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Lecture 9: Uncertainty

Previously...

Search

- Path-based search
- Iterative improvement search

Logic

- Propositional Logic
- First Order Logic (FOL)

Uncertainty

Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight
Will A_t get me there on time?

Problems:

1) partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
2) noisy sensors (KCBS traffic reports)
3) uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
4) immense complexity of modelling and predicting traffic

Hence a purely logical approach either

1) risks falsehood: "A_{25} will get me there on time"

or 2) leads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making:

"A_{25} will get me there on time if there's no accident on the bridge and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact etc etc."

(A_{1440} might reasonably be said to get me there on time
but I'd have to stay overnight in the airport ...)

Methods for handling uncertainty

Default or nonmonotonic logic:

Assume my car does not have a flat tire

Assume A_{25} works unless contradicted by evidence

Issues: What assumptions are reasonable? How to handle contradiction?

Rules with fudge factors:

$A_{25} \mapsto_{0.3} AtAirportOnTime$

$Sprinkler \mapsto_{0.99} WetGrass$

$WetGrass \mapsto_{0.7} Rain$

Issues: Problems with combination, e.g., $Sprinkler$ causes $Rain$??

Probability

Given the available evidence,

A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04

Mahaviracarya (9th C.), Cardamo (1565) theory of gambling

Probability

Probability

Probabilistic assertions **summarize** effects of

laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:
Probabilities relate propositions to one's own state of knowledge

e.g., $P(A_{25} | \text{no reported accidents}) = 0.06$

These are **not** claims of a "probabilistic tendency" in the current situation (but might be learned from past experience of similar situations)

Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:

e.g., $P(A_{25} | \text{no reported accidents}, \text{5 a.m.}) = 0.15$

(Analogous to logical entailment status $KB \models \alpha$, not truth.)

Probability

car-goat-door guess

after your choice,
I will open one from the rest doors that has goat

Will you change your choice?

Making decisions under uncertainty

Suppose I believe the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(A_{25} \text{ gets me there on time}|\ldots) &= 0.04 \\
P(A_{90} \text{ gets me there on time}|\ldots) &= 0.70 \\
P(A_{120} \text{ gets me there on time}|\ldots) &= 0.95 \\
P(A_{1440} \text{ gets me there on time}|\ldots) &= 0.9999
\end{aligned}
$$

Which action to choose?

Depends on my preferences for missing flight vs. airport cuisine, etc.

Utility theory is used to represent and infer preferences

Decision theory $=$ utility theory $+$ probability theory

Probability basics

Begin with a set Ω—the sample space

e.g., 6 possible rolls of a die.

$\omega \in \Omega$ is a sample point/possible world/atomic event

A probability space or probability model is a sample space with an assignment $P(\omega)$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ s.t.

$0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$

$\Sigma_\omega P(\omega) = 1$

e.g., $P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6$.

An event A is any subset of Ω

$$P(A) = \Sigma_{\{\omega \in A\}} P(\omega)$$

E.g., $P(\text{die roll} < 4) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$

Random variables

A random variable is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the reals or Booleans

e.g., $Odd(1) = true$.

P induces a probability distribution for any r.v. X:

$$P(X = x_i) = \Sigma_{\{\omega : X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

e.g., $P(Odd = true) = P(1) + P(3) + P(5) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$

Propositions

Think of a proposition as the event (set of sample points) where the proposition is true

Given Boolean random variables A and B:

event a = set of sample points where $A(\omega) = true$

event $\neg a$ = set of sample points where $A(\omega) = false$

event $a \land b$ = points where $A(\omega) = true$ and $B(\omega) = true$

Often in AI applications, the sample points are **defined** by the values of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian product of the ranges of the variables

With Boolean variables, sample point = propositional logic model

e.g., $A = true$, $B = false$, or $a \land \neg b$.

Proposition = disjunction of atomic events in which it is true

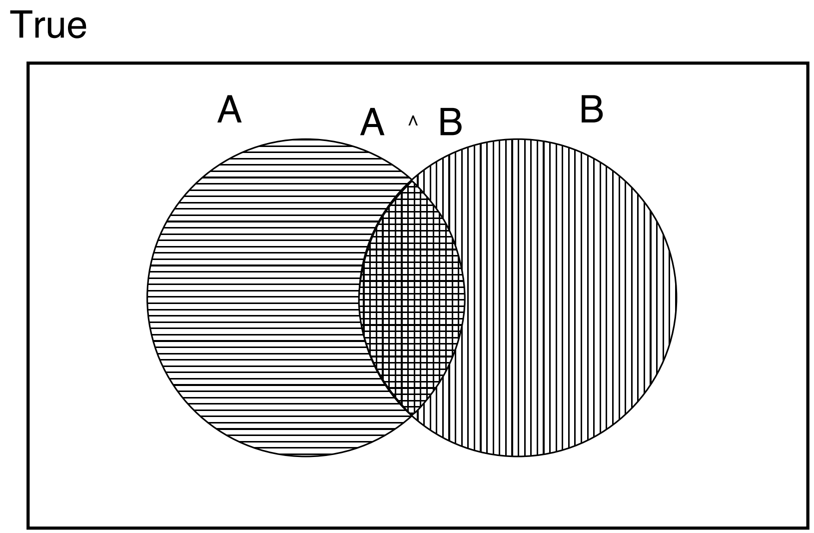
e.g., $(a \lor b) \equiv (\neg a \land b) \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor (a \land b)$

$\Rightarrow P(a \lor b) = P(\neg a \land b) + P(a \land \neg b) + P(a \land b)$

Why use probability?

The definitions imply that certain logically related events must have related probabilities

E.g., $P(a \vee b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \wedge b)$



de Finetti (1931): an agent who bets according to probabilities that violate these axioms can be forced to bet so as to lose money regardless of outcome.

Syntax for propositions

Propositional or Boolean random variables

e.g., $Cavity$ (do I have a cavity?)

$Cavity = true$ is a proposition, also written $cavity$

Discrete random variables (finite or infinite)

e.g., $Weather$ is one of $\langle sunny, rain, cloudy, snow \rangle$

$Weather = rain$ is a proposition

Values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive

Continuous random variables (bounded or unbounded)

e.g., $Temp = 21.6$; also allow, e.g., $Temp < 22.0$.

Arbitrary Boolean combinations of basic propositions

Prior probability

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g., $P(Cavity = true) = 0.1$ and $P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72$

correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments:

$\mathbf{P}(Weather) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$ (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)

Joint probability distribution for a set of r.v.s gives the probability of every atomic event on those r.v.s (i.e., every sample point)

$\mathbf{P}(Weather, Cavity) =$ a 4×2 matrix of values:

$Weather =$	$sunny$	$rain$	$cloudy$	$snow$
$Cavity = true$	0.144	0.02	0.016	0.02
$Cavity = false$	0.576	0.08	0.064	0.08

Every question about a domain can be answered by the joint distribution because every event is a sum of sample points

Conditional probability

Conditional or posterior probabilities

e.g., $P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8$

i.e., **given that** $toothache$ **is all I know**

NOT "if $toothache$ then 80% chance of $cavity$"

(Notation for conditional distributions:

$\mathbf{P}(Cavity|Toothache)$ = 2-element vector of 2-element vectors)

If we know more, e.g., $cavity$ is also given, then we have

$P(cavity|toothache, cavity) = 1$

Note: the less specific belief **remains valid** after more evidence arrives, but is not always **useful**

New evidence may be irrelevant, allowing simplification, e.g.,

$P(cavity|toothache, 49ersWin) = P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8$

This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

Conditional probability

Definition of conditional probability:

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \text{ if } P(b) \neq 0$$

Product rule gives an alternative formulation:

$$P(a \land b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$$

A general version holds for whole distributions, e.g.,

$$\mathbf{P}(Weather, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Weather|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$$

(View as a 4×2 set of equations, **not** matrix mult.)

Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_n) &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1})\ \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_{n-2})\ \mathbf{P}(X_{n_1}|X_1, \ldots, X_{n-2})\ \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \ldots \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}(X_i|X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1})\end{aligned}$$

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ *toothache*	
	catch	¬ *catch*	*catch*	¬ *catch*
cavity	**.108**	**.012**	**.072**	**.008**
¬ *cavity*	**.016**	**.064**	**.144**	**.576**

For any proposition ϕ, sum the atomic events where it is true:

$P(\phi) = \Sigma_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$

Inference by enumeration

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	toothache		¬ *toothache*	
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For any proposition ϕ, sum the atomic events where it is true:

$P(\phi) = \Sigma_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$

$P(toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2$

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ *toothache*	
	catch	¬ *catch*	*catch*	¬ *catch*
cavity	**.108**	**.012**	**.072**	**.008**
¬ *cavity*	**.016**	**.064**	**.144**	**.576**

For any proposition ϕ, sum the atomic events where it is true:

$P(\phi) = \Sigma_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$

$P(cavity \lor toothache) = 0.108+0.012+0.072+0.008+0.016+0.064 = 0.28$

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ *toothache*	
	catch	¬ *catch*	*catch*	¬ *catch*
cavity	**.108**	**.012**	**.072**	**.008**
¬ *cavity*	**.016**	**.064**	**.144**	**.576**

Can also compute conditional probabilities:

$$P(\neg cavity | toothache) = \frac{P(\neg cavity \wedge toothache)}{P(toothache)}$$

$$= \frac{0.016 + 0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064} = 0.4$$

Normalization

	toothache		*¬ toothache*	
	catch	*¬ catch*	*catch*	*¬ catch*
cavity	**.108**	**.012**	**.072**	**.008**
¬ cavity	**.016**	**.064**	**.144**	**.576**

Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

$$\mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache) = \alpha\,\mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache)$$
$$= \alpha\,[\mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache, catch) + \mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache, \neg catch)]$$
$$= \alpha\,[\langle 0.108, 0.016\rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064\rangle]$$
$$= \alpha\,\langle 0.12, 0.08\rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4\rangle$$

General idea: compute distribution on query variable
by fixing evidence variables and summing over hidden variables

Inference by enumeration, contd.

Let $\mathbf{X}$ be all the variables. Typically, we want
the posterior joint distribution of the query variables $\mathbf{Y}$
given specific values $\mathbf{e}$ for the evidence variables $\mathbf{E}$

Let the hidden variables be $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{E}$

Then the required summation of joint entries is done by summing out the hidden variables:

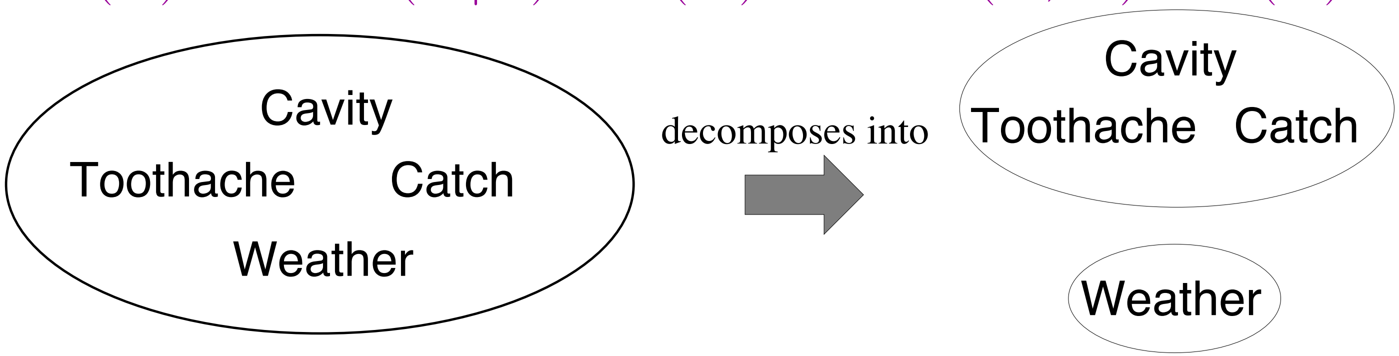
$$\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e}) = \alpha\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e}) = \alpha\Sigma_{\mathbf{h}}\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{Y},\mathbf{E}=\mathbf{e},\mathbf{H}=\mathbf{h})$$

The terms in the summation are joint entries because $\mathbf{Y}$, $\mathbf{E}$, and $\mathbf{H}$ together exhaust the set of random variables

Obvious problems:
1) Worst-case time complexity $O(d^n)$ where d is the largest arity
2) Space complexity $O(d^n)$ to store the joint distribution
3) How to find the numbers for $O(d^n)$ entries???

Independence

A and B are independent iff
$\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A)$ or $\mathbf{P}(B|A) = \mathbf{P}(B)$ or $\mathbf{P}(A, B) = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$



$$\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity, Weather)$$
$$= \mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Weather)$$

32 entries reduced to 12; for n independent biased coins, $2^n \rightarrow n$

Absolute independence powerful but rare

Dentistry is a large field with hundreds of variables,
none of which are independent. What to do?

Conditional independence

$\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Cavity, Catch)$ has $2^3 - 1 = 7$ independent entries

If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:

(1) $P(catch|toothache, cavity) = P(catch|cavity)$

The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:

(2) $P(catch|toothache, \neg cavity) = P(catch|\neg cavity)$

$Catch$ is conditionally independent of $Toothache$ given $Cavity$:

$\mathbf{P}(Catch|Toothache, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)$

Equivalent statements:

$\mathbf{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)$

$\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch|Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)$

Conditional independence

Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:

$$\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)$$
$$= \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch, Cavity)$$
$$= \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$$
$$= \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$$

I.e., $2 + 2 + 1 = 5$ independent numbers (equations 1 and 2 remove 2)

In most cases, the use of conditional independence reduces the size of the representation of the joint distribution from exponential in n to linear in n.

Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.

Bayes' Rule

Product rule $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

$\Rightarrow$ Bayes' rule $P(a|b) = \frac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)}$

or in distribution form

$$\mathbf{P}(Y|X) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(X|Y)\mathbf{P}(Y)}{\mathbf{P}(X)} = \alpha\mathbf{P}(X|Y)\mathbf{P}(Y)$$

Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability:

$$P(Cause|Effect) = \frac{P(Effect|Cause)P(Cause)}{P(Effect)}$$

E.g., let M be meningitis, S be stiff neck:

$$P(m|s) = \frac{P(s|m)P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.1} = 0.0008$$

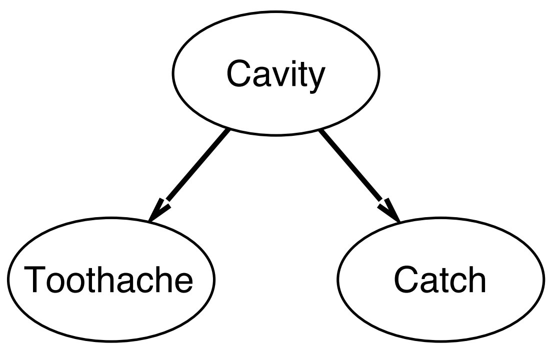
Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

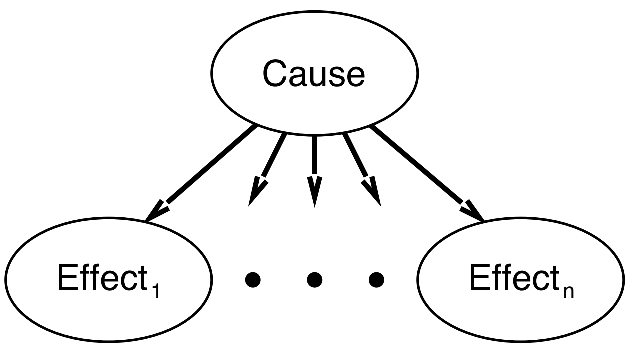
Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

$$\mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache \wedge catch)$$
$$= \alpha\,\mathbf{P}(toothache \wedge catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$$
$$= \alpha\,\mathbf{P}(toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$$

This is an example of a naive Bayes model:

$$\mathbf{P}(Cause, Effect_1, \ldots, Effect_n) = \mathbf{P}(Cause)\Pi_i\mathbf{P}(Effect_i|Cause)$$





Total number of parameters is **linear** in n

Bayesian networks

Bayesian networks

A simple, graphical notation for conditional independence assertions and hence for compact specification of full joint distributions

Syntax:

a set of nodes, one per variable

a directed, acyclic graph (link $\approx$ "directly influences")

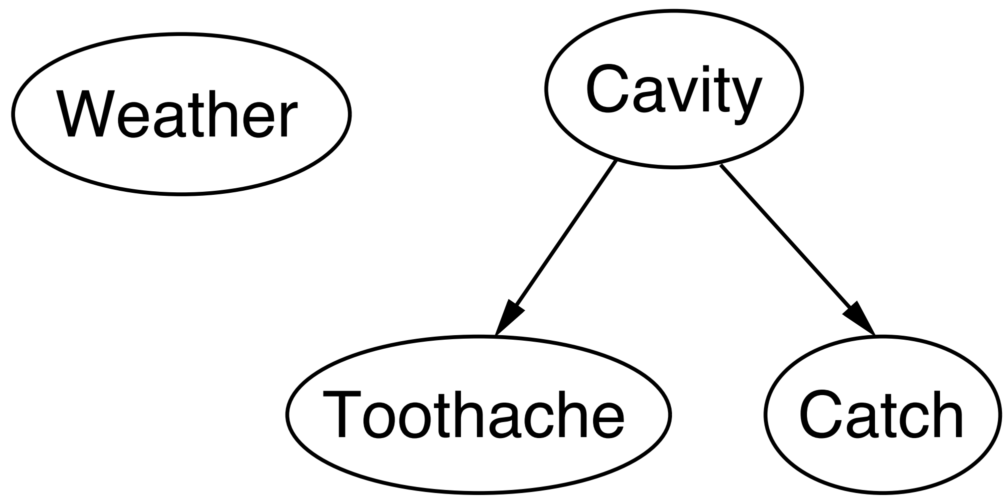
a conditional distribution for each node given its parents:

$$\mathbf{P}(X_i|Parents(X_i))$$

In the simplest case, conditional distribution represented as a conditional probability table (CPT) giving the distribution over X_i for each combination of parent values

Example

Topology of network encodes conditional independence assertions:



$Weather$ is independent of the other variables

$Toothache$ and $Catch$ are conditionally independent given $Cavity$

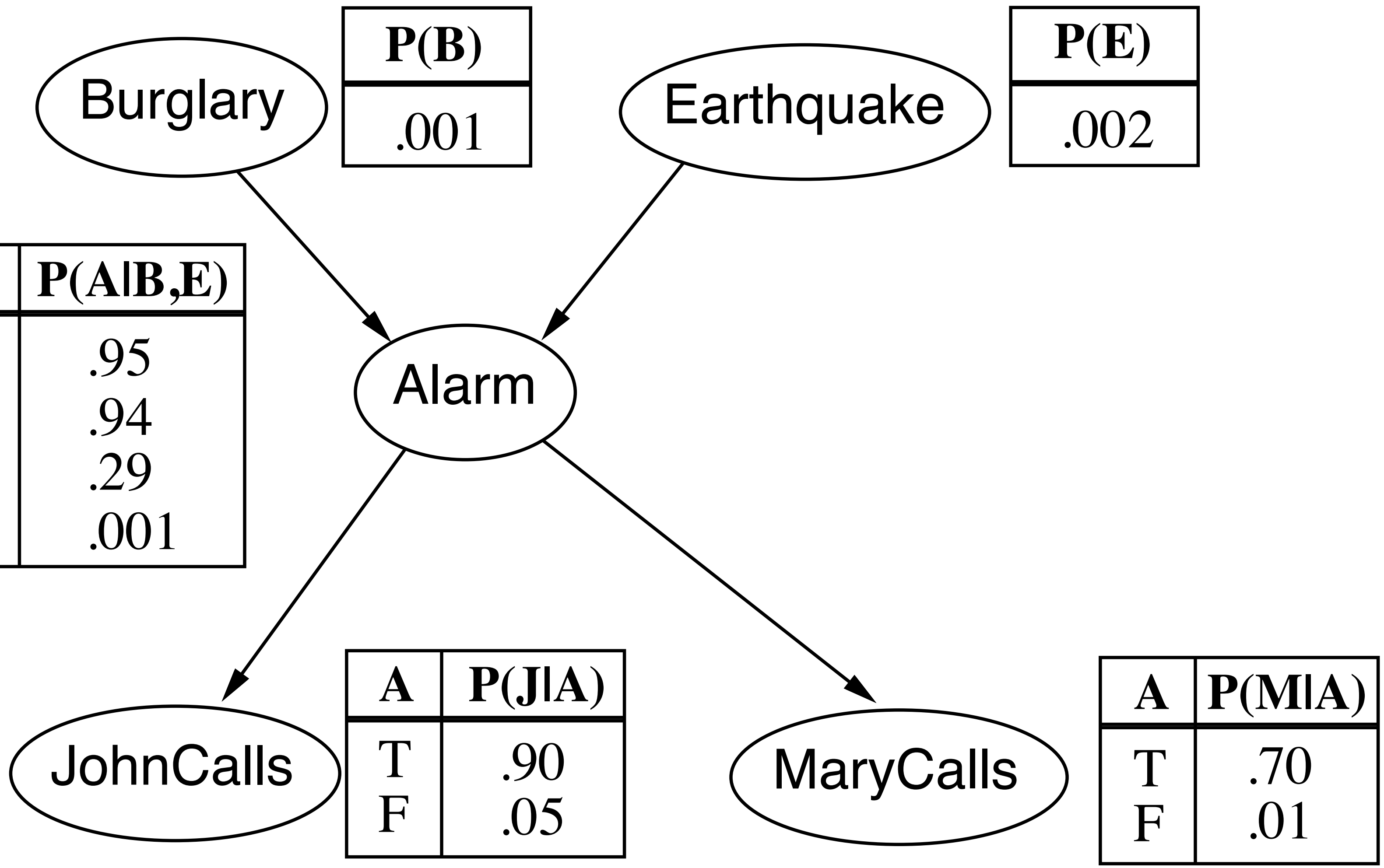
Example

I'm at work, neighbor John calls to say my alarm is ringing, but neighbor Mary doesn't call. Sometimes it's set off by minor earthquakes. Is there a burglar?

Variables: $Burglar$, $Earthquake$, $Alarm$, $JohnCalls$, $MaryCalls$
Network topology reflects "causal" knowledge:

- A burglar can set the alarm off
- An earthquake can set the alarm off
- The alarm can cause Mary to call
- The alarm can cause John to call

Example



P(B)
.001

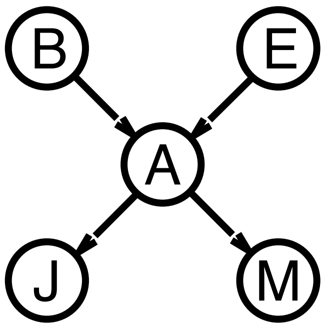
P(E)
.002

B	E	P(A|B,E)
T	T	.95
T	F	.94
F	T	.29
F	F	.001

A	P(J|A)
T	.90
F	.05

A	P(M|A)
T	.70
F	.01

Compactness



A CPT for Boolean X_i with k Boolean parents has 2^k rows for the combinations of parent values

Each row requires one number p for $X_i = true$ (the number for $X_i = false$ is just $1 - p$)

If each variable has no more than k parents, the complete network requires $O(n \cdot 2^k)$ numbers

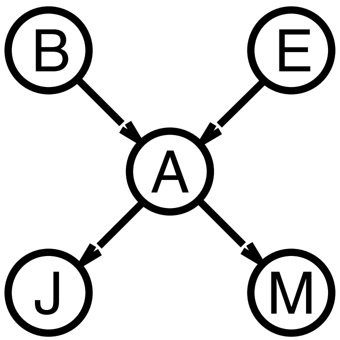
I.e., grows linearly with n, vs. $O(2^n)$ for the full joint distribution

For burglary net, $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$ numbers (vs. $2^5 - 1 = 31$)

Global semantics

"Global" semantics defines the full joint distribution as the product of the local conditional distributions:

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

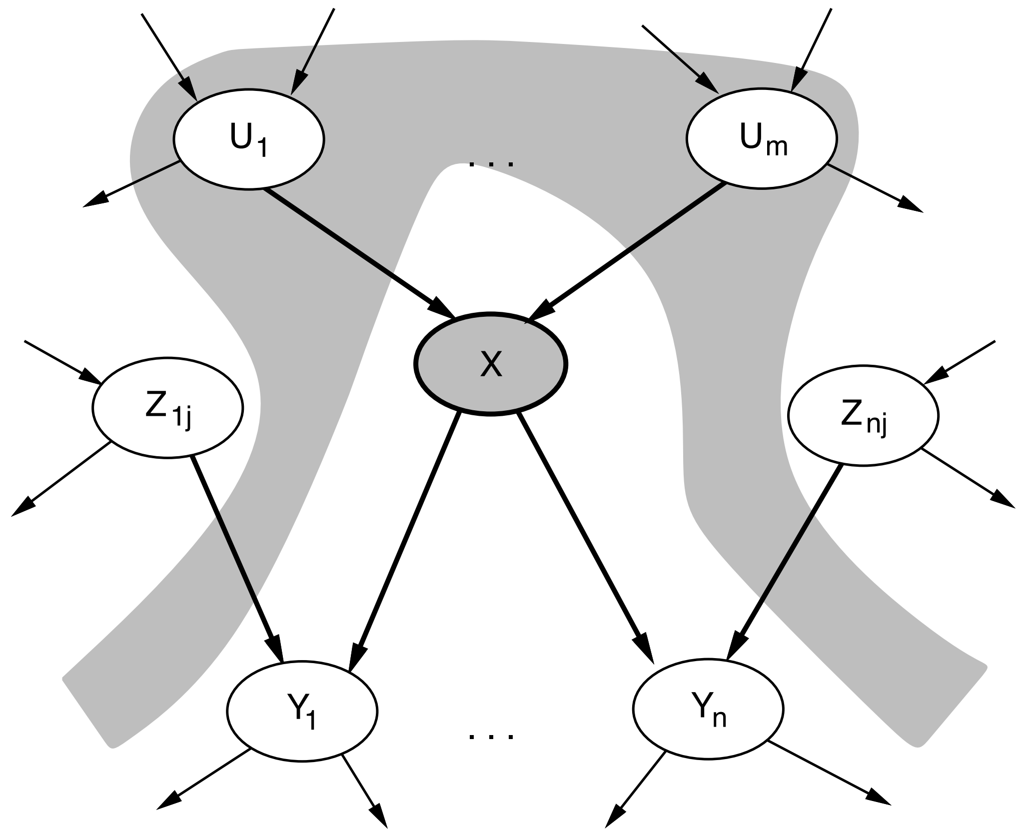


e.g., $P(j \wedge m \wedge a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg e)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= P(j|a)P(m|a)P(a|\neg b, \neg e)P(\neg b)P(\neg e) \\ &= 0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998 \\ &\approx 0.00063 \end{aligned}$$

Local semantics

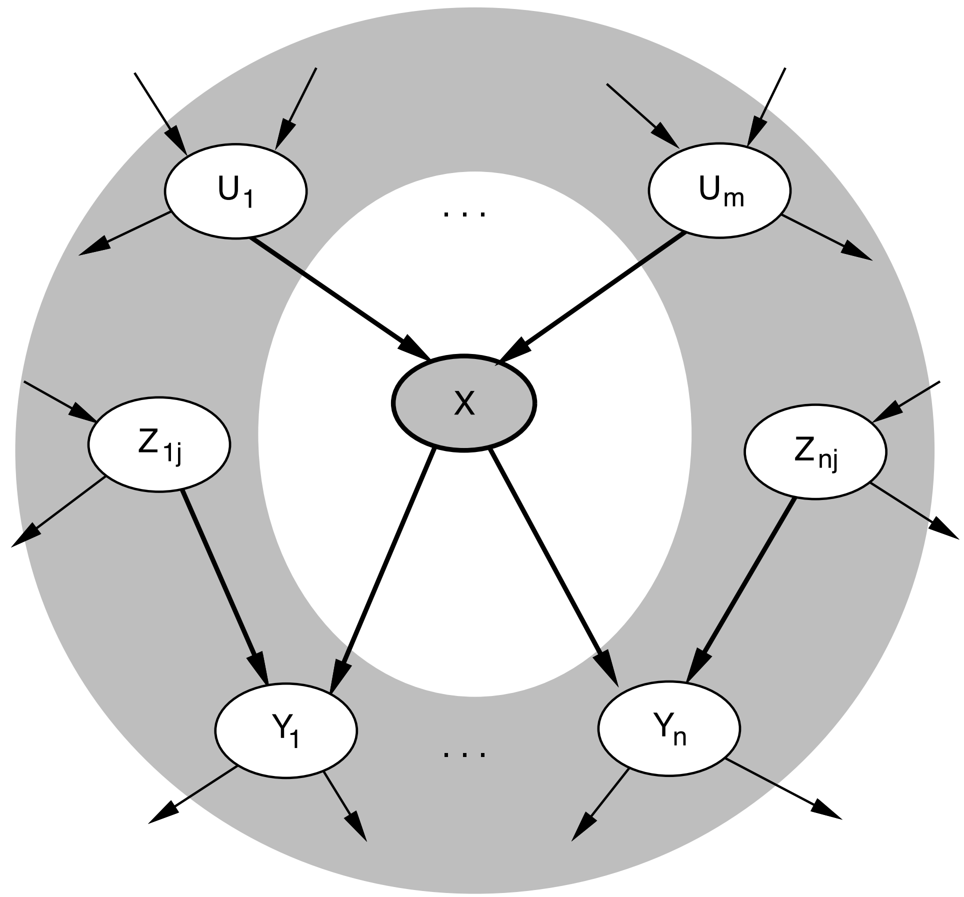
Local semantics: each node is conditionally independent of its nondescendants given its parents



Theorem: Local semantics $\Leftrightarrow$ global semantics

Markov blanket

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



Constructing Bayesian networks

Need a method such that a series of locally testable assertions of conditional independence guarantees the required global semantics

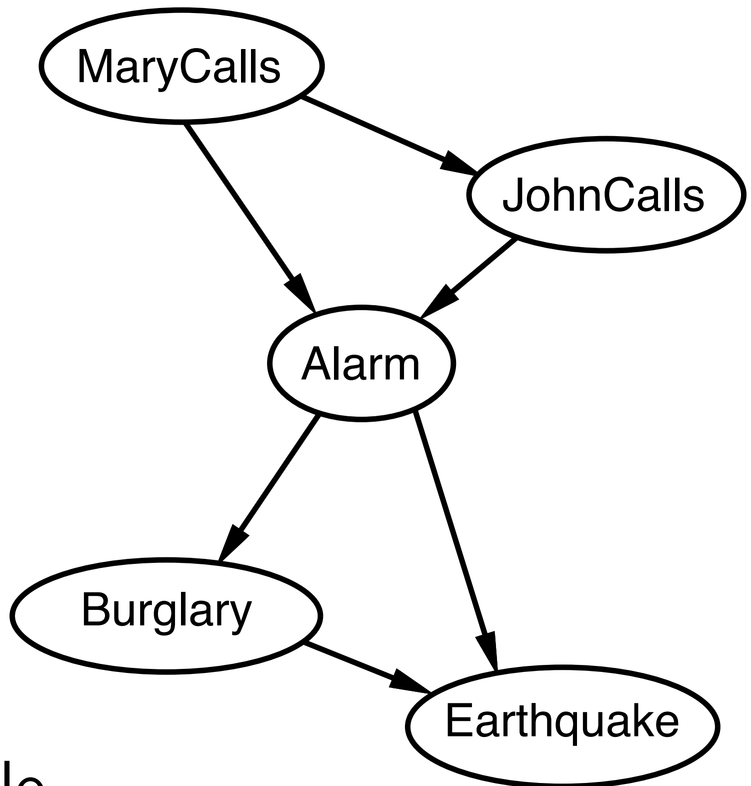
1. Choose an ordering of variables $X_1, \ldots, X_n$
2. For $i = 1$ to n
   add X_i to the network
   select parents from $X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}$ such that
   $$\mathbf{P}(X_i | Parents(X_i)) = \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1})$$

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}) \quad \text{(chain rule)} \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}(X_i | Parents(X_i)) \quad \text{(by construction)} \end{aligned}$$

Example

Suppose we choose the ordering M, J, A, B, E



$P(J|M) = P(J)$? No

$P(A|J,M) = P(A|J)$? $P(A|J,M) = P(A)$? No

$P(B|A,J,M) = P(B|A)$? Yes

$P(B|A,J,M) = P(B)$? No

$P(E|B,A,J,M) = P(E|A)$? No

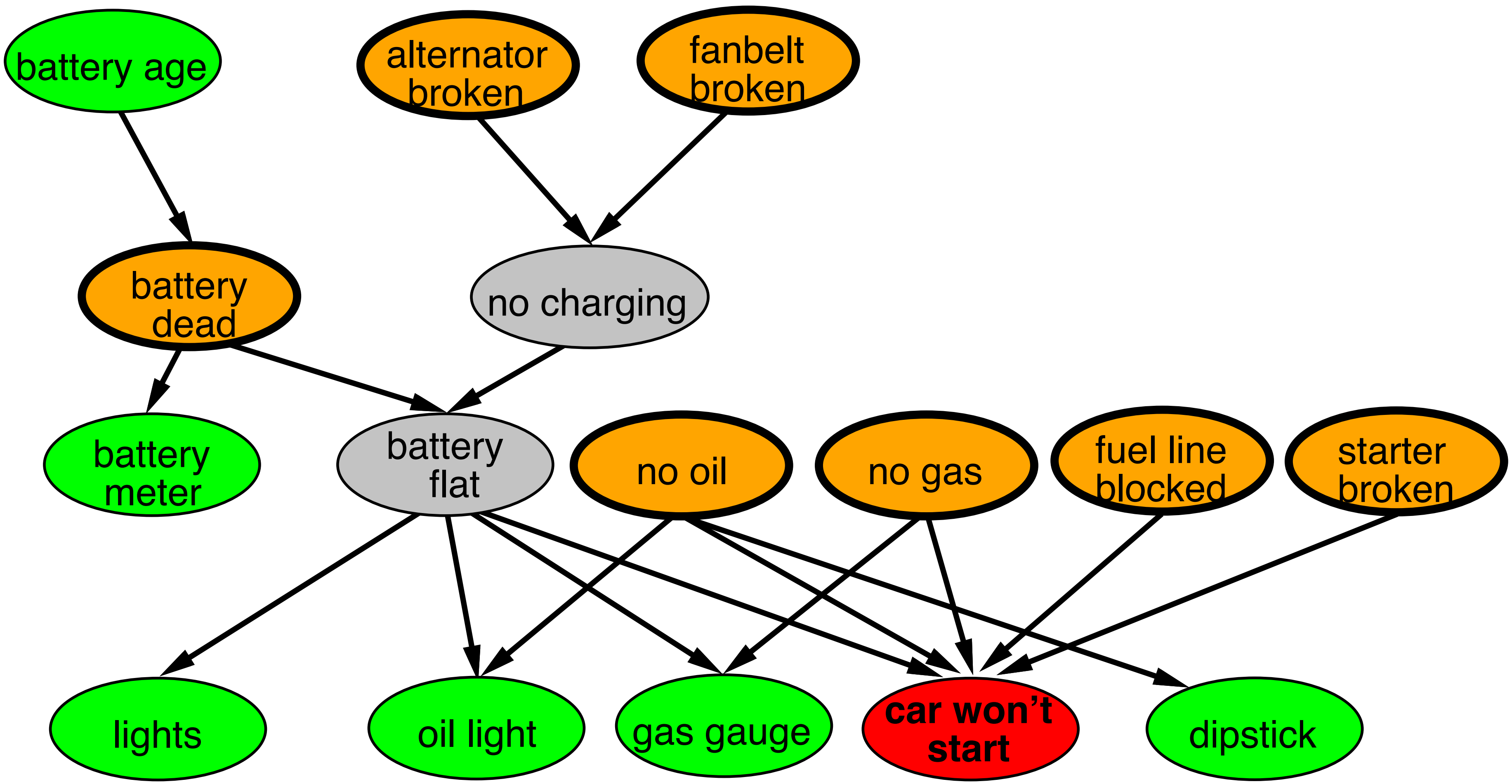
$P(E|B,A,J,M) = P(E|A,B)$? Yes

Example: Car diagnosis

Initial evidence: car won't start

Testable variables (green), "broken, so fix it" variables (orange)

Hidden variables (gray) ensure sparse structure, reduce parameters



Compact conditional distributions

CPT grows exponentially with number of parents
CPT becomes infinite with continuous-valued parent or child

Solution: canonical distributions that are defined compactly

Deterministic nodes are the simplest case:
$X = f(Parents(X))$ for some function f

E.g., Boolean functions
$NorthAmerican \Leftrightarrow Canadian \lor US \lor Mexican$

E.g., numerical relationships among continuous variables

$$\frac{\partial Level}{\partial t} = \text{inflow + precipitation - outflow - evaporation}$$

Compact conditional distributions contd.

Noisy-OR distributions model multiple noninteracting causes

1) Parents $U_1 \ldots U_k$ include all causes (can add leak node)

2) Independent failure probability q_i for each cause alone

$$\Rightarrow P(X|U_1 \ldots U_j, \neg U_{j+1} \ldots \neg U_k) = 1 - \Pi_{i=1}^{j} q_i$$

$Cold$	Flu	$Malaria$	$P(Fever)$	$P(\neg Fever)$
F	F	F	**0.0**	1.0
F	F	T	0.9	**0.1**
F	T	F	0.8	**0.2**
F	T	T	0.98	$0.02 = 0.2 \times 0.1$
T	F	F	0.4	**0.6**
T	F	T	0.94	$0.06 = 0.6 \times 0.1$
T	T	F	0.88	$0.12 = 0.6 \times 0.2$
T	T	T	0.988	$0.012 = 0.6 \times 0.2 \times 0.1$

Number of parameters **linear** in number of parents

Inference in Bayesian networks

Inference tasks

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

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

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

Value of information: which evidence to seek next?

Sensitivity analysis: which probability values are most critical?

Explanation: why do I need a new starter motor?

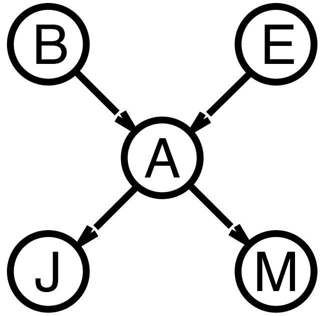
Exact inference

Inference by enumeration

Slightly intelligent way to sum out variables from the joint without actually constructing its explicit representation

Simple query on the burglary network:

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



Rewrite full joint entries using product of CPT entries:

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

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

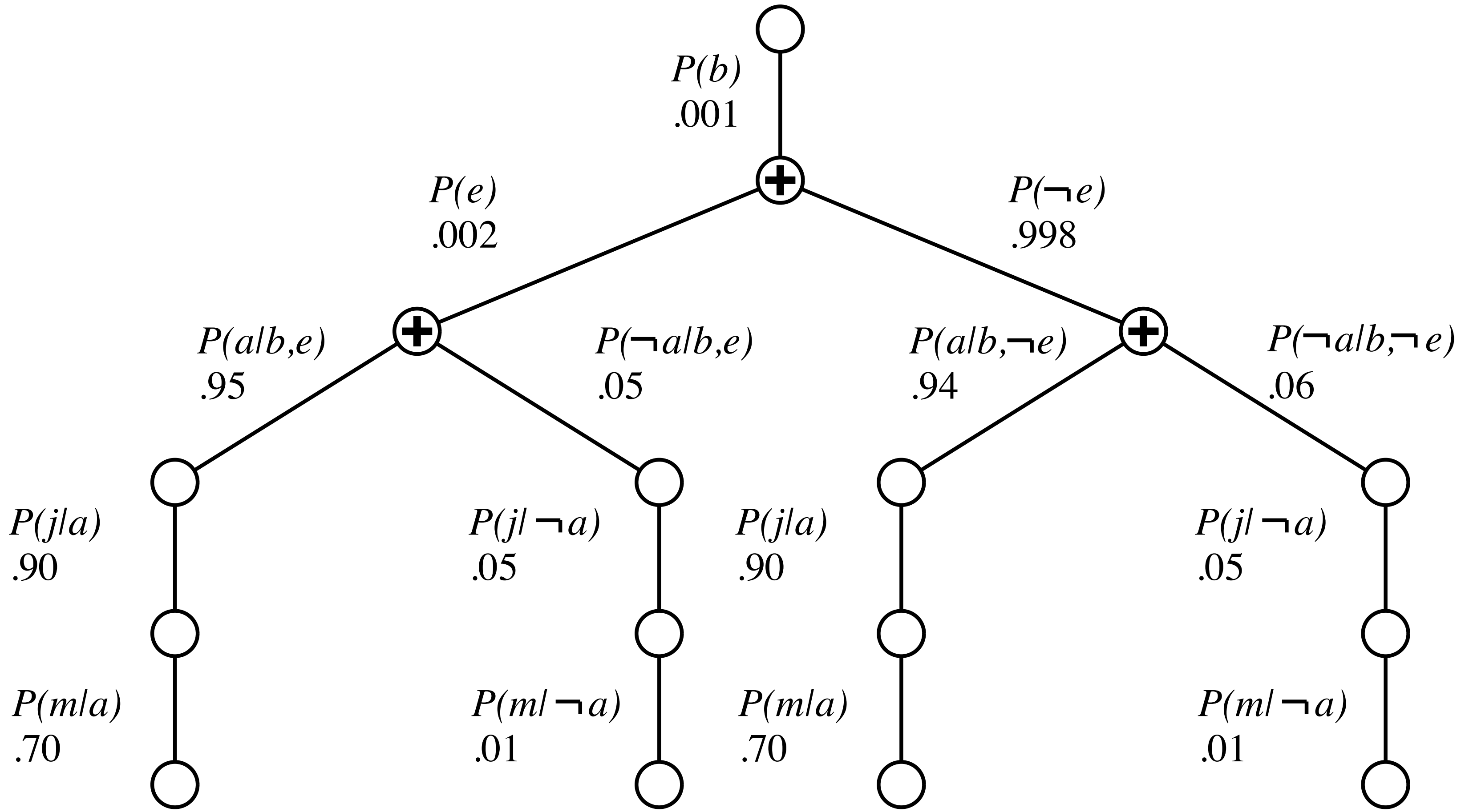
Enumeration algorithm

```
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} ∪ E ∪ Y

    Q(X) ← a distribution over X, initially empty
    for each value x_i of X do
        extend e with value x_i for X
        Q(x_i) ← ENUMERATE-ALL(VARS[bn], e)
    return NORMALIZE(Q(X))
```

```
function ENUMERATE-ALL(vars, e) returns a real number
    if EMPTY?(vars) then return 1.0
    Y ← FIRST(vars)
    if Y has value y in e
        then return P(y | Pa(Y)) × ENUMERATE-ALL(REST(vars), e)
        else return Σ_y P(y | Pa(Y)) × ENUMERATE-ALL(REST(vars), e_y)
            where e_y is e extended with Y = y
```

Evaluation tree



Enumeration is inefficient: repeated computation

e.g., computes $P(j|a)P(m|a)$ for each value of e

Inference by variable elimination

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{P}(B|j,m) & \\
&= \alpha \underbrace{\mathbf{P}(B)}_{B} \textstyle\sum_e \underbrace{P(e)}_{E} \textstyle\sum_a \underbrace{\mathbf{P}(a|B,e)}_{A} \underbrace{P(j|a)}_{J} \underbrace{P(m|a)}_{M} \\
&= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \textstyle\sum_e P(e) \textstyle\sum_a \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) P(j|a) f_M(a) \\
&= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \textstyle\sum_e P(e) \textstyle\sum_a \mathbf{P}(a|B,e) f_J(a) f_M(a) \\
&= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \textstyle\sum_e P(e) \textstyle\sum_a f_A(a,b,e) f_J(a) f_M(a) \\
&= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) \textstyle\sum_e P(e) f_{\bar{A}JM}(b,e) \text{ (sum out } A\text{)} \\
&= \alpha \mathbf{P}(B) f_{\bar{E}\bar{A}JM}(b) \text{ (sum out } E\text{)} \\
&= \alpha f_B(b) \times f_{\bar{E}\bar{A}JM}(b)
\end{aligned}
$$

Variable elimination: Basic operations

Summing out a variable from a product of factors:

move any constant factors outside the summation

add up submatrices in pointwise product of remaining factors

$$\Sigma_x f_1 \times \cdots \times f_k = f_1 \times \cdots \times f_i \, \Sigma_x \, f_{i+1} \times \cdots \times f_k = f_1 \times \cdots \times f_i \times f_{\bar{X}}$$

assuming $f_1, \ldots, f_i$ do not depend on X

Pointwise product of factors f_1 and f_2:

$$f_1(x_1, \ldots, x_j, y_1, \ldots, y_k) \times f_2(y_1, \ldots, y_k, z_1, \ldots, z_l)$$
$$= f(x_1, \ldots, x_j, y_1, \ldots, y_k, z_1, \ldots, z_l)$$

E.g., $f_1(a, b) \times f_2(b, c) = f(a, b, c)$

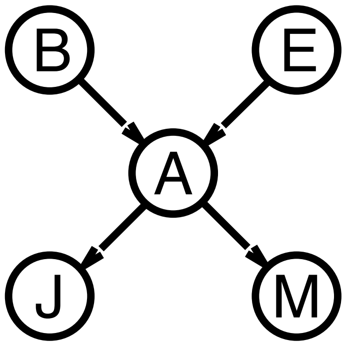
Variable elimination algorithm

function ELIMINATION-ASK($X, \mathbf{e}, bn$) **returns** a distribution over X
  inputs: X, the query variable
    $\mathbf{e}$, evidence specified as an event
    bn, a belief network specifying joint distribution $\mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$

  $factors \leftarrow [\,]$; $vars \leftarrow$ REVERSE(VARS[bn])
  for each var **in** $vars$ **do**
    $factors \leftarrow$ [MAKE-FACTOR($var, \mathbf{e}$)|$factors$]
    if var is a hidden variable **then** $factors \leftarrow$ SUM-OUT($var, factors$)
  return NORMALIZE(POINTWISE-PRODUCT($factors$))

Irrelevant variables

Consider the query $P(JohnCalls|Burglary = true)$



$$P(J|b) = \alpha P(b) \sum_e P(e) \sum_a P(a|b,e) P(J|a) \sum_m P(m|a)$$

Sum over m is identically 1; M is **irrelevant** to the query

Thm 1: Y is irrelevant unless $Y \in Ancestors(\{X\} \cup \mathbf{E})$

Here, $X = JohnCalls$, $\mathbf{E} = \{Burglary\}$, and
$Ancestors(\{X\} \cup \mathbf{E}) = \{Alarm, Earthquake\}$
so $MaryCalls$ is irrelevant

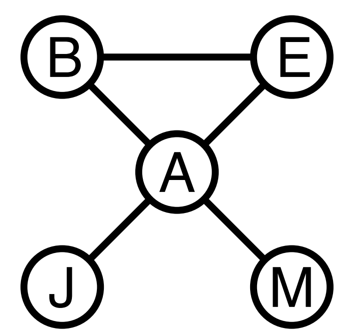
(Compare this to backward chaining from the query in Horn clause KBs)

Irrelevant variables contd.

Defn: moral graph of Bayes net: marry all parents and drop arrows

Defn: $\mathbf{A}$ is m-separated from $\mathbf{B}$ by $\mathbf{C}$ iff separated by $\mathbf{C}$ in the moral graph

Thm 2: Y is irrelevant if m-separated from X by $\mathbf{E}$

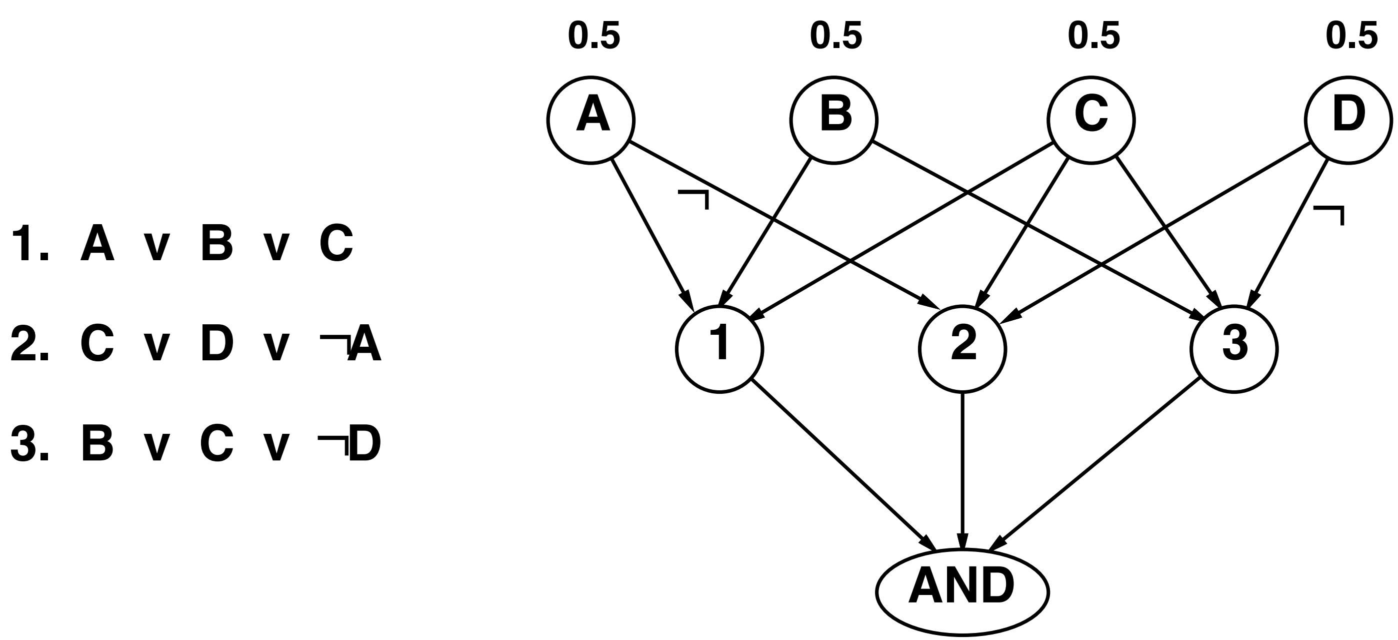


For $P(JohnCalls|Alarm = true)$, both $Burglary$ and $Earthquake$ are irrelevant

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 $\Rightarrow$ NP-hard
- equivalent to **counting** 3SAT models $\Rightarrow$ #P-complete

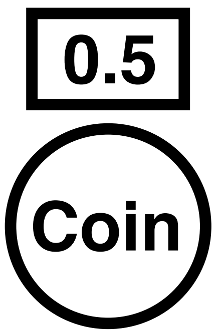


Approximate inference

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

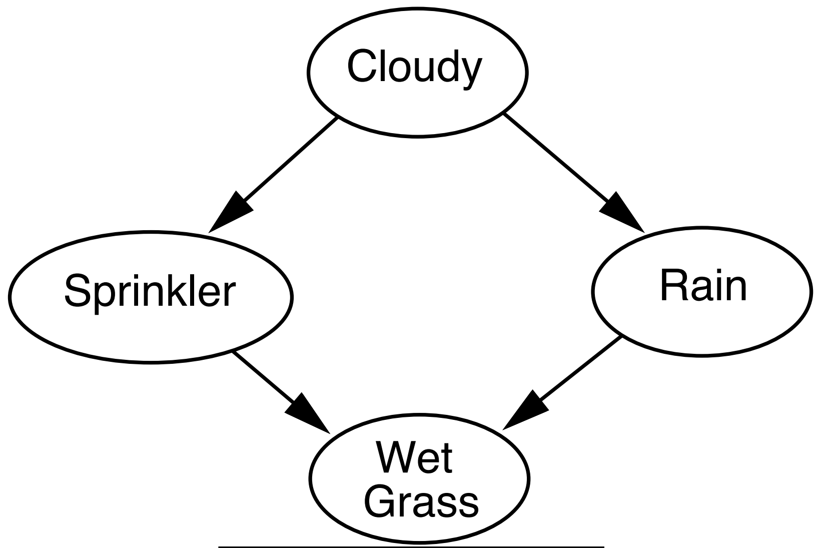


Outline:

– Sampling from an empty network
– Rejection sampling: reject samples disagreeing with evidence
– Likelihood weighting: use evidence to weight samples
– Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC): sample from a stochastic process whose stationary distribution is the true posterior

Sampling from an empty network

P(C)
.50

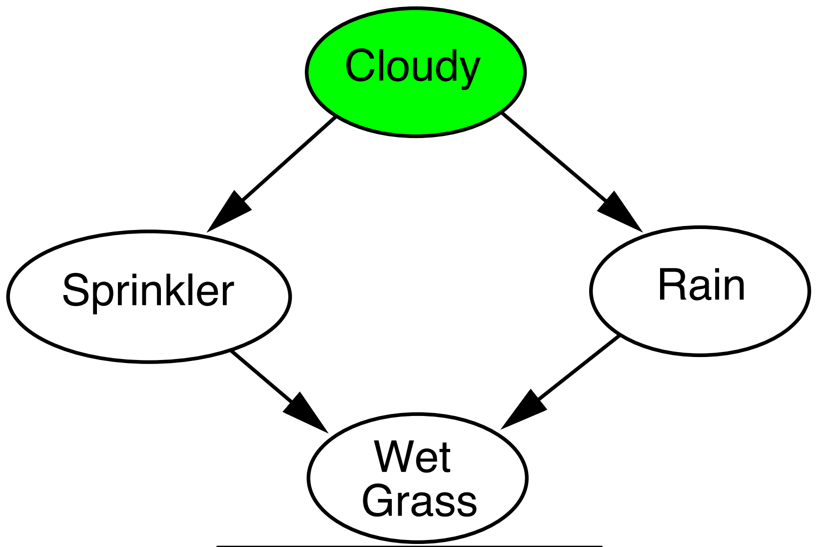


C	P(S|C)
T	.10
F	.50

C	P(R|C)
T	.80
F	.20

S	R	P(W|S,R)
T	T	.99
T	F	.90
F	T	.90
F	F	.01

Sampling from an empty network



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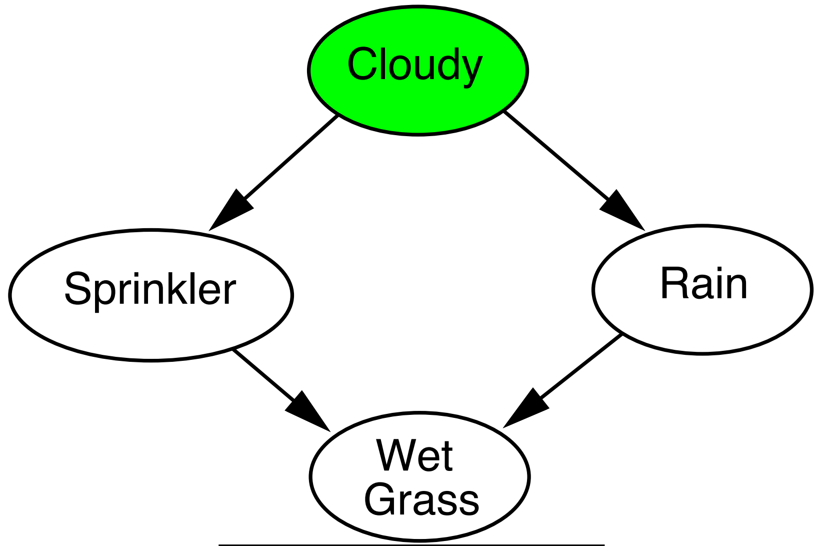

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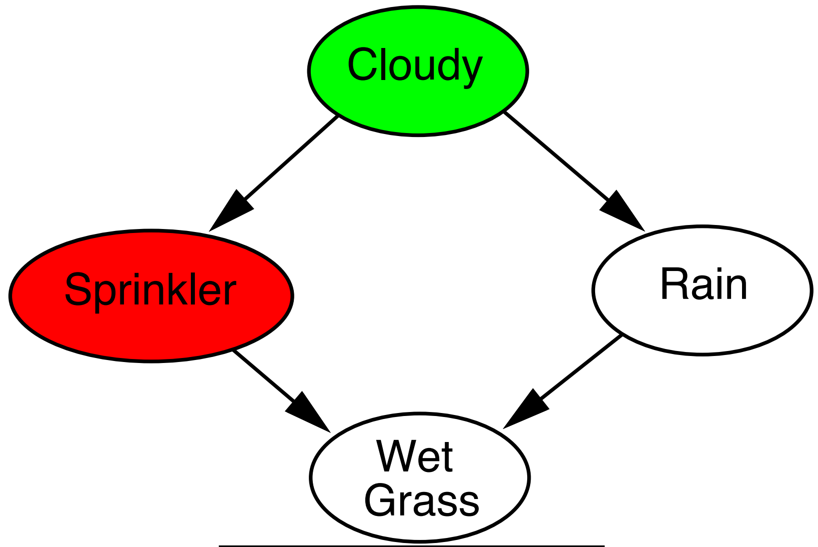

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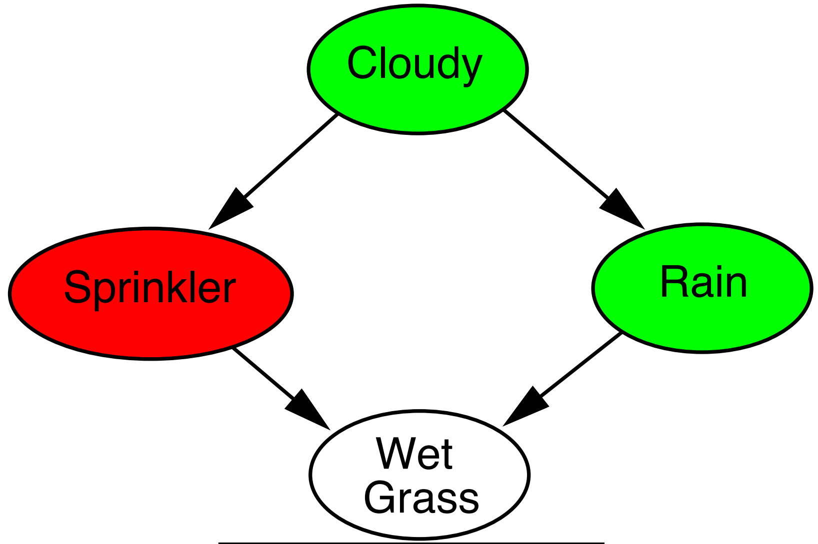

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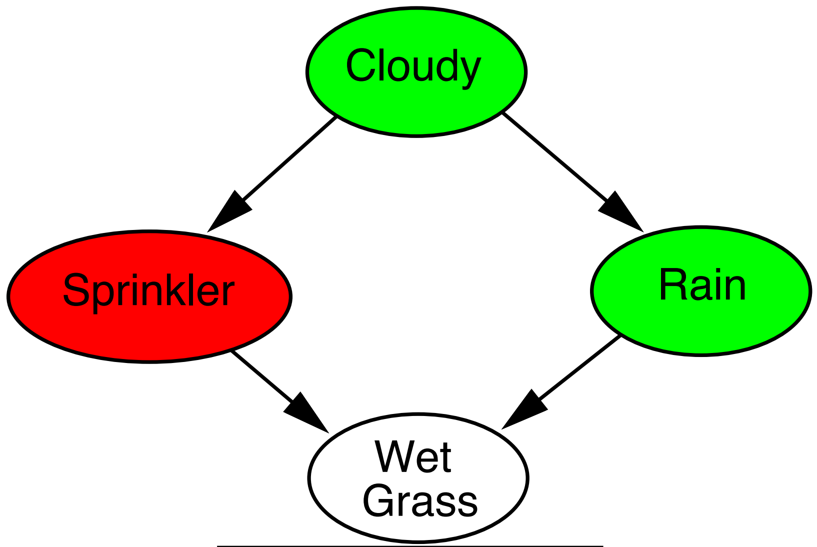

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Sampling from an empty network

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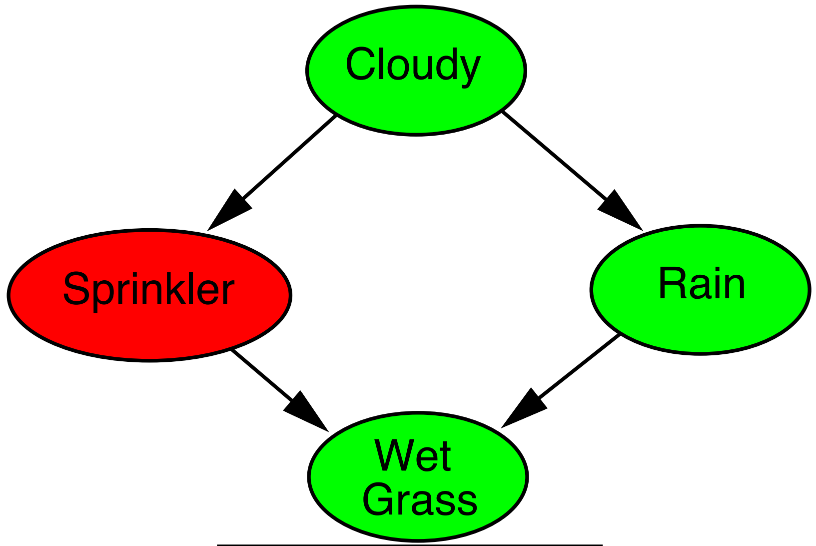
.50



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T	.80
F	.20

S	R	P(W|S,R)
T	T	.99
T	F	.90
F	T	.90
F	F	.01

Sampling from an empty network

function PRIOR-SAMPLE(bn) **returns** an event sampled from bn
  inputs: bn, a belief network specifying joint distribution $\mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$

  $\mathbf{x} \leftarrow$ an event with n elements
  for $i = 1$ **to** n **do**
    $x_i \leftarrow$ a random sample from $\mathbf{P}(X_i \mid parents(X_i))$
      given the values of $Parents(X_i)$ in $\mathbf{x}$
  return $\mathbf{x}$

Sampling from an empty network contd.

Probability that PriorSample generates a particular event

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

i.e., the true prior probability

E.g., $S_{PS}(t, f, t, t) = 0.5 \times 0.9 \times 0.8 \times 0.9 = 0.324 = P(t, f, t, t)$

Let $N_{PS}(x_1 \ldots x_n)$ be the number of samples generated for event $x_1, \ldots, x_n$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{N\to\infty} \hat{P}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) &= \lim_{N\to\infty} N_{PS}(x_1, \ldots, x_n)/N \\ &= S_{PS}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\ &= P(x_1 \ldots x_n) \end{aligned}$$

That is, estimates derived from PriorSample are consistent

Shorthand: $\hat{P}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \approx P(x_1 \ldots x_n)$

Conditional Probability: Rejection sampling

$\hat{\mathbf{P}}(X|\mathbf{e})$ estimated from samples agreeing with $\mathbf{e}$

```
function REJECTION-SAMPLING(X, e, bn, N) returns an estimate of P(X|e)
   local variables: N, a vector of counts over X, initially zero

   for j = 1 to N do
       x ← PRIOR-SAMPLE(bn)
       if x is consistent with e then
           N[x] ← N[x]+1 where x is the value of X in x
   return NORMALIZE(N[X])
```

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 $Rain = false$.

$\hat{\mathbf{P}}(Rain|Sprinkler = true) = \text{NORMALIZE}(\langle 8, 19 \rangle) = \langle 0.296, 0.704 \rangle$

Similar to a basic real-world empirical estimation procedure

Analysis of rejection sampling

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\mathbf{P}}(X|\mathbf{e}) &= \alpha \mathbf{N}_{PS}(X, \mathbf{e}) && \text{(algorithm defn.)} \\
&= \mathbf{N}_{PS}(X, \mathbf{e}) / N_{PS}(\mathbf{e}) && \text{(normalized by } N_{PS}(\mathbf{e})\text{)} \\
&\approx \mathbf{P}(X, \mathbf{e}) / P(\mathbf{e}) && \text{(property of PriorSample)} \\
&= \mathbf{P}(X|\mathbf{e}) && \text{(defn. of conditional probability)}
\end{aligned}$$

Hence rejection sampling returns consistent posterior estimates

Problem: hopelessly expensive if $P(\mathbf{e})$ is small

$P(\mathbf{e})$ drops off exponentially with number of evidence variables!

Likelihood weighting

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

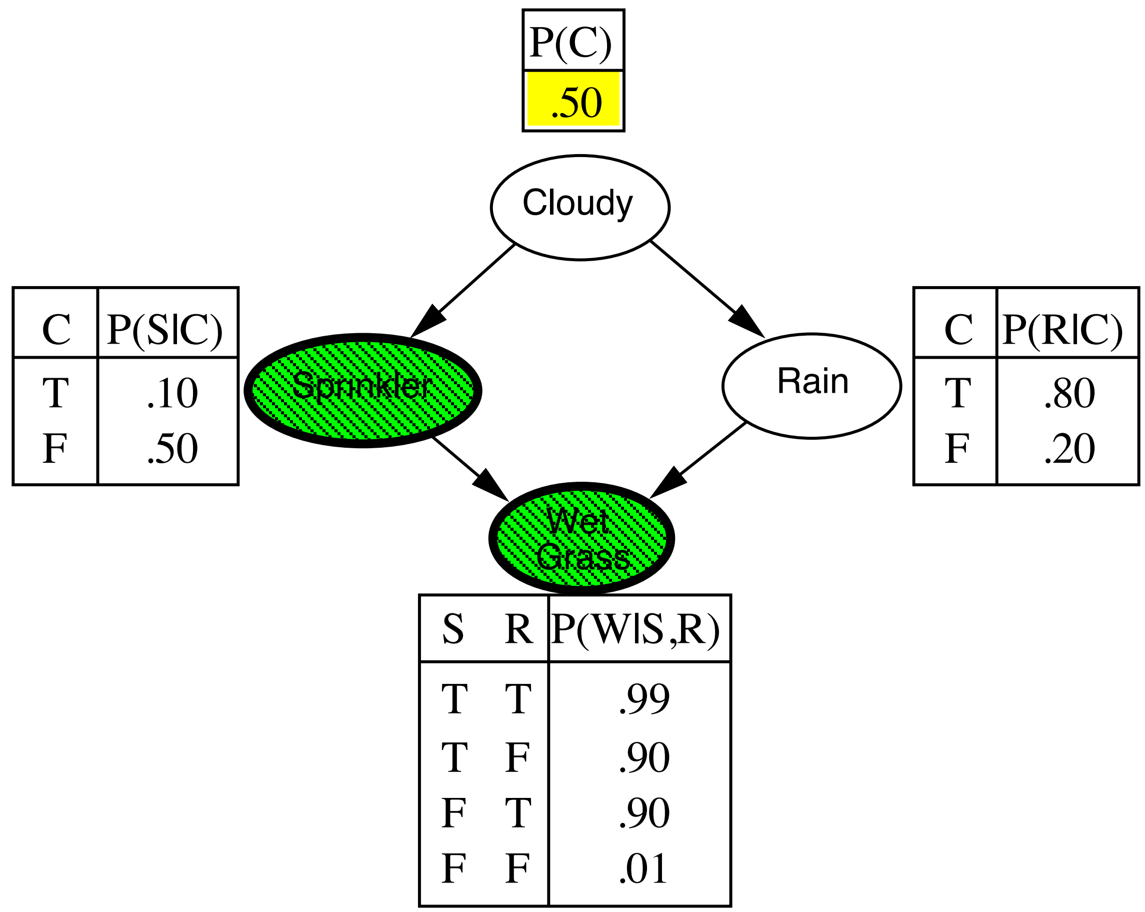
```
function LIKELIHOOD-WEIGHTING(X, e, bn, N) returns an estimate of P(X|e)
   local variables: W, a vector of weighted counts over X, initially zero

   for j = 1 to N do
       x, w ← WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn)
       W[x] ← W[x] + w where x is the value of X in x
   return NORMALIZE(W[X])
```

```
function WEIGHTED-SAMPLE(bn, e) returns an event and a weight

   x ← an event with n elements; w ← 1
   for i = 1 to n do
       if X_i has a value x_i in e
           then w ← w × P(X_i = x_i | parents(X_i))
           else x_i ← a random sample from P(X_i | parents(X_i))
   return x, w
```

Likelihood weighting example



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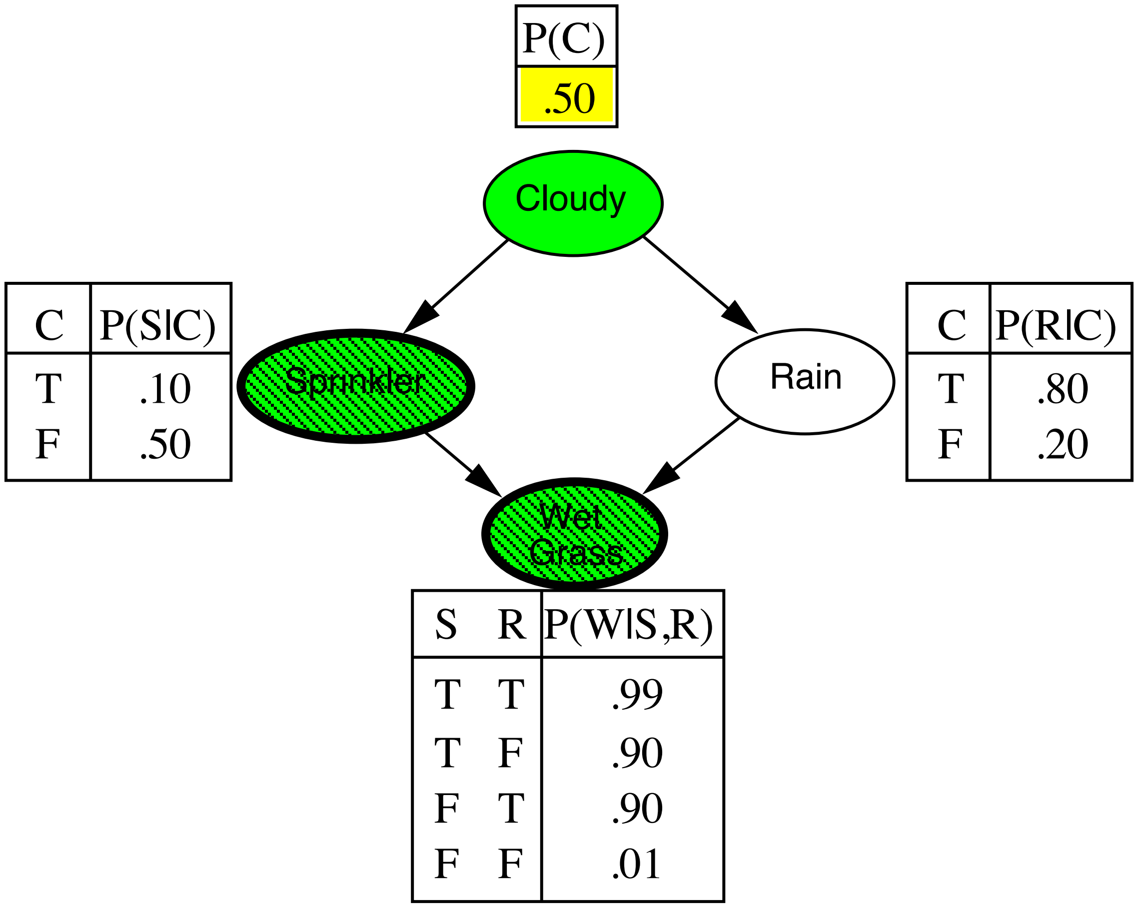
$w = 1.0$

Likelihood weighting example



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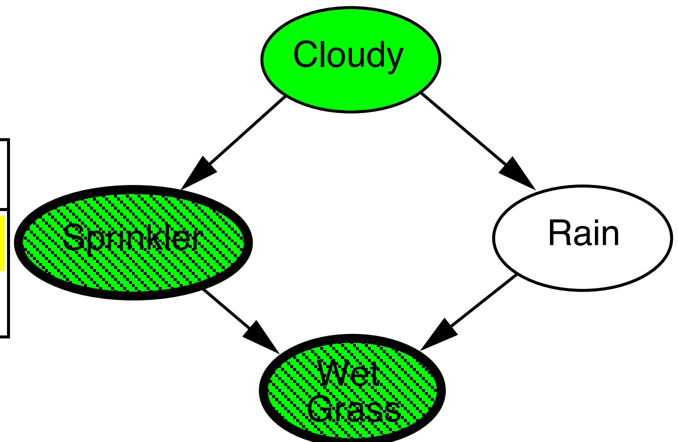

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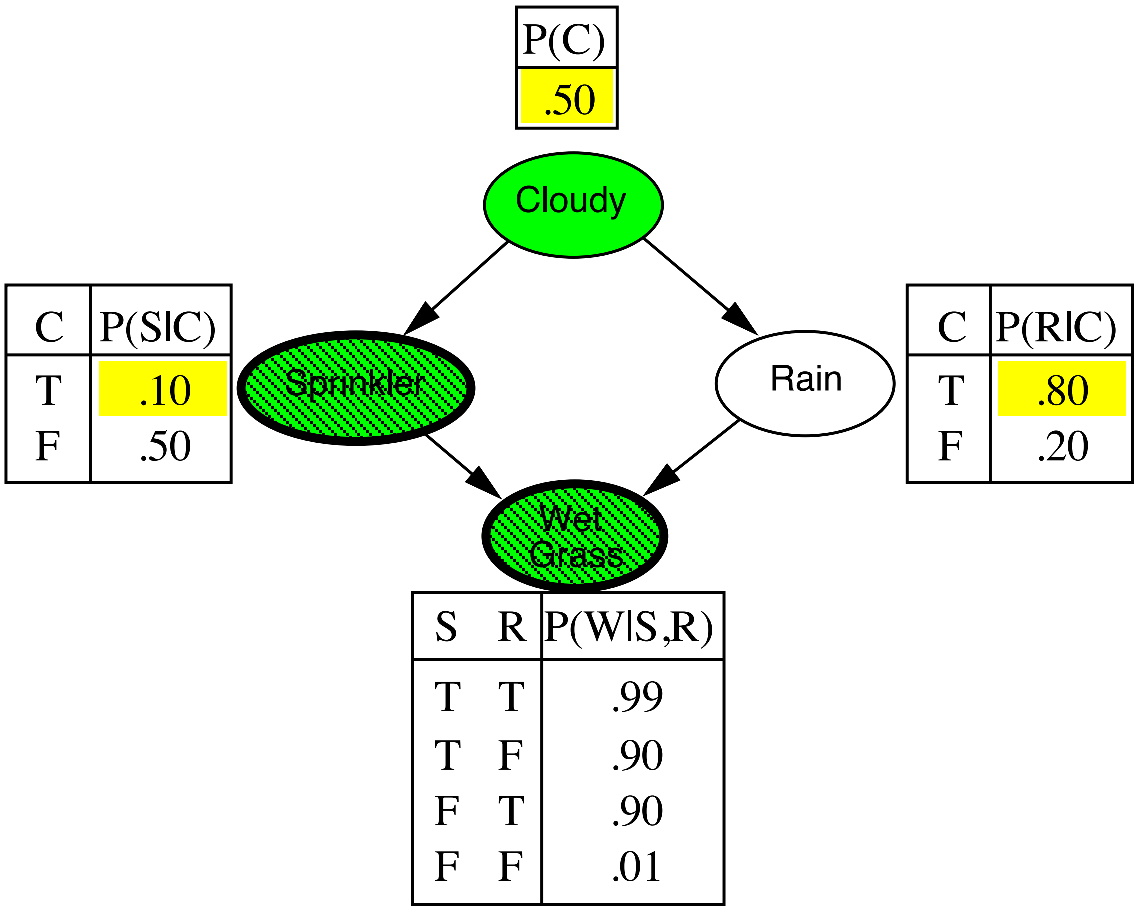
Likelihood weighting example



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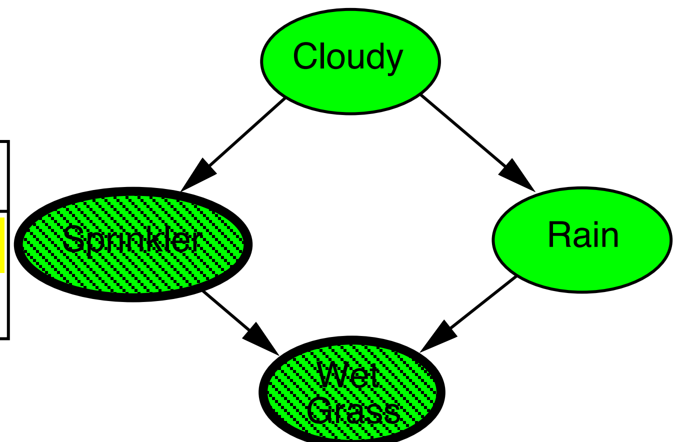
$w = 1.0 \times 0.1$

Likelihood weighting example



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$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1$$

Likelihood weighting example

P(C)
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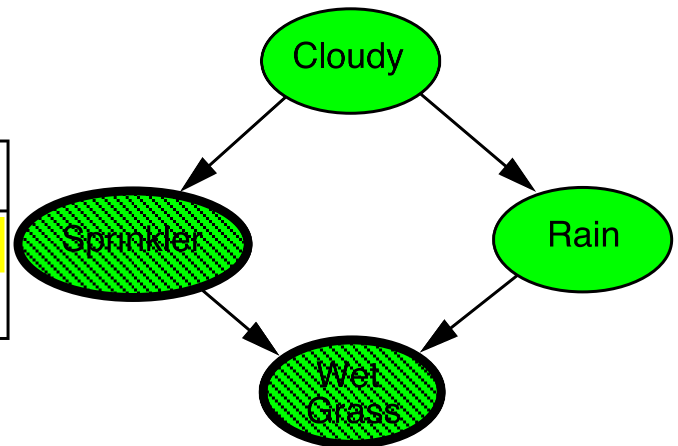

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T	F	.90
F	T	.90
F	F	.01

$$w = 1.0 \times 0.1 \times 0.99 = 0.099$$

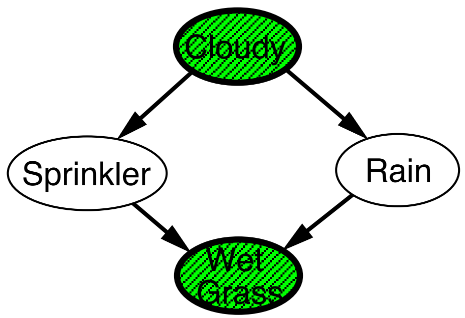
Likelihood weighting analysis

Sampling probability for WeightedSample is

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

Note: pays attention to evidence in **ancestors** only

$\Rightarrow$ somewhere "in between" prior and posterior distribution



Weight for a given sample $\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}$ is

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

Weighted sampling probability is

$$S_{WS}(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) w(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e})$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{l} P(z_i | parents(Z_i)) \;\; \prod_{i=1}^{m} P(e_i | parents(E_i))$$
$$= P(\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{e}) \text{ (by standard global semantics of network)}$$

Hence likelihood weighting returns consistent estimates
but performance still degrades with many evidence variables
because a few samples have nearly all the total weight

Approximate inference using MCMC

"State" of network = current assignment to all variables.

Generate next state by sampling one variable given Markov blanket
Sample each variable in turn, keeping evidence fixed

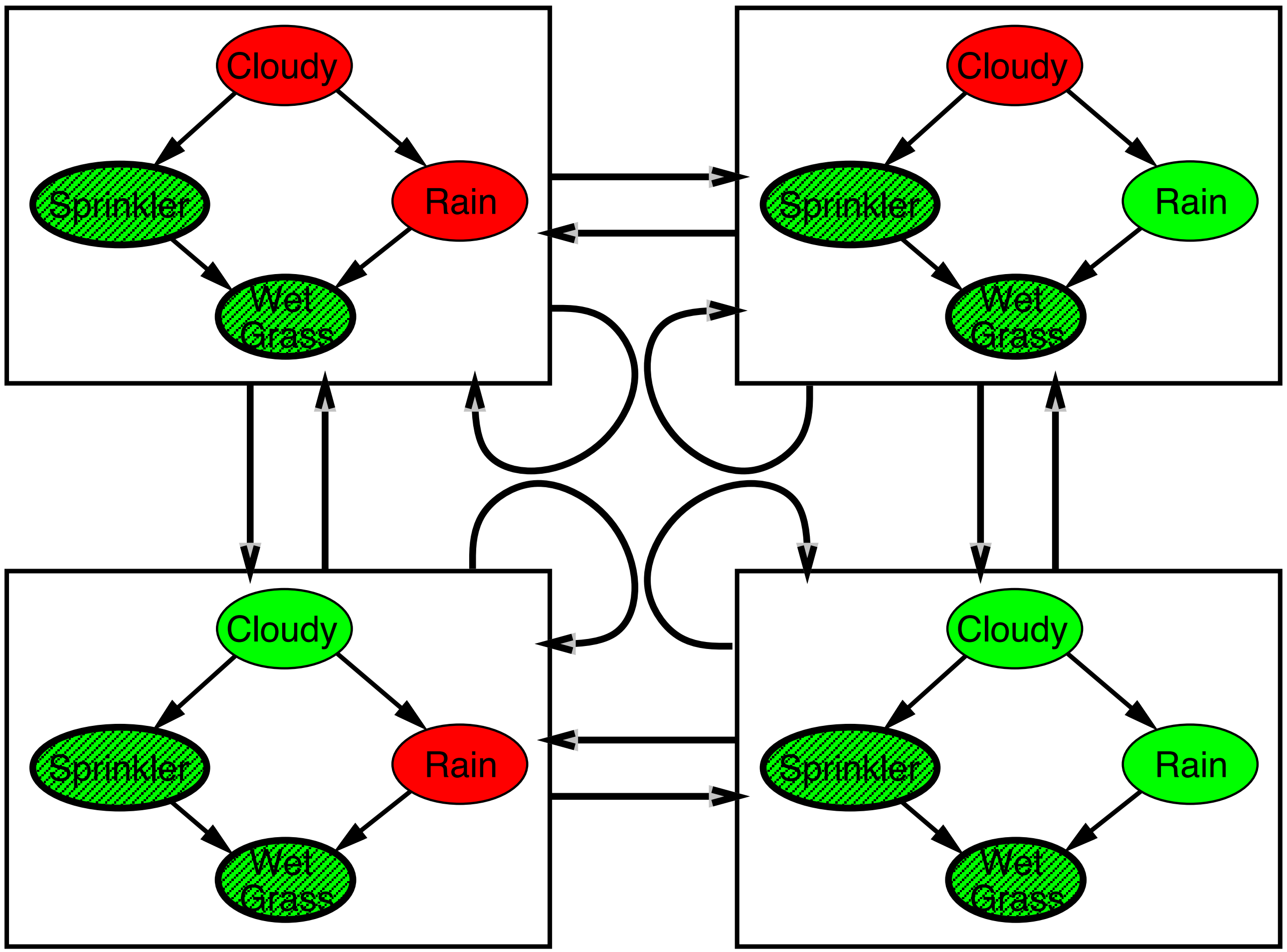
function MCMC-ASK($X, \mathbf{e}, bn, N$) **returns** an estimate of $P(X|\mathbf{e})$
  local variables: $\mathbf{N}[X]$, a vector of counts over X, initially zero
    $\mathbf{Z}$, the nonevidence variables in bn
    $\mathbf{x}$, the current state of the network, initially copied from $\mathbf{e}$

  initialize $\mathbf{x}$ with random values for the variables in $\mathbf{Y}$
  for $j = 1$ to N **do**
    for each Z_i in $\mathbf{Z}$ **do**
      sample the value of Z_i in $\mathbf{x}$ from $\mathbf{P}(Z_i|mb(Z_i))$
        given the values of $MB(Z_i)$ in $\mathbf{x}$
      $\mathbf{N}[x] \leftarrow \mathbf{N}[x] + 1$ where x is the value of X in $\mathbf{x}$
  return NORMALIZE($\mathbf{N}[X]$)

Can also choose a variable to sample at random each time

The Markov chain

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



Wander about for a while, average what you see

MCMC example contd.

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

Sample $Cloudy$ or $Rain$ given its Markov blanket, repeat.
Count number of times $Rain$ is true and false in the samples.

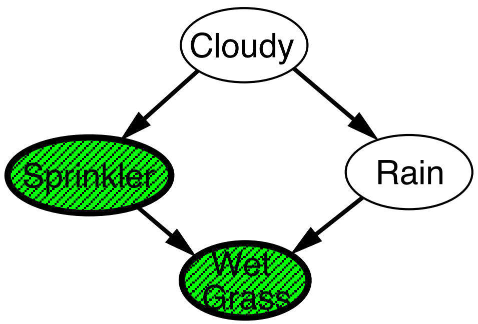
E.g., visit 100 states
31 have $Rain = true$, 69 have $Rain = false$

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

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

Markov blanket sampling

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



Probability given the Markov blanket is calculated as follows:

$$P(x_i'|mb(X_i)) = P(x_i'|parents(X_i))\Pi_{Z_j \in Children(X_i)} P(z_j|parents(Z_j))$$

Easily implemented in message-passing parallel systems, brains

Main computational problems:
1) Difficult to tell if convergence has been achieved
2) Can be wasteful if Markov blanket is large:
$P(X_i|mb(X_i))$ won't change much (law of large numbers)

Summary

Exact inference by variable elimination:
- polytime on polytrees, NP-hard on general graphs
- space = time, very sensitive to topology

Approximate inference by LW, MCMC:
- LW does poorly when there is lots of (downstream) evidence
- LW, MCMC generally insensitive to topology
- Convergence can be very slow with probabilities close to 1 or 0
- Can handle arbitrary combinations of discrete and continuous variables