#### Inference in Bayesian networks

Chapter 14.4-5

Chapter 14.4–5 1

Chapter 14.4-5 3

Chapter 14.4-5 5

#### Outline

- ♦ Exact inference by enumeration
- ♦ Exact inference by variable elimination
- $\diamondsuit\;$  Approximate inference by stochastic simulation
- ♦ Approximate inference by Markov chain Monte Carlo

Chapter 14.4–5 2

#### Inference tasks

Simple queries: compute posterior marginal  $\mathbf{P}(X_i|\mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e})$  $\textbf{e.g.,}\ P(NoGas|Gauge=empty,Lights=on,Starts=false)$ 

Conjunctive queries:  $P(X_i, X_j | E = e) = P(X_i | E = e)P(X_j | X_i, E = e)$ 

Optimal decisions: decision networks include utility information; probabilistic inference required for P(outcome|action, 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:

 $\mathbf{P}(B|j,m)$ 

 $= \mathbf{P}(B,j,m)/P(j,m)$  $=\alpha \dot{\mathbf{P}}(B,j,m)$ 

 $= \alpha \sum_{e} \sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(B, e, a, j, m)$ 



Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

 $\mathbf{P}(B|j,m) = \alpha \sum_{e} \sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(B) P(e) \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) P(j|a) P(m|a)$  $= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) P(j|a) P(m|a)$ 

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

Chapter 14.4-5 4

## Enumeration algorithm

function Enumeration-Ask $(X, \mathbf{e}, bn)$  returns a distribution over X $\mathbf{inputs} \text{: } \textit{X}\text{, } \mathsf{the} \mathsf{ query} \mathsf{ variable}$  ${f e}$ , observed values for variables  ${f E}$ 

 $\mathit{bn},$  a Bayesian network with variables  $\{X\}\,\cup\,\mathbf{E}\,\cup\,\mathbf{Y}$ 

 $\mathbf{Q}(X) \leftarrow$  a distribution over X, initially empty

for each value  $x_i$  of X do extend e with value  $x_i$  for X

 $\mathbf{Q}(x_i) \leftarrow \text{Enumerate-All(Vars[bn], e)}$ return Normalize(Q(X))

function ENUMERATE-ALL(vars, e) returns a real number

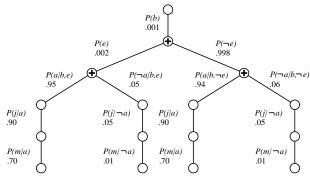
if Empty?(vars) then return 1.0  $Y \leftarrow \text{First}(vars)$ 

 $\mathbf{if}\ Y \ \mathsf{has}\ \mathsf{value}\ y \ \mathsf{in}\ \mathbf{e}$ 

then return  $P(y \mid Pa(Y)) \times \text{Enumerate-All(Rest(vars), e)}$ else return  $\Sigma_y$   $P(y \mid Pa(Y)) \times \text{Enumerate-All(Rest(vars), e}_y)$ 

where  $e_y$  is e extended with Y = y

## Evaluation tree



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

#### Inference by variable elimination

Variable elimination: carry out summations right-to-left, storing intermediate results (factors) to avoid recomputation

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{P}(B|j,m) \\ &= \alpha \underbrace{\mathbf{P}(B)}_{B} \underbrace{\sum_{e} \underbrace{P(e)}_{E} \sum_{a} \underbrace{\mathbf{P}(a|B,e)}_{A} \underbrace{P(j|a)}_{M} \underbrace{P(m|a)}_{M}}_{M} \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \underbrace{\sum_{e} P(e)}_{E} \underbrace{\sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(a|B,e)}_{A} \underbrace{P(j|a)}_{f_{M}} f_{M}(a) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \underbrace{\sum_{e} P(e)}_{E} \underbrace{\sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(a|B,e)}_{f_{M}} \underbrace{P(j|a)}_{f_{M}} f_{M}(a) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \underbrace{\sum_{e} P(e)}_{E} \underbrace{\sum_{a} f_{A}(a,b,e)}_{f_{J}} f_{J}(a) \underbrace{f_{M}(a)}_{f_{M}} \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \underbrace{\sum_{e} P(e)}_{f_{L}} \underbrace{f_{AJM}(b,e)}_{f_{L}} \underbrace{\mathbf{Sum out } A}_{f_{M}} \\ &= \alpha f_{B}(b) \cdot f_{L_{L}}^{E} f_{AJM}(b) \end{aligned}$ 

Chapter 14.4-5 7

#### Variable elimination: Basic operations

Summing out a variable from a product of factors: move any constant factors outside the summation add up submatrices in pointwise product of remaining factors

$$\sum_{x} f_1 \times \cdots \times f_k = f_1 \times \cdots \times f_i \sum_{x} f_{i+1} \times \cdots \times f_k = f_1 \times \cdots \times f_i \times f_{\bar{X}}$$

assuming  $f_1,\ldots,f_i$  do not depend on X

Pointwise product of factors  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ :

$$f_1(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k) \times f_2(y_1, \dots, y_k, z_1, \dots, z_l)$$

$$= f(x_1, \dots, x_j, y_1, \dots, y_k, z_1, \dots, z_l)$$
E.g.,  $f_1(a, b) \times f_2(b, c) = f(a, b, c)$ 

Chapter 14.4-5 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  $P(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$   $factors \leftarrow []$ ;  $vars \leftarrow \text{Reverse}(\text{Vars}[bn])$ 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))

Chapter 14.4–5 9

## Irrelevant variables

Consider the query P(JohnCalls|Burglary = true)

$$P(J|b) = \alpha P(b) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{e} P(a|b,e) P(J|a) \sum_{e} P(m|a)$$

Sum over m is identically 1; M is **irrelevant** to the query



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

Here, X = JohnCalls,  $\mathbf{E} = \{Burglary\}$ , and  $Ancestors(\{X\} \cup \mathbf{E}) = \{Alarm, Earthquake\}$  so MaryCalls is irrelevant

(Compare this to backward chaining from the query in Horn clause KBs)

Chapter 14.4–5 10

#### Irrelevant variables contd.

Defn: moral graph of Bayes net: marry all parents and drop arrows

Defn:  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\underline{\mathsf{m}}$ -separated from  $\mathbf{B}$  by  $\mathbf{C}$  iff separated by  $\mathbf{C}$  in the moral graph

Thm 2: Y is irrelevant if m-separated from X by  ${\bf E}$ 

For  $P(JohnCalls|Alarm=true)\mbox{, both } Burglary \mbox{ and } Earthquake \mbox{ are irrelevant }$ 



#### Complexity of exact inference

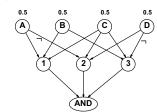
Singly connected networks (or polytrees):

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

Multiply connected networks:

1. A v B v C
2. C v D v ¬A
3. B v C v ¬D

- can reduce 3SAT to exact inference  $\Rightarrow$  NP-hard
- equivalent to  $\mathbf{counting}$  3SAT models  $\Rightarrow$  #P-complete



Chapter 14.4-5 11

#### Inference by stochastic simulation

#### 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

## 0.5 Coin

Chapter 14.4-5 13

#### 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

## Sampling from an empty network

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

Chapter 14.4-5 14

#### Example P(C) .50 Cloudy P(S|C) C | P(R|C)Rain Sprinkler T .10 T .80 F .50 .20 Wet Grass S R P(W|S,R)

T T

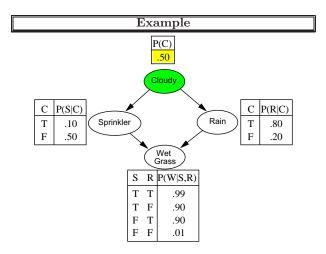
T F

F T

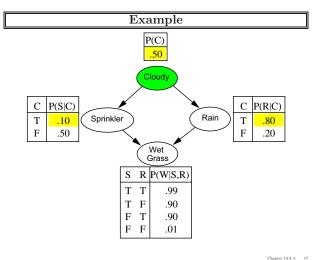
F F

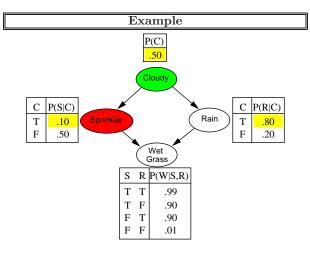
.99 .90 .90 .01

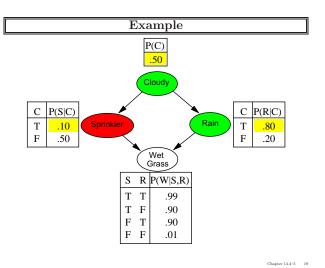
Chapter 14.4–5 15

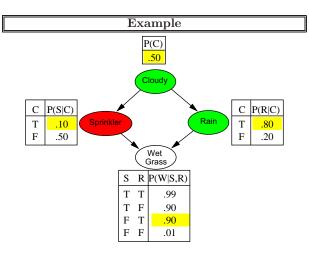


Chapter 14.4–5 16

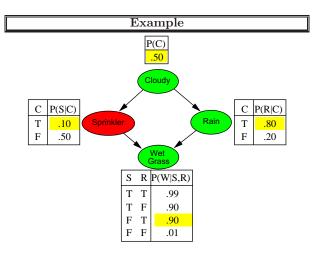








Chapter 14.4–5 20



Chapter 14.4–5 21

## Sampling from an empty network contd.

Probability that PRIORSAMPLE generates a particular event  $S_{PS}(x_1\dots x_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i|parents(X_i))=P(x_1\dots x_n)$  i.e., the true prior probability

E.g.,  $S_{PS}(t,f,t,t) = 0.5 \times 0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.324 = P(t,f,t,t)$ 

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

Then we have

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{P}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \lim_{N \to \infty} N_{PS}(x_1, \dots, x_n)/N$$

$$= S_{PS}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

$$= P(x_1 \dots x_n)$$

That is, estimates derived from  $\operatorname{PRIORSAMPLE}$  are consistent

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

Chapter 14.4–5 22

#### Rejection sampling

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

 $\begin{aligned} & \textbf{function } & \textbf{REJECTION-SAMPLING}(X, \mathbf{e}, bn, N) \ \textbf{returns} \ \textbf{an estimate of} \ P(X|\mathbf{e}) \\ & \textbf{local variables:} \ \mathbf{N}, \ \textbf{a vector of counts over} \ X, \ \textbf{initially zero} \\ & \textbf{for} \ j = 1 \ \textbf{to} \ N \ \textbf{do} \\ & \mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{PRIOR-SAMPLE}(bn) \\ & \textbf{if} \ \mathbf{x} \ \textbf{is consistent with} \ \mathbf{e} \ \textbf{then} \\ & \mathbf{N}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{N}[x] + 1 \ \textbf{where} \ x \ \textbf{is the value of} \ X \ \textbf{in} \ \mathbf{x} \\ & \textbf{return} \ \text{NORMALIZE}(\mathbf{N}[X]) \end{aligned}$ 

E.g., estimate  $\mathbf{P}(Rain|Sprinkler=true)$  using 100 samples 27 samples have Sprinkler=true Of these, 8 have Rain=true and 19 have Rain=false.

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

Similar to a basic real-world empirical estimation procedure

## Analysis of rejection sampling

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

 $\approx P(X, \mathbf{e})/P(\mathbf{e})$  (property of PRIORSAMPLE  $= P(X|\mathbf{e})$  (defn. of conditional probability)

Hence rejection sampling returns consistent posterior estimates

Problem: hopelessly expensive if  $P(\mathbf{e})$  is small

 $P(\mathbf{e})$  drops off exponentially with number of evidence variables!

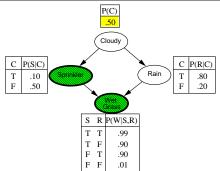
Chapter 14.4–5 23

### Likelihood weighting

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

```
\mathbf{function} \ \mathbf{\underline{Likelihood\text{-}Weighting}} \big( \textit{X}, \mathbf{e}, \textit{bn}, \textit{N} \big) \ \mathbf{returns} \ \mathsf{an} \ \mathsf{estimate} \ \mathsf{of} \ P(X|\mathbf{e})
    {f local\ variables}:\ {f W}, a vector of weighted counts over {\it X}, initially zero
    for j = 1 to N \operatorname{do}
            \mathbf{x}, w \leftarrow \text{Weighted-Sample}(bn)
           \mathbf{W}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{W}[x] + w where x is the value of X in \mathbf{x}
    return Normalize(W[X])
function WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn, e) returns an event and a weight
    \mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{an event with } n \text{ elements; } w \!\leftarrow\! 1
    for i = 1 to n do
           \mathbf{if} \ X_i has a value x_i in \mathbf{e}
                  then w \leftarrow w \times P(X_i = x_i \mid parents(X_i))
                  else x_i \leftarrow a random sample from \mathbf{P}(X_i \mid parents(X_i))
    \mathbf{return}\ \mathbf{x},\ w
```

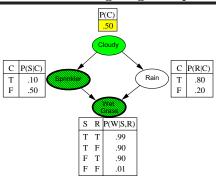
## Likelihood weighting example



w = 1.0

Chapter 14.4–5 26

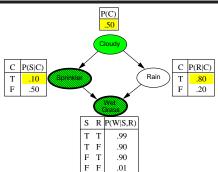
## Likelihood weighting example



w = 1.0

Chapter 14.4-5 27

# Likelihood weighting example

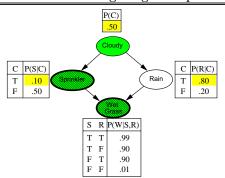


w = 1.0

Chapter 14.4-5 28

Chapter 14.4-5 30

### Likelihood weighting example



 $w = 1.0 \times 0.1$ 

## Likelihood weighting example P(C) C P(S|C) C P(R|C) .10 .50 S R P(W|S,R) ТТ .99 T F F T .90

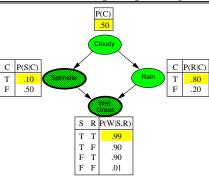
.90

.01

FF

 $w = 1.0 \times 0.1$ 

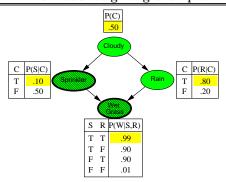
## Likelihood weighting example



 $w = 1.0 \times 0.1$ 

Chapter 14.4-5 31

### Likelihood weighting example



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

Chapter 14.4-5 32

## Likelihood weighting analysis

Sampling probability for  $\operatorname{WeightedSample}$  is

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

Note: pays attention to evidence in  $\frac{\mathbf{ancestors}}{\mathbf{somewhere}}$  only

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

 $S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$ 

 $= \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i|parents(Z_i)) \quad \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i|parents(E_i))$ 

 $= P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$  (by standard global semantics of network)

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

Chapter 14.4–5 33

## Approximate inference using MCMC

"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

 ${f Z}$ , the nonevidence variables in  ${\it bn}$ 

 $\mathbf{x},$  the current state of the network, initially copied from  $\mathbf{e}$ 

initialize  ${\bf x}$  with random values for the variables in  ${\bf Y}$   ${\bf for}\ j=1$  to  $N\ {\bf do}$ 

for each  $Z_i$  in  $\mathbf{Z}$  do

sample the value of  $Z_i$  in  ${\bf x}$  from  ${\bf P}(Z_i|mb(Z_i))$  given the values of  $MB(Z_i)$  in  ${\bf x}$ 

given the values of  $MB(Z_i)$  in  $\mathbf{X}$  $\mathbf{N}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{N}[x] + 1$  where x is the value of X in  $\mathbf{X}$ 

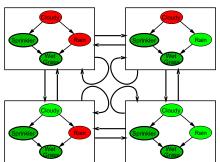
return Normalize(N[X])

Can also choose a variable to sample at random each time

Chapter 14.4–5 34

#### The Markov chain

With Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = true, there are four states:



Wander about for a while, average what you see

## MCMC example contd.

Estimate P(Rain|Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = 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

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

Theorem: chain approaches stationary distribution: long-run fraction of time spent in each state is exactly proportional to its posterior probability

Chapter 14.4-5 35

## Markov blanket sampling

 $\label{eq:market} \begin{array}{c} \mbox{Markov blanket of } Cloudy \mbox{ is } \\ Sprinkler \mbox{ and } Rain \\ \mbox{Markov blanket of } Rain \mbox{ is } \\ Cloudy, Sprinkler, \mbox{ and } WetGrass \end{array}$ 



Probability given the Markov blanket is calculated as follows:  $P(x_i'|mb(X_i)) = P(x_i'|parents(X_i)) \Pi_{Z_j \in Children(X_i)} P(z_j|parents(Z_j))$ 

Easily implemented in message-passing parallel systems, brains

Main computational problems:

- 1) Difficult to tell if convergence has been achieved
- 2) Can be wasteful if Markov blanket is large:

 $P(X_i|mb(X_i))$  won't change much (law of large numbers)

#### Summary

Exact inference by variable elimination:

- polytime on polytrees, NP-hard on general graphs
- ${\sf -space} = {\sf time}, \ {\sf very} \ {\sf sensitive} \ {\sf to} \ {\sf topology}$

Approximate inference by LW, MCMC:

- $-\ LW$  does poorly when there is lots of (downstream) evidence
- LW, MCMC generally insensitive to topology
- Convergence can be very slow with probabilities close to  $1\ \mathrm{or}\ 0$
- Can handle arbitrary combinations of discrete and continuous variables

Chapter 14.4-5 37 Chapter 14.4-5 38