

Bayesian Networks and Decision Graphs

Chapter 1

Two perspectives on probability theory

In many domains, the probability of an outcome is interpreted as a **relative frequency**:

- The probability of getting a three by throwing a six-sided die is $1/6$.

However, we often talk about the probability of an event without being able to specify a frequency for it:

- What is the probability that Denmark wins the world cup in 2010?

Such probabilities are called **subjective probabilities**

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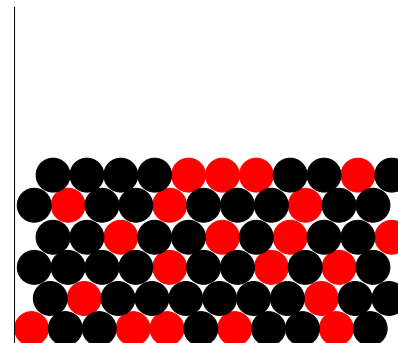
However, we often talk about the probability of an event without being able to specify a frequency for it:

- What is the probability that Denmark wins the world cup in 2010?

Such probabilities are called **subjective probabilities**

Possible interpretation:

- I receive Dkr 1000 if Denmark wins.
- If I draw a red ball I receive Dkr 1000.



Basic probability axioms

The set of possible outcomes of an “experiment” is called the **sample space** \mathcal{S} :

- Throwing a six sided die: $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
- Will Denmark win the world cup: $\{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$.
- The values in a deck of cards: $\{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, J, Q, K, A\}$.

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An **event** \mathcal{E} is a subset of the sample space:

- The event that we will get an even number when throwing a die: $\{2, 4, 6\}$.
- The event that Denmark wins: $\{\text{yes}\}$.
- The event that we will get a 6 or below when drawing a card: $\{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

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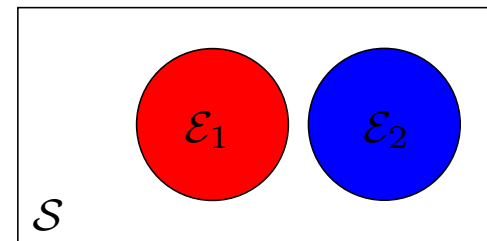
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We measure our uncertainty about an experiment by assigning probabilities to each event.

The probabilities must obey the following **axioms**:

- $P(\mathcal{S}) = 1$.
- For all events \mathcal{E} it holds that $P(\mathcal{E}) \geq 0$.
- If $\mathcal{E}_1 \cap \mathcal{E}_2 = \emptyset$, then $P(\mathcal{E}_1 \cup \mathcal{E}_2) = P(\mathcal{E}_1) + P(\mathcal{E}_2)$.



Conditional probabilities

Every probability is conditioned on a context. For example, if we throw a dice:

$$“P(\{\text{six}\}) = \frac{1}{6}” = “P(\text{six}|\text{symmetric dice}) = \frac{1}{6}”.$$

In general, if \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are events and $P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) = x$, then:

“In the context of \mathcal{B} we have that $P(\mathcal{A}) = x$ ”

Note: It is not “whenever \mathcal{B} we have $P(\mathcal{A}) = x$ ”, but rather: if \mathcal{B} and everything else known is irrelevant to \mathcal{A} , then $P(\mathcal{A}) = x$.

Definition: For two events \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} we have:

$$P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B})}{P(\mathcal{B})}$$

Example:

$$P(\mathcal{A} = \{4\}|\mathcal{B} = \{2, 4, 6\}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B} = \{4\})}{P(\mathcal{B} = \{2, 4, 6\})} = \frac{1/6}{3/6} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Basic probability calculus: the fundamental rule

Let \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{C} be events.

The fundamental rule: $P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})$.

The fundamental rule, conditioned: $P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C})P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C})$.

Proof: Derived directly from the definition of conditional probability.

Basic probability calculus: Bayes' rule

Bayes rule:

$$P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})}{P(\mathcal{A})}$$

Proof:

$$P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A})P(\mathcal{A}) = P(\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})$$

Bayes rule, conditioned:

$$P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{C}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C})P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C})}{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{C})}$$

Example: We have two diseases \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 that are the **only** diseases that can cause the symptoms \mathcal{B} . If

- \mathcal{A}_1 and \mathcal{A}_2 are equally likely ($P(\mathcal{A}_1) = P(\mathcal{A}_2)$)
- $P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}_1) = 0.9$
- $P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}_2) = 0.3$

what are then the probabilities $P(\mathcal{A}_1|\mathcal{B})$ and $P(\mathcal{A}_2|\mathcal{B})$?

Basic probability calculus

Let \mathcal{A} , \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{C} be events.

Conditional probability: $P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B})}{P(\mathcal{B})}$

The fundamental rule: $P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})$.

The conditional fundamental rule: $P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C})P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C})$.

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Bayes rule: $P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})}{P(\mathcal{A})}$.

Proof: $P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A})P(\mathcal{A}) = P(\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{A}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B})P(\mathcal{B})$.

Bayes rule, conditioned: $P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{C}) = \frac{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C})P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C})}{P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{C})}$.

Conditional independence: If $P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B} \cap \mathcal{C}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{C})$ then $P(\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C}) = P(\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{C}) \cdot P(\mathcal{B}|\mathcal{C})$.

Probability calculus for variables

A is a variable with states a_1, \dots, a_n ; B is a variable with states b_1, \dots, b_m .

$P(A) = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a probability distribution; $x_i \geq 0$; $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1$ ($\sum_A P(A) = 1$).

$P(A|B)$ is a $n \times m$ table containing the numbers $P(a_i|b_j)$.

Note: $\sum_A P(A|b_j) = 1$ for all b_j .

		B		
		b_1	b_2	b_3
A	a_1	0.4	0.3	0.6
	a_2	0.6	0.7	0.4

$P(A, B)$ is a $n \times m$ table too; $\sum_{A, B} P(A, B) = 1$.

		B		
		b_1	b_2	b_3
A	a_1	0.16	0.12	0.12
	a_2	0.24	0.28	0.08

The fundamental rule for variables

$P(A|B)P(B)$: $n \times m$ multiplications $P(a_i|b_j)P(b_j) = P(a_i, b_j)$

	b_1	b_2	b_3			b_1	b_2	b_3
a_1	0.4	0.3	0.6			0.16	0.12	0.12
a_2	0.6	0.7	0.4			0.24	0.28	0.08
	$P(A B)$					$P(A, B)$		

$\frac{\begin{matrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ 0.4 & 0.4 & 0.2 \end{matrix}}{P(B)} =$

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	b_1	b_2	b_3			b_1	b_2	b_3			b_1	b_2	b_3
a_1	0.4	0.3	0.6		a_1	0.16	0.12	0.12		a_1	0.16	0.12	0.12
a_2	0.6	0.7	0.4		a_2	0.24	0.28	0.08		a_2	0.24	0.28	0.08
	$P(A B)$					$P(B)$					$P(A, B)$		

A is independent of B given C if $P(A|B, C) = P(A|C)$.

	b_1	b_2	b_3			a_1	a_2
c_1	(0.4, 0.6)	(0.4, 0.6)	(0.4, 0.6)		c_1	0.4	0.6
c_2	(0.7, 0.3)	(0.7, 0.3)	(0.7, 0.3)		c_2	0.7	0.3
	$P(A B, C)$					$P(A C)$	

Marginalization

We have $P(A, B)$ and we need $P(A)$.

	b_1	b_2	b_3	
a_1	0.16	0.12	0.12	→ 0.4
a_2	0.24	0.28	0.08	→ 0.6

B is marginalized out of $P(A, B)$:

$$\begin{aligned} "A = a_1" &= ("A = a_1" \wedge "B = b_1") \vee ("A = a_1" \wedge "B = b_2") \vee ("A = a_1" \wedge "B = b_3") \\ &= 0.16 + 0.12 + 0.12 = 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} "A = a_2" &= ("A = a_2" \wedge "B = b_1") \vee ("A = a_2" \wedge "B = b_2") \vee ("A = a_2" \wedge "B = b_3") \\ &= 0.24 + 0.28 + 0.08 = 0.6 \end{aligned}$$

Notation: $P(A) = \sum_B P(A, B)$

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A potential ϕ is a table of real numbers over a set of variables, dom(ϕ).

A table of probabilities is a probability potential.

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Multiplication

	b_1	b_2					
a_1	2	1	a_1	1	2	=	a_1
a_2	3	4	a_2	5	6		a_2

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Multiplication

	b_1	b_2		b_1	b_2	=	b_1	b_2
a_1	2	1	a_1	1	2		a_1	2
a_2	3	4	a_2	5	6		a_2	

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Multiplication

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 1 \\ a_2 & 3 & 4 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 1 & 2 \\ a_2 & 5 & 6 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 2 \\ a_2 & & \end{array}$$

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Multiplication

	b_1	b_2							
a_1	2	1	a_1	1	2	=	a_1	2	2
a_2	3	4	a_2	5	6		a_2	15	

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Multiplication

	b_1	b_2							
a_1	2	1	a_1	1	2	=	a_1	2	2
a_2	3	4	a_2	5	6		a_2	15	24

Multiplication of potentials

	b_1	b_2				b_1	b_2	
a_1	1	3	c_1	6	7	a_1	(-, -)	(-, -)
a_2	4	5	c_2	8	9	a_2	(-, -)	(-, -)

$$\phi_1(A, B)$$

$$\phi_2(C, B)$$

$$\phi_3(A, B, C) = \phi_1(A, B) \cdot \phi_2(C, B)$$

Multiplication of potentials

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 1 & 3 \\ a_2 & 4 & 5 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline c_1 & 6 & 7 \\ c_2 & 8 & 9 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & (6_{c_1}, 8_{c_2}) & (-, -) \\ a_2 & (-, -) & (-, -) \end{array}$$

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Multiplication of potentials

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 1 & 3 \\ a_2 & 4 & 5 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline c_1 & 6 & 7 \\ c_2 & 8 & 9 \end{array} = \begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & (6_{c_1}, 8_{c_2}) & (21_{c_1}, 27_{c_2}) \\ a_2 & (24_{c_1}, 32_{c_2}) & (35_{c_1}, 45_{c_2}) \end{array}$$

$$\phi_1(A, B)$$

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$$\phi_3(A, B, C) = \phi_1(A, B) \cdot \phi_2(C, B)$$

Marginalization of potentials

$$\sum_B \left(\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 3 \\ a_2 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c|c} a_1 & - \\ a_2 & - \end{array}$$

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$$\sum_A \left(\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 3 \\ a_2 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c|c} b_1 & - \\ b_2 & - \end{array}$$

Marginalization of potentials

$$\sum_B \left(\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 3 \\ a_2 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c|c} a_1 & 5 \\ a_2 & 5 \end{array}$$

$$\sum_A \left(\begin{array}{c|cc} & b_1 & b_2 \\ \hline a_1 & 2 & 3 \\ a_2 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right) = \begin{array}{c|c} b_1 & 3 \\ b_2 & 7 \end{array}$$