## Inference in Belief Networks

Chapter 14b

## Outline

- ♦ Exact inference by enumeration
- ♦ Approximate inference by stochastic simulation
- ♦ Likelihood weighting
- ♦ Approximate inference using MCMC (SKIP)

#### Inference tasks

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

Conjunctive queries:  $P(X_i, X_j | \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}) = P(X_i | \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e})P(X_j | X_i, \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e})$ 

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

Value of information: which evidence to seek next?

Explanation: why do I need a new starter motor?

Sensitivity analysis: which probability values are most critical?

## Inference by enumeration

Simple query on the burglary network:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{P}(B|J=true,M=true) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(B,J=true,M=true)/P(J=true,M=true) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B,J=true,M=true) \\ &= \alpha \Sigma_e \Sigma_a \mathbf{P}(B,e,a,J=true,M=true) \end{split}$$

#### Inference by enumeration

Simple query on the burglary network:

$$\mathbf{P}(B|J=true, M=true)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(B, J=true, M=true)/P(J=true, M=true)$$

$$= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B, J=true, M=true)$$

$$= \alpha \Sigma_e \Sigma_a \mathbf{P}(B, e, a, J=true, M=true)$$

Let's use the non-vector notation for B = true:

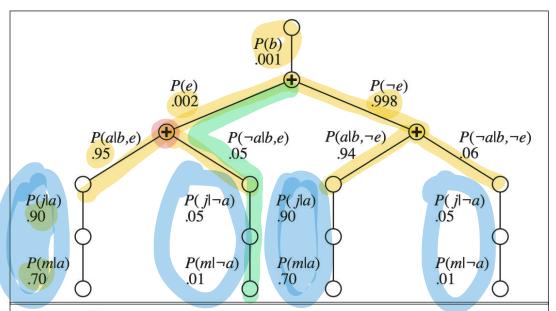
$$= \alpha \sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(B = true, e, a, J = true, M = true)$$

Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

$$=\alpha \sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(B=true) P(e) P(a|B=true,e) P(J=true|a) P(M=true|a) \\ =\alpha P(B=true) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{a} P(a|B=true,e) P(J=true|a) P(M=true|a) \\ \text{for } E=\sum_{e} \text{2,1e} \text{3} \\ \text{for } A=\sum_{e} \text{3,1a} \text{3} \\ \text{6,1a} \text{3} \\ \text{6,1a} \text{3} \\ \text{6,1a} \text{3} \\ \text{6,1a} \text{6,1a} \text{3} \\ \text{6,1a} \text{6,1a} \\ \text{6,1a} \\$$

## Inference by enumeration

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



**Figure 14.8** The structure of the expression shown in Equation (14.4). 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.

## Enumeration algorithm

```
function ENUMERATION-ASK(X, e, bn) returns a distribution over X
   inputs: X, the query variable
              e. observed values for variables E
              bn, a Bayesian network with variables \{X\} \cup \mathbf{E} \cup \mathbf{Y}
   \mathbf{Q}(X) \leftarrow \mathbf{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}(\text{VARS}[bn], \mathbf{e})
   return Normalize(\mathbf{Q}(X))
function ENUMERATE-ALL(vars, e) returns a real number
   if EMPTY?(vars) then return 1.0
   Y \leftarrow \text{First}(vars)
   if Y has value y in 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}(\text{Rest}(vars), \mathbf{e}_y)
              where e_y is e extended with Y = y
```

# Inference by variable elimination

Enumeration is inefficient: repeated computation

e.g., computes 
$$P(J=true|a)P(M=true|a)$$
 for each value of  $e$ 

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

We will skip the mechanism for speeding this and concentrate on the use approximate inference (stochastic methods).

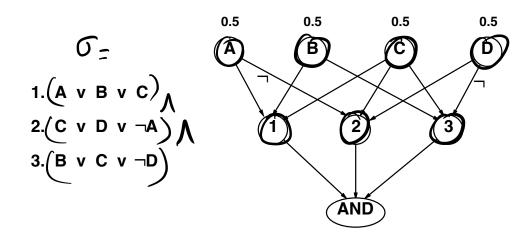
## Complexity of Exact Inference

#### 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:

– can reduce 3SAT to exact inference ⇒ NP-hard



#### 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

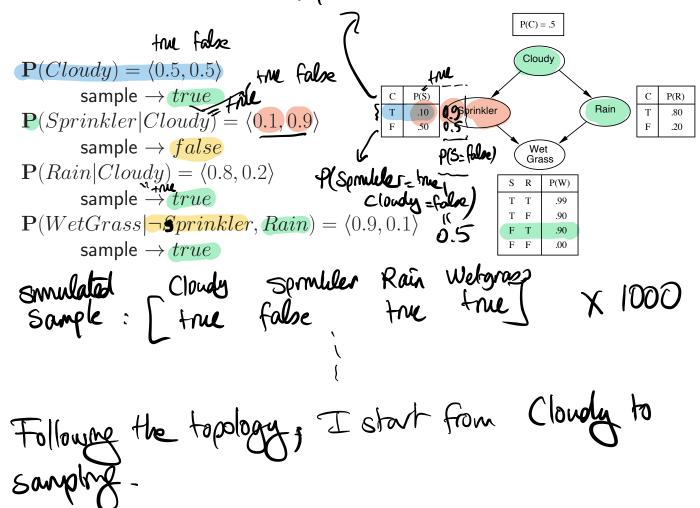
#### Methods:

- Sampling when there is no evidence variables
- Rejection sampling: reject samples disagreeing with evidence
- Likelihood weighting: use evidence to weight samples
- MCMC: sample from a stochastic process whose stationary (Skipped) distribution is the true posterior

# Sampling with No Evidence Variables

```
function PRIORSAMPLE(bn) returns an event sampled from \mathbf{P}(X_1,\ldots,X_n) specified by bn
\mathbf{x} \leftarrow an event with n elements
for i=1 to n do
x_i \leftarrow a random sample from \mathbf{P}(X_i \mid Parents(X_i))
return \mathbf{x}
```

# P(Sproubler=true | C(owdy=true)=0.10



#### Sampling from an empty network

The probability of a particular event can be estimated as the fraction of all events generated by the sampling process that match the particular event.

E.g. Let's say we generate 1000 samples from the sprinkler network and 511 of them have Rain=True, then the estimate of P(Rain=True) = 0.511.

#### Sampling from an empty network contd.

Proof given for completeness - slide not covered, just know the result -last line.

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

Let  $N_{PS}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y})$  be the number of samples generated for which  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}$ , for any set of variables  $\mathbf{Y}$ .

Then 
$$\hat{P}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = N_{PS}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y})/N$$
 and 
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{P}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{\mathbf{h}} S_{PS}(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{h})$$
$$= \sum_{\mathbf{h}} P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{h})$$
$$= P(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y})$$

That is, estimates derived from PRIORSAMPLE are consistent

## Rejection sampling with evidence vars

Prior sampling can give us the prior probabilities of the random variables in the BBN, but more often we will be interested in estimating the probability given some evidence variables.

ightarrow Sample as before, but estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(X|\mathbf{e})$  from samples agreeing with  $\mathbf{e}$ 

e.g. P(Roin | Wel-Grass = true)

Rain wetgrans

true - true >In 1/2 samples w/

False true - Rain = true

False true - Colore

## Rejection sampling with evidence vars

```
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
```

#### Analysis of rejection sampling

Proof given for completeness - slide not covered, just know the result - last 2 lines.

```
\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})) \\ &\approx \mathbf{P}(X,\mathbf{e})/P(\mathbf{e}) & \text{(property of PRIORSAMPLE)} \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X|\mathbf{e}) & \text{(defn. of conditional probability)} \end{split}
```

Hence: Rejection sampling returns consistent posterior estimates.

Problem: hopelessly expensive if P(e) is small.

## Likelihood weighting

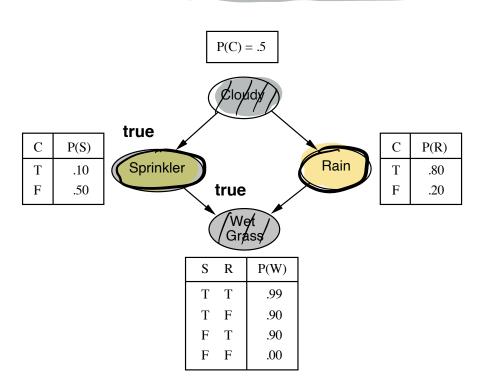
Likelihood weighting avoids the inefficiency of rejection sampling by generating only those events that are consistent with the evidence.

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

```
function WEIGHTEDSAMPLE(bn,e) returns an event and a weight
   \mathbf{x} \leftarrow an event with n elements: w \leftarrow 1
   for i = 1 to n do
         if X_i has a value x_i in e // if X_i is an evidence variable w \leftarrow w \times P(X_i = x_i \mid Parents(X_i)) // wpdate w
               else x_i \leftarrow a random sample from P(X_i \mid Parents(X_i))
   return x. w
function LIKELIHOOD WEIGHTING (X, e, bn, N) returns an approximation to
P(X|\mathbf{e})
   \mathbf{W}[X] \leftarrow a vector of weighted counts over X, initially zero
   for j = 1 to N do
         \mathbf{x}, w \leftarrow \text{WeightedSample}(bn)
         \mathbf{W}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{W}[x] + w where x is the value of X in \mathbf{x}
   return Normalize(\mathbf{W}[X])
```

# Likelihood weighting example

Estimate P(Rain|Cloudy = true, WetGrass = true)

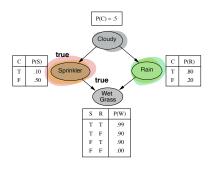


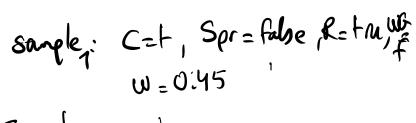
## Likelihood weighting example contd.

Estimate P(Rain|Cloudy = true, WetGrass = true)

Cloudy

- 1.  $w \leftarrow 1.0$
- 2. Cloudy is an evidence variable with value true, so set  $w \leftarrow w \times P(Cloudy = true)$ ;  $w \rightarrow 0.5$
- 3. Sprinkler is not an evidence variable, so sample from  $\mathbf{P}(Sprinkler|Cloudy=true)$ ; suppose this returns false
- 4. Sample  $P(Rain|Cloudy = true) = \langle 0.8, 0.2 \rangle$ ; suppose this returns true
- 5. WetGrass is an evidence variable with value true, so  $w \leftarrow w \times P(WetGrass = true | Sprinkler = false, Rain = true);$  w becomes 0.45





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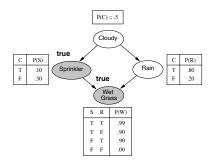
# Likelihood weighting analysis

WEIGHTED-SAMPLE returns the event [true,false,true,true] with weight 0.45; and this is counted under Rain=true

# Likelihood weighting example contd.

#### **Different example in agrrement with the figure:** Estimate $\mathbf{P}(Rain|Sprinkler =$

- 1.  $w \leftarrow 1.0$
- 2. Cloudy is not an evidence variable, Sample  $\mathbf{P}(Cloudy) = \langle 0.5, 0.5 \rangle$ ; say true
- 3. Sprinkler has value true, so  $w \leftarrow w \times P(Sprinkler = true | Cloudy = true) = 0.1$
- 4. Sample  $\mathbf{P}(Rain|Cloudy = true) = \langle 0.8, 0.2 \rangle$ ; say true
- 5. WetGrass has value true, so  $w \leftarrow w \times P(WetGrass = true | Sprinkler = true, Rain = true) = 0.099$



## Likelihood weighting analysis

Likelihood weighting returns consistent estimates, but performance degrades with many evidence variables

Note that when sampling Sprinkler and Rain, the analysis ignores the evidence in the child variable WetGrass with value True.

It may thus generate many samples with Sprinkler=False and Rain=False despite the evidence (WetGrass=True). But those samples will have zero weight.

## Approximate inference using MCMC

The state-of-art in stochastic algorithms is Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approximation, which s widely used in Al, Bayesian inference, and statistical modeling.

But it will be covered very lightly.

## Approximate inference using MCMC

- $\diamondsuit$  "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

```
function MCMC-Ask(X,e,bn,N) returns an approximation to P(X|e) local variables: \mathbf{N}[X], a vector of counts over X, initially zero \mathbf{Y}, the nonevidence variables in bn \mathbf{x}, the current state of the network, initially copied from \mathbf{e} initialize \mathbf{x} with random values for the variables in \mathbf{Y} for j=1 to N do \mathbf{N}[x]\leftarrow\mathbf{N}[x]+1 \text{ where } x \text{ is the value of } X \text{ in } \mathbf{x} for each Y_i in \mathbf{Y} do sample the value of Y_i in \mathbf{x} from \mathbf{P}(Y_i|MB(Y_i)) given the values of MB(Y_i) in \mathbf{x} return NORMALIZE(\mathbf{N}[X])
```

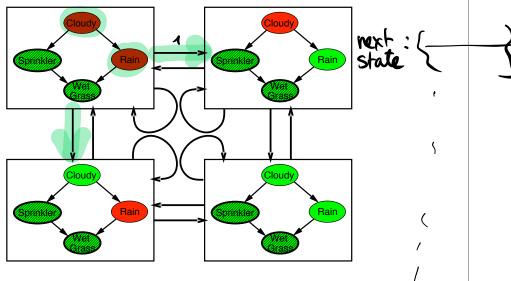
Fraction of time spent in each state is proportional to its posterior probability

#### The Markov chain



Sc=f, r=f, s=+, wg=+3

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



Wander about for a while, average what you see

Al: Bayes Nets 2

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Michael S. Lewicki 

Carnegie Mellon

#### After obtaining the MCMC samples

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

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

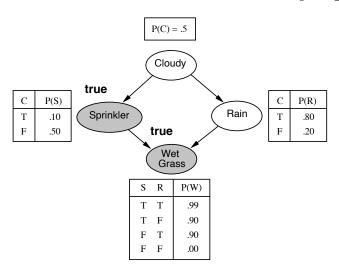
Theorem: chain approaches stationary distribution: long-run fraction of time spent in each state is exactly proportional to its posterior probability

#### But:

- I. Difficult to tell when samples have converged. Theorem only applies in limit, and it could take time to "settle in".
- 2. Can also be inefficient if each state depends on many other variables.

## MCMC Example

Markov blanket of Cloudy is Sprinkler and Rain Markov blanket of Rain is Cloudy, Sprinkler, and WetGrass



Reminder: Each node is conditionally independent of all others given its Markov blanket: parents + children + children's parents

#### MCMC example contd.

Random initial state: Cloudy = true and Rain = false

- 1.  $\mathbf{P}(Cloudy|MB(Cloudy)) = \mathbf{P}(Cloudy|Sprinkler, \neg Rain)$  sample  $\rightarrow false$
- 2.  $\mathbf{P}(Rain|MB(Rain)) = \mathbf{P}(Rain|\neg Cloudy, Sprinkler, WetGrass)$  sample  $\rightarrow true$

Visit 100 states

31 have Rain = true, 69 have Rain = false

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