
```

function GIBBS-ASK( $X, \mathbf{e}, bn, N$ ) returns an estimate of  $\mathbf{P}(X | \mathbf{e})$ 
  local variables:  $\mathbf{C}$ , a vector of counts for each value of  $X$ , initially zero
                     $\mathbf{Z}$ , the nonevidence variables in  $bn$ 
                     $\mathbf{x}$ , the current state of the network, initialized from  $\mathbf{e}$ 

  initialize  $\mathbf{x}$  with random values for the variables in  $\mathbf{Z}$ 
  for  $k = 1$  to  $N$  do
    choose any variable  $Z_i$  from  $\mathbf{Z}$  according to any distribution  $\rho(i)$ 
    set the value of  $Z_i$  in  $\mathbf{x}$  by sampling from  $\mathbf{P}(Z_i | mb(Z_i))$ 
     $\mathbf{C}[j] \leftarrow \mathbf{C}[j] + 1$  where  $x_j$  is the value of  $X$  in  $\mathbf{x}$ 
  return NORMALIZE( $\mathbf{C}$ )

```

Figure 13.20 The Gibbs sampling algorithm for approximate inference in Bayes nets; this version chooses variables at random, but cycling through the variables but also works.

2. *Rain* is chosen and then sampled, given the current values of its Markov blanket: in this case, we sample from $\mathbf{P}(Rain | Cloudy = false, Sprinkler = true, WetGrass = true)$. Suppose this yields $Rain = true$. The new current state is $[false, true, true, true]$.

The one remaining detail concerns the method of calculating the Markov blanket distribution $\mathbf{P}(X_i | mb(X_i))$, where $mb(X_i)$ denotes the values of the variables in X_i 's Markov blanket, $MB(X_i)$. Fortunately, this does not involve any complex inference. As shown in Exercise 13.MARB, the distribution is given by

$$P(x_i | mb(X_i)) = \alpha P(x_i | parents(X_i)) \prod_{Y_j \in Children(X_i)} P(y_j | parents(Y_j)). \quad (13.10)$$

In other words, for each value x_i , the probability is given by multiplying probabilities from the CPTs of X_i and its children. For example, in the first sampling step shown above, we sampled from $\mathbf{P}(Cloudy | Sprinkler = true, Rain = false)$. By Equation (13.10), and abbreviating the variable names, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(c | s, \neg r) &= \alpha P(c) P(s | c) P(\neg r | c) = \alpha 0.5 \cdot 0.1 \cdot 0.2 \\
 P(\neg c | s, \neg r) &= \alpha P(\neg c) P(s | \neg c) P(\neg r | \neg c) = \alpha 0.5 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.8,
 \end{aligned}$$

so the sampling distribution is $\alpha \langle 0.001, 0.020 \rangle \approx \langle 0.048, 0.952 \rangle$.

Figure 13.21(a) shows the complete Markov chain for the case where variables are chosen uniformly, i.e., $\rho(Cloudy) = \rho(Rain) = 0.5$. The algorithm is simply wandering around in this graph, following links with the stated probabilities. Each state visited during this process is a sample that contributes to the estimate for the query variable *Rain*. If the process visits 20 states where *Rain* is true and 60 states where *Rain* is false, then the answer to the query is $\text{NORMALIZE}(\langle 20, 60 \rangle) = \langle 0.25, 0.75 \rangle$.

Analysis of Markov chains

We have said that Gibbs sampling works by wandering randomly around the state space to generate samples. To explain why Gibbs sampling works *correctly*—that is, why its estimates converge to correct values in the limit—we will need some careful analysis. (This section is somewhat mathematical and can be skipped on first reading.)