

# Bayesian Networks: Independencies and Inference

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## What Independencies does a Bayes Net Model?

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- In order for a Bayesian network to model a probability distribution, the following must be true by definition:

Each variable is conditionally independent of all its non-descendants in the graph given the value of all its parents.

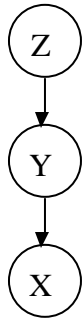
- This implies

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

- But what else does it imply?

## What Independencies does a Bayes Net Model?

- Example:



Given  $Y$ , does learning the value of  $Z$  tell us nothing new about  $X$ ?

I.e., is  $P(X|Y, Z)$  equal to  $P(X | Y)$ ?

Yes. Since we know the value of all of  $X$ 's parents (namely,  $Y$ ), and  $Z$  is not a descendant of  $X$ ,  $X$  is conditionally independent of  $Z$ .

Also, since independence is symmetric,  
 $P(Z|Y, X) = P(Z|Y)$ .

## Quick proof that independence is symmetric

- Assume:  $P(X|Y, Z) = P(X|Y)$
- Then:

$$P(Z | X, Y) = \frac{P(X, Y | Z)P(Z)}{P(X, Y)} \quad (\text{Bayes's Rule})$$

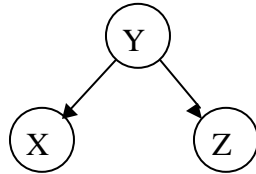
$$= \frac{P(Y | Z)P(X | Y, Z)P(Z)}{P(X | Y)P(Y)} \quad (\text{Chain Rule})$$

$$= \frac{P(Y | Z)P(X | Y)P(Z)}{P(X | Y)P(Y)} \quad (\text{By Assumption})$$

$$= \frac{P(Y | Z)P(Z)}{P(Y)} = P(Z | Y) \quad (\text{Bayes's Rule})$$

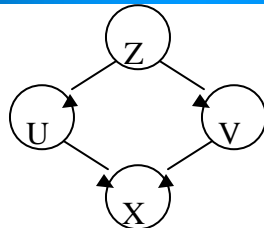
## What Independencies does a Bayes Net Model?

- Let  $I\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$  represent  $X$  and  $Z$  being conditionally independent given  $Y$ .



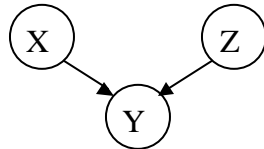
- $I\langle X, Y, Z \rangle$ ? Yes, just as in previous example: All  $X$ 's parents given, and  $Z$  is not a descendant.

## What Independencies does a Bayes Net Model?



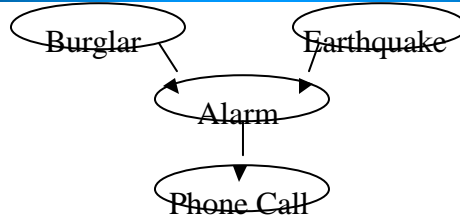
- $I\langle X, \{U\}, Z \rangle$ ? No.
- $I\langle X, \{U, V\}, Z \rangle$ ? Yes.
- Maybe  $I\langle X, S, Z \rangle$  iff  $S$  acts a cutset between  $X$  and  $Z$  in an undirected version of the graph...?

## Things get a little more confusing



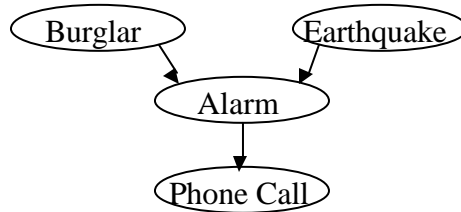
- X has no parents, so we know all its parents' values trivially
- Z is not a descendant of X
- So,  $I\langle X, \{\}, Z \rangle$ , even though there's an undirected path from X to Z through an unknown variable Y.
- What if we do know the value of Y, though? Or one of its descendants?

## The "Burglar Alarm" example



- Your house has a twitchy burglar alarm that is also sometimes triggered by earthquakes.
- Earth arguably doesn't care whether your house is currently being burgled
- While you are on vacation, one of your neighbors calls and tells you your home's burglar alarm is ringing. Uh oh!

## Things get a lot more confusing



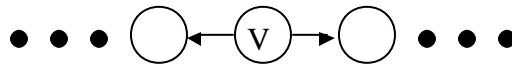
- But now suppose you learn that there was a medium-sized earthquake in your neighborhood. Oh, whew! Probably not a burglar after all.
- Earthquake “explains away” the hypothetical burglar.
- But then it must **not** be the case that  $I\langle \text{Burglar}, \{\text{Phone Call}\}, \text{Earthquake} \rangle$ , even though  $I\langle \text{Burglar}, \{\}, \text{Earthquake} \rangle$ !

## *d*-separation to the rescue

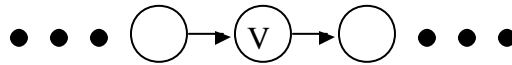
- Fortunately, there is a relatively simple algorithm for determining whether two variables in a Bayesian network are conditionally independent: *d*-separation.
- Definition:  $X$  and  $Z$  are *d*-separated by a set of evidence variables  $E$  iff every undirected path from  $X$  to  $Z$  is “blocked”, where a path is “blocked” iff one or more of the following conditions is true: ...

## A path is “blocked” when...

- There exists a variable  $V$  on the path such that
  - it is in the evidence set  $E$
  - the arcs putting  $V$  in the path are “tail-to-tail”



- Or, there exists a variable  $V$  on the path such that
  - it is in the evidence set  $E$
  - the arcs putting  $V$  in the path are “tail-to-head”



- Or, ...

## A path is “blocked” when... (the funky case)

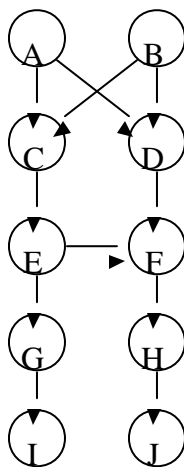
- ... Or, there exists a variable  $V$  on the path such that
  - it is **NOT** in the evidence set  $E$
  - **neither are any of its descendants**
  - the arcs putting  $V$  on the path are “head-to-head”



## *d-separation* to the rescue, cont'd

- Theorem [Verma & Pearl, 1998]:
  - If a set of evidence variables  $E$   $d$ -separates  $X$  and  $Z$  in a Bayesian network's graph, then  $I\langle X, E, Z\rangle$ .
- $d$ -separation can be computed in linear time using a depth-first-search-like algorithm.
- Great! We now have a fast algorithm for automatically inferring whether learning the value of one variable might give us any additional hints about some other variable, given what we already know.
  - "Might": Variables may actually be independent when they're not  $d$ -separated, depending on the actual probabilities involved

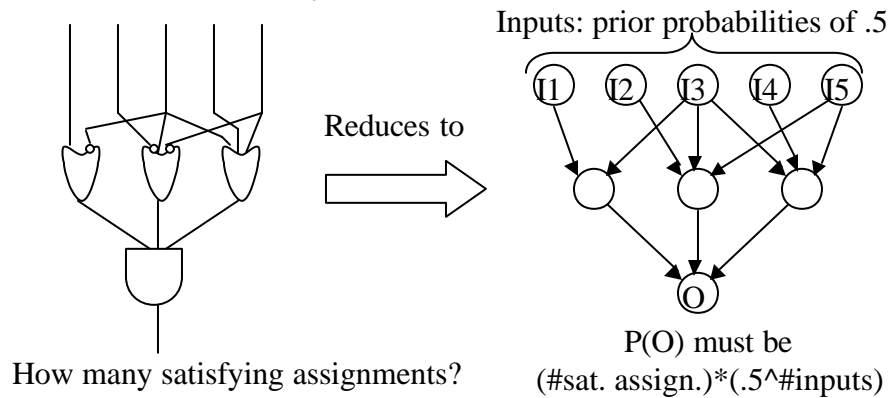
## *d-separation* example



- $I\langle C, \{\}, D\rangle?$
- $I\langle C, \{A\}, D\rangle?$
- $I\langle C, \{A, B\}, D\rangle?$
- $I\langle C, \{A, B, J\}, D\rangle?$
- $I\langle C, \{A, B, E, J\}, D\rangle?$

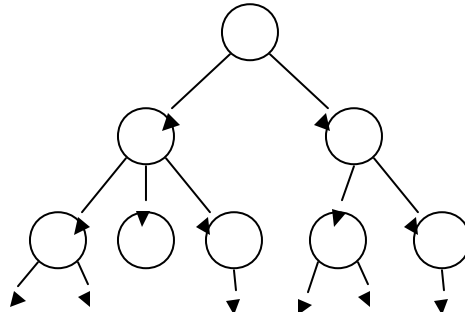
## Bayesian Network Inference

- Inference: calculating  $P(X|Y)$  for some variables or sets of variables  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- Inference in Bayesian networks is #P-hard!



## Bayesian Network Inference

- **But...**inference is still tractable in some cases.
- Let's look a special class of networks: *trees / forests* in which each node has at most one parent.

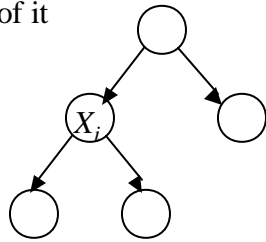




## Decomposing the probabilities

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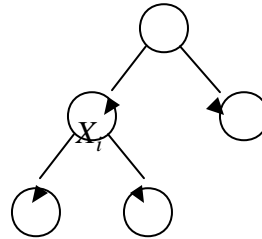
- Suppose we want  $P(X_i | E)$  where  $E$  is some set of evidence variables.
- Let's split  $E$  into two parts:
  - $E_i^-$  is the part consisting of assignments to variables in the subtree rooted at  $X_i$
  - $E_i^+$  is the rest of it



## Decomposing the probabilities, cont'd

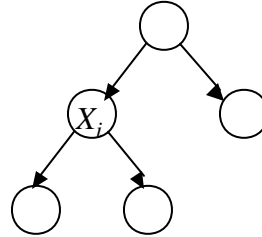
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$$P(X_i | E) = P(X_i | E_i^-, E_i^+)$$



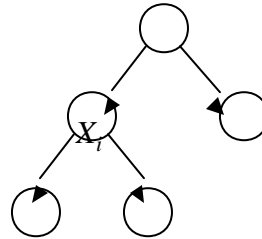
## Decomposing the probabilities, cont'd

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X_i | E) &= P(X_i | E_i^-, E_i^+) \\
 &= \frac{P(E_i^- | X, E_i^+) P(X | E_i^+)}{P(E_i^- | E_i^+)}
 \end{aligned}$$



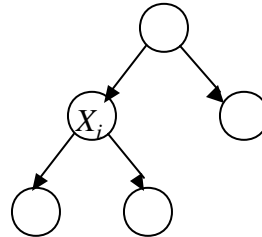
## Decomposing the probabilities, cont'd

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X_i | E) &= P(X_i | E_i^-, E_i^+) \\
 &= \frac{P(E_i^- | X, E_i^+) P(X | E_i^+)}{P(E_i^- | E_i^+)} \\
 &= \frac{P(E_i^- | X) P(X | E_i^+)}{P(E_i^- | E_i^+)}
 \end{aligned}$$



## Decomposing the probabilities, cont'd

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(X_i | E) &= P(X_i | E_i^-, E_i^+) \\
 &= \frac{P(E_i^- | X, E_i^+) P(X | E_i^+)}{P(E_i^- | E_i^+)} \\
 &= \frac{P(E_i^- | X) P(X | E_i^+)}{P(E_i^- | E_i^+)} \\
 &= \alpha \pi(X_i) \lambda(X_i)
 \end{aligned}$$



Where:

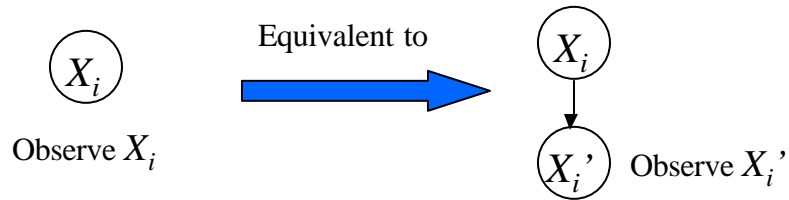
- $\alpha$  is a constant independent of  $X_i$
- $\pi(X_i) = P(X_i | E_i^+)$
- $\lambda(X_i) = P(E_i^- | X_i)$

## Using the decomposition for inference

- We can use this decomposition to do inference as follows. First, compute  $\lambda(X_i) = P(E_i^- | X_i)$  for all  $X_i$  recursively, using the leaves of the tree as the base case.
- If  $X_i$  is a leaf:
  - If  $X_i$  is in  $E$ :  $\lambda(X_i) = 1$  if  $X_i$  matches  $E$ , 0 otherwise
  - If  $X_i$  is not in  $E$ :  $E_i^-$  is the null set, so  $P(E_i^- | X_i) = 1$  (constant)

## Quick aside: “Virtual evidence”

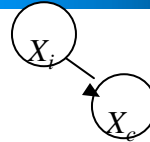
- For theoretical simplicity, but without loss of generality, let's assume that *all* variables in  $E$  (the evidence set) are leaves in the tree.
- Why can we do this WLOG:



Where  $P(X_i' / X_i) = 1$  if  $X_i' = X_i$ , 0 otherwise

## Calculating $\lambda(X_i)$ for non-leaves

- Suppose  $X_i$  has one child,  $X_c$ .

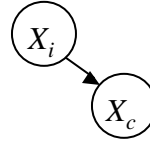


- Then:

$$\lambda(X_i) = P(E_i^- | X_i) =$$

## Calculating $\lambda(X_i)$ for non-leaves

- Suppose  $X_i$  has one child,  $X_c$ .

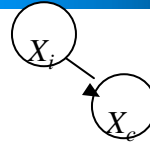


- Then:

$$\lambda(X_i) = P(E_i^- | X_i) = \sum_j P(E_i^-, X_c = j | X_i)$$

## Calculating $\lambda(X_i)$ for non-leaves

- Suppose  $X_i$  has one child,  $X_c$ .

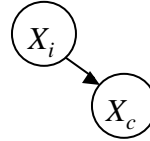


- Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda(X_i) &= P(E_i^- | X_i) = \sum_j P(E_i^-, X_c = j | X_i) \\ &= \sum_j P(X_c = j | X_i) P(E_i^- | X_i, X_c = j) \end{aligned}$$

## Calculating $\lambda(X_i)$ for non-leaves

- Suppose  $X_i$  has one child,  $X_c$ .



- Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda(X_i) &= P(E_i^- | X_i) = \sum_j P(E_i^-, X_c = j | X_i) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_c = j | X_i) P(E_i^- | X_i, X_c = j) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_c = j | X_i) P(E_i^- | X_c = j) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_c = j | X_i) \lambda(X_c)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Calculating $\lambda(X_i)$ for non-leaves

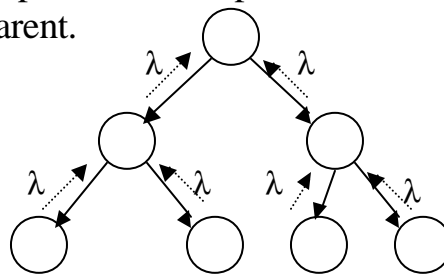
- Now, suppose  $X_i$  has a set of children,  $C$ .
- Since  $X_i$  *d-separates* each of its subtrees, the contribution of each subtree to  $\lambda(X_i)$  is independent:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lambda(X_i) &= P(E_i^- | X_i) = \prod_{X_j \in C} \lambda_j(X_i) \\
 &= \prod_{X_j \in C} \left[ \sum_{X_j} P(X_j | X_i) \lambda_j(X_j) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $\lambda_j(X_i)$  is the contribution to  $P(E_i^- | X_i)$  of the part of the evidence lying in the subtree rooted at one of  $X_i$ 's children  $X_j$ .

## We are now $\lambda$ -happy

- So now we have a way to recursively compute all the  $\lambda(X_i)$ 's, starting from the root and using the leaves as the base case.
- If we want, we can think of each node in the network as an autonomous processor that passes a little “ $\lambda$  message” to its parent.



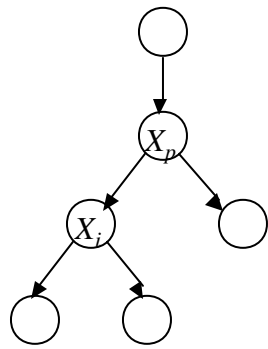
## The other half of the problem

- Remember,  $P(X_i|E) = \alpha\pi(X_i)\lambda(X_i)$ . Now that we have all the  $\lambda(X_i)$ 's, what about the  $\pi(X_i)$ 's?

$$\pi(X_i) = P(X_i | E_i^+).$$

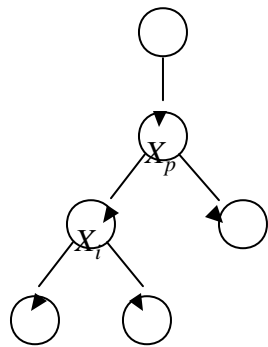
- What about the root of the tree,  $X_r$ ? In that case,  $E_r^+$  is the null set, so  $\pi(X_r) = P(X_r)$ . No sweat. Since we also know  $\lambda(X_r)$ , we can compute the final  $P(X_r)$ .
- So for an arbitrary  $X_i$  with parent  $X_p$ , let's inductively assume we know  $\pi(X_p)$  and/or  $P(X_p/E)$ . How do we get  $\pi(X_i)$ ?

## Computing $\pi(X_i)$



$$p(X_i) = P(X_i | E_i^+) =$$

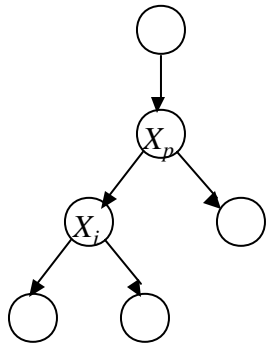
## Computing $\pi(X_i)$



$$p(X_i) = P(X_i | E_i^+) = \sum_j P(X_i, X_p = j | E_i^+)$$

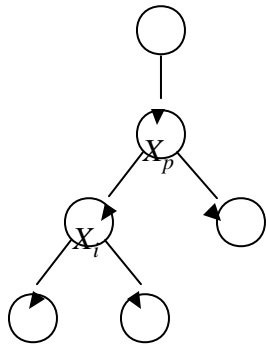


## Computing $\pi(X_i)$



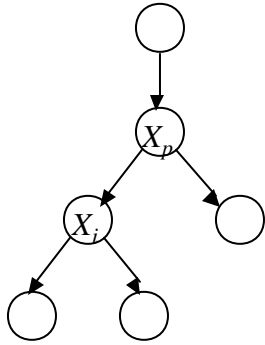
$$\begin{aligned}
 p(X_i) &= P(X_i | E_i^+) = \sum_j P(X_i, X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j, E_i^+) P(X_p = j | E_i^+)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Computing $\pi(X_i)$



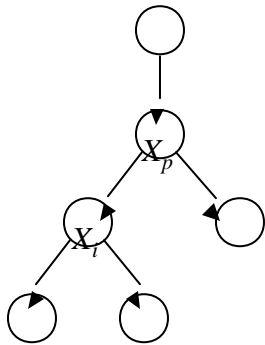
$$\begin{aligned}
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 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j, E_i^+) P(X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) P(X_p = j | E_i^+)
 \end{aligned}$$

## Computing $\pi(X_i)$



$$\begin{aligned}
 p(X_i) &= P(X_i | E_i^+) = \sum_j P(X_i, X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j, E_i^+) P(X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) P(X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) \frac{P(X_p = j | E)}{\pi_i(X_p = j)}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Computing $\pi(X_i)$

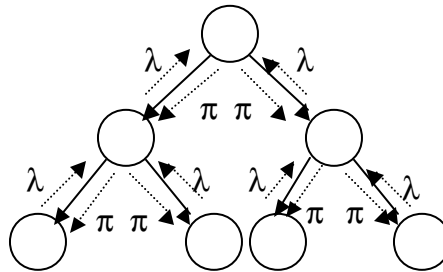


$$\begin{aligned}
 p(X_i) &= P(X_i | E_i^+) = \sum_j P(X_i, X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j, E_i^+) P(X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) P(X_p = j | E_i^+) \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) \frac{P(X_p = j | E)}{\pi_i(X_p = j)} \\
 &= \sum_j P(X_i | X_p = j) \pi_i(X_p = j)
 \end{aligned}$$

Where  $\pi_i(X_p)$  is defined as  $\frac{P(X_p | E)}{\pi_i(X_p)}$

## We're done. Yay!

- Thus we can compute all the  $\pi(X_i)$ 's, and, in turn, all the  $P(X_i|E)$ 's.
- Can think of nodes as autonomous processors passing  $\lambda$  and  $\pi$  messages to their neighbors

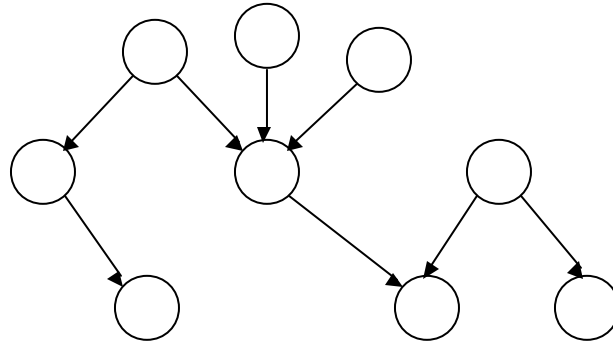


## Conjunctive queries

- What if we want, e.g.,  $P(A, B | C)$  instead of just marginal distributions  $P(A | C)$  and  $P(B | C)$ ?
- Just use chain rule:
  - $P(A, B | C) = P(A | C) P(B | A, C)$
  - Each of the latter probabilities can be computed using the technique just discussed.

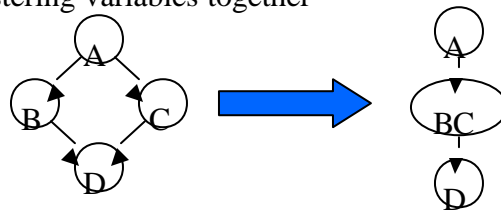
## Polytrees

- Technique can be generalized to *polytrees*: undirected versions of the graphs are still trees, but nodes can have more than one parent

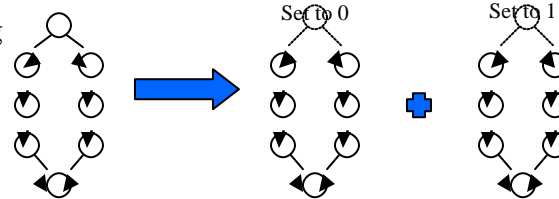


## Dealing with cycles

- Can deal with undirected cycles in graph by
  - clustering variables together

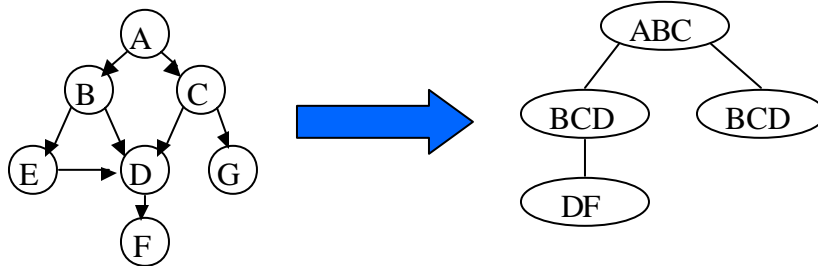


- Conditioning



## Join trees

- Arbitrary Bayesian network can be transformed via some evil graph-theoretic magic into a *join tree* in which a similar method can be employed.



In the worst case the join tree nodes must take on exponentially many combinations of values, but often works well in practice