

On learning and inference

- Assume n binary random variables X₁,...,X_n
- A joint probability distribution P(X₁,...,X_n)
- Inference:
- compute the conditional probability distribution for the thing you want to know, given all that you know, marginalizing out all that you don't know and don't want to know
- In pricinple exponential, requires O(2ⁿ) operations
- Can be simplified if the joint distribution factorizes by independence: P(A,B)=P(A)P(B)
- Learning:
- learn the model structure: what is (conditionally) independent of what
- learn the parameters defining the "local" distributions
- Supervised learning: construct directly a model for the required conditional distribution, without forming the joint distribution first

Probabilistic reasoning

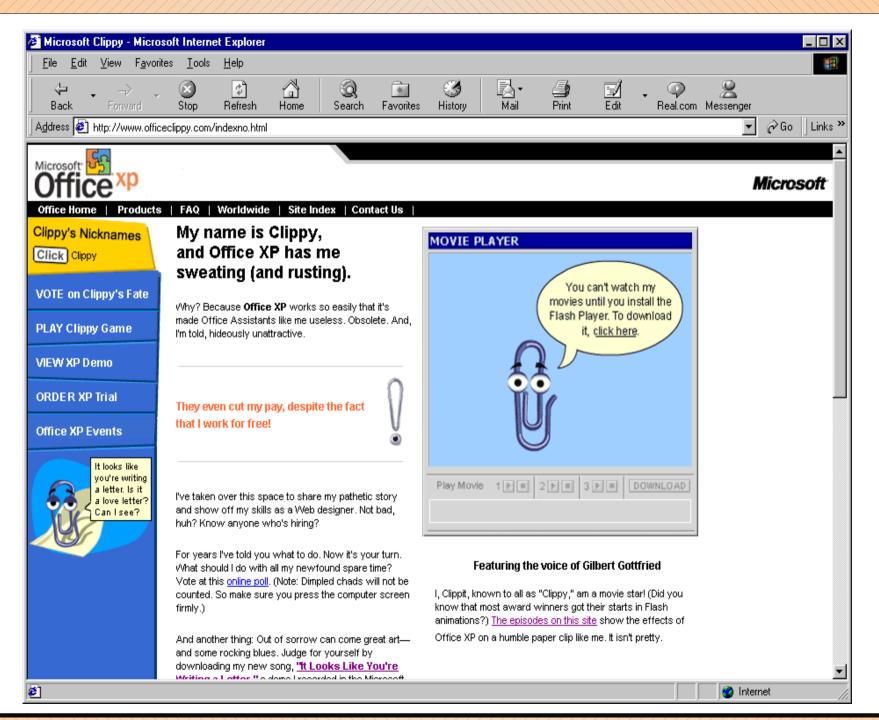
- n (discrete) random variables X₁,...,X_n
- joint probability distribution P(X₁,...,X_n)
- Input: a partial value assignment Ω,
 Ω =< X₁, X₂=x₂, X₃, X₄=x₄, X₅=x₅, X₆,...,X_n>
- Probabilistic reasoning:
 - compute $P(X=x|\Omega)$ for all X not instantiated in Ω , and for all values of each X (the marginal distribution), OR:
 - find a MAP (maximum a posterior probability) assignment consistent with Ω
 - N.B. These are not the same thing!
- Bayesian networks: a family of probabilistic models and algorithms enabling computationally efficient probabilistic reasoning

Bayesian networks: a "Billion dollar" perspective



"Microsoft's competitive advantage, he [Gates] responded, was its expertise in "Bayesian networks". Ask any other software executive about anything "Bayesian" and you're liable to get a blank stare. Is Gates onto something? Is this alien-sounding technology Microsoft's new secret weapon?"

(Leslie Helms, Los Angeles Times, October 28, 1996.)





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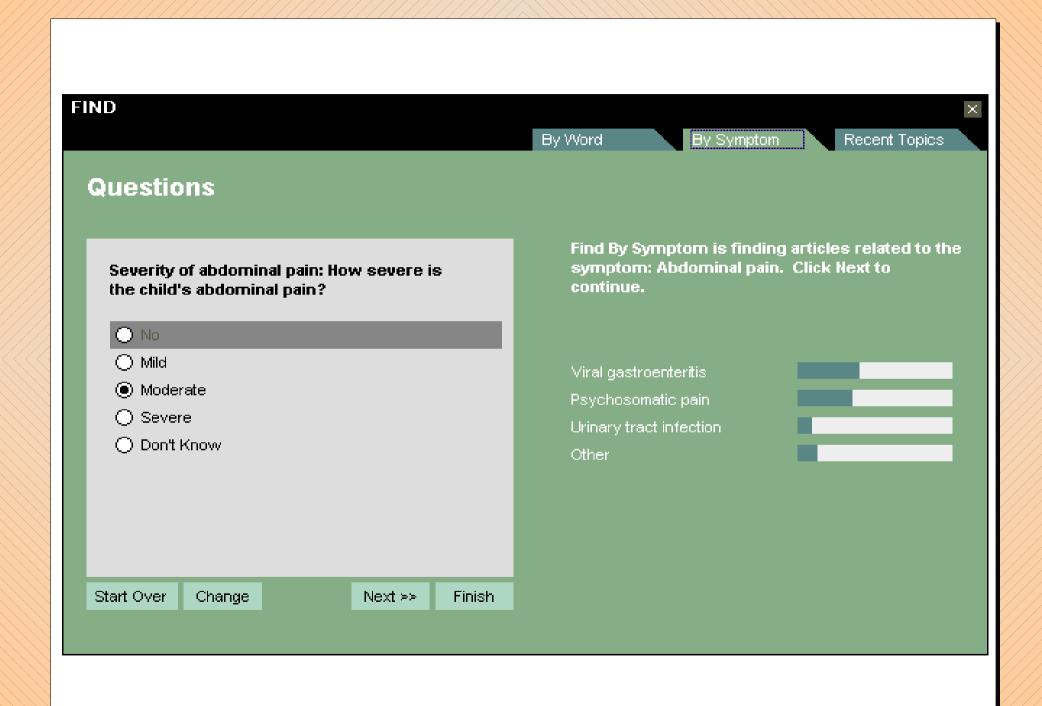
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What do Bayesian networks have to offer?

- encoding of the covariation between "input" variables
 - BN can handle incomplete data sets
- allows one to learn about causal relationships (predictions in the presence of interventions)
- natural way of combining domain knowledge and data as a single model
- Computationally efficient inference algorithms for multi-dimensional domains

Bayesian networks: basics

- A Bayesian network is a model of probabilistic dependencies between the domain variables.
- The model can be described as a list of (in)dependencies, but is is usually more convenient to express them in a graphical form as a directed acyclic network.
- The nodes in the network correspond to the domain variables, and the arcs reveal the underlying dependencies, i.e., the hidden structure of the domain of your data.
- The "quantitative strengths" of the dependencies are modeled as conditional probability distributions (not shown in the graph).

Bayesian networks?

- A very poor name, nothing Bayesian per se
- A parametric probabilistic model that
 - can be used for Bayesian inference (or not)
 - can be learned via Bayesian methods (or not)
 - is conveniently represented as a graph (a probabilistic graphical model)
- A better name: directed acyclic graph (DAG)
- (Even better: acyclic directed graph)

The two-variable case

- Assume two binary (Bernoulli distributed) variables A and B
- Two examples of the joint distribution P(A,B):

	B=1	B=0	P(A)
A=1	0.08	0.02	0.10
A=0	0.72	0.18	0.90
P(B)	0.80	0.20	

	B=1	B=0	P(A)
A=1	0.08	0.02	0.10
A=0	0.18	0.72	0.90
P(B)	0.26	0.74	

$$P(A,B)=P(A)P(B)$$

We only need the marginals P(A) and P(B)! $P(A,B)\neq P(A)P(B)$

We need the full table (or: P(A,B)=P(A)P(B|A))

Independence

- If P(A,B)=P(A)P(B), A and B are said to be independent
- Note that this also means that P(A | B) = P(A) (and: P(B | A) = P(B))
- If A and B are not independent, they are dependent
- Independe can be used to separate from all joint distributions P(A,B) the subset where the independence holds
- Independence simplifies (constrains) things:
 - A [⊥] B: subset of distributions
 - not $A \perp B$: all distributions

Types of independence

- if P(A=a,B=a) = P(A=a)P(B=b) for all a and b, then we call A and B (marginally) independent.
- if P(A=a,B=a | C=c) = P(A=a|C=c)P(B=b|C=c)
 for all a and b, then we call A and B
 conditionally independent given C=c.
- if P(A=a,B=a | C=c) = P(A=a|C=c)P(B=b|C=c) for all a, b and c, then we call A and B conditionally independent given C.
- P(A,B)=P(A)P(B) implies $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A)$

Examples

- Amount of Speeding fine

 Type of car | Speed
 - But: Amount of Speeding fine #/ Type of car
- Lung cancer

 Yellow teeth | Smoking
 - But: Lung cancer #/ Yellow teeth
- - But: Child's genes # Grandparent's genes
- Ability of Team A
 [⊥] Ability of Team B
 - But: Ability of Team A #Ability of Team B |
 Outcome of A vs. B game

Independence saves space

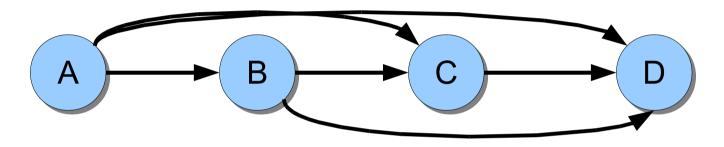
If A and B are independent given C:

$$P(A,B,C) = P(C,A,B)$$

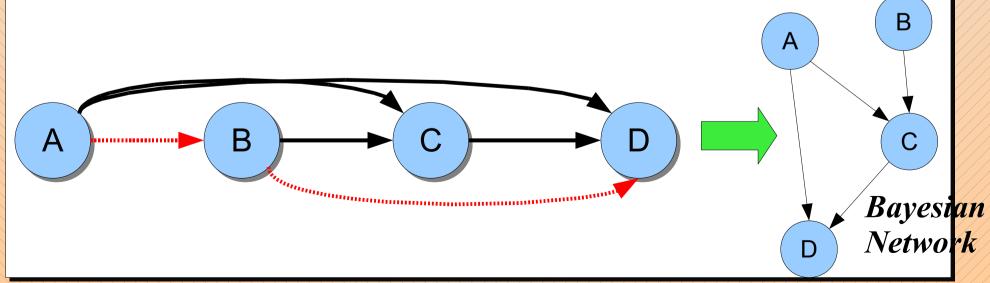
- = P(C)P(A|C)P(B|A,C)
- = P(C)P(A|C)P(B|C)
- Instead of having a full joint probability table for P(A,B,C), we can have a table for P(C) and tables P(A|C=c) and P(B|C=c) for each c.
 - Even for binary variables this saves space:
 - $2^3 = 8 \text{ vs. } 2 + 2 + 2 = 6$.
 - With many variables and many independences you save a lot.

Chain Rule – Independence - BN

Chain rule: P(A, B, C, D) = P(A)P(B|A)P(C|A, B)P(D|A, B, C)



Independence: P(A, B, C, D) = P(A)P(B)P(C|A, B)P(D|A, C)

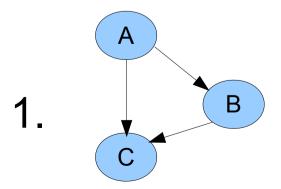


But order can matter

- $\bullet P(A,B,C) = P(C,A,B)$
 - P(A)P(B|A)P(C|A,B) = P(C)P(A|C)P(B|A,C)
 - And if A and B are conditionally independent given C:

$$1.P(A,B,C) = P(A)P(B|A)P(C|A,B)$$

$$2.P(C,A,B) = P(C)P(A|C)P(B|C)$$



2. A B

Bayes net as a factorization

- Bayesian network structure forms a directed acyclic graph (DAG).
- If we have a DAG G, we denote the parents of the node (variable) X_i with Pa_G(x_i) and a value configuration of Pa_G(x_i) with pa_G(x_i):

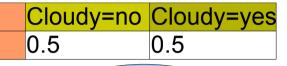
$$P(x_{1,}x_{2,}...,x_{n}|G) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_{i}|pa_{G}(x_{i})),$$

where $P(x_i|pa_G(x_i))$ are called local probabilities.

 Local probabilities are stored in the conditional probability tables (CPTs).

A Bayesian network

P(Cloudy)



Cloudy

Sprinkler

P(Sprinkler | Cloudy)

Cloudy Sprinkler=on Sprinkler=off 0.5

ves 0.9 0.1

P(Rain | Cloudy)

	Cloudy	Rain=yes	Rain	=n
	no	0.2	8.0	
_	yes	8.0	0.2	

Rain

Wet Grass

P(WetGrass | Sprinkler, Rain)

Sprinkler	Rain	WetGrass=yes	WetGrass=no
on	no	0.90	0.10
on	yes	0.99	0.01
off	no	0.01	0.99
off	yes	0.90	0.10

Causal order recommended

- Causes first, then effects.
- Since causes render direct consequences independent yielding smaller CPTs
- Causal CPTs are easier to assess by human experts
- Smaller CPT:s are easier to estimate reliably from a finite set of observations (data)
- Causal networks can be used to make causal inferences too.

Inference in Bayesian networks

- Given a Bayesian network B (i.e., DAG and CPTs), calculate P(X|e) where X is a set of query variables and e is an instantiation of observed variables E (X and E separate).
- There is always the way through marginals:
 - normalize $P(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{e}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in dom(\mathbf{Y})} P(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{e})$, where $dom(\mathbf{Y})$, is a set of all possible instantiations of the unobserved non-query variables \mathbf{Y} .
- There are much smarter algorithms too, but in general the problem is NP hard (more later).

Back to the two-variable case...

Model M1:

A and B independent

$$P(A,B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Model M2:

A and B dependent

$$P(A,B) = P(A)P(B|A)$$

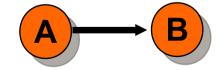
Model M3:

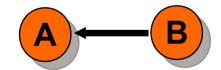
A and B dependent

$$P(A,B) = P(B)P(A|B)$$



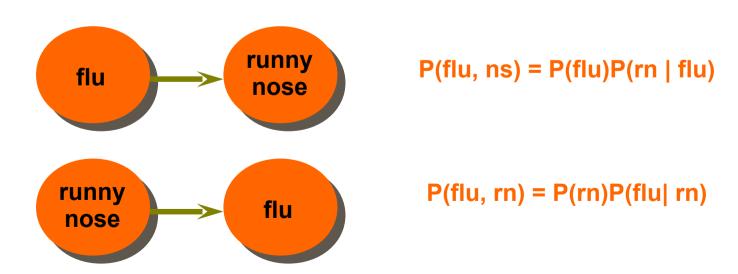






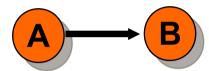
Equivalence classes

- Equivalence class = set of BN structures which can used for representing exactly the same set of probability distributions.
- The "causally natural" version makes it easier to determine the conditional probabilities.

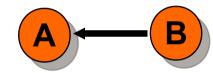


The Bayes rule visualized

•
$$P_1(A,B)=P_1(A)P_1(B | A)$$



•
$$P_2(A,B)=P_2(B)P_2(A \mid B)$$

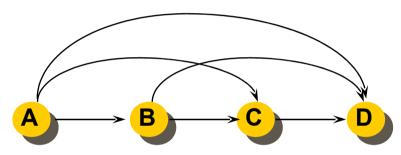


- Assume P₁(A) and P₁(B | A) fixed
- $P_2(A,B)=P_1(A,B)$ if:

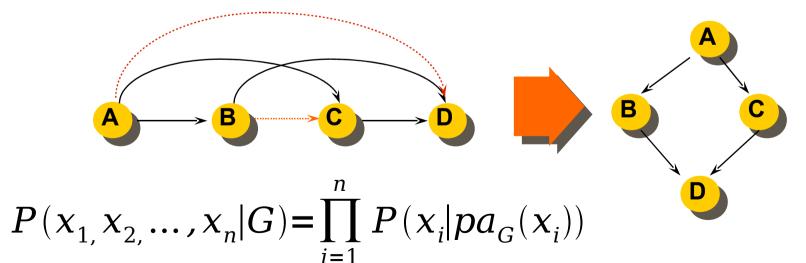
$$P_2(A | B) = P_1(A)P_1(B | A)/P_2(B)$$

Another example

From Bayes' rule, it follows that
 P(A,B,C,D)=P(A)P(B|A)P(C|A,B)P(D|A,B,C)

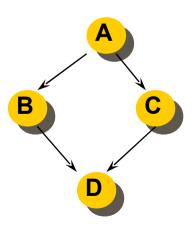


Assume: P(C|A,B)=P(C|A) and P(D|A,B,C)=P(D|B,C)



And the point is...?

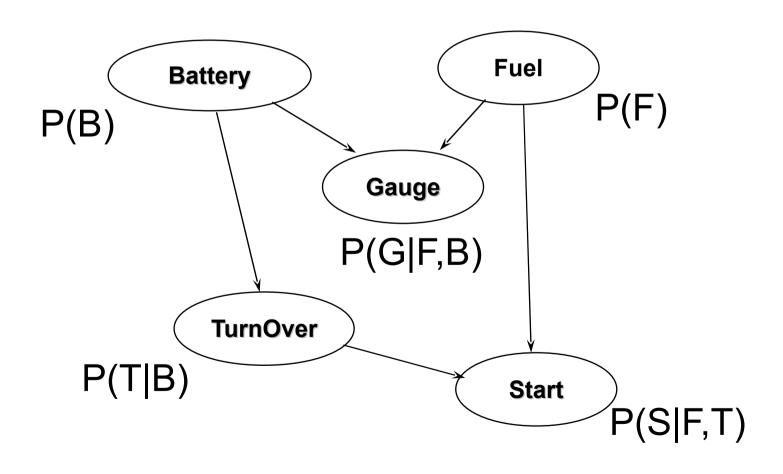
- simple conditional probabilities are easier to determine than the full joint probabilities
- in many domains, the underlying structure corresponds to relatively sparse networks, so only a small number of conditional probabilities is needed



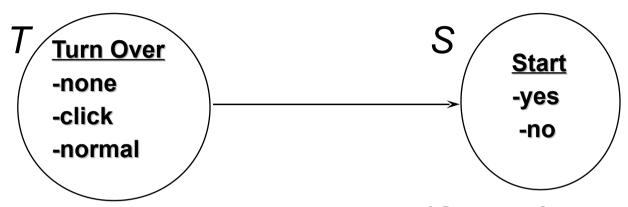
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P(+a,+b,+c,+d)=P(+a)P(+b|+a)P(+c|+a)P(+d|+b,+c)
P(-a,+b,+c,+d)=P(-a)P(+b|-a)P(+c|-a)P(+d|+b,+c)
P(-a,-b,+c,+d)=P(-a)P(-b|-a)P(+c|-a)P(+d|-b,+c)
P(-a,-b,-c,+d)=P(-a)P(-b|-a)P(-c|-a)P(+d|-b,-c)
P(-a,-b,-c,-d)=P(-a)P(-b|-a)P(-c|-a)P(-d|-b,-c)
P(+a,-b,-c,-d)=P(+a)P(-b|+a)P(-c|+a)P(-d|-b,-c)
```



A Bayesian Network



Building a Bayesian Network



$$P(S=yes|T=none) = 0.0$$

 $P(S=no|T=none) = 1.0$

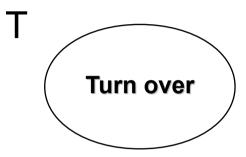
$$P(S=yes|T=click) = 0.02$$

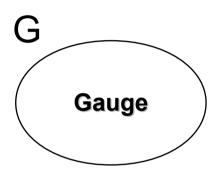
 $P(S=no|T=click) = 0.98$

$$P(S=yes|T=normal) = 0.97$$

 $P(S=no|T=normal) = 0.03$

Missing Arcs Encode Conditional Independence

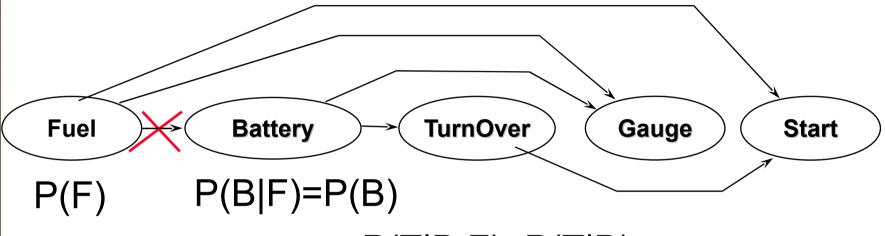




$$p(G=not empty) = 0.995$$

 $p(G=empty) = 0.005$

A Modular Encoding of a Joint Distribution



P(T|B,F)=P(T|B)

P(G|F,B,T)=P(G|F,B)

P(S|F,B,T,G)=P(S|F,T)

P(F,B,T,G,S)

= P(F) P(B|F) P(T|B,F) P(G|F,B,T) P(S|F,B,T,G)

= P(F) P(B) P(T|B) P(G|F,B) P(S|F,T)

Bayesian networks: the textbook definition

• A Bayesian (belief) network representation for a probability distribution P on a domain $(X_1,...,X_n)$ is a pair (G,Θ) , where G is a directed acyclic graph whose nodes correspond to the variables $X_1,...,X_n$, and whose topology satisfies the following: each variable X is conditionally independent of all of its non-descendants in G, given its set of parents pa_X , and no proper subset of pa_X satisfies this condition. The second component Θ is a set consisting of all the conditional probabilities of the form $P(X|pa_X)$.

 $\Theta = \{P(+a), P(+b|+a), P(+b|-a), P(+c|+a), P(+c|-a), P(+d|+b,+c), P(+d|-b,+c), P(+d|+b,-c), P(+d|-b,-c)\}$

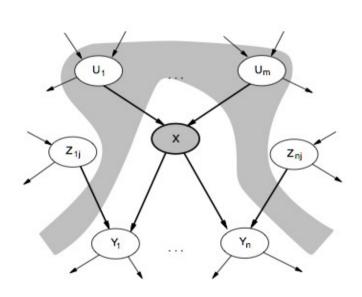
Markov conditions

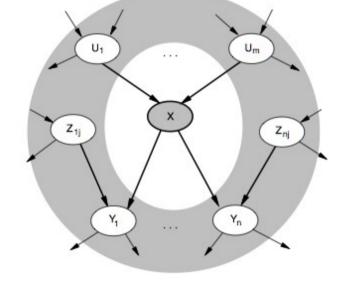
- Local (parental) Markov condition
 - X is independent of its non-descendants given its parents.
- Another local Markov condition
 - X is independent of any set of other variables given its parents, children and parents of its children (= Markov blanket)
- Global Markov Condition
 - X and Y are dependent given Z, iff they are d-separated by Z



Local Markov conditions visualized

From Russell & Norvig's book:





"X is conditionally independent of its non-descendants, given its parents"

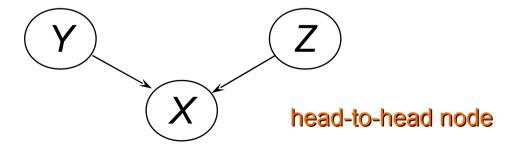
"X is conditionally independent of all the other variables, given its Markov blanket"

d-Separation (Pearl 1987)

- Theorem (Verma): X and Y are d-separated by Z implies $X^\perp Y \mid Z$.
- Theorem (Geiger and Pearl): If X and Y are not d-separated by Z, then there exists an assignment of the probabilities to the BN such that $(X^{\perp}Y|Z)$ does not hold.

d-Separation

- A trail in a BN is a a cycle-free sequence (path) of edges in the corresponding undirected graph (the skeleton)
- A node x is a head-to-head node (a "v-node") along a trail if there are two consecutive arcs Y → X and X ← Z on that trail:

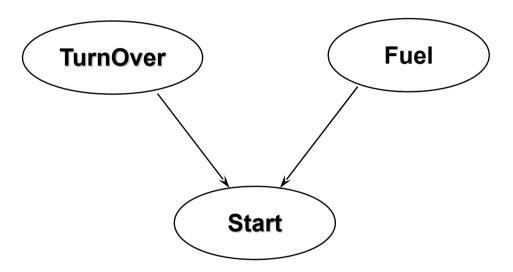


d-Separation

- Nodes X and Y are d-connected by nodes Z along a trail from X to Y if
- every head-to-head node along the trail is in Z
 or has a descendant in Z
- every other node along the trail is not in Z

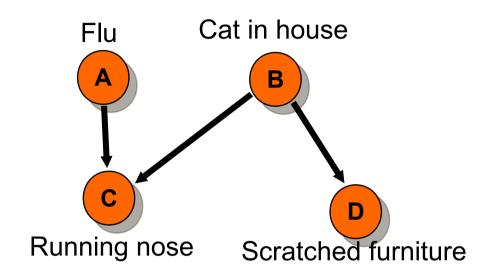
Nodes **X** and **Y** are d-separated by nodes Z if they are not d-connected by Z along any trail from **X** to **Y**

Explaining Away (selection bias, Berkson's paradox)



If the car doesn't start, hearing the engine turn over makes no fuel more likely.

Explaining away: another example



```
P(A=1)=0.05
P(B=1)=0.05
P(C=1|A=0,B=0)=0.001
P(C=1|A=1,B=0)=0.95
P(C=1|A=0,B=1)=0.95
P(C=1|A=1,B=1)=0.99
P(D=1|B=1)=0.99
P(D=1|B=0)=0.1
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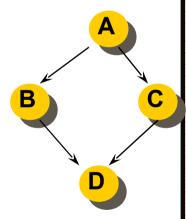
- Given C=1, the probability of A=1 is about 51%, and the probability of B=1 is also about 51%
- Given C=1 and D=1, the probability of A=1 goes down to 13% while the probability of B=1 goes up to 91%
- Details: see pages 53-56 of the report Bayes-verkkojen mahdollisuudet

Types of connections

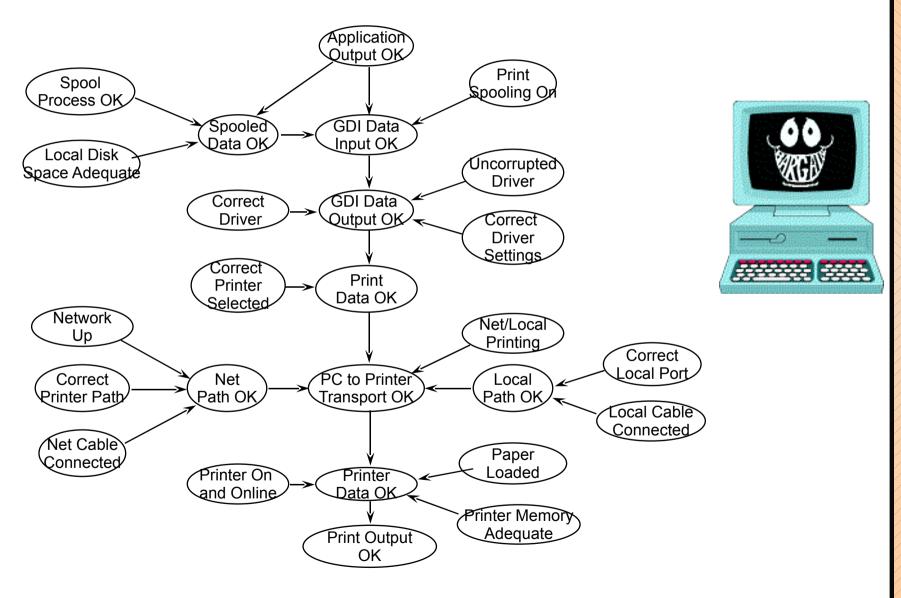
- There can be three types of connections on a trail:
 - Serial: X→Z→Y
 - Blocked at Z if Z known
 - Diverging: X←Z→Y
 - Blocked at Z if Z known
 - Converging (head-to-head): X→Z←Y
 - Blocked at Z UNLESS Z or any of its descendants known

Reading out the dependencies

- The Bayesian network on the right represents the following list of dependencies:
- A and B are dependent on each other no matter what we know and what we don't know about C or D (or both).
- A and C are dependent on each other no matter what we know and what we don't know about B or D (or both).
- B and D are dependent on each other no matter what we know and what we don't know about A or C (or both).
- C and D are dependent on each other no matter what we know and what we don't know about A or B (or both).
- A and D are dependent on each other if we do not know both B and C.
- B and C are dependent on each other if we know D or if we do not know D and also do not know A.



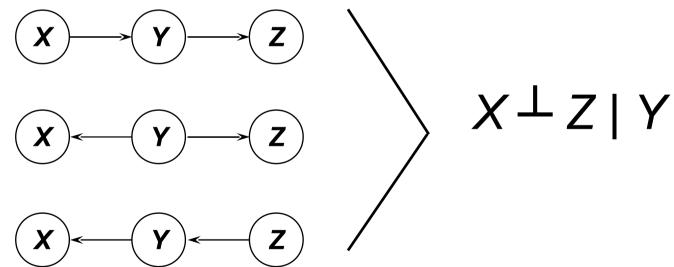
Printer Troubleshooter (W '95)



Equivalent Network Structures

Two network structures for domain X are independence equivalent if they encode the same set of conditional independence statements

Example:



Equivalent network structures

- Verma (1990): Two network structures are independence equivalent if and only if:
 - They have the same skeleton
 - They have the same v-structures

