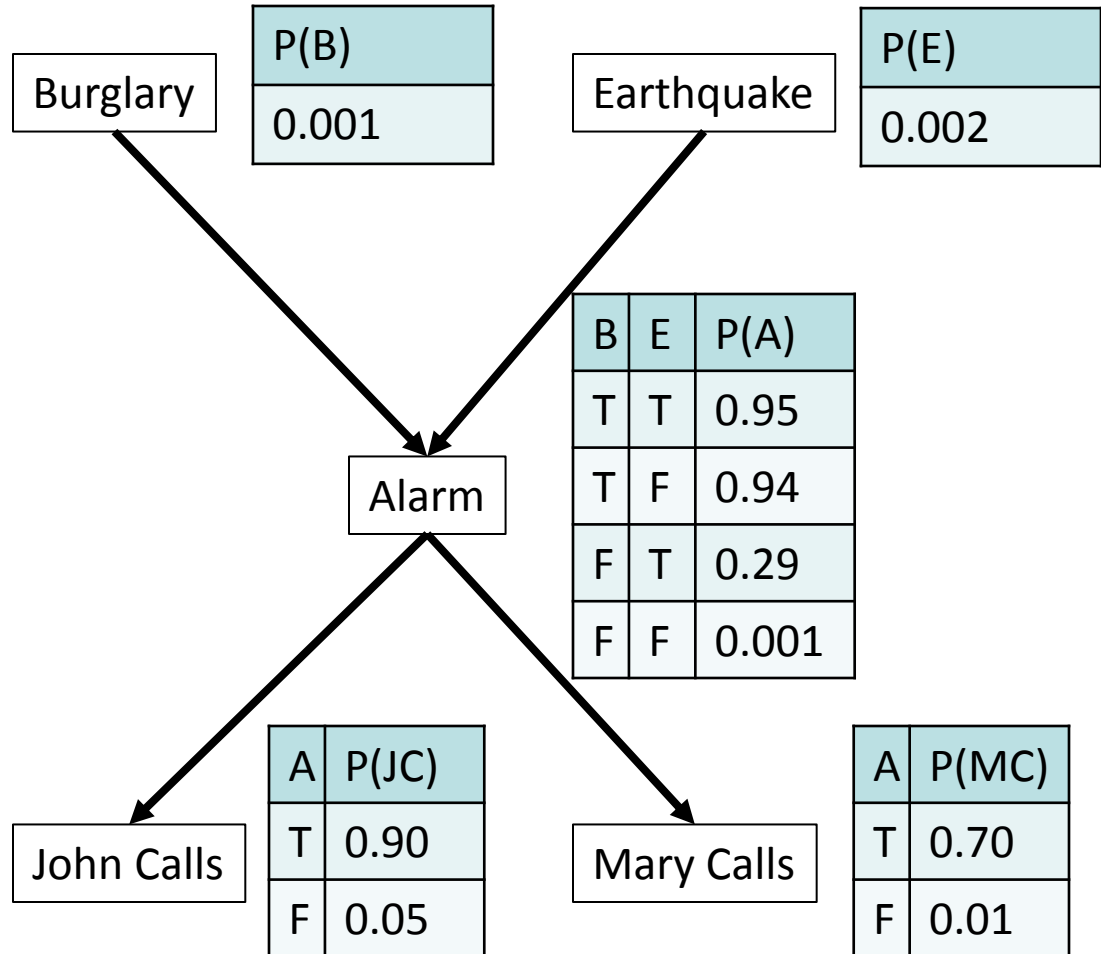
- What does this network mean?
  - Weather is independent of the other three variables.
  - Cavities can cause both toothaches and catches.
  - Toothaches and catches are conditionally independent given the value for cavity.

# Another Textbook Example



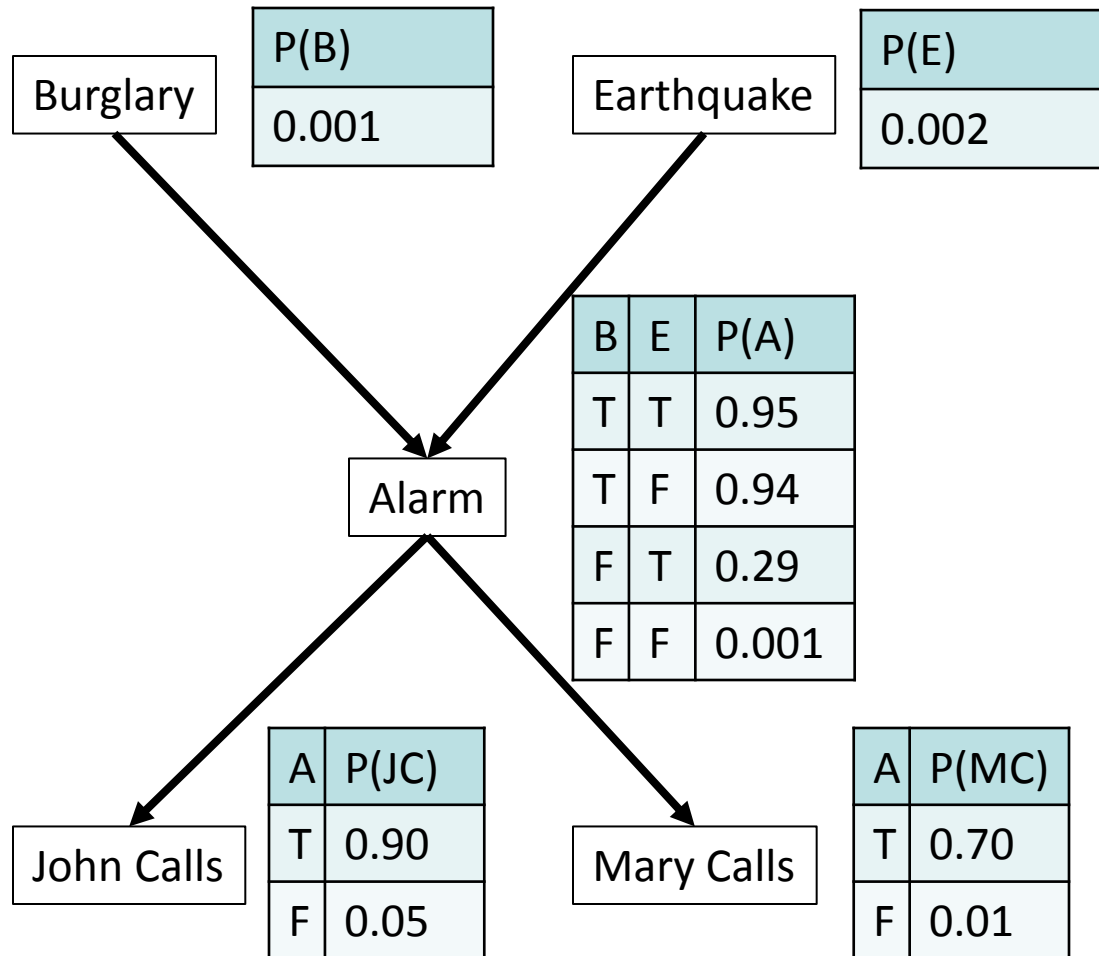
- How many random variables do we have?

# Another Textbook Example



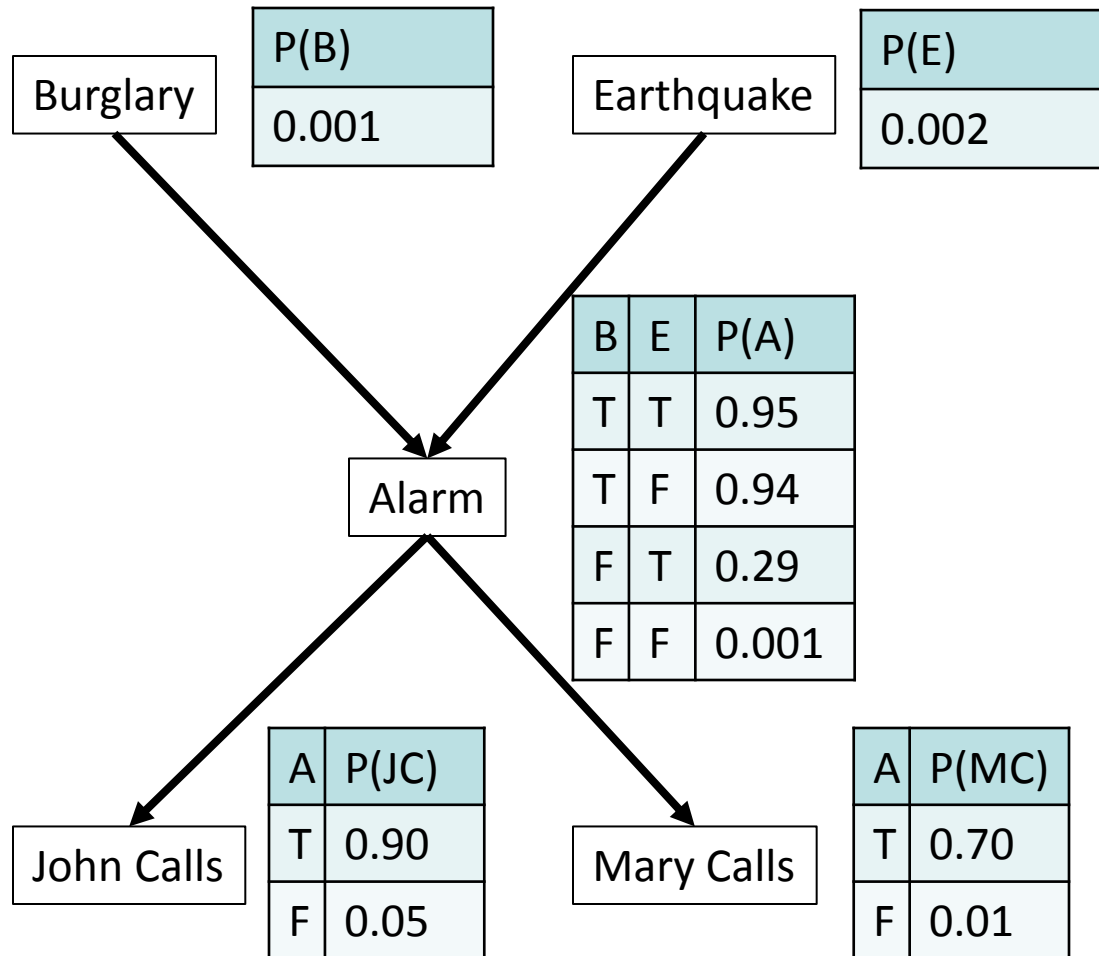
- How many random variables do we have?
- 5: Burglary, Earthquake, Alarm, JohnCalls, MaryCalls.
  - All boolean.

# Another Textbook Example



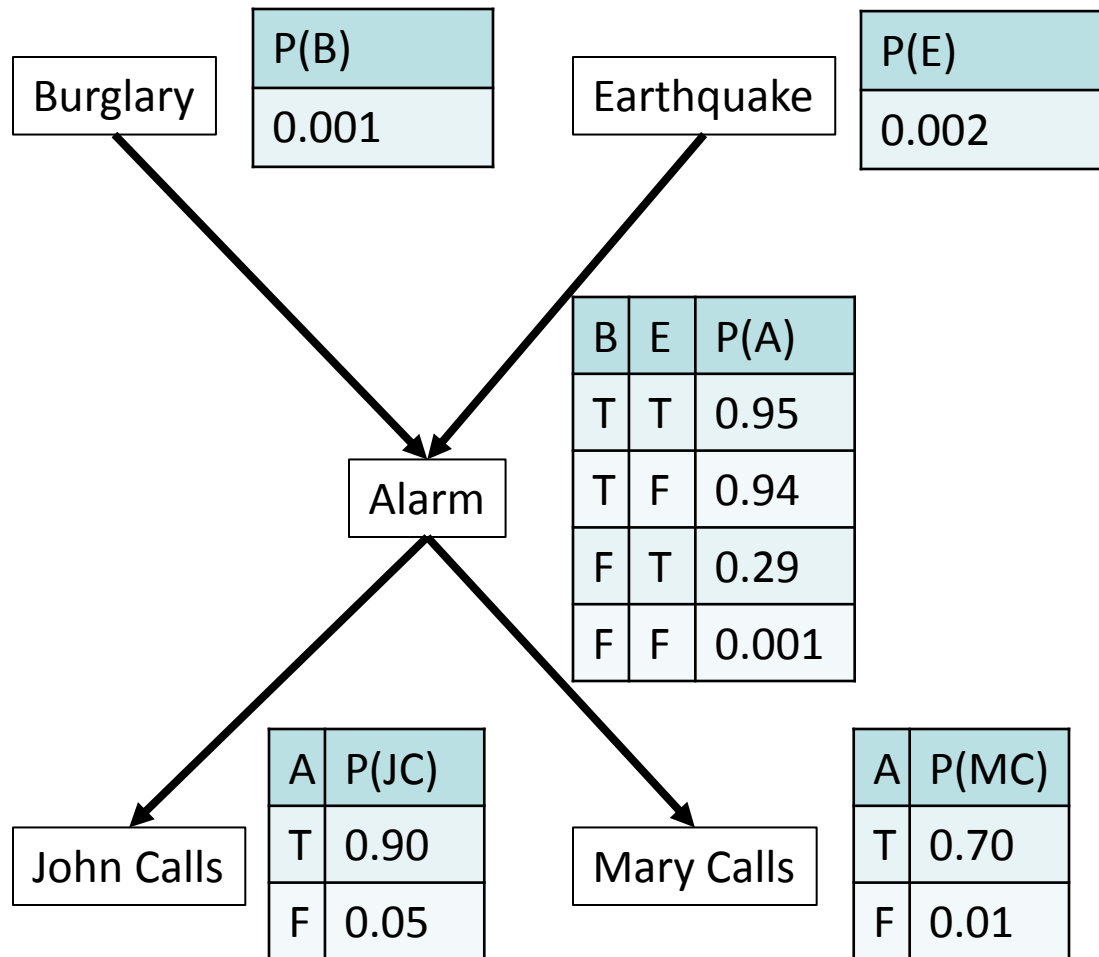
- What are the parents of Burglary?
- What are the parents of Earthquake?
- What are the parents of Alarm?
- What are the parents of JohnCalls?
- What are the parents of MaryCalls?

# Another Textbook Example



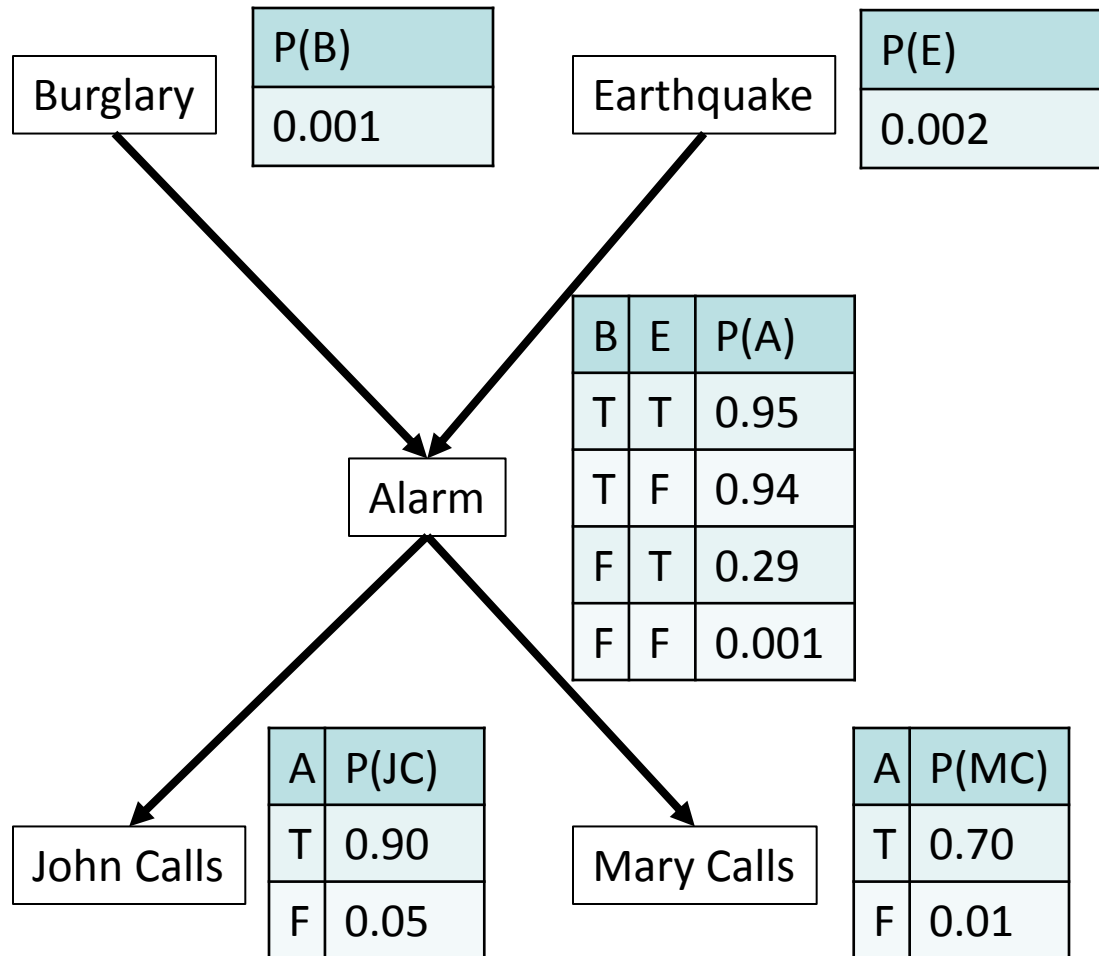
- What are the parents of Burglary? None.
- What are the parents of Earthquake? None.
- What are the parents of Alarm? Burglary and Earthquake.
- What are the parents of JohnCalls? Alarm.
- What are the parents of MaryCalls? Alarm.

# Another Textbook Example



- What does this network mean?

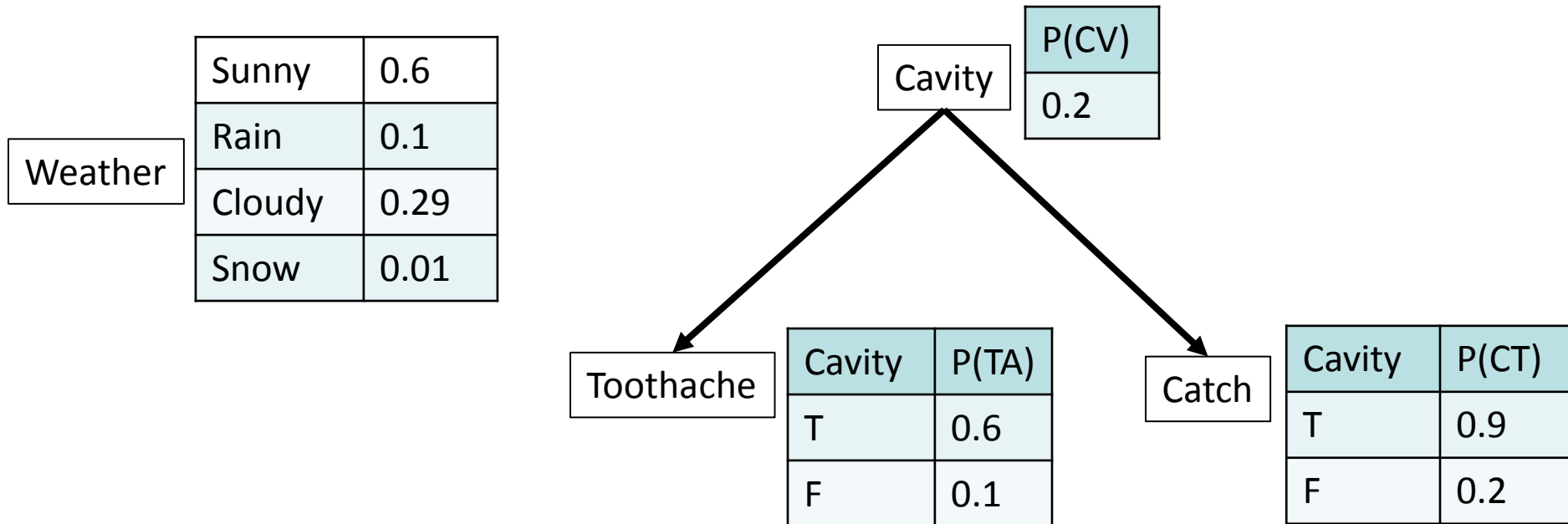
# Another Textbook Example



- What does this network mean?
  - Alarms can be caused by both burglaries and earthquakes.
  - Alarms can cause both John to call and Mary to call.
  - Whether John calls or not is conditionally independent of whether Mary calls or not, given the value of the Alarm variable.

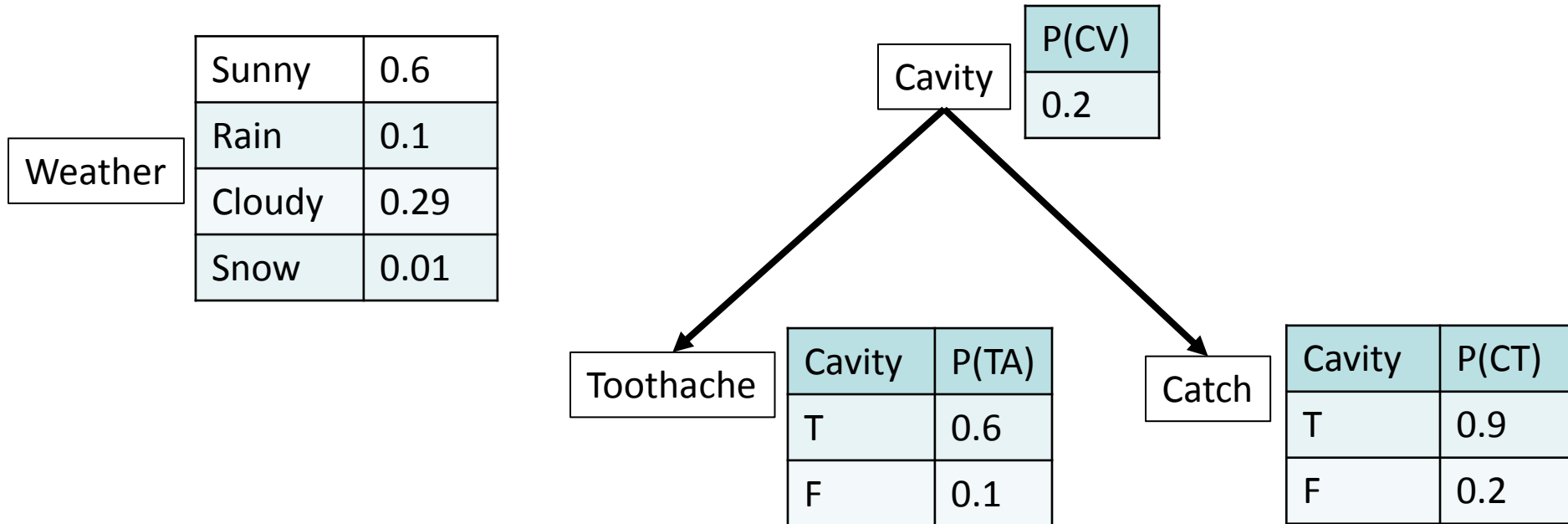


# Semantics



- So far, we have described the structure of a Bayesian network, as a directed acyclic graph.
- We also need to define the meaning: what does this graph mean? What information does it provide.

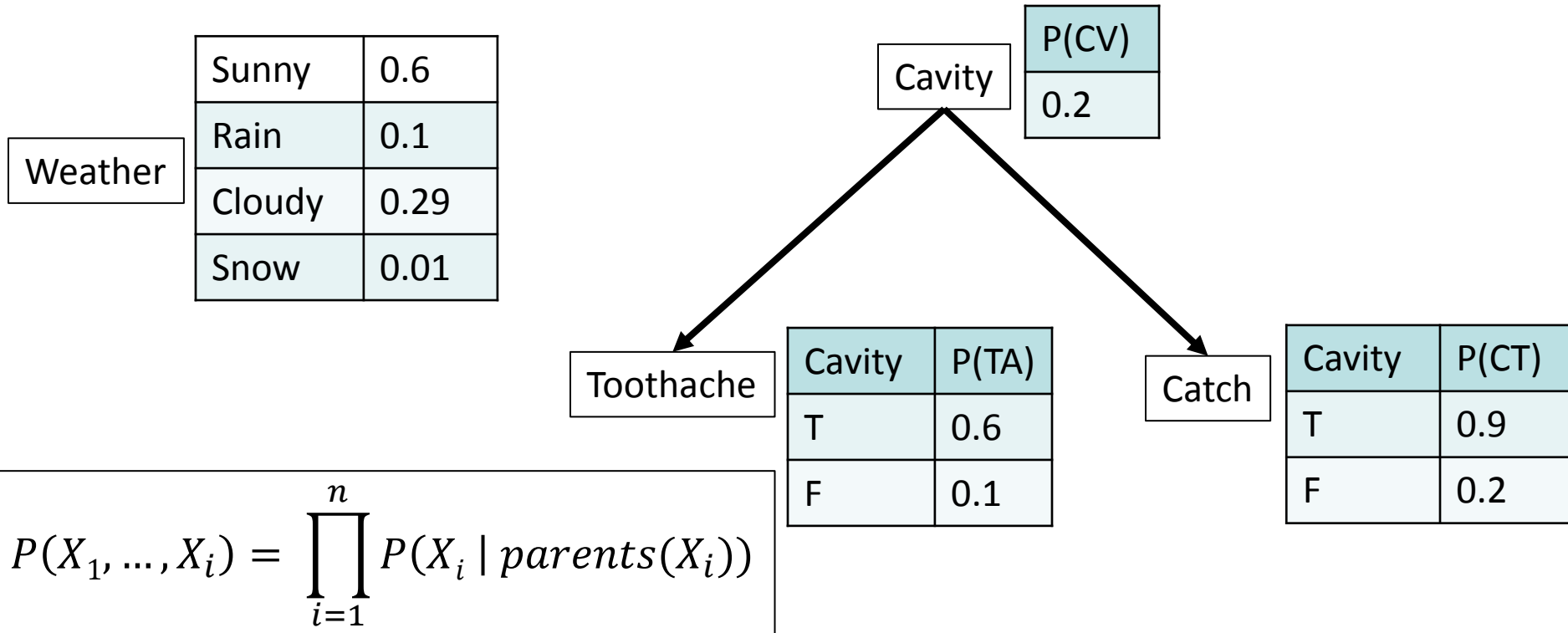
# Semantics



- A Bayesian network defines the joint probability distribution of the variables represented by its nodes.
- If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are the  $n$  variables of the network, then:

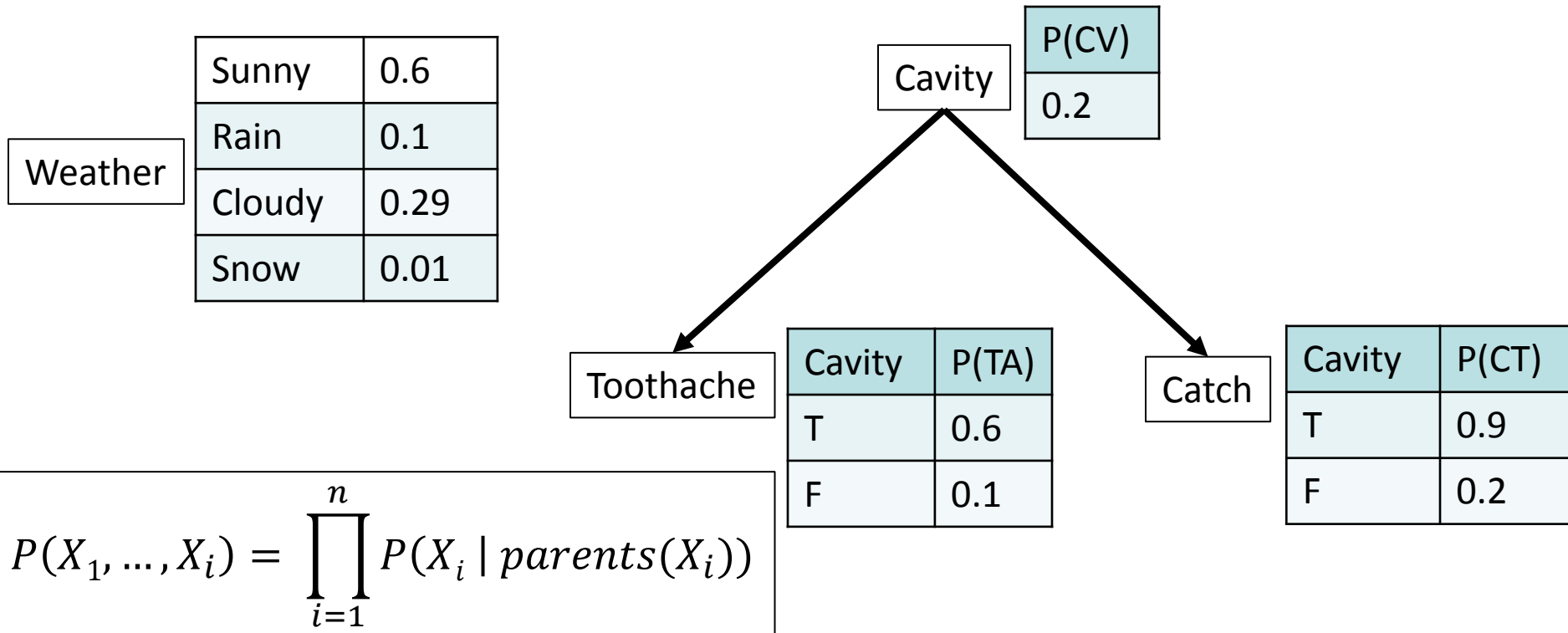
$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

# Semantics



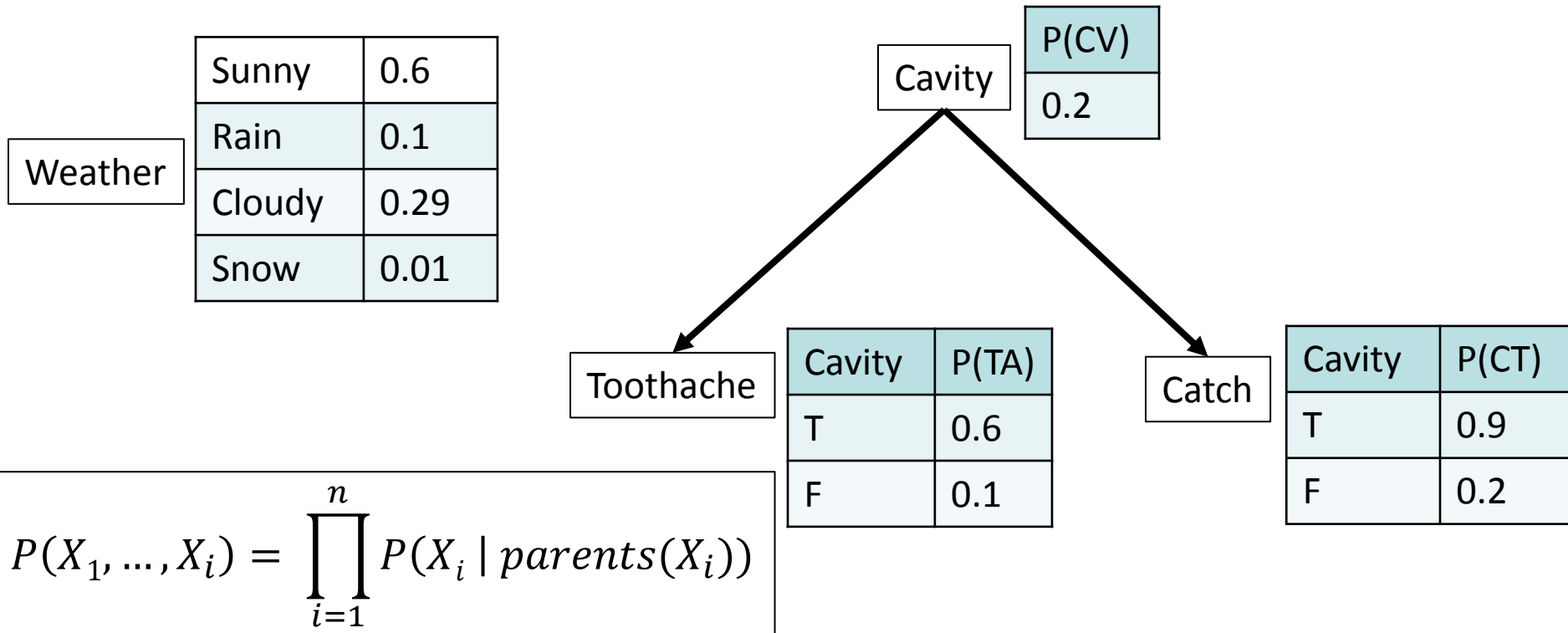
- This equation is part of the definition of Bayesian networks.
- If you do not understand how to use it, you will not be able to solve most problems related to Bayesian networks.

# Inference in Bayesian Networks



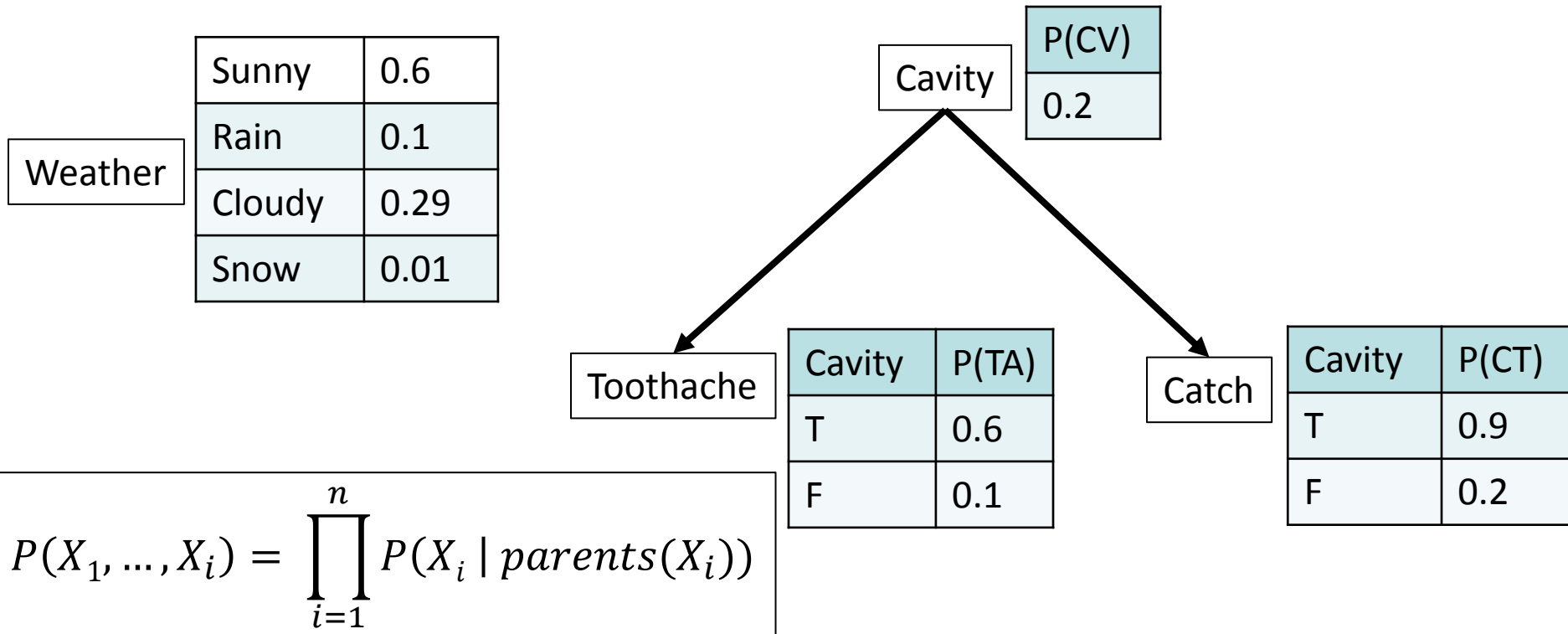
- In general, probabilistic inference is the problem of computing  $P(A_1, \dots, A_k \mid B_1, \dots, B_m)$
- In other words, it is the problem of computing the probability of values for some variables given values for some other variables.

# Inference in Bayesian Networks



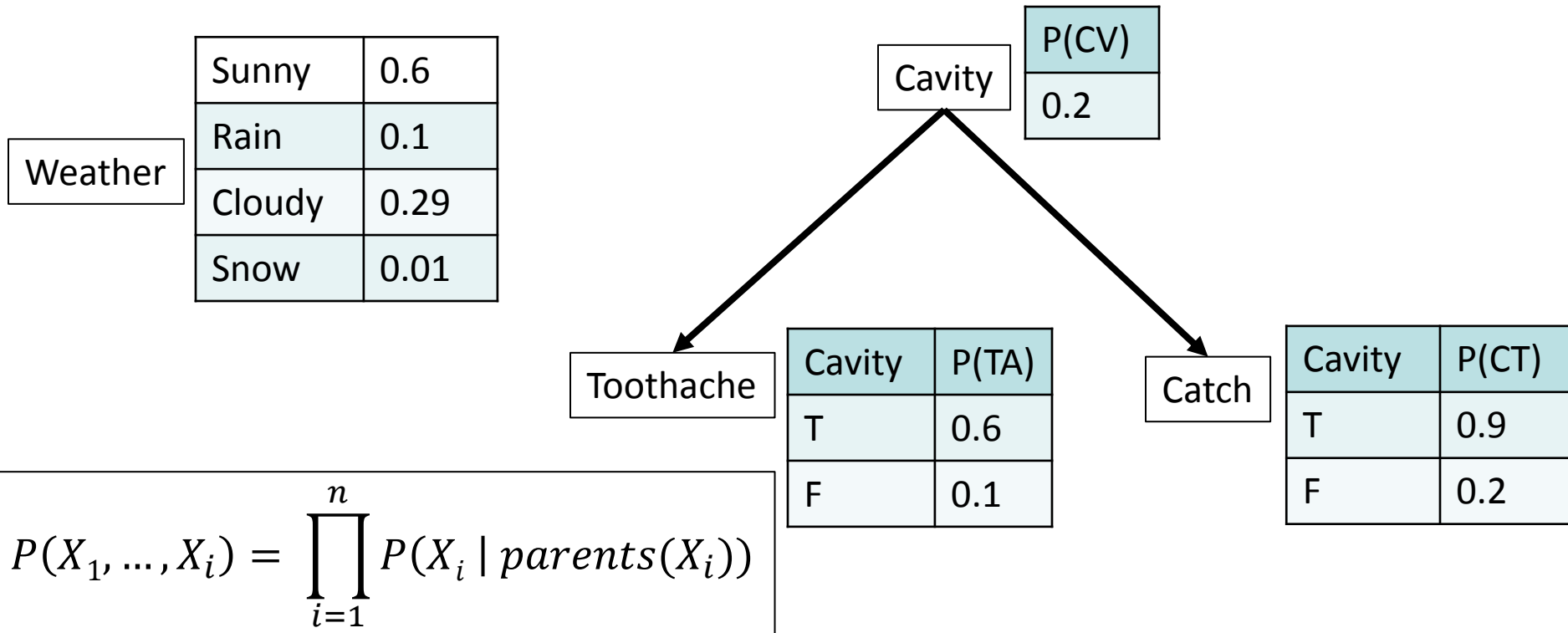
- In Bayesian networks, all inference problems can be solved by one or more applications of the equation below.
- In many interesting cases there exist better (i.e., faster) methods, but we will not study such methods in this course.

# Inference in Bayesian Networks



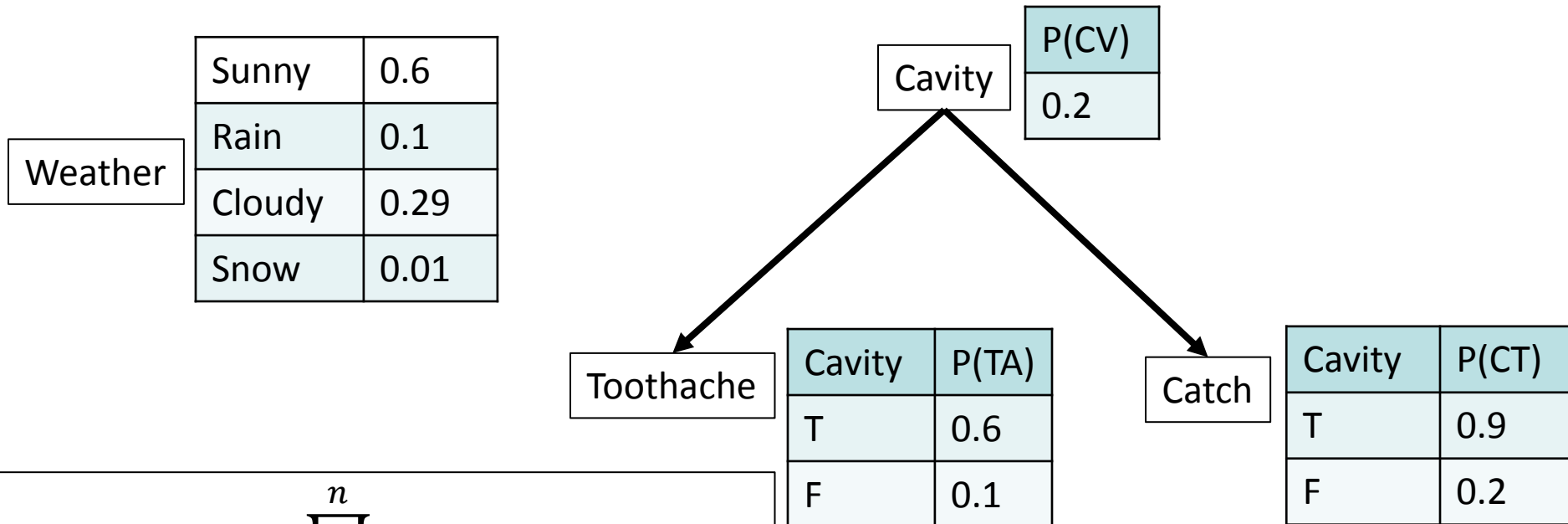
- For example, compute:  
P(Sunny, not(Cavity), not(Toothache), Catch).
- Based on the equation, how do we compute this?

# Inference in Bayesian Networks



$$\begin{aligned}
 &P(\text{Sunny}, \text{not}(\text{Cavity}), \text{not}(\text{Toothache}), \text{Catch}) = \\
 &P(\text{Sunny} \mid \text{Parents}(\text{Weather})) * \\
 &P(\text{not}(\text{Cavity}) \mid \text{Parents}(\text{Cavity})) * \\
 &P(\text{not}(\text{Toothache}) \mid \text{Parents}(\text{Toothache})) * \\
 &P(\text{Catch} \mid \text{Parents}(\text{Catch}))
 \end{aligned}$$

# Inference in Bayesian Networks

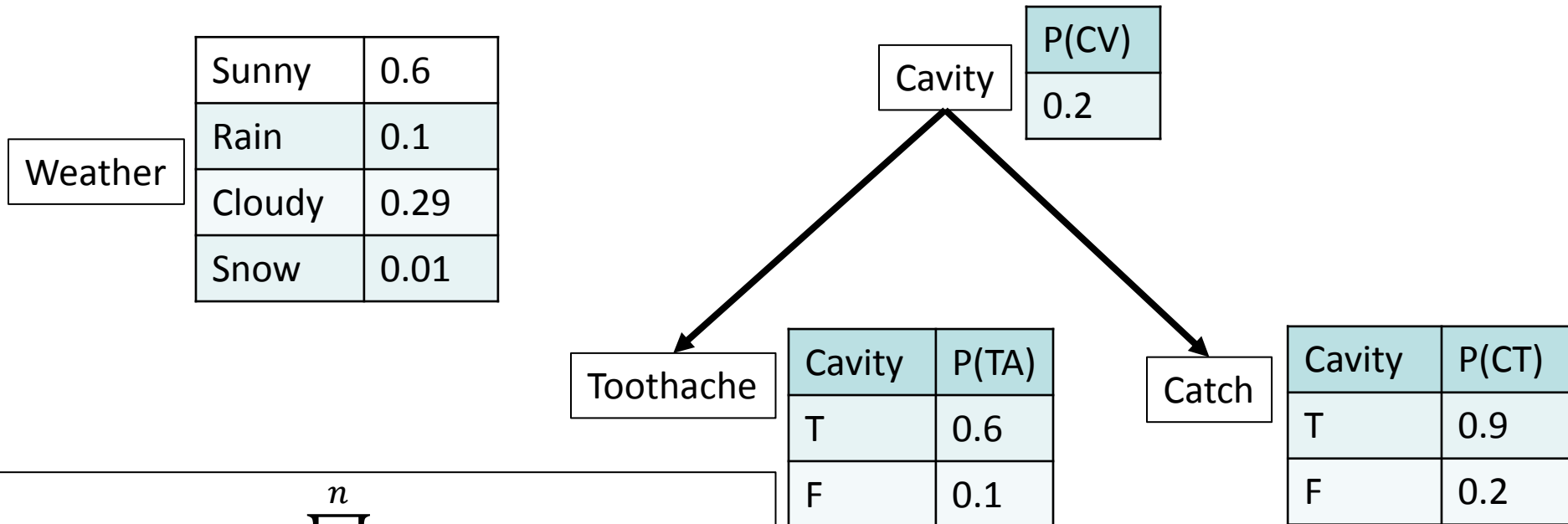


$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &P(\text{Sunny}, \text{not}(\text{Cavity}), \text{not}(\text{Toothache}), \text{Catch}) = \\
 &P(\text{Sunny}) * \\
 &P(\text{not}(\text{Cavity})) * \\
 &P(\text{not}(\text{Toothache}) | \text{not}(\text{Cavity})) * \\
 &P(\text{Catch} | \text{not}(\text{Cavity}))
 \end{aligned}$$



# Inference in Bayesian Networks

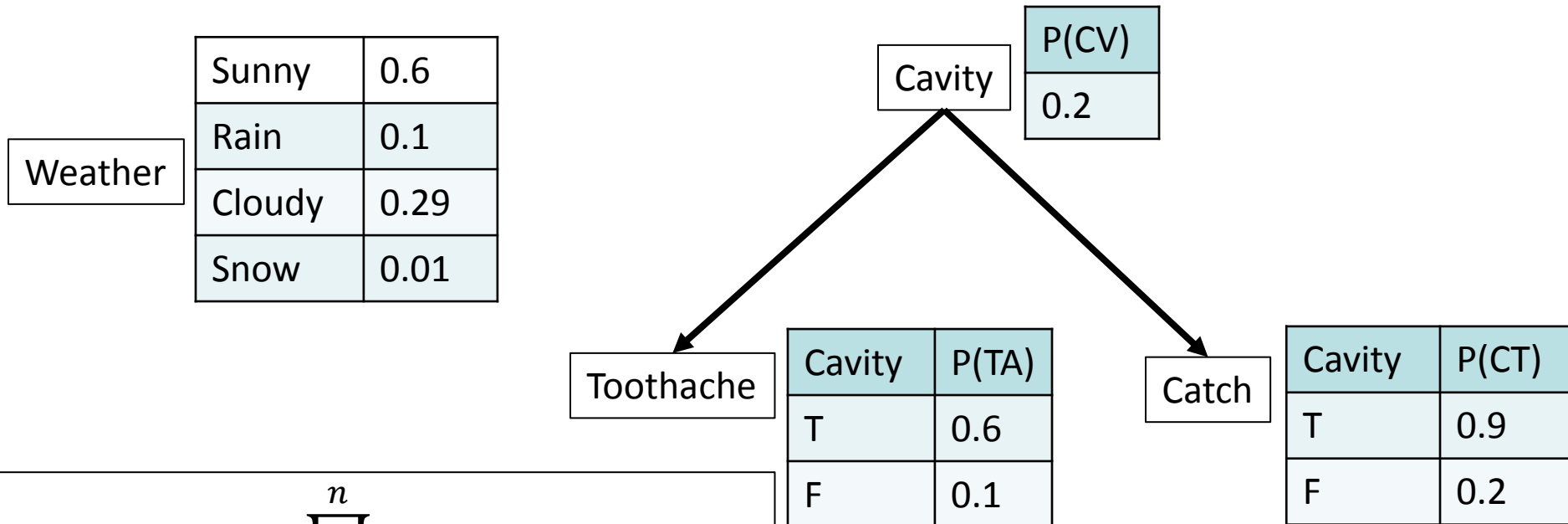


$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

$P(\text{Sunny}, \text{not}(\text{Cavity}), \text{not}(\text{Toothache}), \text{Catch}) =$

0.6 \*  
0.8 \*  
0.9 \*  
0.2

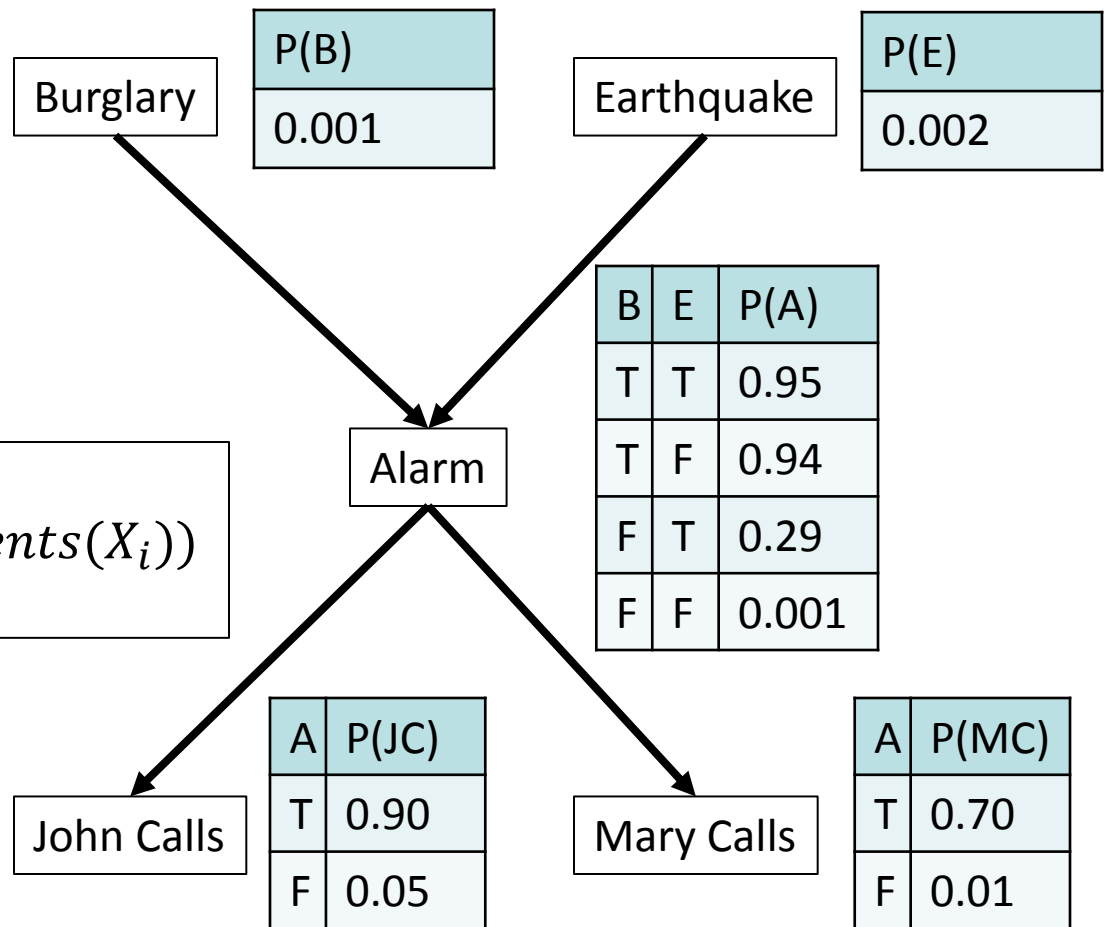
# Inference in Bayesian Networks



$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

$$P(\text{Sunny}, \text{not}(\text{Cavity}), \text{not}(\text{Toothache}), \text{Catch}) = 0.6 * 0.8 * 0.9 * 0.2 = 0.0864$$

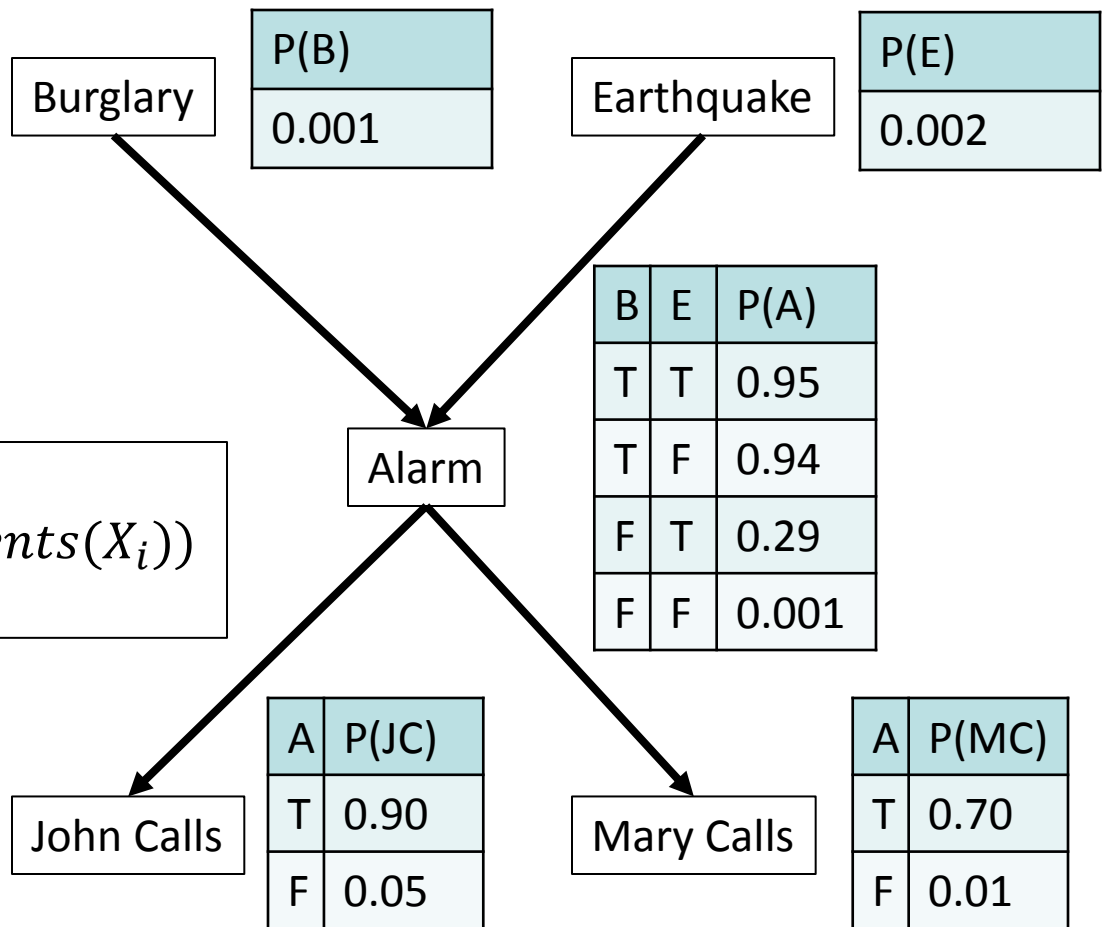
# Another Example



$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- Compute  $P(B, \text{not}(E), A, JC, MC)$ :

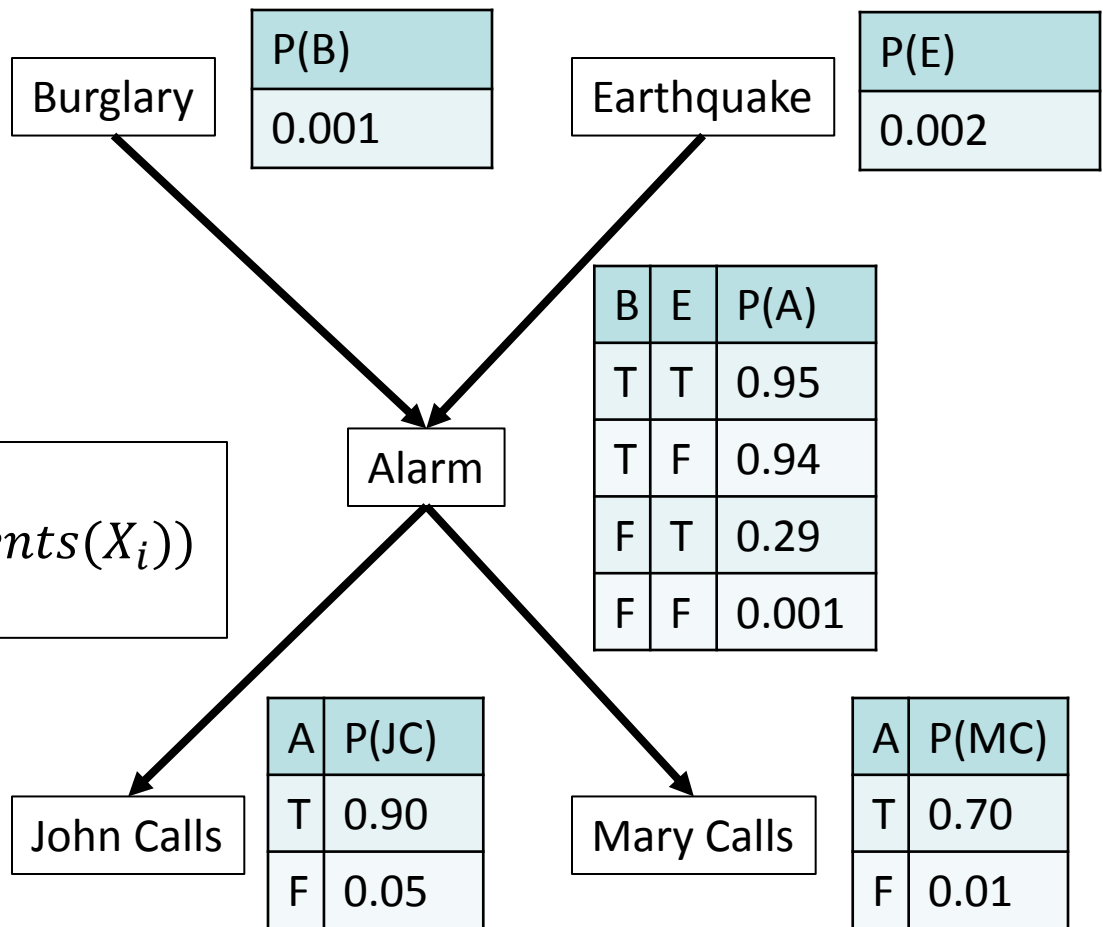
# Another Example



- $P(B, \text{not}(E), A, JC, MC) =$

$$P(B) * P(\text{not}(E)) * P(A \mid B, \text{not}(E)) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) =$$

# Another Example



- $P(B, \text{not}(E), A, JC, MC) =$

$$P(B) * P(\text{not}(E)) * P(A \mid B, \text{not}(E)) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) =$$

$$0.001 * 0.998 * 0.94 * 0.9 * 0.7 = 0.0005910156$$

# A More Complicated Case

- In the previous examples, we computed the probability of cases where all variables were assigned values.
  - We did that by directly applying the equation:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- What do we do when some values are unspecified?
- For example, how do we compute  $P(\neg B, JC, MC)$ ?

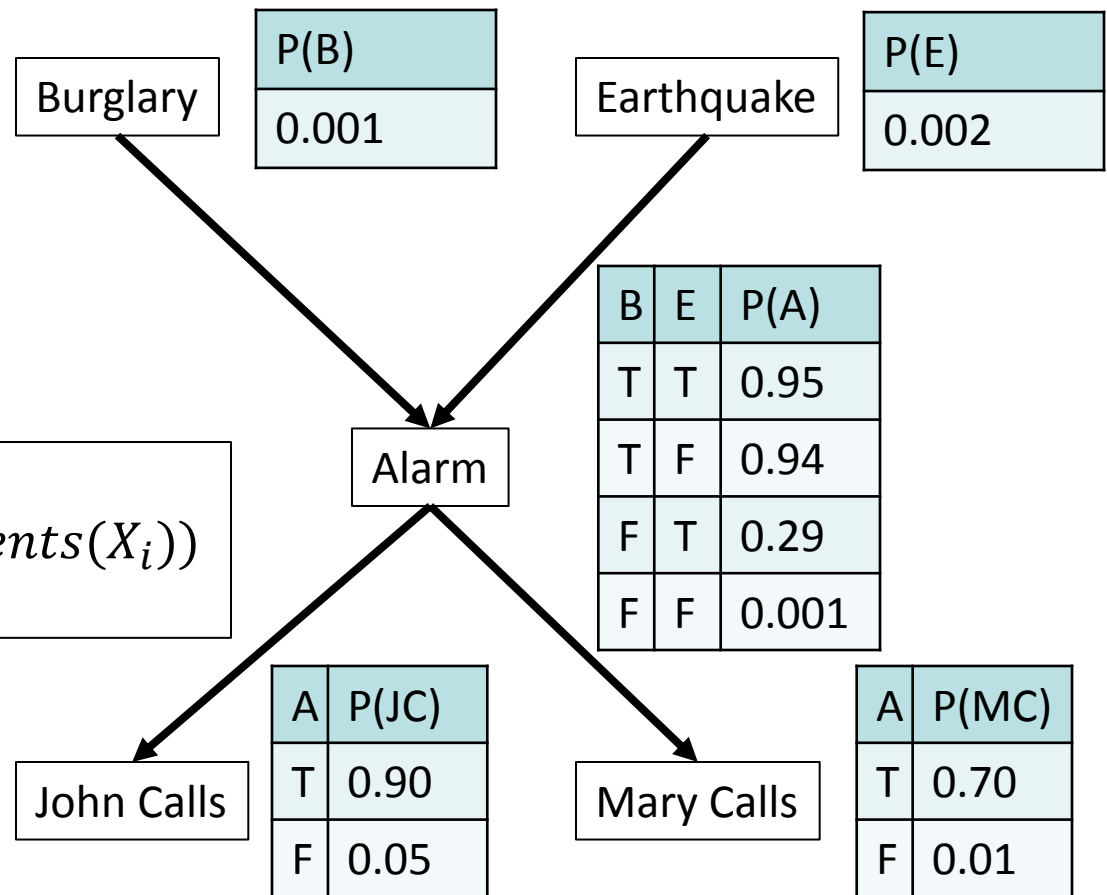
# A More Complicated Case

- In the previous examples, we computed the probability of cases where all variables were assigned values.
  - We did that by directly applying the equation:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- What do we do when some values are unspecified?
- For example, how do we compute  $P(\neg B, JC, MC)$ ?
  - Answer: we need to apply the above equation repeatedly, and sum over all possible values that are left unspecified.

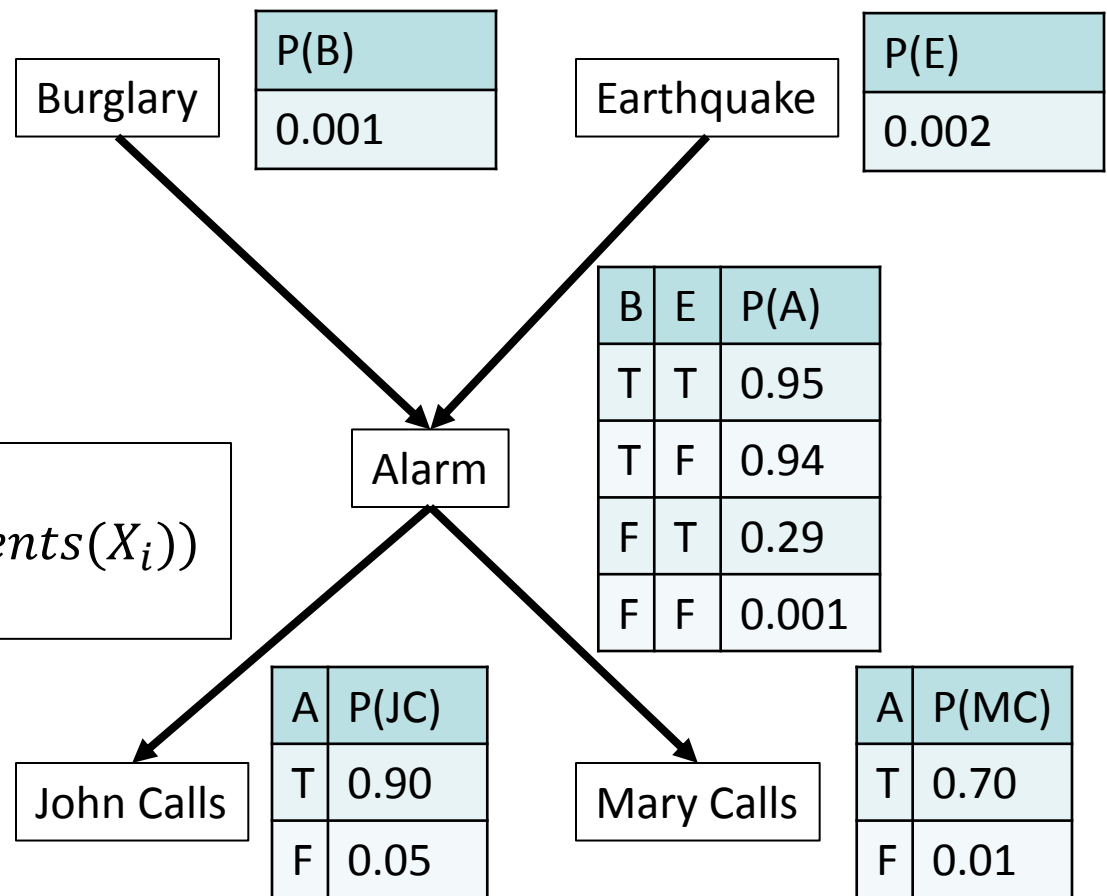
# Another Example



- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.



# Another Example



$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

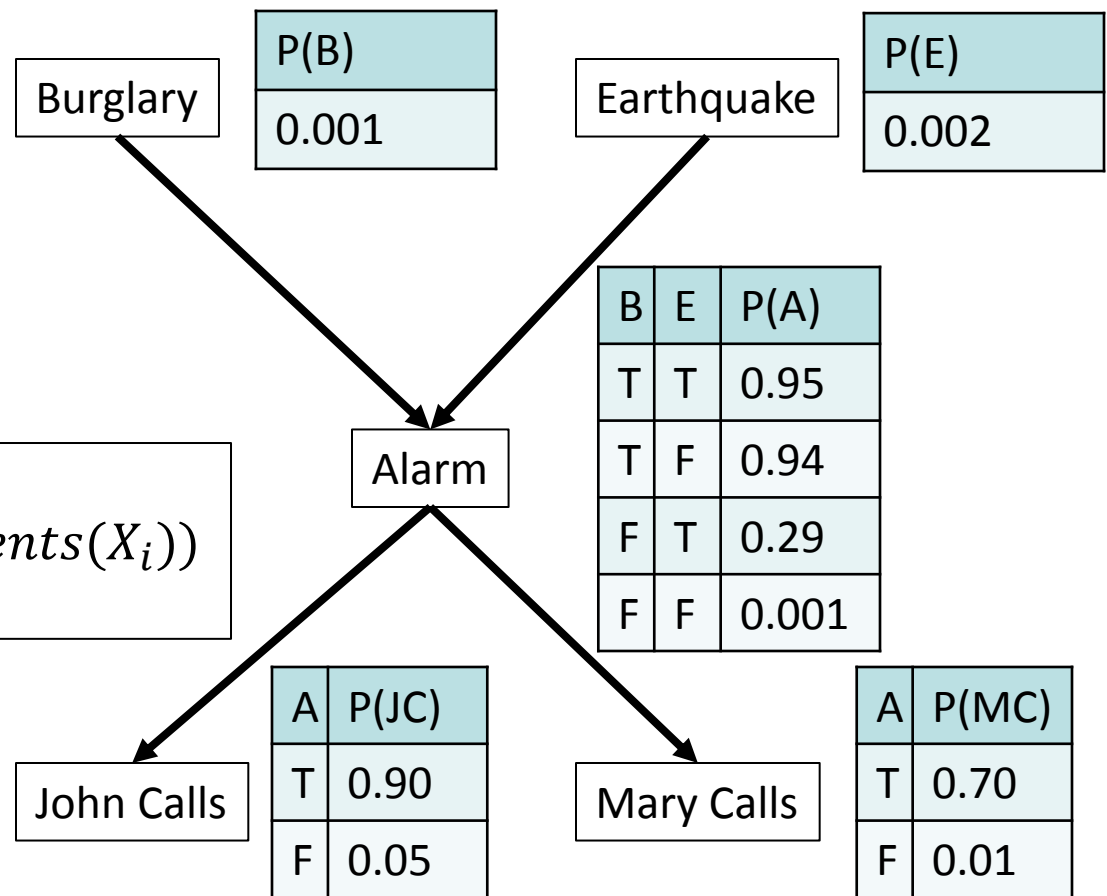
- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.
- $$P(\neg B, JC, MC) = P(\neg B, E, A, JC, MC) +$$

$$P(\neg B, E, \neg A, JC, MC) +$$

$$P(\neg B, \neg E, A, JC, MC) +$$

$$P(\neg B, \neg E, \neg A, JC, MC) = ???$$

# Another Example

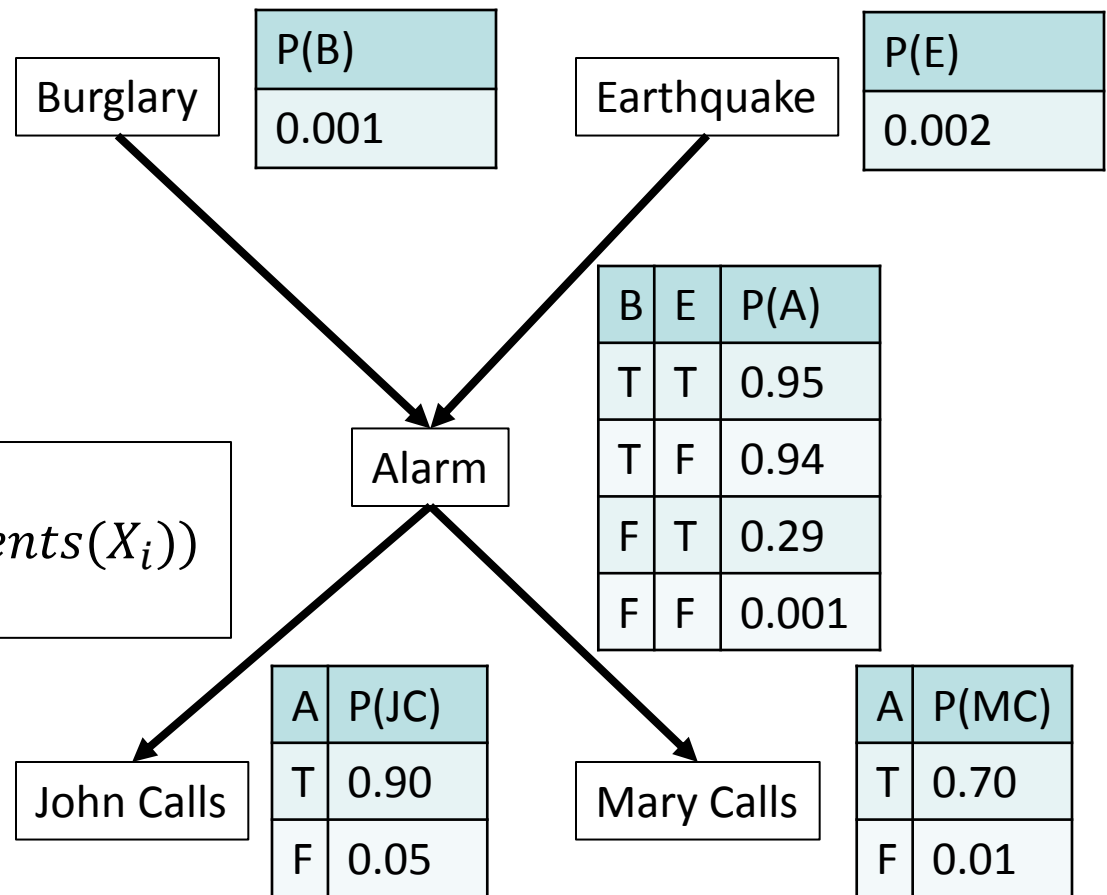


$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.
- $$P(\neg B, JC, MC) = P(\neg B, E, A, JC, MC) + P(\neg B, E, \neg A, JC, MC) + P(\neg B, \neg E, A, JC, MC) + P(\neg B, \neg E, \neg A, JC, MC) = ???$$

Here we apply the equation to each of the four terms separately.

# Another Example

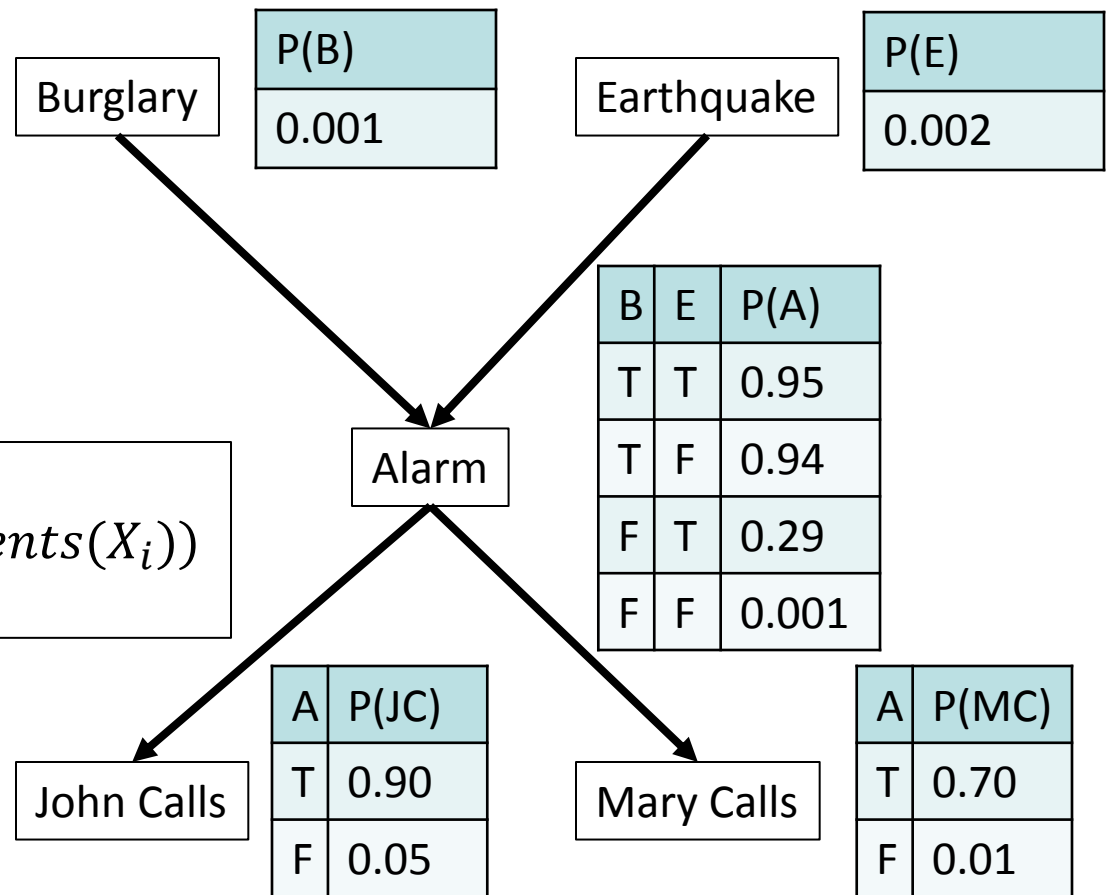


$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.
- $P(\neg B, JC, MC) =$ 

$$\begin{aligned}
 &P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(A | \neg B, E) * P(JC | A) * P(MC | A) + \\
 &P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(\neg A | \neg B, E) * P(JC | \neg A) * P(MC | \neg A) + \\
 &P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(A | \neg B, \neg E) * P(JC | A) * P(MC | A) + \\
 &P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(\neg A | \neg B, \neg E) * P(JC | \neg A) * P(MC | \neg A)
 \end{aligned}$$

# Another Example

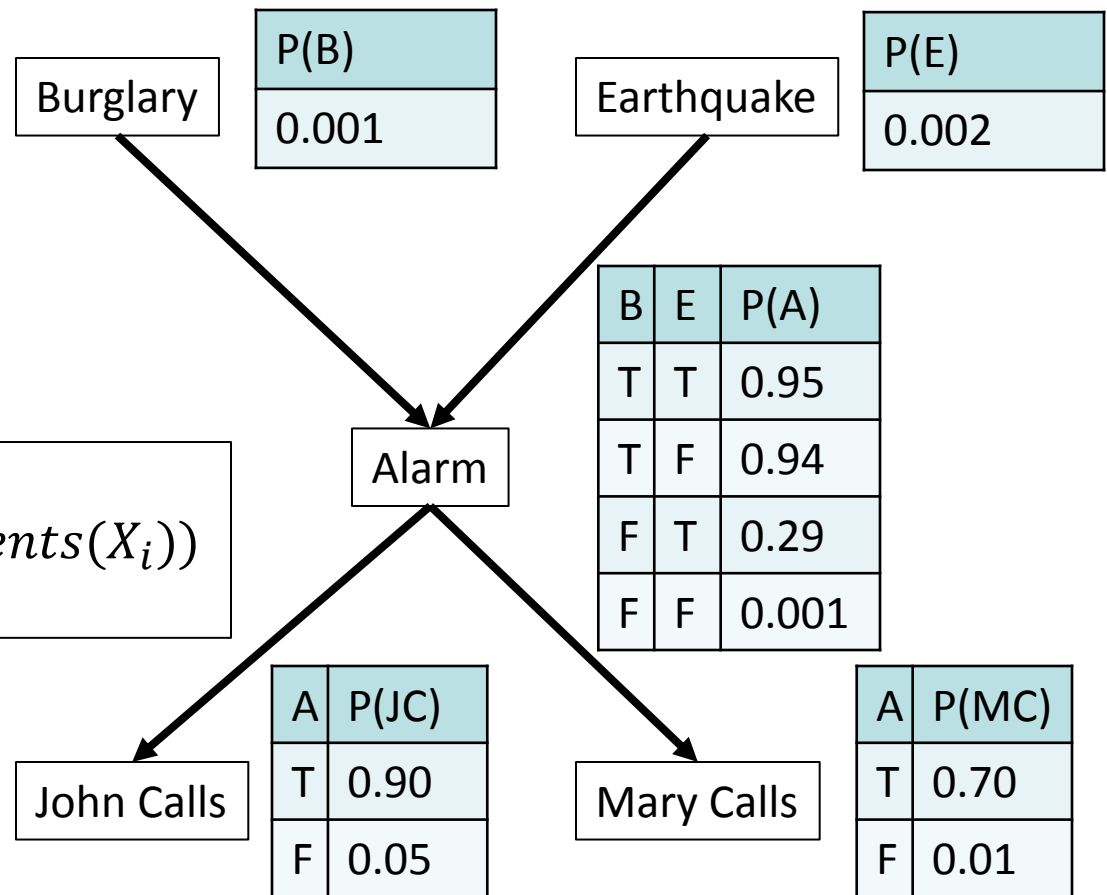


$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.
- $P(\neg B, JC, MC) =$ 

$$\begin{aligned}
 &0.999 * 0.002 * 0.290 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\
 &0.999 * 0.002 * 0.710 * 0.05 * 0.01 + \\
 &0.999 * 0.998 * 0.001 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\
 &0.999 * 0.998 * 0.999 * 0.05 * 0.01
 \end{aligned}$$

# Another Example



- Variables E, A are unspecified.
  - Each variable is binary, so we must sum over four possible cases.
- $$P(\neg B, JC, MC) = 0.0003650 + 0.0000007 + 0.0006281 + 0.0004980$$

$$= 0.0014918$$

# Computing Conditional Probabilities

- So far we have seen how to compute, in Bayesian Networks, these types of probabilities:
  - $P(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ , where we specify values for all  $n$  variables of the network.
  - $P(A_1, \dots, A_k)$ , where we specify values for only  $k$  of the  $n$  variables of the network.
- We now need to cover the case of conditional probabilities:

$$P(A_1, \dots, A_k \mid B_1, \dots, B_m)$$

- How can we compute this?

# Computing Conditional Probabilities

- Using the definition of conditional probabilities, we get:

$$P(A_1, \dots, A_k \mid B_1, \dots, B_m) = \frac{P(A_1, \dots, A_k, B_1, \dots, B_m)}{P(B_1, \dots, B_m)}$$

Now, both the numerator and the denominator are probabilities that we already learned how to compute:

- They are probabilities where values are provided for some, but possibly not all, variables of the network.

# Conditional Probability Example

- Here is a more interesting example:
  - John calls, to say the alarm is ringing.
  - Mary also calls, to say the alarm is ringing.
  - What is the probability there is a burglary?
- How do we write our question as a formula? What do we want to compute?

$$P(B \mid JC, MC)$$

- How do we compute it?  $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$



# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$P(JC, MC) =$

$P(B, E, A, JC, MC) +$

$P(B, E, \neg A, JC, MC) +$

$P(B, \neg E, A, JC, MC) +$

$P(B, \neg E, \neg A, JC, MC) +$

$P(\neg B, E, A, JC, MC) +$

$P(\neg B, E, \neg A, JC, MC) +$

$P(\neg B, \neg E, A, JC, MC) +$

$P(\neg B, \neg E, \neg A, JC, MC) =$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$

- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$$P(JC, MC) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} &P(B) * P(E) * P(A \mid B, E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(B) * P(E) * P(\neg A \mid B, E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) + \\ &P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(A \mid B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(\neg A \mid B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) + \\ &P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(A \mid \neg B, E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(\neg A \mid \neg B, E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) + \\ &P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(A \mid \neg B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(\neg A \mid \neg B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) = \end{aligned}$$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$P(JC, MC) =$

$$\begin{aligned} &0.001 * 0.002 * 0.950 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.001 * 0.002 * 0.050 * 0.05 * 0.01 + \\ &0.001 * 0.998 * 0.940 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.001 * 0.998 * 0.060 * 0.05 * 0.01 + \\ &0.999 * 0.002 * 0.290 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.999 * 0.002 * 0.710 * 0.05 * 0.01 + \\ &0.999 * 0.998 * 0.001 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.999 * 0.998 * 0.999 * 0.05 * 0.01 = \end{aligned}$$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$P(JC, MC) =$

0.000001197 +

0.000000000 +

0.000591015 +

0.000000030 +

0.000365034 +

0.000000709 +

0.000628111 +

0.000498002

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$
- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :
  - Note: this is a sum over only a subset of the cases that we included in the denominator. So, we have already done most of the work:

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$
- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(B, JC, MC) =$   
 $P(B, E, A, JC, MC) +$   
 $P(B, E, \neg A, JC, MC) +$   
 $P(B, \neg E, A, JC, MC) +$   
 $P(B, \neg E, \neg A, JC, MC)$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$
- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :

$P(B, JC, MC) =$

$$\begin{aligned} &P(B) * P(E) * P(A \mid B, E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(B) * P(E) * P(\neg A \mid B, E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) + \\ &P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(A \mid B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid A) * P(MC \mid A) + \\ &P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(\neg A \mid B, \neg E) * P(JC \mid \neg A) * P(MC \mid \neg A) \end{aligned}$$



# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$$P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$$

- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :

$$P(B, JC, MC) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} &0.001 * 0.002 * 0.950 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.001 * 0.002 * 0.050 * 0.05 * 0.01 + \\ &0.001 * 0.998 * 0.940 * 0.90 * 0.70 + \\ &0.001 * 0.998 * 0.060 * 0.05 * 0.01 \end{aligned}$$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :

$$P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$$

- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :

$$P(B, JC, MC) =$$

$$0.000001197 +$$

$$0.000000000 +$$

$$0.000591015 +$$

$$0.000000030$$

# Conditional Probability Example

- $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{P(B, JC, MC)}{P(JC, MC)}$
- First let's compute the denominator,  $P(JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(JC, MC) = 0.002084098$
- Now, let's compute the numerator,  $P(B, JC, MC)$ :  
 $P(B, JC, MC) = 0.000592242$
- Therefore,  $P(B \mid JC, MC) = \frac{0.000592242}{0.002084098} = 0.284$ .
- There is a 28.4% probability that there was a burglary.

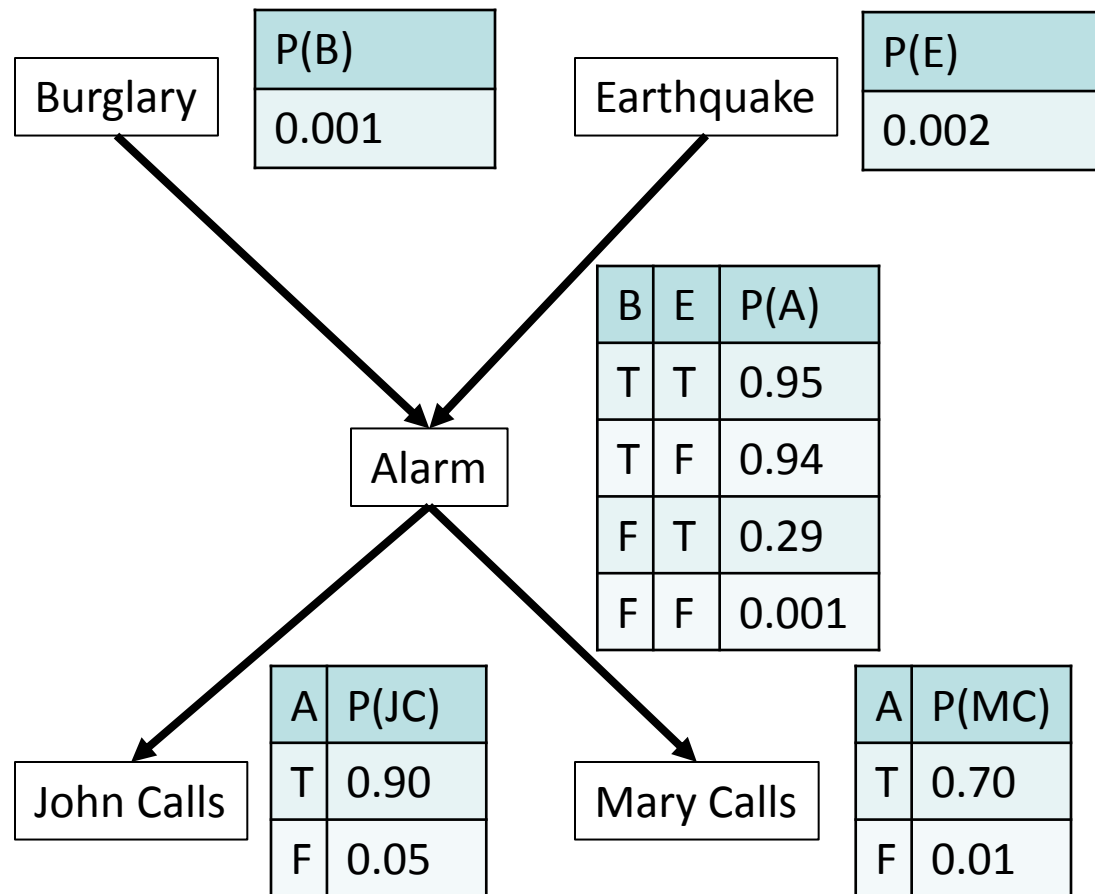
# Complexity of Inference

- What is the complexity of the inference algorithm we have been using in the previous examples?
- We sum over probabilities of various combinations of values.
- In the worst case, how many combinations of values do we need to consider?
  - All possible combinations of values of all variables in the Bayesian network.
- This is NOT any faster than inference by enumeration using a joint distribution table.
  - We are still doing inference by enumeration, but using a Bayesian network.
- As mentioned before, in some cases (but not always) there are polynomial time inference algorithms for Bayesian networks (e.g., the **variable elimination algorithm**, textbook chapter 14.4.2).
- However, we will not go over such algorithms in this course.

# Complexity of Inference

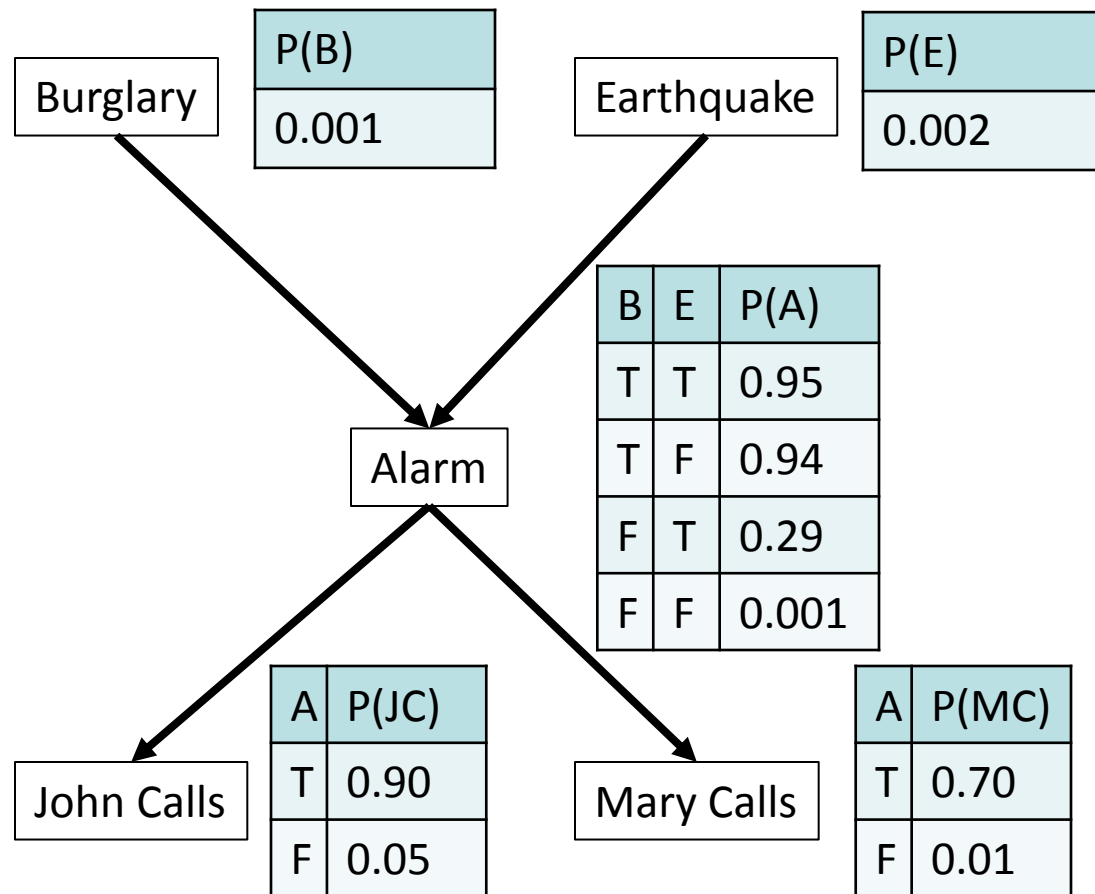
- So, our inference method using Bayesian networks is not any faster than using joint distribution tables.
- The big advantage over using joint distribution tables is space.
- To define a joint distribution table, we need space exponential to  $n$  (the number of variables).
- To define a Bayesian network, the space we need is linear to  $n$ , and exponential to  $r$ , where:
  - $n$  is the number of variables.
  - $r$  is the maximum number of parents that any node in the network has.
- In the typical case,  $r \ll n$ , and thus Bayesian networks require much fewer numbers to be specified, compared to joint distribution tables.

# Simplified Calculations



- Some times, we can compute some probabilities in a more simple manner than using enumeration.
- For example: compute  $P(B, E)$ .
  - We could sum over the eight possible combinations of A, JC, MC.
  - Or, we could just remember that B and E are independent, so:  
 $P(B, E) = P(B) * P(E) = 0.001 * 0.002$ .

# Simplified Calculations



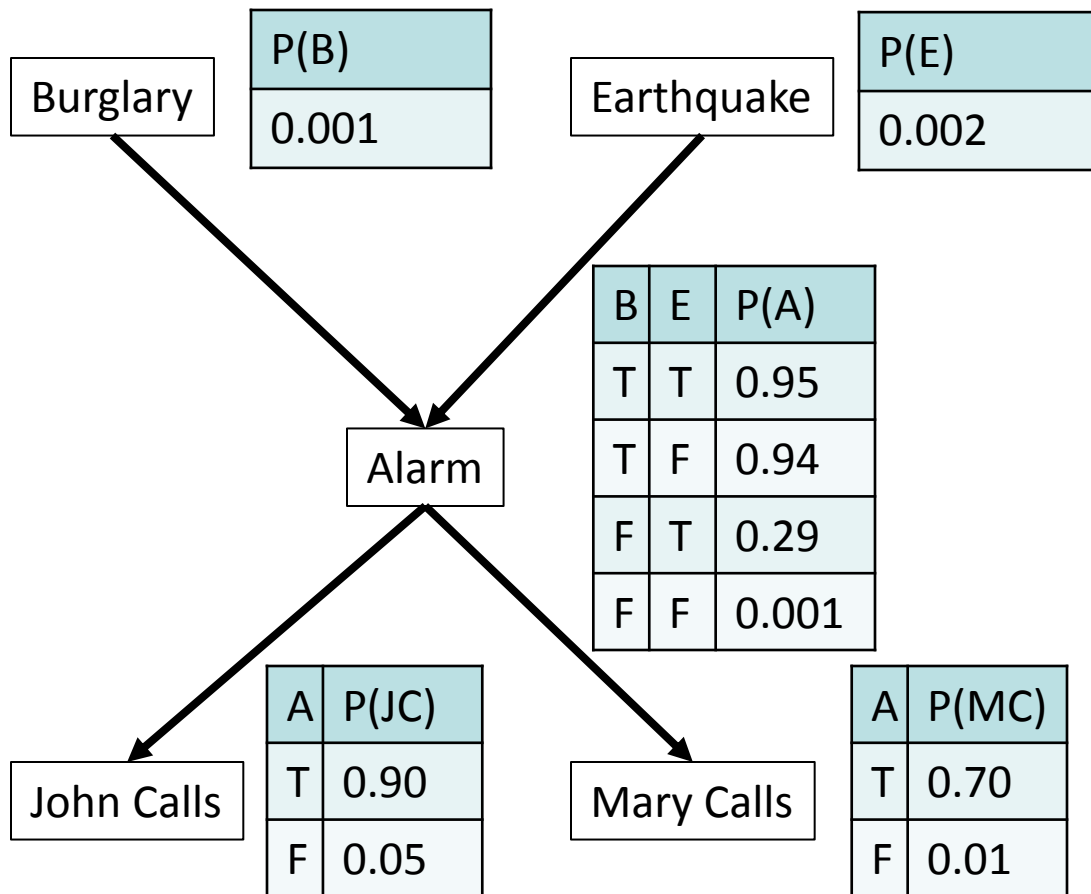
- Another example: compute  $P(JC, \neg MC \mid A)$ .
- Again, we can do inference by enumeration, or we can simply recognize that JC and MC are conditionally independent given A.
- Therefore,  $P(JC, \neg MC \mid A) = P(JC \mid A) * P(\neg MC \mid A) = 0.9 * 0.3$ .

# Markov Blanket

- A node  $A$  is conditionally independent of any other node in the network, as long as we know the values of:
  - The parents of  $A$ .
  - The children of  $A$ .
  - The parents of the children of  $A$ .
- This set of nodes (parents, children, children's parents) is called the **Markov Blanket** of  $A$ .

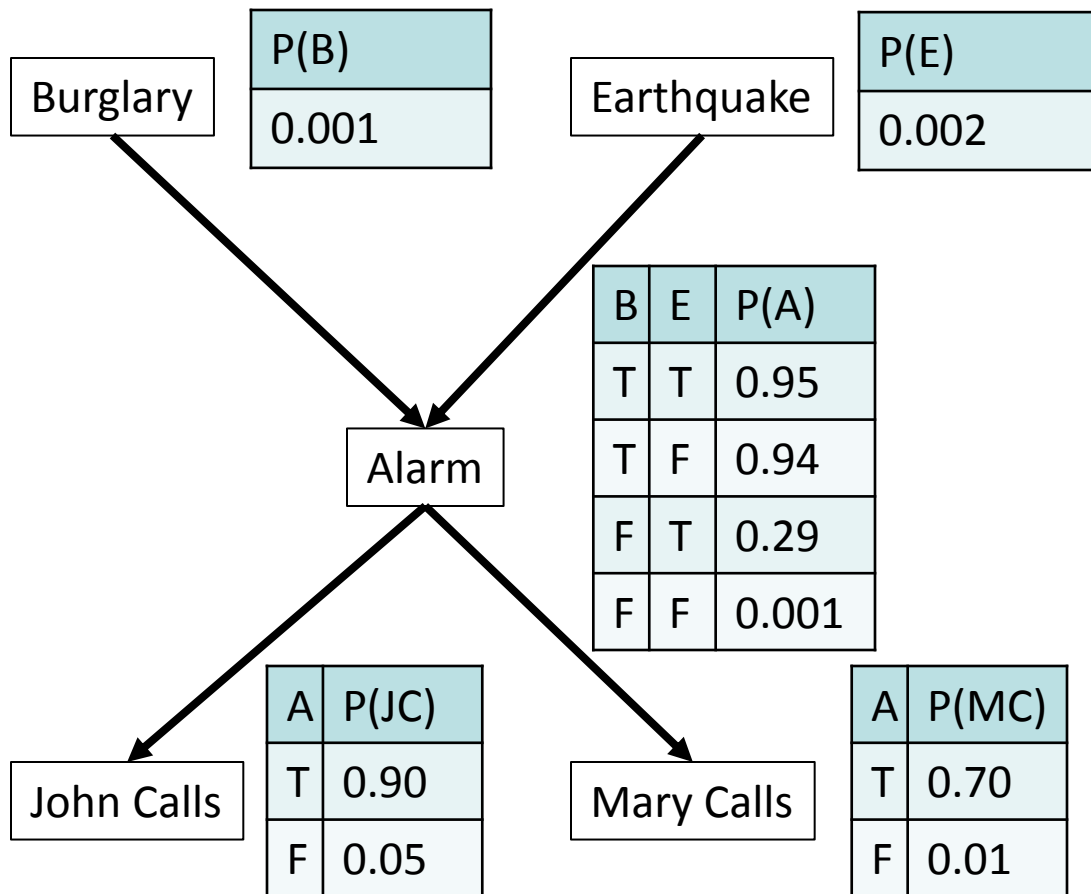


# Markov Blanket



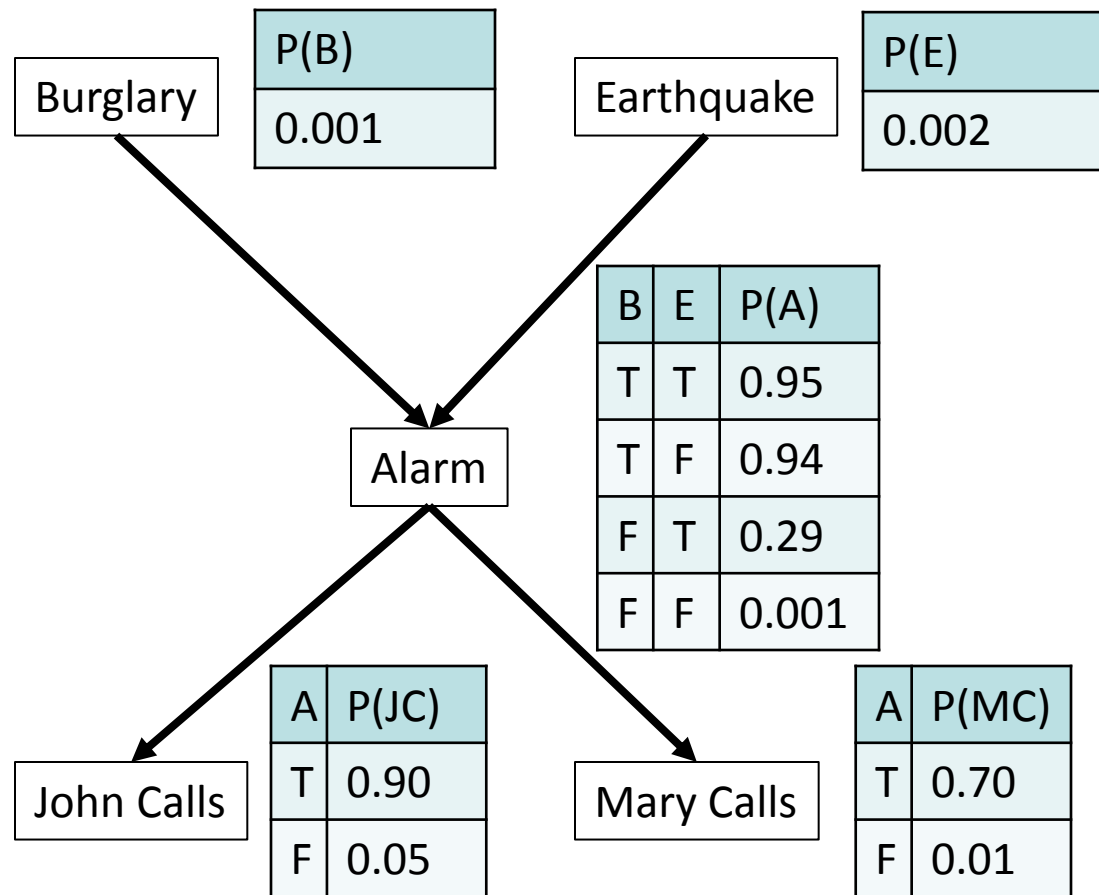
- Why do we also need values for the children's parents?
- Here is an example: are B and E conditionally independent given A?
- How do we approach that question? What quantities do we need to compute?

# Markov Blanket



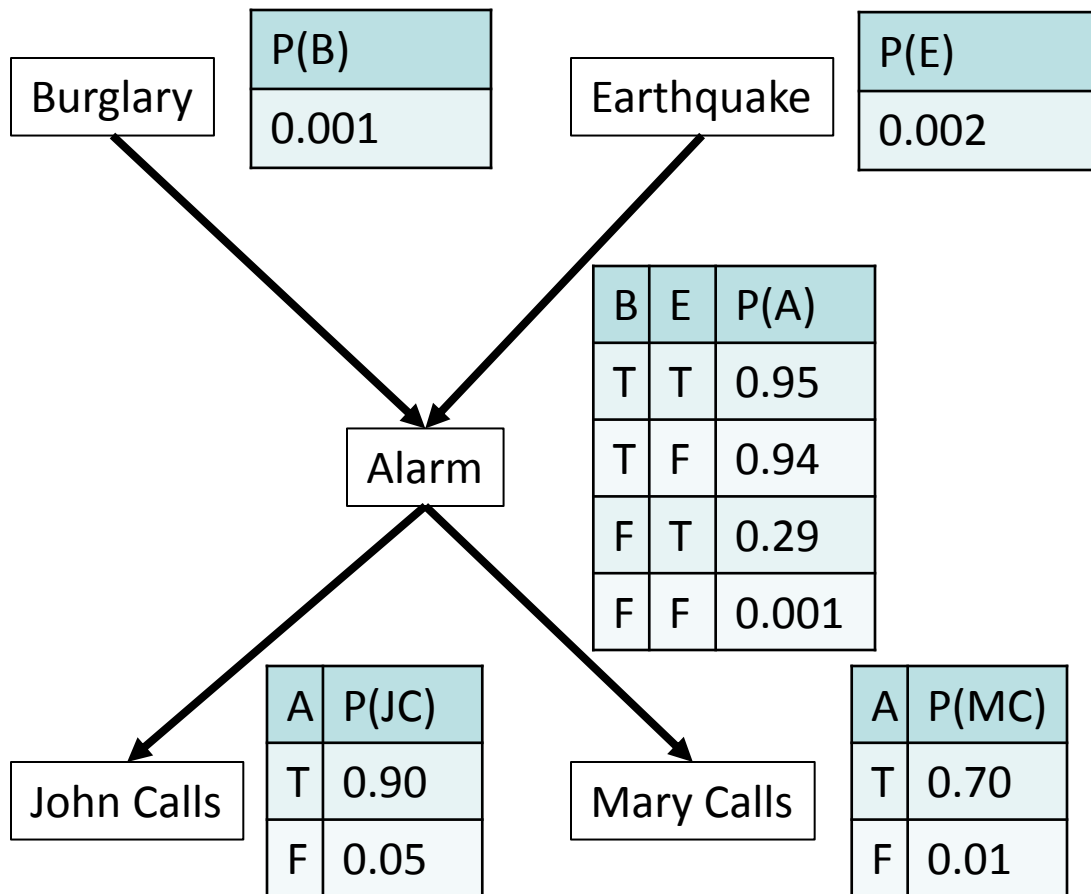
- Are B and E conditionally independent given A?
- To answer this, we need to compare two quantities:  
 $P(B \mid A)$  and  $P(B \mid A, E)$ .
- If those two quantities are equal, then B and E are conditionally independent given A.

# Markov Blanket



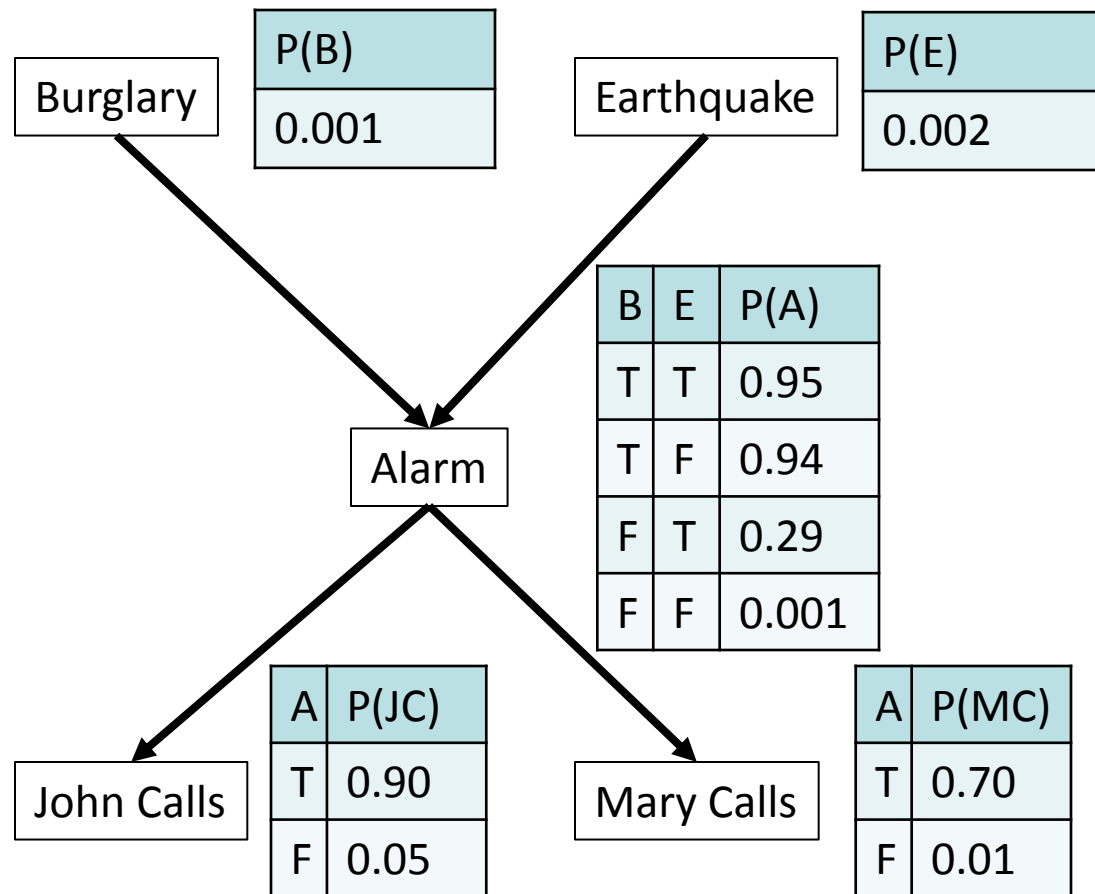
- $P(B \mid A) = ???$

# Markov Blanket



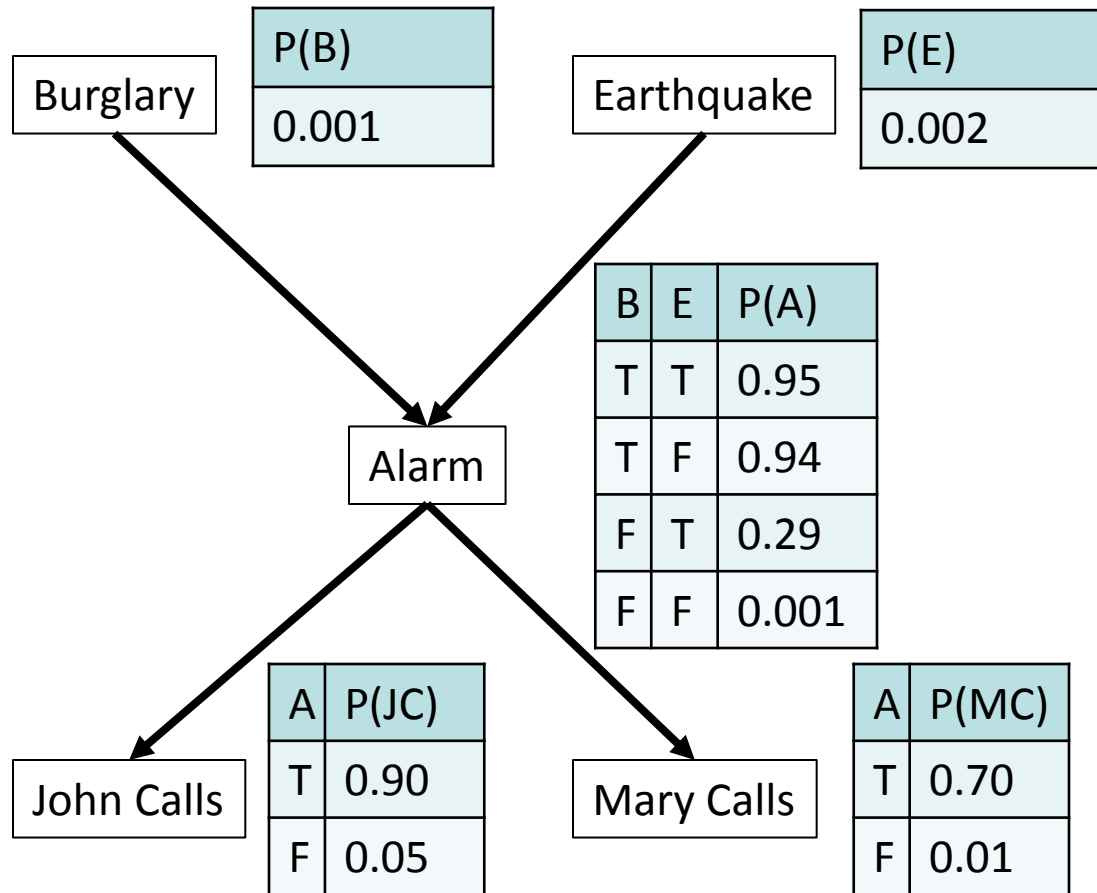
$$\begin{aligned}
 P(B | A) &= \frac{P(A, B)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A, B, E) + P(A, B, \neg E)}{P(A, B, E) + P(A, B, \neg E) + P(A, \neg B, E) + P(A, \neg B, \neg E)} \\
 &= \frac{P(B) * P(E) * P(A | B, E) + P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(A | B, \neg E)}{P(A, B, E) + P(A, B, \neg E) + P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(A | \neg B, E) + P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(A | \neg B, \neg E)}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Markov Blanket



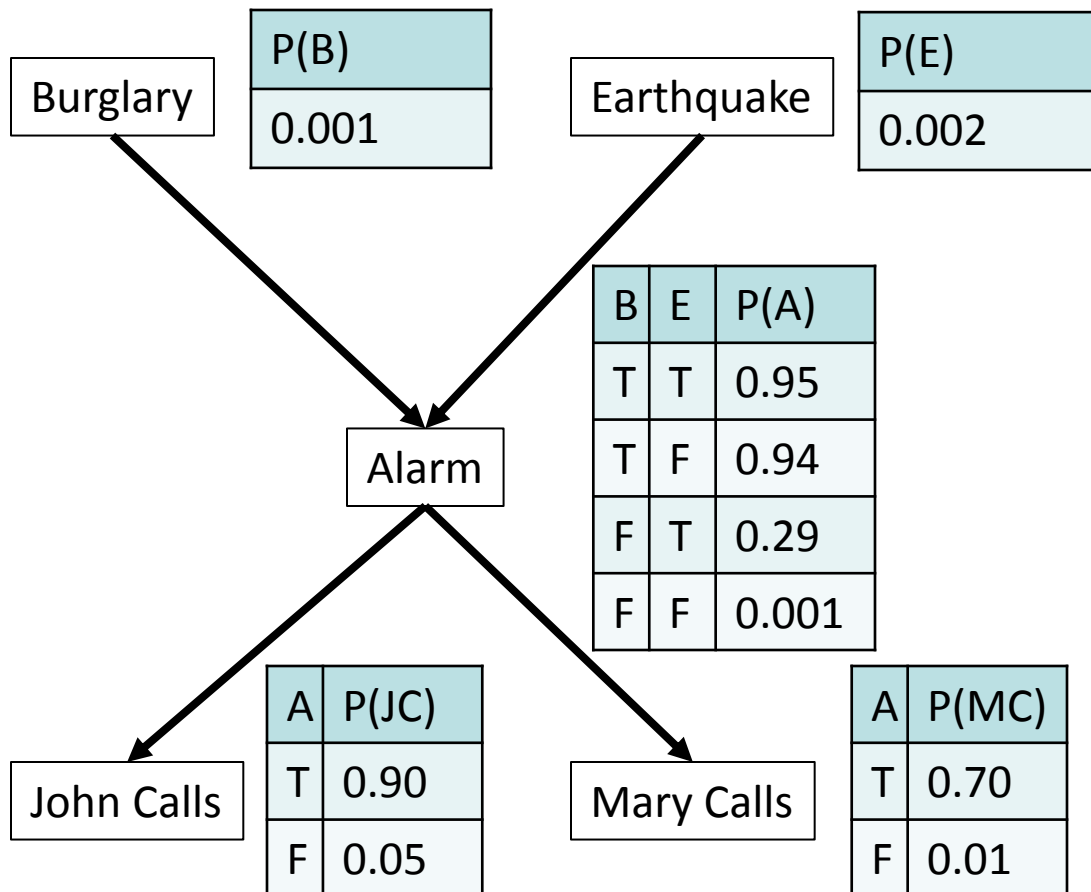
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{P(B) * P(E) * P(A | B, E) + P(B) * P(\neg E) * P(A | B, \neg E)}{P(A, B, E) + P(A, B, \neg E) + P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(A | \neg B, E) + P(\neg B) * P(\neg E) * P(A | \neg B, \neg E)} = \\
 & \frac{0.001 * 0.002 * 0.95 + 0.001 * 0.998 * 0.94}{0.001 * 0.002 * 0.95 + 0.001 * 0.998 * 0.94 + 0.999 * 0.002 * 0.29 + 0.999 * 0.998 * 0.001} = \\
 & \frac{0.00094002}{0.00251644} = 0.3735.
 \end{aligned}$$

# Markov Blanket



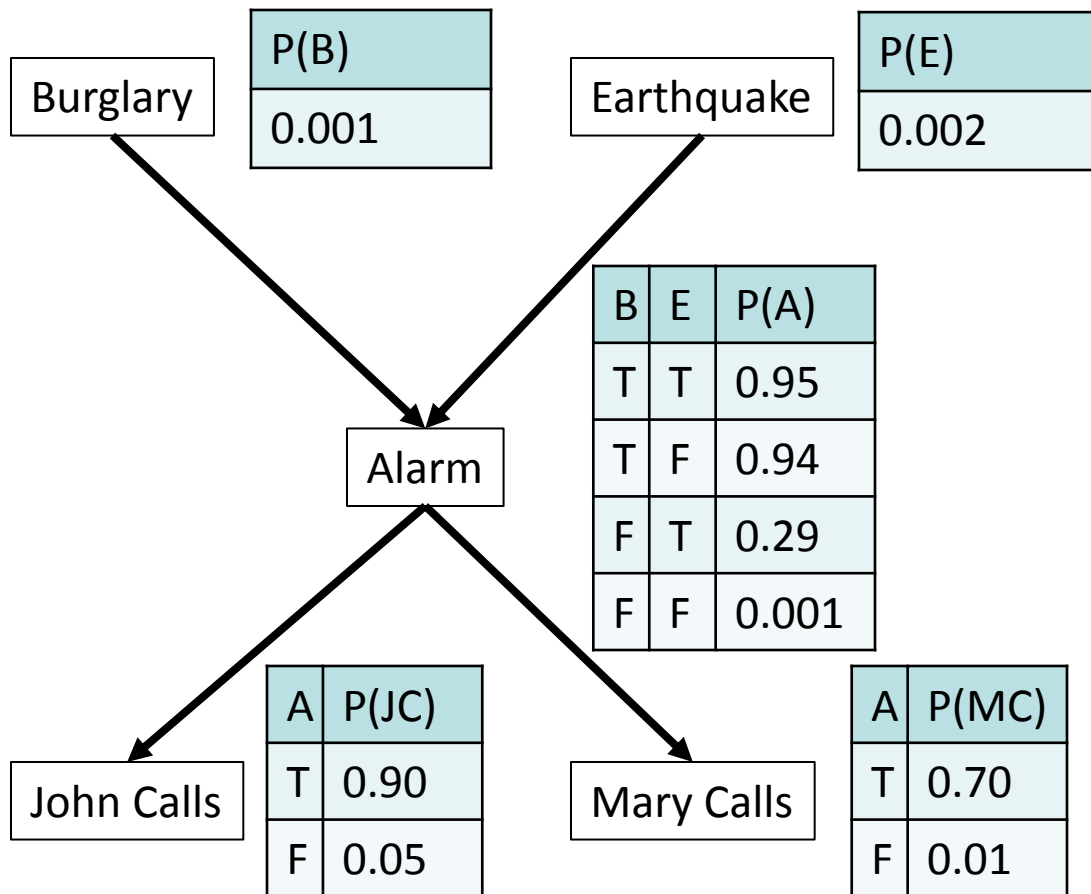
$$\begin{aligned}
 P(B \mid A, E) &= \frac{P(A, B, E)}{P(A, E)} = \frac{P(A, B, E)}{P(A, B, E) + P(A, \neg B, E)} \\
 &= \frac{P(B) * P(E) * P(A \mid B, E)}{P(B) * P(E) * P(A \mid B, E) + P(\neg B) * P(E) * P(A \mid \neg B, E)} = \\
 &= \frac{0.001 * 0.002 * 0.95}{0.001 * 0.002 * 0.95 + 0.999 * 0.002 * 0.29} = \frac{0.0000019}{0.0005813} = 0.0032
 \end{aligned}$$

# Markov Blanket



- Are B and E conditionally independent given A?
- To answer this, we need to compare: two quantities:
  - $P(B \mid A) = 37.3\%$ .
  - $P(B \mid A, E) = 0.33\%$ .
- Conclusion: B and E are NOT conditionally independent given A.

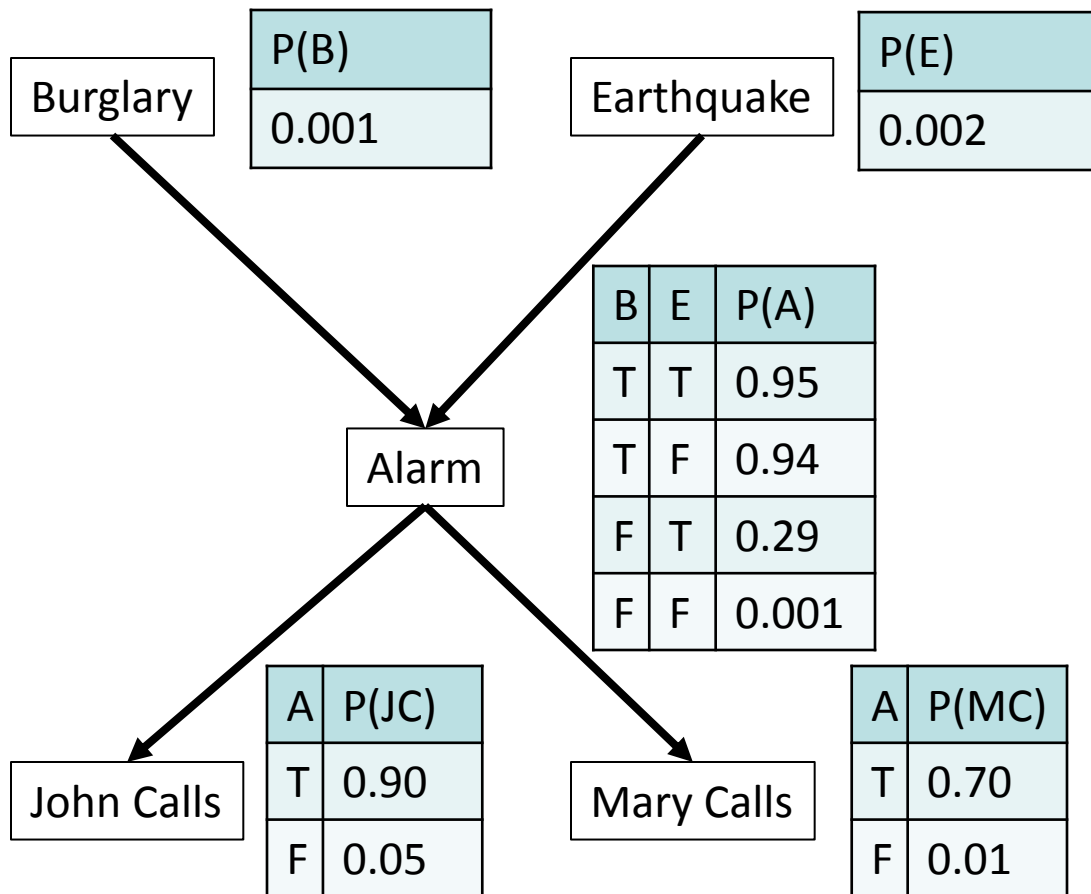
# Markov Blanket



- Intuitively, how can we explain these results?
  - $P(B | A) = 37.3\%$ .
  - $P(B | A, E) = 0.33\%$ .



# Markov Blanket



- Intuitively, how can we explain these results?
  - $P(B | A) = 37.3\%$ .
  - $P(B | A, E) = 0.33\%$ .
- If we know there was an alarm, burglary becomes more likely, because burglary causes alarms.
- However, if we know there was an alarm AND an earthquake, then the earthquake “explains” the alarm, and burglary becomes much less likely.

# The Influence of Children's Parents

- Overall, a child's multiple parents are all possible causes for the child.
- If the child (the effect) is true, that makes all causes more likely.
- However, if the child is true, and some causes are also true, that makes other causes less likely.

# The Influence of Children's Parents

- Another example: suppose you turn on the light in your room, and the light does not turn on.
- What is your first thought?

# The Influence of Children's Parents

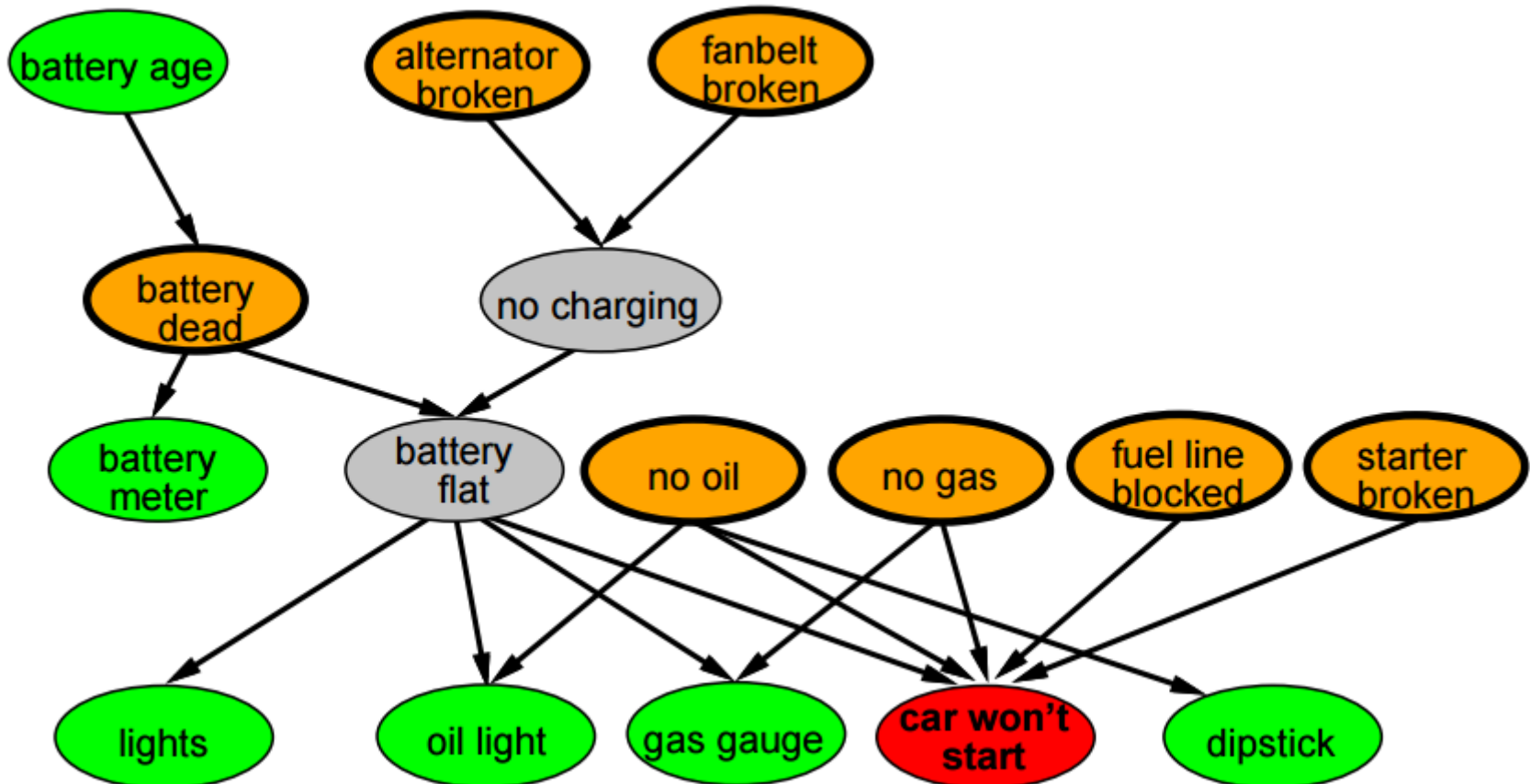
- Another example: suppose you turn on the light in your room, and the light does not turn on.
- What is your first thought?
  - Different people may answer this differently, but my first thought would be that the light is burned out.
- Now, suppose that I find out that there is a blackout.
  - What do you think now about the chance of the light being burned out?

# The Influence of Children's Parents

- Another example: suppose you turn on the light in your room, and the light does not turn on.
- What is your first thought?
  - Different people may answer this differently, but my first thought would be that the light is burned out.
- Now, suppose that I find out that there is a blackout.
  - Then, I don't really think anymore that the light is burned out.
- So, if we define:
  - LB to stand for the light burned out.
  - LNT0 to stand for the light not turning on.
  - BO to stand for black-out.
- $P(\text{LB} \mid \text{LNT0}) > P(\text{LB})$ , because LB is the most likely cause for LNT0.
- $P(\text{LB} \mid \text{LNT0}, \text{BO}) < P(\text{LB} \mid \text{LNT0})$ , because BO explains LNT0.

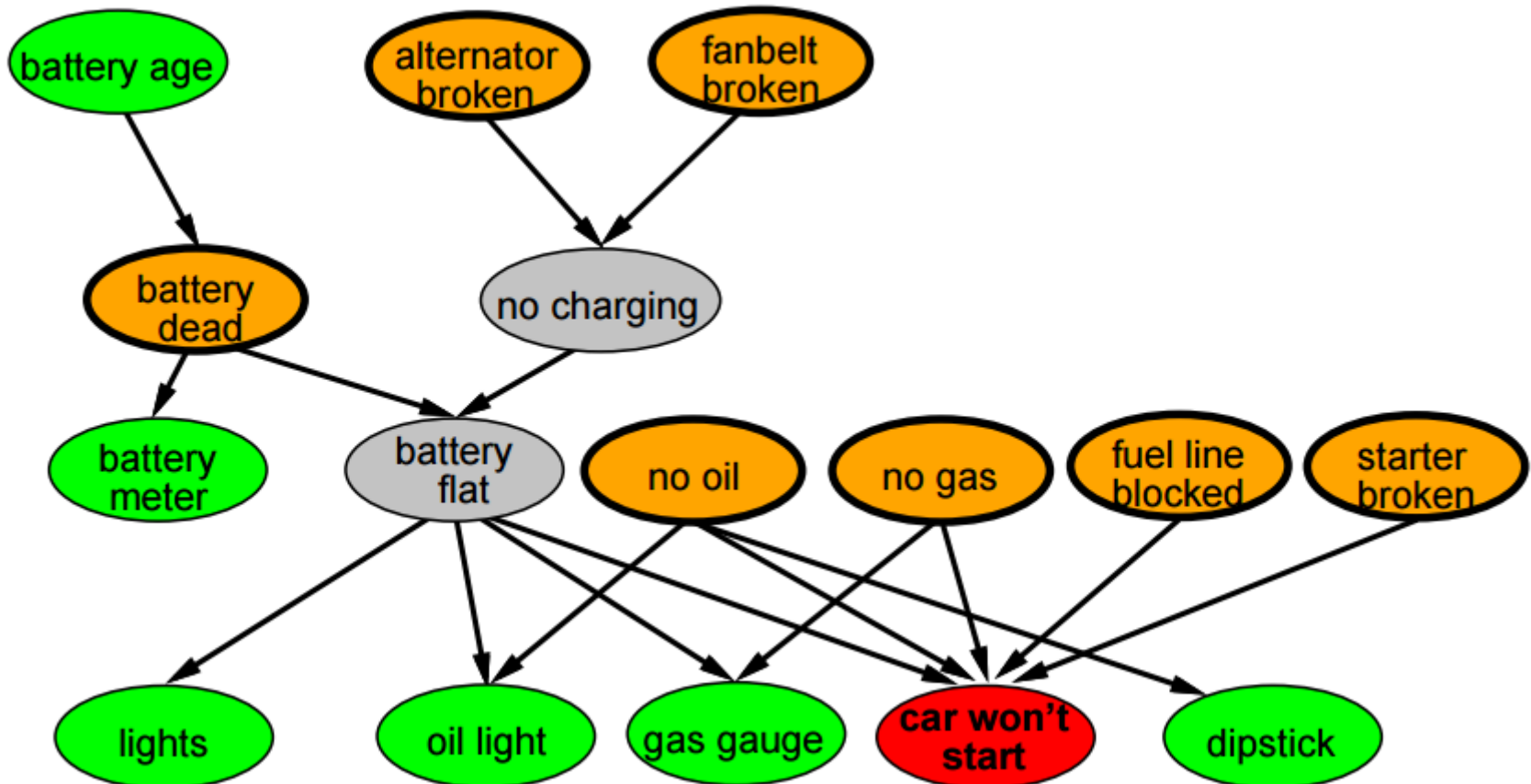
# Markov Blanket

- Here is a more complicated network, from the textbook, for car diagnostics.
- How does  $P(\text{battery dead})$  compare to  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{car won't start})$ ?



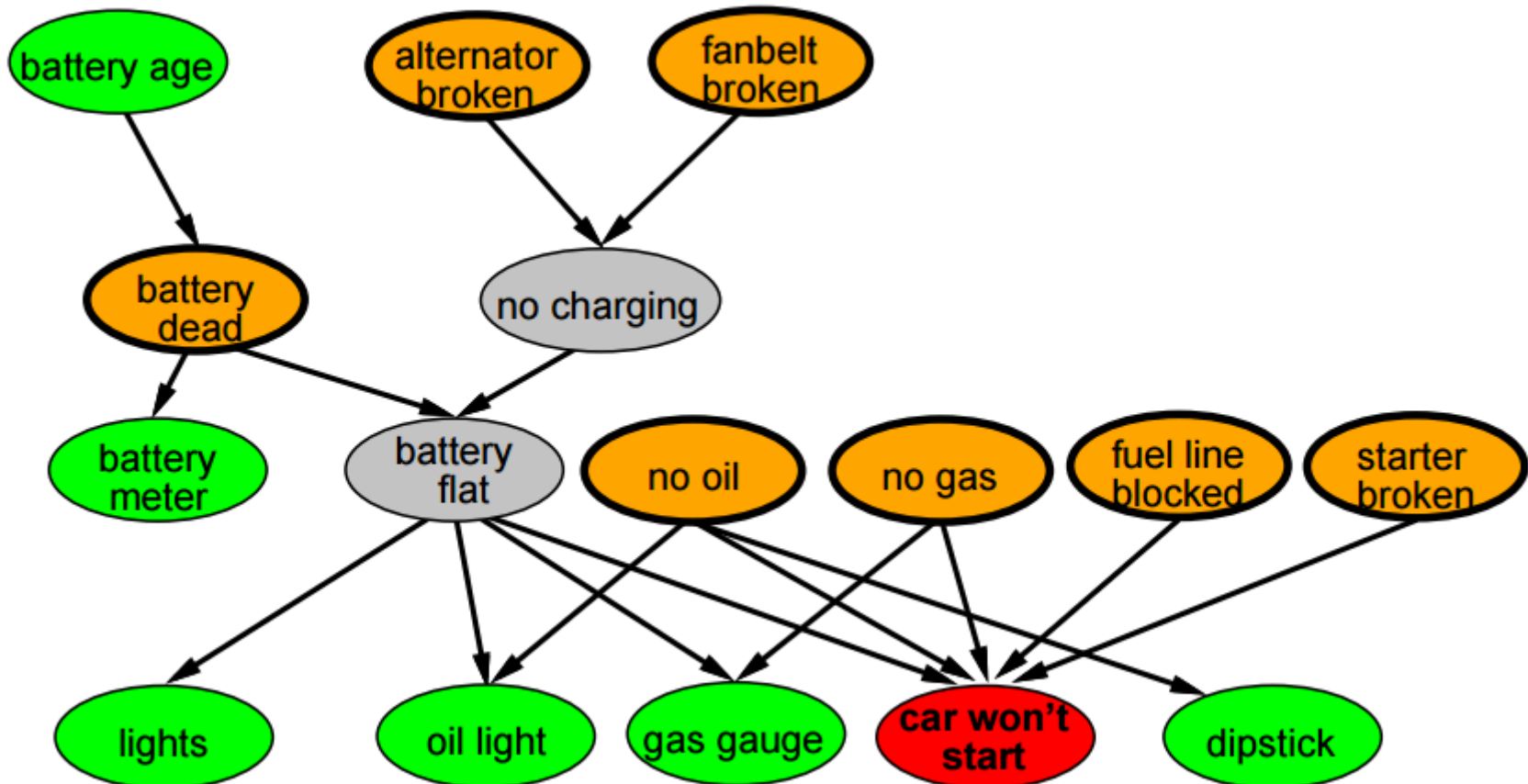
# Markov Blanket

- Here is a more complicated network, from the textbook, for car diagnostics.
- How does  $P(\text{battery dead})$  compare to  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{car won't start})$ ?
- $P(\text{battery dead}) < P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{car won't start})$ , since “battery dead” is a possible cause (indirectly, through “battery flat”) of “car won't start”.



# Markov Blanket

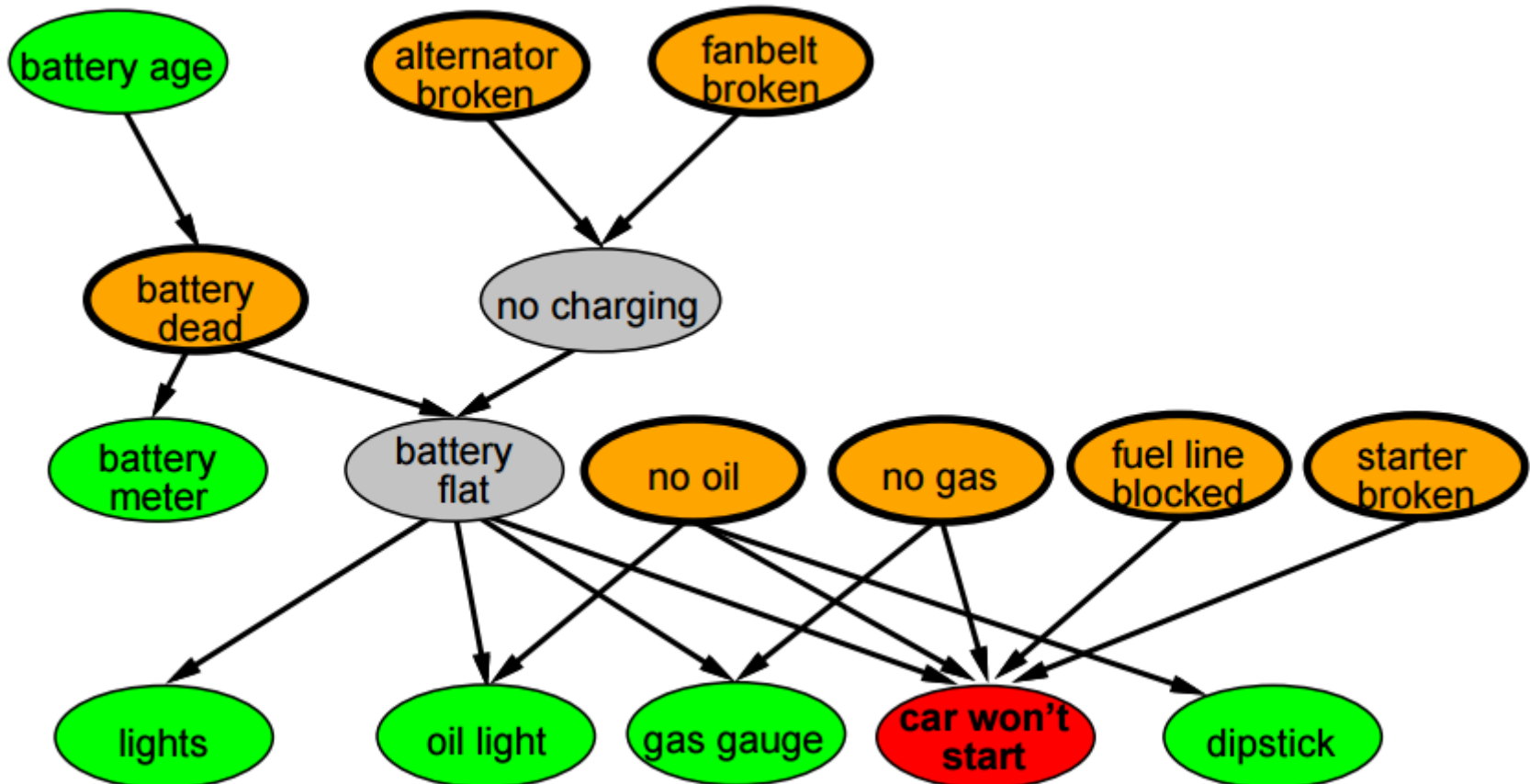
- How does  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat})$  compare to  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat, car won't start})$ ?





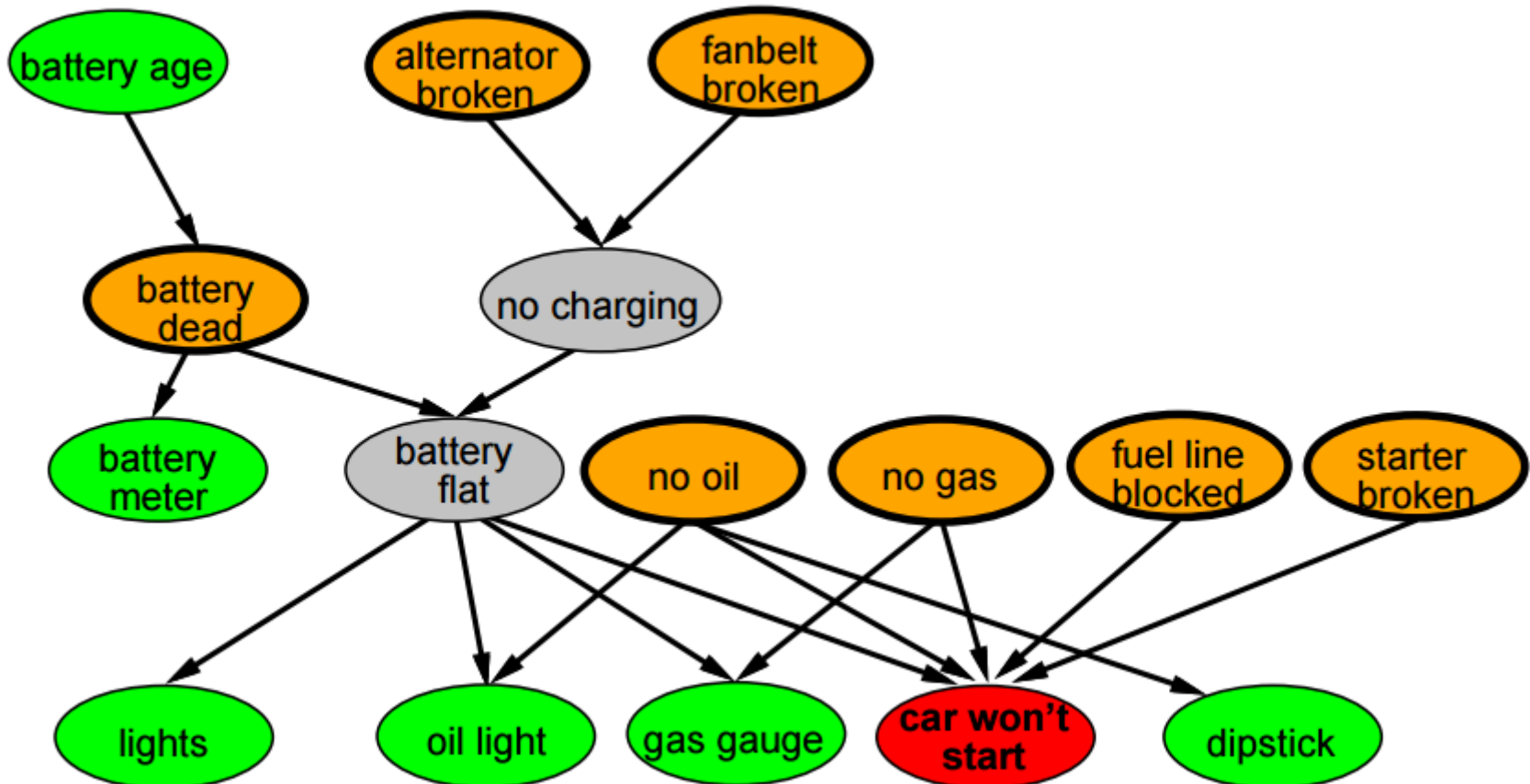
# Markov Blanket

- $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat}) = P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat}, \text{car won't start})$ .  
If we know that the battery is flat, the fact that the car won't start does not tell us anything more about the battery being dead.



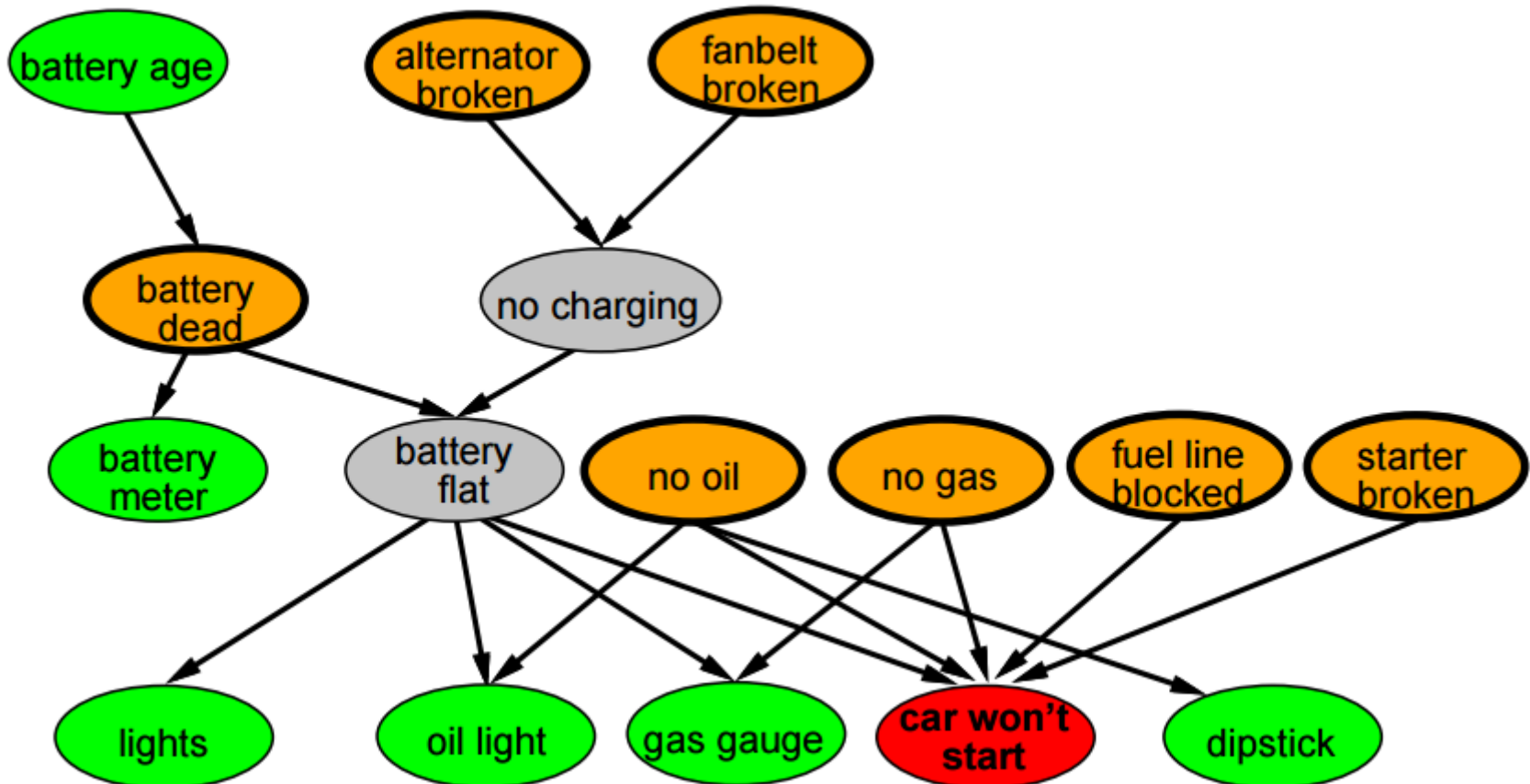
# Markov Blanket

- How does  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat})$  compare to  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat, no charging})$ ?



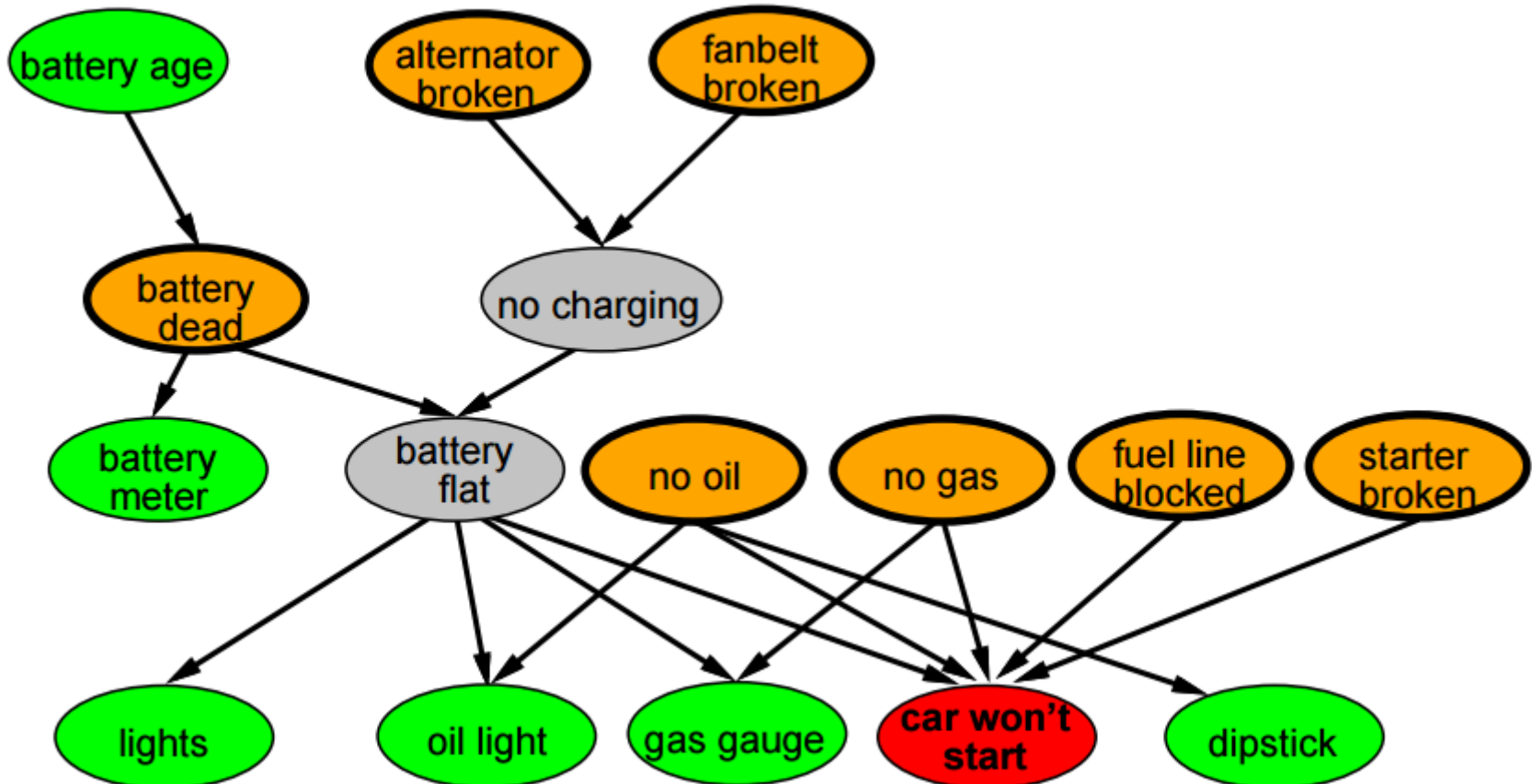
# Markov Blanket

- How does  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat})$  compare to  $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat, no charging})$ ?
- $P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat}) > P(\text{battery dead} \mid \text{battery flat, no charging})$ , since “no charging” is another cause of “battery flat”.



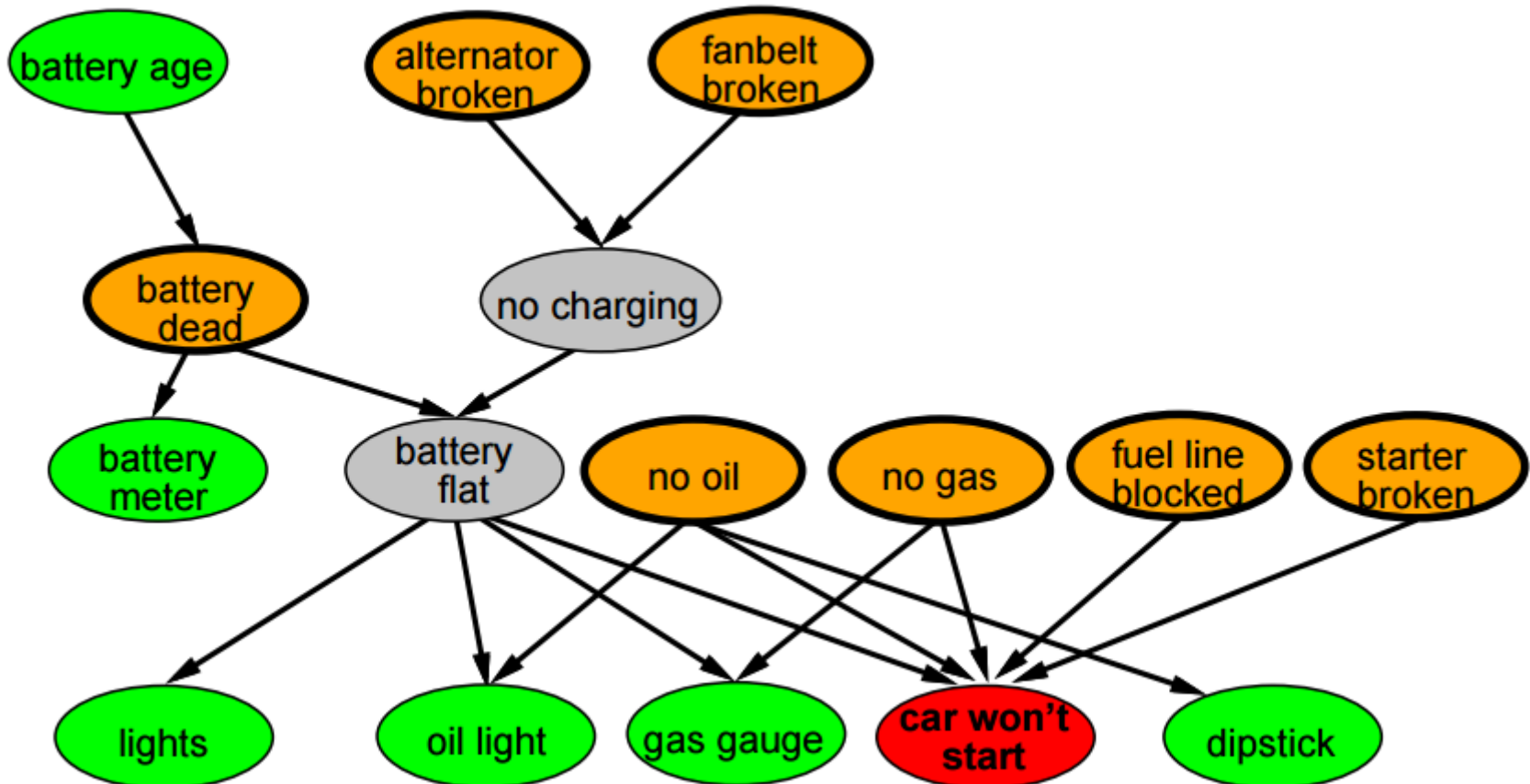
# Markov Blanket

- What is the Markov Blanket of “no charging”?



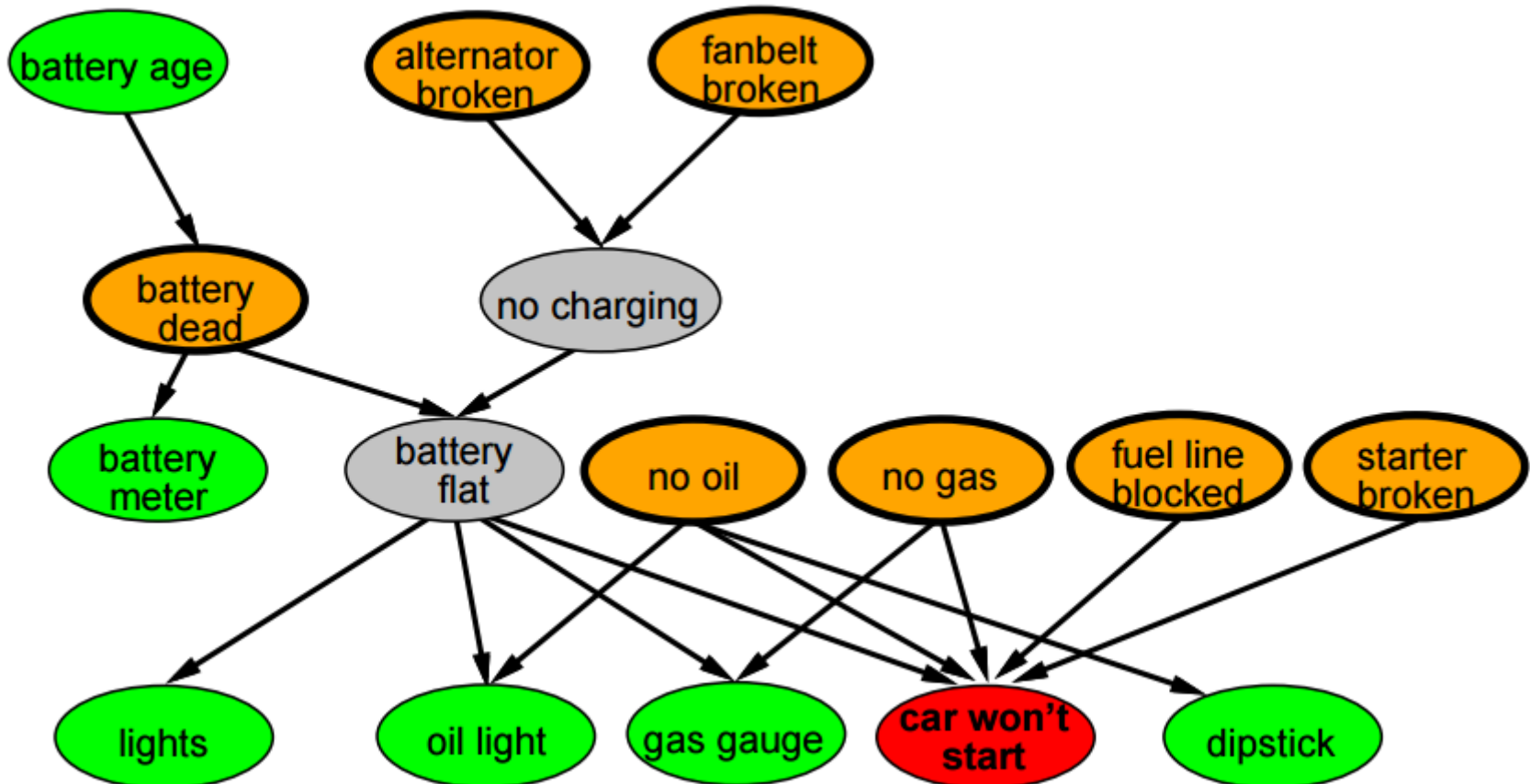
# Markov Blanket

- What is the Markov Blanket of “no charging”?
- Its parents: “alternator broken”, “fanbelt broken”.
- Its children: “battery flat”.
- Its children’s parents: “battery dead”.



# Markov Blanket

- Therefore, if we know the values of “alternator broken”, “fanbelt broken”, “battery flat”, “battery dead”, no other value gives us any more information about the “no charging” variable.



# Bayesian Networks - Recap

- Bayesian networks are useful for:
  - Representing joint distributions with much fewer numbers than using a joint distribution table.
  - Doing inference faster than using enumeration (though enumeration is the only inference method that we cover in this course).
- Inference by enumeration (which takes exponential time) is done using repeated applications of the joint distribution equation:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$$

- The Markov Blanket provides useful intuition about how different nodes affect each other.
  - If A causes B, then A being true makes B more likely.
  - If A causes B, then B being true makes A more likely.
  - If A causes B, and B is true, then competing causes of B make A less likely.