BASICS OF BNs



Basics of Bayesian networks

- Reasoning under uncertainty
- Conditional independence
- D-separation
- Bayesian networks: formal definition
- Building BNs



Reasoning under uncertainty

Advantages of BNs

- Explicit representation of the uncertain knowledge
 Graphical, intuitive, closer to a world repres.
- Deal with uncertainty for reasoning and decision-making
- Founded on probability theory, provide a clear semantics and a sound theoretical foundation
- Both data and experts can be used to construct the model
- Current and huge development
- Support the expert; do not try to replace him



Reasoning under uncertainty

Modularity

- The joint probability distribution (JPD) (global model) is specified via marginal and conditional distributions (local models), taking into account conditional independence relationships among variables
- This modularity:
 - Provides an easy maintenance
 - Reduces the number of parameters needed for the JPD
 - Estimation/elicitation is easier
 - Reduction of the storing needs
 - Efficient reasoning (inference)



Conditional independence

The joint probability distribution (JPD)

- Dealing with a JPD
 - \mathfrak{p}_1 diseases $D_1,...,D_{m1}$
 - \searrow m₂ symptoms $S_1,...,S_{m2}$
 - Arr Represent $P(D_1,...,D_{m1},S_1,...,S_{m2})$, with $2^{m1+m2}-1$ parameters
 - \blacktriangleright E.g.: m₁=30, m₂=10, need of 2⁴⁰-1≈10¹²

That's complete dependence: intractable in practice



Conditional independence

Independence

- With mutual independence, only specify $P(D_1),...,P(S_{m2})$
 - m1+m2 parameters (linear) instead of 2^{m1+m2} (exponential)
- Unfortunately, it rarely holds in most domains
- Fortunately, there are some conditional independencies. Exploit them (representation and inference)



Conditional independence

Conditional independence

- Independence P(x|y) = P(x) \longrightarrow P(x,y) = P(x)P(y) (marginal)
- Conditional independence of X and Y given Z

$$P(x|y, \mathbf{z}) = P(x|\mathbf{z})$$

3 disjoint sets of variables

for all possible values $x,y,z \rightarrow$



$$P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$$

Intuitively, whenever Z=z, the information Y=y does not influence on the probability of x

Notation: $I_{\mathbb{P}}(X,Y|Z)$



Conditional independence

Example A (Alarm [Pearl'88])

- \blacksquare R burglary and T earthquake are not uncommon in LA. Alarm A may be caused by R or T $I_P(R,T|\emptyset)$
 - R and T are independent without any knowledge (burglary is not a sign of earthquake and vice versa)
 - R and T are dependent if we know that the alarm went off (to know R will explain the evidence obtained about A and then it will confirm or discard T as the cause of A. And vice versa) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{I_R(R_T T|A)}}$

With further knowledge, we go from independence to dependence



Conditional independence

Example B

Send a message M1 through a transmitter. It is received as M2 and it is then sent through other transmitter. It is received finally as M3.

Transmitters have noise that modifies messages



M1 & M3 are dependent without any knowledge

 \longrightarrow M1 y M3 are independent given M2 $\frac{\neg I_{P}(M1, M3|\emptyset)}{I_{P}(M1, M3|M2)}$

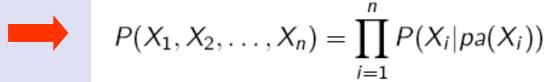
With further knowledge, we go from dependence to independence

Further factorizing the JPD

Chain rule $P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | X_1, ..., X_{i-1})$ and factorization via c.i.

- **Solution** About $P(X_i|X_1,...,X_{i-1})$:
 - Domain knowledge usually allows one to identify a subset $pa(X_i) \subseteq \{X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}\}$ such that
 - Given $pa(X_i)$, X_i is independent of all variables in $\{X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}\} \setminus pa(X_i)$, i.e.

$$P(X_i|X_1,...,X_{i-1}) = P(X_i|pa(X_i))$$



Joint distribution factorized

The number of parameters might be substantially reduced



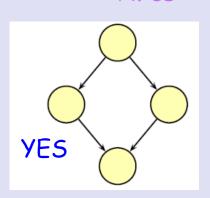
Cond. Indep. Building Reasoning D-separ Definition

BNs

Informal definition: 2 components in a BN

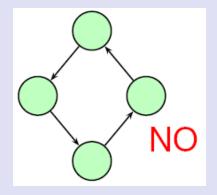
Qualitative part: a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

Nodes = variables



Arcs = direct dependence relations (otherwise it indicates absence of direct dependence; there may be indirect dependences and independences)

Not necessarily causality

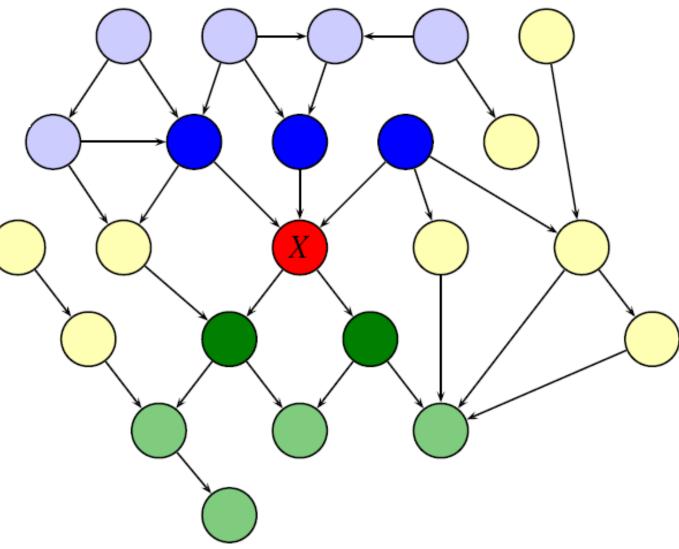


Quantitative part: a set of conditional probabilities that determine a unique JPD



BNs: nodes

- Target node
- Parents
- Ancestors
 - Children
- Descendants
 - Rest
- Family





BNs: arcs (types of independence)

Independences in a BN

- A BN represents a set of independences
- Distinguish:
 - Basic independences: we should take care of verifying them when constructing the net
 - Derived independences: from the previous independences, by using the properties of the independence relations

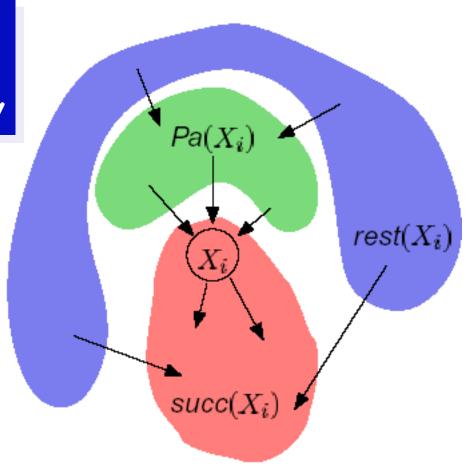
Check them by means of the u-separation (or d-separation) criterion



Basic independences

Basic independence: Markov condition or (local) Markov property

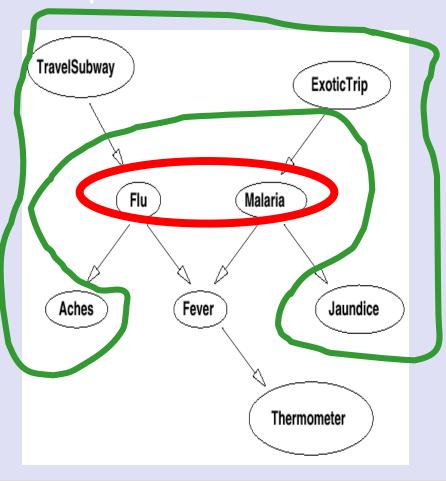
 X_i c.i. of its non-descendants, given its parents $Pa(X_i)$





Basic independences

Example

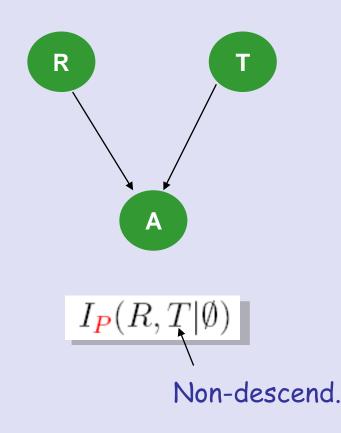


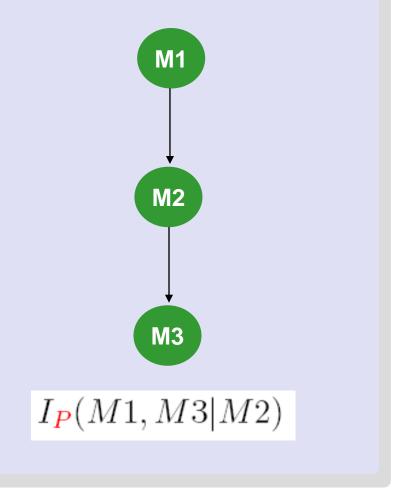
Fever is c.i. of Jaundice given Malaria and Flu



Basic independences

Examples A and B







Markov condition and JPD factorization

Factorizing the JPD

Use the chain rule and the Markov condition

$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \qquad I_{\mathbf{P}}(X, \text{non-desc} | Pa(X))$$

- Let $X_1,...,X_n$ be an ancestral ordering (parents appear before their children in the sequence). It always exists (DAG)
- Using that ordering in the chain rule, in $\{X_1,...,X_{i-1}\}$ there are non-descendants of X_i , and we have

$$P(X_i|X_1,...,X_{i-1}) = P(X_i|pa(X_i))$$



Markov condition and JPD factorization

Factorizing the JPD

Therefore, we can recover the JPD by using the following factorization:

$$P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | pa(X_i))$$



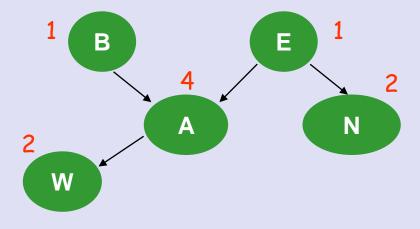
MODEL CONSTRUCTION EASIER:

- Only store local distributions at each node
- Fewer parameters to assign and more naturally
- **▶** Inference easier



Example of savings

With all binary variables:



- 32=2⁵ probabilities for the JPD
- 20 with the factorization in the BN (10 in fact):

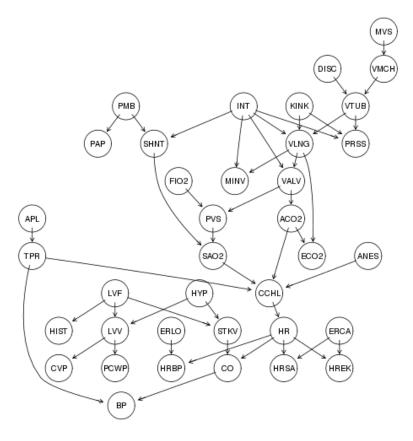
$$P(B, E, A, N, W) = P(W|A)P(A|B, E)P(N|E)P(B)P(E)$$



Example of savings

BN Alarm for monitoring ICU patients

2³⁷ probabilities for the JPD vs. 509 in BN





Independencies derived from u-separation

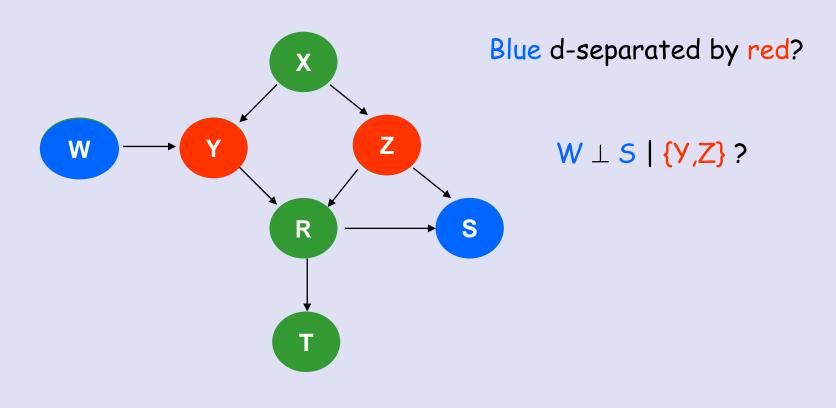
u-separation

- Obtain the minimum graph containing X,Y,Z and their ancestors (ancestral graph)
- The subgraph obtained is moralized (add a link between parents with children in common) and remove direction of arcs



Independencies derived from u-separation

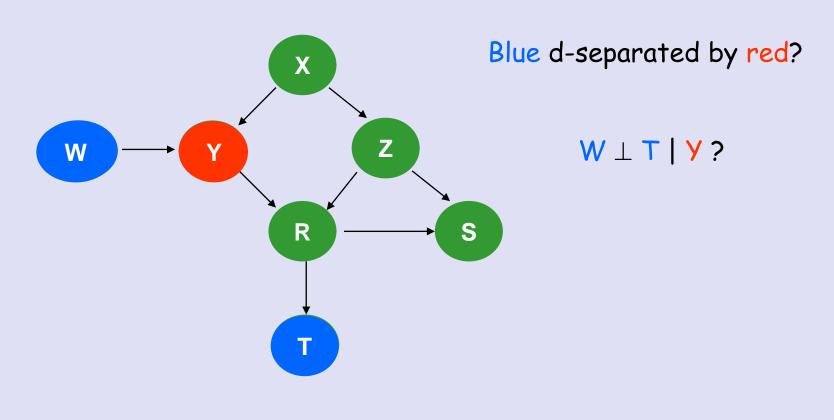
u-separation





Independencies derived from u-separation

u-separation





Joining the two parts

Separation Theorem [Verma and Pearl'90, Neapolitan'90]

Let P be a prob. distribution of the variables in V and G=(V,E) a DAG.

(G,P) holds the Markov condition iff

$$\mathbf{X} \perp_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z} \Longrightarrow I_{\mathbf{P}}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{Z}) \quad \forall \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z} \subseteq V$$

u-separation defined by G c.i. defined by P disjoint

 $igcup_{igcap}$ Graph G represents all dependences of P $\neg I_P(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{Z}) \Rightarrow \neg(\mathbf{X} \perp_{\mathbf{G}} \mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{Z})$

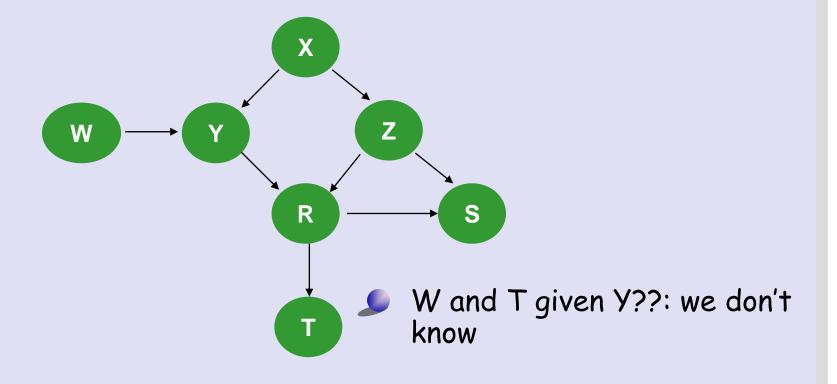
Some independences of P may be not identified by u-separation in G



Joining the two parts

In the example...

W and S are c.i. given {Y,Z}





Joining the two parts

Correspondence graph-model

A DAG may be viewed as maps of independences of P:



- D-Map of P (dependences): independent variables are d-separated in the graph
- I-Map of P (independences): u-separated variables in the graph are independent
- P-Map of P (perfect): I-map and D-map
- \mathcal{L} P-Map is not always possible (P is faithful to the DAG)



Definition of BN

Formal definition

 \searrow Let P be a JPD over $V=\{X_1,...,X_n\}$.

A BN is a tuple (G,P), where G=(V,E) is a DAG such that:

- Each node of G represents a variable of V
- The Markov condition is held
- (taking an ancestral ordering)
- Arr Each node has associated a local prob. $P(X_i|pa(X_i))$, distribution such that

$$P(X_1,\ldots,X_n)=\prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i|pa(X_i))$$

u-separated variables in the graph are independent
 (G is a minimal I-map of P)

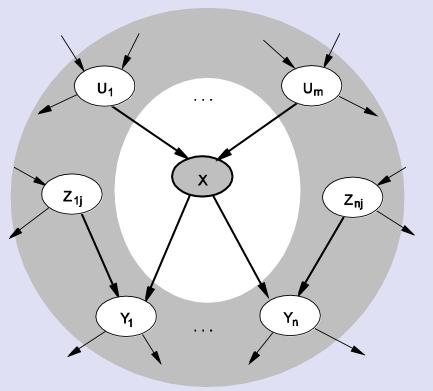


Definition of BN

The global Markov property

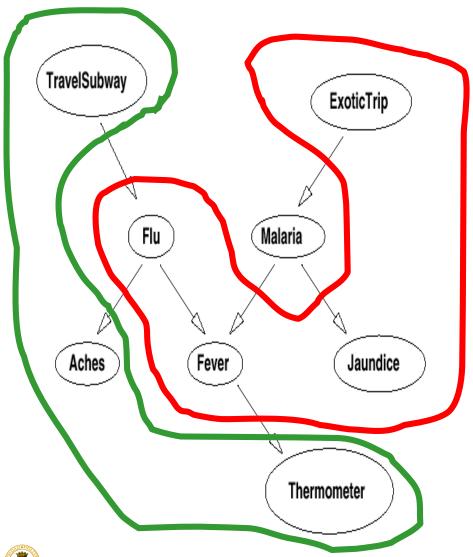
Set of nodes that makes X c.i. of the rest of the network:

- A node is c.i. of all other nodes in the BN, given its parents, children and children's parents (spouses)
 - -its Markov blanket-





Definition of BN



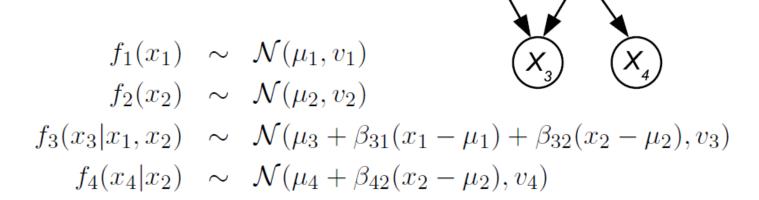
Malaria is c.i. of Aches, TravelSubway and Thermometer given ExoticTrip, Jaundice, Fever and Flu



What about continuous variables?

GAUSSIAN BNs

- · All variables are continuous
- · All conditional distributions as (linear) Gaussians



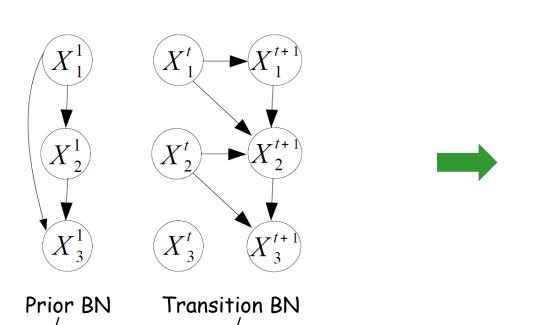
- ullet Define the JPD $\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\Sigma)$
- (Inference in closed form)

Other: kernel,
 MTE, MoP, MoTBF...

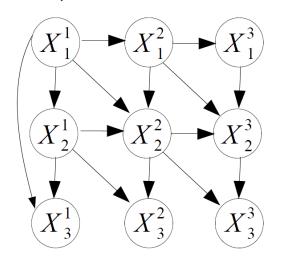


What about dynamic systems?

- DYNAMIC BNs: Time slices (with identical BNs)
- Transition arcs toward future



$$\mathbf{X}^{t} = (X_{1}^{t}, ..., X_{n}^{t}), t = 1, ..., T$$



Unrolled

$$P(\mathbf{X}^1) \prod_{t=2}^T P(\mathbf{X}^t | \mathbf{X}^{t-1}) = P(\mathbf{X}^1, ..., \mathbf{X}^T) \mid \mathbf{x}$$

 $\rightarrow P(\mathbf{X}^t|\mathbf{X}^{t-1},...,\mathbf{X}^1) = P(\mathbf{X}^t|\mathbf{X}^{t-1})$

Stationarity and first-order Markov assumptions



Building a BN

Expert /from data /both

Manual with the aid of an expert in the domain

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Causal mechanisms

| modelisation | Causal graph | probabilities | Bayesian net
```

- Build it in the causal direction: BNs simpler and efficient
- Learning from a database

```
Database Bayesian net
```

A combination (experts → structure; database → probabilities)



Resources

BN repositories:

http://www.bnlearn.com/bnrepository/
http://www.cs.huji.ac.il/~galel/Repository/

Much information:
http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~greiner/bn.html#applic

Coursera (D. Koller @ Stanford): "Probabilistic graphical models": https://www.coursera.org/specializations/probabilistic-graphical-models



INFERENCE in BNS

Inference in Bayesian networks

Types of queries

Exact inference:

- Brute-force computation
- Variable elimination algorithm
- Message passing algorithm

Approximate inference:

- Logic sampling
- Likelihood weighting

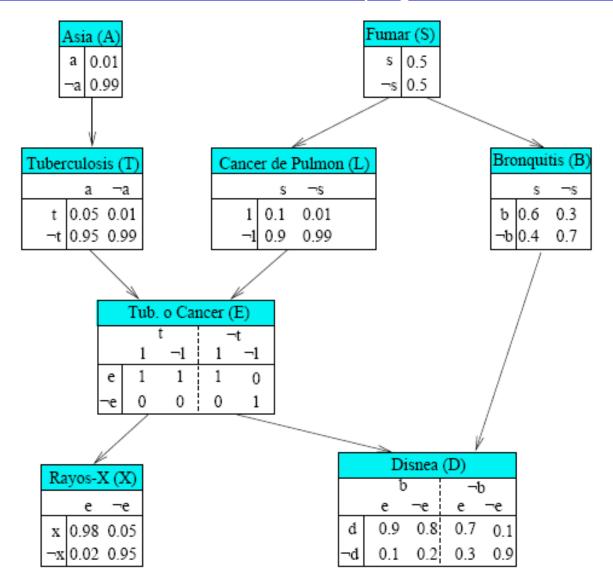


Example: Asia BN [Lauritzen & Spiegelhalter'88]

- Physician wants to diagnose her patients w.r.t. 3 diseases
 - Tuberculosis
 - Lung cancer
 - Bronchitis
- Causes or risk factors:
 - Recent Visit to Asia increases the chances of Tuberculosis
 - Smoking is a risk factor for both Lung cancer and Bronchitis
- Symptoms:
 - Dyspnea (shortness-of-breath) may be due to Tuberculosis, Lung cancer, Bronchitis, none of them, or more than one of them
 - Chest X-Ray. Neither symptom discriminates between Lung cancer and Tuberculosis



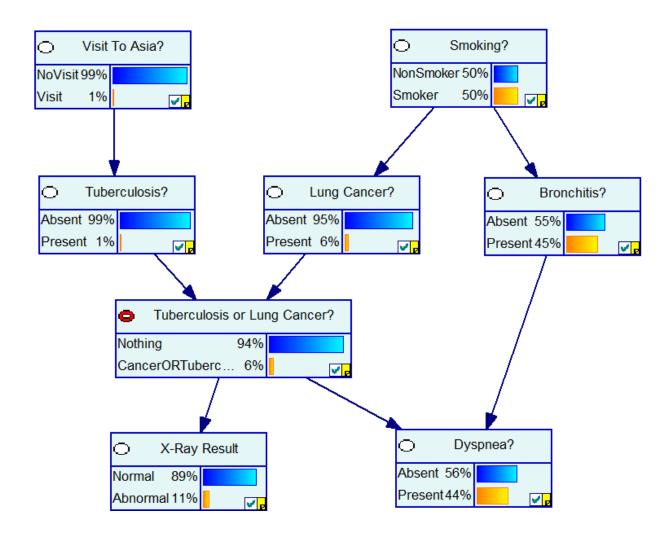
Example: Asia BN [Lauritzen & Spiegelhalter'88]





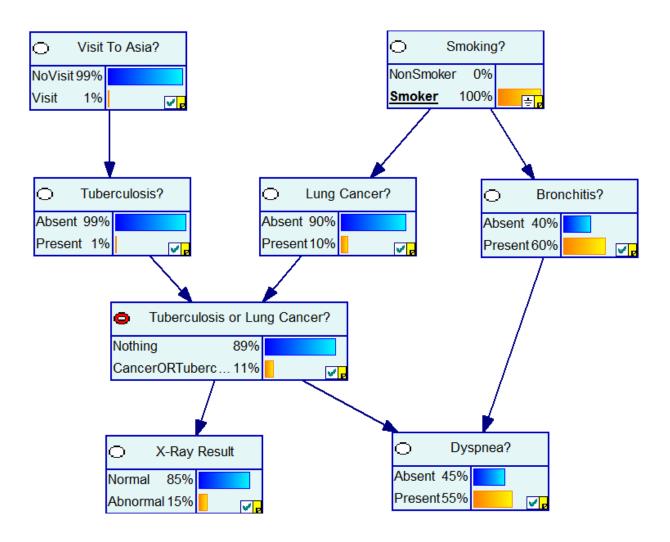
Example: Asia BN [Lauritzen & Spiegelhalter'88]

P(X)?



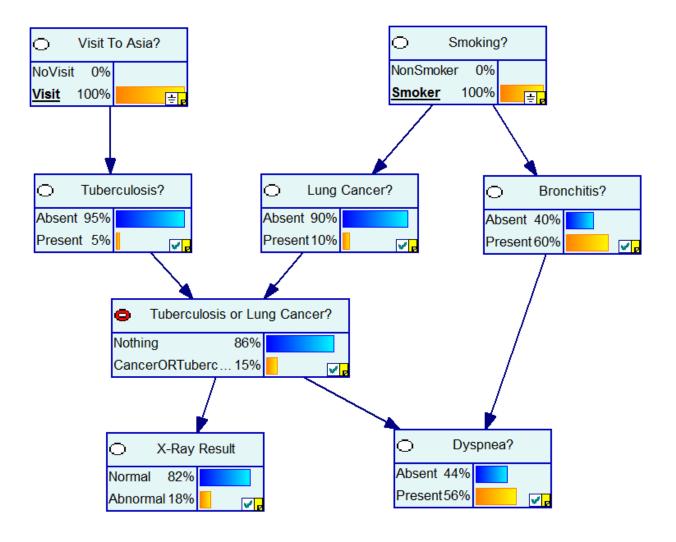


P(X|Smoker=yes)?



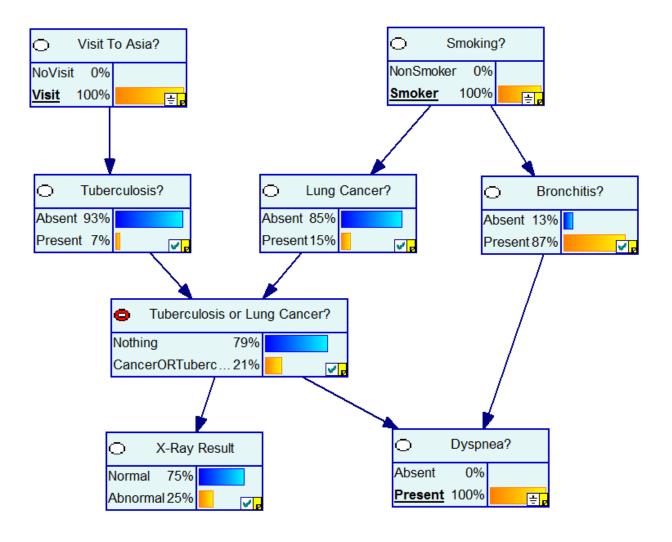


P(X | Asia=yes, Smoker=yes)?





P(X | Asia=yes, Smoker=yes, Dyspnea=yes)?



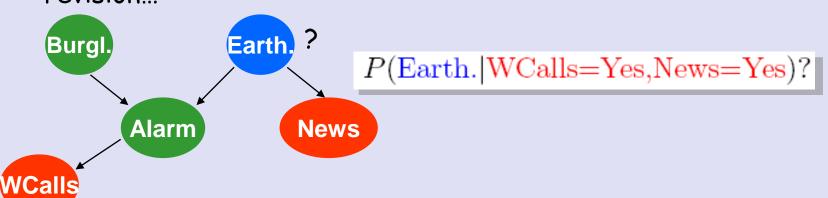


Queries: posterior probabilities

- Given some evidence e (observations),
- answer queries about s Posterior probability of a target variable(s) X:

Vector

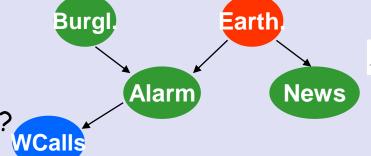
Other names: probability propagation, belief updating or revision...





Semantically, for any kind of reasoning

Predictive reasoning or deductive (causal inference): predict effects
Symptoms | Disease

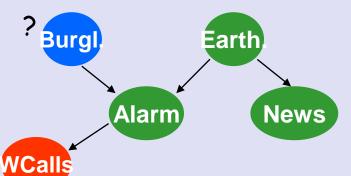


P(WCalls|Earth.=Yes)?

Target variable is usually a descendant of the evidence

Diagnostic reasoning (diagnostic inference): diagnose the causes

Disease | Symptoms



P(Burglary|WCalls=Yes)?

Target variable is usually an ancestor of the evidence

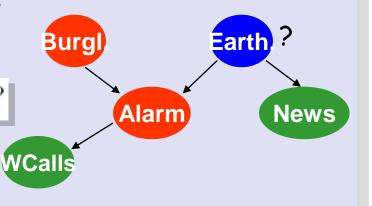


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... for any kind of reasoning

Intercausal reasoning: between causes of a common effect

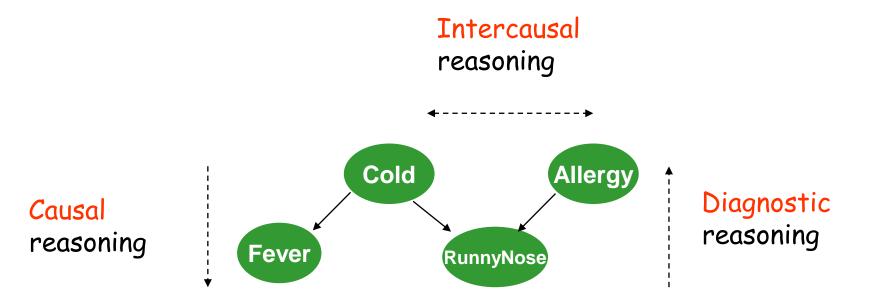
P(Earth.|Burglary=Yes,Alarm=Yes)?|



- B and E are independent of each other
- Suppose that A=Yes → It raises the Prob. for both possible causes B and E
- Suppose then that $B=Yes \rightarrow This$ explains the observed A, which in turn lowers the Prob. that E=Yes
- Two causes initially independent. If the effect is known, the presence of one explanatory cause renders the alternative cause less likely (it is explained away)



Reasoning







More queries: maximum a posteriori (MAP)

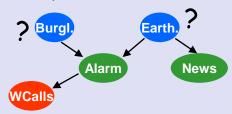
- Most likely configurations (abductive inference): event that best explains the evidence
 - Total abduction (or MPE): search for all the unobserved $(x_1,...,x_n)$ such that $\max P(x_1,...,x_n|\mathbf{e})$

In general, cannot be computed component-wise, with max $P(x_i|e)$



subset. of unobserved (explanation set)

$$(x_1,...,x_l)$$
 such that $\max P(x_1,...,x_l|\mathbf{e})$



Alarm

Burgl. ?

Earth

K most likely explanations

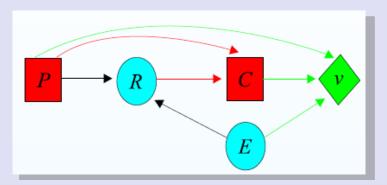


Supervised classification

- Use MPE for:

Decision-making

Optimal decisions (of maximum expected utility), with influence diagrams



 $\max_{P,C} \sum_{R,E} u(P,E,C) P(R|E,P) P(E)$



Exact inference [Pearl'88; Lauritzen & Spiegelhalter'88]

Brute-force computation of P(X|e)

- \checkmark First, consider $P(X_i)$, without observed evidence e. Conceptually simple but computationally complex
- Arr For a BN with n variables, each with its $P(X_j|Pa(X_j))$:

$$P(X_i) = \sum_{X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}, X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n} \prod_{j=1}^n P(X_j | Pa(X_j))$$

Brute-force approach

- But this amounts to computing the <u>JPD</u>, often very inefficient and even <u>intractable</u> computationally
- CHALLENGE: Without computing the JDP, exploit the factorization encoded by the BN and the distributive law (local computations)

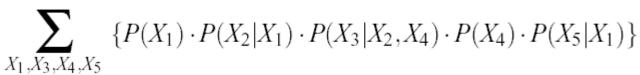


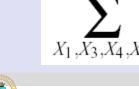
Improving brute-force

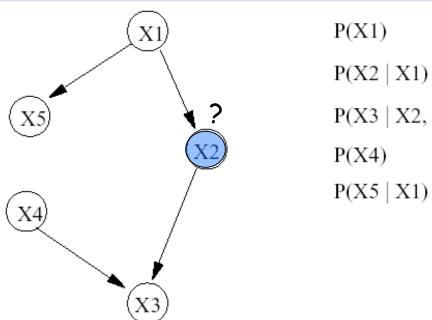


Table with 32 inputs (JPD) (if binary variables)

$$P(X_2) =$$







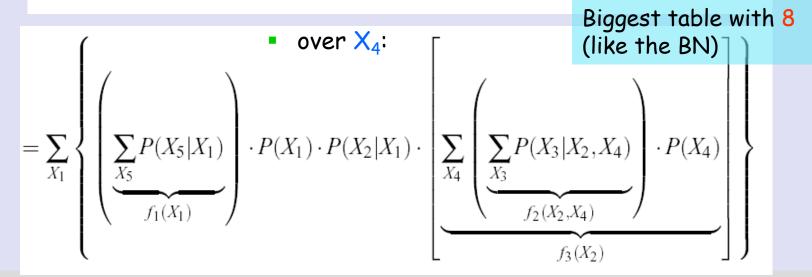
$$P(X2 \mid X1)$$

Improving brute-force



Arrange computations effectively, moving some additions

$$= \sum_{X_1, X_4} \left\{ \left(\underbrace{\sum_{X_5} P(X_5 | X_1)}_{f_1(X_1)} \right)^{\bullet} \cdot P(X_1) \cdot P(X_2 | X_1) \cdot \left(\underbrace{\sum_{X_3} P(X_3 | X_2, X_4)}_{f_2(X_2, X_4)} \right) \cdot P(X_4) \right\}$$





Improving brute-force



I.e., comparing both:



$$\sum_{X_1,X_3,X_4,X_5} \{P(X_1) \cdot P(X_2|X_1) \cdot P(X_3|X_2,X_4) \cdot P(X_4) \cdot P(X_5|X_1)\}$$

Brute-force approach

Table with 32 entries. 52 multiplications (tables in a suitable way) and 30 additions (marginalizations: 16, 8, 4, 2)

Factoriz. &
$$\sum_{X_1} \left\{ \left(\sum_{X_5} P(X_5|X_1) \right) \cdot P(X_1) \cdot P(X_2|X_1) \cdot \left[\sum_{X_4} \left(\sum_{X_3} P(X_3|X_2, X_4) \right) \cdot P(X_4) \right] \right\}$$

1 table with 8 and 3 with 4 entries. 14 multiplications and 14 additions (marginalizations)



Variable elimination algorithm

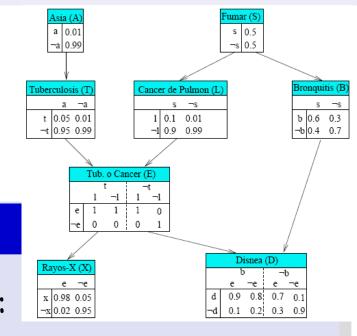
- Arrow Wanted: $P(X_i|e)^{ONE \text{ variable}}$
- $oldsymbol{\mathcal{P}}$ A list with all functions of the problem $\{f_1,...,f_n\}$
- ightharpoonup Select an elimination order σ of all variables (except i)
- Solution For each X_k from σ , if F is the set of functions that involve X_k :
 - Delete F from the list

Eliminate X_k = combine all the functions that contain this variable and marginalize out X_k

- Add f'to the list
- Output: combination (multiplication) of all functions in the current list



Example with Asia network; P(D)?



Brute-force approach

Compute P(D) by brute-force:

$$P(d) = \sum_{x} \sum_{b} \sum_{e} \sum_{l} \sum_{t} \sum_{s} \sum_{a} P(a, s, t, l, e, b, x, d)$$

Complexity is exponential in the size of the graph (number of variables *number of states for each variable)



Example with Asia network: VE

 $\sigma_1 = T, S, E, A, L, B, X$

$$1 \quad \mathcal{L} = \{f_A(A), \underbrace{f_T(T,A)}, f_S(S), f_L(L,S), f_B(B,S), \underbrace{f_E(E,T,L)}, f_X(X,E), f_D(D,E,B)\}. \text{ Delete T}.$$

$$g_1(A,E,L) = \sum_{T} (f_T(A,T) \times f_E(E,T,L))$$

size = 16

not necessarily a probability term

$$2 \quad \mathcal{L} = \{f_A(A), f_S(S), f_L(L,S), f_B(B,S), f_X(X,E), f_D(D,E,B), g_1(A,E,L)\}. \ \textbf{Delete S}.$$

$$g_2(L,B) = \sum_{S} (f_S(S) \times f_L(L,S) \times f_B(B,S))$$

size = 8

3
$$\mathcal{L} = \{f_A(A), f_X(X, E), f_D(D, E, B), g_1(A, E, L), g_2(L, B)\}.$$
 Del. E

$$g_3(X,D,B,A,L) = \sum_E (f_X(X,E) \times f_D(D,E,B) \times g_1(A,E,L))$$

Example with Asia network: VE

4
$$\mathcal{L} = \{f_A(A), g_2(L, B), g_3(X, D, B, A, L)\}$$
. **Delete A**

size = 32 |

$$g_4(X, D, B, L) = \sum_A (f_A(A) \times g_3(X, D, B, A, L))$$

5 $\mathcal{L} = \{g_2(L,B), g_4(X,D,B,L)\}.$ **Delete L**.

size = 16

$$g_5(X,D,B) = \sum_{L} g_2(L,B) \times g_4(X,D,B,L)$$

6 $\mathcal{L} = \{g_5(X, D, B)\}$. **Delete B**.

size = 8

$$g_6(X,D) = \sum_{R} g_5(X,D,B)$$

7 $\mathcal{L} = \{ g_6(X, D) \}$. **Delete X**.

size = 4

$$g_7(D) = \sum_X g_6(X, D)$$



return normalize($g_7(D)$)

23

elimination order $\sigma_1 = A, X, T, S, L, E, B$ Size = 8



Variable elimination algorithm

- Local computations (due to moving the additions)
- Importance of the elimination ordering, but finding an optimal (minimum cost) is NP-hard [Arnborg et al.'87] (heuristics for good sequences)
- Complexity is exponential in the max No. of var. in the factors of the summation



24

Queries Brute-force VE Message Approx

Exact inference

Message passing algorithm

- It operates passing messages among the nodes of the network. Nodes act as processors that receive, calculate and send information. Called propagation algorithms
- Clique tree propagation, based on the same principle as VE but with a sophisticated caching strategy that:
 - Enables to compute the posterior prob. distr. of all variables in twice the time it takes to compute that of one single variable



Message passing algorithm

Basic operations for a node i

- Ask info(i,j): Target node i asks info to node j. Does it for all neighbors j. They do the same until there are no nodes to ask
- Send-message(i,j): Each node sends a message $M^{i \rightarrow j}$ to the node that asked him the info... until reaching the target node
- A message is defined over the intersection of domains F_i and F_i of f_i and f_i :

$$M^{i \to j} = \sum_{X \notin F_i \cap F_j} f_i \cdot \left(\prod_{k \neq j} M^{k \to i} \right)$$

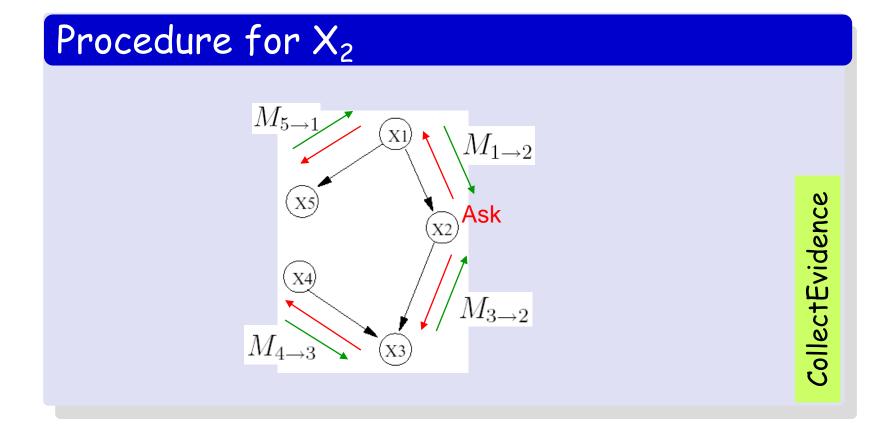
And finally, we calculate locally at each node i:

Target combines all the target variable

received info with his info and marginalize over the tensor verice
$$P(X_i|\mathbf{e}) = \text{normalize} \left[\sum_{X_j \neq X_i} \left(f_i \cdot \prod_{k \in \text{neighbours}(X_i)} M^{k \to i} \right) \right]$$



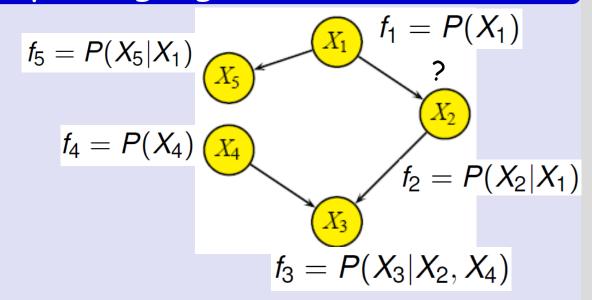
Message passing algorithm





Queries

$P(X_2)$ as a message passing algorithm



- 1. Ask(2, 1) and Ask(2, 3). Ask(3, 4) and Ask(1, 5)
- 2. $M^{5\to 1} = \sum_{X_5} f_5(X_5, X_1)$. $M^{4\to 3} = f_4(X_4)$
- 3. $M^{1\to 2} = f_1(X_1)M^{5\to 1}$. $M^{3\to 2} = \sum_{X_3,X_4} f_3(X_3,X_2,X_4)M^{4\to 3}$
- **4.** $P(X_2) = \text{normalize}(\sum_{X_1} f_2(X_2, X_1) M^{1 \to 2} M^{3 \to 2})$

Queries Brute-force VE Message Approx

Approximate inference

Why?

- Because exact inference is intractable (NP-complete) with large (+40) and densely connected BNs
 - the associated cliques for the junction tree algorithm or the intermediate factors in the VE algorithm will grow in size, generating an exponential blowup in the number of computations performed
- Stochastic simulation to find approximate answers



Stochastic simulation

- Uses the network to generate a large number of cases (full instantiations) from the network distribution
- P(X_i|e) is estimated using these cases by counting observed frequencies in the samples. By the Law of Large Numbers, estimate converges to the exact probability as more cases are generated

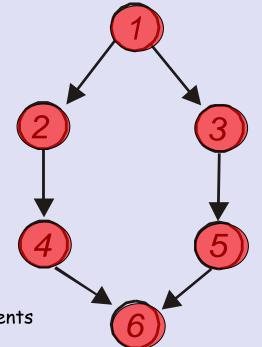


Probabilistic logic sampling [Henrion'88]

Given an ancestral ordering of the nodes (parents before children), generate from X once we have generated from its parents (i.e. from the root nodes down to the leaves)

When all the nodes have been visited, we have a <u>case</u>, an instantiation of all the nodes in the BN

Use conditional prob. given the known values of the parents



Repeat and use the observed frequencies to estimate P(X_i|e)



Probabilistic logic sampling

Suppose we obtain the following samples:

Then:

$$\hat{p}(X_1 = 0) = \frac{3}{5}$$

 \checkmark With evidence, e.g. $X_2=1$, we discard the third and fourth samples and we would repeat until having a sample of size 5 as desired

$$(0,1,1,1,1,1), (0,1,0,1,1,1), (1,1,0,0,1,1), (1,1,1,1,1,0), (1,1,1,1,1,0,0)$$

$$\hat{p}(X_1 = 0 | X_2 = 1) = \frac{2}{5}$$



Likelihood weighting



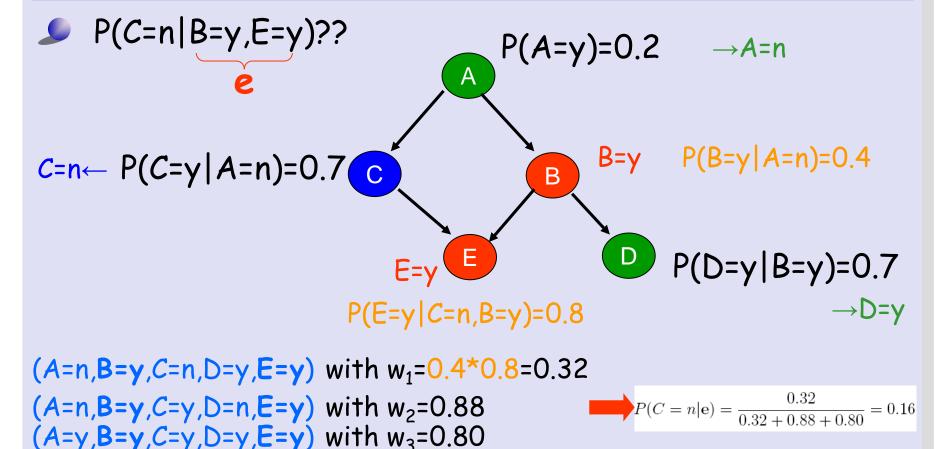
- Don't generate from E; fix its values E=e
- Generate from the rest as in PLS
- Instead of adding "1" to the run count, the CPTs for the evidence nodes are used to determine how likely that evidence combination is:
 - For a sample i, assign a weight w_i given by the likelihood of the evidence given its parents

$$w_i = \prod_{X_i \in \mathbf{E}} P(X_i = e_i | \text{Pa values})$$

In PLS, w_i =1 for samples consistent with \mathbf{e} and w_i =0 otherwise



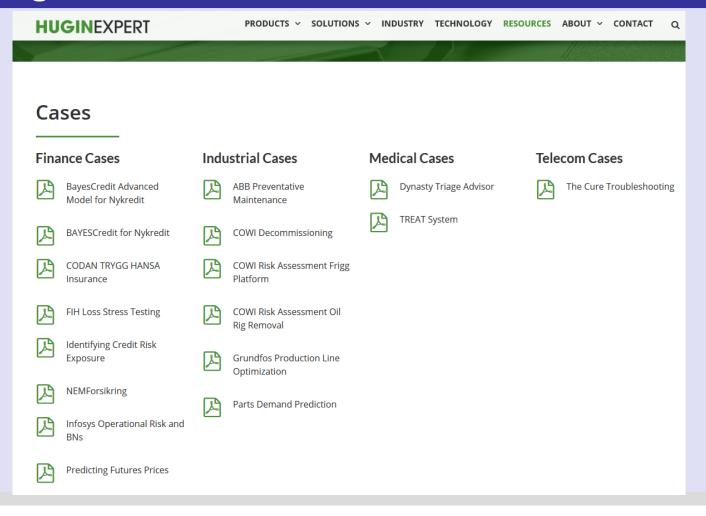
Likelihood weighting: example





http://www.cs.ubc.ca/~murphyk/Software/bnsoft.html http://www.cs.iit.edu/~mbilgic/classes/fall10/cs595/tools.html

www.hugin.com/





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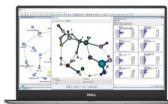
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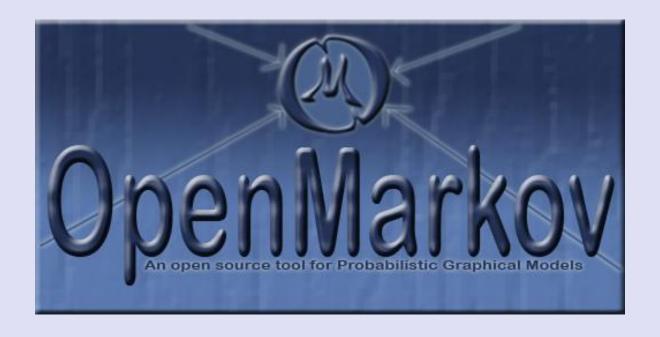


https://code.google.com/archive/p/bnt/

Project	bnt
Source	
Issues	Bayes Net Toolbox for Matlab
Wikis	Bayes Net Toolbox for Matlab
Downloads	Written by Kevin Murphy, 19972002. Last updated: 19 October 2007.
	As on January 2014, a copy of this is available at https://github.com/bayesnet/bnt
	http://bnt.googlecode.com/svn/trunk/docs/mathbymatlab.gif
	 Major Features Examples of supported Models Download zip file Installation How to use the toolbox Subscribe to the BNT Email List Invited Paper on BNT published in Computing Science and Statistics, 2001. Other Bayes net software A brief introduction to Bayesian Networks Terms and conditions of use (GNU Library GPL) Why do I give the code away? Changelog Why MATLAB? Acknowledgements How do I contribute changes to the code?

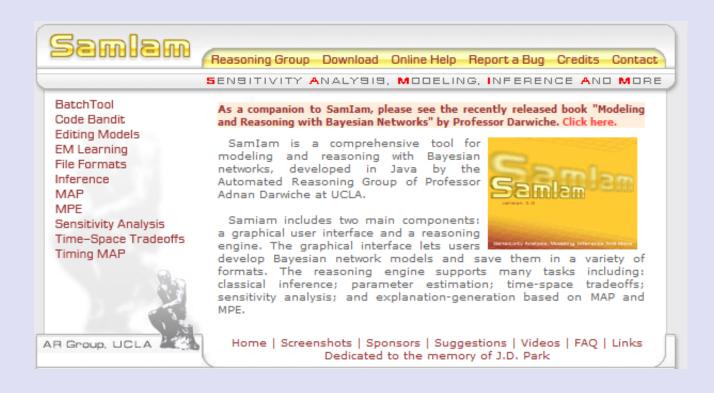


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reasoning.cs.ucla.edu/samiam/





www.r-project.org/



bnlearn, deal, pcalg,
catnet, mugnet, bnclassify

———— learning

gRbase, gRain

→ inference



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