## Bayesian Networks

## 1. Basic Probability Calculus

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## 1. Events

## 2. Independent Events

## 3. Random Variables

## 4. Chain Rule and Bayes Formula

## 5. Independent Random Variables

| PainWeightloss | Y |  |  |  | N |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Y |  | N |  | Y |  | N |  |
| Vomiting | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N |
| Adeno Y | 0.220 | 0.220 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.095 | 0.095 | 0.010 | 0.010 |
| N | 0.004 | 0.009 | 0.005 | 0.012 | 0.031 | 0.076 | 0.050 | 0.113 |

Figure 1: Joint probability distribution $p(P, W, V, A)$ of four random variables $P$ (pain), $W$ (weightloss), $V$ (vomiting) and $A$ (adeno).

## Discrete JPDs are described by

- nested tables,
- multi-dimensional arrays,
- data cubes, or
- tensors
having entries in $[0,1]$ and summing to 1 .

Definition 1. Let $\Omega$ be a finite set. We call $\Omega$ the sample space and every subset $E \subseteq \Omega$ an event; subsets containing exactly one element, i.e.

$$
E=\{e\}, \quad e \in \Omega
$$

are called elementary events.
A function

$$
p: \mathcal{P}(\Omega) \rightarrow[0,1]
$$

with

1. $p$ is additive, i.e. for disjunct $E, F \subseteq \Omega$ :

$$
p(E \cup F)=p(E)+p(F)
$$

2. $p(\Omega)=1$
is called probability function (axioms of probability, Kolmogorov, 1933). A pair $(\Omega, p)$ is called probability space.

## Lemma 1.

$$
p(E)=\sum_{e \in E} p(\{e\}), \quad E \subseteq \Omega
$$

Example 1. Throwing a dice can be described by

$$
\Omega:=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}
$$

For a fair dice we have

$$
p(\{1\})=p\left(\{2\}=\ldots=p(\{6\})=\frac{1}{6}\right.
$$

Then $E=\{2\}$ is the event of dicing a 2, $F=\{2,4,6\}$ the event of dicing an even number.

$$
p(\{2,4,6\})=p(\{2\})+p(\{4\})+p(\{6\})=\frac{1}{2}
$$

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Definition 2. Let $E, F \subseteq \Omega$ with $p(F)>0$. Then

$$
p(E \mid F):=p^{\mid F}:=\frac{p(E \cap F)}{p(F)}
$$

is called conditional probability of $E$ given $F$.

Two events $E, F \subseteq \Omega$ are called independent, if

$$
p(E \cap F)=p(E) \cdot p(F)
$$

i.e., if $p(E \mid F)=p(E)$ or $p(E)=0$ or $p(F)=0$.

Example 2. Let $F:=\{2,4,6\}$ be the event of dicing an even number. Then the conditional probability

$$
p(\{2\} \mid F)=\frac{1}{6} / \frac{1}{2}=\frac{1}{3}
$$

describes the probability of dicing a 2 given we diced an even number.

Example 3. The events $E:=\{2,4,6\}$ of dicing an even number and $F:=\{1,2,3,4\}$ of dicing a number less than 5 are independent as

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(E \cap F) & =p(\{2,4\})=\frac{1}{3} \\
& \stackrel{!}{=} p(E) \cdot p(F)=\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 3. Let $G \subseteq \Omega$ be an event with $p(G)>0$. Two events $E, F \subseteq \Omega$ are called conditionally independent given $G$, if

$$
p(E \cap F \cap G)=p(E \cap G) \cdot p(F \cap G) / p(G)
$$

i.e., if $p(E \mid F \cap G)=p(E \mid G)$ or $p(E \mid G)=0$ or $p(F \mid G)=0$.

Definition 4. A partition $\left(E_{i}\right)_{i=1, \ldots, m}$ of $\Omega$ is also called a set of mutually exclusive and exhaustive events, i.e.

1. $E_{i} \neq \emptyset$,
2. $\bigcup_{i=1}^{m} E_{i}=\Omega$, and
3. $E_{i}$ are pairwise disjunct (i.e., $E_{i} \cap E_{j}=\emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ ).

## Example 4. The events

- $E:=\{2,4,6\}$ of dicing an even number and
- $F:=\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ of dicing anything but 6
are dependent as

$$
p(E \cap F)=p(\{2,4\})=\frac{1}{3} \neq p(E) \cdot p(F)=\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{5}{6}
$$

But given the event

- $G:=\{1,2,3,4\}$ of dicing a number less than 5 ,
$E$ and $F$ are conditionally independent given $G$ as

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(E \cap F \cap G) & =p(\{2,4\})=\frac{1}{3} \\
& \stackrel{!}{=} p(E \cap G) \cdot p(F \cap G) / p(G)=\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} / \frac{2}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

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Definition 5. Any function

$$
X: \Omega \rightarrow X
$$

is called a random variable (by abuse of notation we label both, the map and the target space with $X$ ).

We assign each value $x \in X$ a probability via

$$
p(X=x):=p\left(X^{-1}(x)\right)
$$

$p$ is called the probability distribution of $X$.
If $X$ is numeric, e.g., $X=\mathbb{R}$, we call

$$
E(X):=\sum_{x \in X} x \cdot p(x)
$$

the expected value of $X$.

Example 5. Let $\Omega$ contain the outcomes of a throw of two (distinguishable) dice, i.e.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Omega:=\{ & (1,1),(1,2), \ldots,(1,6), \\
& (2,1),(2,2), \ldots,(6,5),(6,6)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the sum of the two dice,

$$
\begin{aligned}
X: \quad & \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \\
(i, j) & \mapsto i+j
\end{aligned}
$$

is a random variable.
The value $X=3$ then represents the event $X^{-1}(3)=$ $\{(1,2),(2,1)\}$ and thus $p(X=3)=\frac{2}{36}$.

The expected value of $X$ is $E(X)=7$.

| $X$ | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $p(X)$ | $\frac{1}{36}$ | $\frac{2}{36}$ | $\frac{3}{36}$ | $\frac{4}{36}$ | $\frac{5}{36}$ | $\frac{6}{36}$ | $\frac{5}{36}$ | $\frac{4}{36}$ | $\frac{3}{36}$ | $\frac{2}{36}$ | $\frac{1}{36}$ |

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Definition 6. Let $X$ and $Y$ be two random variables. Then their cartesian product

$$
\begin{aligned}
X \times Y: \Omega & \rightarrow X \times Y \\
e & \mapsto(X(e), Y(e))
\end{aligned}
$$

is again a random variable; its distribution is called joint probability distribution of $X$ and $Y$.

Example 6. Let $\Omega$ be the outcomes of a throw of two dices and $X$ the sum of their numbers as before. Let $Y$ be

$$
Y(i, j):= \begin{cases}\text { odd, } & \text { if } i \text { and } j \text { is odd } \\ \text { even, } & \text { if } i \text { or } j \text { is even }\end{cases}
$$

Then the probability of

$$
p(X=4, Y=\text { odd })=p(\{(1,3),(3,1)\})=\frac{2}{36}
$$

In general,

$$
p(X=x, Y=y) \neq p(X=x) \cdot p(Y=y)
$$

as can be seen here:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p(X=4) & =p(\{(1,3),(3,1),(2,2)\})=\frac{3}{36} \\
p(Y=\text { odd }) & =\frac{9}{36}
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition 7. Let $p$ be a the joint probability of the random variables $\mathcal{X}:=\left\{X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$ and $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ a subset thereof. Then

$$
p(\mathcal{Y}=y):=p^{\downarrow \mathcal{Y}}(y):=\sum_{x \in \operatorname{dom} \mathcal{X} \backslash \mathcal{Y}} p(\mathcal{X} \backslash \mathcal{Y}=x, \mathcal{Y}=y)
$$

is a probability distribution of $\mathcal{Y}$ called marginal probability distribution.

Example 7. Marginal $p(V, A)$ :

| Vomiting | Y | N |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Adeno Y | 0.350 | 0.350 |
| N | 0.090 | 0.210 |


| Pain | Y |  |  | N |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Weightloss | Y |  | N |  | Y | N |  |
| Vomiting | Y | N | Y | N | Y | N | Y |
| Adeno Y | 0.220 | 0.220 | 0.025 | 0.025 | 0.095 | 0.095 | 0.010 |
| N | 0.010 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 0.004 | 0.009 | 0.005 | 0.012 | 0.031 | 0.076 | 0.050 |

Figure 2: Joint probability distribution $p(P, W, V, A)$ of four random variables $P$ (pain), $W$ (weightloss), $V$ (vomiting) and $A$ (adeno).
Lars Schmidt-Thieme, Information Systems and Machine Learning Lab (ISMLL), Institute BW/WI \& Institute for Computer Science, University of Hildesheim Course on Bayesian Networks, summer term 2010

Bayesian Networks / 3. Random Variables
Marginal probability distributions / example


Figure 3: Joint probability distribution and all of its marginals [BK02, p. 75].

Definition 8. By $p>0$ we mean

$$
p(x)>0, \quad \text { for all } x \in \prod \operatorname{dom}(p)
$$

Then $p$ is called non-extreme.

## Example 8.

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0.4 & 0.0 \\
0.3 & 0.3
\end{array}\right)
$$

$\left(\begin{array}{ll}0.4 & 0.1 \\ 0.2 & 0.3\end{array}\right)$

Definition 9. For a JPD $p$ and a subset $\mathcal{Y} \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(p)$ of its variables with $p^{\perp \mathcal{V}}>0$ we define

$$
p^{\mid \mathcal{Y}}:=\frac{p}{p^{\mathfrak{V}}}
$$

as conditional probability distribution of $p$ w.r.t. $\mathcal{Y}$.

A conditional probability distribution w.r.t. $\mathcal{Y}$ sums to 1 for all fixed values of $\mathcal{Y}$, i.e.,

$$
\left(p^{\mid \mathcal{Y}}\right)^{\downarrow \mathcal{Y}} \equiv 1
$$

Example 9. Let $p$ be the JPD

$$
p:=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0.4 & 0.1 \\
0.2 & 0.3
\end{array}\right)
$$

on two variables $R$ (rows) and $C$ (columns) with the domains $\operatorname{dom}(R)=\operatorname{dom}(C)=\{1,2\}$.

The conditional probability distribution w.r.t. $C$ is

$$
p^{\mid C}:=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 / 3 & 1 / 4 \\
1 / 3 & 3 / 4
\end{array}\right)
$$

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Lemma 2 (Chain rule). Let $p$ be a JPD on variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$ with $p\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right)>0$. Then

$$
p\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)=p\left(X_{n} \mid X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n-1}\right) \cdots p\left(X_{2} \mid X_{1}\right) \cdot p\left(X_{1}\right)
$$

The chain rule provides a factorization of the JPD in some of its conditional marginals.

The factorizations stemming from the chain rule are trivial as they have as many parameters as the original JPD:

$$
\text { \#parameters }=2^{n-1}+2^{n-2}+\cdots+2^{1}+2^{0}=2^{n}-1
$$

(example computation for all binary variables)

Lemma 3 (Bayes Formula). Let p be a JPD and $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$ be two disjoint sets of its variables. Let $p(\mathcal{Y})>0$. Then

$$
p(\mathcal{X} \mid \mathcal{Y})=\frac{p(\mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{X}) \cdot p(\mathcal{X})}{p(\mathcal{Y})}
$$



Thomas Bayes (1701/2-1761)

Example 10. Assign each object in fig. 4 an equal probability $\frac{1}{13}$.
Let $X$ be the label of the outcome ( 1 or 2 ) and $Y$ be the color of the outcome (black or white).

Then

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
p(X=1 \mid Y & =\text { black }) \\
& =\frac{p(Y=\text { black } \mid X=1) p(X=1)}{p(Y=\text { black } \mid X=1) p(X=1)+p(Y=\text { black } \mid X=2) p(X=2)} \\
& =\frac{\frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{5}{13}}{\frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{5}{13}+\frac{6}{8} \cdot \frac{8}{13}}=\frac{1}{3} \\
1 & 1
\end{array}
$$

Figure 4: 13 objects with different shape, color, and label [Nea03, p. 8].

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Definition 10. Two sets $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$ of variables are called independent, when

$$
p(\mathcal{X}=x, \mathcal{Y}=y)=p(\mathcal{X}=x) \cdot p(\mathcal{Y}=y)
$$

for all $x$ and $y$ or equivalently

$$
p(\mathcal{X}=x \mid \mathcal{Y}=y)=p(\mathcal{X}=x)
$$

for $y$ with $p(\mathcal{Y}=y)>0$.

## Example 11. Let $\Omega$ be the cards in an ordinary deck and

- $R=$ true, if a card is royal,
- $T=$ true, if a card is a ten or a jack,
- $S=$ true, if a card is spade.

Cards for a single color:

| 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |



| $S$ | $R$ | $T$ | $p(R, T \mid S)$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{Y}$ | Y | Y | $1 / 13$ |
|  |  | N | $2 / 13$ |
|  | N | Y | $1 / 13$ |
|  |  | N | $9 / 13$ |
| N | Y | Y | $3 / 39=1 / 13$ |
|  |  | N | $6 / 39=2 / 13$ |
|  | N | Y | $3 / 39=1 / 13$ |
|  |  | N | $27 / 39=9 / 13$ |


| $R$ | $T$ | $p(R, T)$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Y | Y | $4 / 52=1 / 13$ |
|  | N | $8 / 52=2 / 13$ |
| N | Y | $4 / 52=1 / 13$ |
|  | N | $36 / 52=9 / 13$ |

$$
N \quad 27 / 39=9 / 13
$$

Definition 11. Let $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$, and $\mathcal{Z}$ be sets of variables.
$\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$ are called conditionally independent given $\mathcal{Z}$, when for all events $\mathcal{Z}=z$ with $p(\mathcal{Z}=z)>0$ all pairs of events $\mathcal{X}=x$ and $\mathcal{Y}=y$ are conditionally independend given $\mathcal{Z}=z$, i.e.
$p(\mathcal{X}=x, \mathcal{Y}=y, \mathcal{Z}=z)=\frac{p(\mathcal{X}=x, \mathcal{Z}=z) \cdot p(\mathcal{Y}=y, \mathcal{Z}=z)}{p(\mathcal{Z}=z)}$
for all $x, y$ and $z$ (with $p(\mathcal{Z}=z)>0$ ), or equivalently

$$
p(\mathcal{X}=x \mid \mathcal{Y}=y, \mathcal{Z}=z)=p(\mathcal{X}=x \mid \mathcal{Z}=z)
$$

We write $I_{p}(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} \mid \mathcal{Z})$ for the statement, that $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ are conditionally independent given $\mathcal{Z}$.

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Bayesian Networks / 5. Independent Random Variables

## Conditionally independent variables / Example

Example 12. Assume $S$ (shape), $C$ (color), and $L$ (label) be three random variables that are distributed as shown in figure 5.

We show $I_{p}(\{L\},\{S\} \mid\{C\})$, i.e., that label and shape are conditionally independent given the color.

| $C$ | $S$ | $L$ | $p(L \mid C, S)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| black | square | 1 | $2 / 6=1 / 3$ |
|  |  | 2 | $4 / 6=2 / 3$ |
|  | round | 1 | $1 / 3$ |
|  |  | 2 | $2 / 3$ |
| white | square | 1 | $1 / 2$ |
|  |  | 2 | $1 / 2$ |
|  | round | 1 | $1 / 2$ |
|  |  | 2 | $1 / 2$ |


| $C$ | $L$ | $p(L \mid C)$ |
| :---: | ---: | ---: |
| black | 1 | $3 / 9=1 / 3$ |
|  | 2 | $6 / 9=2 / 3$ |
| white | 1 | $2 / 4=1 / 2$ |
|  | 2 | $2 / 4=1 / 2$ |



Figure 5: 13 objects with different shape, color, and label [Nea03, p. 8].

## References

[BK02] Christian Borgelt and Rudolf Kruse. Graphical Models. Wiley, New York, 2002.
[Nea03] Richard E. Neapolitan. Learning Bayesian Networks. Prentice Hall, 2003.

