

# Reasoning under Uncertainty Part II

Artificial Intelligence, 2015

TIN172/DIT410

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based on slides by  
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# Quick recap: Random Variables

- Upper case:  $X$ .
- Value is subject to chance.
  - Values: lower case.
  - Could represent the outcome of an experiment.
- A probability  $\in [0, 1]$  is associated to each value that  $X$  can take.



# Quick recap: Probability Distributions

- Describes the behaviour of a random variable.
- $P(X)$  is the probability measure of  $X$ .
- More than one variable:
  - Joint:  $P(X, Y, Z)$
  - Marginal:
$$P(X) = \sum_Y P(X, Y)$$
  - Conditional:
$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(X, Y)}{P(Y)}$$



# Example: Probability Distributions

$X$  - The outcome of a coin toss

$X$	$P(X)$
heads	0.5
tails	0.5

- This is called the **Binomial distribution**
- $P(X = \text{heads})$  - the probability that coin comes up heads
- $P(X = \text{tails}) = 1 - P(X = \text{heads})$



# Chain Rule for Probabilities

$$P(X, Y, Z) = P(X|Y, Z)P(Y, Z)$$

# Chain Rule for Probabilities

$$\begin{aligned}P(X, Y, Z) &= P(X|Y, Z)P(Y, Z) \\ &= P(X|Y, Z)P(Y|Z)P(Z)\end{aligned}$$

# Conditional Independence

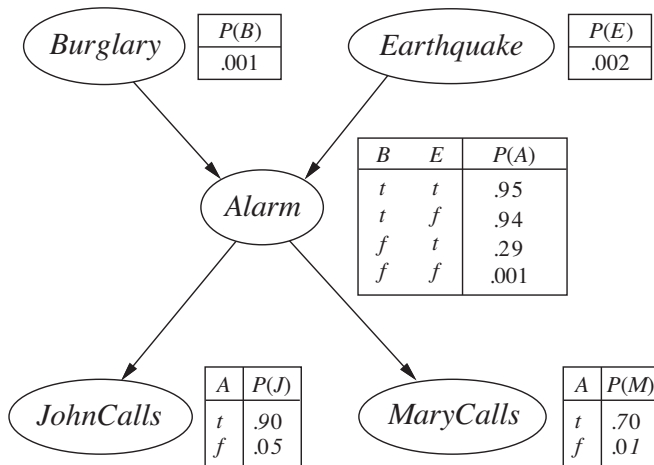
$$X \perp Y | Z \rightarrow P(X|Y, Z) = P(X|Z)$$

# Probability Distributions ctd.

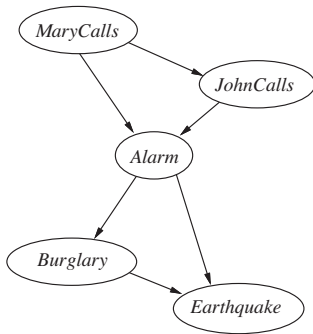
- Belief networks.
  - Nodes: random variables.
  - Arcs: causal dependence
  - Network encodes independence.
  - Flow of influence.



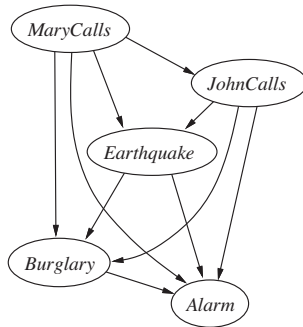
# Example Belief Network



# Alternate Formulation



(a)



(b)

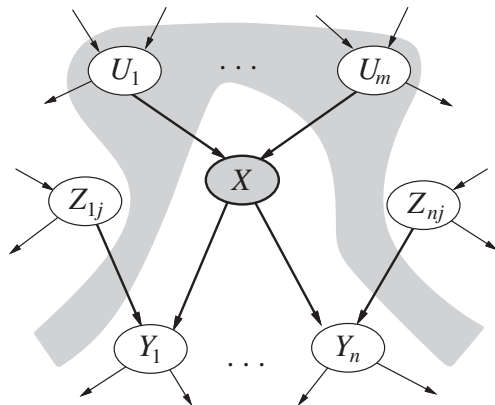
# Chain Rule for Bayesian Networks

- Chain rule for Bayesian Networks:

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n) = \prod_i P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$$

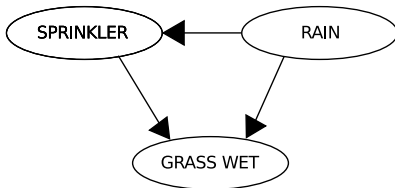
- P factorizes over the network.

# Conditional Independence



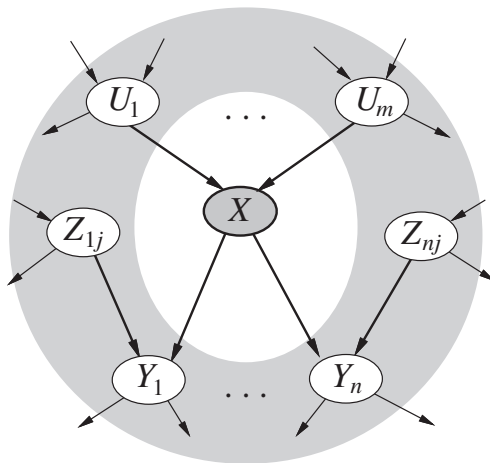
- Defined by the semantics of belief networks

# Example Belief Network



- Using the chain rule:  $P(Grass, Sprinkler, Rain) = P(Grass|Sprinkler, Rain)P(Sprinkler|Rain)P(Rain)$
- A factorization of P.

# Markov Blanket



# Querying Belief Networks

- Query variable(s):  $Q$
- Observed evidence:  $E_1 = e_1, E_2 = e_2, \dots, E_n = e_n$
- How do you calculate  $P(Q|e)$ ?

# Inference in Belief Networks

- ① Set observed evidence:  $E_1 = e_1, E_2 = e_2, \dots, E_n = e_n$
- ② Marginalize out non-query variables  $W$  .
- ③  $P(Q|e) \propto \sum_W P(Q, W, E = e)$
- ④ Renormalize.

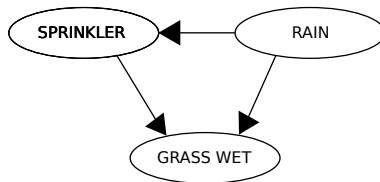


# Renormalization

- $\tilde{P}(X)$  - an unnormalized probability measure.
- $P(X) = \frac{\tilde{P}(X)}{\sum_X \tilde{P}(X)}$  - renormalized probability distribution over  $X$ .
- The denominator,  $\sum_X \tilde{P}(X)$  is merely a constant.

# Example Belief Network

RAIN	SPRINKLER	
	T	F
F	0.4	0.6
T	0.01	0.99



	RAIN	
	T	F
	0.2	0.8

SPRINKLER	RAIN	GRASS WET	
		T	F
F	F	0.0	1.0
F	T	0.8	0.2
T	F	0.9	0.1
T	T	0.99	0.01

# Factors in general

Function:  $f(X_1, \dots, X_j)$ .

Assignments:

- $f(X_1 = x_1, X_2, \dots, X_j)$ , is a factor on  $X_2, \dots, X_j$ .
- $f(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_j = x_j)$

# Example factors

$r(X, Y, Z):$

$X$	$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	t	0.1
t	t	f	0.9
t	f	t	0.2
t	f	f	0.8
f	t	t	0.4
f	t	f	0.6
f	f	t	0.3
f	f	f	0.7

$r(X=t, Y, Z):$

$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	
f	t	
f	f	

# Example factors

 $r(X, Y, Z):$ 

$X$	$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	t	0.1
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 $r(X=t, Y, Z=f):$

# Example factors

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f	f	t	0.3
f	f	f	0.7

$$r(X=t, Y, Z):$$

$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	
f	t	
f	f	

$$r(X=t, Y, Z=f):$$

$Y$	val
t	
f	

$$r(X=t, Y=f, Z=f) =$$

# Example factors

$$r(X, Y, Z):$$

$X$	$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	t	0.1
t	t	f	0.9
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t	f	f	0.8
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f	t	f	0.6
f	f	t	0.3
f	f	f	0.7

$$r(X=t, Y, Z):$$

$Y$	$Z$	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	
f	t	
f	f	

$$r(X=t, Y, Z=f):$$

$Y$	val
t	0.9
f	0.8

$$r(X=t, Y=f, Z=f) = 0.8$$

# Multiplying factors

The **product** of factor  $f_1(\overline{X}, \overline{Y})$  and  $f_2(\overline{Y}, \overline{Z})$ , where  $\overline{Y}$  are the variables in common, is the factor  $(f_1 \times f_2)(\overline{X}, \overline{Y}, \overline{Z})$  defined by:

$$(f_1 \times f_2)(\overline{X}, \overline{Y}, \overline{Z}) = f_1(\overline{X}, \overline{Y})f_2(\overline{Y}, \overline{Z}).$$



# Multiplying factors example

$f_1$ :

$A$	$B$	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	0.9
f	t	0.2
f	f	0.8

$f_2$ :

$B$	$C$	val
t	t	0.3
t	f	0.7
f	t	0.6
f	f	0.4

$f_1 \times f_2$ :

$A$	$B$	$C$	val
t	t	t	0.03
t	t	f	
t	f	t	
t	f	f	
f	t	t	
f	t	f	
f	f	t	
f	f	f	

# Multiplying factors example

$f_1$ :

$A$	$B$	val
t	t	0.1
t	f	0.9
f	t	0.2
f	f	0.8

$f_2$ :

$B$	$C$	val
t	t	0.3
t	f	0.7
f	t	0.6
f	f	0.4

$f_1 \times f_2$ :

$A$	$B$	$C$	val
t	t	t	0.03
t	t	f	0.07
t	f	t	0.54
t	f	f	0.36
f	t	t	0.06
f	t	f	0.14
f	f	t	0.48
f	f	f	0.32

# Variable Elimination Algorithm

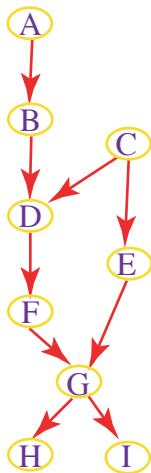
Compute the distribution of some query variable  $X_q$

- ① Use chain rule to get factorization.
- ② Set observed variables.
- ③ Elimination: Marginalize all variables except  $X_q$ :
  - "Push in" the summations:

$$\sum_Y P(X)P(Y) = P(X) \sum_Y P(Y)$$

- ④ Multiply the remaining factors.
- ⑤ Renormalize.

# Variable elimination example: $P(D|H)$



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} P(A) \\ P(B|A) \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{\text{elim } A} f_1(B)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} P(C) \\ P(D|B, C) \\ P(E|C) \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{\text{elim } C} f_2(BDE)$$

$$\begin{array}{l} P(F|D) \\ P(G|F, E) \end{array}$$

$$P(H|G) \} \xrightarrow{\text{obs } H} f_3(G)$$

$$P(I|G) \} \xrightarrow{\text{elim } I} f_4(G)$$

# Variable Elimination example: $P(D|H)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(D, H = h) &= \frac{\sum_{A,B,C,E,F,G,I} P(A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H = h, I)}{Z} \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{A,B,C,E,F,G,I} P(I|G)P(H=h|G)P(G|\bar{F},E)P(F|D)P(E|C)P(D|B,C)P(C)P(B|A)P(A)}{Z} \\
 &= \frac{\sum_{I,G} P(I|G)P(H = h|G) \sum_{E,F} P(G|\bar{F},E)P(F|D) \sum_C P(E|C) \sum_B P(D|B,C)P(C) \sum_A P(B|A)P(A)}{Z}
 \end{aligned}$$

$Z$  is the (re)normalizing constant.

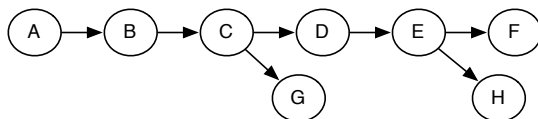
# Variable Elimination example, ctd.

$$\underbrace{\sum_G f_4(G) f_3(G) \underbrace{\sum_{E,F} P(G|F, E) P(F|D) \underbrace{\sum_B f_2(B, D, E) f_1(B)}_{f_5(D,E)}}_{f_6(D,G)}}_{f_7(D)}$$

$$P(D, H = h) = \frac{f_7(D)}{Z}$$

$Z$  is the (re)normalizing constant.  $f_1, f_2, f_3$ , see previous slide.

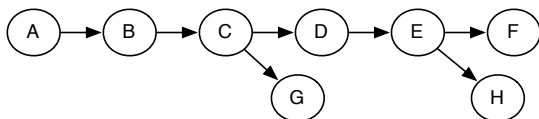
# Variable Elimination example



Query:  $P(G|f)$ ; elimination ordering:  $A, H, E, D, B, C$

$$P(G|f) \propto$$

# Variable Elimination example



Query:  $P(G|f)$ ; elimination ordering:  $A, H, E, D, B, C$

$$P(G|f) \propto \sum_C \sum_B \sum_D \sum_E \sum_H \sum_A P(A)P(B|A)P(C|B) \\ P(D|C)P(E|D)P(f|E)P(G|C)P(H|E)$$

$$= \sum_C \left( \sum_B \left( \sum_A P(A)P(B|A) \right) P(C|B) \right) P(G|C) \\ \left( \sum_D P(D|C) \left( \sum_E P(E|D)P(f|E) \sum_H P(H|E) \right) \right)$$



# Markov chain

- A Markov chain is a special case of belief network:



What probabilities need to be specified? What Independence assumptions are made?

# Markov chain

- A Markov chain is a special case of belief network:



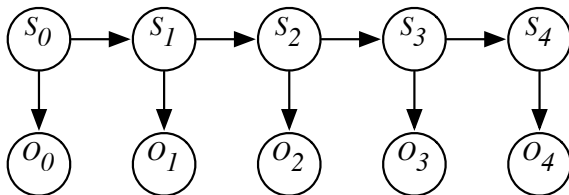
- $P(s_0)$  specifies initial conditions
- $P(s_{t+1}|s_t)$  specifies the dynamics
- $P(s_{t+1}|s_0, \dots, s_t) = P(s_{t+1}|s_t)$ .
- Often  $s_t$  represents the **state** at time  $t$ . Intuitively  $s_t$  conveys all of the information about the history that can affect the future states.
- “The future is independent of the past given the present.”

# Stationary Markov chain

- A **stationary Markov chain** is when for all  $t > 0$ ,  $t' > 0$ ,  $P(S_{t+1}|S_t) = P(S_{t'+1}|S_{t'})$ .
- We specify  $P(S_0)$  and  $P(S_{t+1}|S_t)$ .
  - Simple model, easy to specify
  - Often the natural model
  - The network can extend indefinitely

# Hidden Markov Model

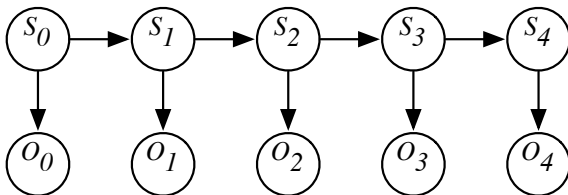
- A **Hidden Markov Model (HMM)** is a belief network:



The probabilities that need to be specified:

# Hidden Markov Model

- A **Hidden Markov Model (HMM)** is a belief network:



The probabilities that need to be specified:

- $P(S_0)$  specifies initial conditions
- $P(S_{t+1}|S_t)$  specifies the dynamics
- $P(O_t|S_t)$  specifies the sensor model

# Approximate Inference

- Complexity of Belief networks are connected to CSP
- In polytrees, linear to the size of the network
- In multiply connected, exponential in the worst case!
- Approximate inference through sampling
  - Rejection Sampling
  - Gibbs Sampling

# 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
     $x \leftarrow \text{PRIOR-SAMPLE}(bn)$ 
    if  $x$  is consistent with  $e$  then
       $N[x] \leftarrow N[x] + 1$  where  $x$  is the value of  $X$  in  $x$ 
  return NORMALIZE( $N[X]$ )
```

E.g., estimate  $P(\text{Rain}|\text{Sprinkler} = \text{true})$  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

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

Hence rejection sampling returns consistent posterior estimates

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

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