Bayesian Networks

Read R&N Ch. 14.1-14.2

Next lecture: Read R&N 18.1-18.4

You will be expected to know

- Basic concepts and vocabulary of Bayesian networks.
 - Nodes represent random variables.
 - Directed arcs represent (informally) direct influences.
 - Conditional probability tables, P(Xi | Parents(Xi)).
- Given a Bayesian network:
 - Write down the full joint distribution it represents.
- Given a full joint distribution in factored form:
 - Draw the Bayesian network that represents it.
- Given a variable ordering and some background assertions of conditional independence among the variables:
 - Write down the factored form of the full joint distribution, as simplified by the conditional independence assertions.

Computing with Probabilities: Law of Total Probability

Law of Total Probability (aka "summing out" or marginalization) $P(a) = \Sigma_b P(a, b)$ $= \Sigma_b P(a \mid b) P(b)$ where B is any random variable

Why is this useful?

given a joint distribution (e.g., P(a,b,c,d)) we can obtain any "marginal" probability (e.g., P(b)) by summing out the other variables, e.g.,

 $P(b) = \Sigma_a \Sigma_c \Sigma_d P(a, b, c, d)$

Less obvious: we can also compute <u>any conditional probability of interest</u> given a joint distribution, e.g.,

$$P(c \mid b) = \Sigma_a \Sigma_d P(a, c, d \mid b)$$

= (1 / P(b)) $\Sigma_a \Sigma_d P(a, c, d, b)$
where (1 / P(b)) is just a normalization constant

Thus, the joint distribution contains the information we need to compute any probability of interest.

We can always write P(a, b, c, ... z) = P(a | b, c, z) P(b, c, ... z) (by definition of joint probability)

Repeatedly applying this idea, we can write $P(a, b, c, ... z) = P(a \mid b, c, ... z) P(b \mid c, ... z) P(c \mid ... z) ..P(z)$

This factorization holds for any ordering of the variables

This is the chain rule for probabilities

Conditional Independence

- 2 random variables A and B are conditionally independent given C iff
 P(a, b | c) = P(a | c) P(b | c) for all values a, b, c
- More intuitive (equivalent) conditional formulation
 - A and B are conditionally independent given C iff
 P(a | b, c) = P(a | c)
 OR P(b | a, c) = P(b | c), for all values a, b, c
 - Intuitive interpretation:

P(a | b, c) = P(a | c) tells us that learning about b, given that we already know c, provides no change in our probability for a, i.e., b contains no information about a beyond what c provides

- Can generalize to more than 2 random variables
 - E.g., K different symptom variables X1, X2, ... XK, and C = disease
 - $P(X1, X2, \dots, XK \mid C) = \prod P(Xi \mid C)$
 - Also known as the naïve Bayes assumption

"...probability theory is more fundamentally concerned with the <u>structure</u> of reasoning and causation than with numbers."

Glenn Shafer and Judea Pearl Introduction to Readings in Uncertain Reasoning, Morgan Kaufmann, 1990

Bayesian Networks

- A Bayesian network specifies a joint distribution in a structured form
- Represent dependence/independence via a directed graph
 - Nodes = random variables
 - Edges = direct dependence
- Structure of the graph ⇔ Conditional independence relations

In general,

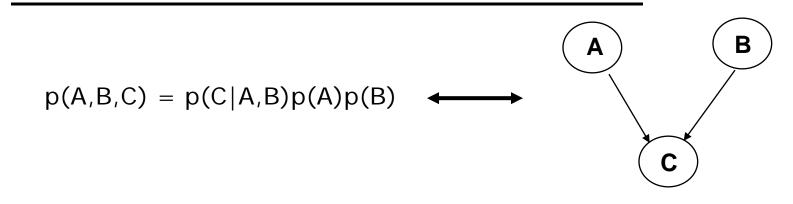
 $p(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) = \prod p(X_i \mid parents(X_i))$

The full joint distribution

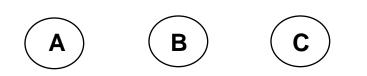
The graph-structured approximation

- Requires that graph is acyclic (no directed cycles)
- 2 components to a Bayesian network
 - The graph structure (conditional independence assumptions)
 - The numerical probabilities (for each variable given its parents)

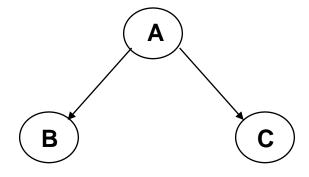
Example of a simple Bayesian network



- Probability model has simple factored form
- Directed edges => direct dependence
- Absence of an edge => conditional independence
- Also known as belief networks, graphical models, causal networks
- Other formulations, e.g., undirected graphical models



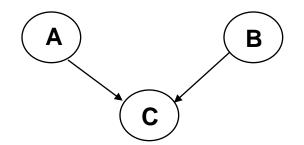
Marginal Independence: p(A,B,C) = p(A) p(B) p(C)



Conditionally independent effects: p(A,B,C) = p(B|A)p(C|A)p(A)

B and C are conditionally independent Given A

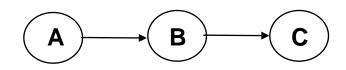
e.g., A is a disease, and we model B and C as conditionally independent symptoms given A



Independent Causes: p(A,B,C) = p(C|A,B)p(A)p(B)

"Explaining away" effect: Given C, observing A makes B less likely e.g., earthquake/burglary/alarm example

A and B are (marginally) independent but become dependent once C is known

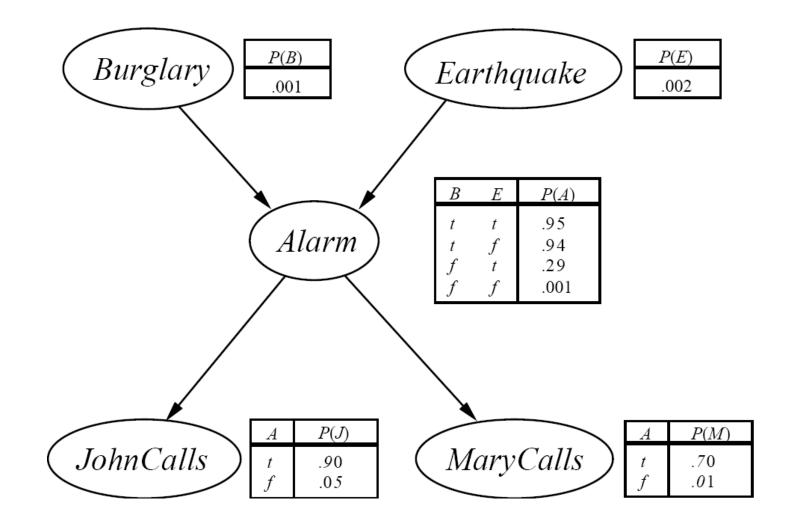


Markov dependence: p(A,B,C) = p(C|B) p(B|A)p(A)

Example

- Consider the following 5 binary variables:
 - B = a burglary occurs at your house
 - E = an earthquake occurs at your house
 - A =the alarm goes off
 - J = John calls to report the alarm
 - M = Mary calls to report the alarm
 - What is P(B | M, J) ? (for example)
 - We can use the full joint distribution to answer this question
 - Requires $2^5 = 32$ probabilities
 - Can we use prior domain knowledge to come up with a Bayesian network that requires fewer probabilities?

The Desired Bayesian Network



Constructing a Bayesian Network: Step 1

• Order the variables in terms of causality (may be a partial order)

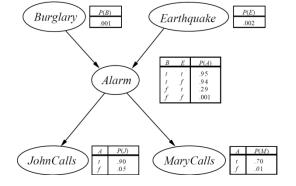
e.g., {E, B} -> {A} -> {J, M}

- P(J, M, A, E, B) = P(J, M | A, E, B) P(A | E, B) P(E, B)
 - \approx P(J, M | A) P(A| E, B) P(E) P(B)
 - \approx P(J | A) P(M | A) P(A | E, B) P(E) P(B)

These CI assumptions are reflected in the graph structure of the Bayesian network

Constructing this Bayesian Network: Step 2

• P(J, M, A, E, B) =P(J | A) P(M | A) P(A | E, B) P(E) P(B)

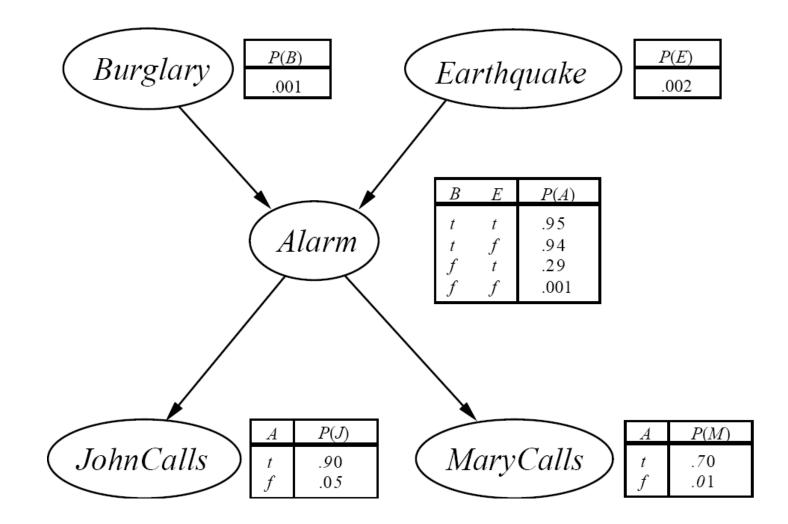


 There are 3 conditional probability tables (CPDs) to be determined: P(J | A), P(M | A), P(A | E, B)

- Requiring 2 + 2 + 4 = 8 probabilities

- And 2 marginal probabilities P(E), P(B) -> 2 more probabilities
- Where do these probabilities come from?
 - Expert knowledge
 - From data (relative frequency estimates)
 - Or a combination of both see discussion in Section 20.1 and 20.2 (optional)

The Resulting Bayesian Network



Example (done the simple, marginalization way)

So, what is P(B | M, J) ?
 E.g., say, P(b | m, ¬j) , i.e., P(B=true | M=true ∧ J=false)

 $P(b \mid m, \neg j) = P(b, m, \neg j) / P(m, \neg j)$; by definition

 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{b}, \mathsf{m}, \neg \mathsf{j}) = \Sigma \mathsf{A} \in \{a, \neg a\} \Sigma \mathsf{E} \in \{e, \neg e\} \mathsf{P}(\neg \mathsf{j}, \mathsf{m}, \mathsf{A}, \mathsf{E}, \mathsf{b}) ; \text{marginal}$

P(J, M, A, E, B) ≈ P(J | A) P(M | A) P(A | E, B) P(E) P(B) ; conditional indep. P(¬j, m, A, E, b) ≈ P(¬j | A) P(m | A) P(A | E, b) P(E) P(b)

Say, work the case $A=a \land E=\neg e$ $P(\neg j, m, a, \neg e, b) \approx P(\neg j \mid a) P(m \mid a) P(a \mid \neg e, b) P(\neg e) P(b)$ $\approx 0.10 \times 0.70 \times 0.94 \times 0.998 \times 0.001$ Similar for the cases of $a \land e, \neg a \land e, \neg a \land \neg e$.

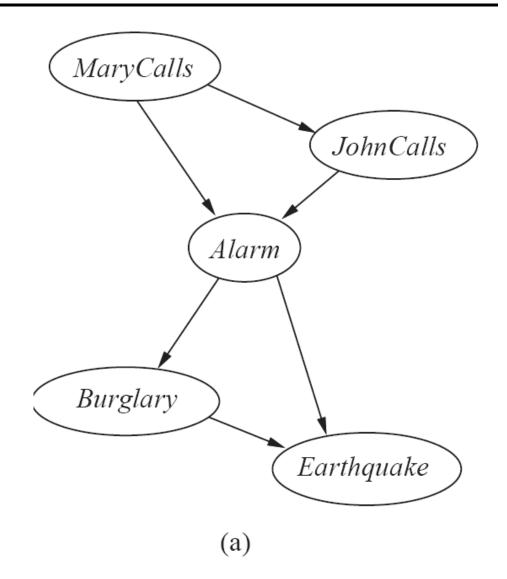
Similar for $P(m, \neg j)$. Then just divide to get $P(b \mid m, \neg j)$.

Number of Probabilities in Bayesian Networks

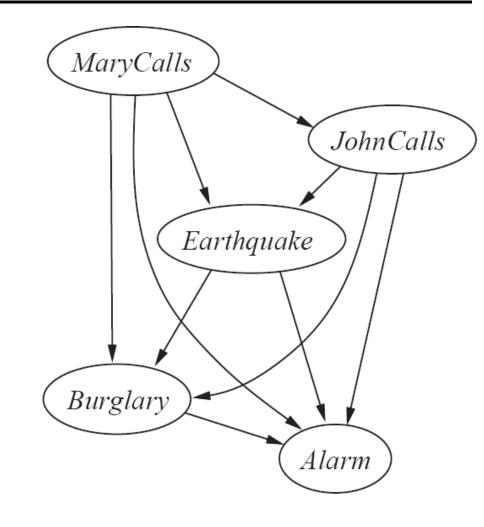
- Consider n binary variables
- Unconstrained joint distribution requires O(2ⁿ) probabilities

- If we have a Bayesian network, with a maximum of k parents for any node, then we need O(n 2^k) probabilities
- Example
 - Full unconstrained joint distribution
 - n = 30: need 10^9 probabilities for full joint distribution
 - Bayesian network
 - n = 30, k = 4: need 480 probabilities

The Bayesian Network from a different Variable Ordering



The Bayesian Network from a different Variable Ordering



(b)

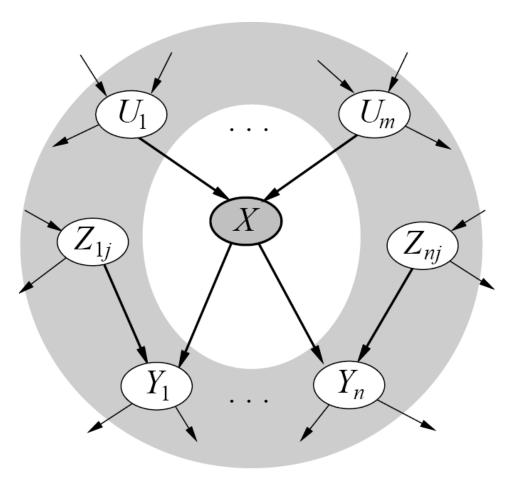
Given a graph, can we "read off" conditional independencies?

The "Markov Blanket" of X (the gray area in the figure)

X is conditionally independent of everything else, GIVEN the values of:

- * X's parents
- * X's children
- * X's children's parents

X is conditionally independent of its non-descendants, GIVEN the values of its parents.



General Strategy for inference

• Want to compute P(q | e)

Step 1:

 $P(q | e) = P(q,e)/P(e) = \alpha P(q,e)$, since P(e) is constant wrt Q

Step 2:

 $P(q,e) = \Sigma_{a..z} P(q, e, a, b, ..., z)$, by the law of total probability

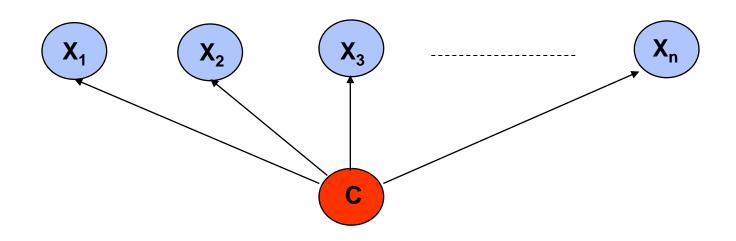
Step 3:

$$\Sigma_{a..z}$$
 P(q, e, a, b, z) = $\Sigma_{a..z}$ Π_i P(variable i | parents i)
(using Bayesian network factoring)

Step 4:

Distribute summations across product terms for efficient computation

Naïve Bayes Model



 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{C} \mid \mathsf{X}_1, \dots, \mathsf{X}_n) = \alpha \Pi \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{X}_i \mid \mathsf{C}) \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{C})$

Features X are conditionally independent given the class variable C

Widely used in machine learning e.g., spam email classification: X's = counts of words in emails

Probabilities P(C) and P(Xi | C) can easily be estimated from labeled data

 $\mathsf{P}(\mathsf{C} \mid \mathsf{X}_1, \dots, \mathsf{X}_n) = \alpha \Pi \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{X}_i \mid \mathsf{C}) \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{C})$

Probabilities P(C) and P(Xi | C) can easily be estimated from labeled data

 $P(C = cj) \approx #(Examples with class label cj) / #(Examples)$

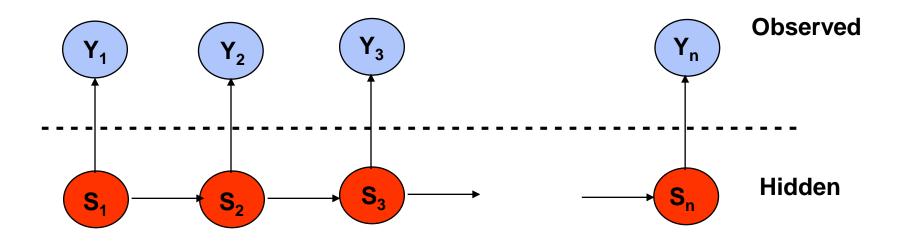
P(Xi = xik | C = cj) ≈ #(Examples with Xi value xik and class label cj) / #(Examples with class label cj)

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Usually easiest to work with logs
log [ P(C | X_1,...,X_n) ]
= log \alpha + \Sigma [ log P(X_i | C) + log P (C) ]
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DANGER: Suppose ZERO examples with Xi value xik and class label cj? An unseen example with Xi value xik will NEVER predict class label cj !

Practical solutions: Pseudocounts, e.g., add 1 to every #(), etc. Theoretical solutions: Bayesian inference, beta distribution, etc.

Hidden Markov Model (HMM)



Two key assumptions:

- 1. hidden state sequence is Markov
- 2. observation Y_t is CI of all other variables given S_t

Widely used in speech recognition, protein sequence models

Since this is a Bayesian network polytree, inference is linear in n

Summary

- Bayesian networks represent a joint distribution using a graph
- The graph encodes a set of conditional independence assumptions
- Answering queries (or inference or reasoning) in a Bayesian network amounts to efficient computation of appropriate conditional probabilities
- Probabilistic inference is intractable in the general case
 - But can be carried out in linear time for certain classes of Bayesian networks