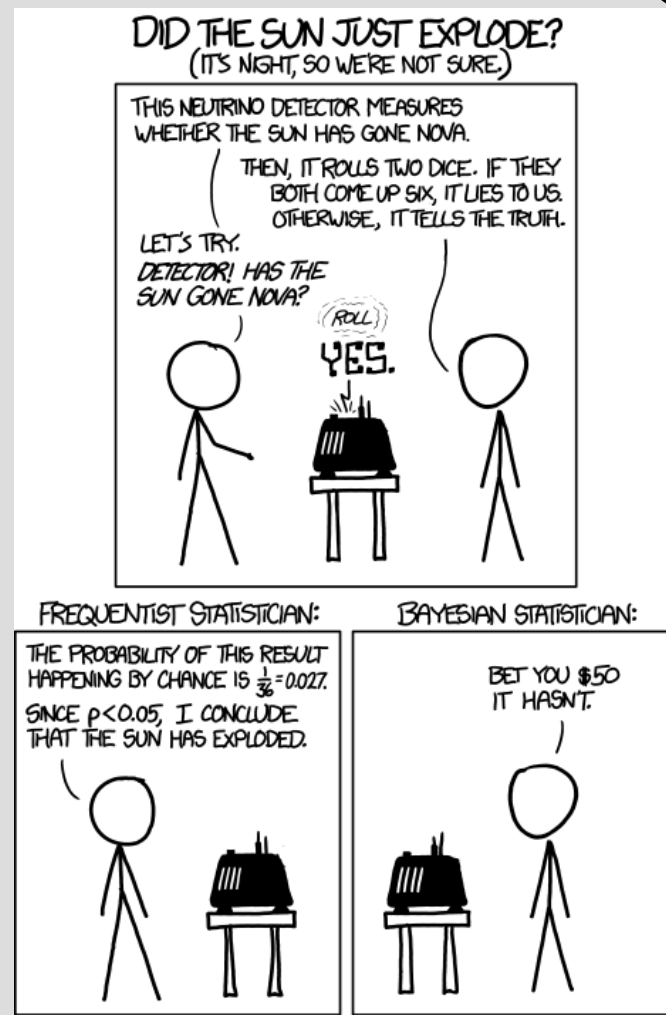


# Exact inference (Ch. 14)



# Bayesian Network

A Bayesian network (Bayes net) is:

- (1) a directed graph
- (2) acyclic

Additionally, Bayesian networks are assumed to be defined by conditional probability tables

- (3)  $P(x \mid \text{Parents}(x))$

We have actually used one of these before...

# Bayesian Network

I have been lax on capitalization (e.g.  $P(a)$  vs.  $P(A)$ ), but not today

Capitalization = set of outcomes

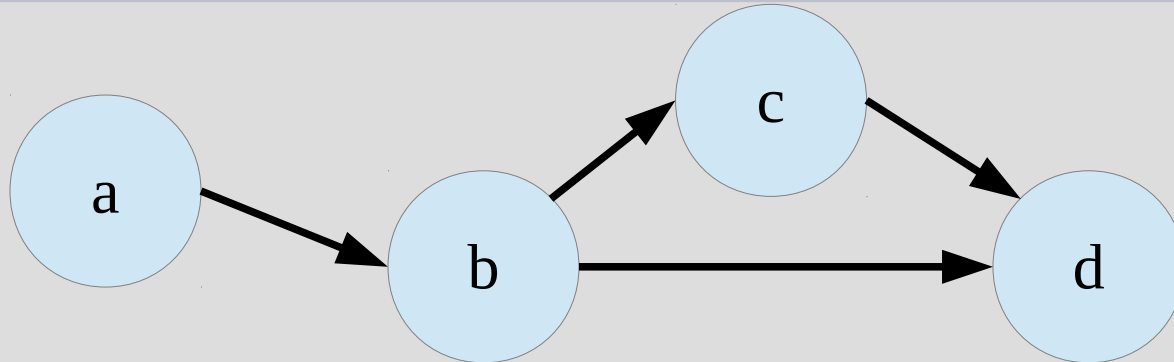
Lower-case = a single outcome

(by letter, so “a” is an outcome of “A”)

So  $P(A) = \langle P(a), P(\neg a) \rangle$

$P(A, B) = \langle P(a, b), P(a, \neg b), P(\neg a, b), P(\neg a, \neg b) \rangle$

# Bayesian Network



Bayesian network above represented by:

$$\begin{aligned} P(a, \neg b, c, \neg d) &= P(\neg d|a, \neg b, c)P(c|\neg b, a)P(\neg b|a)P(a) \\ &= P(\neg d|\neg b, c)P(c|\neg b)P(\neg b|a)P(a) \end{aligned}$$

Last time we discussed how to go left to right, when making the network

Today we look at right to left (inference)

# Exact Inference

Our primary tool beyond this breakdown of  $P(a,b,c,d)$  is the sum rule:

$$P(b, c, d) = \sum_a P(a, b, c, d) = P(a, b, c, d) + P(\neg a, b, c, d)$$

We will also use the normalization trick for conditional probability (and not divide)

$$P(a, b) = \alpha P(a|b)$$

$$P(a|b) = \alpha P(a, b)$$

... OR ...

$$\alpha(P(a|b) + P(\neg a|b)) = 1$$

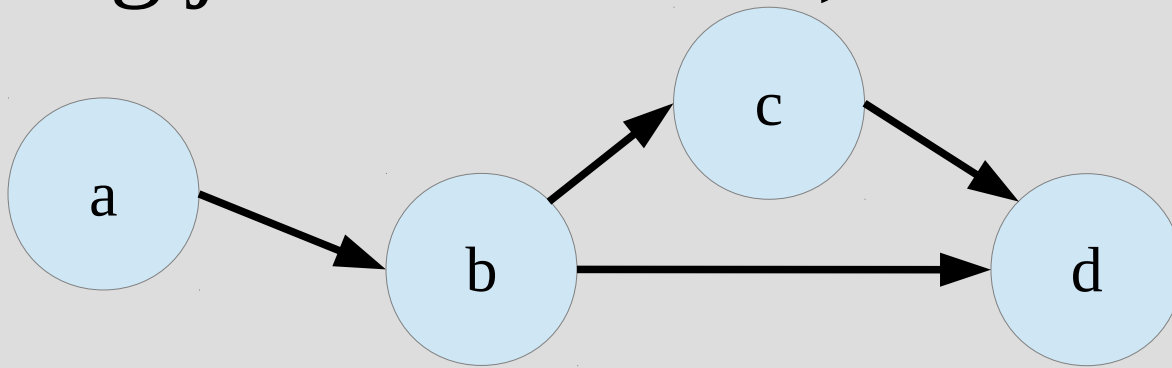
$$P(a, b) + P(\neg a, b) = 1/\alpha$$

need to sum all non-given info



# Exact Inference: Enumeration

Using just these facts, we can brute-force:



$$\begin{aligned} P(D|a) &= \sum_b \sum_c P(b, c, D|a) \\ &= \alpha \sum_b \sum_c P(a, b, c, D) \\ &= \alpha \sum_b \sum_c P(D|b, c)P(c|b)P(b|a)P(a) \\ &= \alpha P(a) \sum_b P(b|a) \sum_c P(c|b)P(D|b, c) \end{aligned}$$

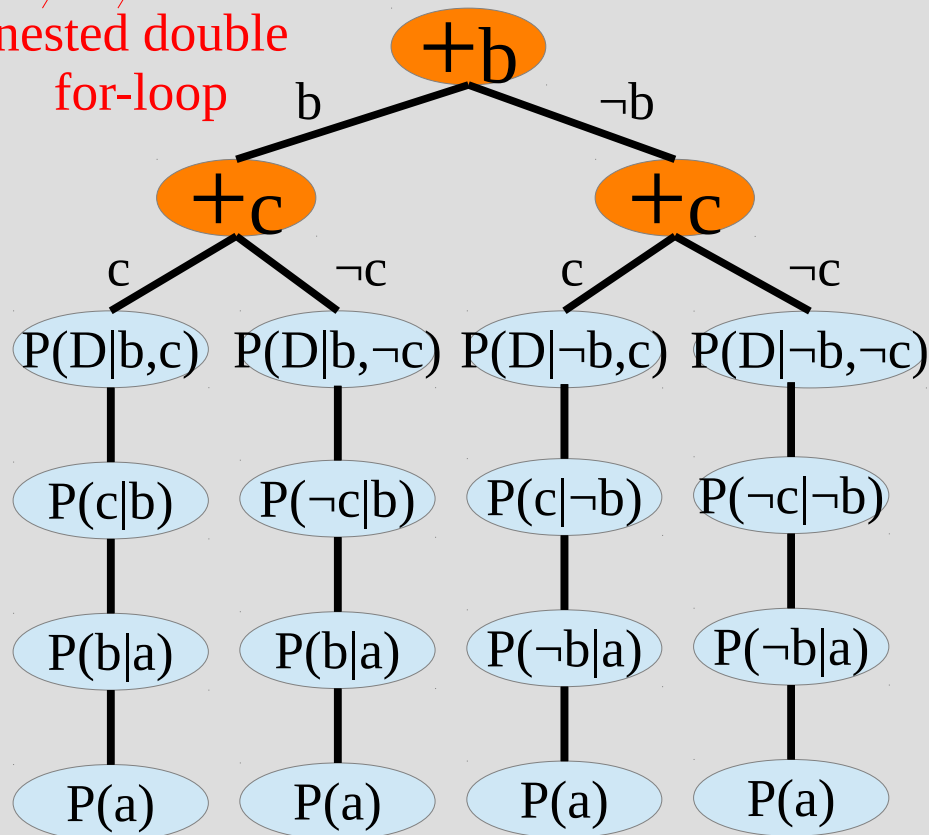
Upper-case is both pos and neg (thus  $P(D|a)$  is array... here do formula twice) ... to find alpha

more efficient than previous

# Exact Inference: Enumeration

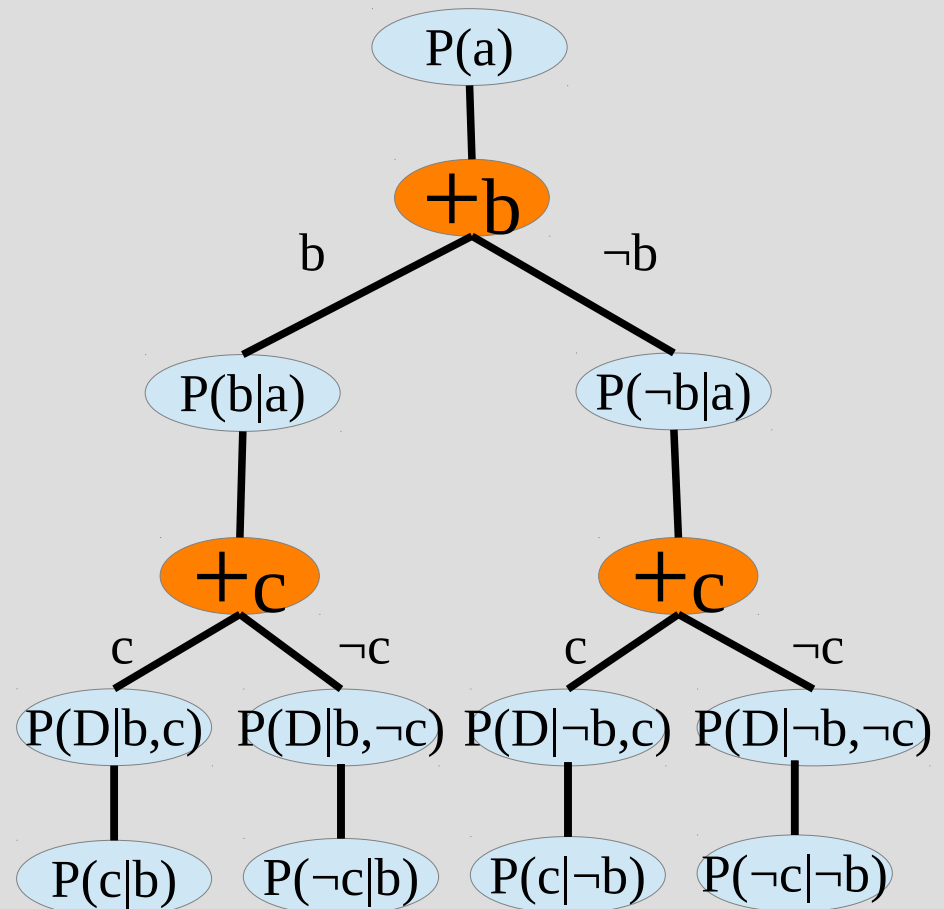
$$\sum_b \sum_c P(D|b,c)P(c|b)P(b|a)P(a)$$

nested double  
for-loop



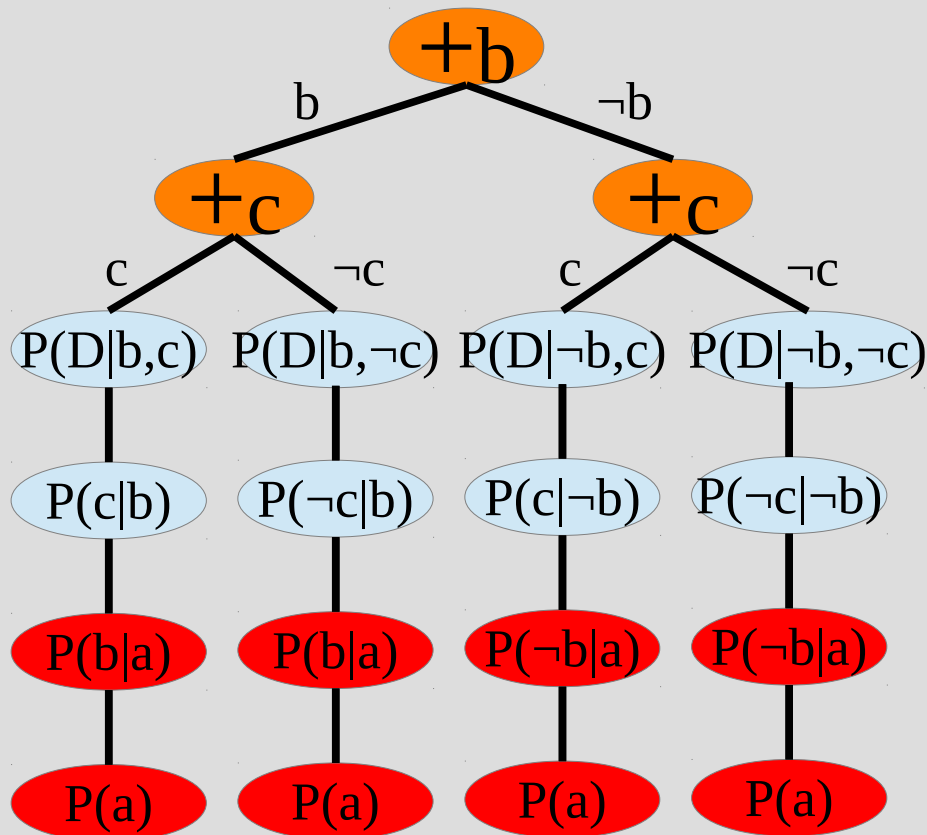
non-summed = multiplied

$$P(a) \sum_b P(b|a) \sum_c P(D|b,c)P(c|b)$$

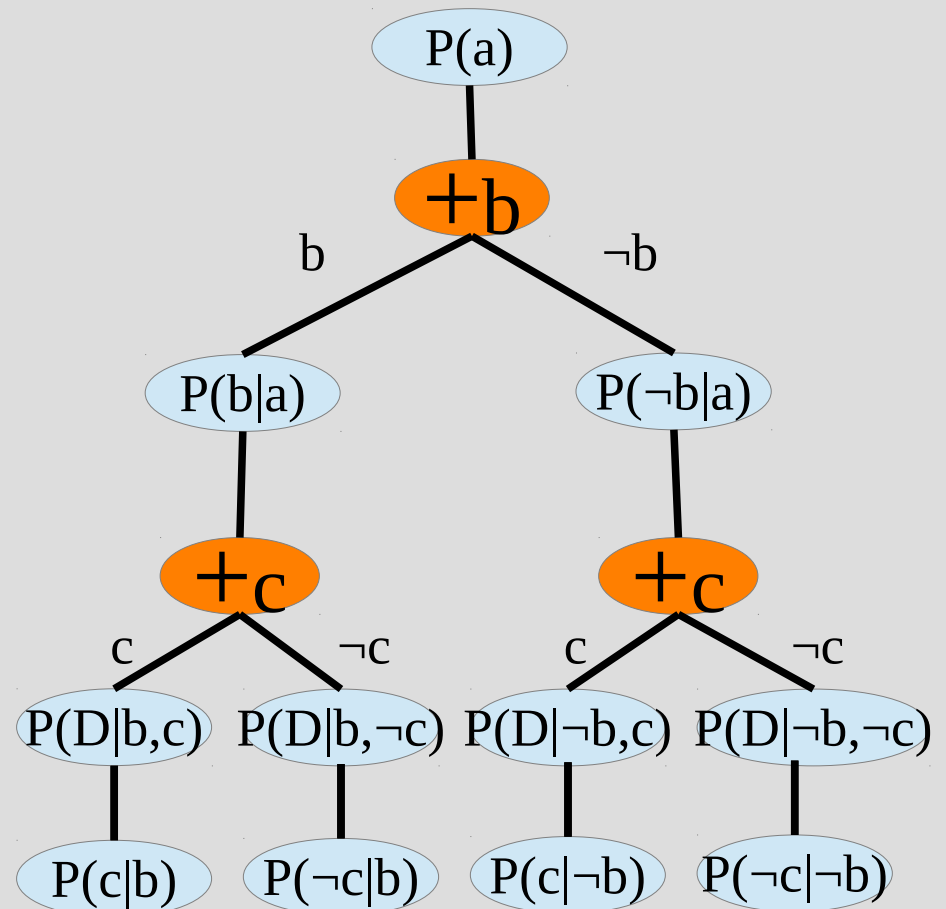


# Exact Inference: Enumeration

$$\sum_b \sum_c P(D|b,c)P(c|b)P(b|a)P(a)$$



$$P(a) \sum_b P(b|a) \sum_c P(D|b,c)P(c|b)$$



Used in computation more than once (inefficient)



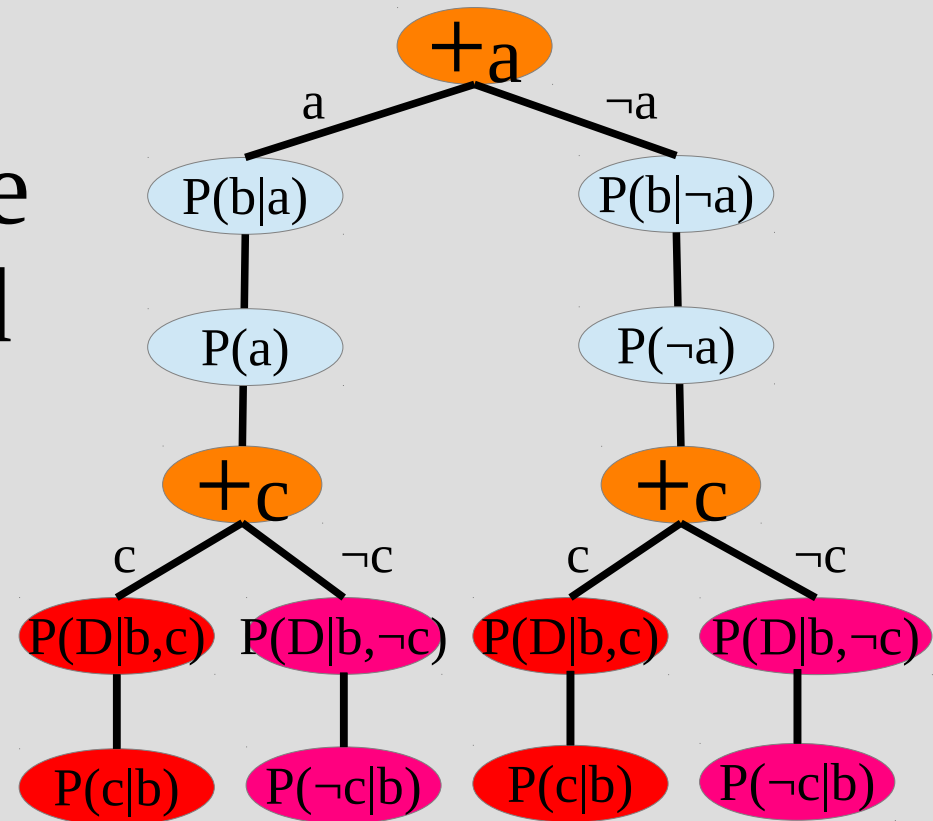
# Exact Inference: Enumeration

We got lucky last time that we could eliminate all redundant calculations... not always so:

$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a P(b|a)P(a) \sum_c P(D|b, c)P(c|b)$$

We can always eliminate all redundancy, but need another approach:

Dynamic programming



# Dynamic Programming TL;DR

Two common ways to compute the Fibonacci numbers are (which is better?):

(1) Recursive (like prior slides: enumeration)

```
def fib(n):  
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2)
```

(2) Array based (like upcoming slides)

```
a, b = 0, 1  
while b < 50:  
    a, b = b, a + b
```

# Dynamic Programming TL;DR

Dynamic programming exploits the structure between parts of the problem

Rather than going top-down and having redundant computations along the way...

... dynamic programming goes bottom up and stores temporary results along the way

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

Variable elimination is the dynamic programming version for Bayesian networks

This requires two new ideas:

- (1) factors (denoted by “f”)
- (2) “x” operator (called “pointwise product”)

Factors are the “stored info” that will represent the current product of probabilities

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

Factors are basically partial truth-tables (or matrices) depending on “input” variables

The input variables:  $f(A,B)$  are what effects the factors (much like probability  $P(A,B)$ )

When combining two factors with the “x” operator, the input variables are union-ed:

$$f_{\text{new}}(A, B, C) = f_1(A, B) \times f_2(A, C)$$

subscripts just help differentiate

Summing removes variables (like probabilities)

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

How the “x” operation works is:  
multiply “matching” T/F values

or w/e type  
of values

$$f_{\text{new}}(A, B, C) = f_1(A, B) \times f_2(A, C)$$

For example (rand. numbers):

$$f_{\text{new}}(a, \neg b, c) = f_1(a, \neg b) \cdot f_2(a, c) = 0.34 \cdot 0.41 = 0.1394$$

$f_1(A, B)$

a	b	0.12
a	$\neg b$	0.34
$\neg a$	b	0.56
$\neg a$	$\neg b$	0.78

$f_2(A, C)$

a	c	0.41
a	$\neg c$	0.52
$\neg a$	c	0.63
$\neg a$	$\neg c$	0.74

$f_{\text{new}}(A, B, C)$

a	b	c	0.0492
a	b	$\neg c$	0.0624
a	$\neg b$	c	0.1394
a	$\neg b$	$\neg c$	0.1768
$\neg a$	b	c	0.3528
$\neg a$	b	$\neg c$	0.4144
$\neg a$	$\neg b$	c	0.4914
$\neg a$	$\neg b$	$\neg c$	0.5772

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

Summation over the factors will work basically the same as probabilities: or w/e type of values

$$f_{\text{new}}(A, B, C) = f_1(A, B) \times f_2(A, C)$$

You sum parts and remove it...

$$\sum_a f_1(A, B) = f_1(a, B) + f_1(\neg a, B) = f_{\text{new}}(B)$$

$f_1(A, B)$

$f_{\text{new}}(B)$

a	b	0.12
a	$\neg b$	0.34
$\neg a$	b	0.56
$\neg a$	$\neg b$	0.78

b	0.12 + 0.56
$\neg b$	0.34 + 0.78

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

Now we just represent the probabilities by factors and do “x” not normal multiplication

*b is never negative, so not a variable* →

$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a \underbrace{P(b|a)}_{f_1(A)} \underbrace{P(a)}_{f_2(A)} \sum_c \underbrace{P(D|b, c)}_{f_3(C, D)} \underbrace{P(c|b)}_{f_4(C)}$$
$$= \alpha \sum_a f_1(A) \times f_2(A) \times \sum_c f_3(C, D) \times f_4(C)$$
$$f_{3,4}(C, D) = f_3(C, D) \times f_4(C)$$
$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a f_1(A) \times f_2(A) \times \sum_c f_{3,4}(C, D)$$

... then repeat “x” and sum (sum is normal sum over all T/F values (in this case))



# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a f_1(A) \times f_2(A) \times \sum_c f_{3,4}(C, D)$$

$$f_{3,4,c}(D) = f_{3,4}(c, D) + f_{3,4}(\neg c, D)$$

$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a f_1(A) \times f_{2,3,4,c}(A, D)$$

$$f_{2,3,4,c}(A, D) = f_2(A) \times f_{3,4,c}(D)$$

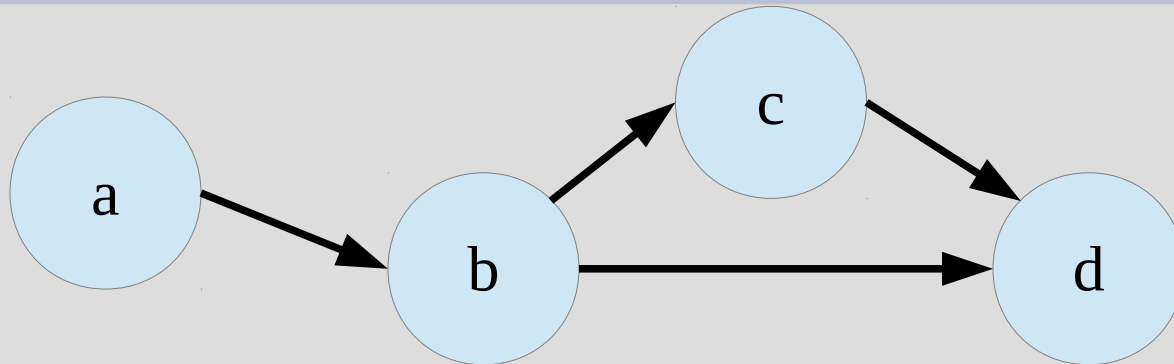
$$P(D|b) = \alpha \sum_a f_{1,2,3,4,c}(A, D)$$

$$P(D|b) = \alpha f_{1,2,3,4,a,c}(D)$$

$$P(D|b) = \alpha f_{1,2,3,4,a,c}(D) = \langle P(d|b), P(\neg d|b) \rangle$$

could also just call this  $f_5$  or something

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.



$P(a)$	0.1
--------	-----

$P(b a)$	0.2
$P(b \neg a)$	0.3

$P(c b)$	0.4
$P(c \neg b)$	0.5

$P(d b,c)$	0.25
$P(d b,\neg c)$	1.0
$P(d \neg b,c)$	0.15
$P(d \neg b,\neg c)$	0.05

Using variable elimination, find:

$$P(C|d, \neg a)$$

$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha \underbrace{P(\neg a)}_{f_1()} \sum_b \underbrace{P(C|b)}_{f_2(B,C)} \underbrace{P(d|b, C)}_{f_3(B,C)} \underbrace{P(b|\neg a)}_{f_4(B)}$$

$$f_{3,4}(b, c) = P(d|b, c)P(b|\neg a) = 0.25 \cdot 0.3 = 0.075$$

$$f_{3,4}(b, \neg c) = P(d|b, \neg c)P(b|\neg a) = 1 \cdot 0.3 = 0.3$$

$$f_{3,4}(\neg b, c) = P(d|\neg b, c)P(\neg b|\neg a) = 0.15 \cdot (1 - 0.3) = 0.105$$

$$f_{3,4}(\neg b, \neg c) = P(d|\neg b, \neg c)P(\neg b|\neg a) = 0.05 \cdot (1 - 0.3) = 0.035$$

$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha f_1() \times \sum_b f_2(B, C) \times f_{3,4}(B, C)$$

$$f_{2,3,4}(b, c) = P(c|b) * f(b, c) = 0.4 \cdot 0.075 = 0.03$$

$$f_{2,3,4}(b, \neg c) = P(\neg c|b) * f(b, \neg c) = (1 - 0.4) \cdot 0.3 = 0.18$$

$$f_{2,3,4}(\neg b, c) = P(c|\neg b) * f(\neg b, c) = 0.5 \cdot 0.105 = 0.0525$$

$$f_{2,3,4}(\neg b, \neg c) = P(\neg c|\neg b) * f(\neg b, \neg c) = (1 - 0.5) \cdot 0.035 = 0.0175$$

$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha f_1() \times \sum_b f_{2,3,4}(B, C)$$

$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha f_1() \times \sum_b f_{2,3,4}(B, C)$$

$$f_{2,3,4,b}(c) = f_{2,3,4}(b, c) + f_{2,3,4}(\neg b, c) = 0.03 + 0.0525 = 0.0825$$
$$f_{2,3,4,b}(\neg c) = f_{2,3,4}(b, \neg c) + f_{2,3,4}(\neg b, \neg c) = 0.18 + 0.0175 = 0.1975$$

$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha f_1() \times f_{2,3,4,b}(C)$$

$$f_{1,2,3,4,b}(c) = f_1() \cdot f_{2,3,4,b}(c) = P(\neg a) \cdot f_{2,3,4,b}(c) = 0.9 \cdot 0.0825 = 0.07425$$
$$f_{1,2,3,4,b}(\neg c) = f_1() \cdot f_{2,3,4,b}(\neg c) = P(\neg a) \cdot f_{2,3,4,b}(\neg c) = 0.9 \cdot 0.1975 = 0.17775$$

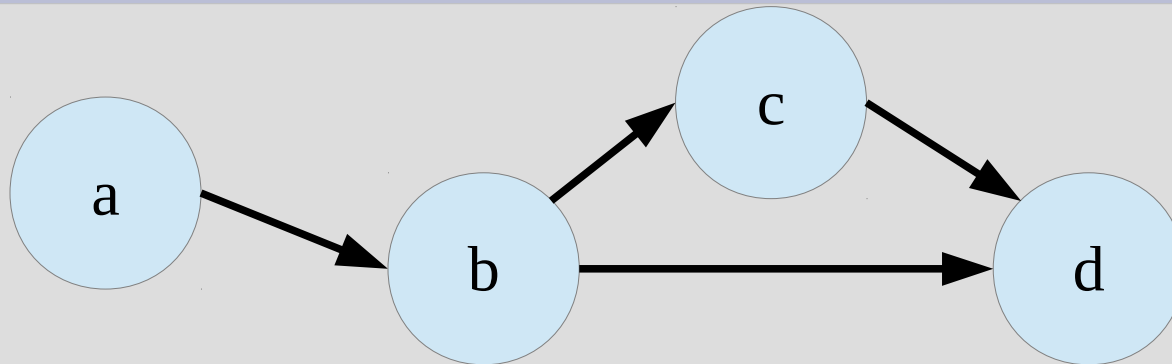
$$P(C|\neg a, d) = \alpha f_{1,2,3,4,b}(C)$$

$$P(c|\neg a, d) = 0.29464285714$$
$$P(\neg c|\neg a, d) = 0.70535714286$$

normalize



# Exact Inference: Side Note



If you try to find  $P(a|b)$  using either of these approaches:

$$\begin{aligned} P(a|b) &= \alpha \sum_c \sum_d P(d|b, c) P(c|b) P(\neg b|a) P(a) \\ &= \alpha P(b|a) P(a) \sum_c P(c|b) \sum_d P(d|\neg b, c) \\ &= \alpha P(b|a) P(a) \sum_c P(c|b) \cdot 1 \\ &= \alpha P(b|a) P(a) \end{aligned}$$

True for every non-ancestor of "b" or "a"

Bayes rule

# Exact Inference: Var. Elim.

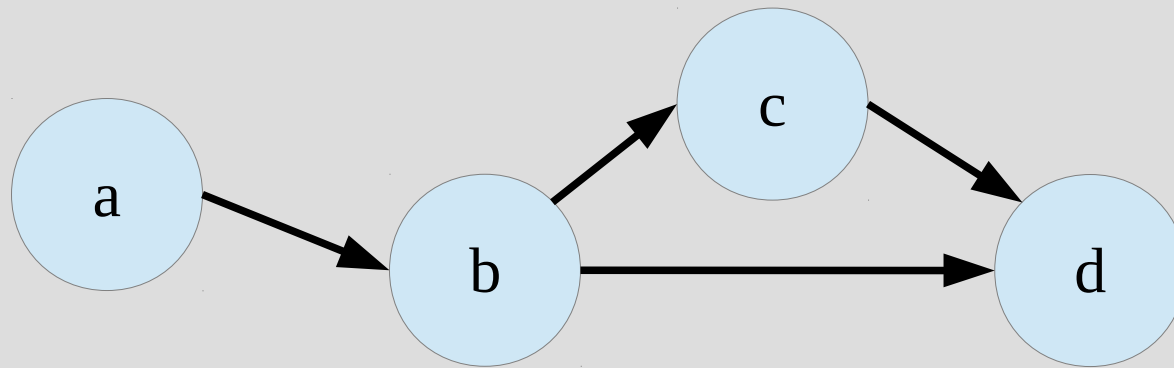
The order that you sum/combine factors can have a significant effect on runtime

However, there is no fast (i.e. worthwhile) way to compute the best ordering

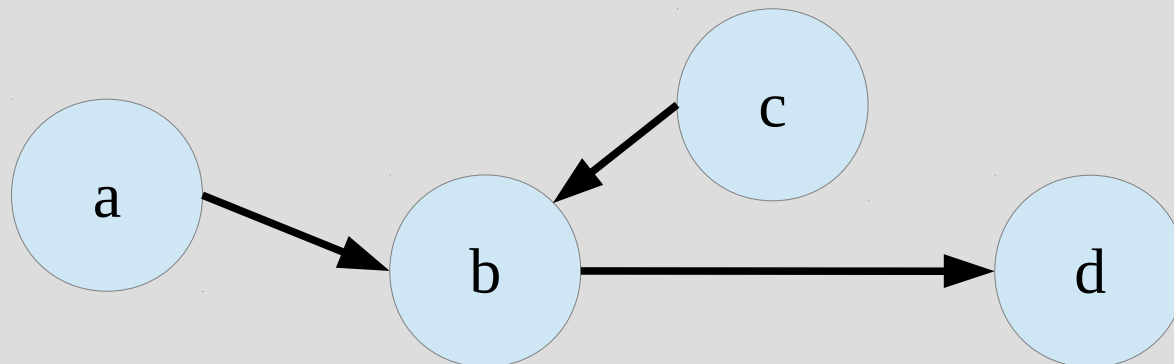
Instead, people quite often just use a greedy choice: combine/eliminate factors/variables to minimize resultant factor size

# Efficiency

A polytree is a graph where there is at most one undirected path between nodes/variables



NOT polytree  
(two routes to d:  
 $b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$  &  $b \rightarrow d$ )



Yes, polytree  
(multiple roots  
are allowed)

# Efficiency

Using the non-variable elimination way can result in exponential runtime

Using variable elimination:

On polytrees: Linear runtime

On non-polytrees: Exponential runtime :(

The details are a bit more nuanced, but basically exact inference is infeasible on non-polytrees (approximate methods for these)



# Efficiency

You can do some preprocessing on graphs to cluster various parts:



The “b+c” node is much more complex (4 T/F value pairs, rather than a simple two T/F vals.)

Clustering can help when:

- (1) Can be efficient to change into polytree
- (2) Finding multiple probabilities

# Efficiency

Not all nodes might be probabilistic

For example, if A is true then B is always true and if A false then B false (100% of the time)

Cases where nodes follow some formula ( $B=A$ ), more efficient to not make a table

Two common formula are: noisy-OR and noisy-max (makes assumptions about parents)

# Non-discrete

We have primarily stuck to true/false values for variables for simplicity sake

Variables could be any random variable (probability-value pair)

This includes continuous variables like normal/Gaussian distribution

# Non-discrete

Sometimes you can discretize continuous variables (much like pixels or grids on map)

Otherwise you can use them directly and integrate instead of summing (yuck)

Things can get a bit complicated if the Bayesian network has both continuous and discrete variables

# Non-discrete

Discrete parent of continuous:

-Simply do by cases

$$P(cont|disc) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-4)^2}{2}}, & \text{if } disc \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{8\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-4)^2}{8}}, & \text{if } \neg disc \end{cases}$$

Continuous to discrete:

-Have to correlate ranges with probabilities

$$P(disc|cont = x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

disc is true given cont has value x is:  
percent under the normal(0,1) curve  $\leq x$

