COMS W4701: Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 21: Approximate Inference in Bayes Nets

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Today

Forward sampling

Likelihood weighting and importance sampling

MCMC and Gibbs sampling

Approximate Inference: Sampling

- Exact inference to find complex posterior distributions is NP-hard
- But we do have the "components" of the posterior in the CPTs

- Idea: Monte Carlo methods use the Bayes net parameters (CPTs) to generate samples and approximate query probabilities and distributions
- Can obtain approximations very quickly if exact values are not needed

- The more samples we get, the closer we can estimate true probabilities
- Runtimes scale with number of samples rather than distribution size

Forward Sampling

- A full sample consists of a value assignment to every variable using known CPTs
- Procedure: Sample a value for each variable one at a time following topological order
- For each node, use the conditional distribution corresponding to the parents' sampled values
- To sample from distribution with probabilities $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k$, we can uniformly sample between 0 and 1 and pick value j if sample is in $[\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} w_i, \sum_{i=1}^{j} w_i]$

1. Sample from P(C). Suppose we get +c.



3. Sample from P(R|+c). Suppose we get -r.

4. Sample from P(W|+s,-r). Suppose we get -w.

Example: Forward Sampling

Suppose we get 5 samples:

•
$$(-c, +s, +r, -w)$$
 $\widehat{P}(C, W)$ $\widehat{P}(S|W)$

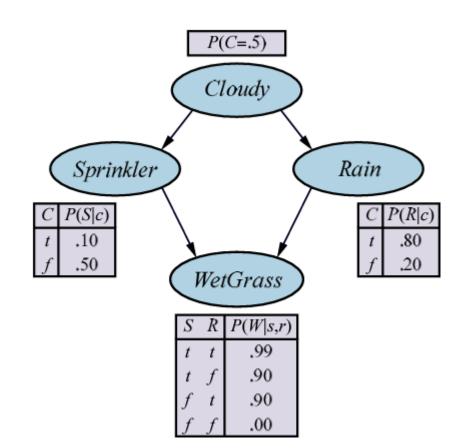
 $\widehat{P}(R)$

+r	0.8
-r	0.2

+C	+W	0.6
	-W	0
-C	+W	0.2
	-W	0.2

+W	+5	0.25
	- S	0.75
-W	+\$	1
	-S	0

 We can now estimate any distributions or probability tables we want!



Forward Sampling Considerations

- Applications: Rollouts in MCTS, text generation in large language models
- Probability of any sample $(x_1, ..., x_n)$ is just $\prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | parents(X_i))$

- Samples are consistent with the prior Bayes net joint distribution
- Proportion of samples approximates probability of corresponding event

- Complexity of generating a single sample is linear in Bayes net size
- Number of required samples to achieve a given error bound grows inversely with event probability (rare event -> more samples needed)

Rejection Sampling

- If we are interested in a query with evidence P(X|e), we only need to keep samples that match all e values and reject the rest
- Ex: Want P(S|+w), can reject all samples with W=-w

- Expected fraction of samples that are kept is equal to P(e)
- Can be very small if evidence is rare, leading to few samples kept
- Evidence probability also decreases exponentially with *number* of variables, e.g. $P(e_1, e_2, e_3)$ much less likely than $P(e_1)$

Likelihood Weighting

- Idea: Fix evidence variables to take on the given values
- We can keep every sample that we generate—no rejection

- But now samples may look very different from the prior distribution
- Idea: Weight each sample using likelihood of evidence to compensate

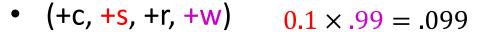
- The "count" contribution from a weighted sample is just its weight value
- We take weighted averages of sample values to estimate posterior probs

Likelihood Weighting

```
function LIKELIHOOD-WEIGHTING(X, \mathbf{e}, bn, N) returns an estimate of \mathbf{P}(X \mid \mathbf{e})
  inputs: X, the query variable
            e, observed values for variables E
            bn, a Bayesian network specifying joint distribution \mathbf{P}(X_1,\ldots,X_n)
            N, the total number of samples to be generated
   local variables: W, a vector of weighted counts for each value of X, initially zero
  for j = 1 to N do
       \mathbf{x}, w \leftarrow \text{Weighted-Sample}(bn, \mathbf{e})
       \mathbf{W}[j] \leftarrow \mathbf{W}[j] + w where x_j is the value of X in \mathbf{x}
  return NORMALIZE(W)
function WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn, e) returns an event and a weight
   w \leftarrow 1; \mathbf{x} \leftarrow an event with n elements, with values fixed from \mathbf{e}
  for i = 1 to n do
       if X_i is an evidence variable with value x_{ij} in e
            then w \leftarrow w \times P(X_i = x_{ij} | parents(X_i))
           else \mathbf{x}[i] \leftarrow a random sample from \mathbf{P}(X_i \mid parents(X_i))
   return x, w
```

Example: Likelihood Weighting

- Suppose we want $P(C, R \mid +s, +w)$
- Fix +s and +w; sample other variables
- Sample weights: P(+s|c)P(+w|+s,r)



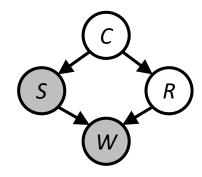
•
$$(+c, +s, +r, +w)$$
 $0.1 \times .99 = .099$

•
$$(+c, +s, -r, +w)$$
 $0.1 \times 0.9 = 0.09$

•
$$(-c, +s, -r, +w)$$
 $0.5 \times 0.9 = 0.45$

 Probabilities are normalized weighted averages of sample values

С	P(+s C)
+c	0.1
-C	0.5



R	P(+w +s,R)
+r	0.99
-r	0.90

$$\widehat{P}(C,R \mid +s,+w)$$

+c	+r	0.198
	-r	0.09
-C	+r	0
	-r	0.45



+C	+r	0.268
	۲	0.122
-C	+	0
	-r	0.610

Importance Sampling

- Another perspective: We want to find the *posterior distribution* P(X|e)
- But samples are generated from the prior $\prod_i P(X_i | parents(X_i))$
- Importance sampling: Apply a weight to each sample x to correct for this mismatch:

 Posterior probability

Posterior probability
$$w(x) = \frac{P(x|e)}{\prod_i P(x_i|parents(X_i))} \propto \prod_j P(e_j|parents(E_j))$$
 Prior probability

• In practice, this works regardless of the sampling (prior) distribution!

Likelihood Weighting Considerations

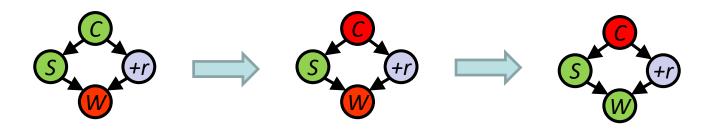
- Think of likelihood weighting as a "patch"
- The more different the prior and posterior, the more variance in the weight values

 If most evidence is upstream near roots, then the prior will be more similar to the posterior, and weights will provide smaller or no corrections

- If most evidence is *downstream* near leaves, then many samples may be irrelevant to query, with greater variety in the weights
- Estimates will be dominated by few samples with non-infinitesimal weights

Sequences of Samples

- We want evidence to affect sampling both upstream and downstream
- If most evidence at leaf nodes, prior looks very different from posterior
- New idea: Construct a sequence of samples s.t. successive samples come from distributions that look more and more like the posterior
 - Example: Suppose
 + r is fixed evidence



• Initial sample: (+c, -s, +r, -w)

Sample from $P(S \mid +c, +r, -w)$ and obtain +s

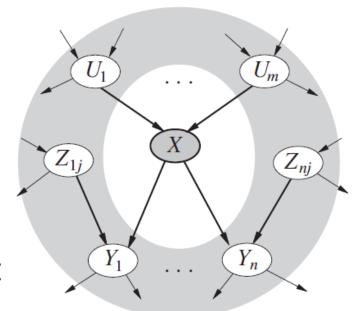
Sample from $P(C \mid +s, +r)$ and obtain -c

Sample from $P(W \mid + s, +r)$ and obtain +w

Markov Blanket

- Problem: We need to compute $P(X_i \mid all \ other \ nodes \ in \ the \ BN)$ in order to perform sampling, which seems intractable
- We can reduce these dependencies to just the *Markov blanket* of X_i

- The Markov blanket of X includes its parents U_i , children Y_j , children's parents Z_{kj}
- X is conditionally independent of all other nodes given observations of all nodes in its Markov blanket



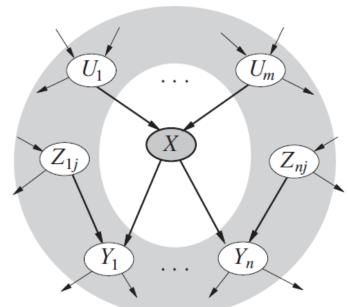
Markov Blanket

- To sample from $P(X_i|MB(X_i))$, compute $P(X_i,MB(X_i))$ and normalize
- If X_i has n children, this is a product of n+1 tables, each of size $|X_i|$

$$P(X_i|mb(X_i)) \propto P(X_i|parents(X_i)) \times \prod_{Y_j} P(y_j|parents(Y_j))$$

 We can easily compute these distributions given any combination of sample values

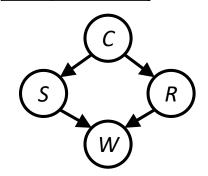
 We can use these distributions to resample any non-evidence (non-fixed) variable



Example: Markov Blanket

С	P(+s C)
+C	0.1
-C	0.5

(C)
.5



С	P(+r C)
+c	0.8
-С	0.2

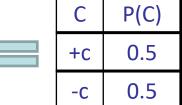
$$P(C \mid mb(C)) = P(C \mid s,r) \propto P(C)P(s|C)P(r|C)$$

$$P(S \mid mb(S)) = P(S \mid c,r,w) \propto P(S|c)P(w|S,r)$$

$$P(R \mid mb(R)) = P(R|c,s,w) \propto P(R|c)P(w|s,R)$$

$$P(W \mid mb(W)) = P(W \mid s,r)$$

С	P(C,+s,+r)
+C	0.04
-C	0.05





С	P(+s C)
+C	0.1
-C	0.5

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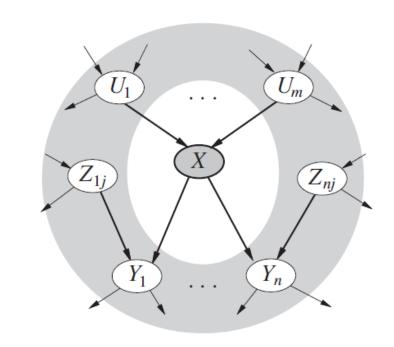
	С	P(+r C)
	+C	0.8
	-C	0.2

$$P(C|mb(C)) = (\frac{4}{9}, \frac{5}{9})$$

Gibbs Sampling

- **Gibbs sampling**: Generate a *sequence* of samples, where *one* non-evidence variable Z_i of the ith sample is resampled conditioned on the (i-1)th sample
- The resampled variable Z_i can be chosen randomly or deterministically
- Over time, the samples start to reflect the posterior that we want to estimate!

```
function GIBBS-ASK(X, \mathbf{e}, bn, N) returns an estimate of \mathbf{P}(X \mid \mathbf{e})
local variables: \mathbf{C}, a vector of counts for each value of X, initially zero \mathbf{Z}, the nonevidence variables in bn
\mathbf{x}, the current state of the network, initialized from \mathbf{e}
initialize \mathbf{x} with random values for the variables in \mathbf{Z}
for k = 1 to N do
choose any variable Z_i from \mathbf{Z} according to any distribution \rho(i)
set the value of Z_i in \mathbf{x} by sampling from \mathbf{P}(Z_i \mid mb(Z_i))
\mathbf{C}[j] \leftarrow \mathbf{C}[j] + 1 where x_j is the value of X in \mathbf{x}
return NORMALIZE(\mathbf{C})
```

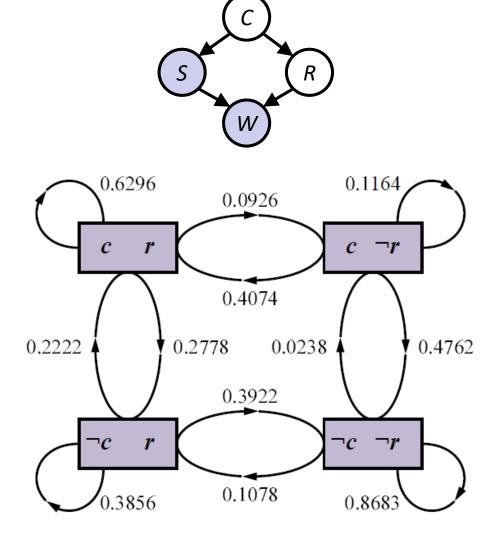


Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- Think of posterior as a belief state
- Jumping from sample to sample simulates a Markov chain over posterior

 Transition probabilities are likelihoods of obtaining new sample given current

 Can show that stationary distribution is exactly equal to posterior distribution



Gibbs Sampling Considerations

- Initial set of samples may be far from the posterior estimate
- Solution: Implement a burn-in period and discard the first n samples

- There are more sophisticated MCMC methods (e.g., Metropolis-Hastings)
- Different methods construct the underlying Markov chain in different ways

- MCMC are the most common methods for inference in large networks and other computational problems, e.g. solving multi-dimensional integrals
- Once compiled, can run very fast or asynchronously in parallel

Summary

 Performing inference is computationally heavy in large Bayes nets with many query and hidden variables

- Monte Carlo sampling allows us to estimate probability distributions
- Direct sampling methods draw samples independently
- Can also weight samples to be consistent with evidence

- MCMC methods (e.g., Gibbs sampling) treat sampling as local search
- Transitions follow a Markov chain; stationary distribution is the posterior