Lecture 11: Bayes Nets: Inference

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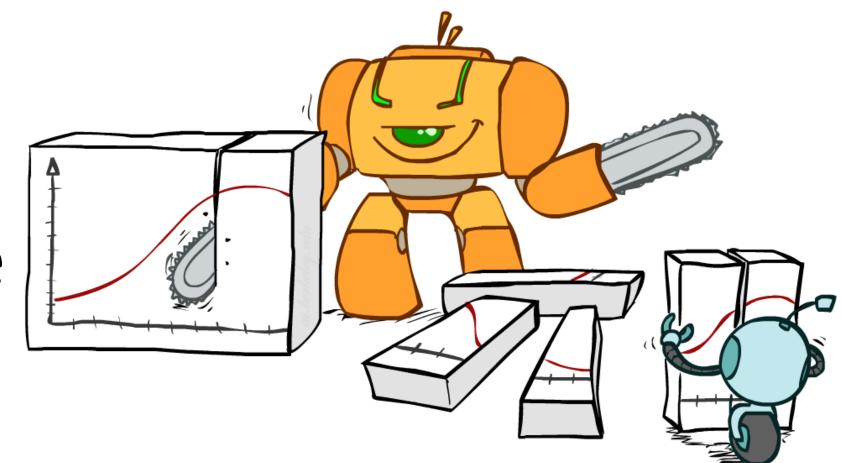
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https://shuaili8.github.io

https://shuaili8.github.io/Teaching/CS3317/index.html

Part of slide credits: CMU AI & http://ai.berkeley.edu

Bayes Rule

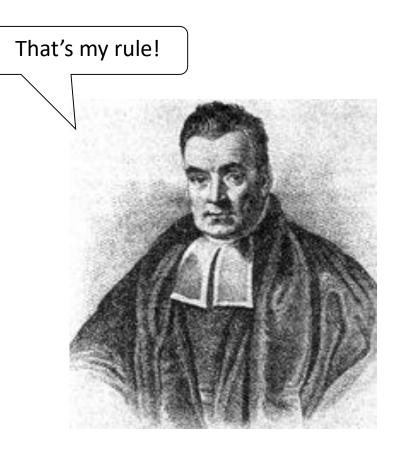


Bayes' Rule

- Two ways to factor a joint distribution over two variables: P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y) = P(y|x)P(x)
- Dividing, we get:

$$P(x|y) = \frac{P(y|x)}{P(y)}P(x)$$

- Why is this at all helpful?
 - Lets us build one conditional from its reverse
 - Often one conditional is tricky but the other one is simple
 - Foundation of many systems (e.g. ASR, MT)
- In the running for most important AI equation!



Inference with Bayes' Rule

• Example: Diagnostic probability from causal probability: $P(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{P(\text{effect}|\text{cause})P(\text{cause})}{P(\text{cause})}$

$$P(\text{cause}|\text{effect}) = \frac{1}{P(\text{effect})}$$

• Example:

• M: meningitis, S: stiff neck

$$\begin{array}{c} P(+m) = 0.0001 \\ P(+s|+m) = 0.8 \\ P(+s|-m) = 0.01 \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Example} \\ \text{givens} \end{array}$$

 $P(+m|+s) = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s)} = \frac{P(+s|+m)P(+m)}{P(+s|+m)P(+m) + P(+s|-m)P(-m)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.8 \times 0.0001 + 0.01 \times 0.999}$

- Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small
- Note: you should still get stiff necks checked out! Why?

Quiz: Bayes' Rule

• Given: P(W)R Ρ D 0.8 wet sun dry 0.2 rain wet

P(D|W)W Ρ 0.1 sun 0.9 sun 0.7 rain 0.3 dry rain

• What is P(W | dry) ?

Quiz: Bayes' Rule 2

• Given: P(W) P R P D sun 0.8 wet rain 0.2 dry

P(D W)			
	D	W	Р
,	wet	sun	0.1
	dry	sun	0.9
,	wet	rain	0.7
	dry	rain	0.3

• What is P(W | dry) ?

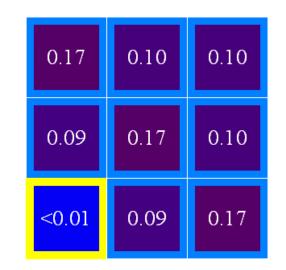
 $P(sun | dry) \propto P(dry | sun)P(sun) = .9^*.8 = .72$ $P(rain | dry) \propto P(dry | rain)P(rain) = .3^*.2 = .06$ P(sun | dry)=12/13P(rain | dry)=1/13

Ghostbusters, Revisited

- Let's say we have two distributions:
 - Prior distribution over ghost location: P(G)
 - Let's say this is uniform
 - Sensor reading model: P(R | G)
 - Given: we know what our sensors do
 - R = reading color measured at (1,1)
 - E.g. P(R = yellow | G=(1,1)) = 0.1
- We can calculate the posterior distribution P(G|r) over ghost locations given a reading using Bayes' rule:

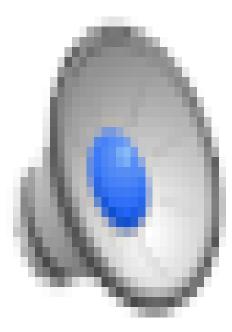
 $P(g|r) \propto P(r|g)P(g)$

0.11	0.11	0.11
0.11	0.11	0.11
0.11	0.11	0.11

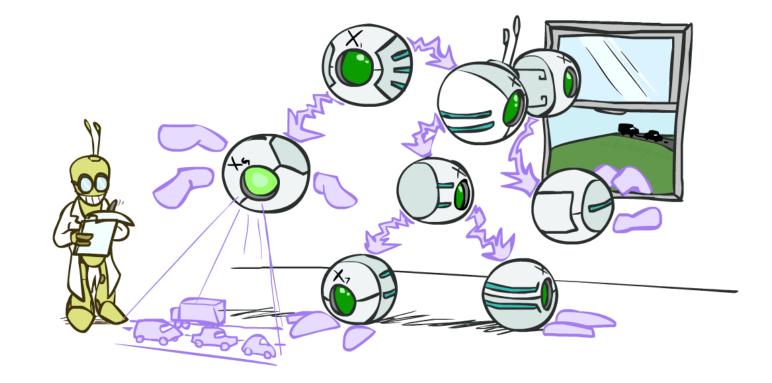


[Demo: Ghostbuster – with probability (L12D2)]

Video of Demo Ghostbusters with Probability



Inference



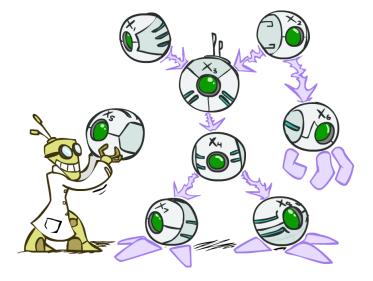
Recall: Bayes' Net Representation

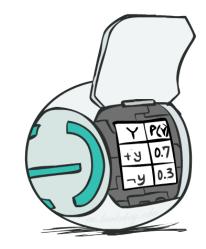
- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
 - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

 $P(X|a_1\ldots a_n)$

- 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:

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





Inference

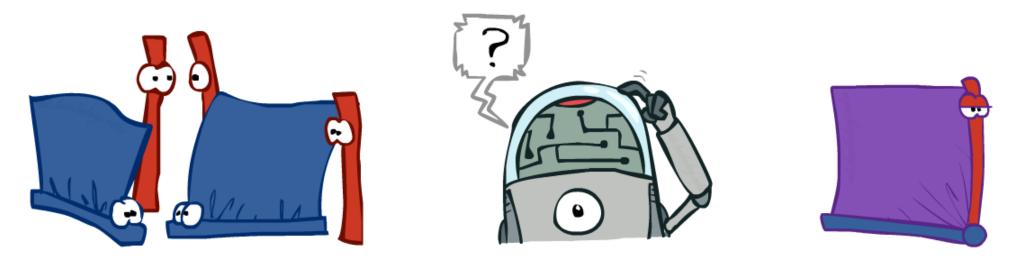
 Inference: calculating some useful quantity from a joint probability distribution

• Examples:

Posterior probability

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

- Most likely explanation:
 - $\operatorname{argmax}_q P(Q = q | E_1 = e_1 \ldots)$



Queries

- What is the probability of this given what I know? $P(q \mid e) = \frac{P(q, e)}{P(e)} = \frac{\sum_{h_1} \sum_{h_2} P(q, h_1, h_2, e)}{P(e)}$
- What are the probabilities of all the possible outcomes (given what I know)? $P(Q \mid e) = \frac{P(Q, e)}{P(e)} = \frac{\sum_{h_1} \sum_{h_2} P(Q, h_1, h_2, e)}{P(e)}$
- Which outcome is the most likely outcome (given what I know)? $\operatorname{argmax}_{q \in Q} P(q \mid e) = \operatorname{argmax}_{q \in Q} \frac{P(q, e)}{P(e)}$ $= \operatorname{argmax}_{q \in Q} \frac{\sum_{h_1} \sum_{h_2} P(q, h_1, h_2, e)}{P(e)}$

Inference by Enumeration in Joint Distributions

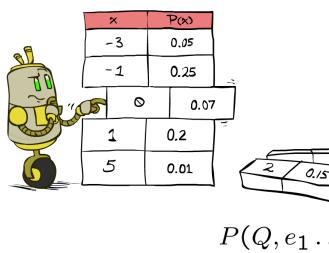
- General case:
 - Evidence variables: $E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k$ Query* variable: Q• Hidden variables: $H_1 \dots H_r$ $X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ *All variables*
- entries consistent with the evidence
- Step 1: Select the
 Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence

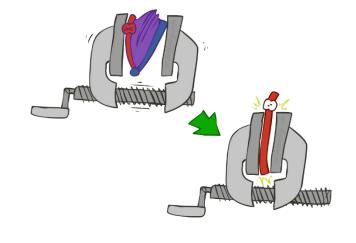


* Works fine with multiple query variables, too

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

Step 3: Normalize





$$P(Q, e_1 \dots e_k) = \sum_{h_1 \dots h_r} P(\underbrace{Q, h_1 \dots h_r, e_1 \dots e_k}_{X_1, X_2, \dots X_n})$$

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

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

Inference by Enumeration in Bayes' Net В Ε • Given unlimited time, inference in BNs is easy $P(B \mid +j,+m) \propto_B P(B,+j,+m)$ Α $=\sum P(B, e, a, +j, +m)$ e.aΜ $= \sum P(B)P(e)P(a|B,e)P(+j|a)P(+m|a)$ 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(-a|B,-e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)P(-a|B,-e)P(+j|-a)P(+m|-a)P(-a|B,-e)P(+j|-a)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|B,-e)P(-a|

Example: Traffic Domain

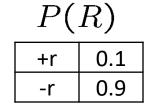
- Random Variables
 - R: Raining
 - T: Traffic
 - L: Late for class!

$$R$$

 T
 L

$$(L) = ?$$

= $\sum_{r,t} P(r,t,L)$
= $\sum_{r,t} P(r)P(t|r)P(L|t)$





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

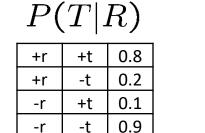


+t	+	0.3
+t	-	0.7
-t	+	0.1
-t	-	0.9

Inference by Enumeration: Procedural Outline

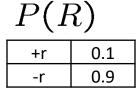
- Track objects called factors
- Initial factors are local CPTs (one per node) $P(R) \qquad P(T|R) \qquad P(L|T)$

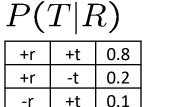
P(R)+r 0.1
-r 0.9



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

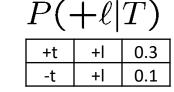
- Any known values are selected
 - E.g. if we know $L=+\ell$, the initial factors are





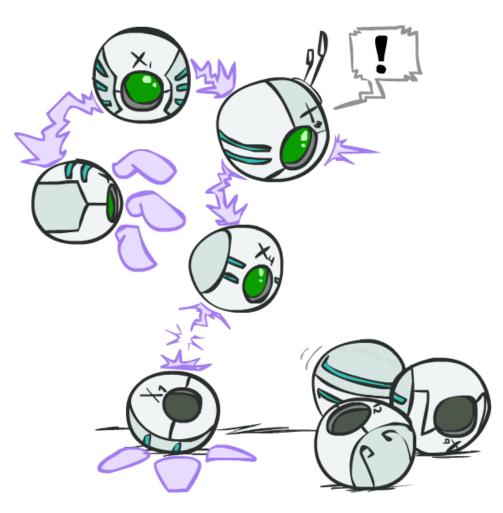
0.9

-t



 Procedure: Join all factors, then sum out all hidden variables

-r

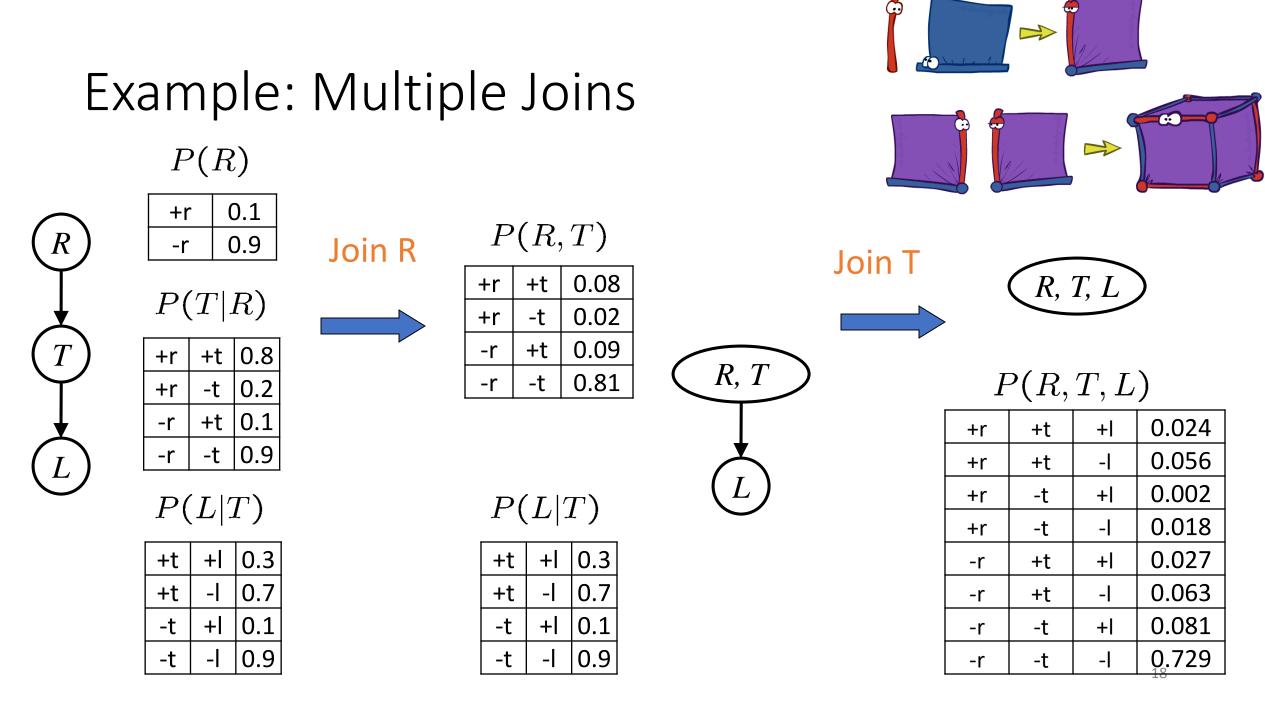


Operation 1: Join Factors

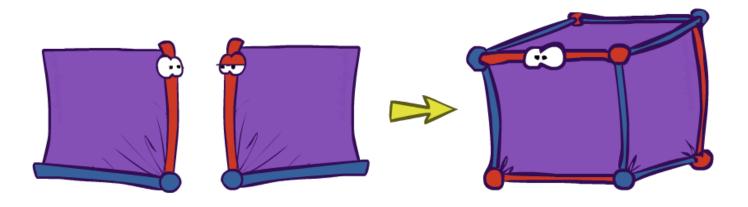
- First basic operation: joining factors
- Combining factors:
 - Just like a database join
 - Get all factors over the joining variable
 - Build a new factor over the union of the variables involved
- Example: Join on R

P(R,T)P(T|R)P(R)Х R 0.1 +t 0.8 +t 0.08 +r +r +r -t 0.9 0.2 -t 0.02 -r +r +r +t 0.1 +t 0.09 -r -r -t 0.9 -t 0.81 -r -r

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



Example: Joining two conditional factors



• Example: $P(J/A) \times P(M/A) = P(J,M/A)$

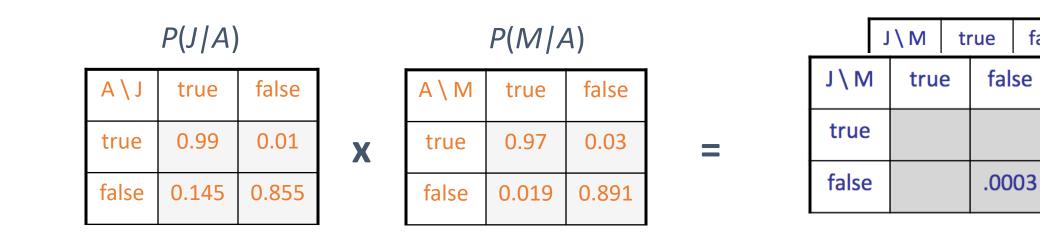
P(J,M|A)

false

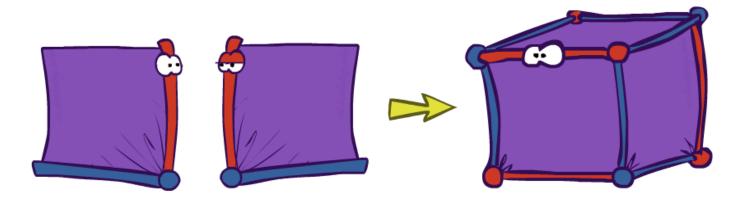
18

A=true

A=false



Example: Making larger factors



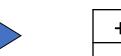
- Example: $f_1(U,V) \propto f_2(V,W) \propto f_3(W,X) = f_4(U,V,W,X)$
- Sizes: [10,10] x [10,10] x [10,10] = [10,10,10,10]
- i.e., 300 numbers blows up to 10,000 numbers!
- Factor blowup can make joining very expensive

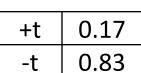
Operation 2: Eliminate

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

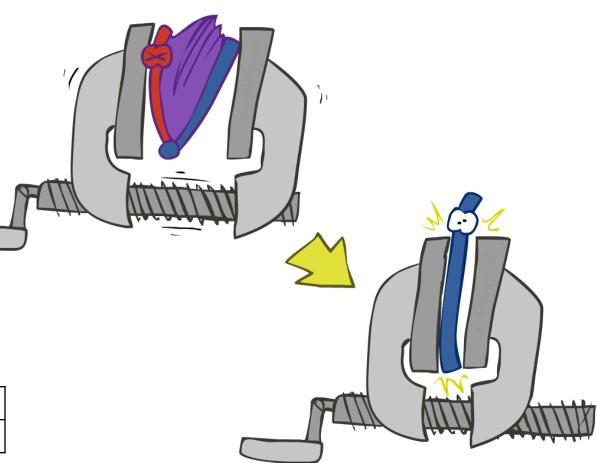
P	(R	,T)	
+r	+t	0.08	
+r	-t	0.02	
-r	+t	0.09	
-r	-t	0.81	

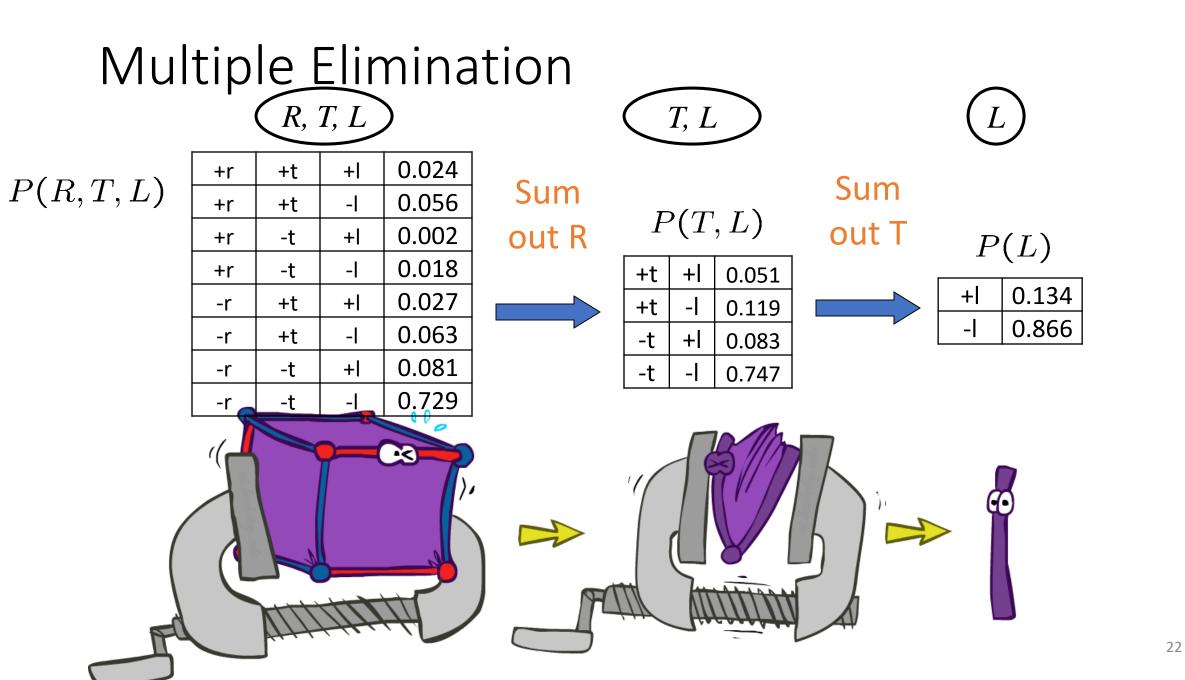






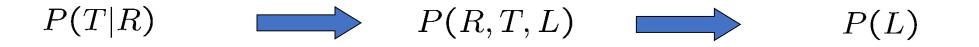
P(T)

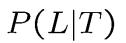




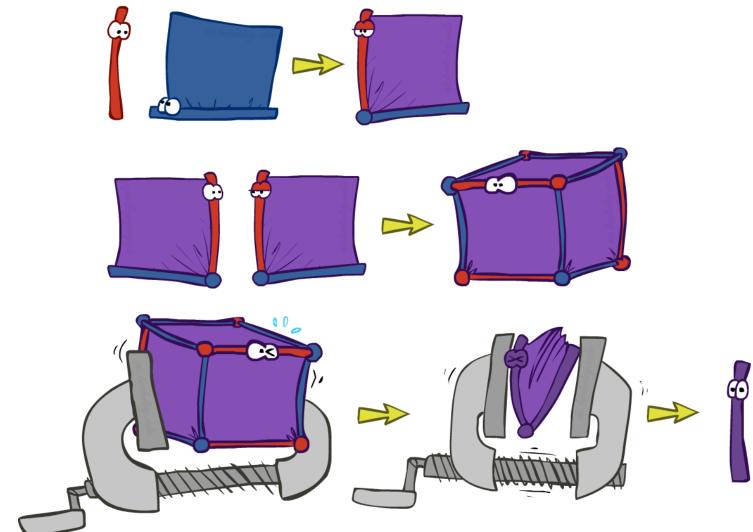
Thus Far: Multiple Join, Multiple Eliminate (= Inference by Enumeration)

P(R)





Thus Far: Multiple Join, Multiple Eliminate (= Inference by Enumeration)



Inference by Enumeration in Bayes Net

- Reminder of inference by enumeration:
 - Any probability of interest can be computed by summing entries from the joint distribution
 - Entries from the joint distribution can be obtained from a BN by multiplying the corresponding conditional probabilities

```
\begin{split} P(B \mid j, m) &= \alpha \, P(B, j, m) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{e,a} P(B, e, a, j, m) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{e,a} P(B) \, P(e) \, P(a \mid B, e) \, P(j \mid a) \, P(m \mid a) \end{split}
```

- So inference in Bayes nets means computing sums of products of numbers: sounds easy!!
- Problem: sums of *exponentially many* products!



F

A

В

Can we do better?

- Consider
 - $x_1y_1z_1 + x_1y_1z_2 + x_1y_2z_1 + x_1y_2z_2 + x_2y_1z_1 + x_2y_1z_2 + x_2y_2z_1 + x_2y_2z_2$
 - 16 multiplies, 7 adds
 - Lots of repeated subexpressions!
- Rewrite as
 - $(x_1 + x_2)(y_1 + y_2)(z_1 + z_2)$
 - 2 multiplies, 3 adds

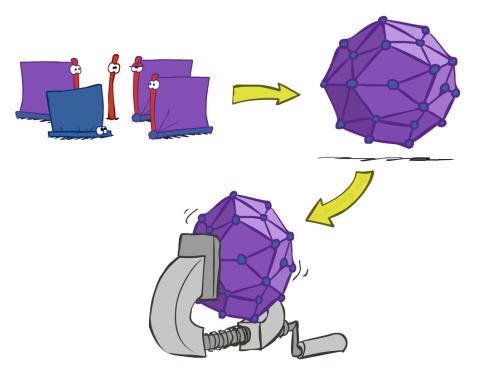
$$\sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(B) P(e) P(a | B, e) P(j | a) P(m | a) = P(B) P(+e) P(+a | B, +e) P(j | +a) P(m | +a) + P(B) P(-e) P(+a | B, -e) P(j | +a) P(m | +a) + P(B) P(+e) P(-a | B, +e) P(j | -a) P(m | -a) + P(B) P(-e) P(-a | B, -e) P(j | -a) P(m | -a)$$

• Lots of repeated subexpressions!

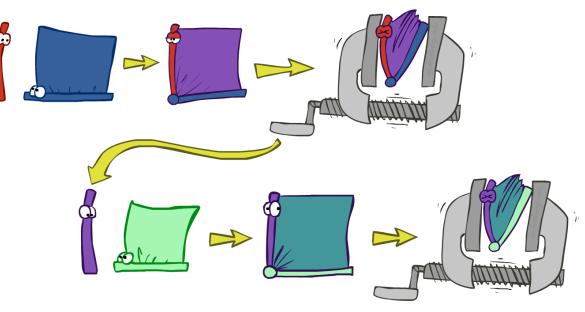
Variable Elimination

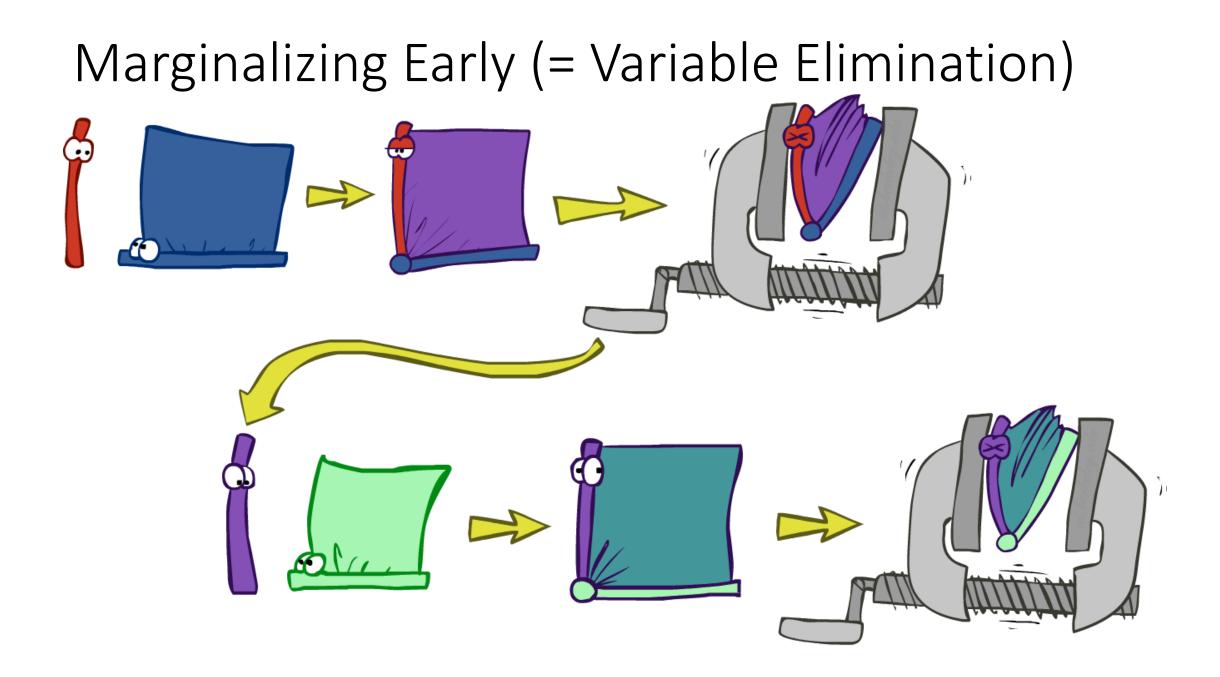
Inference by Enumeration vs. Variable Elimination

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

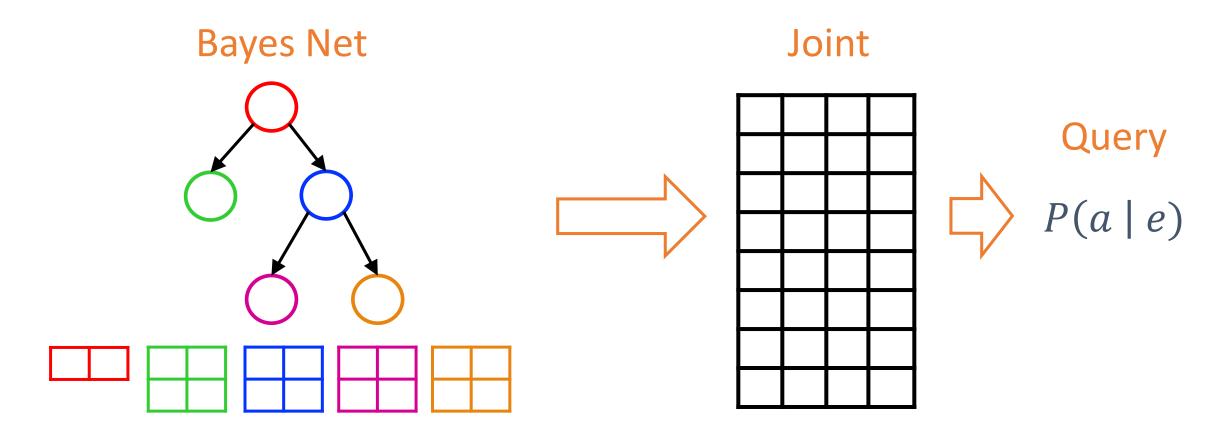


- Idea: interleave joining and marginalizing!
 - Called "Variable Elimination"
 - Still NP-hard, but usually much faster than inference by enumeration



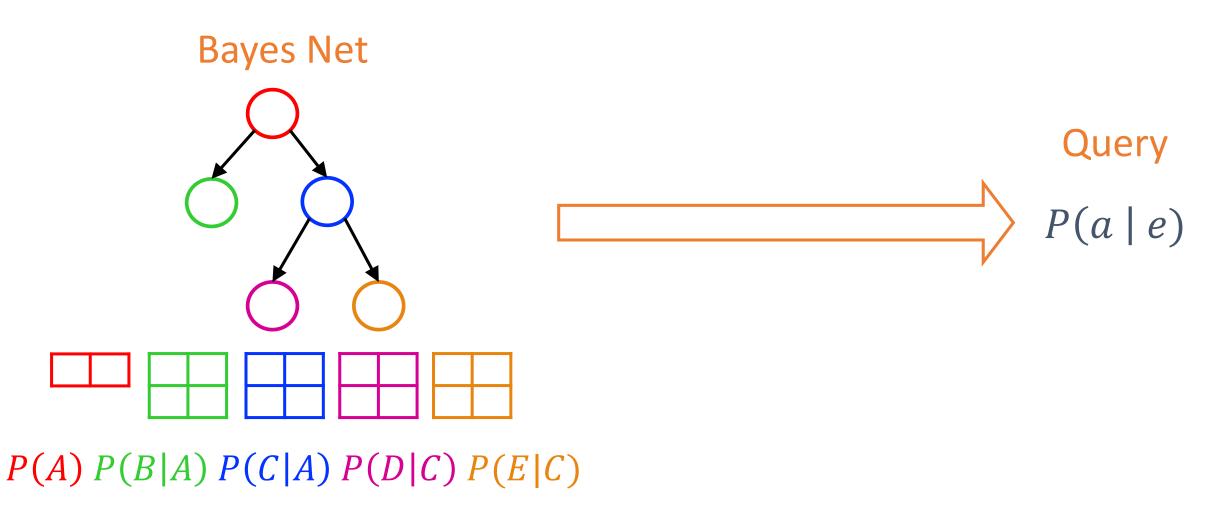


Answer Any Query from Bayes Net (Previous)



P(A) P(B|A) P(C|A) P(D|C) P(E|C)

Next: Answer Any Query from Bayes Net



Inference by Enumeration

- General case:
 - Evidence variables: $E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k$ Query* variable: Q• Hidden variables: $H_1 \dots H_r$ $X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ All variables
- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence

Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence



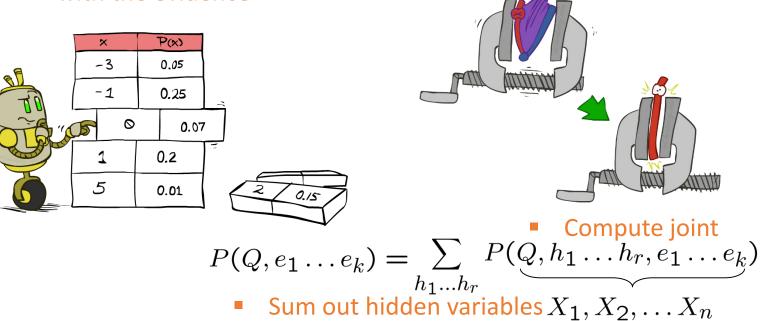
* Works fine with multiple query variables, too

 $P(Q|e_1\ldots e_k)$

Step 3: Normalize

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

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



Variable Elimination

- General case:
 - Evidence variables: $E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k$ Query* variable: Q• Hidden variables: $H_1 \dots H_r$ $X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ All variables
- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence

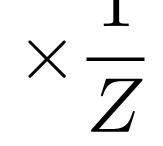
Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence

We want:

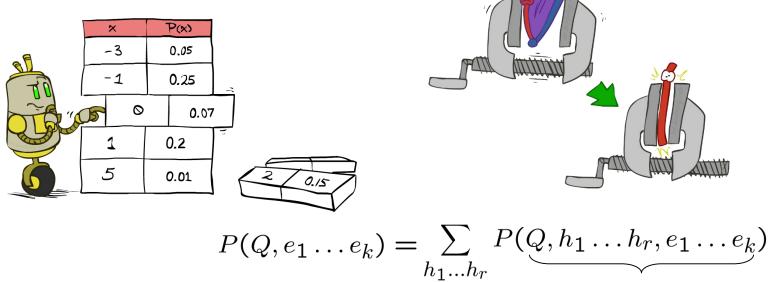
* Works fine with multiple query variables, too

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

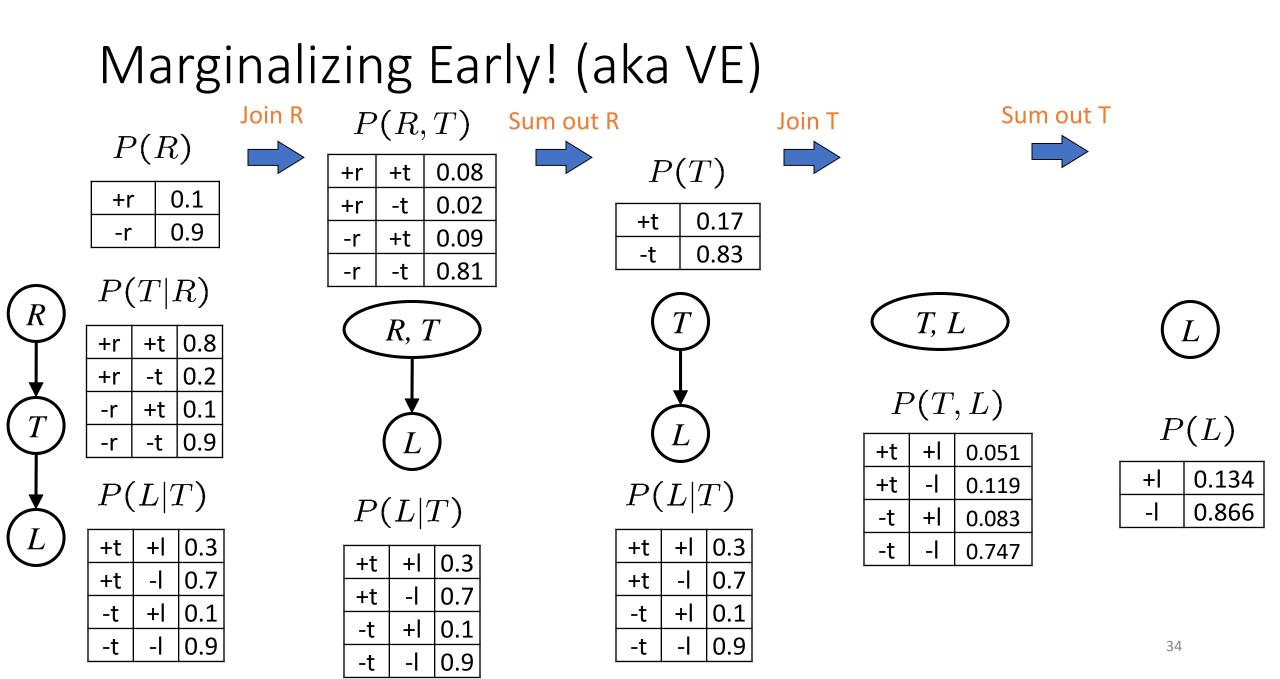
Step 3: Normalize



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

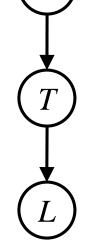


Interleave joining and summing out $X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n$



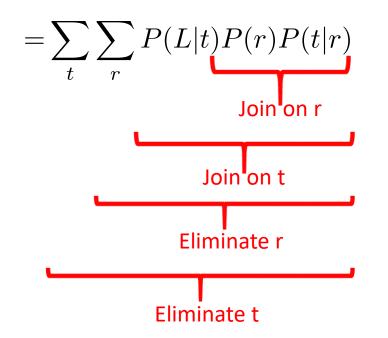
Traffic Domain

$$P(L) = \mathcal{I}$$

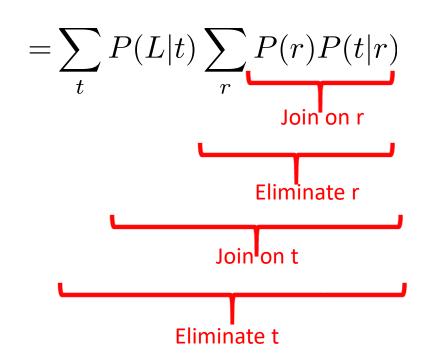


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Variable Elimination



Inference Overview

- Given random variables Q, H, E (query, hidden, evidence)
- We know how to do inference on a joint distribution

 $P(q|e) = \alpha P(q,e)$

 $= \alpha \sum_{h \in \{h_1, h_2\}} P(q, h, e)$

- We know Bayes nets can break down joint in to CPT factors $P(q|e) = \alpha \sum_{h \in \{h_1, h_2\}} P(h) P(q|h) P(e|q)$ $= \alpha \left[P(h_1) P(q|h_1) P(e|q) + P(h_2) P(q|h_2) P(e|q) \right]$
 - $(H) \rightarrow (Q) \rightarrow (E)$

• But we can be more efficient

Enumeration

Variable Elimination

 $P(q|e) = \alpha P(e|q) \sum_{h \in \{h_1, h_2\}} P(h) P(q|h)$ = $\alpha P(e|q) [P(h_1)P(q|h_1) + P(h_2)P(q|h_2)]$ = $\alpha P(e|q) P(q)$

• Now just extend to larger Bayes nets and a variety of queries

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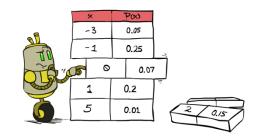
Variable Elimination: The basic ideas

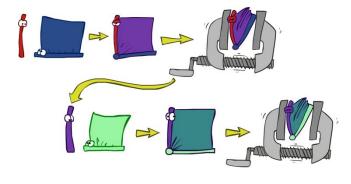
- Move summations inwards as far as possible
 - $P(B \mid j, m) = \alpha \sum_{e} \sum_{a} P(B) P(e) P(a \mid B, e) P(j \mid a) P(m \mid a)$ = $\alpha P(B) \sum_{e} P(e) \sum_{a} P(a \mid B, e) P(j \mid a) P(m \mid a)$

- Do the calculation from the inside out
 - I.e., sum over *a* first, then sum over *e*
 - Problem: P(a | B,e) isn't a single number, it's a bunch of different numbers depending on the values of B and e
 - Solution: use arrays of numbers (of various dimensions) with appropriate operations on them; these are factors

General Variable Elimination

- Query: $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, ..., E_k = e_k)$
- 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

function VariableElimination(Q, e, bn) returns a distribution over Q factors \leftarrow [] for each var in ORDER(bn.vars) do $factors \leftarrow [MAKE-FACTOR(var, e)| factors]$ if var is a hidden variable then $factors \leftarrow SUM-OUT(var, factors)$ **return** NORMALIZE(POINTWISE-PRODUCT(factors))

Evidence

- If evidence, start with factors that select that evidence
 - No evidence, uses these initial factors: P(R) P(T|R) P(L|T)

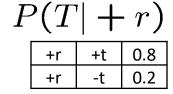
`	
+r	0.1
-r	0.9

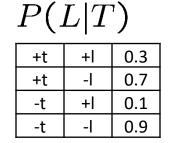
		/
+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

I (L I)					
	+t	+	0.3		
	+t	-	0.7		
	-t	+	0.1		
	-t	-1	0.9		

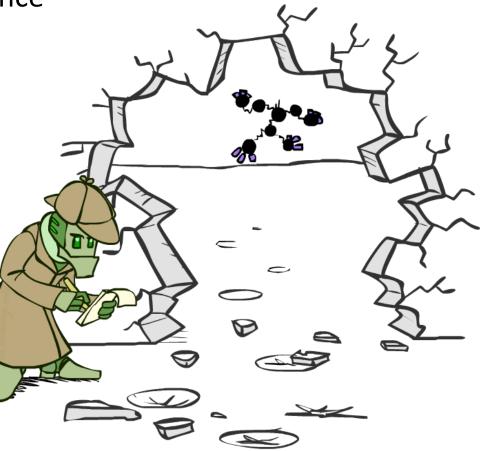
• Computing P(L|+r) , the initial factors become:

$$\frac{P(+r)}{r}$$



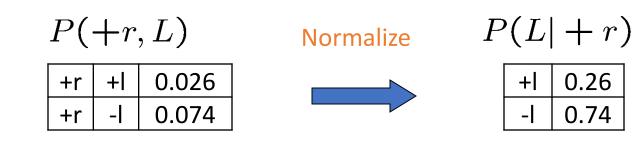


• We eliminate all vars other than query + evidence

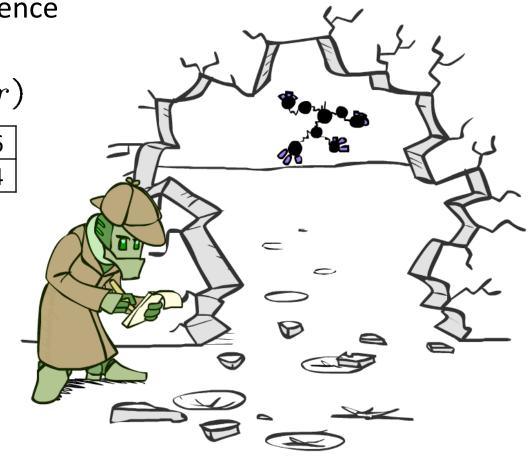


Evidence II

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



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



Example

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

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

- $= \sum_{e,a} P(B, j, m, e, a)$
- $= \sum_{i=1}^{e,a} P(B)P(e)P(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a)$
- $=\sum_{e}^{e,a} P(B)P(e)\sum_{a} P(a|B,e)P(j|a)P(m|a)$
- $= \sum_{e} P(B)P(e)f_1(j,m|B,e)$ $= P(B)\sum_{e} P(e)f_1(j,m|B,e)$

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

marginal can be obtained from joint by summing out

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use Bayes' net joint distribution expression

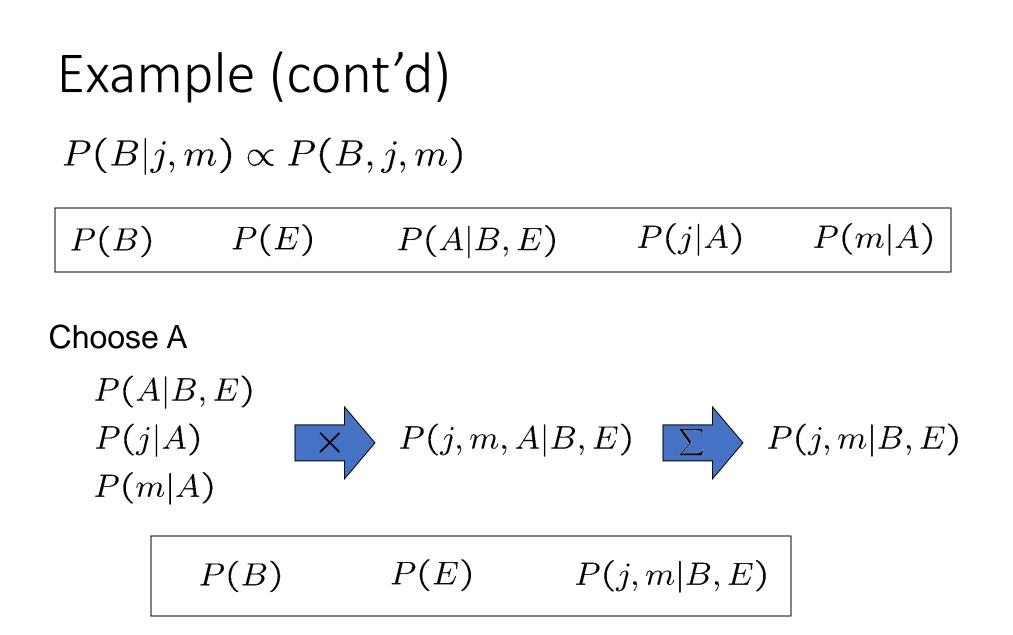
use $x^*(y+z) = xy + xz$

joining on a, and then summing out gives f_1

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

```
joining on e, and then summing out gives f<sub>2</sub>
```

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

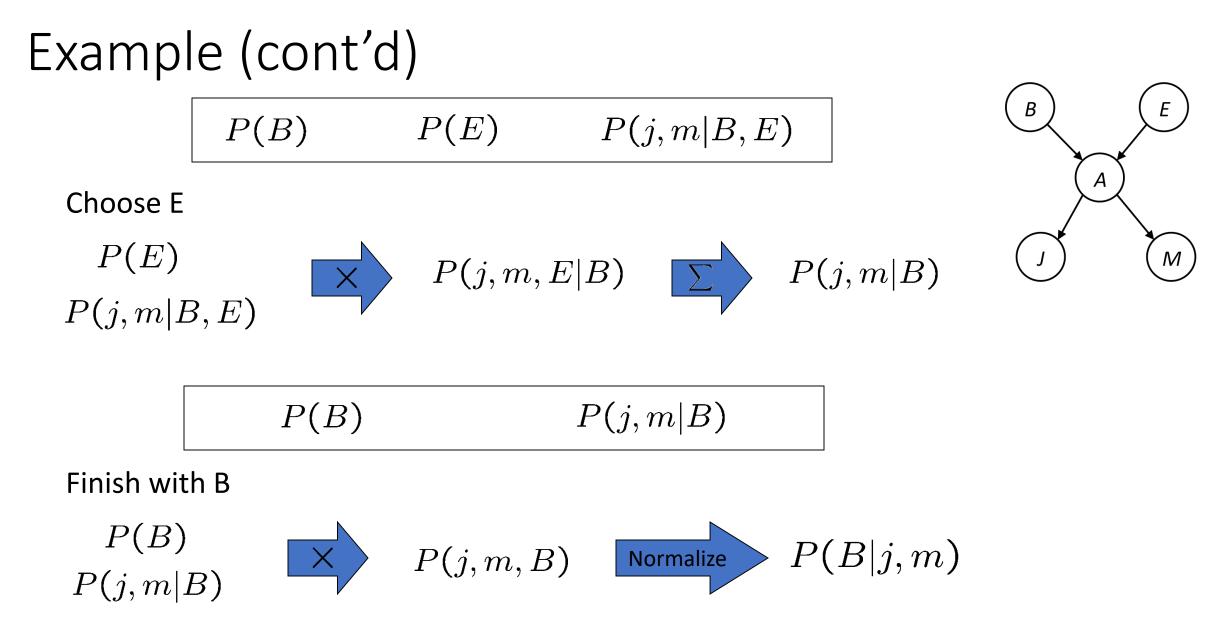


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Another Variable Elimination Example Query: $P(X_3|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, Y_3 = y_3)$

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 $f_1(y_1|Z) = \sum_{x_1} P(x_1|Z)P(y_1|x_1)$, and we are left with:

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

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

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

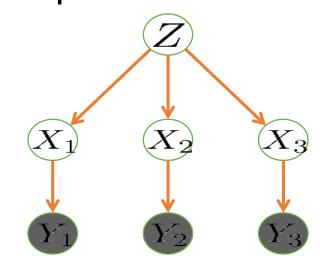
Eliminate Z, this introduces the factor $f_3(y_1, y_2, X_3) = \sum_z P(z)P(X_3|z)f_1(y_1|Z)f_2(y_2|Z)$, and we are left with:

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

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

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

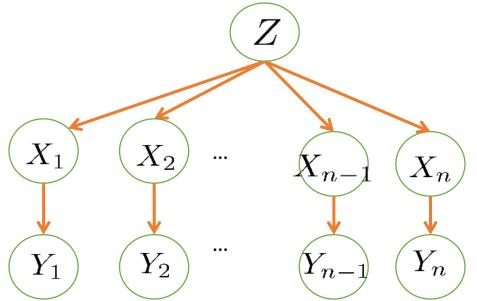
Normalizing over X_3 gives $P(X_3|y_1, y_2, y_3) = f_4(y_1, y_2, y_3, X_3) / \sum_{x_3} f_4(y_1, y_2, y_3, x_3)$



- 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|y₁,...,y_n) work through the following two different orderings as done in previous slide: Z, X₁, ..., X_{n-1} and X₁, ..., X_{n-1}, Z. What is the size of the maximum factor generated for each of the orderings?



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

Detail of size 4

- Elimination order: C, B, A, Z
 - $P(D) = \alpha \sum_{z,a,b,c} P(D|z) P(z) P(a|z) P(b|z) P(c|z)$
 - = $\alpha \sum_{z} P(D|z) P(z) \sum_{a} P(a|z) \sum_{b} P(b|z) \sum_{c} P(c|z)$
 - Largest factor has 2 variables (D,Z)
- Elimination order: Z, C, B, A
 - $P(D) = \alpha \sum_{a,b,c,z} P(a \mid z) P(b \mid z) P(c \mid z) P(D \mid z) P(z)$
 - = $\alpha \sum_{a} \sum_{b} \sum_{c} \sum_{z} P(a|z) P(b|z) P(c|z) P(D|z) P(z)$
 - Largest factor has 4 variables (A,B,C,D)
- In general, with *n* leaves, factor of size 2^{*n*}

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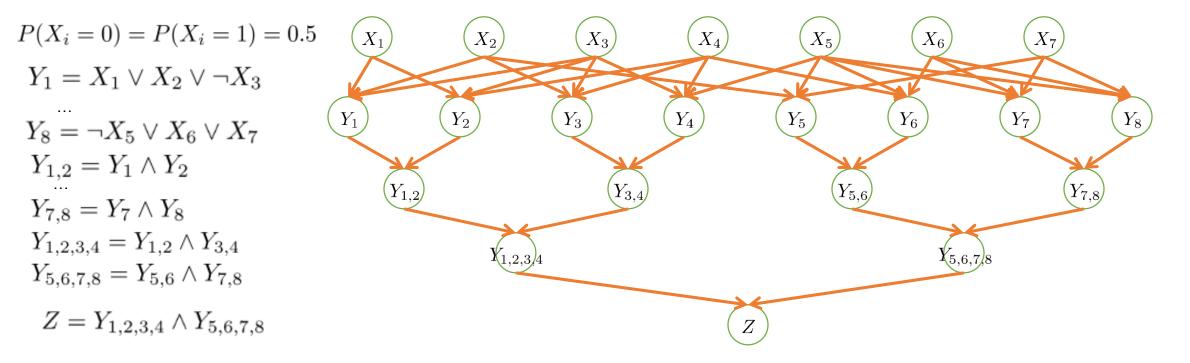
VE: Computational and Space Complexity

- 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!

Worst Case Complexity?

• 3-SAT:

 $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land (\neg x_1 \lor x_3 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_2 \lor x_4) \land (\neg x_3 \lor \neg x_4 \lor \neg x_5) \land (x_2 \lor x_5 \lor x_7) \land (x_4 \lor x_5 \lor x_6) \land (\neg x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_7) \land (\neg x_5 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_4 \lor x_5 \lor x_6) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_7) \land (x_5 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor \neg x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_5 \lor x_6 \lor x_7) \land (x_6 \lor$



- If we can answer P(z) equal to zero or not, we answered whether the 3-SAT problem has a solution
- Hence inference in Bayes' nets is NP-hard. No known efficient probabilistic inference in general

"Easy" Structures: 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!

Sampling

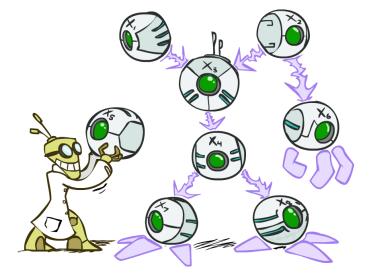
Recall: Bayes' Net Representation

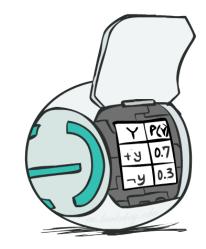
- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
 - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

 $P(X|a_1\ldots a_n)$

- 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:

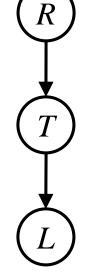
$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$



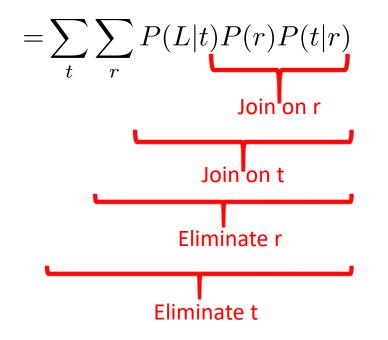


Recap: Bayesian Inference (Exact)

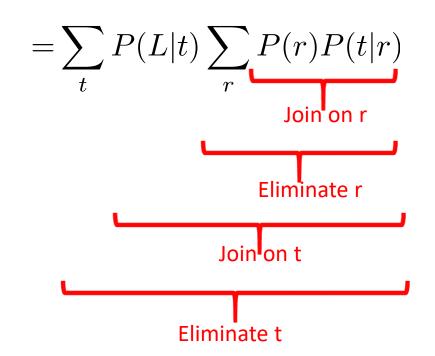
$$P(L) = ?$$



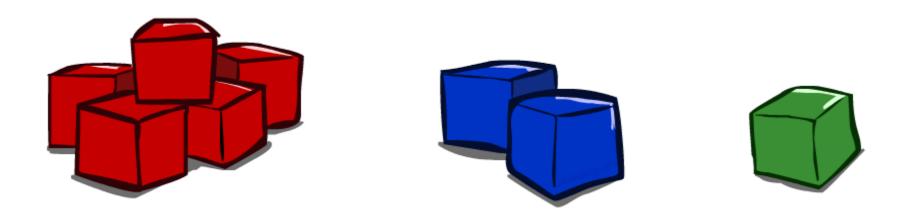




Variable Elimination



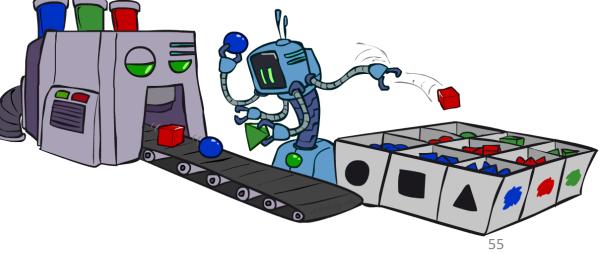
Approximate Inference: Sampling



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)



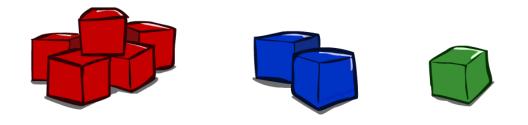
Sampling 2

- 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

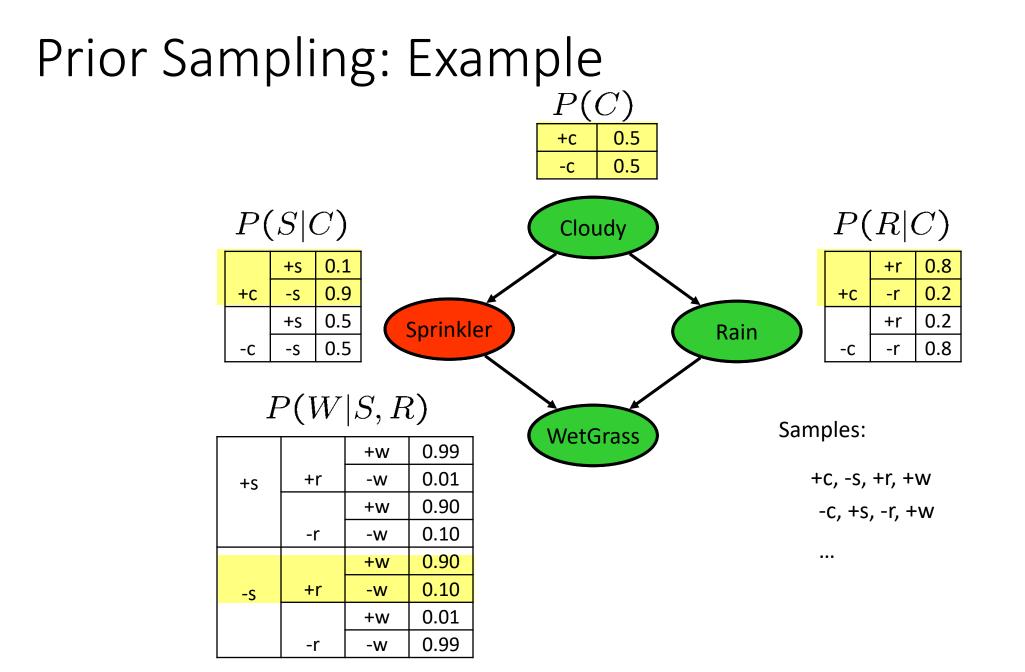
 $\begin{array}{l} 0 \leq u < 0.6, \rightarrow C = red \\ 0.6 \leq u < 0.7, \rightarrow C = green \\ 0.7 \leq u < 1, \rightarrow C = blue \end{array}$

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



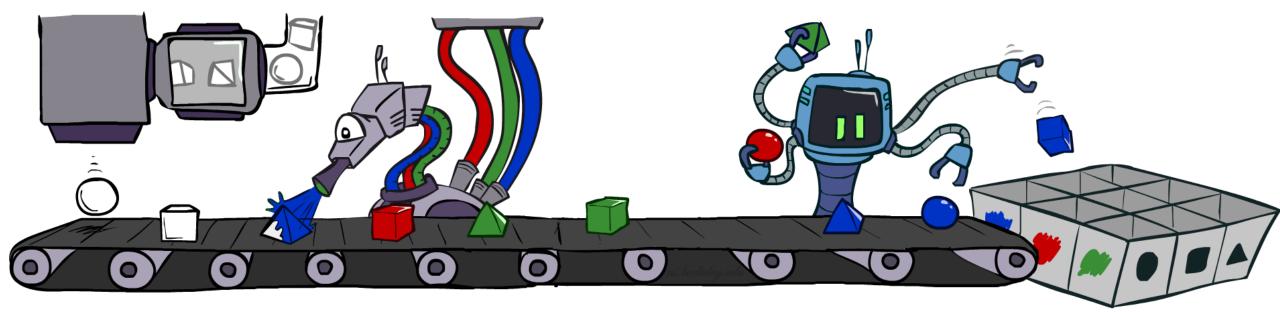
Sampling in Bayes' Nets

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



Prior Sampling: Algorithm

- For i = 1, 2, ..., n in topological order
 - Sample x_i from P(X_i | Parents(X_i))
- Return (x₁, x₂, ..., 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 $N_{PS}(x_1 \dots x_n)$

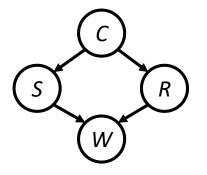
• Then
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \hat{P}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \lim_{N \to \infty} N_{PS}(x_1, \dots, x_n)/N$$

= $S_{PS}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$
= $P(x_1 \dots x_n)$

• i.e., the sampling procedure is consistent

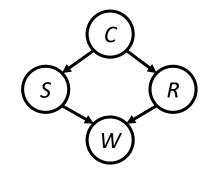
Example

- 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
 - P(C | +w)? P(C | +r, +w)?
 - Can also use this to estimate expected value of f(X) Monte Carlo Estimation
 - What about P(C | -r, -w)?



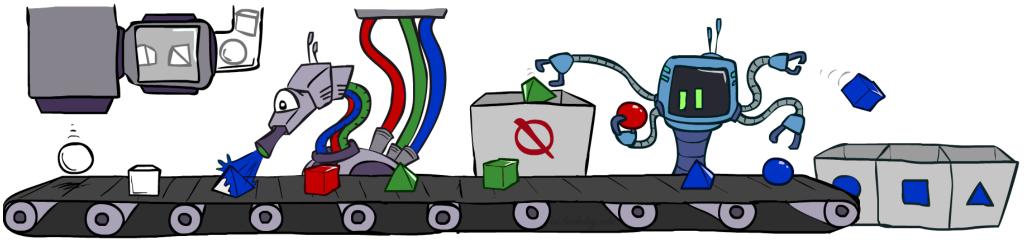
Rejection Sampling

- Let's say we want P(C)
 - 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
 - We can toss out samples early!
 - It is also consistent for conditional probabilities (i.e., correct in the limit)



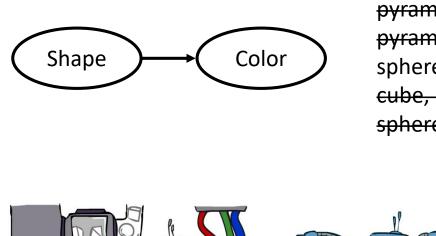
Rejection Sampling: Algorithm

- Input: evidence instantiation
- For i = 1, 2, ..., n in topological order
 - 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

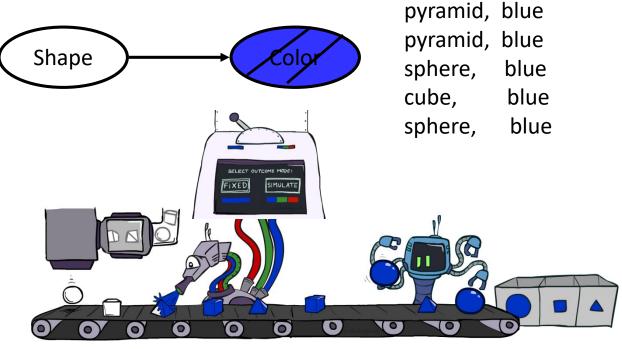
- Problem with rejection sampling:
 - If evidence is unlikely, rejects lots of samples
 - Consider P(Shape | blue)

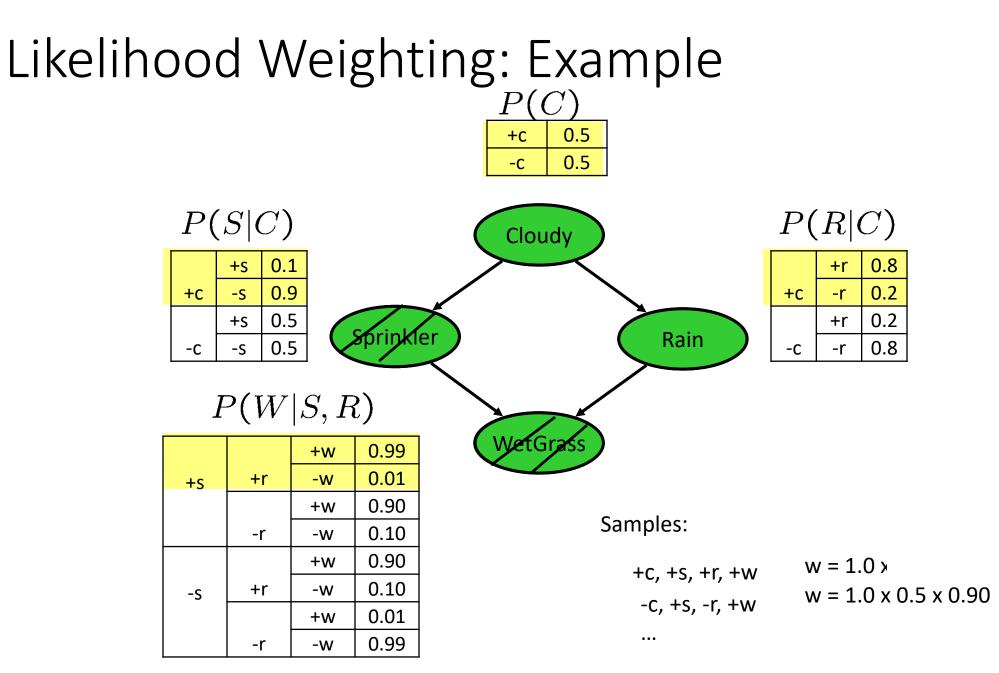


pyramid, green pyramid, red sphere, blue cube, red sphere, green



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

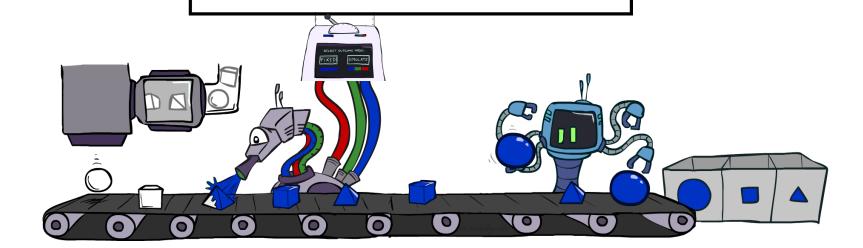




Likelihood Weighting: Algorithm

- Input: evidence instantiation
 - w = 1.0

- for i = 1, 2, ..., n in topological order
 - if X_i is an evidence variable
 - X_i = observation x_i for X_i
 - Set $w = w * P(x_i | Parents(X_i))$
 - else
 - Sample x_i from $P(X_i | Parents(X_i))$
- return $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$, w



Likelihood Weighting

• Sampling distribution if z sampled and e fixed evidence

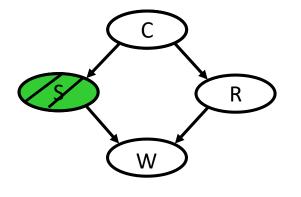
 $S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) = \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i | \mathsf{Parents}(Z_i))$

• Now, samples have weights

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



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



Likelihood Weighting

- Likelihood weighting is helpful
 - 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

SELECT OUTCOME MODE

SIMULATI

IXED

- 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)

S

 We would like to consider evidence when we sample every variable (leads to Gibbs sampling)

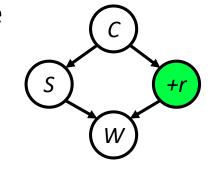


R

Gibbs Sampling: Example P(S | +r)

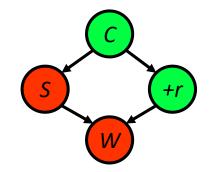
• Step 1: Fix evidence

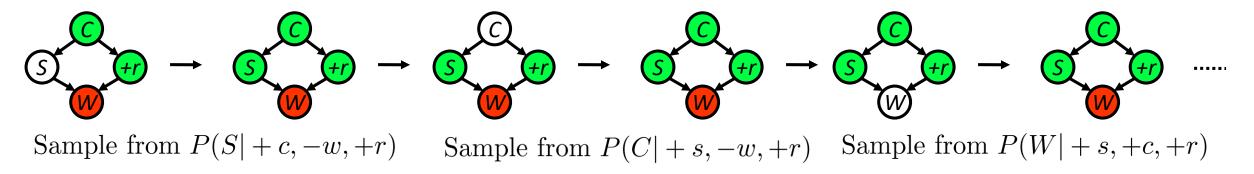
• R = +r



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

- Step 2: Initialize other variables
 - Randomly

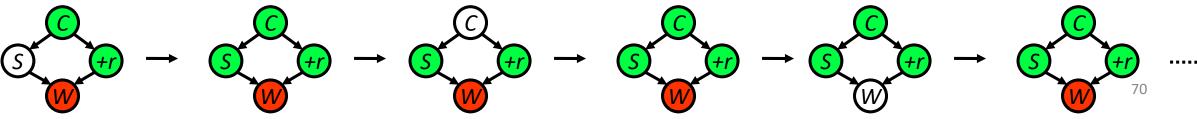




Gibbs Sampling

• Procedure

- Keep track of a full instantiation x_1, \dots, 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



Resampling of One Variable

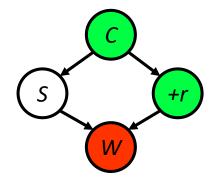
• Sample from P(S | +c, +r, -w)

$$P(S|+c, +r, -w) = \frac{P(S, +c, +r, -w)}{P(+c, +r, -w)}$$

$$= \frac{P(S, +c, +r, -w)}{\sum_{s} P(s, +c, +r, -w)}$$

$$= \frac{P(+c)P(S|+c)P(+r|+c)P(-w|S, +r)}{\sum_{s} P(+c)P(s|+c)P(+r|+c)P(-w|S, +r)}$$

$$= \frac{P(+c)P(S|+c)P(+r|+c)\sum_{s} P(s|+c)P(-w|S, +r)}{P(+c)P(+r|+c)\sum_{s} P(s|+c)P(-w|S, +r)}$$



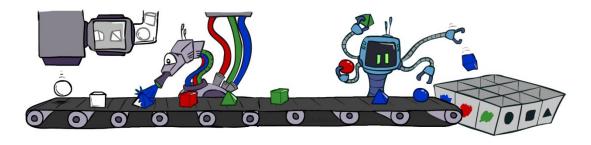
- Many things cancel out only CPTs with S remain!
- More generally: only CPTs that have resampled variable need to be considered, and joined together

More Details on Gibbs Sampling*

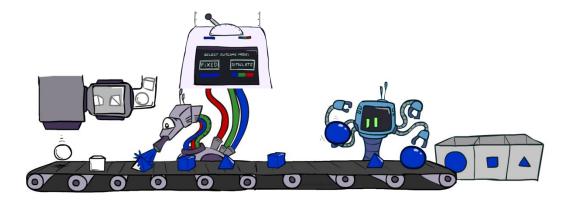
- Gibbs sampling belongs to a family of sampling methods called Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)
 - Specifically, it is a special case of a subset of MCMC methods called Metropolis-Hastings
- You can read more about this here:
 - <u>https://ermongroup.github.io/cs228-notes/inference/sampling/</u>

Bayes' Net Sampling Summary

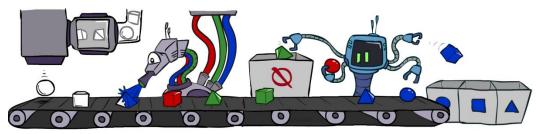
• Prior Sampling P(Q)



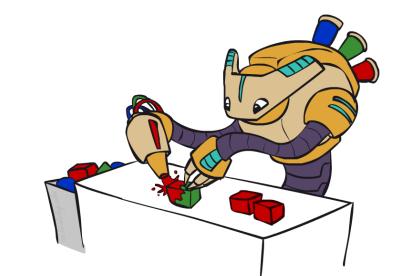
• Likelihood Weighting P(Q|e)

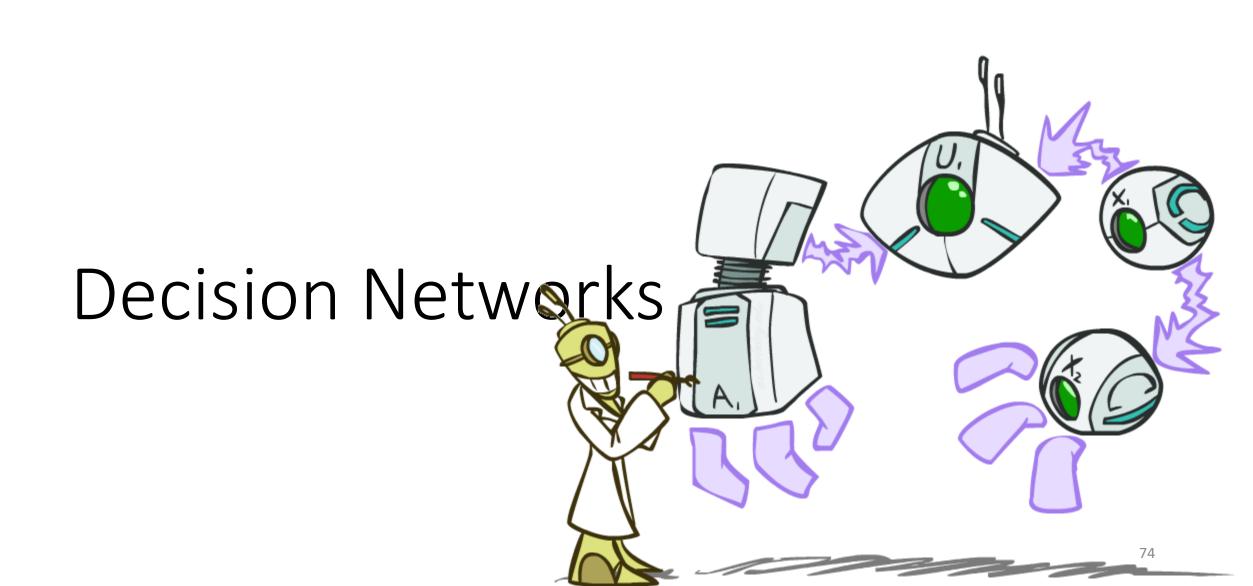


• Rejection Sampling P(Q|e)

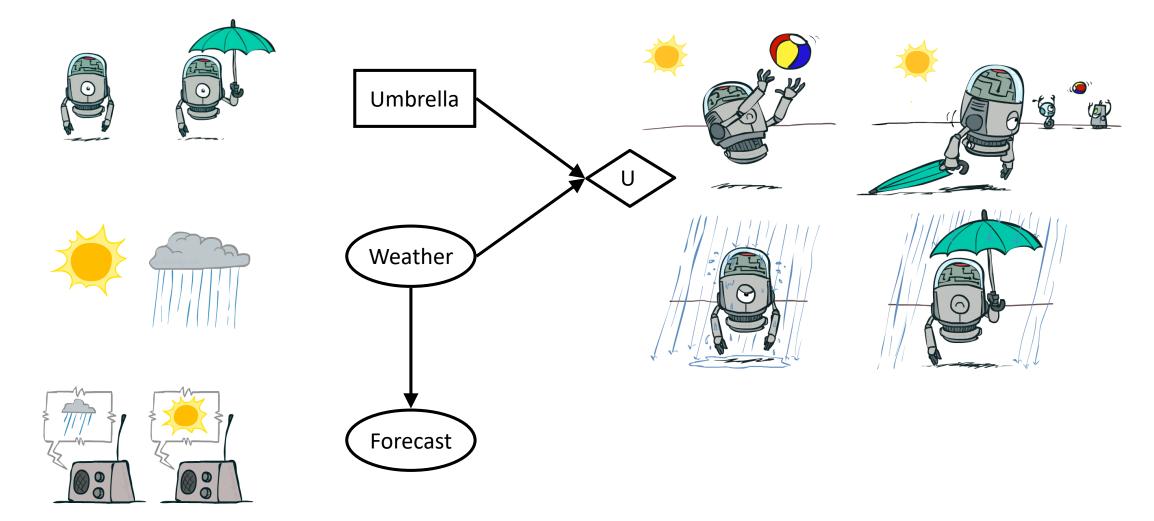


• Gibbs Sampling P(Q|e)



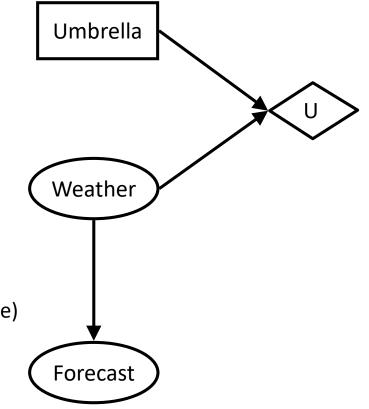


Decision Networks



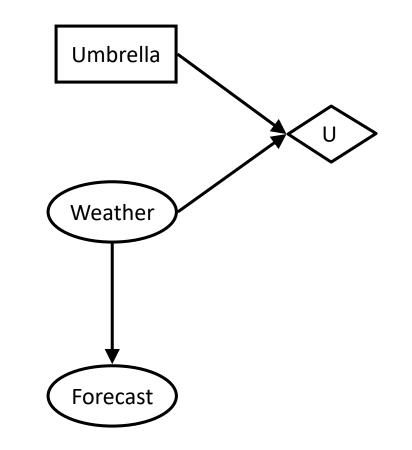
Decision Networks 2

- MEU: choose the action which maximizes the expected utility given the evidence
- Can directly operationalize this with decision networks
 - Bayes nets with nodes for utility and actions
 - Lets us calculate the expected utility for each action
- New node types:
 - Chance nodes (just like BNs)
 - Actions (rectangles, cannot have parents, act as observed evidence)
 - • Utility node (diamond, depends on action and chance nodes)



Decision Networks 3

- Action selection
 - Instantiate all evidence
 - Set action node(s) each possible way
 - Calculate posterior for all parents of utility node, given the evidence
 - Calculate expected utility for each action
 - Choose maximizing action



Maximum Expected Utility

Umbrella = leave

$$EU(leave) = \sum_{w} P(w)U(leave, w)$$
$$= 0.7 \cdot 100 + 0.3 \cdot 0 = 70$$

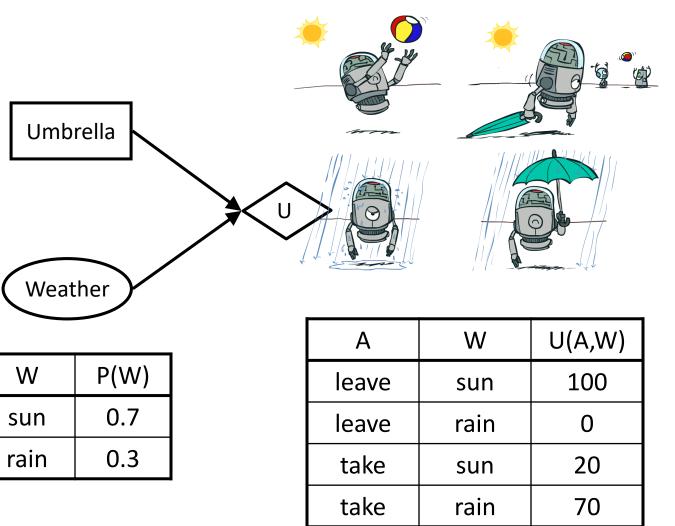
Umbrella = take

$$EU(take) = \sum_{w} P(w)U(take, w)$$

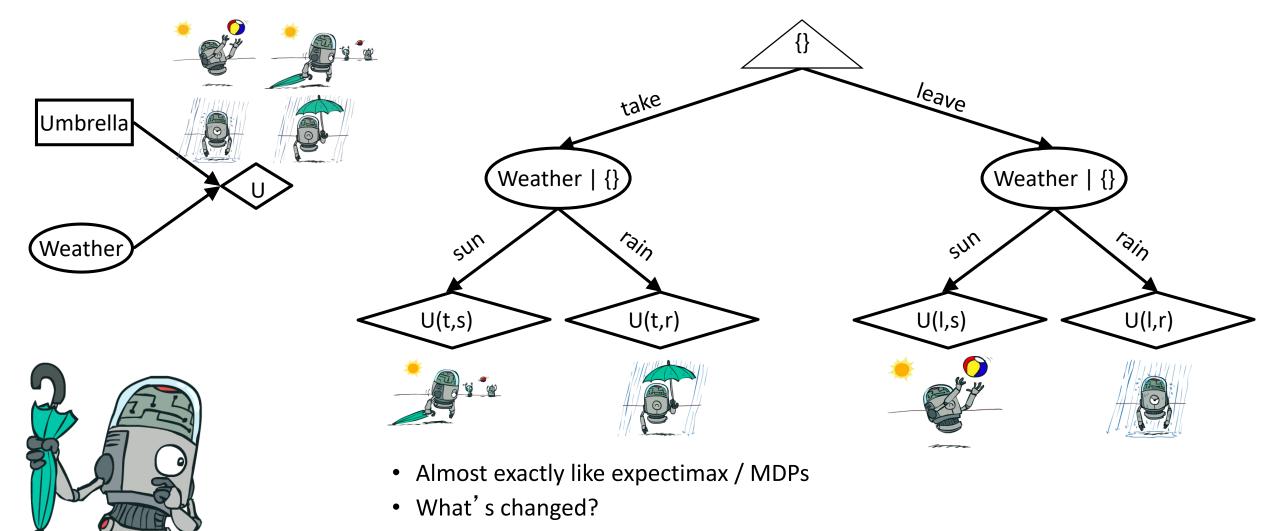
$$= 0.7 \cdot 20 + 0.3 \cdot 70 = 35$$

Optimal decision = leave

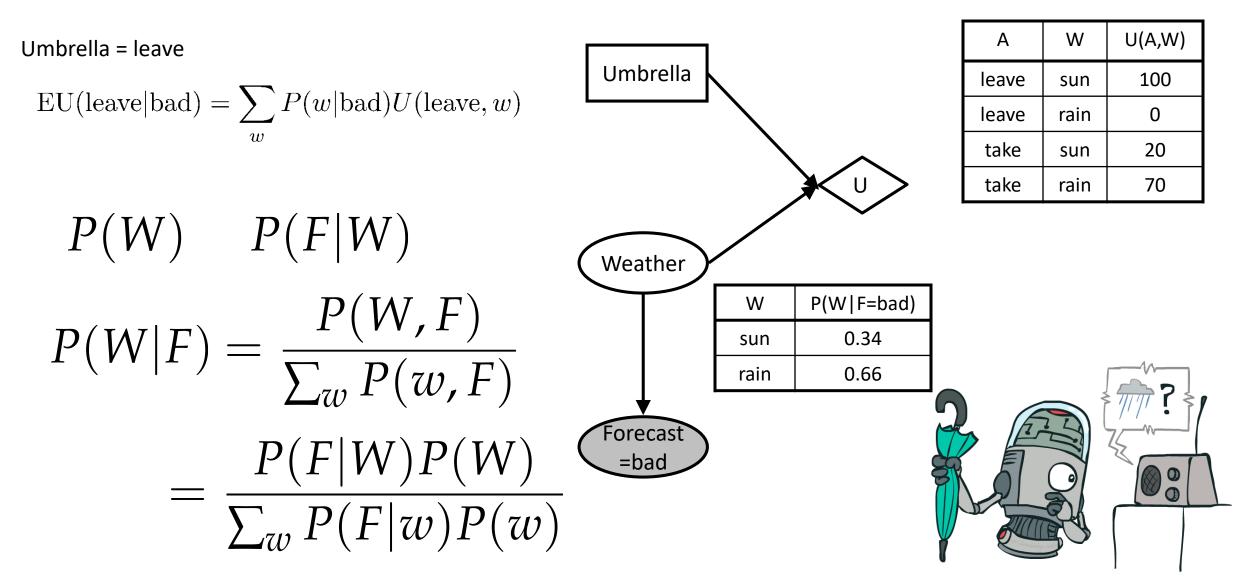
$$MEU(\phi) = \max_{a} EU(a) = 70$$



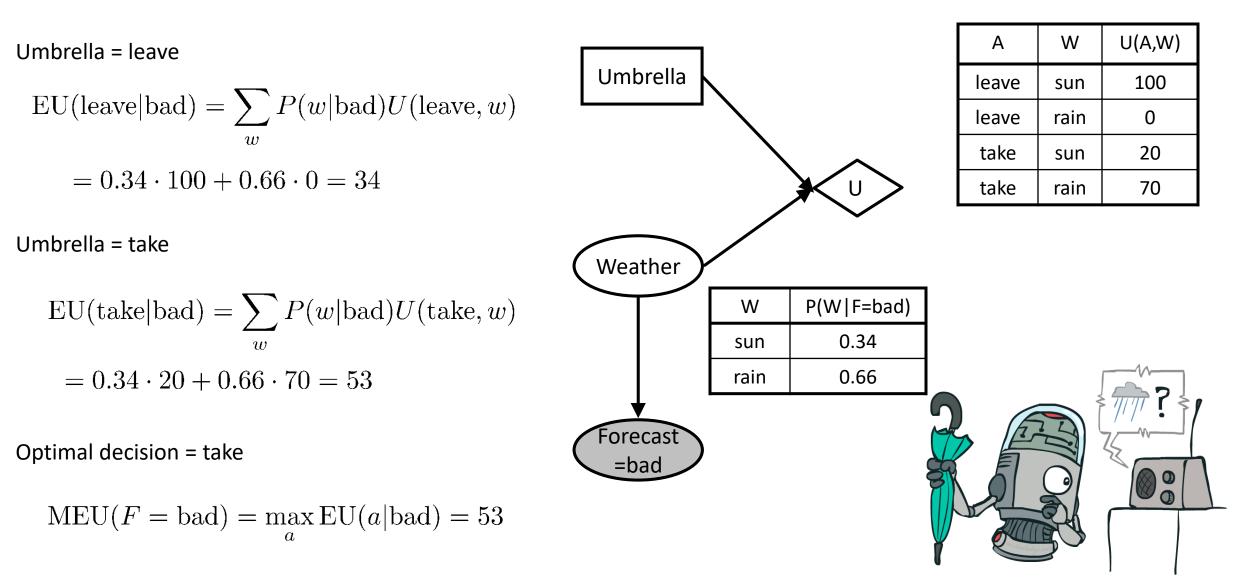
Decisions as Outcome Trees



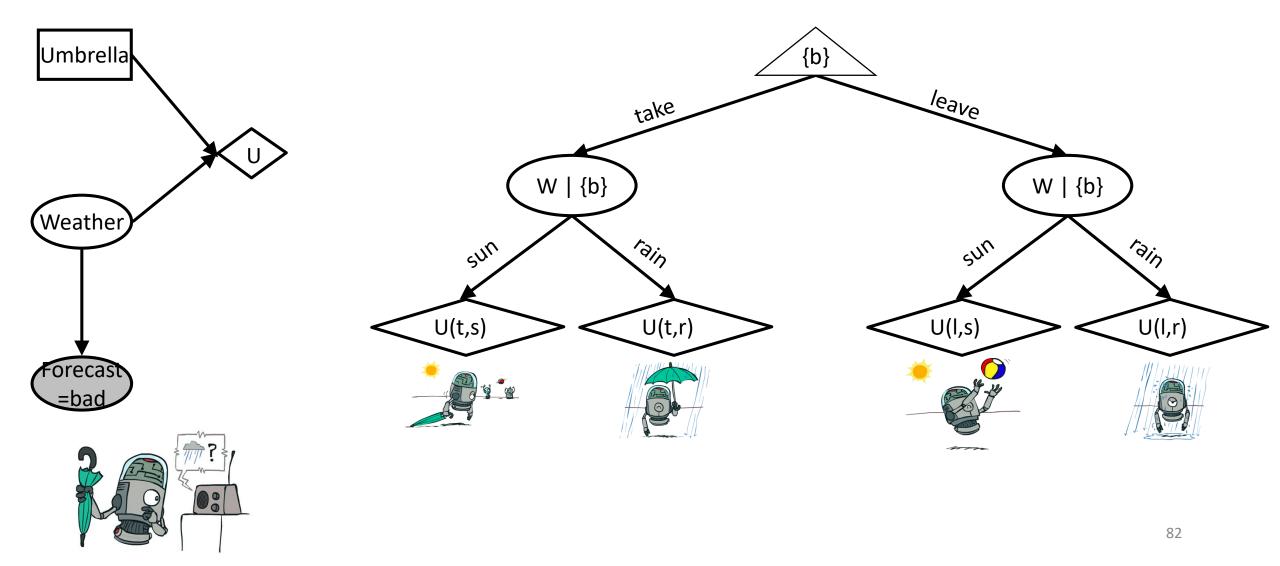
Maximum Expected Utility



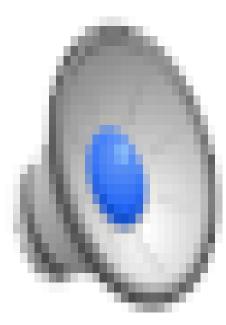
Maximum Expected Utility 2



Decisions as Outcome Trees

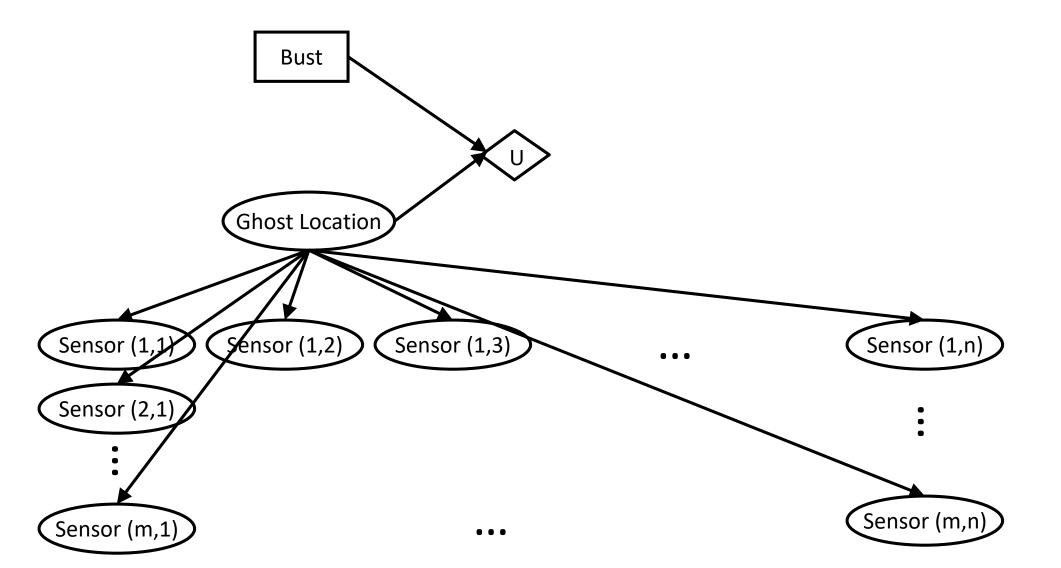


Video of Demo Ghostbusters with Probability

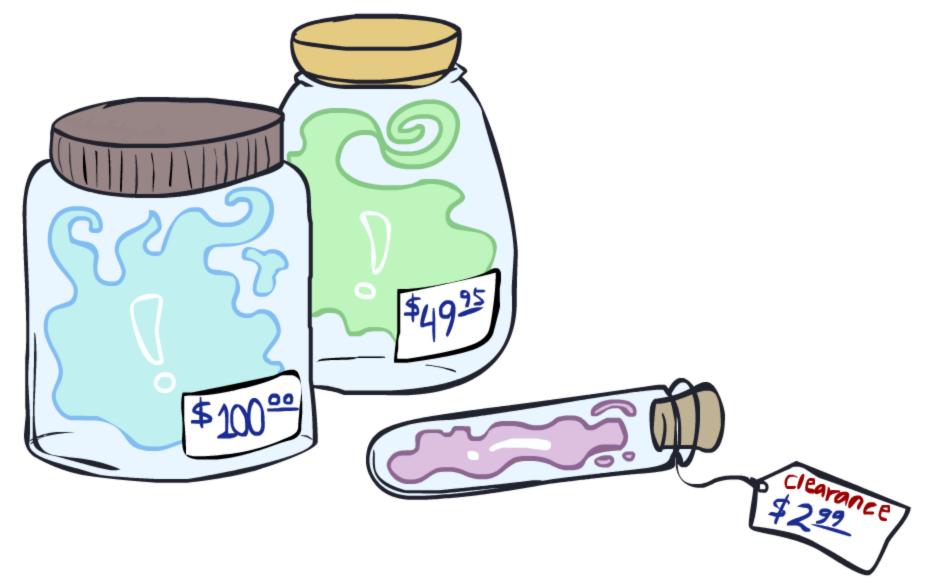


Ghostbusters Decision Network

Demo: Ghostbusters with probability

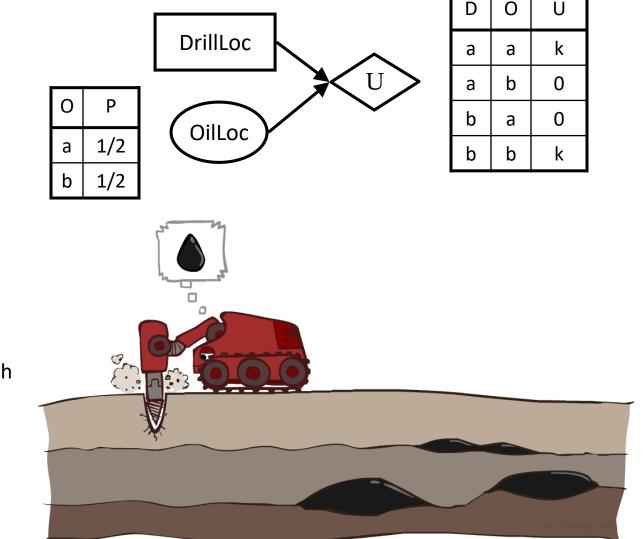


Value of Information



Value of Information

- Idea: compute value of acquiring evidence
 - Can be done directly from decision network
- Example: buying oil drilling rights
 - Two blocks A and B, exactly one has oil, worth k
 - You can drill in one location
 - Prior probabilities 0.5 each, & mutually exclusive
 - Drilling in either A or B has EU = k/2, MEU = k/2
- Question: what's the value of information of O?
 - Value of knowing which of A or B has oil
 - Value is expected gain in MEU from new info
 - Survey may say "oil in a" or "oil in b," prob 0.5 each
 - If we know OilLoc, MEU is k (either way)
 - Gain in MEU from knowing OilLoc?
 - VPI(OilLoc) = k/2
 - Fair price of information: k/2



Value of Perfect Information

MEU with no evidence

$$MEU(\phi) = \max_{a} EU(a) = 70$$

MEU if forecast is bad

$$MEU(F = bad) = \max_{a} EU(a|bad) = 53$$

MEU if forecast is good

$$MEU(F = good) = \max_{a} EU(a|good) = 95$$

Forecast distribution

А	W	U
leave	sun	100
leave	rain	0
take	sun	20
take	rain	70

$$F = P(F)$$

$$good \quad 0.59$$

$$bad \quad 0.41$$

$$O.59 \cdot (95) + 0.41 \cdot (53) - 70$$

$$77.8 - 70 = 7.8$$

$$VPI(E'|e) = \left(\sum_{e'} P(e'|e) \mathsf{MEU}(e, e')\right) - \mathsf{MEU}(e)$$

Value of Information

• Assume we have evidence E=e. Value if we act now:

$$\mathsf{MEU}(e) = \max_{a} \sum_{s} P(s|e) U(s,a)$$

• Assume we see that E' = e'. Value if we act then:

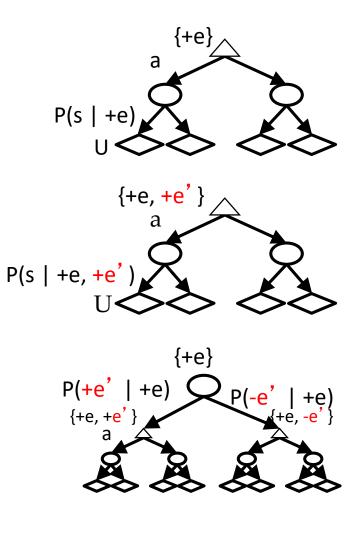
$$\mathsf{MEU}(e, e') = \max_{a} \sum_{s} P(s|e, e') U(s, a)$$

- BUT E' is a random variable whose value is unknown, so we don't know what e' will be
- Expected value if E' is revealed and then we act:

$$\mathsf{MEU}(e, E') = \sum_{e'} P(e'|e) \mathsf{MEU}(e, e')$$

• Value of information: how much MEU goes up by revealing E' first then acting, over acting now:

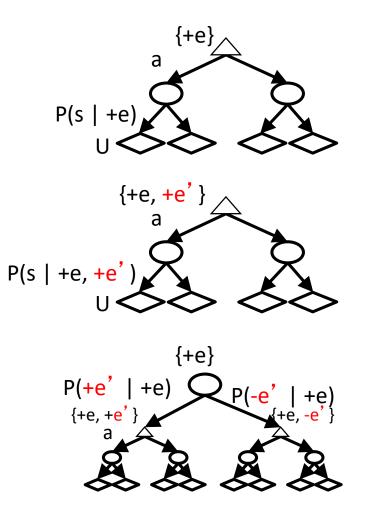
VPI(E'|e) = MEU(e, E') - MEU(e)



Value of Information 2

$$\mathsf{MEU}(e, E') = \sum_{e'} P(e'|e) \mathsf{MEU}(e, e')$$
$$= \sum_{e'} P(e'|e) \max_{a} \sum_{s} P(s|e, e') U(s, a)$$

$$MEU(e) = \max_{a} \sum_{s} P(s|e) U(s,a)$$
$$= \max_{a} \sum_{e'} \sum_{s} P(s,e'|e)U(s,a)$$
$$= \max_{a} \sum_{e'} P(e|e') \sum_{s} P(s|e,e')U(s,a)$$



VPI Properties

• Nonnegative $\forall E', e : VPI(E'|e) \ge 0$

Nonadditive

(think of observing E_i twice) VPI $(E_j, E_k | e) \neq$ VPI $(E_j | e) +$ VPI $(E_k | e)$

• Order-independent $VPI(E_j, E_k | e) = VPI(E_j | e) + VPI(E_k | e, E_j)$ $= VPI(E_k | e) + VPI(E_j | e, E_k)$



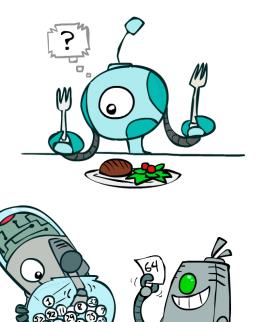




Quick VPI Questions

- The soup of the day is either clam chowder or split pea, but you wouldn't order either one. What's the value of knowing which it is?
- There are two kinds of plastic forks at a picnic. One kind is slightly sturdier. What's the value of knowing which?
- You' re playing the lottery. The prize will be \$0 or \$100. You can play any number between 1 and 100 (chance of winning is 1%). What is the value of knowing the winning number?





Value of Imperfect Information?

- No such thing
- Information corresponds to the observation of a node in the decision network
- If data is "noisy" that just means we don't observe the original variable, but another variable which is a noisy version of the original one

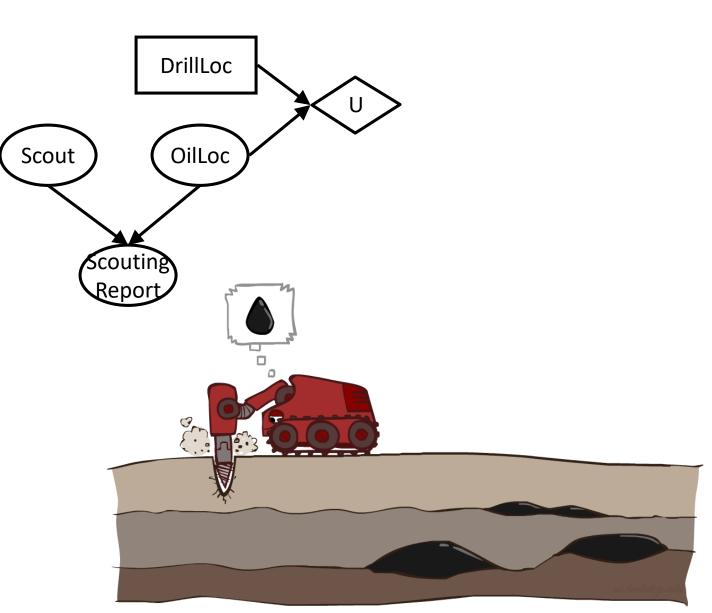


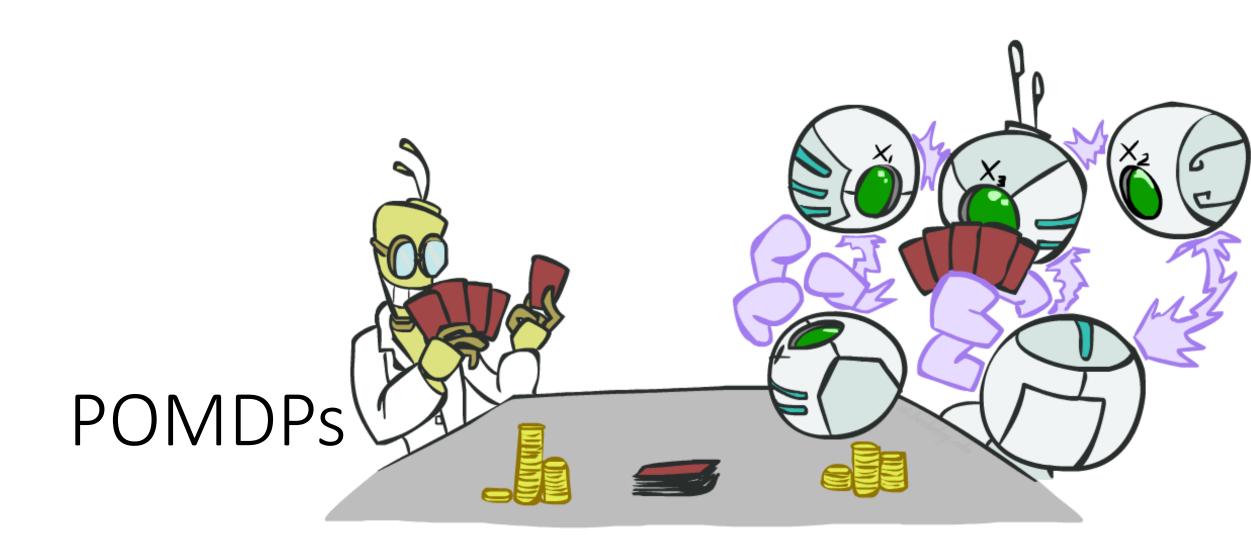
VPI Question

- VPI(OilLoc) ?
- VPI(ScoutingReport) ?
- VPI(Scout) ?
- VPI(Scout | ScoutingReport) ?

• Generally:

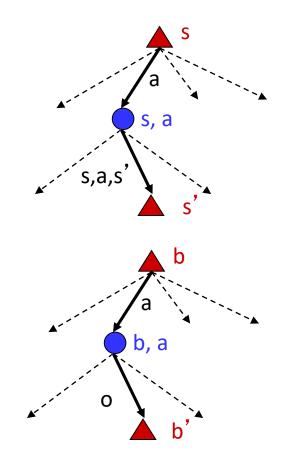
If Parents(U) || Z | CurrentEvidence Then VPI(Z | CurrentEvidence) = 0





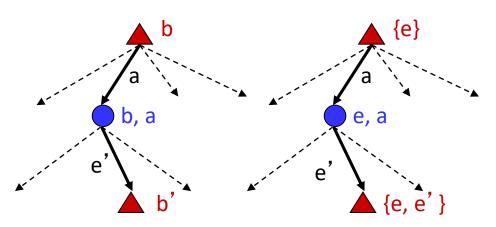
POMDPs

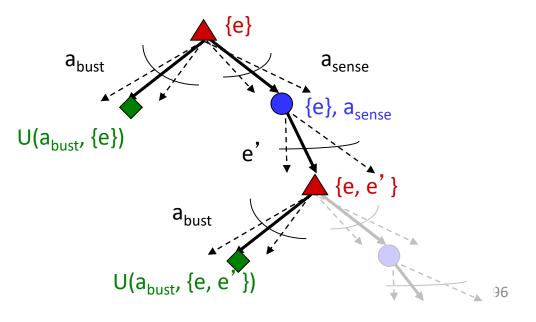
- MDPs have:
 - States S
 - Actions A
 - Transition function P(s' | s,a) (or T(s,a,s'))
 - Rewards R(s,a,s')
- POMDPs add:
 - Observations O
 - Observation function P(o|s) (or O(s,o))
- POMDPs are MDPs over belief states b (distributions over S)



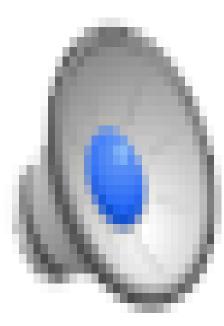
Example: Ghostbusters

- In (static) Ghostbusters:
 - Belief state determined by evidence to date {e}
 - Tree really over evidence sets
 - Probabilistic reasoning needed to predict new evidence given past evidence
- Solving POMDPs
 - One way: use truncated expectimax to compute approximate value of actions
 - What if you only considered busting or one sense followed by a bust?
 - You get a VPI-based agent!



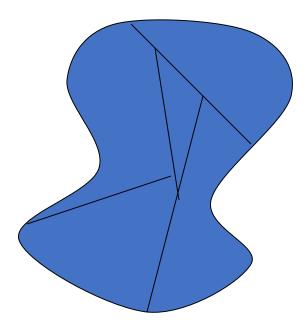


Video of Demo Ghostbusters with VPI



More Generally*

- General solutions map belief functions to actions
 - Can divide regions of belief space (set of belief functions) into policy regions (gets complex quickly)
 - Can build approximate policies using discretization methods
 - Can factor belief functions in various ways
- Overall, POMDPs are very hard
- Most real problems are POMDPs, but we can rarely solve then in general!



Summary

- Bayes rule
- Inference
- Variable Elimination
- Sampling
- Decision Networks

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Questions?