

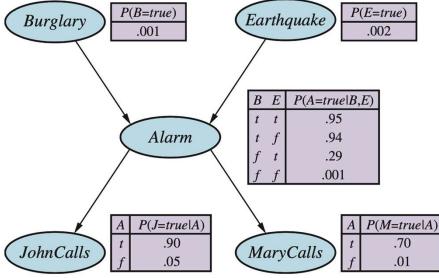


### Introduction

- ☐ Quantifying Uncertainty and Information Theory (Previous lecture)
  - The right thing to do—the rational decision—depends on both the relative importance of various goals and the likelihood.
  - Other solutions for estimation of uncertainty: entropy, joint entropy, conditional entropy, mutual information, cross entropy, relative entropy, etc.
- ☐ Probabilistic Representations of the World (This lecture)
  - How to represent dependency relationships explicitly in Bayesian networks. Syntax and semantics
  - How to capture uncertain knowledge in a natural and efficient way
- ☐ Probabilistic Reasoning (This lecture)
  - How probabilistic inference can be done efficiently in many practical situations
  - A variety of approximate inference algorithms (vs. exact inference)

# **Bayesian Networks**

- Bayesian network is directed acyclic graph (DAG) representing a full joint probability distribution of random variables.
  - Node: random variables  $(X_i)$
  - Edges:  $X_i$  is a parent of  $X_i$
  - CPT (conditional probability table)
- Representing the full joint distribution
  - $P(X_1, ..., X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | Parents(X_i))$
  - $P(j,m,a,\neg b,\neg e)$ 
    - $= P(j|a)P(m|a)P(a|\neg b \land \neg e)P(\neg b)P(\neg e)$
    - $= 0.90 \times 0.70 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998$
    - = 0.000628



## MCMC Sampling for Bayesian Networks

#### **Metropolis-Hastings (MH) Sampling**

- ➤ Most broadly applicable MCMC algorithm.
- $\triangleright$  Generate samples x according to target probabilities  $\pi(x)$ .
- ➤ MH has two stages as follows:
  - 1. Sample a new state x' from a proposal distribution q(x'|x), given the current state x.
  - 2. Probabilistically accept or reject x' according to acceptance probability

$$a(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(x')q(x|x')}{\pi(x)q(x'|x)}\right)$$

If the proposal is rejected, the state remains at x.

# **Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks**

#### **Basic Idea**

- $\triangleright$  Draw *N* samples from a sampling distribution *S*
- $\triangleright$  Compute an approximate posterior probability  $\hat{P}$
- $\triangleright$  Show this converges to the true probability P

#### **Methods**

- Direct sampling
- > Rejection sampling
- ➤ Importance sampling (likelihood weighting)
- ➤ Gibbs sampling
- ➤ Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
- ➤ Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

# Outline (Lecture 11)

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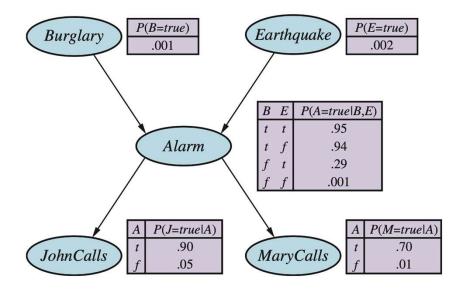
# 11.1 Representing Knowledge in an Uncertain Domain (1/2)

#### **Bayesian Network**

- > Represent the dependencies among variables.
- ➤ Directed graph in which each node is annotated with quantitative probability information.
- > Details are as follows:
  - Each node corresponds to a random variable, which may be discrete or continuous.
  - Directed links or arrows connect pairs of nodes.
  - Each node has associated probability information that quantifies the effect of the parents of the node using a finite number of parameters.

# 11.1 Representing Knowledge in an Uncertain Domain (2/2)

- ➤ Example of Bayesian Network, with both topology and the conditional probability tables (CPTs)
- Directed acyclic graph (DAG) representing a full joint probability distribution of random variables.
  - Node: random variables  $(X_i)$
  - Edges:  $X_i$  is a parent of  $X_j$
- Associated with each node is a CPT representing a conditional probability distribution that quantifies the effect of the parents on the node.





## 11.2 The Semantics of Bayesian Networks (1/5)

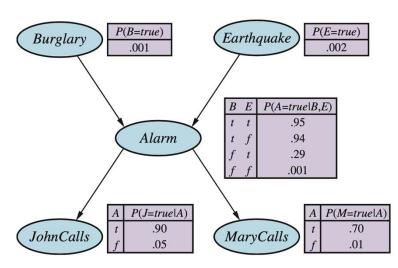
#### **Semantics of Bayesian networks**

- Numerical semantics: The network as a representation of the *joint* probability distribution.
- > Topological semantics: The network as an encoding of a collection of *conditional*

independence statements.

#### Representing the full joint distribution

- $\triangleright P(X_1,...,X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i|Parents(X_i))$
- $\triangleright P(j,m,a,\neg b,\neg e)$ 
  - $= P(j|a)P(m|a)P(a|\neg b \land \neg e)P(\neg b)P(\neg e)$
  - $= 0.90 \times 0.70 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998$
  - = 0.000628



## 11.2 The Semantics of Bayesian Networks (2/5)

#### Joint probability as a product of conditional probabilities

**Chain rule:** 

$$P(x_1, ..., x_n) = P(x_n | x_{n-1}, ..., x_1) P(x_{n-1}, ..., x_1)$$

$$= P(x_n | x_{n-1}, ..., x_1) P(x_{n-1} | x_{n-2}, ..., x_1) ... P(x_2 | x_1) P(x_1) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | x_{i-1}, ..., x_1)$$

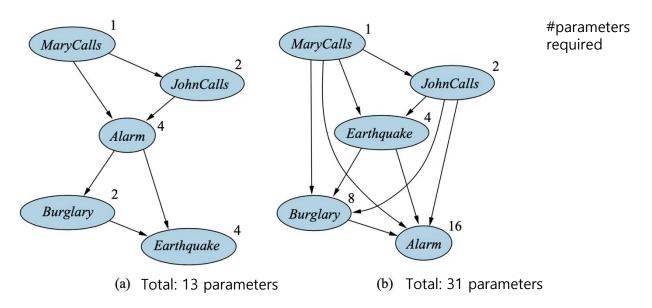
#### A Method for constructing Bayesian networks

- Nodes: First determine the set of variables that are required to model the domain. Now order them,  $\{X_1, ..., X_n\}$ . Any order will work, but the resulting network will be more compact if the variables are ordered such that causes precede effects.
- $\triangleright$  **Links**: For i = 1 to n do:
  - Choose a minimal set of parents for  $X_1, ..., X_{i-1}$ .
  - For each parent insert a link from the parent to  $X_i$ .
  - CPTs: Write down the conditional probability table,  $P(X_i|Parents(X_i))$

## 11.2 The Semantics of Bayesian Networks (3/5)

#### Compactness and node ordering

- Ordering 1 (Figure a): <MaryCalls, JohnCalls, Alarm, Burglary, Earthquake>
- Ordering 2 (Figure b): <Marycalls, JohnCalls, Earthquake, Burglary, Alarm>

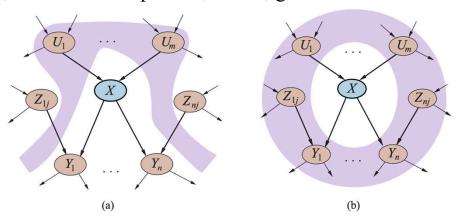


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## 11.2 The Semantics of Bayesian Networks (4/5)

#### Conditional independence relations in Bayesian networks

- Numerical semantics: representation of the full joint distribution (previous)
- Topological semantics: conditional independence relationships
  - Each variable is conditionally independent of its non-descendants, given its parents.
  - A node is conditionally independent of all other nodes in the network, given its parents, children, and children's parents, that is, given its Markov blanket.



## 11.2 The Semantics of Bayesian Networks (5/5)

#### Efficient representation of conditional distributions

- $\triangleright$  Even if the max number of parents k is small, filling in the CPT for a node requires up to  $O(2^k)$ .
- > Uncertain relationships can ofen be characterized by so-called noisy logical relationships.
  - Noisy-OR
  - Fever is true if and only if Cold, Flu, or Malaria are true.

Supposed the individual inhibition probabilities are:

$$q_{cold} = P(\neg fever | cold, \neg flu, \neg malaria) = 0.6$$
  
 $q_{flu} = P(\neg fever | \neg cold, flu, \neg malaria) = 0.2$   
 $q_{malaria} = P(\neg fever | \neg cold, \neg flu, malaria) = 0.1$   
 $P(x_i | parents(X_i)) = 1 - \prod_{\{j:X_j = true\}} q_j$ 

Cold	Flu	Malaria	$P(fever   \cdot)$	$P(\neg fever   \cdot)$
f	f	f	0.0	1.0
f	f	t	0.9	0.1
f	t	f	0.8	0.2
f	t	t	0.98	$0.02 = 0.2 \times 0.1$
t	f	f	0.4	0.6
t	f	t	0.94	$0.06 = 0.6 \times 0.1$
t	t	f	0.88	$0.12 = 0.6 \times 0.2$
t	t	t	0.988	$0.012 = 0.6 \times 0.2 \times 0.1$



### 11.3 Exact Inference in Bayesian Networks (1/5)

#### **Basic concept**

- The basic task for any probabilistic inference system is to compute the posterior probability distribution for a set of query variables, given some observed event, i.e. some assignment of values to a set of evidence variables.
  - {X} ∪ E ∪ Y
     X: query variables
     E = {E<sub>1</sub>, ..., E<sub>m</sub>} evidence variables
     Y = {Y<sub>1</sub>, ..., Y<sub>l</sub>} non-evidence, non-query variables (hidden variables)
- > This section will cover methods for appropriate inference.

### 11.3 Exact Inference in Bayesian Networks (2/5)

#### Inference by enumeration

$$P(X|e) = \alpha P(X,e) = \alpha \sum_{y} P(X,e,y)$$

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

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

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

$$P(B|j,m) = \alpha < 0.00059224, 0.0014919 > P(a|b,e) P(j|a) P(m|a)$$

$$P(a|b,e) P(a|b,e) P(a|a,e) P(a|a,e)$$

Figure 13.10 The structure of the expression shown in Equation (13.5). The evaluation proceeds top down, multiplying values along each path and summing at the "+" nodes. Notice the repetition of the paths for j and m.

### 11.3 Exact Inference in Bayesian Networks (3/5)

#### The variable elimination algorithm

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

$$\mathbf{f}_{1}(B) \quad \mathbf{f}_{2}(E) \quad \mathbf{f}_{3}(A|B,E) \quad \mathbf{f}_{4}(A) \quad \mathbf{f}_{5}(A)$$

$$\mathbf{f_4}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} p(j|a) \\ p(j|\neg a) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.90 \\ 0.05 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{f_5}(A) = \begin{pmatrix} p(m|a) \\ p(m|\neg a) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.70 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}(B|j,m) = \alpha \mathbf{f_1}(B) \times \sum_{e} \mathbf{f_2}(E) \times \sum_{a} \mathbf{f_3}(A,B,E) \times \mathbf{f_4}(A) \times \mathbf{f_5}(A)$$

### 11.3 Exact Inference in Bayesian Networks (4/5)

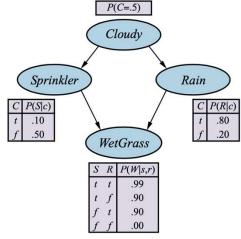
### Variable ordering and variable relevance

- > Every choice of ordering yields a valid algorithm.
- ➤ Different orderings cause different intermediate factors to be generated during the calculation.
- ➤ In general, the time and space requirements of variable elimination are dominated by the size of the largest factor constructed during the operation of the algorithm.
  - Determined by the order of elimination of variables and by the structure of the network.

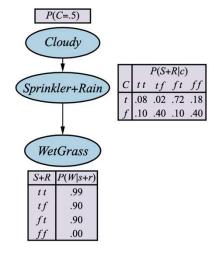
## 11.3 Exact Inference in Bayesian Networks (5/5)

#### **Complexity of exact inference**

- Single connected networks (polytrees):
  Burglary network  $O(d^k n)$
- Multiply connected networks:
  - Can reduce 3SAT to exact inference
    - → NP-hard
  - Equivalent to counting 3SAT models
    - → #P-complete
- Polytree with meganodes(using clustering or joint tree algorithm)



Multiply connected network



Clustered equivalent (with meganodes)



# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (1/10)

#### **Basic Idea**

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

#### **Methods**

- Direct sampling
- > Rejection sampling
- ➤ Likelihood weighting
- ➤ Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)

# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (2/10)

Monte Carlo algorithms are randomized sampling algorithms that provide approximate answers whose accuracy depends on the number of samples generated.

function PRIOR-SAMPLE(bn) returns an event sampled from the prior specified by bn

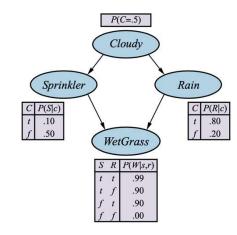
Two families of algorithms: **direct sampling** and **Markov chain sampling**.

irect sampling and  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow$  an event with n elements for each variable  $X_i$  in  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  do  $\mathbf{x}[i] \leftarrow$  a random sample from  $\mathbf{P}(X_i \mid parents(X_i))$  return  $\mathbf{x}$ 

#### **Direct sampling methods**

Ordering: < Cloudy, Sprinkler, Rain, WetGrass>

- 1. Sample from P(Cloudy) = < 0.5, 0.5 >, value is true.
- 2. Sample from P(Sprinkler|Cloudy = True) = < 0.1, 0.9 >, value is false.
- 3. Sample from P(Rain|Cloudy = True) = < 0.8, 0.2 >, value is true.
- 4. Sample from P(WetGrass|Sprinkler = false, Rain = true) = < 0.9, 0.1 >, value is true.



**inputs**: bn, a Bayesian network specifying joint distribution  $P(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ 

## 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (3/10)

### **Direct sampling methods = PRIOR-SAMPLE algorithm (PS)**

$$S_{PS}(x_{1},...,x_{n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_{i}|parents(X_{i}))$$

$$S_{PS}(x_{1},...,x_{n}) = P(x_{1},...,x_{n})$$

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \frac{N_{PS}(x_{1},...,x_{n})}{N} = S_{PS}(x_{1},...,x_{n}) = P(x_{1},...,x_{n})$$

$$S_{PS}(true, false, true, true) = 0.5 \times 0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.324$$

$$P(x_{1},...,x_{m}) \approx \frac{N_{PS}(x_{1},...,x_{m})}{N}, \text{ where } m \leq b$$

> Such an estimate is called consistent.

# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (4/10)

#### Rejection sampling in Bayesian networks

- Produce samples from a hard-to-sample distribution given an easy-to-sample distribution.
- $\triangleright$  P(X|e) estimated from samples agreeing with e.
- i.e. estimate P(Rain|Sprinkler = true)using 100 samples function Rejection-Sampling(X, e, bn, N) returns an estimate of P(X|e)
  - 27 samples have *Sprinkler = true*
  - Of these, 8 have Rain = true, 19 have Rain = false
- P(Rain|Sprinkler = true) = Normalize(< 8,19 >) = < 0.296,0.704 >

```
inputs: X, the query variable
e, observed values for variables E
bn, a Bayesian network
N, the total number of samples to be generated
local variables: C, a vector of counts for each value of X, initially zero
```

```
for j = 1 to N do

\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \text{PRIOR-SAMPLE}(bn)

if \mathbf{x} is consistent with \mathbf{e} then

\mathbf{C}[j] \leftarrow \mathbf{C}[j] + 1 where x_j is the value of X in \mathbf{x}

return NORMALIZE(\mathbf{C})
```

<출처> Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig (2021). Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (4th Edition). Pearson

# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (5/10)

### Importance sampling (likelihood weighting)

- Fix evidence variables **E**, sample only nonevidence variables, in topological order, each conditioned on its parents.
- ➤ Each event generated is consistent with the likelihood it accords the evidence.
- $\triangleright$  Query: P(Rain|Cloudy = true, WetGrass = true)
- Ordering: < Cloudy, Sprinkler, Rain, WetGrass >
- **Procedure**: Set weight  $w \leftarrow 1.0$ . Generate an event by:

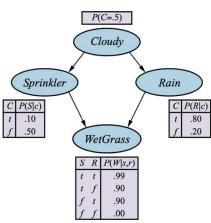
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# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (6/10)

#### Likelihood weighting (cont'd)

- 1. Cloudy is an evidence variable with value *true*. Therefore, we set  $w \leftarrow w \times P(Cloudy = true) = 0.5$
- 2. Sprinkler is not an evidence variable, so sample from P(Sprinkler|Cloudy = true) = < 0.1,0.9 >; suppose return false.
- 3. Similarly, sample from P(Rain|Cloudy = true) = < 0.8,0.2 >; suppose return *true*.
- 4. WetGrass is an evidence variable with value true. Therefore, we set,  $w \leftarrow w \times P(WetGrass = true|Sprinkler = false, Rain = true) = 0.45$

Weighted-sample returns the event [true,false,true,true] with weight 0.45, and this is tallied under Rain=true.



## 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (7/10)

### Gibbs sampling in Bayesian Networks

Query: P(Rain|Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = true)

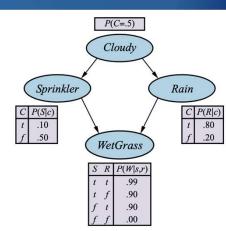
Initial state: [true, true, false, true]

Nonevidence variables  $Z_i$  are sampled repeatedly in an arbitrary order.

#### Example:

- 1. *Cloudy* is chosen and then sampled, given the current values of its Markov blanket: in this case, we sample from P(Cloudy|Sprinkler = true, Rain = false). Suppose the result is Cloudy = false.
- 2. *Rain* is chose and then sampled, given the current values of its Markov blanket: in this case, we sampled from

P(Rain | Cloudy = false, Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = true). Suppose this yields Rain = true. The new current state is [false, true, true, true].



# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (8/10)

#### 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.
- Can choose a variable to sample at random each time.

```
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})
```

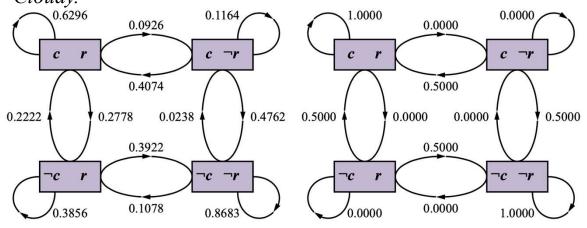
# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (9/10)

#### **Analysis of Markov chains**

> The state and transition probabilities of the Markov chain for the query

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

- > (Left) Self-loops: the state stays the same when either variable is chosen and then resamples the same value it already has.
- ➤ (Right) The transition probabilities when the CPT for Rain constrains it to have the same value as Cloudy.



<출처> Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig (2021). Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (4th Edition). Pearson

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# 11.4 Approximate Inference for Bayesian Networks (10/10)

#### Metropolis-Hastings (MH) sampling

- ➤ Most broadly applicable MCMC algorithm.
- $\triangleright$  Generate samples x according to target probabilities  $\pi(x)$ .
- ➤ MH has two stages as follows:
  - 1. Sample a new state x' from a proposal distribution q(x'|x), given the current state x.
  - 2. Probabilistically accept or reject x' according to acceptance probability

$$a(x'|x) = \min\left(1, \frac{\pi(x')q(x|x')}{\pi(x)q(x'|x)}\right)$$

If the proposal is rejected, the state remains at x.

## Summary

- 1. A Bayesian network is a directed acyclic graph whose nodes correspond to random variables; each node has a conditional distribution for the node, given its parents
- 2. Bayesian network provide a way to represent conditional independence relationship and specifies a joint probability distribution over its variable.
- 3. Inference in Bayesian networks means computing the probability distribution of a set of query variables, given a set of evidence variables. Exact inference algorithms, such as variable elimination, evaluate sum of products of conditional probabilities as efficiently as possible.
- 4. In polytrees, exact inference takes time linear in the size of the network.
- 5. Random sampling techniques such as likelihood weighting and Markov chain Monte Carlo can give reasonable estimates of the true posterior probabilities in a network.
- 6. Whereas Bayes nets capture probabilistic influences, causal networks capture causal relationships and allow prediction of the effects of interventions as well as observations.