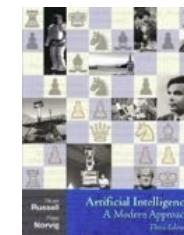


Bayesian Networks

- Syntax
- Semantics
- Parametrized Distributions
- Inference in Bayesian Networks
 - Exact Inference
 - enumeration
 - variable elimination
 - Approximate Inference
 - stochastic simulation
 - Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)



Many slides based on
Russell & Norvig's slides
[Artificial Intelligence:
A Modern Approach](#)

Inference Tasks

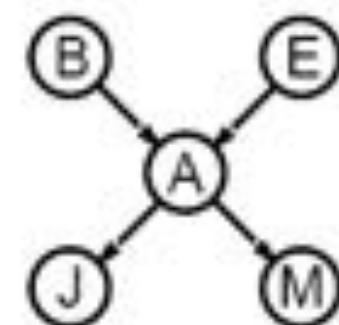
- **Simple queries**
 - compute the posterior marginal distribution for a variable
- **Conjunctive queries**
 - compute the posterior for a conjunction of variables
$$\mathbf{P}(X_i, X_j | \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e}) = \mathbf{P}(X_i | \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e}) \cdot \mathbf{P}(X_j | X_i, \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e})$$
- **Optimal decisions**
 - decision networks include utility information
 - probabilistic inference required for $P(\text{outcome} | \text{action}, \text{evidence})$
- **Value of Information**
 - Which evidence to seek next?
- **Sensitivity Analysis**
 - Which probability values are most critical?
- **Explanation**
 - Why do I need a new starter motor?

Inference by Enumeration

Slightly intelligent way to sum out variables from the joint without actually constructing its explicit representation

Simple query on the burglary network:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(B|j, m) &= \mathbf{P}(B, j, m)/\mathbf{P}(j, m) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B, j, m) \\ &= \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B, e, a, j, m)\end{aligned}$$



Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(B|j, m) &= \alpha \sum_e \sum_a \mathbf{P}(B) \mathbf{P}(e) \mathbf{P}(a|B, e) \mathbf{P}(j|a) \mathbf{P}(m|a) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \sum_e \mathbf{P}(e) \sum_a \mathbf{P}(a|B, e) \mathbf{P}(j|a) \mathbf{P}(m|a)\end{aligned}$$

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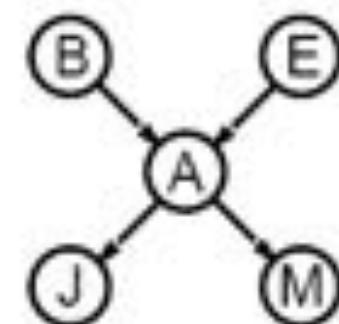
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Worst case: $O(n d^n)$ time
 $O(d^n)$ terms, each consisting of a product of $O(n)$ probabilities

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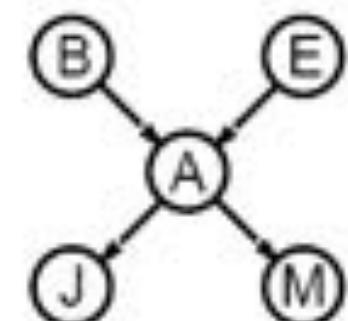
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Recursive depth-first enumeration: $O(n)$ space, $O(d^n)$ time

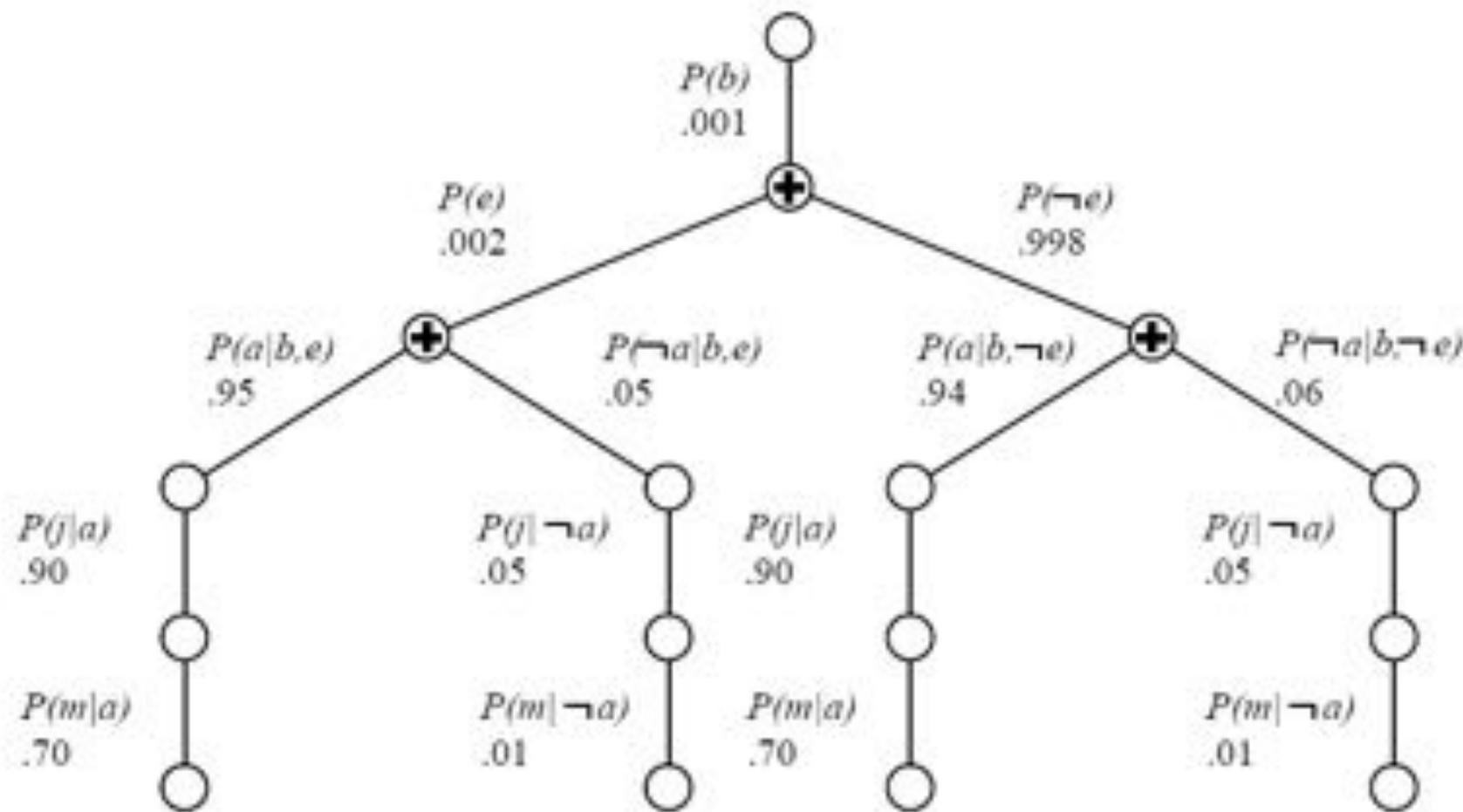
where n is the number of variables and d is the number of values per variable

Enumeration Algorithm

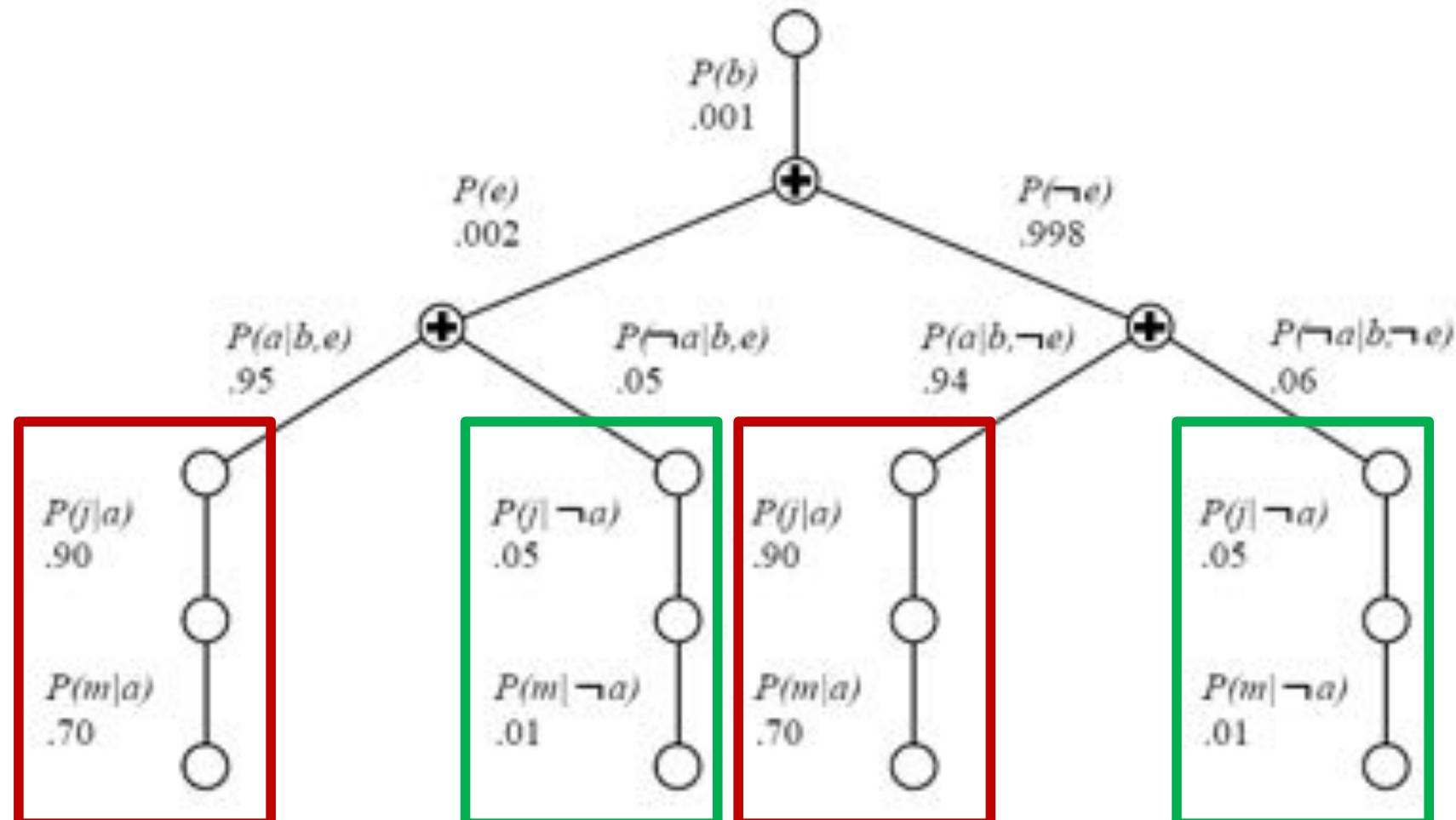
```
function ENUMERATION-ASK( $X, e, bn$ ) returns a distribution over  $X$ 
    inputs:  $X$ , the query variable
         $e$ , observed values for variables  $E$ 
         $bn$ , a Bayesian network with variables  $\{X\} \cup E \cup Y$ 
     $Q(X) \leftarrow$  a distribution over  $X$ , initially empty
    for each value  $x_i$  of  $X$  do
        extend  $e$  with value  $x_i$  for  $X$ 
         $Q(x_i) \leftarrow$  ENUMERATE-ALL(VARS[ $bn$ ],  $e$ )
    return NORMALIZE( $Q(X)$ )
```

```
function ENUMERATE-ALL( $vars, e$ ) returns a real number
    if EMPTY?( $vars$ ) then return 1.0
     $Y \leftarrow$  FIRST( $vars$ )
    if  $Y$  has value  $y$  in  $e$ 
        then return  $P(y | Pa(Y)) \times$  ENUMERATE-ALL(REST( $vars$ ),  $e$ )
    else return  $\sum_y P(y | Pa(Y)) \times$  ENUMERATE-ALL(REST( $vars$ ),  $e_y$ )
        where  $e_y$  is  $e$  extended with  $Y = y$ 
```

Evaluation Tree



Evaluation Tree



Enumeration is inefficient: repeated computation
e.g., computes $P(j|a)P(m|a)$ for each value of e

Variable Elimination

Move the sums into the products

- Key idea:
 - Do not multiply left-to-right but right-to-left.
 - Thus, terms that appear inside sums are evaluated first
 - intermediate results are stored as so-called **factors**
 - factors can be re-used several times in the same computation
 - is a form of **dynamic programming**

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 - factors can be re-used several times in the same computation
 - is a form of **dynamic programming**
- Example: $P(B|j, m)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \alpha \underbrace{P(B)}_{\tilde{B}} \sum_e \underbrace{P(e)}_E \sum_a \underbrace{P(a|B, e)}_A \underbrace{P(j|a)}_J \underbrace{P(m|a)}_M \\ &= \alpha P(B) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a P(a|B, e) P(j|a) f_M(a) \\ &= \alpha P(B) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a P(a|B, e) f_J(a) f_M(a) \\ &= \alpha P(B) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a f_A(a, b, e) f_J(a) f_M(a) \\ &= \alpha P(B) \sum_e P(e) f_{\bar{A}JM}(b, e) \text{ (sum out } \bar{A}) \\ &= \alpha P(B) f_{E\bar{A}JM}(b) \text{ (sum out } E) \\ &= \alpha f_B(b) \times f_{E\bar{A}JM}(b) \end{aligned}$$

Factors

- A **factor** is a vector / matrix containing all probabilities for all dependent variables
- Examples:

$$\mathbf{f}_M(A) = \begin{pmatrix} P(m | a) \\ P(m | \neg a) \end{pmatrix}$$

- The factor $\mathbf{f}_A(A, B, E)$ is a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ matrix

Basic Operations

- **Summing Out** a variable from a product of factors
 - move all constant factors outside of the summation
 - add up submatrices in pointwise product of remaining factors

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_x \mathbf{f}_1 \times \dots \times \mathbf{f}_k &= \mathbf{f}_1 \times \dots \times \mathbf{f}_i \times \sum_x \mathbf{f}_{i+1} \times \dots \times \mathbf{f}_k \\ &= \mathbf{f}_1 \times \dots \times \mathbf{f}_i \times \mathbf{f}_X\end{aligned}$$

assuming $\mathbf{f}_l, \dots, \mathbf{f}_i$ do not depend on X

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assuming $\mathbf{f}_1, \dots, \mathbf{f}_i$ do not depend on X

- **Pointwise Product** of factors \mathbf{f}_1 and \mathbf{f}_2
 - for example: $\mathbf{f}_1(A, B) \times \mathbf{f}_2(B, C) = \mathbf{f}(A, B, C)$
 - in general: $\mathbf{f}_1(X_1, \dots, X_j, Y_1, \dots, Y_k) \times \mathbf{f}_2(Y_1, \dots, Y_k, Z_1, \dots, Z_l) = \mathbf{f}(X_1, \dots, X_j, Y_1, \dots, Y_k, Z_1, \dots, Z_l)$
 - has 2^{j+k+l} entries (if all variables are binary)

Example: Pointwise Product

p	q	$f_1(p, q)$
T	T	0.1
T	F	0.3
F	T	0.5
F	F	0.7

q	r	$f_2(q, r)$
T	T	0.2
T	F	0.4
F	T	0.6
F	F	0.8

p	q	r	$f_1(p, q)$	$f_2(q, r)$	pointwise product
T	T	T	0.1	0.2	0.1 × 0.2
T	T	F	0.1	0.4	0.1 × 0.4
T	F	T	0.3	0.6	0.3 × 0.6
T	F	F	0.3	0.8	0.3 × 0.8
F	T	T	0.5	0.2	0.5 × 0.2
F	T	F	0.5	0.4	0.5 × 0.4
F	F	T	0.7	0.6	0.7 × 0.6
F	F	F	0.7	0.8	0.7 × 0.8

Variable Elimination Algorithm

```
function ELIMINATION-ASK( $X, e, bn$ ) returns a distribution over  $X$ 
    inputs:  $X$ , the query variable
             $e$ , evidence specified as an event
             $bn$ , a belief network specifying joint distribution  $\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ 
     $factors \leftarrow []$ ;  $vars \leftarrow \text{REVERSE}(\text{VARS}[bn])$ 
    for each  $var$  in  $vars$  do
         $factors \leftarrow [\text{MAKE-FACTOR}(var, e)|factors]$ 
        if  $var$  is a hidden variable then  $factors \leftarrow \text{SUM-OUT}(var, factors)$ 
    return NORMALIZE(POINTWISE-PRODUCT( $factors$ ))
```

We want to compute $P(d)$

Need to eliminate: v, s, x, t, l, a, b

Initial factors

$$\underline{P(v)P(s)P(t|v)P(l|s)P(b|s)P(a|t,l)P(x|a)P(d|a,b)}$$

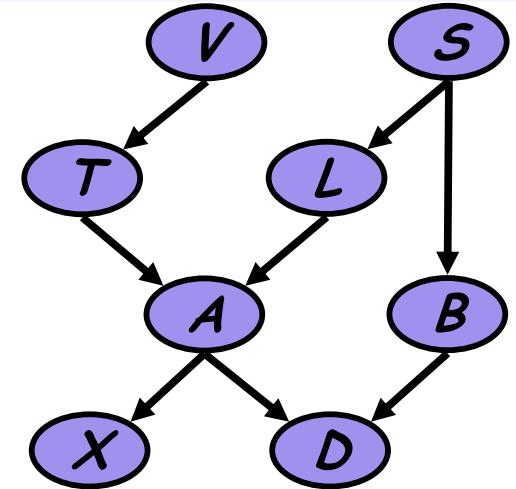
Eliminate: v

$$\text{Compute: } f_v(t) = \sum_v P(v)P(t|v)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{f_v(t)P(s)P(l|s)P(b|s)P(a|t,l)P(x|a)P(d|a,b)}$$

Note: $f_v(t) = P(t)$

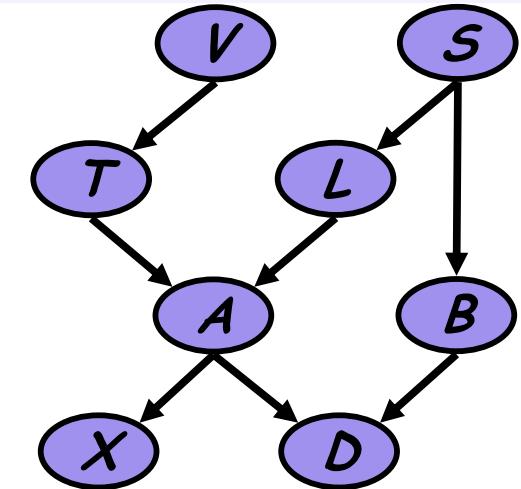
In general, result of elimination is not necessarily a probability term



We want to compute $P(d)$

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Initial factors



$$P(v)P(s)P(t | v)P(l | s)P(b | s)P(a | t, l)P(x | a)P(d | a, b)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_v(t) \underline{P(s)} \underline{P(l | s)} \underline{P(b | s)} P(a | t, l)P(x | a)P(d | a, b)$$

Eliminate: s

$$\text{Compute: } f_s(b, l) = \sum_s P(s)P(b | s)P(l | s)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_v(t) \underline{f_s(b, l)} P(a | t, l)P(x | a)P(d | a, b)$$

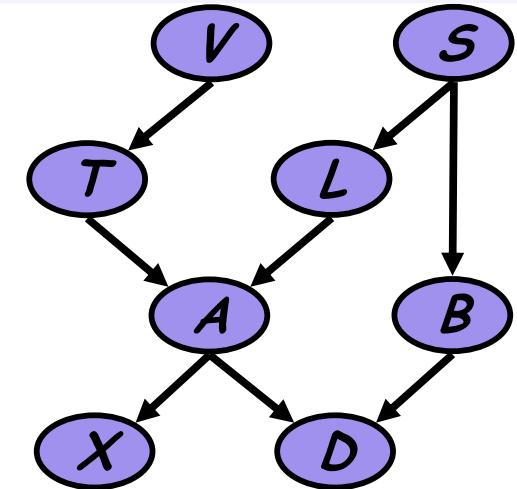
Summing on s results in a factor with two arguments $f_s(b, l)$

In general, result of elimination may be a function of several variables

We want to compute $P(d)$

Need to eliminate: v, s, x, t, l, a, b

Initial factors



$$P(v)P(s)P(t|v)P(l|s)P(b|s)P(a|t,l)P(x|a)P(d|a,b)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_v(t)P(s)P(l|s)P(b|s)P(a|t,l)P(x|a)P(d|a,b)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_v(t)f_s(b,l)P(a|t,l)\underline{P(x|a)}P(d|a,b)$$

Eliminate: x

Compute: $f_x(a) = \sum_x P(x|a)$

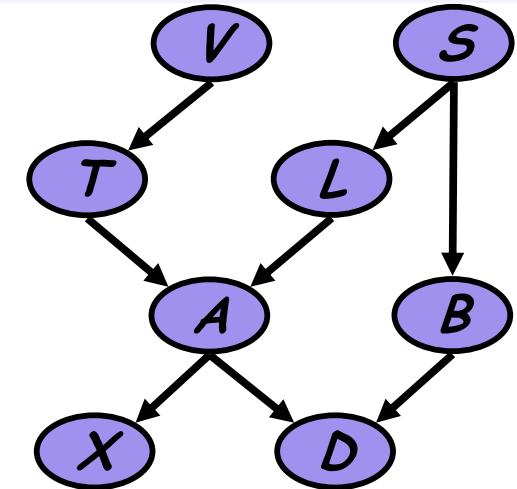
$$\Rightarrow f_v(t)f_s(b,l)\underline{f_x(a)}P(a|t,l)P(d|a,b)$$

Note: $f_x(a) = 1$ for all values of a !!

We want to compute $P(d)$

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Initial factors



$$P(v)P(s)P(t | v)P(l | s)P(b | s)P(a | t, l)P(x | a)P(d | a, b)$$

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$$\Rightarrow \underline{f_v(t)}f_s(b, l)\underline{f_x(a)}\underline{P(a | t, l)}P(d | a, b)$$

Eliminate: t

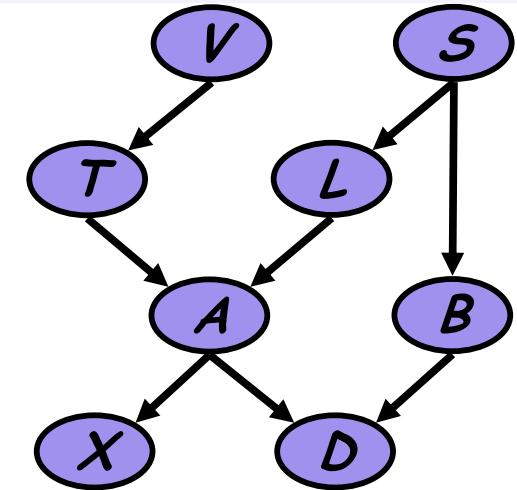
Compute: $f_t(a, l) = \sum_t f_v(t)P(a | t, l)$

$$\Rightarrow f_s(b, l)f_x(a)\underline{f_t(a, l)}P(d | a, b)$$

We want to compute $P(d)$

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$$\Rightarrow \underline{f_s(b, l)} \underline{f_x(a)} \underline{f_t(a, l)} P(d | a, b)$$

Eliminate: /

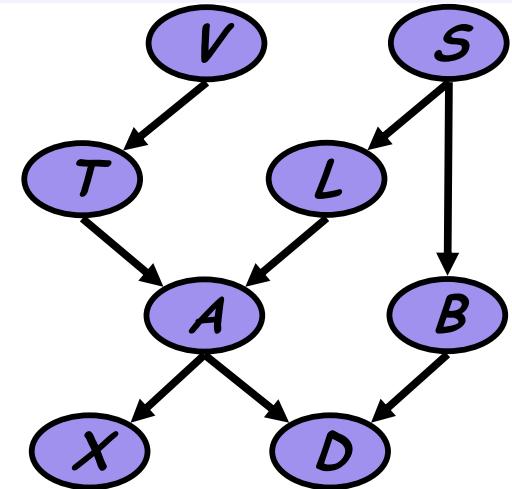
Compute: $f_l(a, b) = \sum f_s(b, l)f_t(a, l)$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\underline{f_l(a, b)}} f_x(a) P(d | a, b)$$

We want to compute $P(d)$

Need to eliminate: v, s, x, t, l, a, b

Initial factors



$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(v)P(s)P(t | v)P(l | s)P(b | s)P(a | t, l)P(x | a)P(d | a, b) \\
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 \Rightarrow & f_s(b, l)f_x(a)f_t(a, l)P(d | a, b) \\
 \Rightarrow & \underline{f_l(a, b)} \underline{f_x(a)} \underline{P(d | a, b)} \Rightarrow \underline{f_a(b, d)} \Rightarrow \underline{f_b(d)}
 \end{aligned}$$

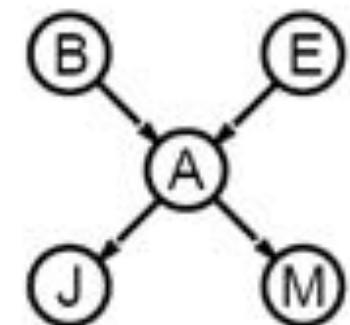
Eliminate: a, b

Compute: $f_a(b, d) = \sum_a f_l(a, b) f_x(a) p(d | a, b)$ $f_b(d) = \sum_b f_a(b, d)$

Irrelevant Variables

Consider the query $P(JohnCalls | Burglary = \text{true})$

$$P(J|b) = \alpha P(b) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a P(a|b, e) P(J|a) \sum_m P(m|a)$$

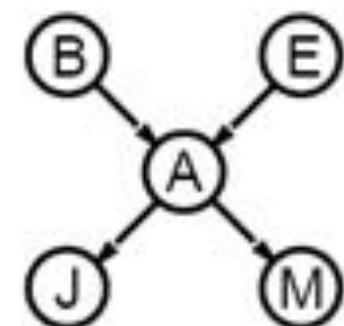


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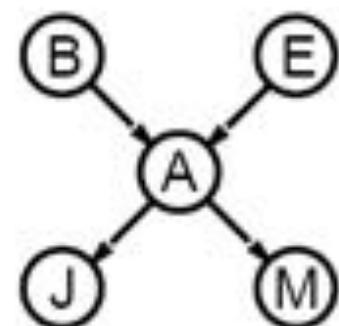


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Thm 1: Y is irrelevant unless $Y \in \text{Ancestors}(\{X\} \cup \mathbf{E})$

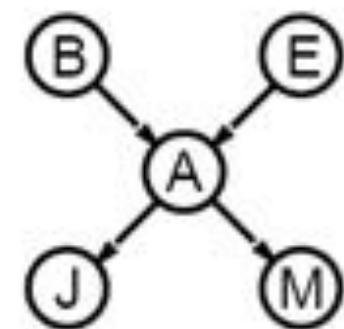
Here, $X = JohnCalls$, $\mathbf{E} = \{Burglary\}$, and
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so $MaryCalls$ is irrelevant

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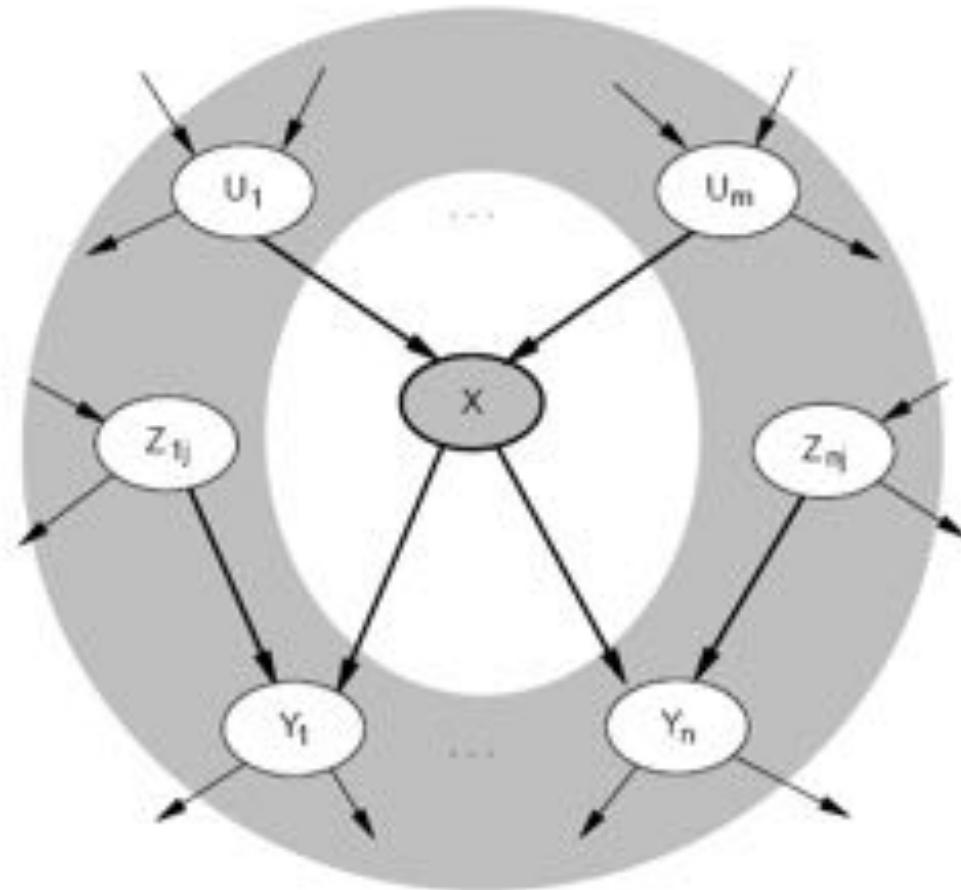
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Note: This is similar to backward chaining from a query in Prolog

(Directed) Markov Blanket

- **Markov Blanket:**
 - parents + children + children's parents

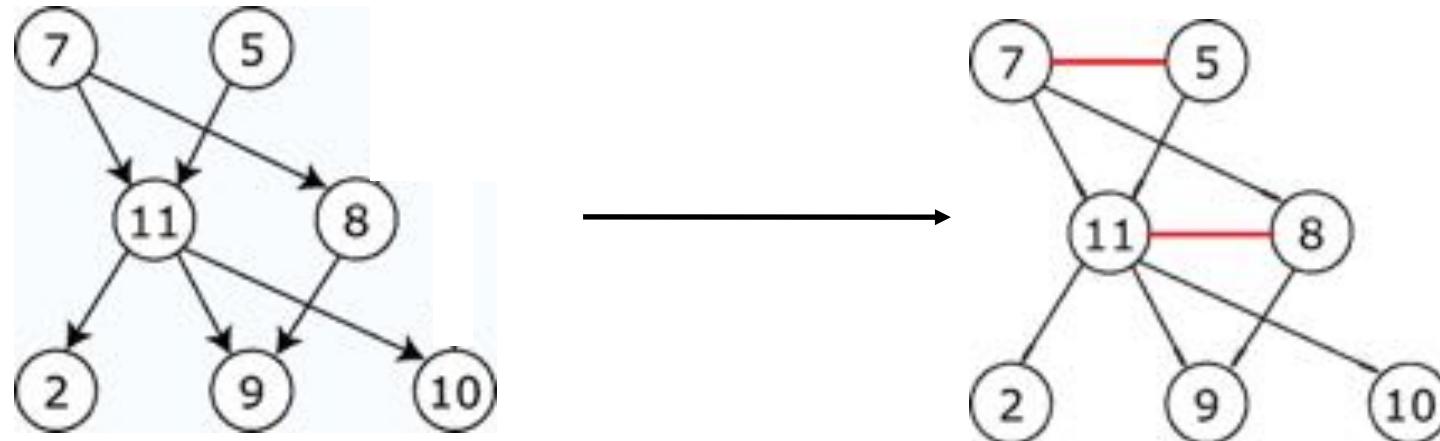


- Each node is conditionally independent of all other nodes given its markov blanket

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P} \ X | U_1, \dots, U_m, Y_1, \dots, Y_n, Z_{1j}, \dots, Z_{nj} &= \\ &= \mathbf{P} \ X | \text{all variables} \end{aligned}$$

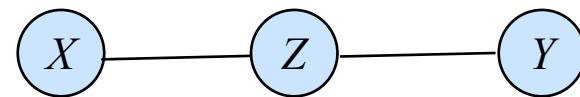
Moral Graph

- The moral graph is an undirected graph that is obtained as follows:
 - connect all parents of all nodes
 - make all directed links undirected
- Note:
 - the moral graph connects each node to all nodes of its Markov blanket
 - it is already connected to parents and children
 - now it is also connected to the parents of its children

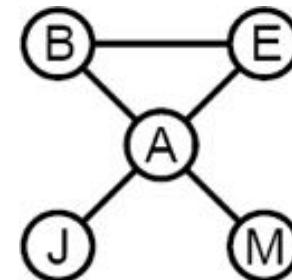


Moral Graph and Irrelevant Variables

- m-separation:
 - variable X is **m-separated** from Y by Z iff it is separated by Z in the moral graph

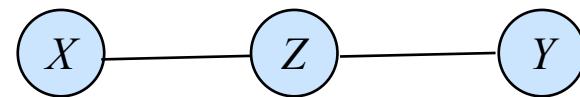


- Example:
 - J is m-separated from E by A

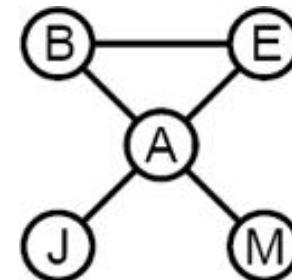


Moral Graph and Irrelevant Variables

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 - variable X is **m-separated** from Y by Z iff it is separated by Z in the moral graph



- Example:
 - J is m-separated from E by A



Theorem 2: Y is irrelevant if it is m-separated from X by Z

- Example:

For $P(JohnCalls | Alarm = true)$, both *Burglary* and *Earthquake* are irrelevant

Complexity of Exact Inference

Singly connected networks (or polytrees):

- any two nodes are connected by at most one (undirected) path
- time and space cost of variable elimination are $O(d^k n)$

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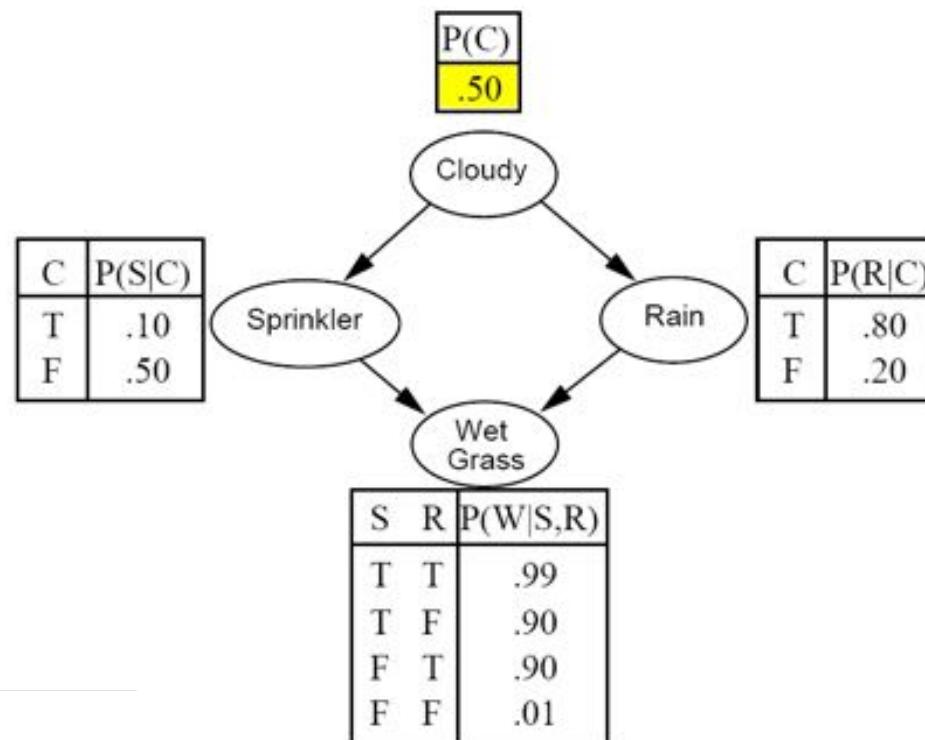
- any two nodes are connected by at most one (undirected) path
- time and space cost of variable elimination are $O(d^k n)$

Multiply connected networks:

- can reduce 3SAT to exact inference \Rightarrow NP-hard

Example:

Two paths from
Cloudy to Wet Grass



Complexity of Exact Inference

Singly connected networks (or polytrees):

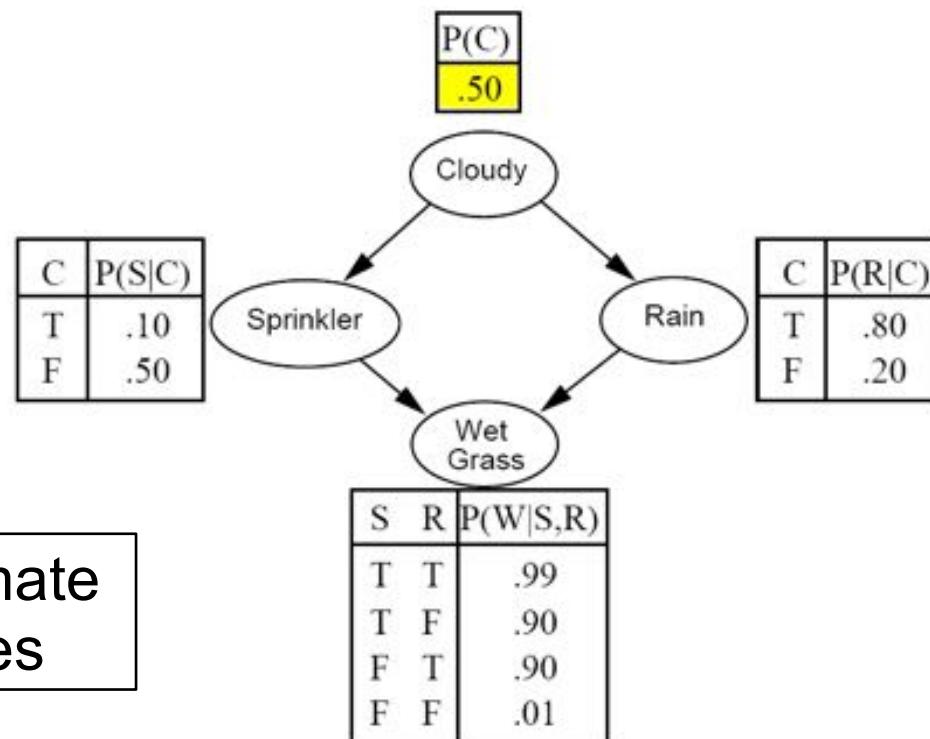
- any two nodes are connected by at most one (undirected) path
- time and space cost of variable elimination are $O(d^k n)$

Multiply connected networks:

- can reduce 3SAT to exact inference \Rightarrow NP-hard

Example:

Two paths from
Cloudy to Wet Grass



→ we “need” approximate inference techniques

Complexity of Inference

Theorem:

Inference in Bayesian networks (even approximate, without proof) is NP-hard

Inference by Stochastic Simulation (Sampling from a Bayesian Network)

Basic idea:

- 1) Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
- 2) Compute an approximate posterior probability \hat{P}
- 3) Show this converges to the true probability P



Outline:

- Sampling from an empty network
- Rejection sampling: reject samples disagreeing with evidence
- Likelihood weighting: use evidence to weight samples
- Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): sample from a stochastic process whose stationary distribution is the true posterior

How to draw a sample ?

Given random variable X , $D(X)=\{0, 1\}$

Given $P(X) = \{0.3, 0.7\}$

How to draw a sample ?

Given random variable X , $D(X)=\{0, 1\}$

Given $P(X) = \{0.3, 0.7\}$

Sample $X \leftarrow P(X)$

draw random number $r \in [0, 1]$

If ($r < 0.3$) then set $X=0$

Else set $X=1$

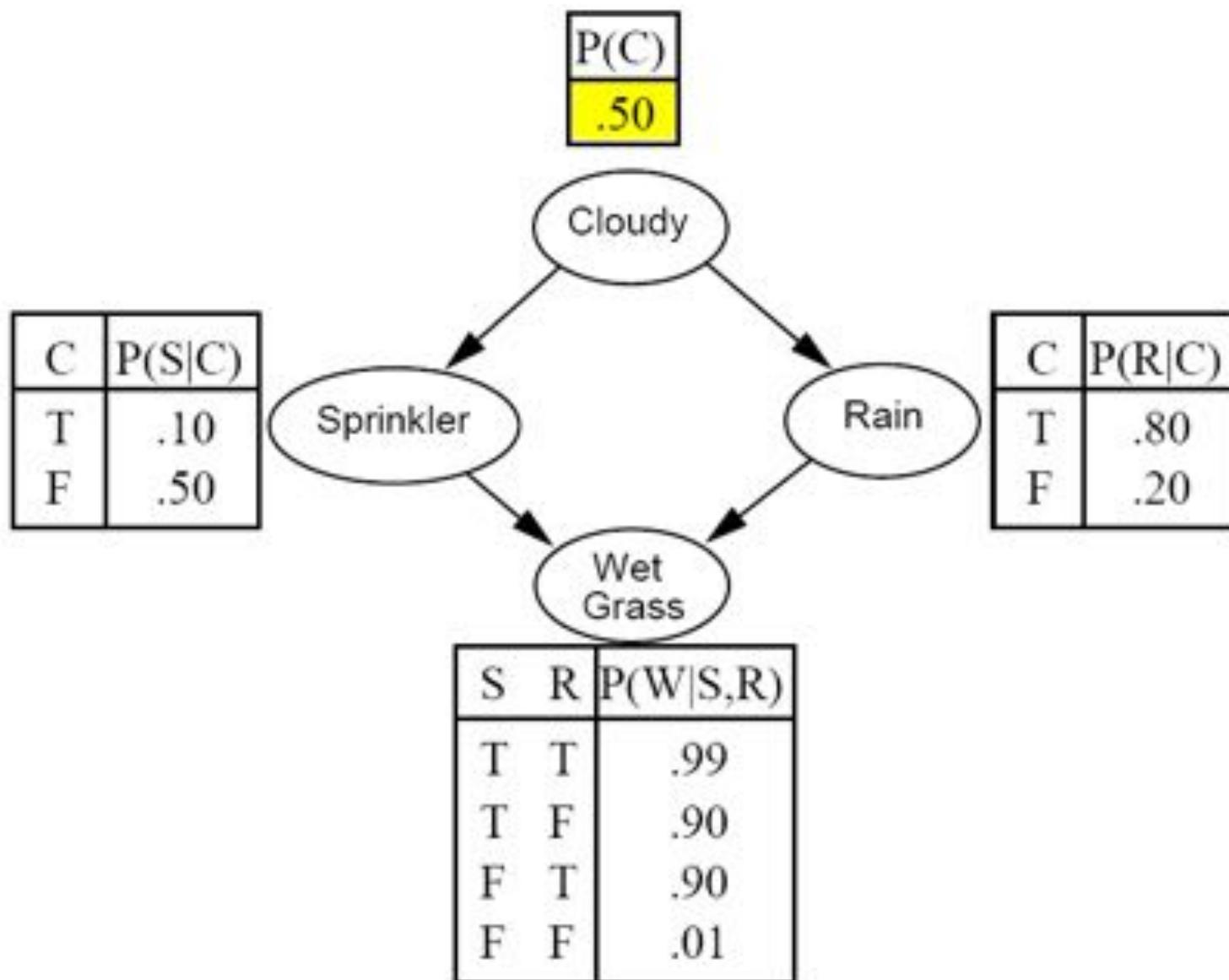
Can generalize for any domain size

Sampling from an “Empty” Network

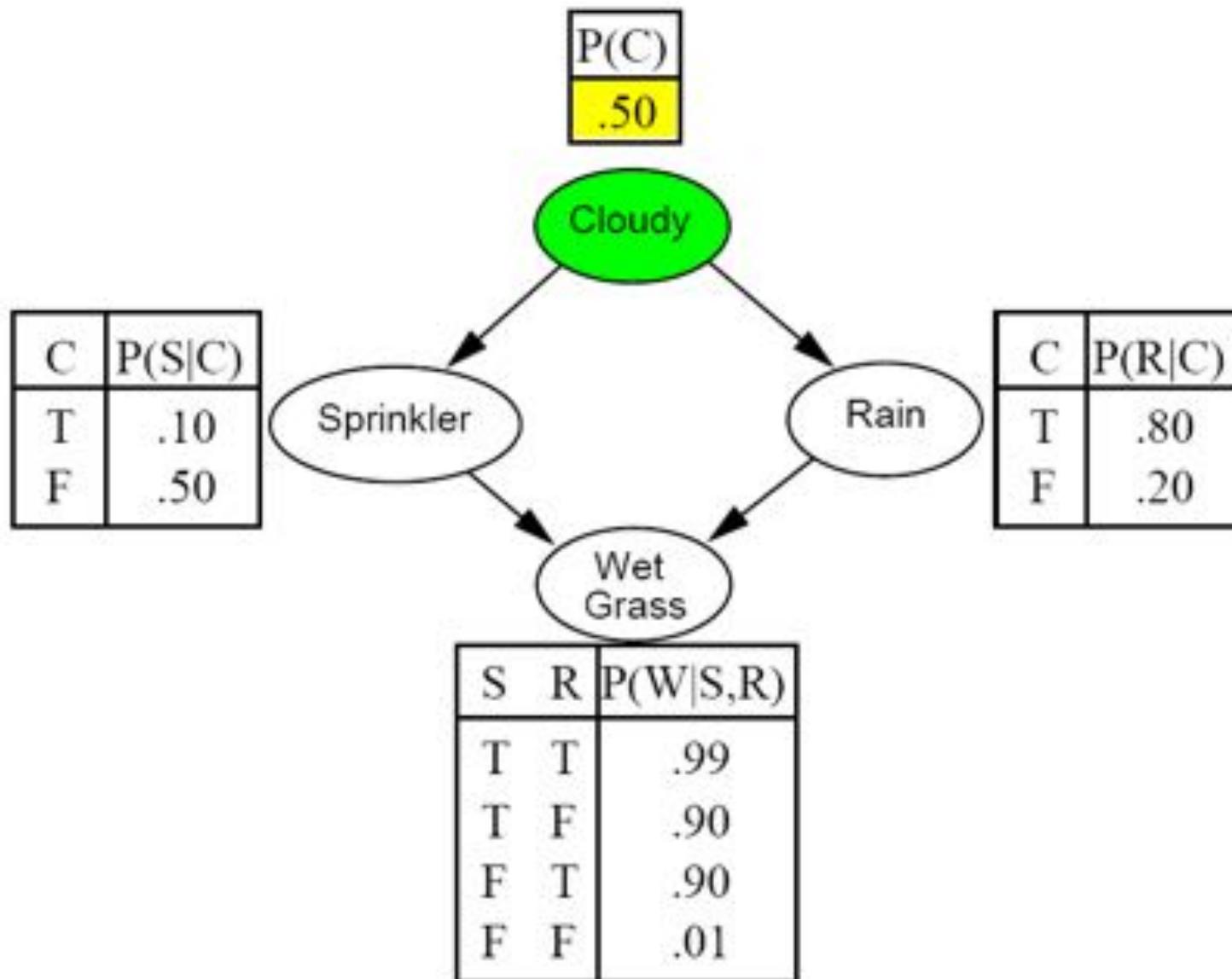
- Generating samples from a network that has no evidence associated with it (*empty* network)
- Basic idea
 - sample a value for each variable in topological order
 - using the specified conditional probabilities

```
function PRIOR-SAMPLE(bn) returns an event sampled from bn
    inputs: bn, a belief network specifying joint distribution  $\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ 
    x  $\leftarrow$  an event with n elements
    for i = 1 to n do
         $x_i \leftarrow$  a random sample from  $\mathbf{P}(X_i \mid \text{parents}(X_i))$ 
        given the values of  $\text{Parents}(X_i)$  in x
    return x
```

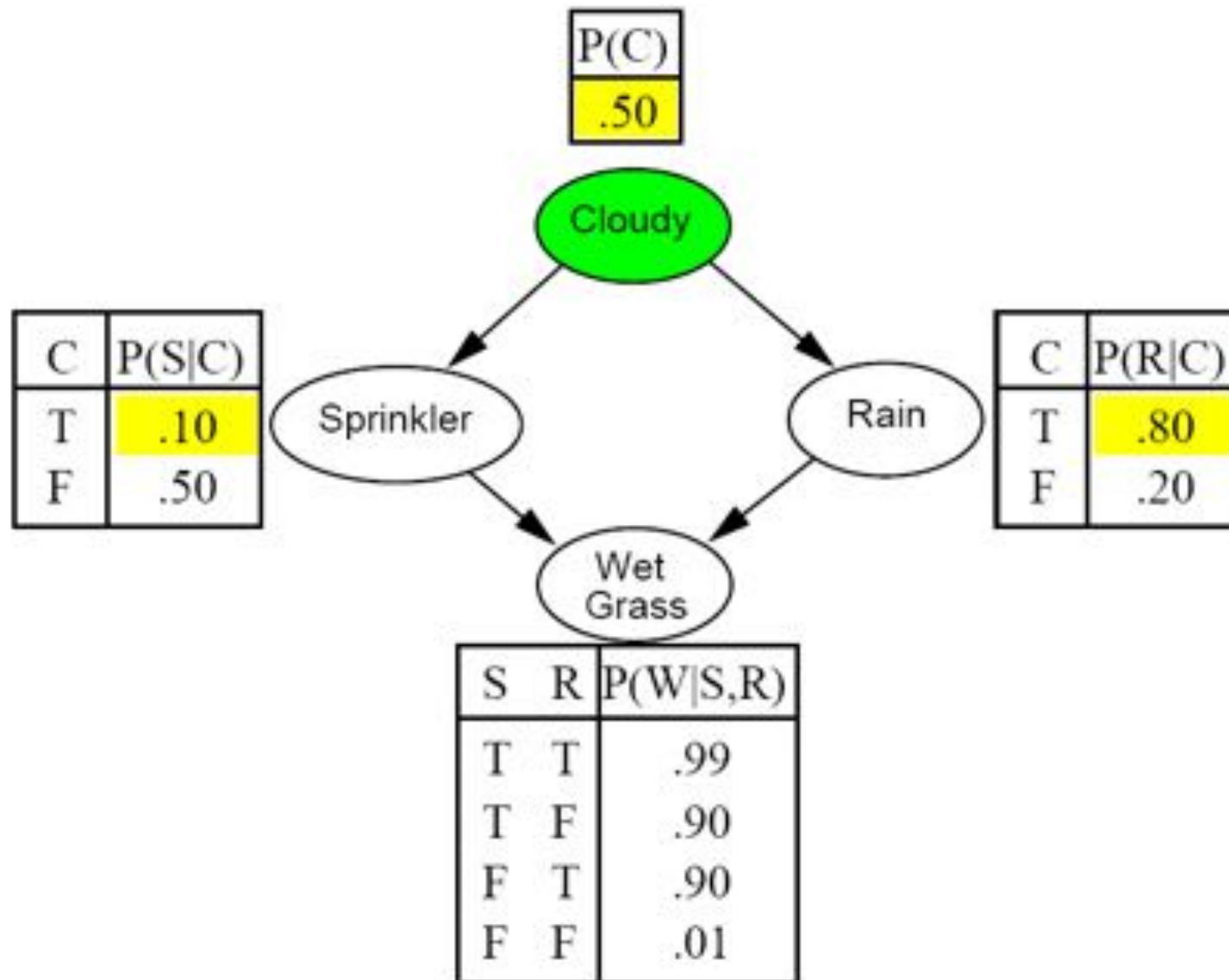
Example



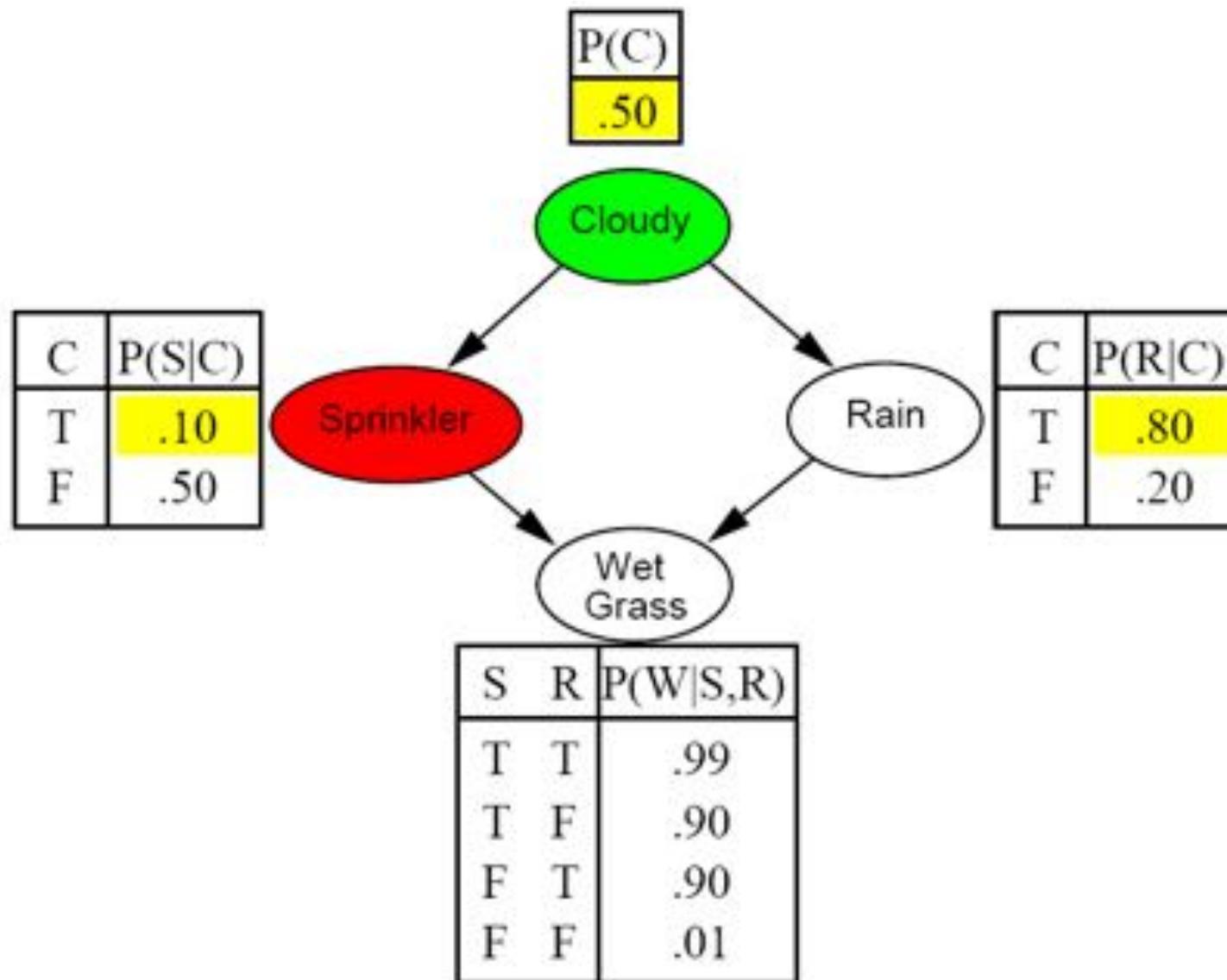
Example



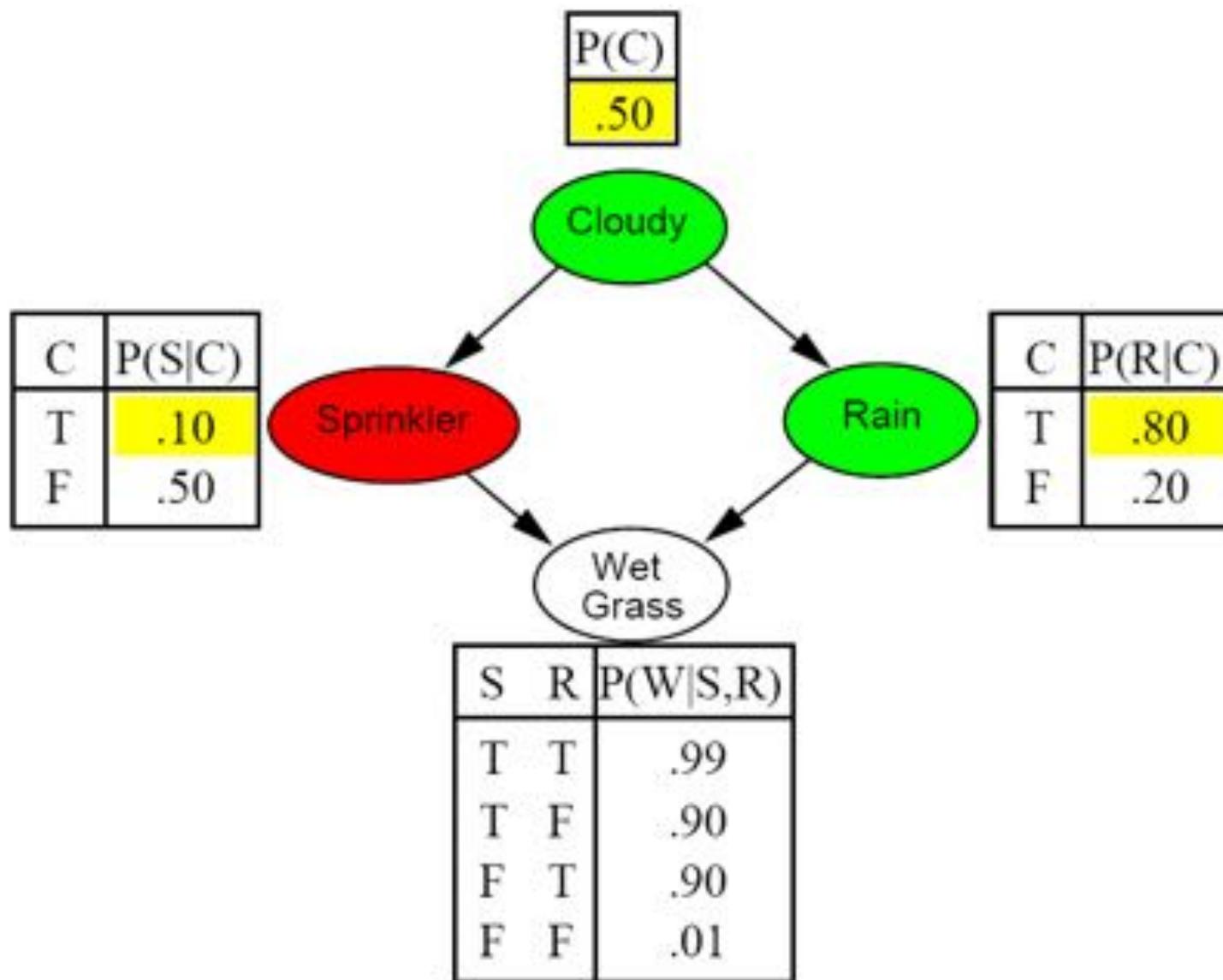
Example



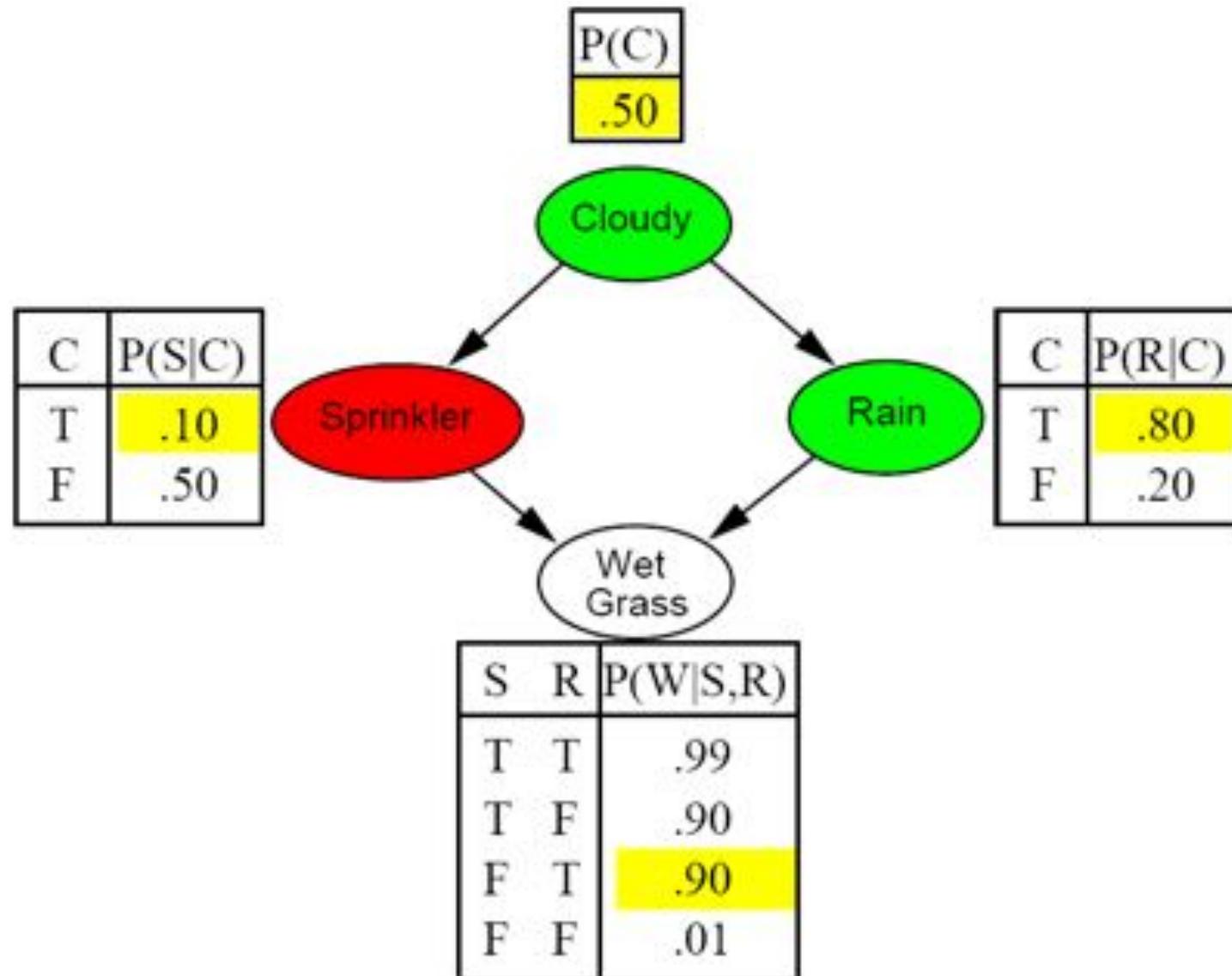
Example



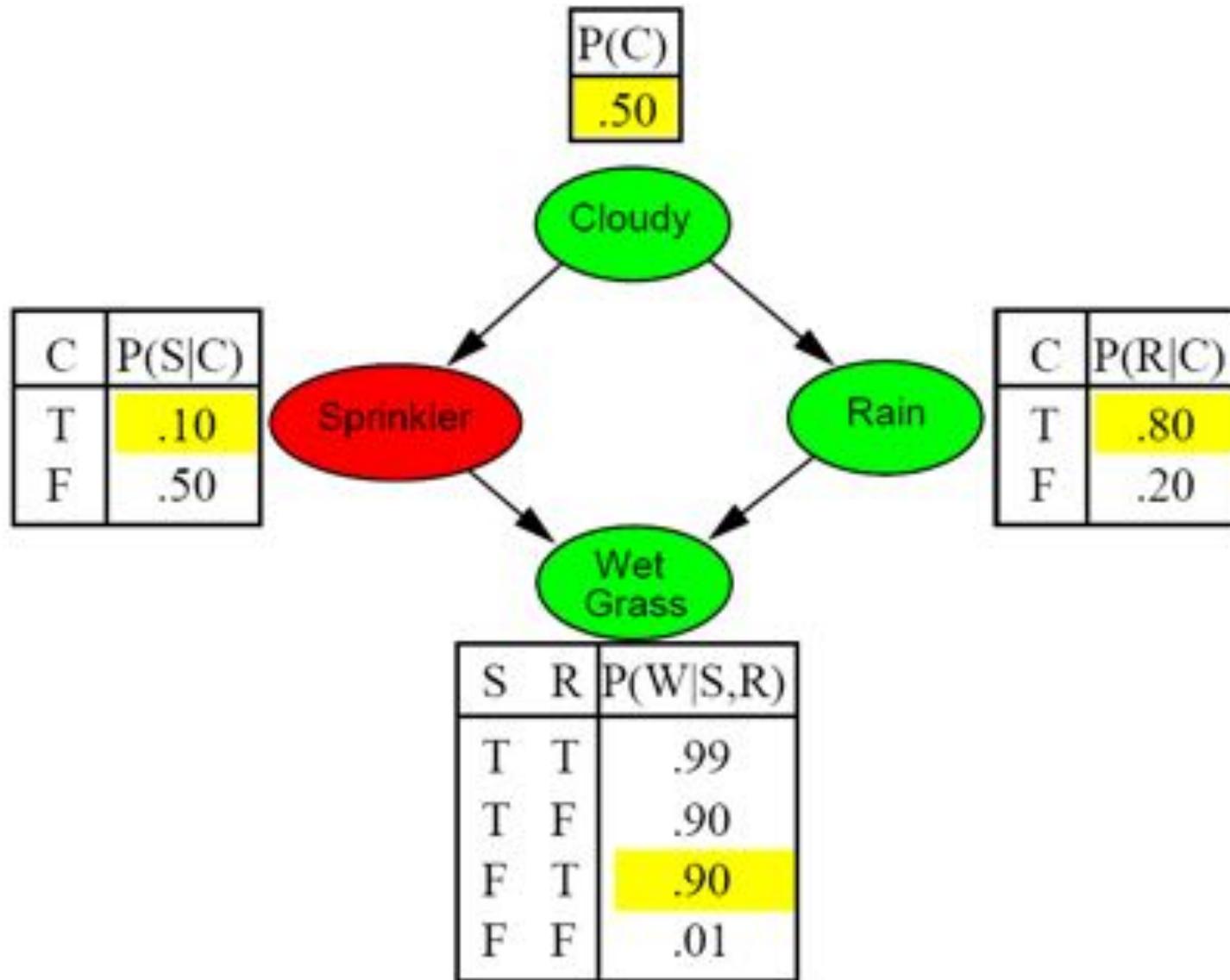
Example



Example



Example



Probability Estimation using Sampling

- sample many points using the above algorithm
- count how often each possible combination x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n appears
 - increment counters $N_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n)$
- estimate the probability by the observed percentages

$$\hat{P}_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n) = N_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n) / N$$

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Does this converge towards the joint probability function?

Convergence of Sampling from an Empty Network

Probability that PRIORSAMPLE generates a particular event

$$SPS(x_1 \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | parents(X_i)) = P(x_1 \dots x_n)$$

i.e., the true prior probability

E.g., $SPS(t, f, t, t) = 0.5 \times 0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.324 = P(t, f, t, t)$

Let $N_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n)$ be the number of samples generated for event x_1, \dots, x_n

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \hat{P}(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N_{PS}(x_1, \dots, x_n)/N \\ &= SPS(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ &= P(x_1 \dots x_n)\end{aligned}$$

That is, estimates derived from PRIORSAMPLE are consistent

Shorthand: $\hat{P}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx P(x_1 \dots x_n)$

Rejection Sampling

$\hat{P}(X|e)$ estimated from samples agreeing with e

```
function REJECTION-SAMPLING( $X, e, bn, N$ ) returns an estimate of  $P(X|e)$ 
    local variables:  $N$ , a vector of counts over  $X$ , initially zero
    for  $j = 1$  to  $N$  do
         $x \leftarrow$  PRIOR-SAMPLE( $bn$ )
        if  $x$  is consistent with  $e$  then
             $N[x] \leftarrow N[x]+1$  where  $x$  is the value of  $X$  in  $x$ 
    return NORMALIZE( $N[X]$ )
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E.g., estimate $\hat{P}(\text{Rain}|\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true})$ using 100 samples

27 samples have $\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}$

Of these, 8 have $\text{Rain} = \text{true}$ and 19 have $\text{Rain} = \text{false}$.

$$\hat{P}(\text{Rain}|\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}) = \text{NORMALIZE}(\langle 8, 19 \rangle) = \langle 0.296, 0.704 \rangle$$

Similar to a basic real-world empirical estimation procedure

Analysis of Rejection Sampling

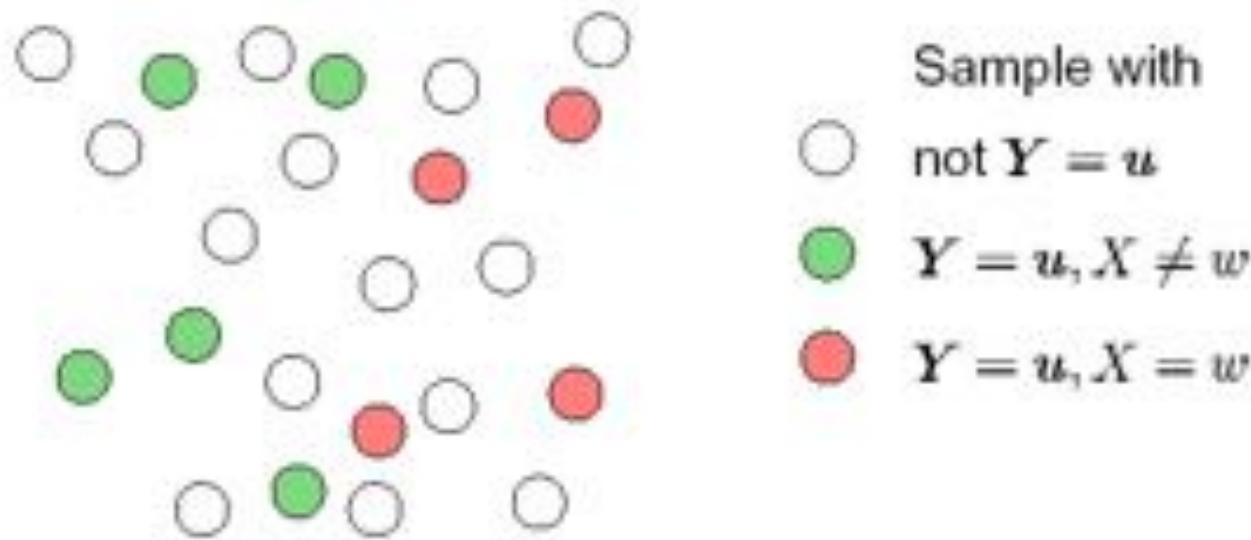
- Rejection sampling generates random samples from an empty network
 - and discards all samples that are inconsistent with the evidence

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{P}}(X|\mathbf{e}) &= \alpha \mathbf{N}_{PS}(X, \mathbf{e}) && (\text{algorithm defn.}) \\ &= \mathbf{N}_{PS}(X, \mathbf{e}) / N_{PS}(\mathbf{e}) && (\text{normalized by } N_{PS}(\mathbf{e})) \\ &\approx \mathbf{P}(X, \mathbf{e}) / P(\mathbf{e}) && (\text{property of PRIORSAMPLE}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X|\mathbf{e}) && (\text{defn. of conditional probability})\end{aligned}$$

Hence rejection sampling returns consistent posterior estimates

Rejection Sampling: Illustration

Let Y be a subset of evidence nodes s.t. $Y = u$



Approximation for $P^X(X = w | Y = u)$:

$$\frac{\# \text{ red circles}}{\# \text{ green circles} \cup \text{ red circles}}$$

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- **Problem**
 - many unnecessary samples will be generated if the probability of observing the evidence e is small
 - $P(\mathbf{e})$ will decrease exponentially with increasing numbers of evidence variables!

Likelihood Weighting

Idea: fix evidence variables, sample only nonevidence variables, and weight each sample by the likelihood it accords the evidence

function LIKELIHOOD-WEIGHTING(X, e, bn, N) **returns** an estimate of $P(X|e)$

local variables: \mathbf{W} , a vector of weighted counts over X , initially zero

for $j = 1$ to N **do**

$\mathbf{x}, w \leftarrow$ WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn)

$\mathbf{W}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{W}[x] + w$ where x is the value of X in \mathbf{x}

return NORMALIZE($\mathbf{W}[X]$)

function WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn, e) **returns** an event and a weight

$\mathbf{x} \leftarrow$ an event with n elements; $w \leftarrow 1$

for $i = 1$ to n **do**

if X_i has a value x_i in e

then $w \leftarrow w \times P(X_i = x_i | parents(X_i))$

else $x_i \leftarrow$ a random sample from $P(X_i | parents(X_i))$

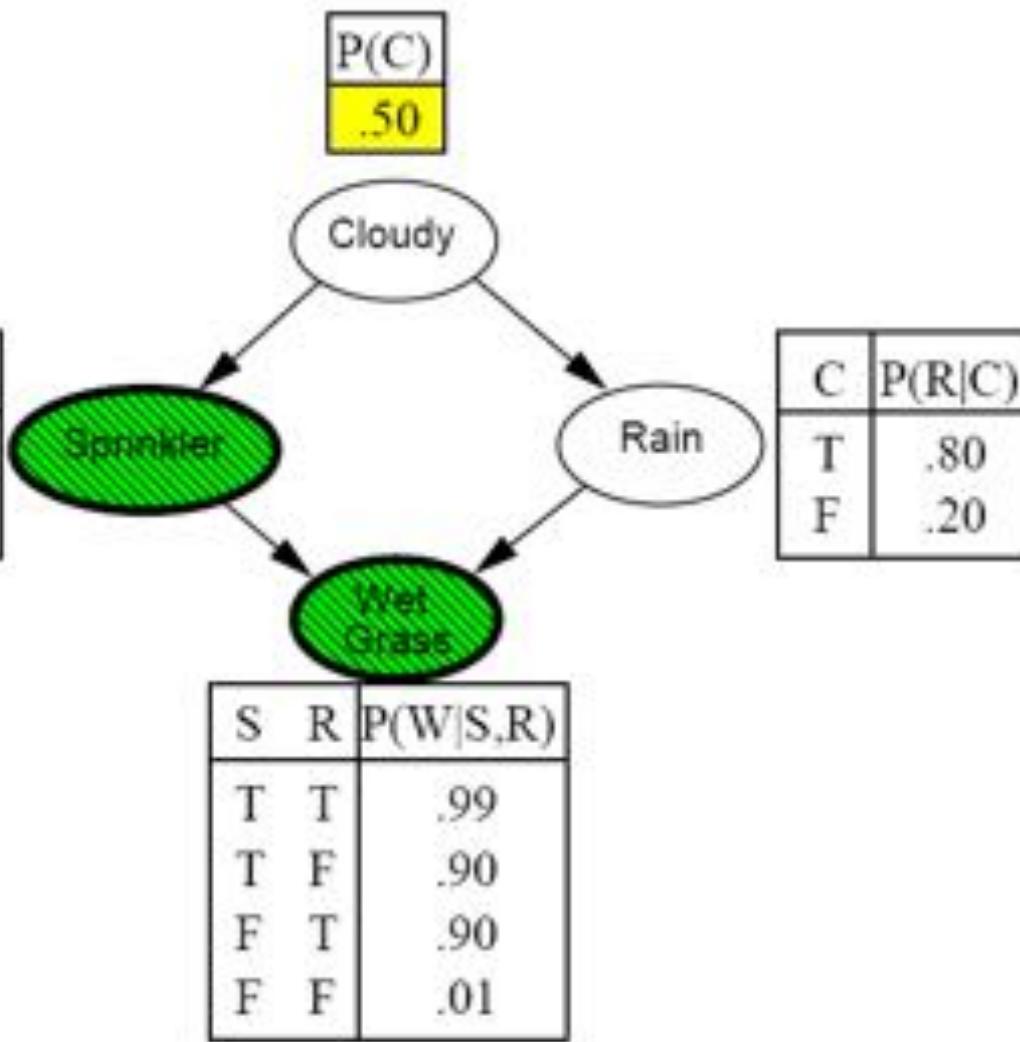
return \mathbf{x}, w

Example

Evidence:

sprinkler is on and
grass is wet

C	P(S C)
T	.10
F	.50

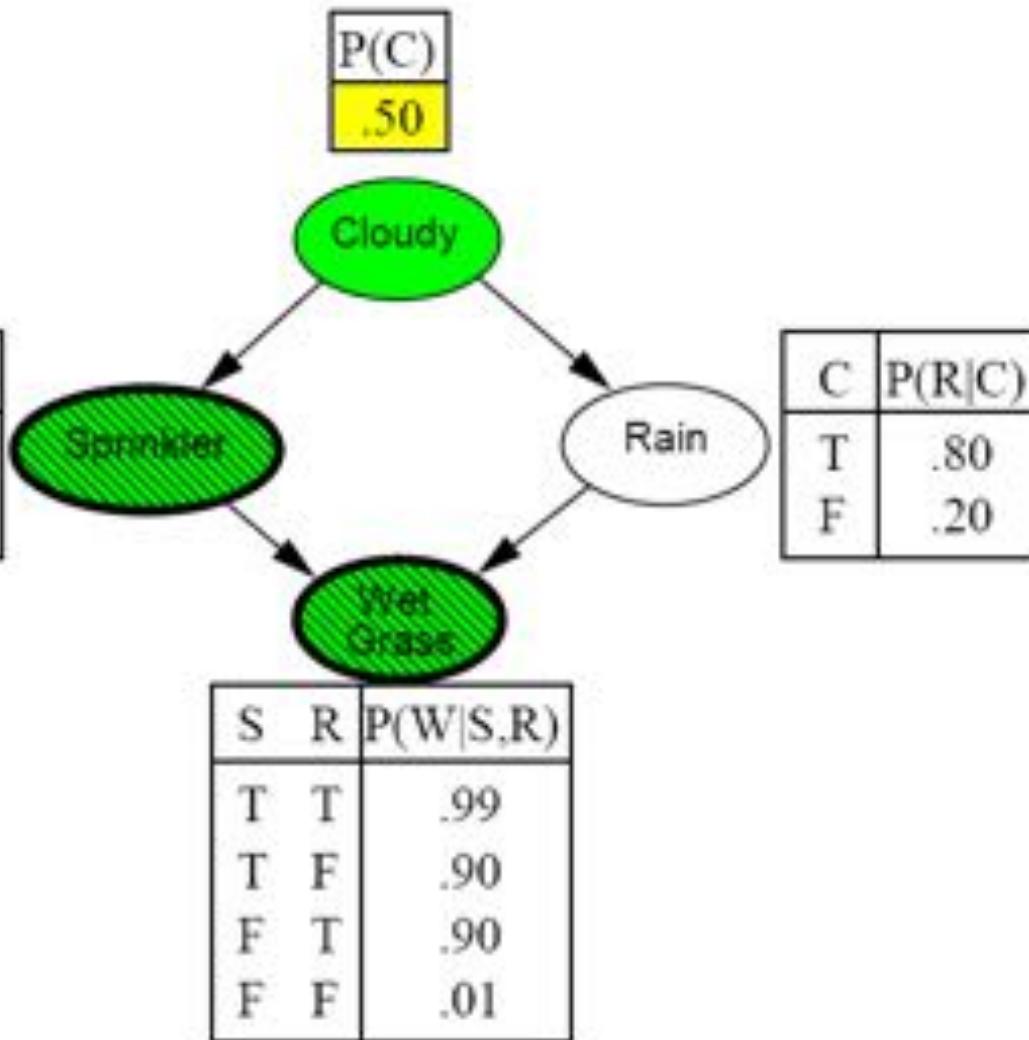


$$w = 1.0$$

Example

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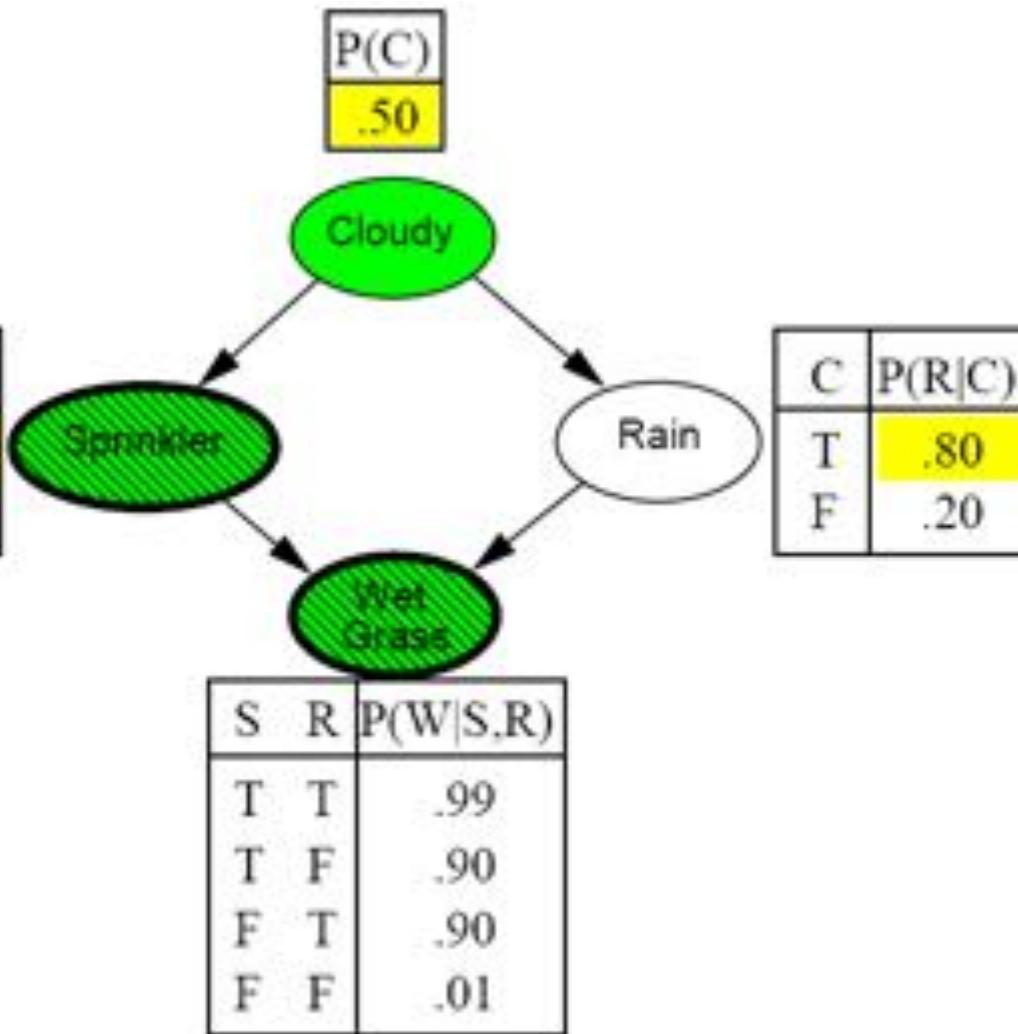


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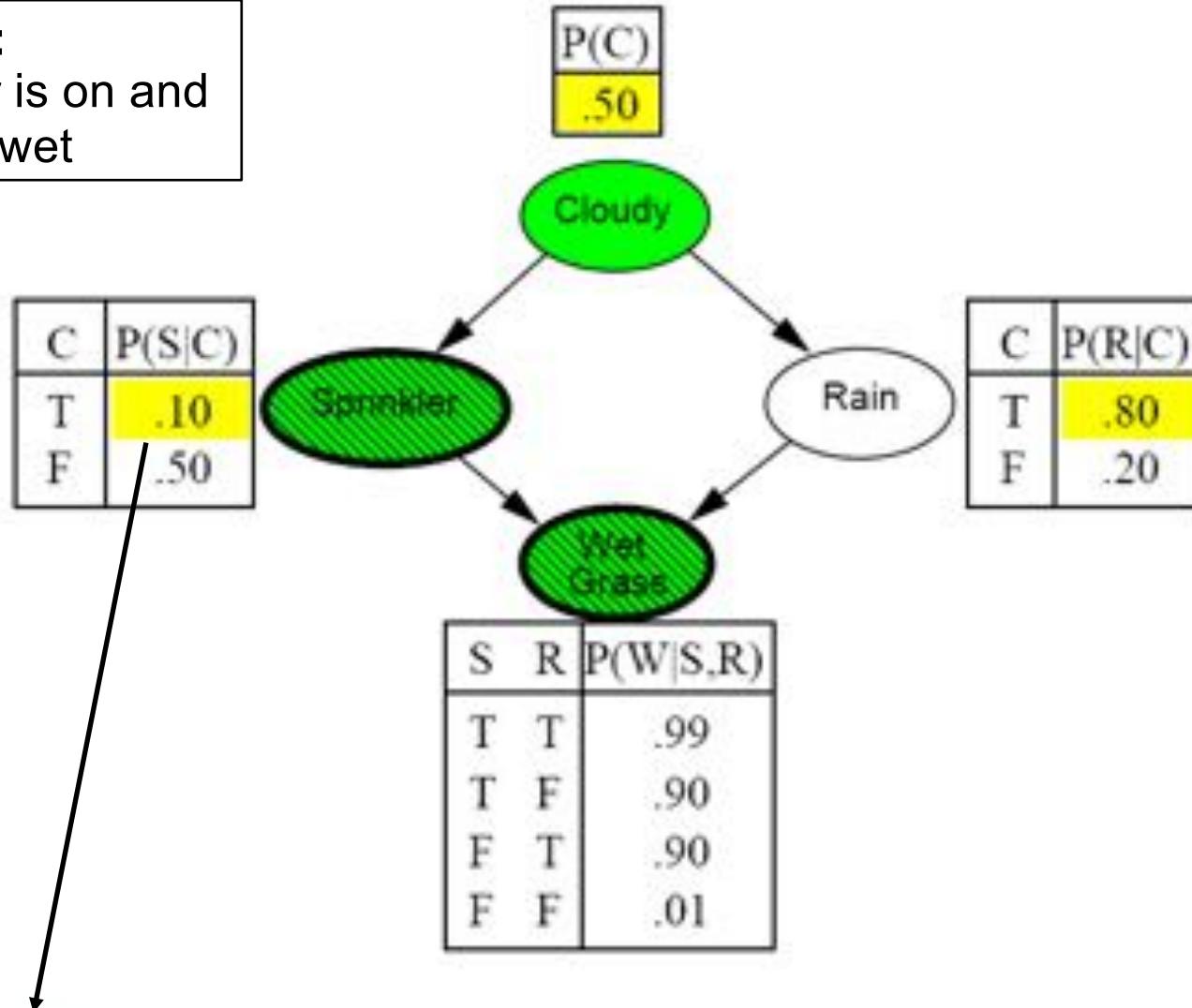
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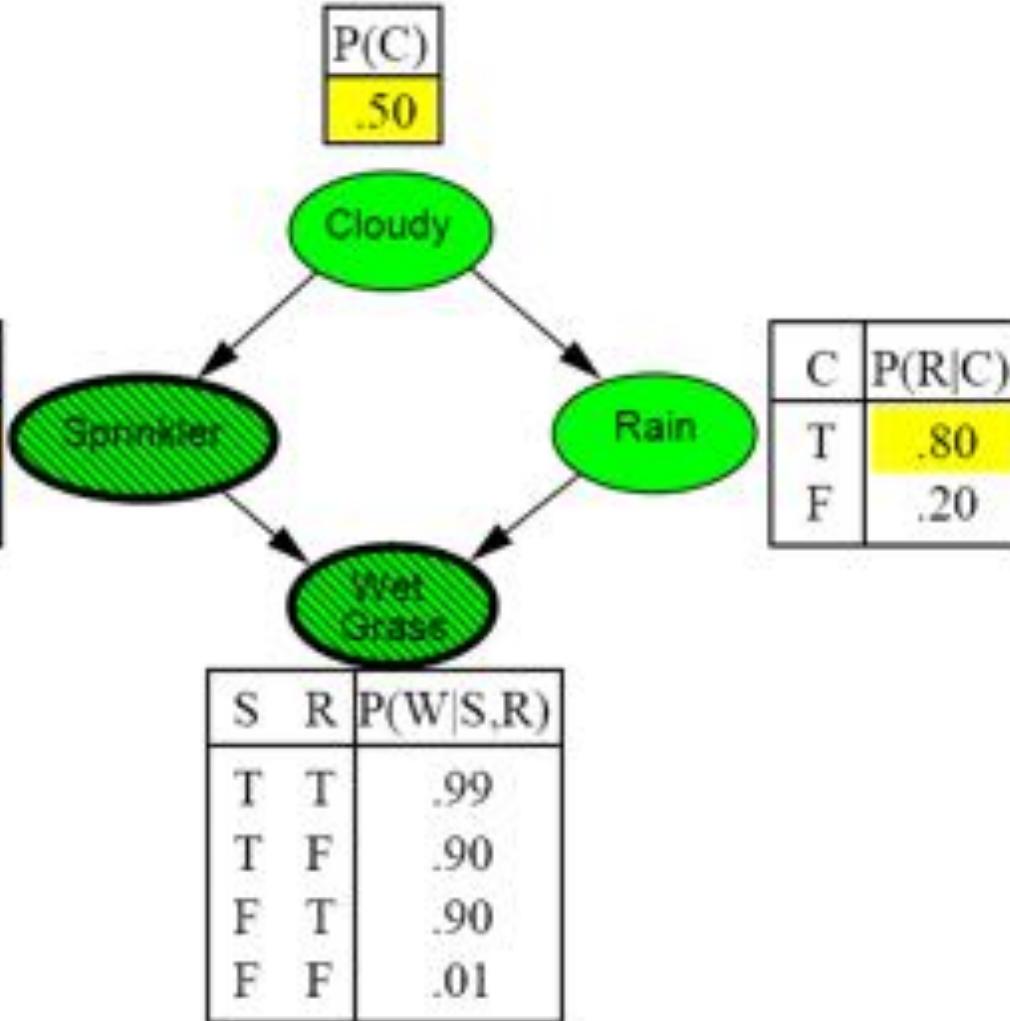
$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1$$

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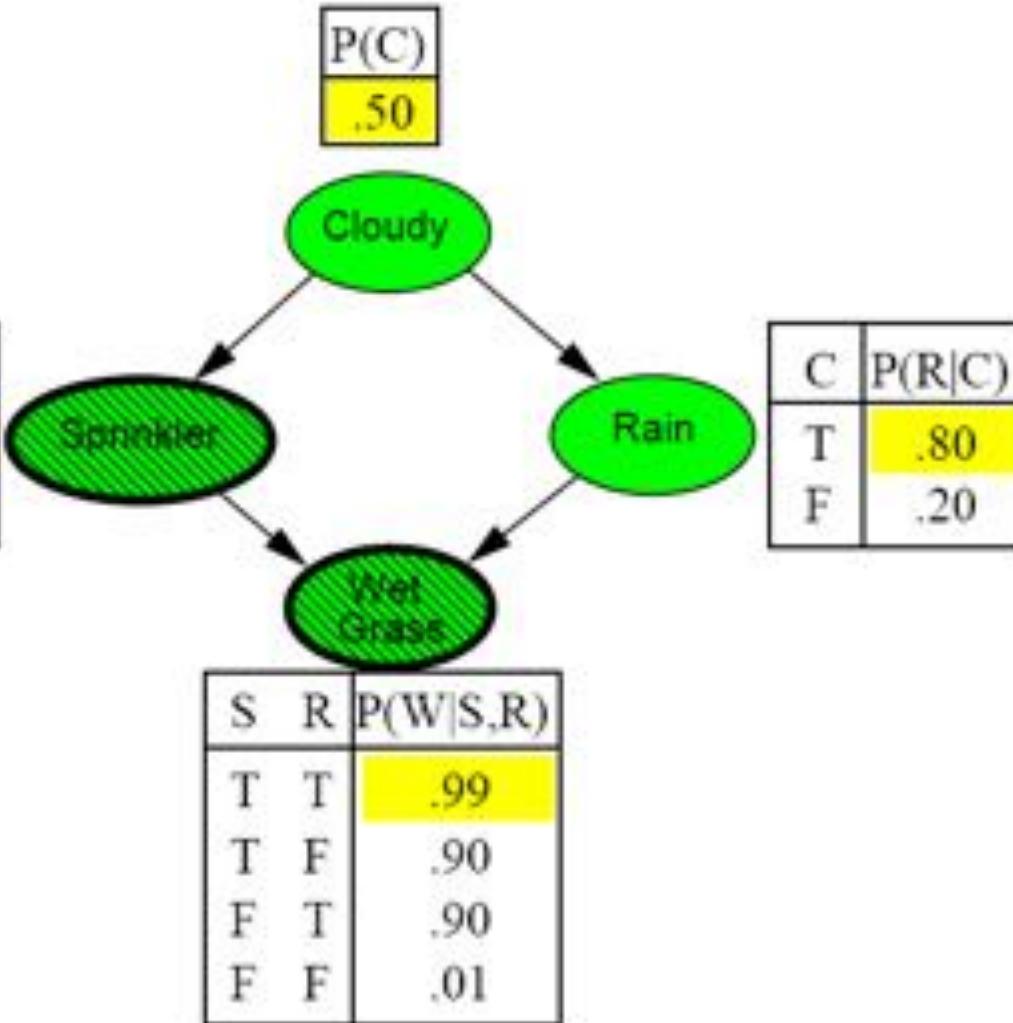
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Example

Evidence:

sprinkler is on and
grass is wet

C	P(S C)
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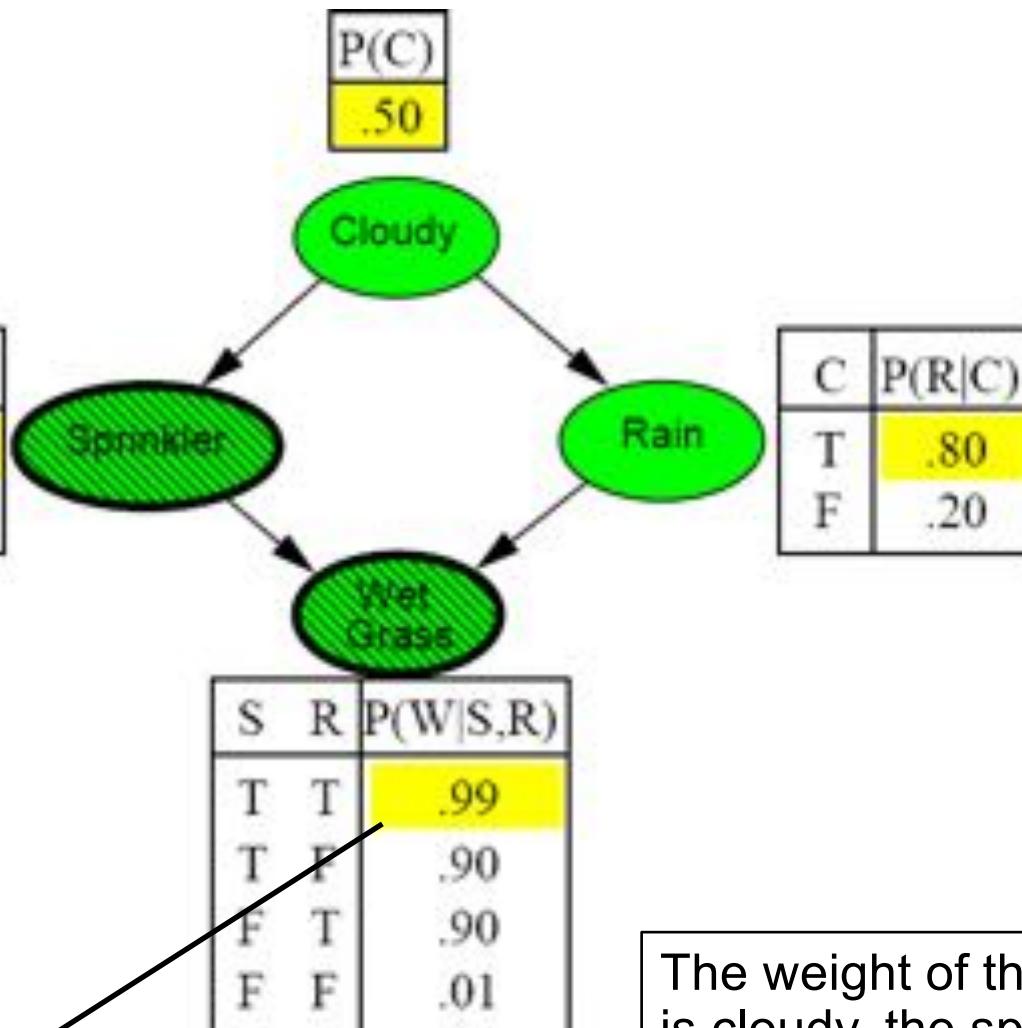
$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1$$

Example

Evidence:

sprinkler is on and
grass is wet

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T	.10
F	.50



$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1 \times 0.99 = 0.099$$

The weight of the event that it is cloudy, the sprinkler is on, it is raining, and the grass is wet is 0.099.

Analysis

Sampling probability for WEIGHTEDSAMPLE is

$$S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^l P(z_i | parents(Z_i))$$

Note: pays attention to evidence in **ancestors** only

⇒ somewhere “in between” prior and posterior distribution

Weight for a given sample \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e} is

$$w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^m P(e_i | parents(E_i))$$

Weighted sampling probability is

$$\begin{aligned} S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^l P(z_i | parents(Z_i)) \prod_{i=1}^m P(e_i | parents(E_i)) \\ &= P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) \text{ (by standard global semantics of network)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence likelihood weighting returns consistent estimates but performance still degrades with many evidence variables because a few samples have nearly all the total weight

Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) Sampling

“State” of network = current assignment to all variables.

Generate next state by sampling one variable given Markov blanket
Sample each variable in turn, keeping evidence fixed

```
function MCMC-ASK( $X, e, bn, N$ ) returns an estimate of  $P(X|e)$ 
  local variables:  $\mathbf{N}[X]$ , a vector of counts over  $X$ , initially zero
     $Z$ , the nonevidence variables in  $bn$ 
     $x$ , the current state of the network, initially copied from  $e$ 
  initialize  $x$  with random values for the variables in  $Y$ 
  for  $j = 1$  to  $N$  do
    for each  $Z_i$  in  $Z$  do
      sample the value of  $Z_i$  in  $x$  from  $P(Z_i|mb(Z_i))$ 
      given the values of  $MB(Z_i)$  in  $x$ 
       $\mathbf{N}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{N}[x] + 1$  where  $x$  is the value of  $X$  in  $x$ 
  return NORMALIZE( $\mathbf{N}[X]$ )
```

Gibbs Sampling

Can also choose a variable to sample at random each time

Ordered Gibbs Sampler

Generate sample x^{t+1} from x^t :

$$X_1 = x_1^{t+1} \leftarrow P(x_1 | x_2^t, x_3^t, \dots, x_N^t, e)$$

Process all variables in some order

$$X_2 = x_2^{t+1} \leftarrow P(x_2 | x_1^{t+1}, x_3^t, \dots, x_N^t, e)$$

...

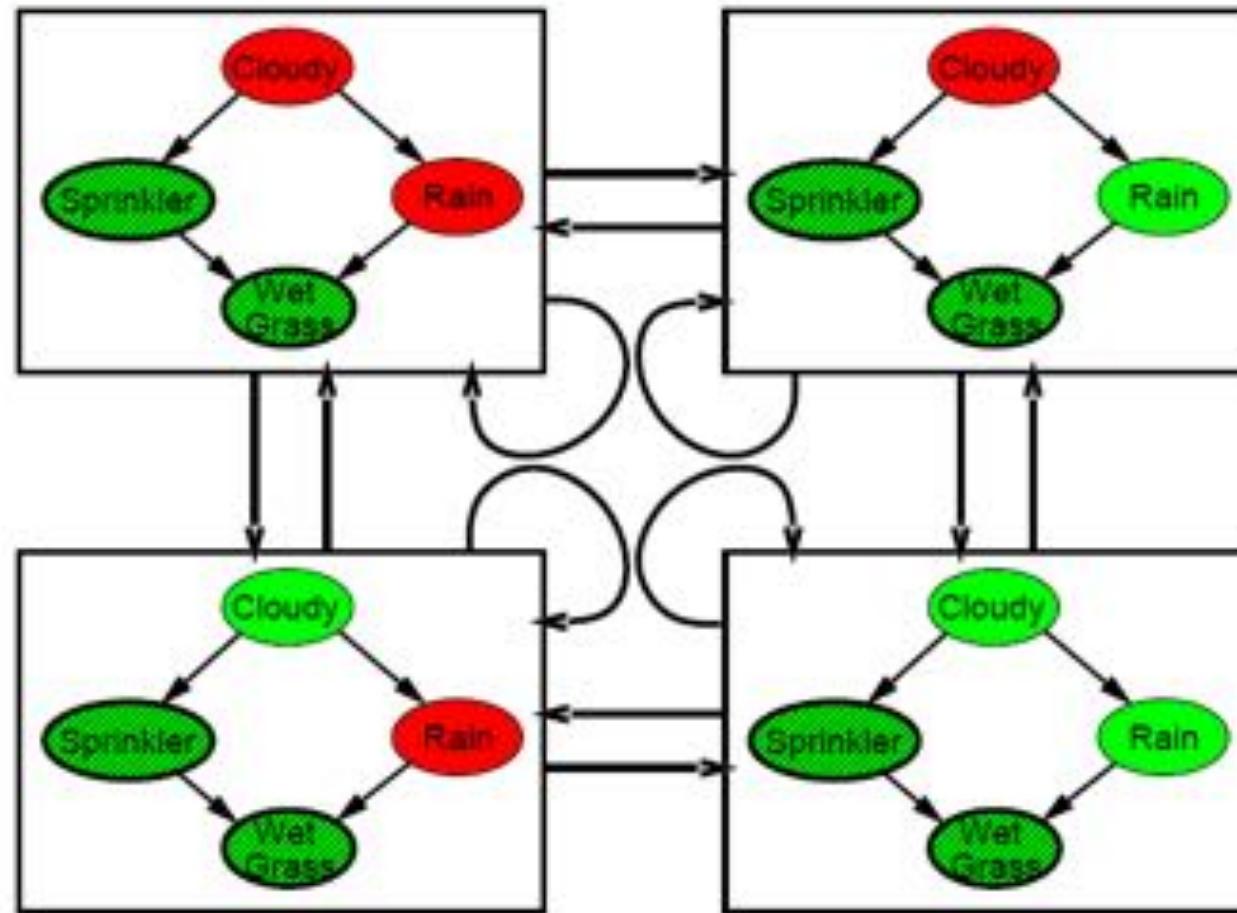
$$X_N = x_N^{t+1} \leftarrow P(x_N | x_1^{t+1}, x_2^{t+1}, \dots, x_{N-1}^{t+1}, e)$$

In short, for $i=1$ to N :

$$X_i = x_i^{t+1} \leftarrow \text{sampled from } P(x_i | x^t \setminus x_i, e)$$

The Markov Chain

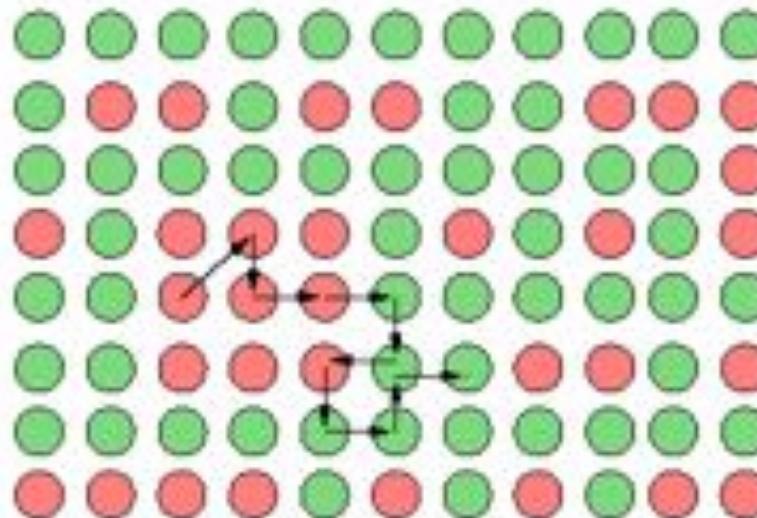
With $\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}$, $\text{WetGrass} = \text{true}$, there are four states:



Wander about for a while, average what you see

Gibbs Sampling: Illustration

The process of Gibbs sampling can be understood as a *random walk* in the space of all instantiations with $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{u}$:



Reachable in one step: instantiations that differ from current one by value assignment to at most one variable (assume randomized choice of variable X_k).

Guaranteed to converge iff chain is :

irreducible (every state reachable from every other state)

aperiodic (returns to state i can occur at irregular times)

ergodic (returns to every state with probability 1)

Example

Estimate $\mathbf{P}(\text{Rain} | \text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}, \text{WetGrass} = \text{true})$

Sample *Cloudy* or *Rain* given its Markov blanket, repeat.

Count number of times *Rain* is true and false in the samples.

E.g., visit 100 states

31 have *Rain = true*, 69 have *Rain = false*

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}(\text{Rain} | \text{Sprinkler} = \text{true}, \text{WetGrass} = \text{true}) \\ = \text{NORMALIZE}(\langle 31, 69 \rangle) = \langle 0.31, 0.69 \rangle$$

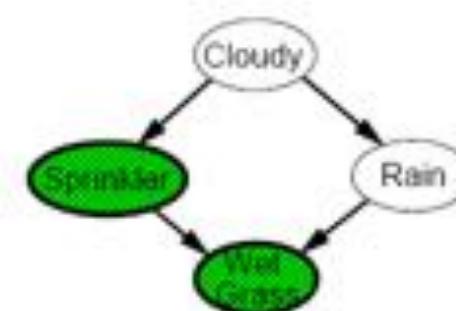
Theorem: chain approaches stationary distribution:

long-run fraction of time spent in each state is exactly proportional to its posterior probability

Markov Blanket Sampling

Markov blanket of *Cloudy* is
Sprinkler and *Rain*

Markov blanket of *Rain* is
Cloudy, *Sprinkler*, and *WetGrass*



Probability given the Markov blanket is calculated as follows:

$$P(x'_i | mb(X_i)) = P(x'_i | parents(X_i)) \prod_{Z_j \in Children(X_i)} P(z_j | parents(Z_j))$$

What have we learned?

- Exact inference via Variable Elimination (VE)
- Inference in Bayesian networks is **NP-hard**, even when approximating. Still, for many distributions, sampling is the only option
- Forward sampling
- Rejections sample
- MCMC sampling (GIBBS sampling)
- Overall, we now know:
 - Basics of probability theory
 - Arguments why to follow probability theory
 - Bayesian networks (representation and semantics)
 - Inference in Bayesian networks