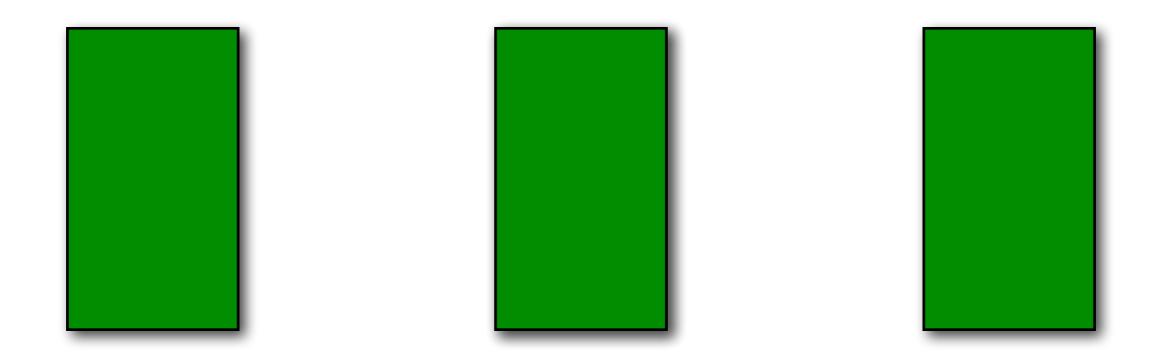
# Probabilistic representation and reasoning

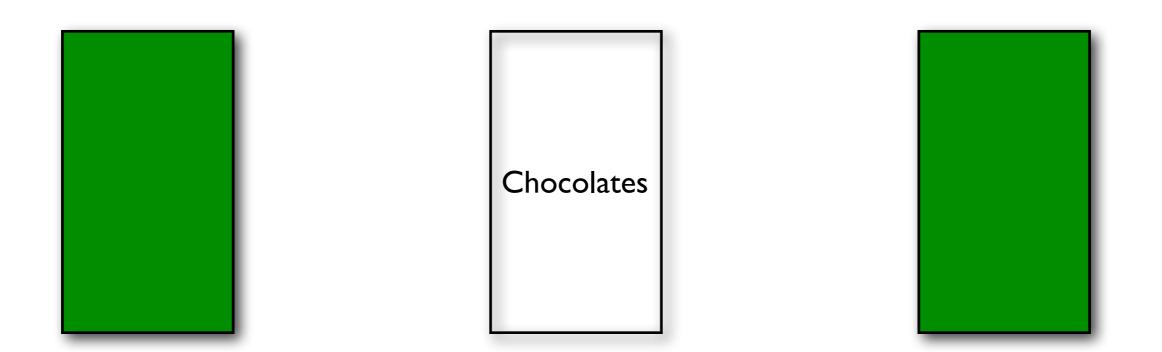
Applied artificial intelligence (EDA132)
Lecture 09
2017-02-15
Elin A.Topp

Material based on course book, chapter 13, 14.1-3

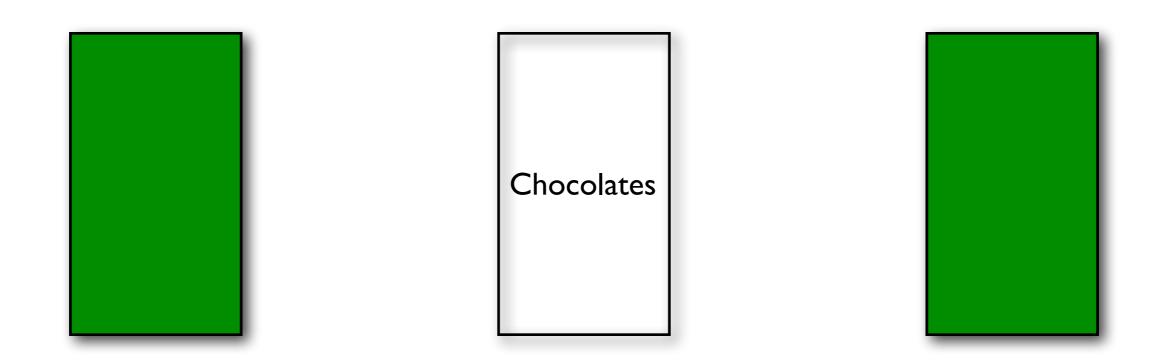
Two boxes of chocolates, one luxury car. Where is the car?



Two boxes of chocolates, one luxury car. Where is the car?

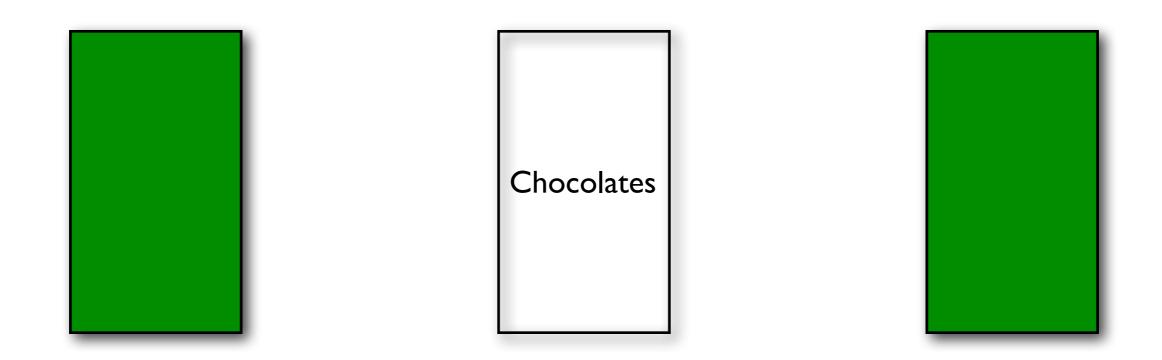


Two boxes of chocolates, one luxury car. Where is the car?



Philosopher: It does not matter whether I change my choice, I will either get chocolates or a car.

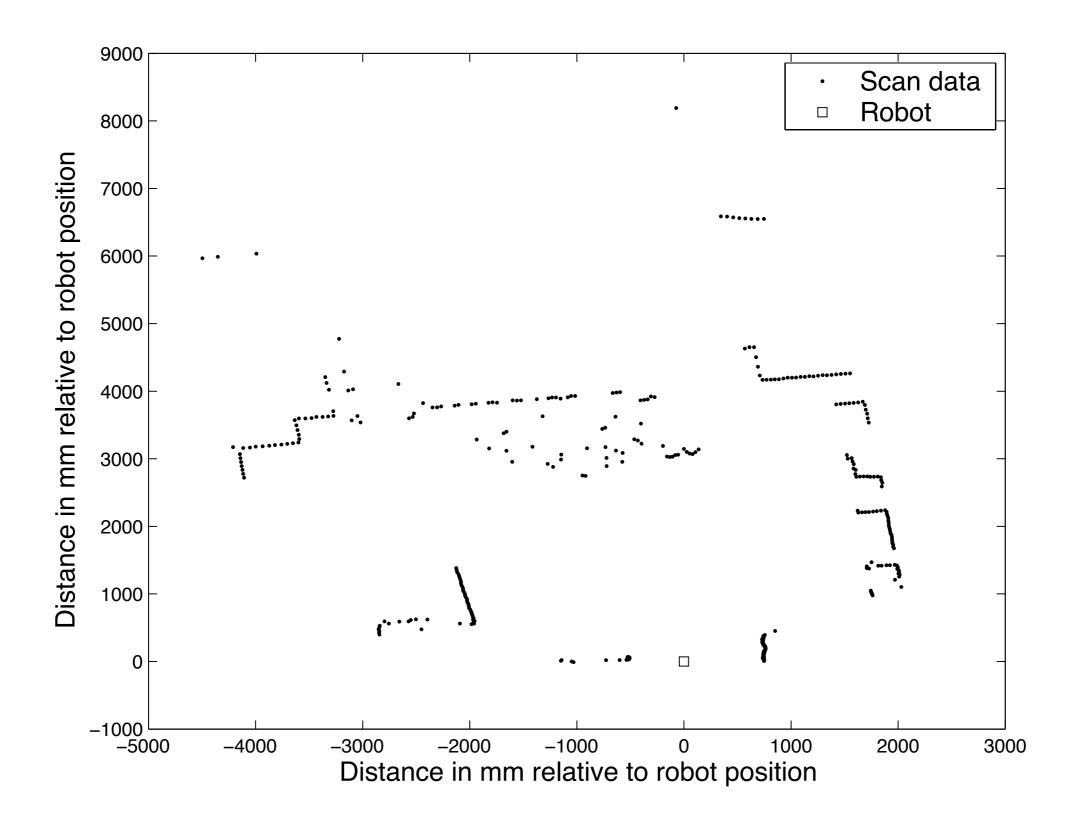
Two boxes of chocolates, one luxury car. Where is the car?



Philosopher: It does not matter whether I change my choice, I will either get chocolates or a car.

Mathematician: It is more likely to get the car when I alter my choice - even though it is not certain!

## A robot's view of the world...



# What category of "thing" is shown to me?







## What category of "thing" is shown to me?







Object? Workspace? Room? Link to room? Can we reason about behavioural features and what is causing them?

## Outline

- Uncertainty & probability (chapter 13)
  - Uncertainty represented as probability
  - Syntax and Semantics
  - Inference
  - Independence and Bayes' Rule
- Bayesian Networks (chapter 14.1-3)
  - Syntax
  - Semantics

## Outline

- Uncertainty & probability (chapter 13)
  - Uncertainty represented as probability
  - Syntax and Semantics
  - Inference
  - Independence and Bayes' Rule
- Bayesian Networks (chapter 14.1-3)
  - Syntax
  - Semantics

## Using logic in an uncertain world?

Can we find rules to describe every possible outcome, even when we cannot observe everything? (Chess, Go - and then there was Poker)

Fixing such "rules" would mean to make them logically exhaustive, but that is bound to fail due to:

Laziness (too much work to list all options)

Theoretical ignorance (there is simply no complete theory)

Practical ignorance (might be impossible to test exhaustively)

- ⇒ better use **probabilities** to represent certain **knowledge states**
- ⇒ Rational decisions (decision theory) combine probability and utility theory

## Probability basics

Given a set  $\Omega$  - the sample space, e.g., the 6 possible rolls of a die,

 $\omega \in \Omega$  a sample point / possible world / atomic event, e.g., the outcome "2".

A probability space or probability model is a sample space  $\Omega$  with an assignment  $P(\omega)$  for every  $\omega \in \Omega$  so that:

$$0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$$

$$\sum_{\omega} P(\omega) = I$$

An event a is any subset of  $\Omega$ 

$$P(a) = \sum_{\{\omega \in A\}} P(\omega)$$

E.g., 
$$P(\text{die roll} < 4) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$$

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A proposition describes the event (set of sample points) where it (the proposition) holds, i.e.,

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A proposition describes the event (set of sample points) where it (the proposition) holds, i.e., given Boolean random variables A and B:

event  $a = \text{set of sample points } \omega$  where  $A(\omega) = \text{true}$ event  $\neg a = \text{set of sample points } \omega$  where  $A(\omega) = \text{false}$ event  $a \land b = \text{points } \omega$  where  $A(\omega) = \text{true and } B(\omega) = \text{true}$ 

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A proposition describes the event (set of sample points) where it (the proposition) holds, i.e.,

given Boolean random variables A and B:

```
event a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true}
event \neg a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{false}
event a \land b = \text{points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true and } B(\omega) = \text{true}
```

Often in Al applications, the sample points are defined by the values of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian product of the ranges of the variables.

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A proposition describes the event (set of sample points) where it (the proposition) holds, i.e.,

given Boolean random variables A and B:

```
event a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true}
event \neg a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{false}
event a \land b = \text{points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true and } B(\omega) = \text{true}
```

Often in Al applications, the sample points are defined by the values of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian product of the ranges of the variables.

Probability P induces a probability distribution for any random variable X

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_{\{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the Reals or Booleans,

e.g., when rolling a die and looking for odd numbers,

Odd( n) = true, for 
$$n \in \{1, 3, 5\}$$

A proposition describes the event (set of sample points) where it (the proposition) holds, i.e.,

given Boolean random variables A and B:

```
event a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true}
event \neg a = \text{set of sample points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{false}
event a \land b = \text{points } \omega where A(\omega) = \text{true and } B(\omega) = \text{true}
```

Often in Al applications, the sample points are defined by the values of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian product of the ranges of the variables.

Probability P induces a probability distribution for any random variable X

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_{\{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

e.g., 
$$P(Odd = true) = \sum_{\{n:Odd(n) = true\}} P(n) = P(1) + P(3) + P(5) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$$

Probabilistic assertions summarise effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Probabilistic assertions summarise effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

Probabilistic assertions summarise effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

Probabilities relate propositions to one's state of knowledge ( $A_{25}$  = "leaving for airport 25 min prior to departure is enough")

e.g., 
$$P(A_{25}) = 0.04$$

e.g.,  $P(A_{25} \mid no \text{ reported accidents}) = 0.06$ 

Probabilistic assertions summarise effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

Probabilities relate propositions to one's state of knowledge ( $A_{25}$  = "leaving for airport 25 min prior to departure is enough")

e.g., 
$$P(A_{25}) = 0.04$$

e.g., 
$$P(A_{25} \mid no \text{ reported accidents}) = 0.06$$

Not claims of a "probabilistic tendency" in the current situation, but maybe learned from past experience of similar situations.

Probabilistic assertions summarise effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

Probabilities relate propositions to one's state of knowledge ( $A_{25}$  = "leaving for airport 25 min prior to departure is enough")

e.g., 
$$P(A_{25}) = 0.04$$

e.g., 
$$P(A_{25} \mid no \text{ reported accidents}) = 0.06$$

Not claims of a "probabilistic tendency" in the current situation, but maybe learned from past experience of similar situations.

Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:

e.g.,  $P(A_{25} \mid no \text{ reported accidents, it's } 5:00 \text{ in the morning}) = 0.15$ 

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g., 
$$P(Cavity = true) = 0.2$$
 and

$$P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72$$
 (e.g., known from statistics)

correspond to belief prior to the arrival of any (new) evidence

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g., 
$$P(Cavity = true) = 0.2$$
 and

$$P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72$$
 (e.g., known from statistics)

correspond to belief prior to the arrival of any (new) evidence

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments (normalised):

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$$

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g., 
$$P(Cavity = true) = 0.2$$
 and

$$P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72$$

(e.g., known from statistics)

correspond to belief prior to the arrival of any (new) evidence

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments (normalised):

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$$

Joint probability distribution for a set of (independent) random variables gives the probability of every atomic event on those random variables (i.e., every sample point):

 $\mathbb{P}(Weather, Cavity) = a 4 \times 2 \text{ matrix of values:}$ 

Weather	sunny	rain	cloudy	snow
Cavity				
true	0,144	0,02	0,016	0,02
false	0,576	0,08	0,064	0,08

Most often, there is some information, i.e., evidence, that one can base their belief on:

e.g., P(cavity) = 0.2 (prior, no evidence for anything), but

P(cavity | toothache) = 0.6

corresponds to belief after the arrival of some evidence (also: posterior or conditional probability).

OBS: NOT "if toothache, then 60% chance of cavity"

**THINK** "given that toothache is all I know" instead!

Most often, there is some information, i.e., evidence, that one can base their belief on:

e.g., P(cavity) = 0.2 (prior, no evidence for anything), but

 $P(cavity \mid toothache) = 0.6$ 

corresponds to belief after the arrival of some evidence (also: posterior or conditional probability).

OBS: NOT "if toothache, then 60% chance of cavity"

**THINK** "given that toothache is all I know" instead!

Evidence remains valid after more evidence arrives, but it might become less useful

Evidence may be completely useless, i.e., irrelevant.

 $P(cavity \mid toothache, sunny) = P(cavity \mid toothache)$ 

Domain knowledge lets us do this kind of inference.

Definition of conditional / posterior probability:

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \quad \text{if } P(b) \neq 0$$

Definition of conditional / posterior probability:

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \quad \text{if } P(b) \neq 0$$

or as Product rule (for a and b being true, we need b true and then a true, given b):

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$$

Definition of conditional / posterior probability:

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \quad \text{if } P(b) \neq 0$$

or as *Product rule* (for a <u>and</u> b being true, we need b true <u>and</u> then a true, given b):

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$$

and in general for whole distributions (e.g.):

```
\mathbb{P}(Weather, Cavity) = \mathbb{P}(Weather \mid Cavity) \mathbb{P}(Cavity) (gives a 4x2 set of equations)
```

## Posterior probability (2)

Definition of conditional / posterior probability:

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \quad \text{if } P(b) \neq 0$$

or as *Product rule* (for a <u>and</u> b being true, we need b true <u>and</u> then a true, given b):

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$$

and in general for whole distributions (e.g.):

$$\mathbb{P}(Weather, Cavity) = \mathbb{P}(Weather \mid Cavity) \mathbb{P}(Cavity)$$
 (gives a  $4x2$  set of equations)

Chain rule (successive application of product rule):

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n}) = \mathbb{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) \, \mathbb{P}(X_{n} \mid X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) 
= \mathbb{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \, \mathbb{P}(X_{n-1} \mid X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \, \mathbb{P}(X_{n} \mid X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) 
= ... = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(X_{i} \mid X_{1},...,X_{i-1})$$

#### **Probabilistic inference:**

Computation of posterior probabilities given observed evidence starting out with the full joint distribution as "knowledge base":

Inference by enumeration

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

For any proposition  $\Phi$ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\Phi) = \sum_{\omega : \omega \models \Phi} P(\omega)$$

#### **Probabilistic inference:**

Computation of posterior probabilities given observed evidence

starting out with the full joint distribution as "knowledge base":

Inference by enumeration

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

For any proposition  $\Phi$ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\Phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \Phi} P(\omega)$$

$$P(\text{toothache}) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2$$

#### **Probabilistic inference:**

Computation of posterior probabilities given observed evidence

starting out with the full joint distribution as "knowledge base":

Inference by enumeration

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

For any proposition  $\Phi$ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\Phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \Phi} P(\omega)$$

 $P(cavity \lor toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28$ 

#### **Probabilistic inference:**

Computation of posterior probabilities given observed evidence

starting out with the full joint distribution as "knowledge base":

Inference by enumeration

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

Can also compute posterior probabilities:

$$P(\neg cavity \mid toothache) = \frac{P(\neg cavity \land toothache)}{P(toothache)}$$
$$= \frac{0.016 + 0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064} = 0.4$$

### Normalisation

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

#### Denominator can be viewed as a normalisation constant:

### Normalisation

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	0,108	0,012	0,072	0,008
¬ cavity	0,016	0,064	0,144	0,576

Denominator can be viewed as a normalisation constant:

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{Cavity} \mid \text{toothache}) = \alpha \, \mathbb{P}(\text{Cavity, toothache})$$

$$= \alpha \, [\mathbb{P}(\text{Cavity, toothache, catch}) + \mathbb{P}(\text{Cavity, toothache, } \neg \text{catch})]$$

$$= \alpha \, [\langle 0.108, 0.016 \rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064 \rangle]$$

$$= \alpha \, \langle 0.12, 0.08 \rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4 \rangle$$

#### And the good news:

We can compute  $\mathbb{P}(Cavity \mid toothache)$  without knowing the value of P(toothache)!

### Inference gone bad

A young student suffers from depression. In her diary she **speculates** about her childhood and the possibility of her father abusing her during childhood. She had reported headaches to her friends and therapist, and started writing the diary due to the therapist's recommendation.

due to the therapist's recommendation. The father ends up in court, since "headaches are caused by PTSD, and PTSD is caused by abuse" Would you agree?

### Inference gone bad

A young student suffers from depression. In her diary she **speculates** about her childhood and the possibility of her father abusing her during childhood. She had reported headaches to her friends and therapist, and started writing the diary due to the therapist's recommendation.

The father ends up in court, since

"headaches are caused by PTSD, and PTSD is caused by abuse"

Would you agree?

```
Psychologist knowing "the math" argues:

P( headache | PTSD) = high (statistics)

P( PTSD | abuse in childhood) = high (statistics)

ok, yes, sure, but:

You did not consider the relevant relations of

P( PTSD | headache) or

P( abuse in childhood | PTSD),

i.e., you mixed up cause and effect in your argumentation!
```

## Bayes' Rule

Recap product rule:  $P(a \land b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$ 

$$\Rightarrow$$
 Bayes' Rule  $P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(b \mid a) P(a)}{P(b)}$ 

or in distribution form:

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \mid X) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y) P(Y)}{P(X)} = \alpha \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y) P(Y)$$

Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability

$$P(Cause \mid Effect) = \frac{P(Effect \mid Cause) P(Cause)}{P(Effect)}$$

E.g., with M "meningitis", S "stiff neck":

$$P(m \mid s) = \frac{P(s \mid m) P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.7 * 0.00002}{0.01} = 0.0014$$
 (not too bad, really!)

### All is well that ends well ...

We can model cause-effect relationships,
we can base our judgement on mathematically sound inference,
we can even do this inference with only partial knowledge on the priors, ...

### ... but

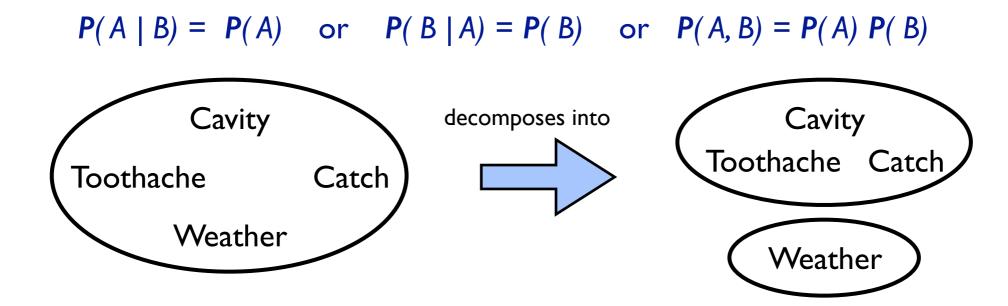
n Boolean variables give us an input table of size  $O(2^n)$  ...

(and for non-Booleans it gets even more nasty...)

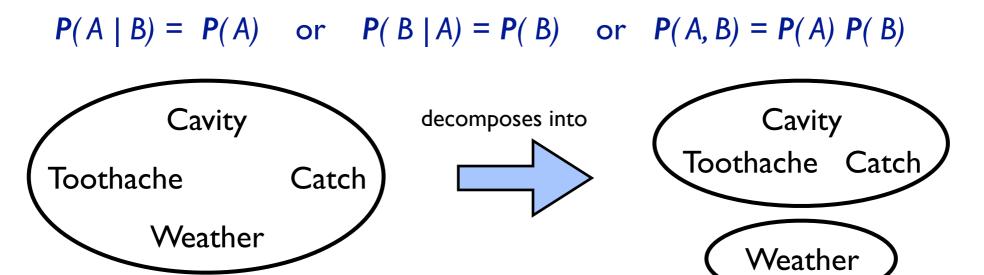
A and B are independent iff

$$P(A \mid B) = P(A)$$
 or  $P(B \mid A) = P(B)$  or  $P(A, B) = P(A) P(B)$ 

#### A and B are independent iff

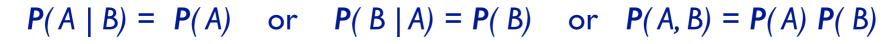


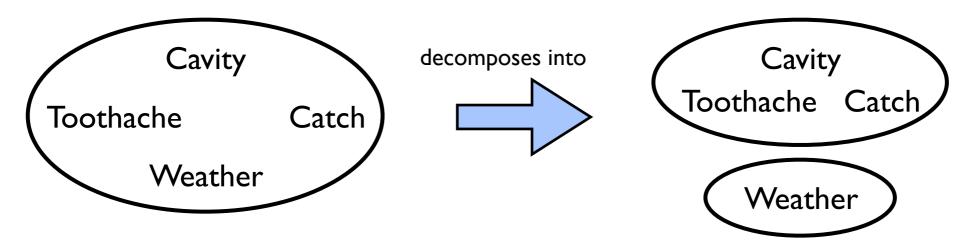
#### A and B are independent iff



 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}, \text{Weather}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Weather})$ 

#### A and B are independent iff

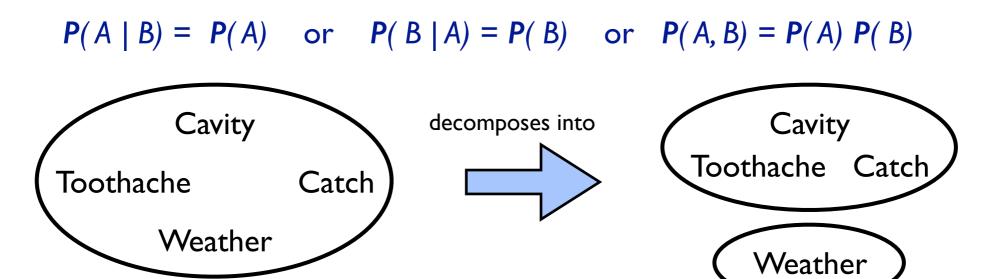




 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}, \text{Weather}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Weather})$ 

32 entries reduced to 8 + 4 (Weather is not Boolean!). This absolute (unconditional) independence is powerful but rare!

A and B are independent iff



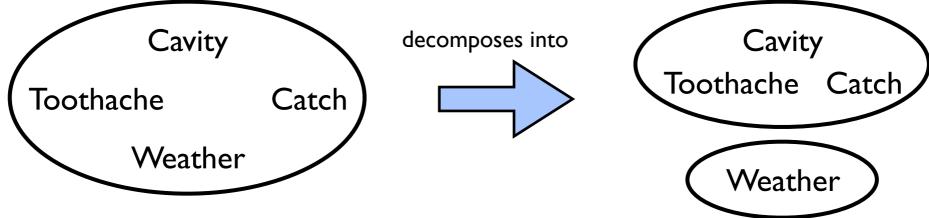
 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}, \text{Weather}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Weather})$ 

32 entries reduced to 8 + 4 (Weather is not Boolean!). This absolute (unconditional) independence is powerful but rare!

Some fields (like dentistry) have still a lot, maybe hundreds, of variables, none of them being independent.

A and B are independent iff

$$P(A \mid B) = P(A)$$
 or  $P(B \mid A) = P(B)$  or  $P(A, B) = P(A) P(B)$ 



 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}, \text{Weather}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Weather})$ 

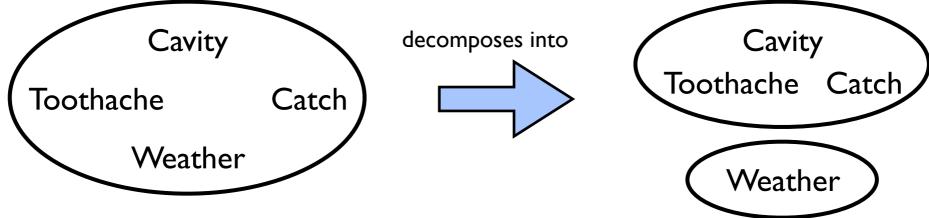
32 entries reduced to 8 + 4 (Weather is not Boolean!). This absolute (unconditional) independence is powerful but rare!

Some fields (like dentistry) have still a lot, maybe hundreds, of variables, none of them being independent.

What can be done to overcome this mess...?

A and B are independent iff

$$P(A \mid B) = P(A)$$
 or  $P(B \mid A) = P(B)$  or  $P(A, B) = P(A) P(B)$ 



 $\mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}, \text{Weather}) = \mathbb{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) \mathbb{P}(\text{Weather})$ 

32 entries reduced to 8 + 4 (Weather is not Boolean!). This absolute (unconditional) independence is powerful but rare!

Some fields (like dentistry) have still a lot, maybe hundreds, of variables, none of them being independent.

What can be done to overcome this mess...?

## Conditional independence

```
\mathbb{P}(Toothache, Cavity, Catch) has 2^3 - I = 7 independent entries (must sum up to I)
```

But: If there is a cavity, the probability for "catch" does not depend on whether there is a toothache:

```
(1) P( catch | toothache, cavity) = P( catch | cavity)
```

The same holds when there is no cavity:

```
(2) P(\text{ catch } | \text{ toothache}, \neg \text{cavity}) = P(\text{ catch } | \neg \text{cavity})
```

Catch is conditionally independent of Toothache given Cavity:

```
\mathbb{P}(Catch \mid Toothache, Cavity) = \mathbb{P}(Catch \mid Cavity)
```

Writing out full joint distribution using chain rule:

```
P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)
= P(Toothache | Catch, Cavity) P(Catch, Cavity)
= P(Toothache | Catch, Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity) P(Cavity)
= P(Toothache | Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity) P(Cavity)
```

gives thus 2 + 2 + 1 = 5 independent entries

## Conditional independence (2)

In most cases, the use of conditional independence reduces the size of the representation of the joint distribution from exponential in n to linear in n.

#### Hence:

Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments

### Summary

Probability is a way to formalise and represent uncertain knowledge

The joint probability distribution specifies probability over every atomic event

Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events

Bayes' rule can be applied to compute posterior probabilities so that diagnostic probabilities can be assessed from causal ones

For nontrivial domains, we must find a way to reduce the joint size

Independence and conditional independence provide the tools

### Outline

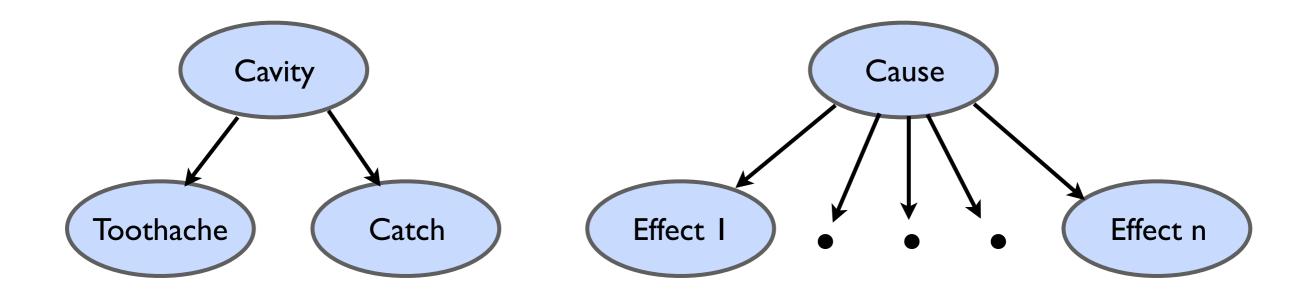
- Uncertainty & probability (chapter 13)
  - Uncertainty
  - Probability
  - Syntax and Semantics
  - Inference
  - Independence and Bayes' Rule
- Bayesian Networks (chapter 14.1-3)
  - Syntax
  - Semantics
  - Efficient representation

## Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

```
\mathbb{P}(Cavity \mid toothache \land catch)
= \alpha \mathbb{P}(toothache \land catch \mid Cavity) \mathbb{P}(Cavity)
= \alpha \mathbb{P}(toothache \mid Cavity) \mathbb{P}(catch \mid Cavity) \mathbb{P}(Cavity)
```

An example of a naive Bayes model:

$$\mathbb{P}(Cause, Effect_{i,...,} Effect_n) = \mathbb{P}(Cause) \prod_i \mathbb{P}(Effect_i \mid Cause)$$



The total number of parameters is *linear* in *n* 

## Bayesian networks

A simple, graphical notation for conditional independence assertions and hence for compact specification of full joint distributions

```
Syntax:
```

```
a set of nodes, one per random variable a directed, acyclic graph (link \approx "directly influences") a conditional distribution for each node given its parents: P(X_i | Parents(X_i))
```

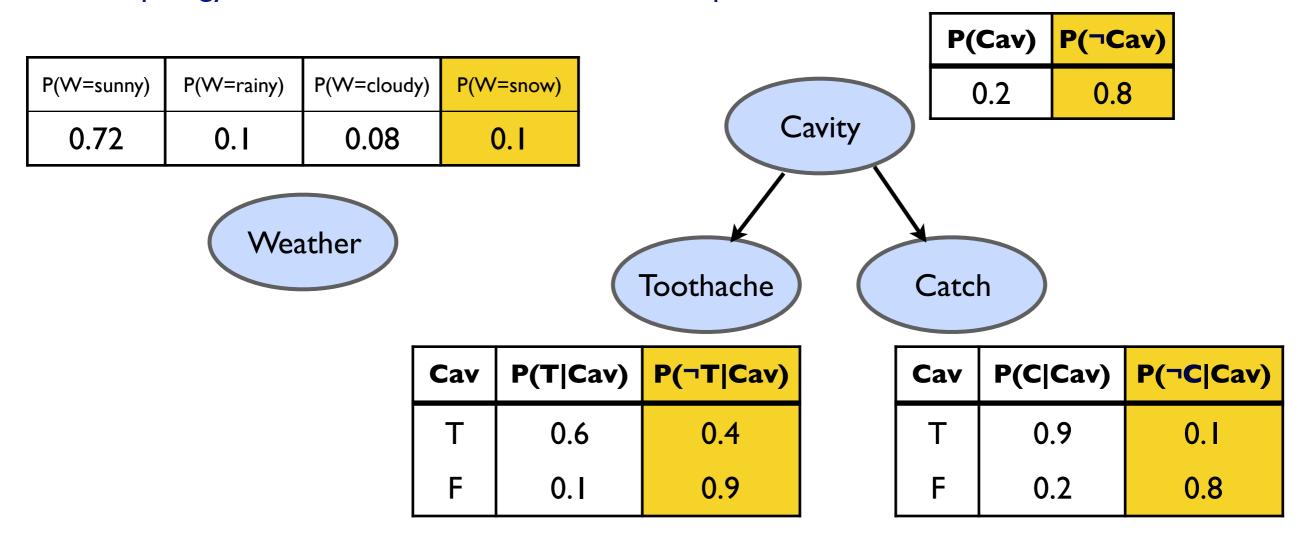
In the simplest case, conditional distribution represented as a

```
conditional probability table (CPT)
```

giving the distribution over  $X_i$  for each combination of parent values

## Example

Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:

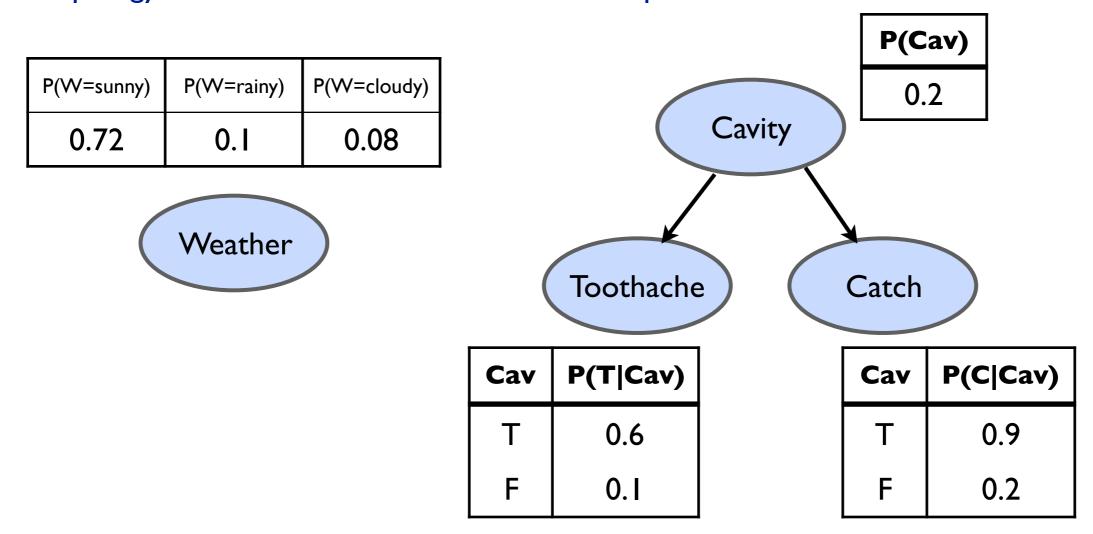


Weather is (unconditionally, absolutely) independent of the other variables

Toothache and Catch are conditionally independent given Cavity

## Example

Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:



Weather is (unconditionally, absolutely) independent of the other variables

Toothache and Catch are conditionally independent given Cavity

We can skip the dependent columns in the tables to reduce complexity!

### Example 2

I am at work, my neighbour John calls to say my alarm is ringing, but neighbour Mary does not call.

Sometimes the alarm is set off by minor earthquakes.

Is there a burglar?

Variables: Burglar, Earthquake, Alarm, JohnCalls, MaryCalls

Network topology reflects "causal" knowledge:

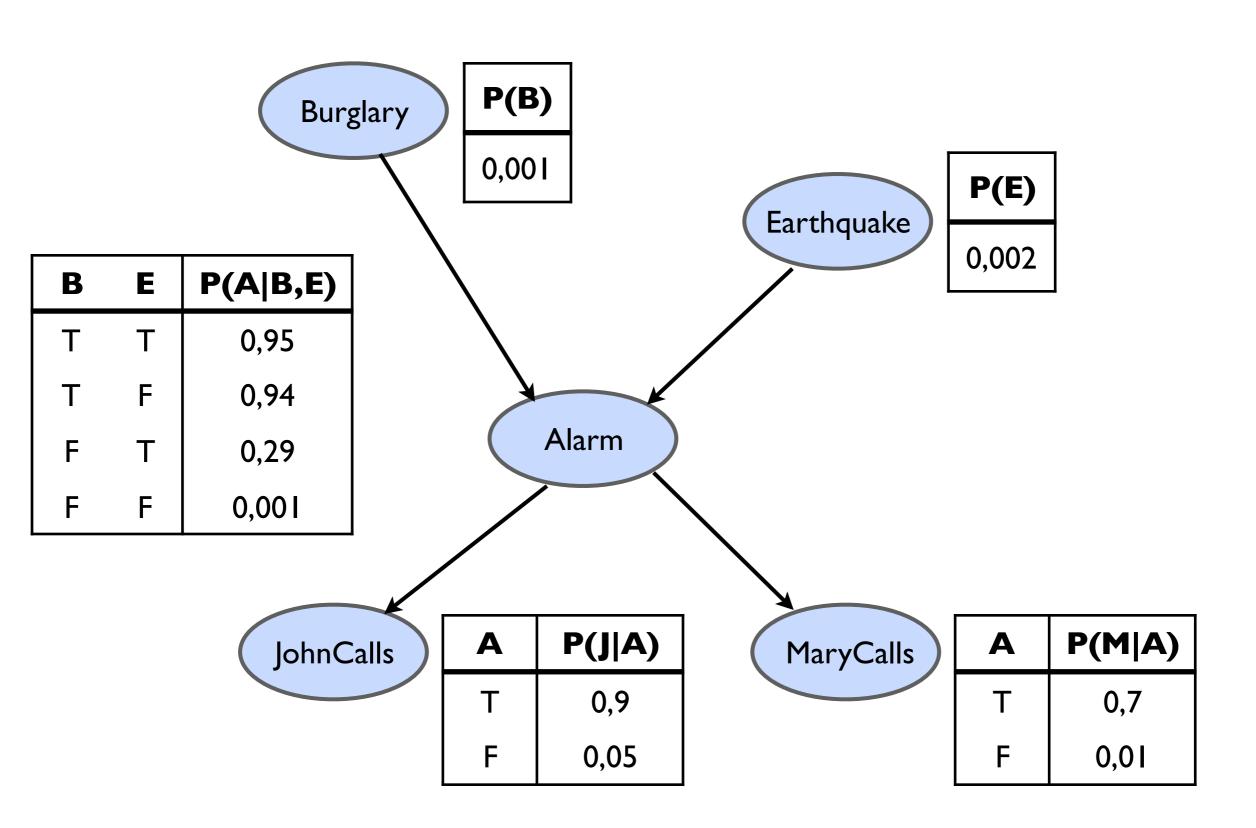
A burglar can set the alarm off

An earthquake can set the alarm off

The alarm can cause John to call

The alarm can cause Mary to call

## Example 2 (2)

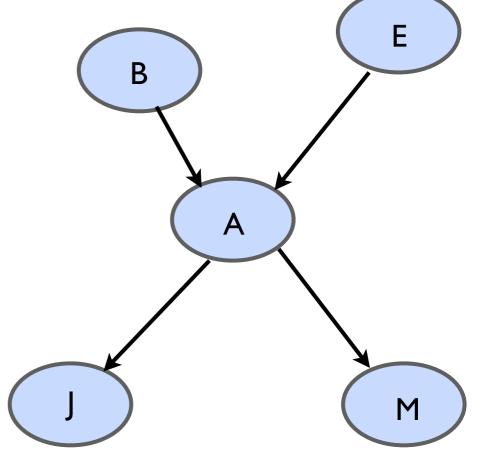


### Global semantics

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

$$P(x_{1,...,}x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i \mid parents(X_i))$$

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



### Global semantics

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

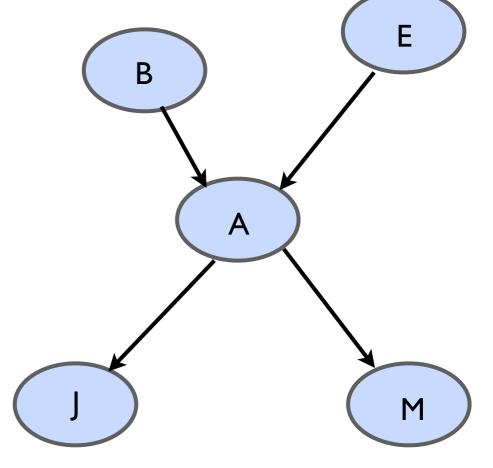
$$P(x_{1,...,}x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i \mid parents(X_i))$$

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

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

$$= 0.9 * 0.7 * 0.001 * 0.999 * 0.998$$

 $\approx 0.000628$ 



## Constructing Bayesian networks

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

- I. Choose an ordering of variables  $X_1,...,X_n$
- 2. For i = 1 to n

add  $X_i$  to the network

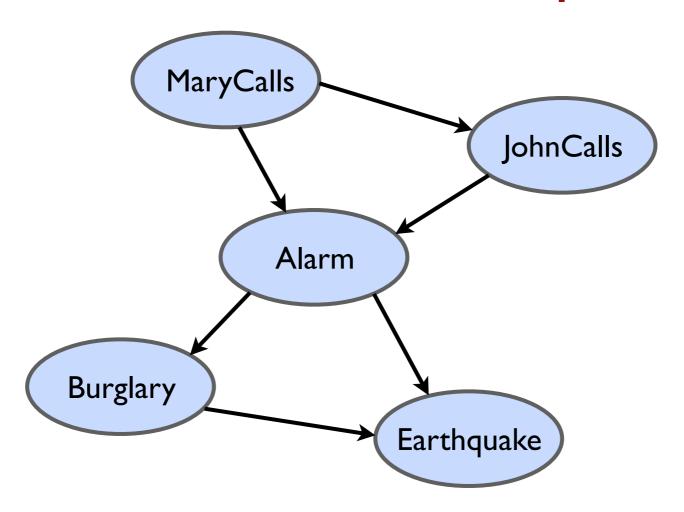
select parents from  $X_1,...,X_{i-1}$  such that

$$P(X_i | Parents(X_i)) = P(X_i | X_1,..., X_{i-1})$$

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

$$P(X_{l},...,X_{n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_{i} | X_{l},...,X_{i-1})$$
 (chain rule)  
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_{i} | Parents(X_{i}))$$
 (by construction)

### Construction example



Deciding conditional independence is hard in noncausal directions

(Causal models and conditional independence seem hardwired for humans!)

Assessing conditional probabilities is hard in noncausal directions

Network is less compact: 1 + 2 + 4 + 2 + 4 = 13 numbers

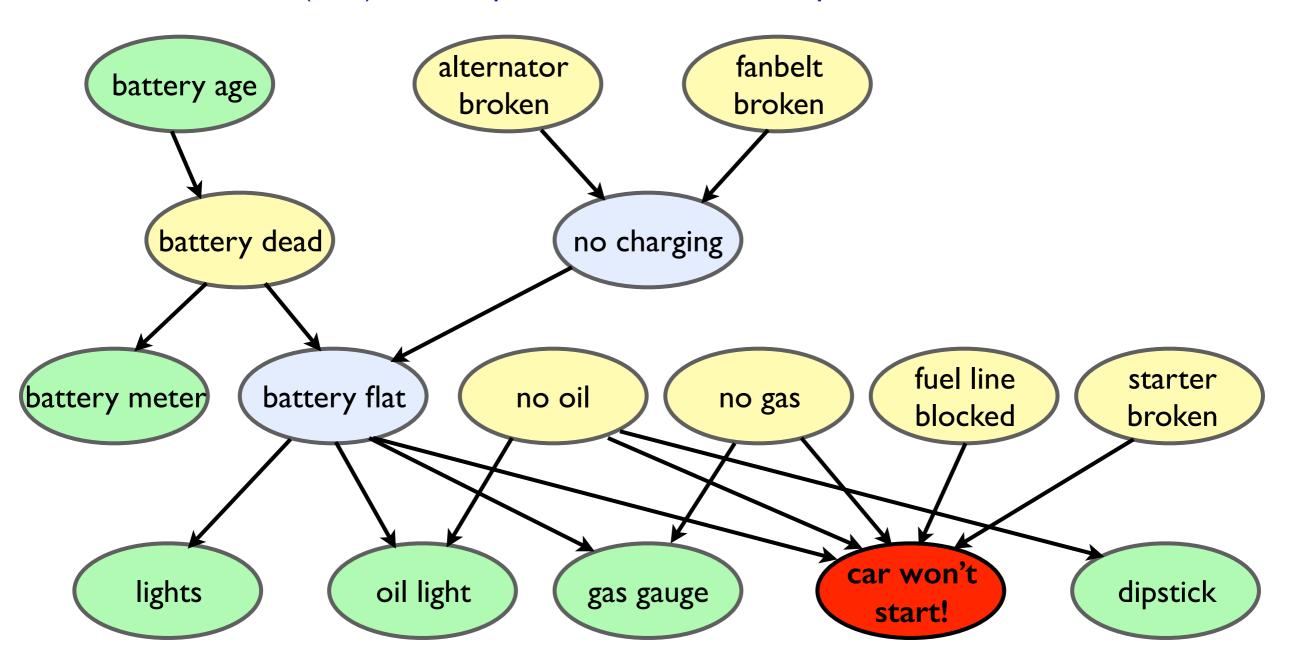
Hence: Choose preferably an order corresponding to the cause → effect "chain"

## Locally structured (sparse) network

Initial evidence: The \*\*\* car won't start!

Testable variables (green), "broken, so fix it" variables (yellow)

Hidden variables (blue) ensure sparse structure / reduce parameters



### Summary

Bayesian networks provide a natural representation for (causally induced) conditional independence

Topology + CPTs = compact representation of joint distribution

Generally easy for (non)experts to construct

And going further:

Continuous variables ⇒ parameterised distributions (e.g., linear Gaussians)

Do BNs help for the questions in the beginning? YES (but that story will be told later ...)