CS 687 Jana Kosecka

Inference in Bayesian Networks Chapter 14, Russell and Norvig

[These slides were created by Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel for CS188 Intro to Al at UC Berkeley. All CS188 materials are available at http://ai.berkeley.edu.]

Bayes' Net Representation

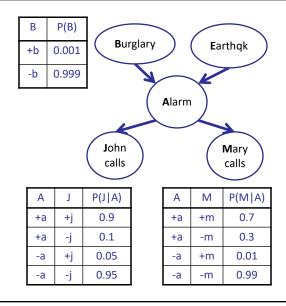
- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
 - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
 - As a product of local conditional distributions
 - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

Example: Alarm Network



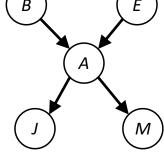
E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998

В	Е	Α	P(A B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-е	+a	0.94
+b	-е	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-е	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

Example: Alarm Network







Е	P(E)	
+e	0.002	
-е	0.998	

Α	M	P(M A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

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

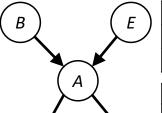


В	Е	Α	P(A B,E)
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+b	-е	+a	0.94
+b	-е	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-е	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

Example: Alarm Network



Α	J	P(J A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	<u>.</u>	0.95



Е	P(E)
+e	0.002
Ψ	0.998

Α	М	P(M A)	
+a	+m	0.7	
+a	-m	0.3	
-a	+m	0.01	
-a	-m	0.99	

$$P(+b, -e, +a, -j, +m) = P(+b)P(-e)P(+a|+b, -e)P(-j|+a)P(+m|+a) = 0.001 \times 0.998 \times 0.94 \times 0.1 \times 0.7$$



В	Е	Α	P(A B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-е	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-е	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

Bayes' Nets

- ✓ Representation
- ✓ Conditional Independences
- Probabilistic Inference
 - Enumeration (exact, exponential complexity)
 - Variable elimination (exact, worst-case exponential complexity, often better)
 - Inference is NP-complete
 - Sampling (approximate)
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data

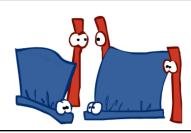
Inference

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

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

Most likely explanation:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_q P(Q = q | E_1 = e_1 \ldots)$$







Inference by Enumeration

- General case:
 - Evidence variables:
 - Query* variable:
 - Hidden variables: H_1 .
- $\left. \begin{array}{l} E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k \\ Q \\ H_1 \dots H_r \end{array} \right\} \frac{X_1, X_2, \dots X_n}{\textit{All variables}}$
- We want:
- * Works fine with multiple query variables, too

$$P(Q|e_1 \dots e_k)$$

- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence
- x P∞ -3 0.05 -1 0.25 0 0.07 1 0.2 5 0.01 2 2.5
- Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence
- Step 3: Normalize

$$\times \frac{1}{Z}$$

$$Z = \sum_{q} P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

$$P(Q|e_1\cdots e_k) = \frac{1}{Z}P(Q,e_1\cdots e_k)$$

$$P(Q, e_1 \dots e_k) = \sum_{h_1 \dots h_r} P(\underbrace{Q, h_1 \dots h_r, e_1 \dots e_k})$$

Inference by Enumeration in Bayes' Net

Α

Μ

- Given unlimited time, inference in BNs is easy
- Reminder of inference by enumeration by example:

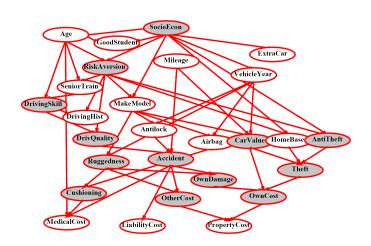
$$P(B \mid +j,+m) \propto_B P(B,+j,+m)$$

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

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

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

Inference by Enumeration?



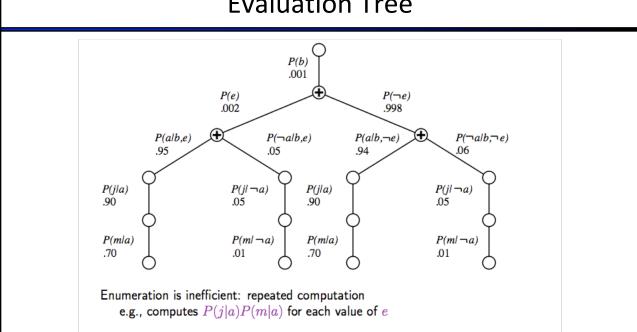
Inference by Enumeration vs. Variable Elimination

- Why is inference by enumeration so slow?
 - You join up the whole joint distribution before you sum out the hidden variables
- Idea: interleave joining and marginalizing!
 - Called "Variable Elimination"
 - Still NP-hard, but usually much faster than inference by enumeration

```
Variable elimination: carry out summations right-to-left,
storing intermediate results (factors) to avoid recomputation
\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)
           =\alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{a} \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) P(j|a) f_{M}(a)
           = \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \Sigma_e P(e) \Sigma_a \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) f_J(a) f_M(a) 
= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \Sigma_e P(e) \Sigma_a f_A(a,b,e) f_J(a) f_M(a)
           = lpha \mathbf{P}(B) \Sigma_e P(e) f_{ar{A}JM}(b,e) (sum out A)
            = lpha {f P}(B) f_{ar{E}ar{A}JM}(b) (sum out E)
            = \alpha f_B(b) \times f_{\bar{E}\bar{A}JM}(b)
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First we'll need some new notation: factors

Evaluation Tree



Factor Zoo I

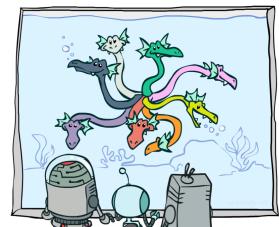
- Joint distribution: P(X,Y)
 - Entries P(x,y) for all x, y
 - Sums to 1
- Selected joint: P(x,Y)
 - A slice of the joint distribution
 - Entries P(x,y) for fixed x, all y
 - Sums to P(x)
- Number of capitals = dimensionality of the table

P(T, W)

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

P(cold, W)

Т	W	Р
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3



Factor Zoo II

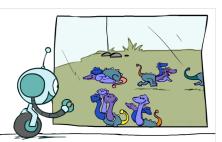
- Single conditional: P(Y | x)
 - Entries P(y | x) for fixed x, all
 - Sums to 1



P(W|cold)

Т	W	Р
cold	sun	0.4
cold	rain	0.6

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



P(W|T)

Т	W	Р	
hot	sun	0.8	
hot	rain	0.2	
cold	sun	0.4	ĺ٦
cold	rain	0.6	

P(W|hot)

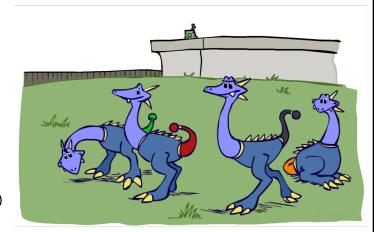
P(W|cold)

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)

l	Т	W	Р	
	hot	rain	0.2	P(rain hot)
	cold	rain	0.6	$\left. \left ight. ight. P(rain cold) ight.$
L				1] 1 (/ 00/10 00/0

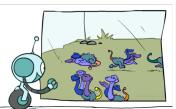


Factor Zoo Summary

- In general, when we write $P(Y_1 ... Y_N \mid X_1 ... X_M)$
 - It is a "factor," a multi-dimensional array
 - Its values are P(y₁ ... y_N | x₁ ... x_M)
 - Any assigned (=lower-case) X or Y is a dimension missing (selected) from the array









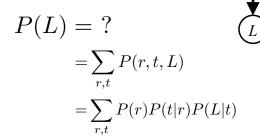
Example: Traffic Domain

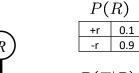
Random Variables

R: Raining

■ T: Traffic

■ L: Late for class!





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

P(L T)		
+	0.3	
-1	0.7	
+	0.1	
-1	0.9	
	+l -l	

Inference by Enumeration: Procedural Outline

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

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

P(I R)		
+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

D(T|D)

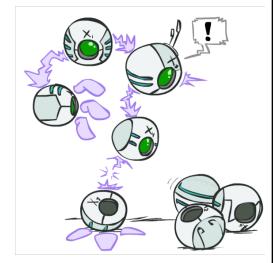
$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} P(L|T) \\ \hline +t & +l & 0.3 \\ +t & -l & 0.7 \\ -t & +l & 0.1 \\ -t & -l & 0.9 \\ \end{array}$$

- Any known values are selected
 - ${\color{black} \bullet}$ E.g. if we know $L = +\ell$, the initial factors are

$$P(R)$$
+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

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} P(+\ell|T) \\ \hline \tiny +t & +l & 0.3 \\ \hline \tiny -t & +l & 0.1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$



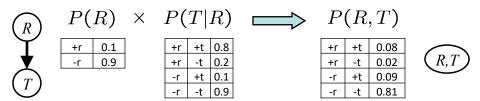
Procedure: Join all factors, eliminate all hidden variables, normalize

Operation 1: Join Factors

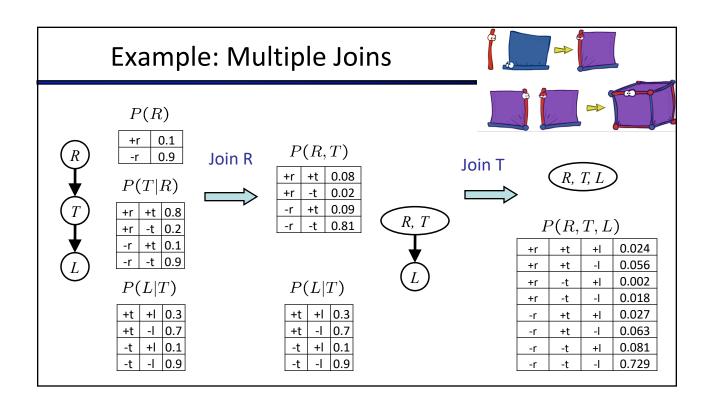
- First basic operation: joining factors
- Combining factors:
 - Just like a database join
 - Get all factors over the joining variable
 - Build a new factor over the union of the variables involved

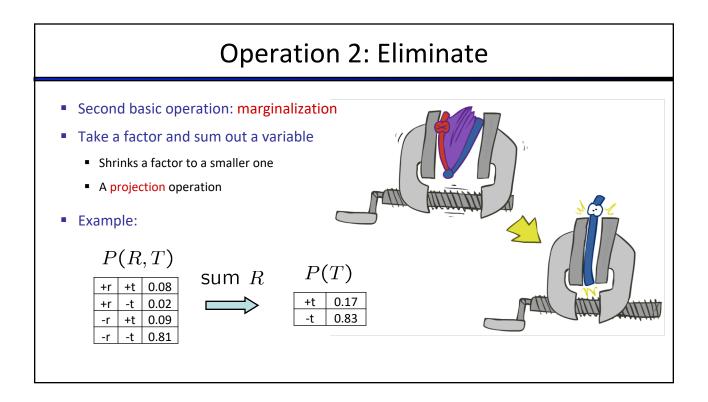


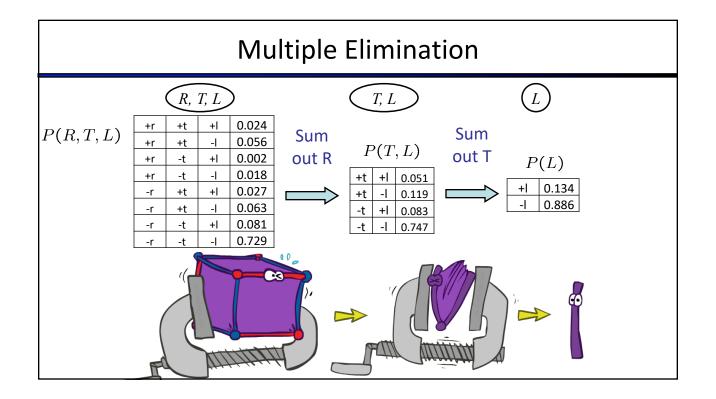


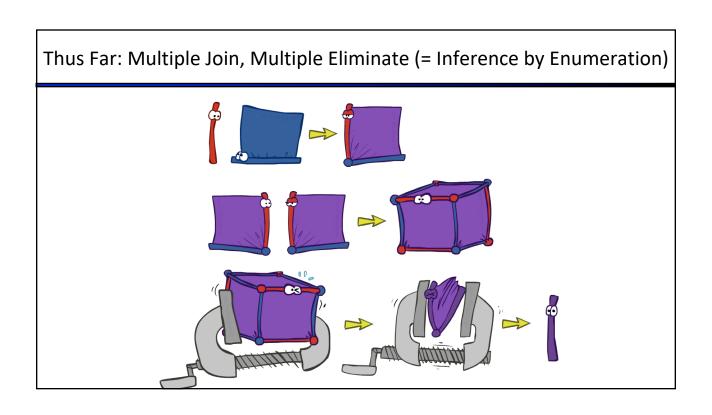


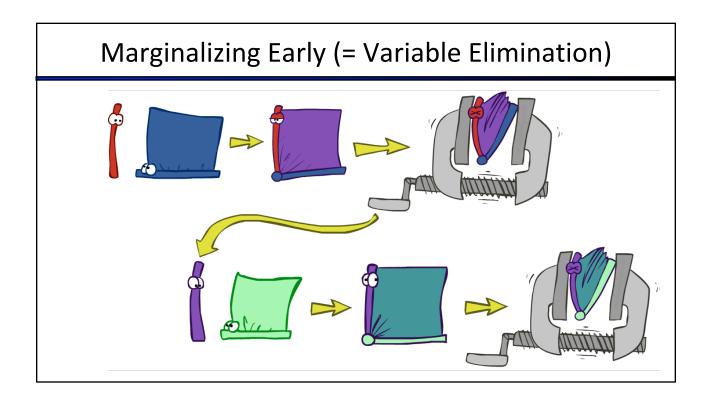
- Computation for each entry: pointwise products $\forall r,t$: $P(r,t)=P(r)\cdot P(t|r)$

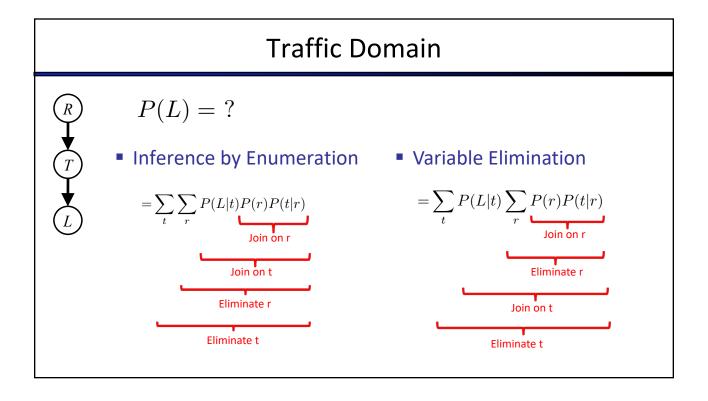


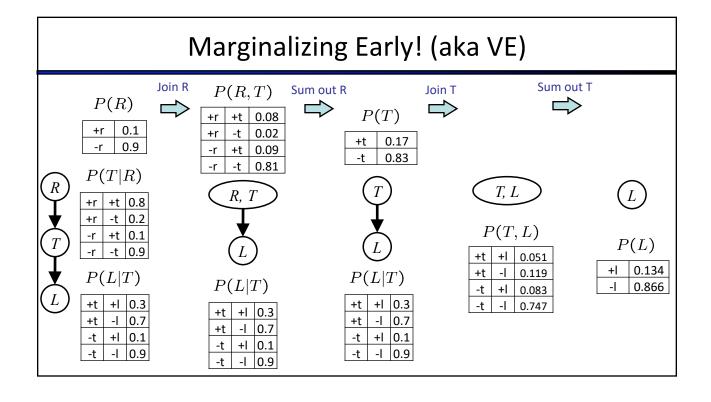












Evidence

- 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
-	+	0.0

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

 ${\color{blue} \bullet}$ Computing P(L|+r) the initial factors become:

P(-	+r)
+r	0.1





We eliminate all vars other than query + evidence



Evidence II

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

$$P(+r, L)$$
+r +l 0.026
+r -l 0.074

Normalize





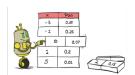


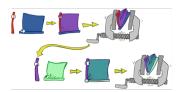
- To get our answer, just normalize this!
- That's it!



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









Example

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

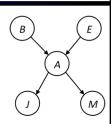
P(B)

P(E)

P(A|B,E)

P(j|A)

P(m|A)



Choose A

P(A|B,E)

P(j|A)P(m|A)



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



P(B)

P(E)

P(j,m|B,E)

Example

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

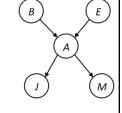
Choose E

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





P(j,m|B)



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

Finish with B



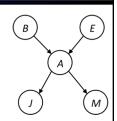
P(B)



Same Example in Equations

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

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



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

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

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

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

$$= \sum_{e}^{e,u} P(B)P(e) \sum_{a} P(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a)$$
$$= \sum_{e}^{e} P(B)P(e)f_1(B,e,j,m)$$

use
$$x*(y+z) = xy + xz$$

$$= \sum_{e} P(B)P(e)f_1(B, e, j, m)$$

joining on a, and then summing out gives
$$f_1$$

$$= P(B) \sum_{e} P(e) f_1(B, e, j, m)$$
$$= P(B) f_2(B, j, m)$$

use
$$x^*(y+z) = xy + xz$$

$$= P(B)f_2(B,j,m)$$

All we are doing is exploiting uwy + uwz + uxy + uxz + vwy + vwz + vxy +vxz = (u+v)(w+x)(y+z) to improve computational efficiency!

Another Variable Elimination Example

Query:
$$P(X_3|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, Y_3 = y_3)$$

Start by inserting evidence, which gives the following initial factors:

$$p(Z)p(X_1|Z)p(X_2|Z)p(X_3|Z)p(y_1|X_1)p(y_2|X_2)p(y_3|X_3) \\$$

Eliminate X_1 , this introduces the factor $f_1(Z, y_1) = \sum_{x_1} p(x_1|Z)p(y_1|x_1)$, and we are left with:

$$p(Z)f_1(Z, y_1)p(X_2|Z)p(X_3|Z)p(y_2|X_2)p(y_3|X_3)$$

Eliminate X_2 , this introduces the factor $f_2(Z, y_2) = \sum_{x_2} p(x_2|Z)p(y_2|x_2)$, and we are left with:

$$p(Z)f_1(Z, y_1)f_2(Z, y_2)p(X_3|Z)p(y_3|X_3)$$

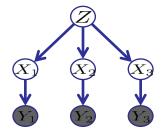
Eliminate Z, this introduces the factor $f_3(y_1,y_2,X_3) = \sum_z p(z) f_1(z,y_1) f_2(z,y_2) p(X_3|z)$, and we are left:

$$p(y_3|X_3), f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3)$$

No hidden variables left. Join the remaining factors to get:

$$f_4(y_1, y_2, y_3, X_3) = P(y_3|X_3)f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3).$$

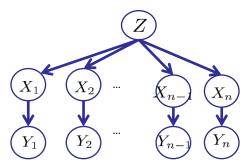
Normalizing over X_3 gives $P(X_3|y_1,y_2,y_3)$.



Computational complexity critically depends on the largest factor being generated in this process. Size of factor = number of entries in table. In example above (assuming binary) all factors generated are of size 2 --- as they all only have one variable (Z, Z, and X₃ respectively).

Variable Elimination Ordering

For the query $P(X_n|y_1,...,y_n)$ work through the following two different orderings as done in previous slide: Z, X_1 , ..., X_{n-1} and X_1 , ..., X_{n-1} , Z. What is the size of the maximum factor generated for each of the orderings?



- Answer: 2ⁿ⁺¹ versus 2² (assuming binary)
- In general: the ordering can greatly affect efficiency.

VE: Computational and Space Complexity

- The computational and space complexity of variable elimination is determined by the largest factor
- The elimination ordering can greatly affect the size of the largest factor.
 - E.g., previous slide's example 2ⁿ vs. 2
- Does there always exist an ordering that only results in small factors?
 - No!

Polytrees

- A polytree is a directed graph with no undirected cycles
- For poly-trees you can always find an ordering that is efficient
 - Try it!!
- Cut-set conditioning for Bayes' net inference
 - Choose set of variables such that if removed only a polytree remains
 - Exercise: Think about how the specifics would work out!

Bayes' Nets

- ✓ Representation
- ✓ Conditional Independences
- Probabilistic Inference
 - Enumeration (exact, exponential complexity)
 - ✓ Variable elimination (exact, worst-case exponential complexity, often better)
 - ✓ Inference is NP-complete
 - Sampling (approximate)
- Learning Bayes' Nets from Data

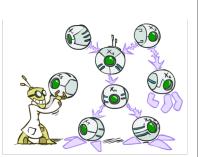
Bayes' Net Representation

- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
 - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1\ldots a_n)$$

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
 - As a product of local conditional distributions
 - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

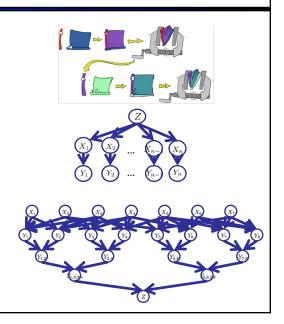
$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$





Variable Elimination

- Interleave joining and marginalizing
- d^k entries computed for a factor over k variables with domain sizes d
- Ordering of elimination of hidden variables can affect size of factors generated
- Worst case: running time exponential in the size of the Bayes' net



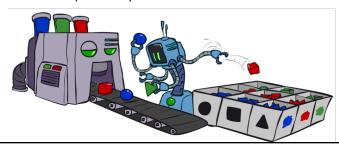
Approximate Inference: Sampling



Sampling

- Sampling is a lot like repeated simulation
 - Predicting the weather, basketball games, ...
- Basic idea
 - Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
 - Compute an approximate posterior probability
 - Show this converges to the true probability P

- 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)



Sampling

- Sampling from given distribution
 - Step 1: Get sample u from uniform distribution over [0, 1)
 - E.g. random() in python
 - Step 2: Convert this sample u into an outcome for the given distribution by having each target outcome associated with a sub-interval of [0,1) with sub-interval size equal to probability of the outcome

Example

С	P(C)
red	0.6
green	0.1
blue	0.3

$$0 \le u < 0.6, \rightarrow C = red$$

$$0.6 \le u < 0.7, \rightarrow C = green$$

$$0.7 \le u < 1, \rightarrow C = blue$$

- If random() returns u = 0.83, then our sample is C = blue
- E.g, after sampling 8 times:

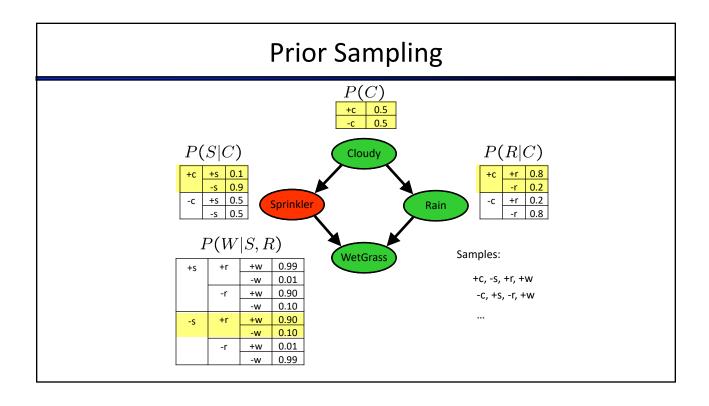






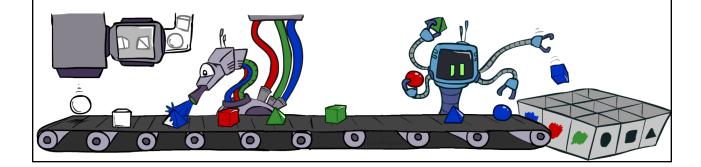
Sampling in Bayes' Nets

- Prior Sampling
- Rejection Sampling
- Likelihood Weighting
- Gibbs Sampling



Prior Sampling

- For i = 1, 2, ..., n
 - Sample x_i from P(X_i | Parents(X_i))
- Return $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$



Prior Sampling

This process generates samples with probability:

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

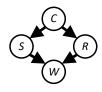
...i.e. the BN's joint probability

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

Example

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

```
+c, -s, +r, +w
+c, +s, +r, +w
-c, +s, +r, -w
+c, -s, +r, +w
-c, -s, -r, +w
```



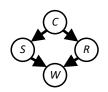
- If we want to know P(W)
 - We have counts <+w:4, -w:1>
 - Normalize to get P(W) = <+w:0.8, -w:0.2>
 - This will get closer to the true distribution with more samples
 - Can estimate anything else, too
 - What about P(C | +w)? P(C | +r, +w)? P(C | -r, -w)?
 - Fast: can use fewer samples if less time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



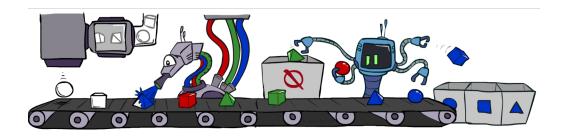
- Same thing: tally C outcomes, but ignore (reject) samples which don't have S=+s
- This is called rejection sampling
- It is also consistent for conditional probabilities (i.e., correct in the limit)



+c, -s, +r, +w +c, +s, +r, +w -c, +s, +r, -w +c, -s, +r, +w -c, -s, -r, +w

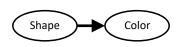
Rejection Sampling

- Input: evidence instantiation
- For i = 1, 2, ..., n
 - Sample x_i from P(X_i | Parents(X_i))
 - If x_i not consistent with evidence
 - Reject: return no sample is generated in this cycle
- Return $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$



Likelihood Weighting

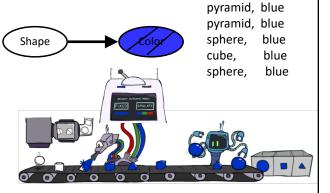
- Problem with rejection sampling:
 - If evidence is unlikely, rejects lots of samples
 - Evidence not exploited as you sample
 - Consider P(Shape | blue)

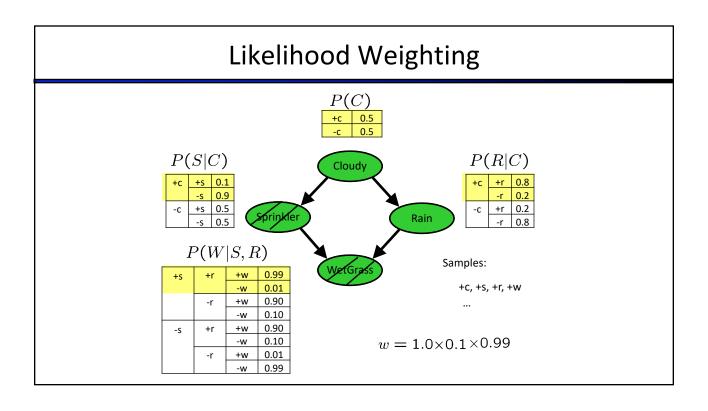


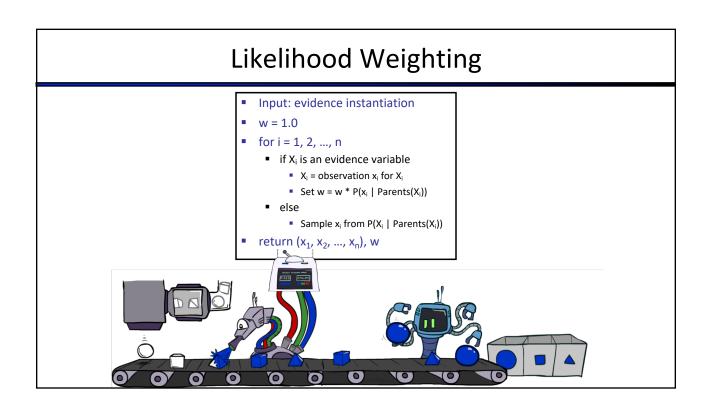
pyramid, green pyramid, red sphere, blue cube, red sphere, green



- Idea: fix evidence variables and sample the rest
 - Problem: sample distribution not consistent!
 - Solution: weight by probability of evidence given parents







Likelihood Weighting

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

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

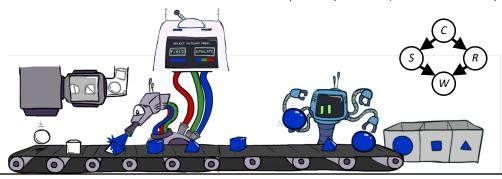


$$S_{ ext{WS}}(z, e) \cdot w(z, e) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i | ext{Parents}(z_i)) \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i | ext{Parents}(e_i))$$

= $P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$

Likelihood Weighting

- 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 (leads to Gibbs sampling)

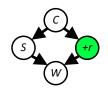


Gibbs Sampling

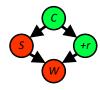
- Procedure: keep track of a full instantiation x₁, x₂, ..., x_n. Start with an arbitrary instantiation consistent with the evidence. Sample one variable at a time, conditioned on all the rest, but keep evidence fixed. Keep repeating this for a long time.
- Property: in the limit of repeating this infinitely many times the resulting samples come from the correct distribution (i.e. conditioned on evidence).
- Rationale: both upstream and downstream variables condition on evidence.
- In contrast: likelihood weighting only conditions on upstream evidence, and hence weights obtained in likelihood weighting can sometimes be very small. Sum of weights over all samples is indicative of how many "effective" samples were obtained, so we want high weight.

Gibbs Sampling Example: P(S | +r)

- Step 1: Fix evidence
 - R = +r



- Step 2: Initialize other variables
 - Randomly



- Steps 3: Repeat
 - Choose a non-evidence variable X
 - Resample X from P(X | all other variables)



Sample from P(S|+c,-w,+r) Sample from P(C|+s,-w,+r) Sample from P(W|+s,+c,+r)

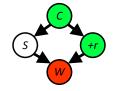
Gibbs Sampling

- How is this better than sampling from the full joint?
 - In a Bayes' Net, sampling a variable given all the other variables (e.g. P(R|S,C,W)) is usually much easier than sampling from the full joint distribution
 - Only requires a join on the variable to be sampled (in this case, a join on R)
 - The resulting factor only depends on the variable's parents, its children, and its children's parents (this is often referred to as its Markov blanket)

Efficient Resampling of One Variable

Sample from P(S | +c, +r, -w)

$$\begin{split} P(S|+c,+r,-w) &= \frac{P(S,+c,+r,-w)}{P(+c,+r,-w)} \\ &= \frac{P(S,+c,+r,-w)}{\sum_s P(s,+c,+r,-w)} \\ &= \frac{P(+c)P(S|+c)P(+r|+c)P(-w|S,+r)}{\sum_s P(+c)P(s|+c)P(+r|+c)P(-w|s,+r)} \\ &= \frac{P(+c)P(S|+c)P(+r|+c)P(-w|S,+r)}{P(+c)P(+r|+c)\sum_s P(s|+c)P(-w|s,+r)} \\ &= \frac{P(S|+c)P(-w|S,+r)}{\sum_s P(s|+c)P(-w|s,+r)} \end{split}$$



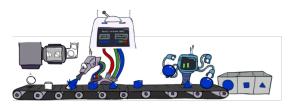
- Many things cancel out only CPTs with S remain!
- More generally: only CPTs that have resampled variable need to be considered, and joined together

Bayes' Net Sampling Summary

Prior Sampling P(Q)



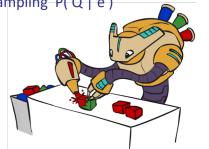
Likelihood Weighting P(Q | e)



Rejection Sampling P(Q | e)



■ Gibbs Sampling P(Q | e)



Further Reading on Gibbs Sampling*

- Gibbs sampling produces sample from the query distribution P(Q | e) in limit of re-sampling infinitely often
- Gibbs sampling is a special case of more general methods called Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods
 - Metropolis-Hastings is one of the more famous MCMC methods (in fact, Gibbs sampling is a special case of Metropolis-Hastings)
- You may read about Monte Carlo methods they're just sampling