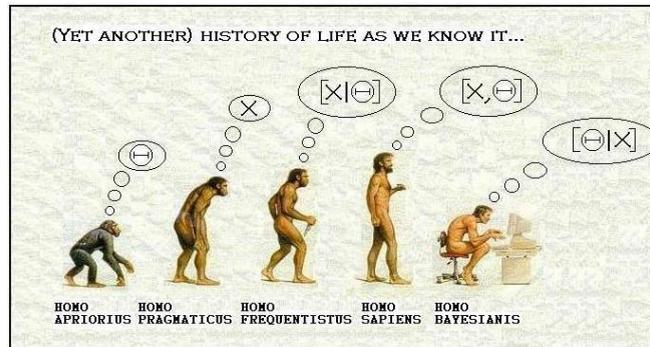


CSE 473

Lecture 21 (Chapter 14)

Bayesian Networks

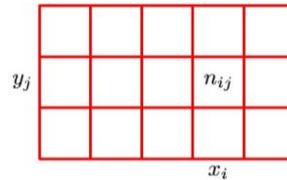


(Courtesy Mike West)

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Joint Probability

$$p(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \frac{n_{ij}}{N}$$

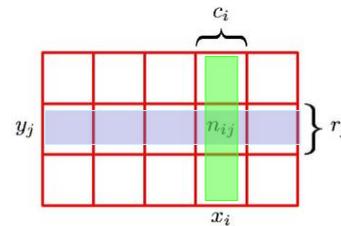


Total number of events = N

Marginal Probability

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_j P(x_i, y_j) = \frac{c_i}{N}$$

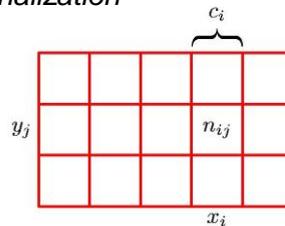
$$P(Y = y_j) = \sum_i P(x_i, y_j) = \frac{r_j}{N}$$



Summing out a variable is called *marginalization*

Conditional Probability

$$p(Y = y_j | X = x_i) = \frac{n_{ij}}{c_i}$$



Recall: Bayes' Rule

$$P(x, y) = P(x | y)P(y) = P(y | x)P(x)$$

i.e.

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

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Normalization in Bayes' Rule

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

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{P(y)} = \frac{1}{\sum_x P(y, x)} = \frac{1}{\sum_x P(y | x) P(x)}$$

α is called the normalization constant
(can be calculated by summing over numerator values)

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Why is Bayes rule useful?

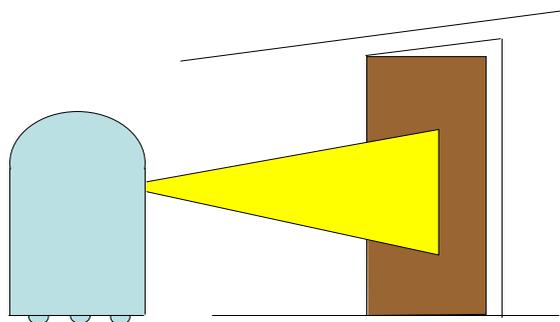
Allows diagnostic reasoning from causal information:

$$P(\text{Cause}|\text{Effect}) = \frac{P(\text{Effect}|\text{Cause})P(\text{Cause})}{P(\text{Effect})}$$

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Example 1: State Estimation

- Suppose a robot obtains measurement z
- What is $P(\text{doorOpen}|z)$?



Causal vs. Diagnostic Reasoning

- $P(open|z)$ is **diagnostic**.
- $P(z|open)$ is **causal**.
- Often **causal** knowledge is easier to obtain. **count frequencies!**
- Bayes rule allows us to use causal knowledge to diagnose a situation:

$$P(open | z) = \frac{P(z | open)P(open)}{P(z)}$$

State Estimation Example

- Suppose: $P(z|open) = 0.6$ $P(z|\neg open) = 0.3$
- $P(open) = P(\neg open) = 0.5$

$$P(open | z) = \frac{P(z | open)P(open)}{P(z | open)p(open) + P(z | \neg open)p(\neg open)}$$

$$P(open | z) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.5}{0.6 \cdot 0.5 + 0.3 \cdot 0.5} = \frac{0.30}{0.45} = 0.67$$

Measurement z raises the probability that the door is open from 0.5 to 0.67

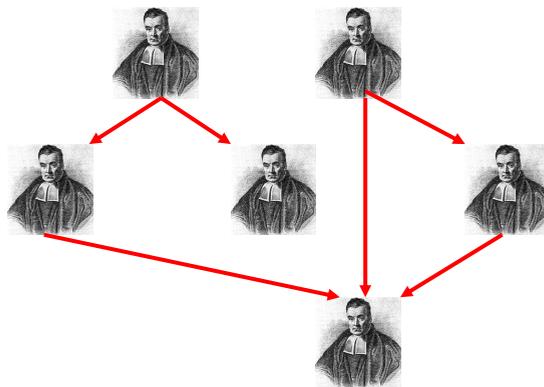
Is there a general representation scheme for efficient probabilistic inference?



Yes!



Enter...Bayesian networks

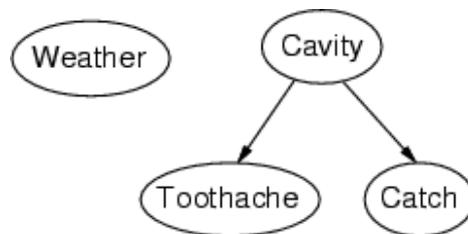


What are Bayesian networks?

- Simple, graphical notation for conditional independence assertions
 - Allows compact specification of full joint distributions

Example: Back at the Dentist's

- Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:



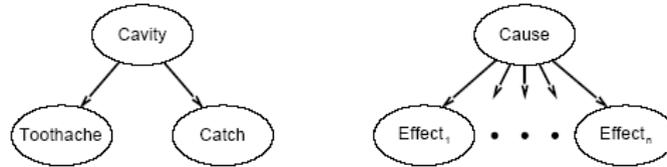
- *Weather* is independent of the other variables
- *Toothache* and *Catch* are conditionally independent of each other *given Cavity*

Conditional Independence and the “Naïve Bayes Model”

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache \wedge catch) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(toothache \wedge catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity) \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of a *naive Bayes* model:

$$\mathbf{P}(Cause, Effect_1, \dots, Effect_n) = \mathbf{P}(Cause) \prod_i \mathbf{P}(Effect_i|Cause)$$

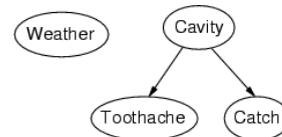


Total number of parameters is *linear* in n

Bayesian networks

- **Syntax:**
 - set of nodes, one per random variable
 - directed, acyclic graph (link \approx "directly influences")
 - conditional distribution for each node given its parents:

$$\mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i))$$
- For discrete variables, conditional distribution = conditional probability table (CPT) = distribution over X_i for each combination of parent values

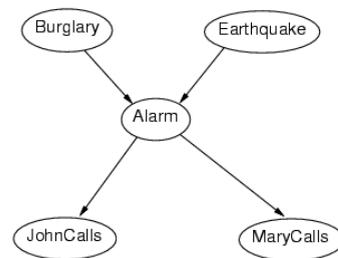


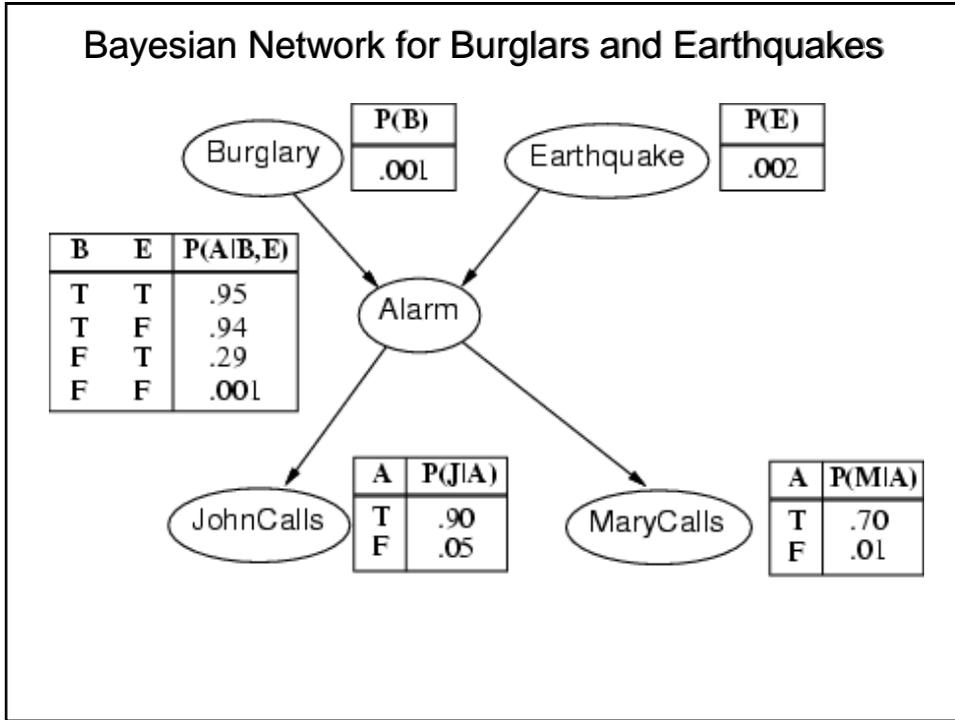
Example 2: Burglars and Earthquakes

- You are at a “Done with the AI class” party.
- Neighbor John calls to say your home alarm has gone off (but neighbor Mary doesn't).
- Sometimes your alarm is set off by minor earthquakes.
- Question: Is your home being burglarized?

Example 2: Burglars and Earthquakes

- Variables: *Burglary*, *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





Compact Representation of Probabilities in Bayesian Networks

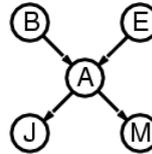
- A CPT for Boolean X_i with k Boolean parents has 2^k rows for the combinations of parent values
- Each row requires one number p for $X_i = \text{true}$ (the other number for $X_i = \text{false}$ is just $1-p$)
- If each variable has no more than k parents, an n -variable network requires $O(n \cdot 2^k)$ numbers
 - This grows linearly with n vs. $O(2^n)$ for full joint distribution
- For burglar network, $1+1+4+2+2 = 10$ numbers (vs. $2^5-1 = 31$ numbers) for full joint distribution

k parents

Bayesian Network Semantics

- Full joint distribution is defined as product of local conditional distributions:

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



- e.g., Joint probability of all variables being true = ?

$$\begin{aligned} &P(j \wedge m \wedge a \wedge b \wedge e) \\ &= P(j | a) P(m | a) P(a | b, e) P(b) P(e) \end{aligned}$$

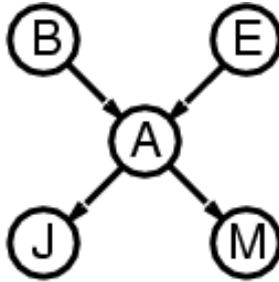
- Similarly, $P(j \wedge m \wedge a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg e)$
 $= P(j | a) P(m | a) P(a | \neg b, \neg e) P(\neg b) P(\neg e)$

Probabilistic Inference in BNs

- The graphical independence representation yields efficient inference schemes
- We generally want to compute
 - $P(X|E)$ where E is evidence from sensory measurements etc. (known values for variables)
 - Sometimes, may want to compute just $P(X)$
- One simple inference algorithm:
 - variable elimination (VE)*

What is the probability of burglary given that John and Mary called?

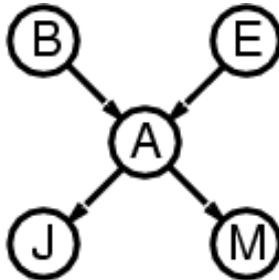
Compute $P(B=\text{true} \mid J=\text{true}, M=\text{true})$



$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha P(b,j,m) = \alpha \sum_{e,a} P(b,j,m,e,a)$$

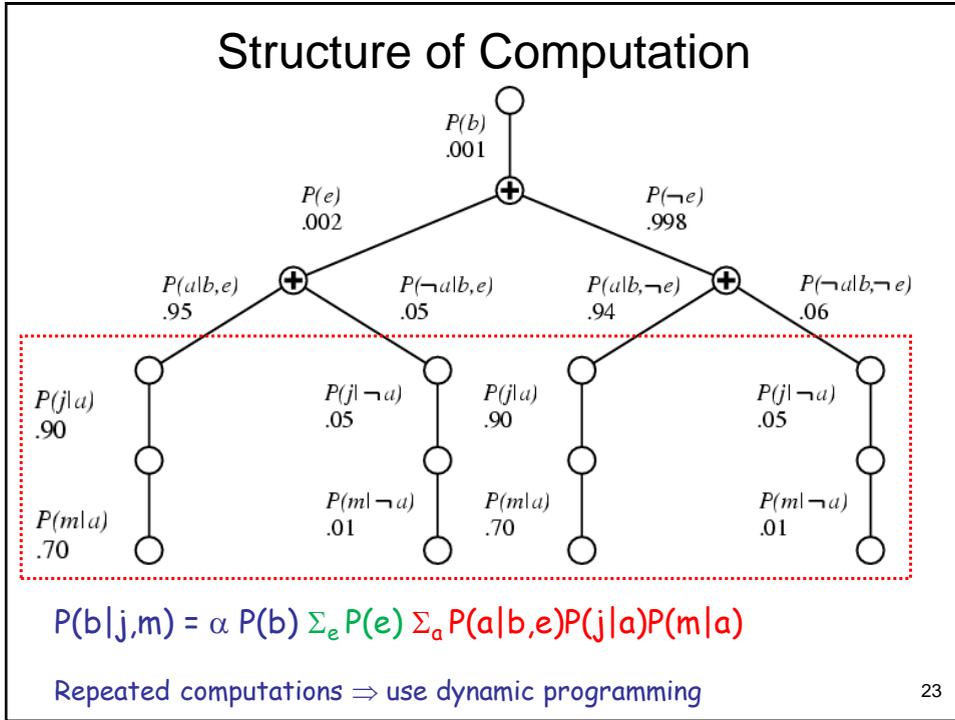
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Computing $P(B=\text{true} \mid J=\text{true}, M=\text{true})$



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

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Next Time

- Inference Algorithms
 - Variable Elimination (VE)
- Hidden Markov Models
- To Do:
 - Project 3 due Sunday before midnight



Bayes rules!