# Statistical Reasoning

Unit 4 Brandon Syiem

# Bayes Theorem

The probability of some hypothesis H given some evidence E is

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H) P(H)}{P(E)}$$

- How do we get this?
  - $\circ$  P(A|B) = P(A,B)/P(B)
  - $\circ P(B|A) = P(A,B)/P(A)$
  - o Therefore,
    - $\blacksquare$  P(A,B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)
  - o And, from the above

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- P(A,B,C) ??
- Let us take, D = B∩C
- P(A,D) = P(A|D) P(D) = P(D|A) P(A)
- P(A|B,C)P(B,C) = P(A|B,C)P(B|C)P(C)
- We could have also taken,  $D = A \cap C$  or  $D = A \cap B$
- So there are many combinations that need to be considered
- Also, what happens when the number of variables is large
- P(A,B,C,D,E,F,G .....)

# Certainty Factors and Rule based systems

- Rule based systems represent most knowledge as rules.
- Rules are in the form of
  - IF (precondition)
  - THEN (conclusion)
- These rule systems can be augmented by using a measure of certainty of the conclusion.
  - Measure of belief/disbelief in the hypothesis given some evidence
- These measures of certainty are called Certainty factors.

- Certainty factor for a certain Hypothesis given some Evidence can be written as CF[h,e].
- Is made up of two components
  - A measure of **belief** in **h** given some **e** range [0,1]
    - MB[h,e]
  - A measure of disbelief in **h** given some **e** range [0,1]
    - MD[h,e]

$$CF[h,e] = MB[h,e] - MD[h,e]$$

- An Evidence can either support a hypothesis or deny it but not both.
- Therefore only MB or MD can be prevalent at one instance.
- Note that CF is similar to conditional probability but not the same.
  - An example will be that CF can be negative.

# Combination of certainty rules

IF has-spots(X)
AND has-fever(X)
THEN has-measles(X) CF 0.5

- Let's say that we have the evidence
  - has-spots(john) with CF = 0.4 -----> (CF1)
  - has-fever(john) with CF = 0.8 -----> (CF2)
- To work out the CF of has-measles, we have to consider
  - The CF of each evidence.
  - The CF attached to the rule.

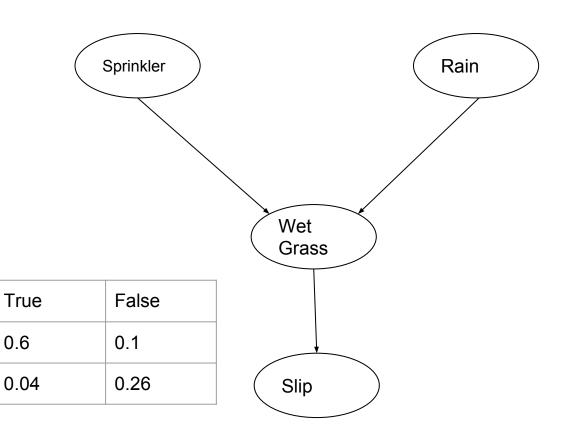
- The CF of the Conjunction(AND) of two evidence can be calculated as
  - CF = min( CF1, CF2)
- The CF of the Disjunction(OR) of two evidence can be calculated as
  - CF = max( CF1, CF2)
- The CF for the conclusion has-measles(john) can be calculated as
  - Total CF = rule CF \* total certainty of the evidence
  - $\circ$  CF = 0.5 \* 0.4

IF has-spots(X) CF 0.4 AND has-fever(X) CF 0.8 THEN has-measles(X) CF 0.5

- If we have another rule that concludes has-measles(john), the new CF for has-measles(john) is
  - CF = total CF1 + total CF2 (total CF1 \* total CF2)

# Bayesian Networks

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TuGDMj43ehw
- https://www.bayesserver.com/docs/introduction/bayesian-networks
- It is a probabilistic graphical model
- Is a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)



P(Slip)

WG = TRUE

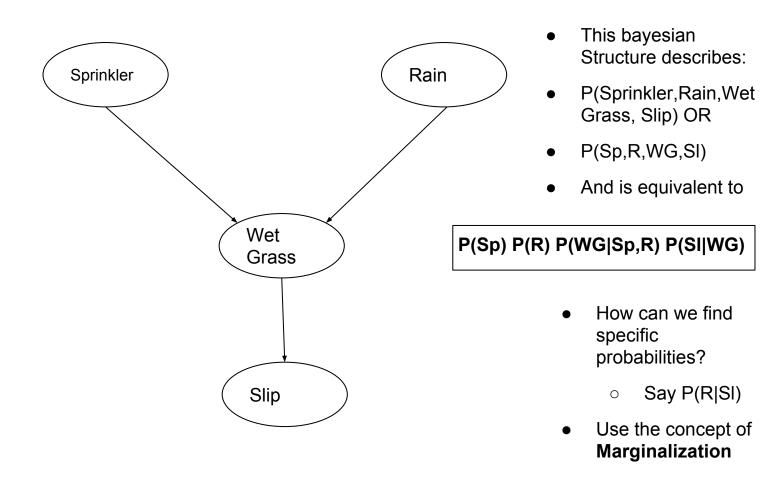
WG = FALSE

Each entry in the ovals is a variable that can either be a proposition {True,False} or a continuous value

Each Variable is associated with a Probability Table

#### P(Rain)

True	False
0.6	0.4



# Dempster-Shafer Theory

- Dempster-Shafer theory is an approach to combining evidence
- Dempster (1967) developed means for combining degrees of belief derived from independent items of evidence.
- His student, Glenn Shafer (1976), developed method for obtaining degrees of belief for one question from subjective probabilities for a related question.

 Bayesian Networks concentrates on finding the probability of a single hypothesis given a set of evidence.

$$P(H|E_1,E_2,....)$$

- The Dempster-shafer theory deals with evidence that supports a set of hypothesis (or proposition).
- It also assigns an interval to every subset A of H, given as

## [Bel(A),Plausibility(A)]

• Let's, say we have four different Hypothesis:

$$H = \{H1, H2, H3, H4\}$$

• We define the **Frame of Discernment** as the Power set of **H** as:

$$\mathsf{P} = \{\varnothing \;,\; \{\mathsf{H1}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H2}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H3}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H1},\mathsf{H2}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H2},\mathsf{H3}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H1},\mathsf{H3}\} \;,\; \{\mathsf{H1},\mathsf{H2},\mathsf{H3}\}\}$$

Mass Function(A):- A function that returns a value that signifies the proportion
of relevant and available evidence that support A. has a range of [0,1]

• 
$$m(\emptyset) = 0$$

• 
$$\sum m(A) = 1$$

where, A E P

- Belif Function(A):- the Belief function of A is equal to the sum of the masses (mass function) of all the subsets of A including A itself.
  - o Example

$$Bel(\{H1VH2\}) = m(H1)+m(H2)+m(H1,H2)$$

- Plausibility(A): The plausibility of some element A in P is the sum of the masses of all the elements that intersect with A
  - Example

$$PI({H1VH2}) = m(H1)+m(H2)+m(H1,H2)+m(H1,H3)+m(H2,H3)+m(H1,H2,H3)$$

• PI can also be written as :  $PI(A) = 1 - BeI(\neg A)$ 

# Fuzzy Logic

#### Crisp Sets

- Conventional set where membership is black and white.
- $\circ$  S1 = {1,2,3,4,5,6}
- $\circ$  S2 = [1,6]
- Is 1.5 a member of S1? S2?

# **Fuzzy Sets**

 Table 22.1
 Ages and their memberships

Age	Infant	Child	Adolescent	Young	Adult	Old
2	1	0	0	1	0	0
4	, 0.,1,	0.5	0.	1	0	0
10	0	1	0.3	1	0	0
15	0	0.8	1	1	0	0
21	0	0	0.1	1	0.8	0.1
30	. 0	0	0	0.6	1	0.3
35	0	0	0 ,	0.5	1	0.35
40	0 .	0	0	0.4	1	0.4
45	.0	0	0 .	0.2	1	0.6
60	. 0	0	0	0	1	0.8
70	, , Q	0	0;	0	1	1

- Age = 30
- The above age is a member of
  - o Young with 0.6
  - Adult with 1.0
  - o **Old** with 0.3
- Notice that the above is dissimilar to probabilities (numbers don't add up to 1).

# Fuzzy Set terminology

- Universe of Discourse (U)
  - Crisp set that defines the range of inputs.
  - Age = {2,4,10,15,21,30,35,40,45,60,70}
- Fuzzy Set
  - Set whose elements are given a membership value which expresses the degree of membership ([0,1]).
- Membership Function  $(\mu_{\Delta})$ 
  - The membership function,  $\mu_A(x)$ , returns the membership value of x in set A.
    - Where x ∈ U

- Support of a fuzzy set (S<sub>f</sub>)
  - $\circ$  **S**<sub>f</sub> is the support of the fuzzy set **f** and is defined as the set of all elements in **U** that have a non-zero membership in set **f**.
  - o Example:

$$S_{Child} = \{2,4,10,15\}$$

#### Depiction of a fuzzy set

A fuzzy set f in a universal crisp set U, is written as

$$f = \mu_1/s_1 + \mu_2/s_2 + \mu_3/s_3 + \dots + \mu_n/s_n$$

where  $\mu_i$  is the membership and  $s_i$  is the corresponding term in the *support* set of f i.e.  $S_f$ .

This is however only a representation and has no algebraic implication (the slash and + signs do not have any meaning).

Accordingly,

$$Old = 0.1/21 + 0.3/30 + 0.35/35 + 0.4/40 + 0.6/45 + 0.8/60 + 1/70$$

# **Fuzzy Set Operators**

• Union: The membership function of the union of two fuzzy sets A and B is defined as the maximum of the two individual membership functions. It is equivalent to the Boolean OR operation.

$$\mu_A \cup_B = \max(\mu_A, \mu_B)$$

• Intersection: The membership function of the intersection of two fuzzy sets A and B is defined as the minimum of the two individual membership functions and is equivalent to the Boolean AND operation.

$$\mu_A \cap_B = \min(\mu_A, \mu_B)$$

• Complement: The membership function of the complement of a fuzzy set A is defined as the negation of the specified membership function:  $\mu_{\bar{A}}$ . This is equivalent to the Boolean NOT operation

$$\mu_{\bar{A}} = \mu_A \cup_B = (1 - \mu_A)$$

It may be further noted here that the laws of Associativity, Commutativity, Distributivity and De Morgan's laws hold in fuzzy set theory too.

#### Additional

Fuzzy Logic

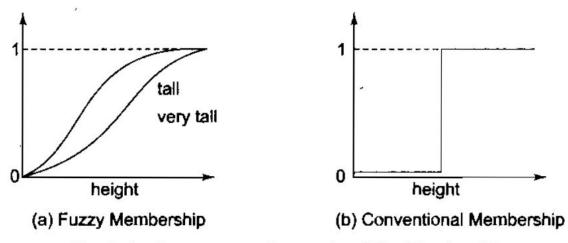


Fig. 8.4 Fuzzy versus Conventional Set Membership

# Natural Language Processing

#### Introduction

- Language allows us to communicate
- Largest part of communication happens through speech
- Written language is also a large part of communication but is secondary to speech
- To create a program that understands speech, we need to have it first be able to understand language in written format and the add upon it.
- The language processing problem is divided into two parts:
- Processing written text, using lexical, syntactic, and semantic knowledge of the language as well as the required real world information
- Processing spoken language, using all the information needed above plus additional knowledge about phonology as well as enough added informal ion to handle the further ambiguities that arise in speech

#### Overview

- Useful to think of language as a pair (Source Language, Target Representation)
- Steps involved in natural language understanding process:
  - Morphological Analysis: Individual words are analysed and non-word tokens such as punctuations are separated from words.
  - Syntactic Analysis: Words from the morphological analyzer are transformed into structures that show how the words relate to each other. ("The ant the cloud sun" will be rejected)
  - Semantic Analysis: The structures created in Syntactic analysis are given meaning. ("Colorless green liquid" will be rejected)
  - Discourse Integration: The meaning of a sentence may depend on a previous sentence and the meaning of a following sentence may depend on the current sentence. ("We were playing with the ball. John has it now. He went home")

- Pragmatic Analysis: The structure representing what was said is reinterpreted to determine what was meant. ("Do you know what time it is?" to "What is the time")
- All the above processes can either be done in sequence or all at once.

More information on the different steps can be found in pg. 288 - 290 E.Rich and K.Knight

## Example

Let's take an Example:

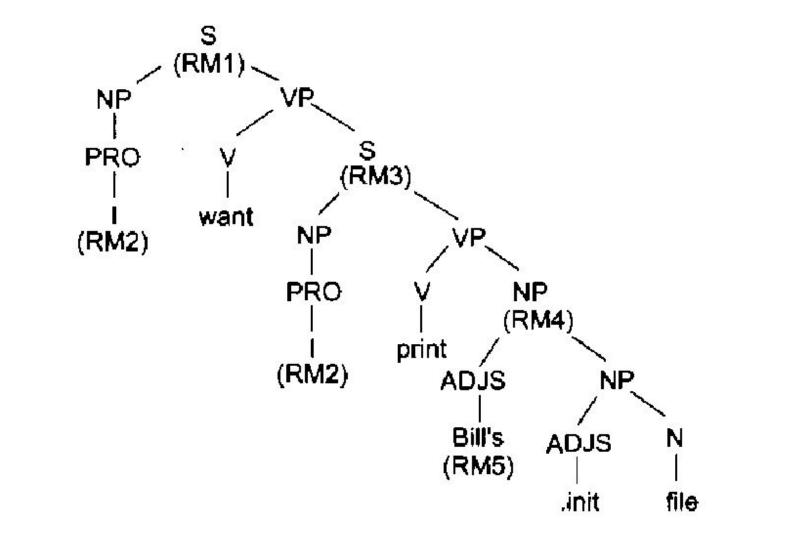
"I want to print Bill's .init file"

#### Morphological Analysis has the following tasks:

- Break up the string into distinct words
- Pull apart the word "Bill's" into the proper noun Bill and the possessive suffix "s"
  - "Prints" can be pulled apart as "print" and "s" and it must also decide is the "s" represents plurality, third person singular, etc.
- Recognize the word ".init" as a file extension that is functioning as a adjective
- Also needs to assign syntactic categories to each word ("Bill" is a proper noun)

#### Syntactic Analysis

- Main function is to use the output of the morphological analyzer and to build a structural description of the sentence
- Called parsing
- Flat sentence structure is converted to a hierarchical structure.
- Some Syntactic systems create reference markers



#### Semantic Analysis

- It must map individual words into appropriate objects in the knowledge base
- It must create correct structures to correspond to the way the meanings of the individual words combine with each other

User Person Printing isa: \* login-name : must be <string> Physical-Event isa: \* agent: must be <animate or program> User068 \* obiect : must be <information-object> User instance: login-name: Susan-Black Wanting Mental-Event isa: User073 \* agent: must be <animate> instance: User \* object : must be <state or event> login-name: Bill-Smith Commanding F1 Mental-Event isa : File-Struct instance: \* agent: must be <animate> stuff name: \* performer: must be <animate or program> .init extension: \* object: must be <event> User073 owner: This-System /wsmith/ in-directory: instance: Program File-Struct Information-Object isa :

RM1 instance :	Wanting RM2 RM3	{the whole sentence}
agent : object :		<pre>{I} {a printing event}</pre>
RM2		{I}
RM3 instance:	Printing	{a printing event}
agent : object :	RM2 RM4	{ } {Bill's .init file}
RM4 instance: extension: owner:	File-Struct .init RM5	{Bill's .init file}
RM5 instance : first-name :	Person Bill	{Bill}

#### Discourse Integration

specific individuals are being referred to. Specifically, we do not know to whom the pronoun "I" or the proper noun "Bill" refers. To pin down these references requires an appeal to a model of the current discourse context, from which we can learn that the current user (who typed the word "I") is *User068* and that the only person named "Bill" about whom we could be talking is *User073*. Once the correct referent for Bill is known, we can also determine exactly which file is being referred to: *F1* is the only file with the extension ".init" that is owned by Bill.

At this point, we have figured out what kinds of things this sentence is about. But we do not yet know which

- Pragmatic Analysis
  - If the sentence is a fact then done.
  - If intended meaning is different from what was said then apply required set of rule\*

```
Meaning
                          Commanding
     instance:
                          User068
     agent:
                          This-System
     performer:
     object:
                          P27
P27
                          Printing
     instance:
     agent:
                          This-System
     object:
                          F1
```

Book pg: - 290 (E.Rich and K.Knight)

# Syntactic Processing

- flat input from the morphological analysis is converted to a hierarchical structure that corresponds to the units of meaning in the sentence.
- Called *parsing*.
- Semantic analysis operates on sentence constituents (VERBS, NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, etc)
- Two main components:
  - o **Grammar** declarative facts about the syntactic features of a language
  - Parser compares grammar to input to produce parse structures.

#### Grammar

- Easily represented by a set of production rules.
- A simple context-free, phrase structured set of rules can be written as seen on the right.
- Symbols that can further be expanded are called non-terminal symbols.
- Symbols that cannot be further expanded are called terminal symbols.

 $S \rightarrow NP VP$  $NP \rightarrow the NP1$  $NP \rightarrow PRO$  $NP \rightarrow PN$  $NP \rightarrow NP1$  $NP1 \rightarrow ADJS N$  $ADJS \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid ADJ ADJS$  $VP \rightarrow V$  $VP \rightarrow V NP$  $N \rightarrow file \mid printer$ PN → Bill PRO  $\rightarrow 1$ ADJ → short | long | fast V → printed | created | want

#### Parser

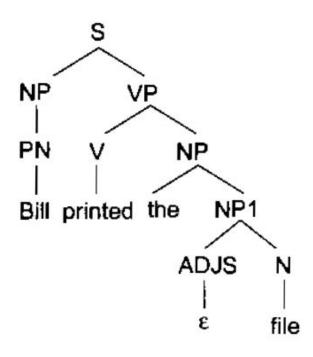
- Takes the rules of the grammar and compares them to our input sentence
- The simplest structure that can be built is a parse tree which simply records the rules and how they are matched.

#### Parse Tree

- Each leaf node corresponds to a terminal node or an input word
- Each level corresponds to the application of one grammar rule

# **Example Parser**

"Bill printed the file"



# Types of parsing

- Top-Down Parsing—Begin with the start symbol and apply the grammar rules forward until the symbols
  at the terminals of the tree correspond to the components of the sentence being parsed.
- Bottom-Up Parsing—Begin with the sentence to be parsed and apply the grammar rules backward
  until a single tree whose terminals are the words of the sentence and whose top node is the start symbol
  has been produced.
  - Picking which is better is similar to the reasoning we applied to picking forward or backward reasoning
    - o Branching factor is one of the main factors

# **Augmented Transition Networks**

pg:-295-297 (E.Rich & K.Knight)