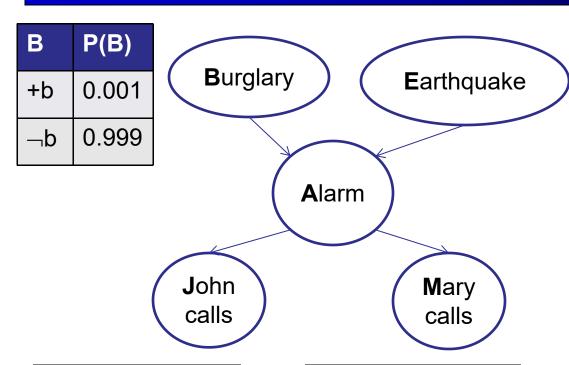
## CS 349: Artificial Intelligence

Probabilistic Inference

## Example: Alarm Network



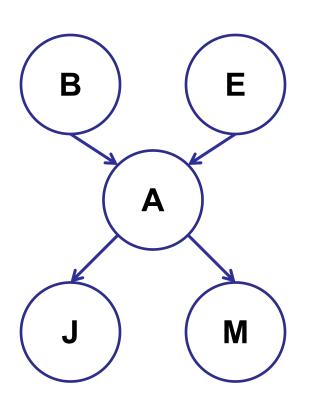
A	7	P(J A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	ij	0.1
−a	+j	0.05
−a	Γj	0.95

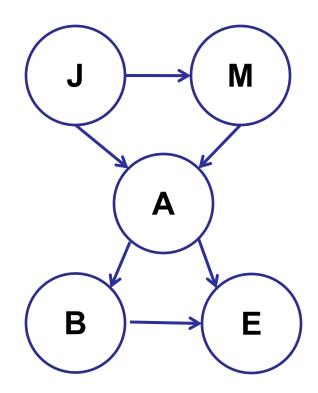
A	M	P(M A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	$\neg m$	0.3
¬а	+m	0.01
⊸а	$\neg$ m	0.99

Е	P(E)
+e	0.002
¬е	0.998

В	ш	Α	P(A B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
<b>+</b> b	e +	−a	0.05
<b>b</b>	e 「	+a	0.94
<b>+</b> b	e 「	−a	0.06
−b	+e	+a	0.29
−b	+e	−a	0.71
b √	e 「	+a	0.001
$\neg b$	−е	¬a	0.999

#### Causation and Correlation





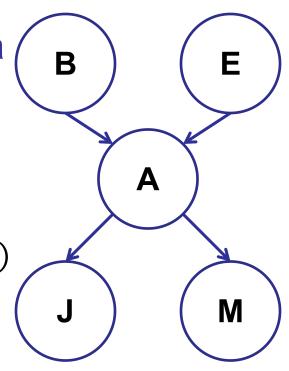
#### Probabilistic Inference

- Probabilistic Inference: calculating some quantity from a joint probability distribution
  - Posterior probability:

$$P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \dots E_k = e_k)$$

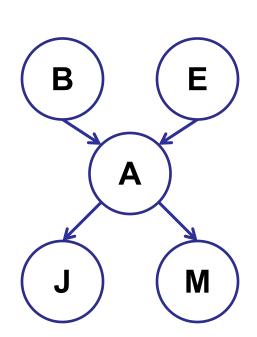
• Most likely explanation:  $argmax_q P(Q = q | E_1 = e_1...)$ 

In general, partition variables into Query (Q or X), Evidence (E), and Hidden (H or Y) variables

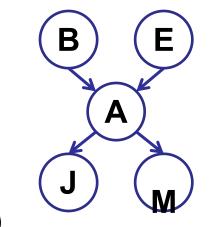


- Given unlimited time, inference in BNs is easy
- Recipe:
  - State the unconditional probabilities you need
  - Enumerate all the atomic probabilities you need
  - Calculate sum of products
- Example:

$$P(+b|+j,+m) = \frac{P(+b,+j,+m)}{P(+j,+m)}$$



$$P(+b, +j, +m)$$
=  $\sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(+b, +j, +m, e, a)$   
=  $\sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(+b) P(e) P(a|+b,e) P(+j|a) P(+m|a)$ 



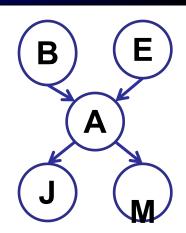
$$= P(+b)P(+e)P(+a|+b,+e)P(+j|+a)P(+m|+a)+$$

$$P(+b)P(+e)P(-a|+b,+e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)+$$

$$P(+b)P(-e)P(+a|+b,-e)P(+j|+a)P(+m|+a)+$$

$$P(+b)P(-e)P(-a|+b,-e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)$$

An optimization



$$P(+b, +j, +m)$$

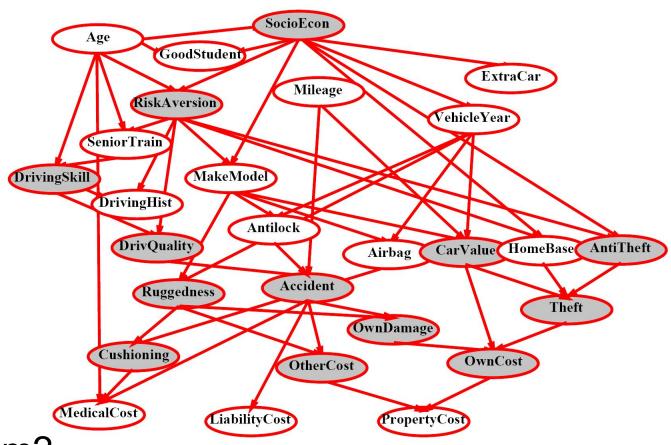
$$=\sum_{e}\sum_{a}P(+b,+j,+m,e,a)$$

$$= \sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(+b) P(e) P(a|+b,e) P(+j|a) P(+m|a)$$

$$= P(+b) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{a} P(a|+b,e) P(+j|a) P(+m|a)$$

$$= P(+b) \sum_{a} P(+j|a) P(+m|a) \sum_{e} P(e) P(a|+b,e)$$

or



Problem?

Not just 4 rows; approximately 10<sup>16</sup> rows!

#### Variable Elimination

- Why is inference by enumeration so slow?
  - You join up the whole joint distribution before you sum out the hidden variables

$$(\sum_{e}\sum_{a}P(+b)P(e)P(a|+b,e)P(+j|a)P(+m|a))$$

- You end up repeating a lot of work!
- Idea: interleave joining and marginalizing!
  - Called "Variable Elimination"
  - Still NP-hard, but usually much faster than inference by enumeration
  - Requires an algebra for combining "factors"

#### Factor Zoo I

- Joint distribution: P(X,Y)
  - Entries P(x,y) for all x, y
  - Sums to 1

#### P(T, W)

Т	W	Р
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

- Selected joint: P(x,Y)
  - A slice of the joint distribution
  - Entries P(x,y) for fixed x, all y
  - Sums to P(x)

#### P(cold, W)

Т	W	Р
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

#### Factor Zoo II

- Family of conditionals: P(X | Y)
  - Multiple conditionals
  - Entries P(x | y) for all x, y
  - Sums to |Y|

P(	W	T	)
•			/

Т	W	Р	
hot	sun	8.0	
hot	rain	0.2	ight] P(W hot)
cold	sun	0.4	
cold	rain	0.6	$\left  iggr_{}  ight. P(W cold)$

- Single conditional: P(Y | x)
  - Entries P(y | x) for fixed x, all y
  - Sums to 1

Т	W	Р
cold	sun	0.4
cold	rain	0.6

#### Factor Zoo III

- Specified family: P(y | X)
  - Entries P(y | x) for fixed y, but for all x
  - Sums to ... who knows!

#### P(rain|T)

Т	W	Р	
hot	rain	0.2	P(rain hot)
cold	rain	0.6	$\left   ight.  ight. P(rain cold)$

- In general, when we write P(Y₁ ... YN | X₁ ... XM)
  - It is a "factor," a multi-dimensional array
  - Its values are all P(y₁ ... y<sub>N</sub> | x₁ ... x<sub>M</sub>)
  - Any assigned X or Y is a dimension missing (selected) from the array

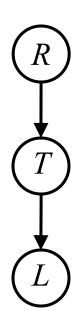
## **Example: Traffic Domain**

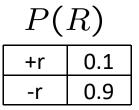
#### Random Variables

R: Raining

■ T: Traffic

L: Late for class!





	1 2	
+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

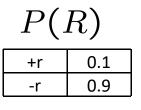
P(T|R)

+t	+	0.3
+t	7	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9

P(L|R)

#### Variable Elimination Outline

- Track objects called factors
- Initial factors are local CPTs (one per node)



$$P(T|R)$$
  $P(L|T)$ 

+r +t 0.8
+r -t 0.2
-r +t 0.1
-r -t 0.9

 $P(L|T)$ 

+t +l 0.6
+t -l 0.6
-t +l 0.6

- Any known values are selected
  - ullet E.g. if we know  $L=+\ell$  , the initial factors are

$$P(R)$$
+r 0.1
-r 0.9

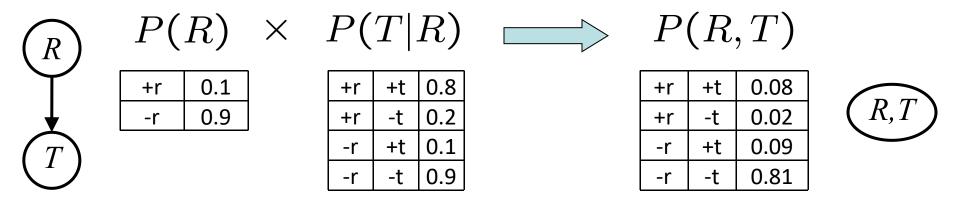
$$P(T|R)$$
  $P(+\ell|T)$ 

+r +t 0.8
+r -t 0.2
-t +l 0.1

VE: Alternately join factors and eliminate variables

## **Operation 1: Join Factors**

- Combining factors:
  - Just like a database join
  - Get all factors that mention the joining variable
  - Build a new factor over the union of the variables involved
- Example: Join on R

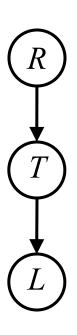


Computation for each entry: point wise products

$$\forall r, t : P(r,t) = P(r) \cdot P(t|r)$$

## Example: Multiple Joins





+r	0.1
-r	0.9

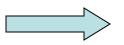
P(T|R)

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

P(L|T)

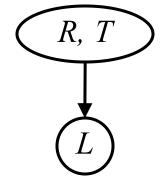
+t	+	0.3
+t	-	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9

Join R



P(R,T)

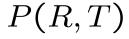
+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81



P(L|T)

+t	+	0.3
+t	-	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9

#### Example: Multiple Joins



+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

#### Join T



#### P(L|T)

+t	+	0.3
+t	<del>-</del>	0.7
-t	7	0.1
-t	-	0.9

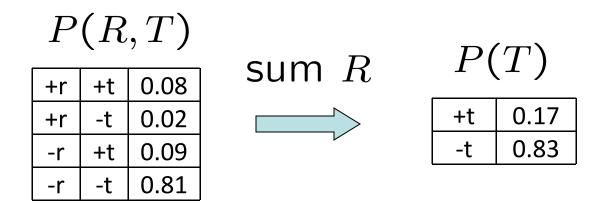


#### P(R,T,L)

+r	+t	+	0.024
+r	+t	-	0.056
+r	-t	+	0.002
+r	-t	-1	0.018
-r	+t	+	0.027
-r	+t	7	0.063
-r	-t	+	0.081
-r	-t	-1	0.729

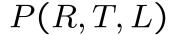
#### Operation 2: Eliminate

- Second basic operation: marginalization
- Take a factor and sum out a variable
  - Shrinks a factor to a smaller one
  - A projection operation
- Example:



## Multiple Elimination

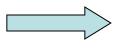




+r	+t	+	0.024
+r	+t	1	0.056
+r	-t	+	0.002
+r	-t	-	0.018
-r	+t	+	0.027
-r	+t	-	0.063
-r	-t	+	0.081
-r	-t	-1	0.729



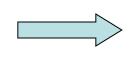




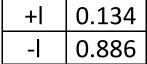
P(	T	,	1
	•	/	

+t	+	0.051
+t	<del>-</del>	0.119
-t	+	0.083
-t	-	0.747





P(L)



## P(L): Marginalizing Early!



+r	0.1
-r	0.9

P(T|R)

+t

+r

+r

-r

8.0

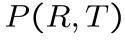
0.2

0.9

#### Join R

#### Sum out R

R, T



+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

#### P(T)

+t	0.17
-t	0.83

#### P(L|T)

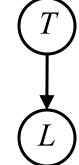
+t	+	0.3
+t	-	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-1	0.9

#### P(L|T)

+t	+	0.3
+t	-	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9

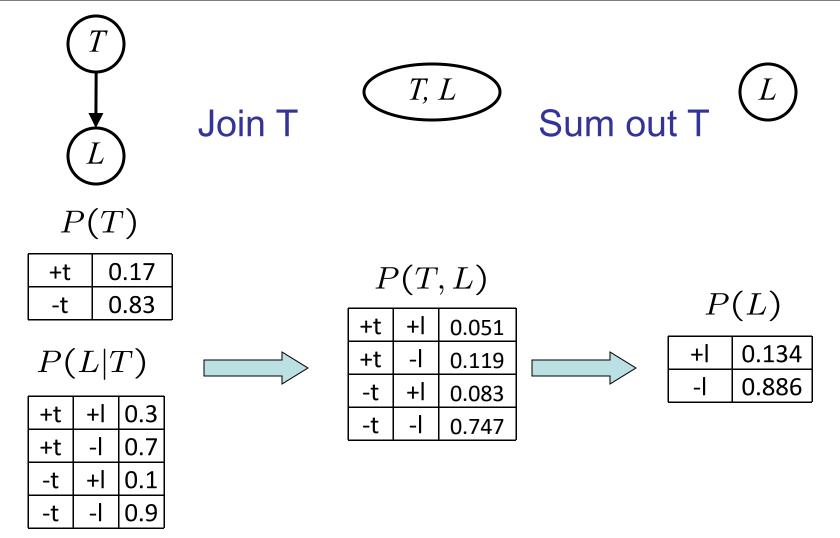
#### P(L|T)

+t	+	0.3
+t	7	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9



20

## Marginalizing Early



Early marginalization is variable elimination

#### Evidence

- If evidence, start with factors that select that evidence
  - No evidence uses these initial factors:

$$P(R)$$
+r 0.1
-r 0.9

$$P(T|R)$$
+r +t 0.8
+r -t 0.2
-r +t 0.1
-r -t 0.9

$$P(L|T)$$

+t +l 0.3

+t -l 0.7

-t +l 0.1

-t -l 0.9

Computing P(L|+r) , the initial factors become:

$$P(+r)$$

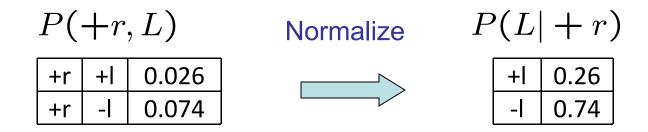
$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} P(+r) & P(T|+r) \\ \hline +r & 0.1 & & +r & +t & 0.8 \\ \hline & +r & -t & 0.2 & & \end{array}$$

$$P(L|T)$$
 $\begin{array}{c|cccc} +t & +I & 0.3 \\ +t & -I & 0.7 \\ -t & +I & 0.1 \\ -t & -I & 0.9 \end{array}$ 

- We eliminate all vars other than query + evidence
- Compute P(+r, T) $\rightarrow$ P(+r, T)\*P(L|T) $\rightarrow$ Sum on T

#### Evidence II

- Result will be a selected joint of query and evidence
  - E.g. for P(L | +r), we'd end up with:



- To get our answer, just normalize this!
- That's it!

#### General Variable Elimination

- Query:  $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \dots E_k = e_k)$
- Start with initial factors:
  - Local CPTs (but instantiated by evidence)
- While there are still hidden variables (not Q or evidence):
  - Pick a hidden variable H
  - Join all factors mentioning H
  - Eliminate (sum out) H
- Join all remaining factors and normalize

## Variable Elimination Bayes Rule

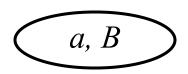
#### Start / Select

# $\begin{array}{c|c} P(B) & B \\ \hline B & P \\ \hline +b & 0.1 \\ \hline -b & 0.9 \end{array}$

#### $P(A|B) \rightarrow P(a|B)$

В	Α	Р
+b	+a	8.0
la		0
ט	٦a	0.2
¬b	+a	0.1
h		0.0
ב	Па	0.0

#### Join on B



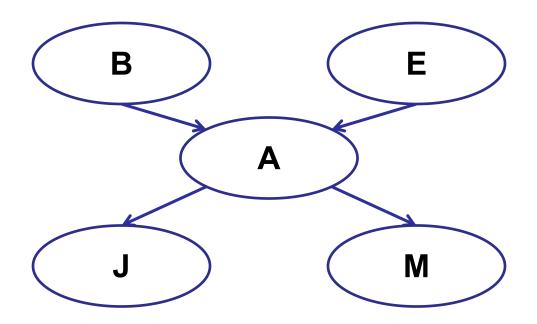
P(a,B)

Α	В	Р
+a	+b	0.08
+a	¬b	0.09

#### Normalize

Α	В	Р
+a	+b	8/17
+a	¬b	9/17

#### Bayes Network presentation

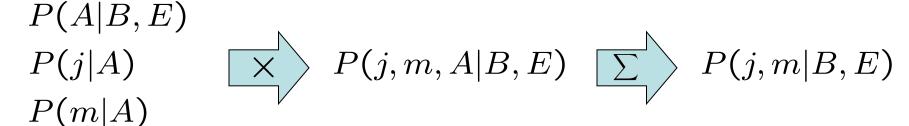


## Example

$$P(B|j,m) \propto P(B,j,m)$$

P(B) P(E) P(A|B,E) P(j|A) P(m|A)

#### Choose A



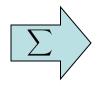
P(B) P(E) P(j,m|B,E)

## Example

#### Choose E



$$P(j, m, E|B)$$
  $\sum$   $P(j, m|B)$ 



#### Finish with B

$$P(B)$$
 $P(j,m|B)$ 





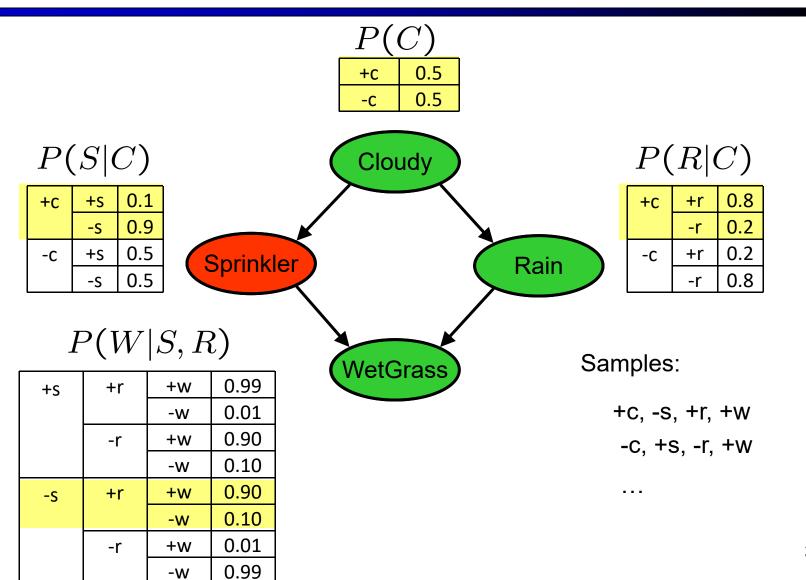
#### Approximate Inference

- Sampling / Simulating / Observing
- Sampling is a hot topic in machine learning, and it's really simple
- Basic idea:
  - Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
  - Compute an approximate posterior probability
  - Show this converges to the true probability P

S A

- Why sample?
  - Learning: get samples from a distribution you don't know
  - Inference: getting a sample is faster than computing the right answer (e.g. with variable elimination)

## **Prior Sampling**



## **Prior Sampling**

This process generates samples with probability:

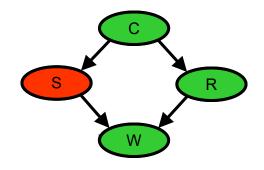
$$S_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | \mathsf{Parents}(X_i)) = P(x_1 \dots x_n)$$

...i.e. the BN's joint probability

- Let the number of samples of an event be  $N_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n)$
- Then  $\lim_{N\to\infty} \widehat{P}(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \lim_{N\to\infty} N_{PS}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)/N$ =  $S_{PS}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)$ =  $P(x_1\ldots x_n)$
- i.e., the sampling procedure is consistent

## Example

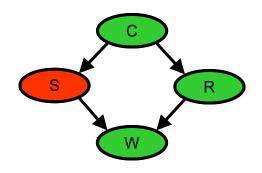
We'll get a bunch of samples from the BN:



- If we want to know P(W)
  - We have counts <+w:4, -w:1>
  - Normalize to get P(W) = <+w:0.8, -w:0.2>
  - This will get closer to the true distribution with more samples
  - Can estimate anything else, too
  - What about P(C| +w)? P(C| +r, +w)? P(C| -r, -w)?
  - Fast: can use fewer samples if less time (what's the drawback?)

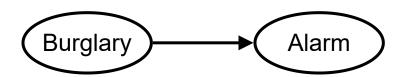
## Rejection Sampling

- Let's say we want P(C)
  - No point keeping all samples around
  - Just tally counts of C as we go



- Let's say we want P(C|+s)
  - Same thing: tally C outcomes, but ignore (reject) samples which don't have S=+s
  - This is called rejection sampling
  - It is also consistent for conditional probabilities (i.e., correct in the limit)

- Problem with rejection sampling:
  - If evidence is unlikely, you reject a lot of samples
  - You don't exploit your evidence as you sample
  - Consider P(B|+a)



-b, -a

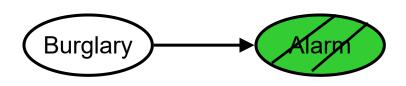
-b, -a

-b, -a

-b, -a

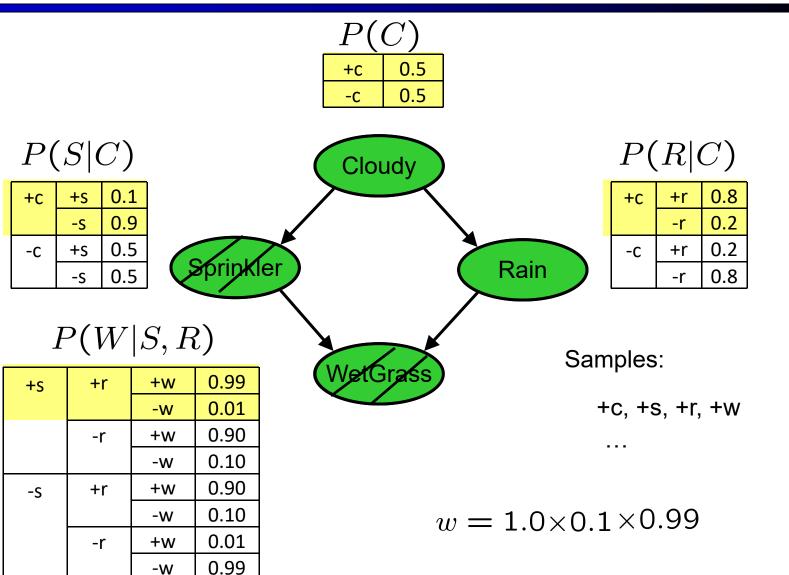
+b, +a

Idea: fix evidence variables and sample the rest



- -b +a
- -b, +a
- -b, +a
- -b, +a
- +b, +a

- Problem: sample distribution not consistent!
- Solution: weight by probability of evidence given parents



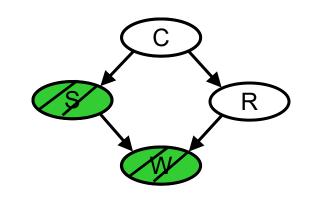
-W

Sampling distribution if z sampled and e fixed evidence

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

Now, samples have weights

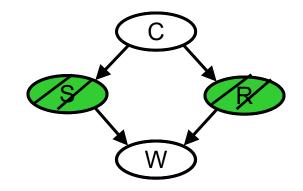
$$w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i | \mathsf{Parents}(E_i))$$



Together, weighted sampling distribution is consistent

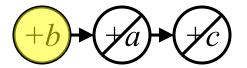
$$S_{\text{WS}}(z, e) \cdot w(z, e) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i | \text{Parents}(z_i)) \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i | \text{Parents}(e_i))$$
$$= P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$$
<sub>36</sub>

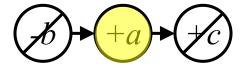
- Likelihood weighting is good
  - We have taken evidence into account as we generate the sample
  - E.g. here, W's value will get picked based on the evidence values of S, R
  - More of our samples will reflect the state of the world suggested by the evidence
- Likelihood weighting doesn't solve all our problems
  - Evidence influences the choice of downstream variables, but not upstream ones (C isn't more likely to get a value matching the evidence)
- We would like to consider evidence when we sample every variable



#### Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- Idea: instead of sampling from scratch, create samples by making random change to the preceding event
- Procedure: resample one variable at a time, conditioned on all the rest, but keep evidence fixed. E.g., for P(b|c):







- Properties: Now samples are not independent (in fact they're nearly identical), but sample averages are still consistent estimators!
- What's the point: both upstream and downstream variables condition on evidence.