



# Chapter 8

## Bayesian Learning:

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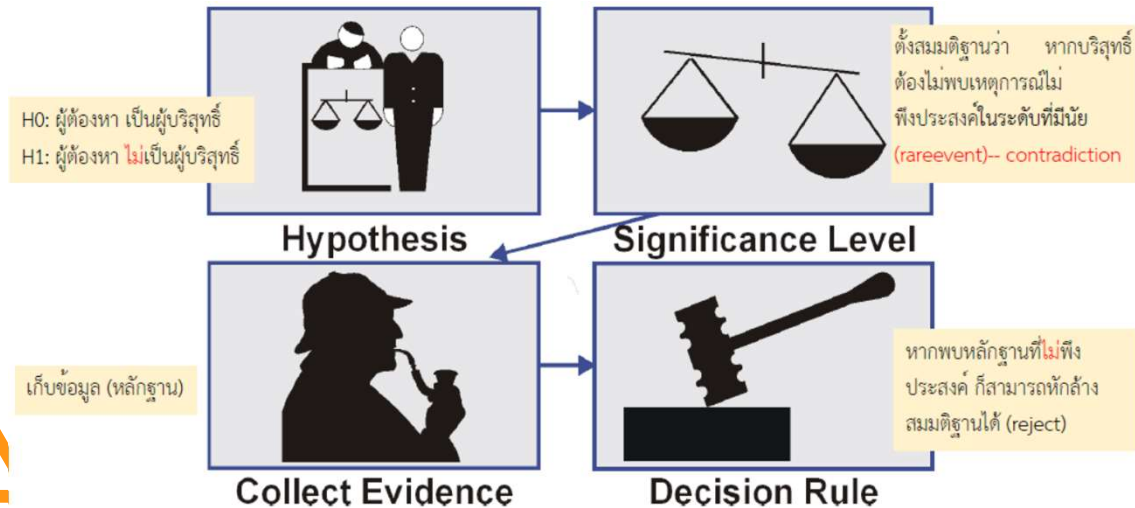
## Part 1

Naïve Bayes

### Applications:

- In finance, rate the risk of lending money to potential borrowers
- In medicine, determine the effectiveness of medication

# Hypothesis Testing



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DECISION BASED ON SAMPLE	TRUTH ABOUT THE POPULATION	
	H0 is true	H0 is false
FAIL TO REJECT H0	Correct Decision (prob = $1 - \alpha$ )	Type II Error -fail to reject H0 when it is false (prob = $\beta$ )
REJECT H0	Type I Error -rejecting H0 when it is true (prob = $\alpha$ )	Correct Decision (prob = $1 - \beta$ )

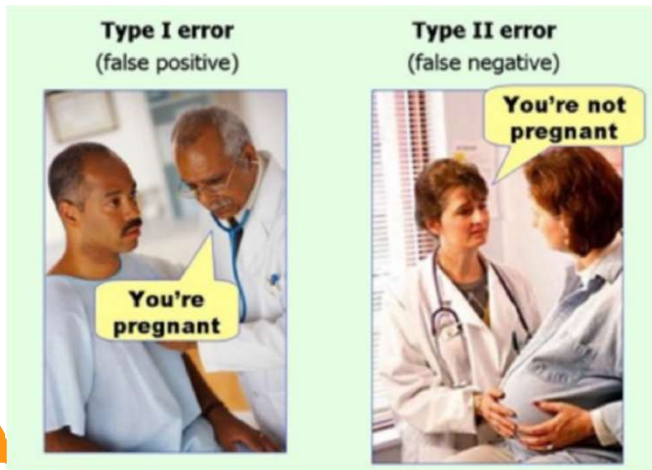
## Error in Hypothesis Testing

- Level of significance ( $\alpha$ ) is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true
- $\alpha = P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{Reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$
- $\alpha = 0.05$  indicates willing to accept a 5% chance that you are wrong when you reject the null hypothesis. To lower this risk, you must use a lower value for  $\alpha$ . However, using a lower value alpha means it is less likely to detect a true difference if one really exists..
- Power of the test ( $1 - \beta$ ) is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false
- Probability of making a type II error is  $\beta$ , which depends on the power of the test.

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# Type I and Type II Errors



- $H_0$ : You are normal
- $H_1$ : You are **not** normal (pregnant)
- Type I
  - ความผิดพลาดในการ reject มากเกินไป
  - ทั้ง ๆ ที่ความจริง ปกติ
- Type II
  - ความผิดพลาดในการ reject น้อยเกินไป
  - ทั้ง ๆ ที่ความจริง **ไม่**ปกติ

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## Confusion Matrix: Performance of Classifier

		Predicted Class		
		Positive	Negative	
Actual Class	Positive	True Positive (TP)	False Negative (FN) <b>Type II Error</b>	<b>Sensitivity (Recall)</b> $\frac{TP}{(TP + FN)}$
	Negative	False Positive (FP) <b>Type I Error</b>	True Negative (TN)	<b>Specificity</b> $\frac{TN}{(TN + FP)}$
		<b>Precision</b> $\frac{TP}{(TP + FP)}$	<b>Negative Predictive Value</b> $\frac{TN}{(TN + FN)}$	<b>Accuracy</b> $\frac{TP + TN}{(TP + TN + FP + FN)}$

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- $A$  and  $B$  denote two events.
- Events could be that *it will rain tomorrow*; *a person has cancer*.
- $P(A|B)$  = probability that  $A$  occurs given  $B$  is true
- $P(B|A)$  = probability of observing  $B$  given  $A$  occurs
- $P(A)$  and  $P(B)$  are probability that  $A$  and  $B$  occur, respectively
- Bayes Theorem provides a principled way for calculating conditional probabilities, called a *posterior probability*.

## Bayes Theorem

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

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## Example 1

คนไข้คนหนึ่งไปตรวจหามะเร็ง ผลการตรวจเป็นบวก อยากทราบว่า เราควรวินิจฉัยโรคคนไข้คนนี้เป็นมะเร็งจริงหรือไม่? ความเป็นจริง คือ

- ◆ ผลการตรวจเมื่อเป็นบวกจะให้ความถูกต้อง 98% กรณีที่มีโรคนั้นอยู่จริง
- ◆ ผลการตรวจเมื่อเป็นลบจะให้ความถูกต้อง 97% กรณีที่ไม่มีโรคนั้น
- ◆ 0.008 ของประชากรทั้งหมดเป็นโรคมะเร็ง

จากความเป็นจริงที่กำหนดให้ข้างต้น เราจะทราบค่าความน่าจะเป็นต่อไปนี้

$P(\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$      $P(\sim\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$

$P(+|\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$      $P(-|\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$

$P(+|\sim\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$      $P(-|\sim\text{cancer}) = \dots\dots\dots$

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$$P(\text{cancer} | +) \\ = P(+ | \text{cancer})P(\text{cancer})$$

$$= \dots\dots\dots$$

$$P(\sim\text{cancer} | +) \\ = P(+ | \sim\text{cancer})P(\sim\text{cancer})$$

$$= \dots\dots\dots$$

เนื่องจากผลรวมของ  $P(\text{cancer}|+)$  กับ  $P(\sim\text{cancer}|+)$

เท่ากับ.....จึงสามารถ normalize ค่าของ

$$P(\text{cancer}|+) = \dots\dots\dots$$

และ

$$P(\sim\text{cancer}|+) = \dots\dots\dots$$

เนื่องจาก  $P(\sim\text{cancer}|+)$  มีค่ามากกว่า

สมมติฐานที่ว่า คนไข้ไม่เป็นมะเร็ง เมื่อทราบผลตรวจ

เป็นบวก จึงถูกเลือก

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## Example 2 cancer screening test scenario

- It reports **80** out of **100** cancer patients are correctly diagnosed, while the other **20** are not; cancer is falsely detected in **900** out of **9,900** healthy people.
- Given a positive screening result, the chance that the subject has cancer is ....., compared to ..... where without undergoing the screening.

$$P(C|Pos) = \frac{P(Pos|C)P(C)}{P(Pos)}$$

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### Example3:

- Three machines A, B, C in a factory account for 35%, 20%, 45% of bulb production.
- The fraction of defective bulbs produced by each machine is 1.5%, 1%, and 2% respectively.
- A bulb produced by this factory was identified defective, denoted as **event D**.
- This bulb was most likely manufactured by which machine?

## Bayes Theorem for Modeling Hypotheses

- Bayes Theorem is a useful tool in applied machine learning. It provides a **probabilistic model** to describe the relationship between data (D) and a hypothesis (h);

$$P(h|D) = P(D|h) * P(h) / P(D)$$

- **Bayes**: maps the probabilities of observing input features given belonging classes, to the probability distribution over classes based on **Bayes theorem**.

## How Naïve Bayes works

- Given a data sample  $x$  with  $n$  features,  $\mathbf{x} = \langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rangle$
- Goal of NB is to determine the probabilities that this sample belongs to each of  $K$  possible classes  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_K$ , that is  $P(y_k | \mathbf{x})$
- Consider  $\mathbf{x}$ , or  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , is a **joint event** that the sample has features with values  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , respectively,  $y_k$  is an event that the sample belongs to class  $k$ .
- We can apply Bayes' theorem as:

$$P(y_k | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x} | y_k) P(y_k)}{P(\mathbf{x})}$$

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## Mechanics of Naïve Bayes

- $P(y_k)$  portrays how classes are distributed, provided with no further knowledge of observation features. Thus, it is also called **prior** in Bayesian probability terminology. Prior can be either predetermined (usually in a *uniform* manner where each class has an equal chance of occurrence) or *learned from a set of training samples*.
- $P(y_k | \mathbf{x})$ , in contrast to prior  $P(y_k)$ , is the **posterior** with extra knowledge of observation.
- $P(\mathbf{x} | y_k)$ , or  $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | y_k)$  is the **joint distribution** of  $n$  features, given the sample belongs to class  $y_k$ . This is how likely the features with such values cooccur. Obviously, the likelihood will be difficult to compute as the number of features increases.
- In NB, this is solved thanks to the **feature independence assumption**. The joint conditional distribution of  $n$  features can be expressed as the joint product of individual feature conditional distributions:

$$P(\mathbf{x} | y_k) = P(x_1 | y_k) * P(x_2 | y_k) * \dots * P(x_n | y_k)$$

Each conditional distribution can be efficiently learned from a set of training samples.

$$P(y_k | \mathbf{x}) \propto P(\mathbf{x} | y_k) P(y_k) = P(x_1 | y_k) * P(x_2 | y_k) * \dots * P(x_n | y_k) * P(y_k)$$

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Magazine Promotion	Watch Promotion	Life Insurance Promotion	Credit Card Insurance	Age	Sex
Yes	No	No	No	45	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes → NO	40	Female
No	No	No	No	42	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	30	Male
Yes	No	Yes	No	38	Female
No	No	No	No	55	Female
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	35	Male
No	No	No	No	27	Male
Yes	No	No	No	43	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	41	Female

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## Naïve Bayes Learning

### Naïve Bayes Algorithm

Naïve\_Bayes\_Learn (examples)

For each target value  $C_i$

$P'(C_i) \leftarrow$  estimate  $P(C_i)$

For each attribute value  $A_j = a_j$  of each target value  $C_i$

$P'(A_j = a_j | C_i) \leftarrow$  estimate  $P(A_j = a_j | C_i)$

Classify\_New\_Example (x)

$$C = \underset{i=1}{\overset{m}{\text{Max}}} P'(C_i) \prod_{j=1}^n P'(A_j = a_j | C_i)$$

sampleID	hair color	eye color	weight	apply lotion	sun burn
S1	black	dark	overweight	no	-
S2	red	dark	normal	no	+
S3	blonde	light	overweight	no	+
S4	red	light	underweight	no	+
S5	black	dark	overweight	yes	-
S6	blonde	dark	overweight	no	+
S7	red	light	underweight	yes	-
S8	black	dark	normal	no	-
S9	blonde	dark	normal	yes	+
S10	red	light	normal	yes	+
S11	black	light	normal	yes	+
S12	blonde	light	underweight	no	+
S13	red	dark	normal	yes	-
S14	black	light	underweight	no	+

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### Learn\_Naive\_Bayes\_Text (Examples, V)

1. collect all words and other tokens that occur in *Examples*

- *Vocabulary*  $\leftarrow$  all distinct words and other tokens in *Examples*

2. calculate the required  $P(v_j)$  and  $P(w_k | v_j)$  probability terms

- For each target value  $v_j$  in *V* do
  - $docs_j \leftarrow$  subset of *Examples* for which the target value is  $v_j$
  - $P(v_j) \leftarrow |docs_j| / |Examples|$
  - $Text_i \leftarrow$  a single document created by concatenating all members of  $docs_j$
  - $n \leftarrow$  total number of words in  $Text_i$  (counting duplicate words each)
  - for each word  $w_k$  in *Vocabulary*
    - $n_k \leftarrow$  number of times word  $w_k$  occurs in  $Text_i$
    - $P(w_k | v_j) \leftarrow \frac{n_k + 1}{n + |Vocabulary|}$

### Classify\_Naive\_Bayes\_Text(Doc)

- *positions*  $\leftarrow$  all word positions in *Doc* that contain tokens found in *Vocabulary*
- Return  $v_{NB}$  where

$$v_{NB} = \underset{v_j \in V}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(v_j) \prod_{i \in \text{positions}} P(a_i | v_j)$$

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If  $\exists \hat{p}(a_j | c_i) = 0$  then  $\hat{p}(c_i) \prod_{j=1}^m \hat{p}(a_j | c_i) = 0$

$$\hat{p}(a_j | c_i) = \frac{n_c + mp}{n_i + m}$$

Where  $n_c = \# \text{training examples for which } c = c_i \text{ and } A = a_j$

$n_i = \# \text{examples for which } c = c_i$

$P = \text{prior estimate for } \hat{p}(a_j | c_i)$

**m-estimate**

laplace

$m = \text{weight given to prior}$

(i.e.  $\#$  "virtual examples")

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# Example classifying with Naïve Bayes

	ID	Terms in email	Is spam
Training data	1	click win prize	yes
	2	click meeting setup meeting	no
	3	prize free prize	yes
	4	click prize free	yes
Testing case	5	free setup meeting free	?

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## Numeric Data

Numeric data can be dealt with in a similar manner provided that the probability density function representing the distribution of the data is known. If a particular numerical attribute is normally distributed, we use the standard probability density function shown in Equation 10.13.

where

$$f(x) = 1 / (\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}) e^{-(x-\mu)^2 / (2\sigma^2)} \quad (10.13)$$

where

$e$  = the exponential function  
 $\mu$  = the class mean for the given numerical attribute  
 $\sigma$  = the class standard deviation for the attribute  
 $x$  = the attribute value

Although this equation looks quite complicated, it is very easy to apply. To demonstrate, consider the data in Table 10.6. This table displays the data in Table 10.4 with an added column containing numerical attribute age.

Let's use this new information to compute the conditional probabilities for the male and female classes for the following instance.

Magazine Promotion = Yes  
 Watch Promotion = Yes  
 Life Insurance Promotion = No  
 Credit Card Insurance = No  
 Age = 45  
 Sex = ?

### • Addition of Attribute Age to the Bayes Classifier Dataset

Magazine Promotion	Watch Promotion	Life Insurance Promotion	Credit Card Insurance	Age	Sex
Yes	No	No	No	45	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	40	Female
No	No	No	No	42	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	30	Male
Yes	No	No	No	38	Female
No	No	No	No	55	Female
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	35	Male
No	No	No	No	27	Male
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	41	Female

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For the overall conditional probabilities we have:

$$P(E | \text{sex} = \text{male}) = (4/6) (2/6) (4/6) (4/6) [P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{male})]$$

$$P(E | \text{sex} = \text{female}) = (3/4) (2/4) (1/4) (3/4) [P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{female})]$$

To determine the conditional probability for age given sex = male, we assume age to be normally distributed and apply the probability density function. We use the data in Table 10.5 to find the mean and standard deviation scores. For the class sex = male we have:  $\sigma = 7.69$ ,  $\mu = 37.00$ , and  $x = 45$ . Therefore the probability that age = 45 given sex = male is computed as:

$$P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{male}) = 1 / (\sqrt{2\pi} 7.69) e^{-(45-37.00)^2 / (2(7.69)^2)}$$

Making the computation, we have:

$$P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{male}) = 0.030$$

To determine the conditional probability for age given sex = female, we substitute  $\sigma = 7.77$ ,  $\mu = 43.50$ , and  $x = 45$ . Specifically,

$$P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{female}) = 1 / (\sqrt{2\pi} 7.77) e^{-(45-43.50)^2 / (2(7.77)^2)}$$

Making the computation, we have:

$$P(\text{age} = 45 | \text{sex} = \text{female}) = 0.050$$

We can now determine the overall conditional probability values:

$$P(E | \text{sex} = \text{male}) = (4/6) (2/6) (4/6) (4/6) (0.030) = .003$$

$$P(E | \text{sex} = \text{female}) = (3/4) (2/4) (1/4) (3/4) (0.050) = .004$$

Finally, applying Equation 10.9 we have:

$$P(\text{sex} = \text{male} | E) = (.003) (3.60) / P(E) = .0018 / P(E)$$

$$P(\text{sex} = \text{female} | E) = (.004) (0.40) / P(E) = .0016 / P(E)$$

Once again, we ignore  $P(E)$  and conclude that the instance belongs to the male class.

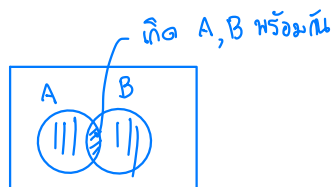
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## Part 2

Bayesian Belief Network  
(BBN) / Bayes Net

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สูตรพื้นฐานเกี่ยวกับ  
ความน่าจะเป็น

◆ **Product Rule:** ความน่าจะเป็นที่สองเหตุการณ์ A และ B จะเกิดพร้อมกัน

$$P(B \cap A) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A|B)P(B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

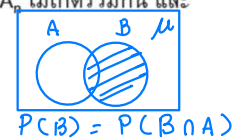
◆ **Sum Rule:** ความน่าจะเป็นที่เหตุการณ์ A หรือ B จะเกิด

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

◆ **Theorem of total probability:** ถ้าเหตุการณ์  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  ไม่เกิดร่วมกัน และ

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) = 1 \text{ แล้ว } P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

พ้อย i เพาะได้ A หรือ  $\neg A$



$$P(B) = P(B \cap A) + P(B \cap \neg A)$$

◆ **Chain Rule:** ถ้า  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  เป็น n เหตุการณ์

Joint Probability

$$P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i | A_1, \dots, A_{i-1})$$

$$P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

$$P(B, A) = P(B|A)P(A)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n P(B|A_i)P(A_i) = 1$$

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$$P(A_1 | A_2 A_3) P(A_2 | A_3) P(A_3)$$

$$P(A_3 | A_2 A_1) P(A_2 | A_1) P(A_1)$$

$$P(C_i | \langle A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m \rangle) = \frac{P(\langle \quad \rangle | C_i) P(C_i)}{P(\langle \quad \rangle)} = P(C_i) \prod_{j=1}^m P(A_j | C_i)$$

↓  
fully conditional model

## Challenge of Probabilistic Modeling

- Probabilistic models can define relationships between variables and be used to calculate probabilities.
- However, probabilistic models can be challenging to design and use.
- Fully conditional models may require an enormous amount of data to cover all possible cases, and probabilities may be intractable to calculate in practice.
- To address this challenge, Naïve Bayes classification assumes that all random variables in the model are conditionally independent.
- This is a drastic assumption, although it proves useful in practice.

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## Bayesian Belief Network –BBN

- Bayes Net provides an intermediate approach between a fully conditional model and a fully conditionally independent model.
- An alternative is to develop a model that preserves known conditional dependence between random variables and conditional independence in all other cases.
- Bayesian networks are a probabilistic graphical model that explicitly capture the known conditional dependence with directed edges in a graph model. All missing connections define the conditional independencies in the model.
- “A Bayesian belief network describes the joint probability distribution for a set of variables.”

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diagnosis → ทราบเหตุจากผล / อาการที่เห็น

BBN → Causal analysis วิเคราะห์ความเป็นเหตุและผล หาค่าเหตุ (diagnosis)

## Probabilistic Graphical Models (PGM)



A probabilistic graphical model (PGM), or simply "graphical model", is a way of representing a probabilistic model with a graph structure.



A graph comprises nodes or vertices, connected by links (also called edges or arcs). In PGM, each node represents a random variable (or group of random variables), and the links express probabilistic relationships between these variables.



The Hidden Markov Model (HMM) is a graphical model where the edges of the graph are undirected, meaning the graph contains cycles.



Bayesian Networks are more restrictive, where the edges of the graph are directed, i.e., cycles are not possible, and generally referred to as a directed acyclic graph (DAG).

HMM มีโอกาสเกิด loop ทำให้ไม่รู้จุดเริ่มต้นที่แน่นอนหรือผล

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## Conditional Independence

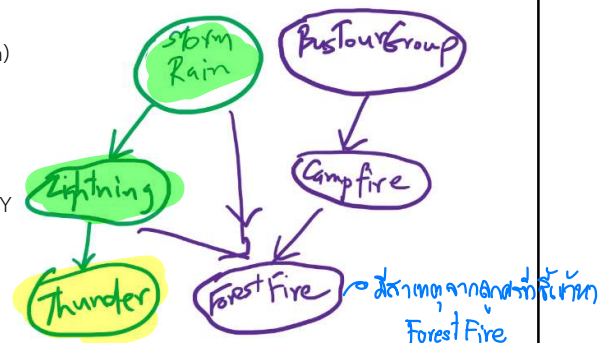
- ข่ายงานความเชื่อเบส หรือเรียกสั้น ๆ ว่า ข่ายงานเบส (Bayes Net) อธิบายความไม่ขึ้นต่อกันอย่างมีเงื่อนไข (Conditional Independence) ระหว่างเซตย่อยของคุณลักษณะหรือตัวแปร โดยใช้แผนภาพ DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph) และเซตของตารางความน่าจะเป็นอย่างมีเงื่อนไข (Conditional Probability Table – CPT)
- นิยาม : X is conditionally independence of Y given Z if the probability distribution governing X is independent of the value of Y given the value of Z

$$\text{จะได้ว่า } P(X | Y, Z) = P(X | Z)$$

- ตัวอย่าง: Thunder is conditionally independent of Rain, given Lightning จะได้ว่า

$$P(\text{Thunder} | \text{Rain}, \text{Lightning}) = P(\text{Thunder} | \text{Lightning})$$

simply โดยตัด Rain ทิ้ง



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LC is conditional independent of its nondescendant E given its immediate parents FH and S, i.e., once we know values of FH, S, var E provide no additional info about LC.

ตัวที่ไม่ใช่ลูกหลาน

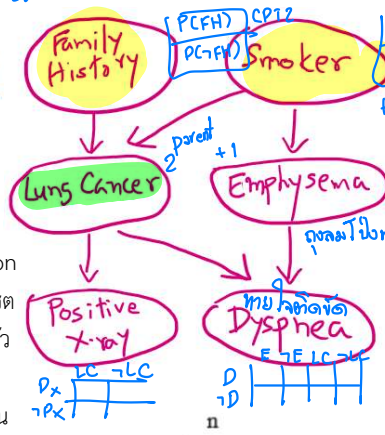
จำนวนตาราง CPT เท่ากับจำนวนปม DAG ในนี้คือ 6 ตาราง

$P(LC | FH, S)$

	FH, S	FH, S	FH, S	FH, S
LC	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.1
$\sim LC$	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.9

$P(\sim LC | FH, S)$

BBN แสดง joint probability distribution ระหว่างตัวแปร ด้วยแผนภาพ DAG และเซตของ CPT โดย CPT สำหรับตัวแปรแต่ละตัว จะแสดงการกระจายความน่าจะเป็น (probability distribution) ของตัวแปรนั้น เมื่อรู้โหนดพ่อแม่โดยตรง อ้างอิงจากความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างตัวแปร แสดงโดย DAG และ ความน่าจะเป็นใน CPT



$P(S)$

S	0.5
$\sim S$	0.5

$P(S)$

DAG แสดงความสัมพันธ์แบบเป็นเหตุเป็นผล (causality) ระหว่างคุณลักษณะของข้อมูล แต่ละโหนดแทนคุณลักษณะของข้อมูล เส้นเชื่อมระหว่างโหนด (arc) แสดงความจริง (assertion) ของความไม่ขึ้นต่อกัน อย่างมีเงื่อนไขระหว่างตัวแปรหนึ่งๆกับโหนดที่ไม่ใช่ลูกหลาน (nondescendants) เมื่อรู้โหนดพ่อแม่ (parents) โดยตรง จากความจริงดังกล่าว สามารถคำนวณความน่าจะเป็นร่วมของตัวแปร/คุณลักษณะ เมื่อทราบโหนดพ่อแม่ได้ง่ายขึ้น ตามสมการด้านล่าง

$$P(y_1, \dots, y_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(y_i | \text{Parents}(Y_i))$$

$P(LC | FH, S)$  ตัวที่ไม่ใช่ลูกหลาน เพื่อคำนวณง่ายขึ้น

## DAG & CPT

บอกความสัมพันธ์ - ข้อจากเส้นเชื่อม

LC ไม่ขึ้นต่อกับ Emphysema

## BBN Inferences

Models can be prepared by experts or learned from data, then used for inference to estimate the probabilities for causal or subsequent events.

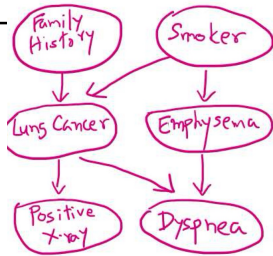
Two types of inferences:

การอนุมานจากเหตุ (Causal Reasoning)

การอนุมานจากผล (Diagnosis Reasoning)

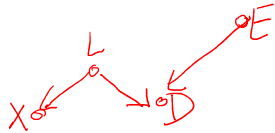
FH, S FH, S ~FH, S ~FH, ~S

LC	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.1
LC	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.9



## Causal Reasoning

การอนุมานจากเหตุ  
 $P(D|L, E)$



- ความน่าจะเป็นของ Dyspnea เมื่อรู้ Emphysema

$$P(D/E) = \frac{P(D, E)}{P(E)}$$

$$= \frac{P(D, E, L) + P(D, E, \neg L)}{P(E)}$$

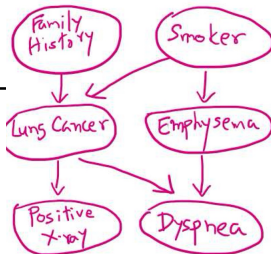
$$= \frac{1}{P(E)} [P(D|L, E)P(L, E)P(E) + P(D|\neg L, E)P(\neg L, E)P(E)]$$

$$= P(D|L, E) \cdot P(L) + P(D|\neg L, E)P(\neg L)$$

แล้วเอาค่าใน CPT มาแทน

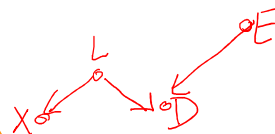
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## Diagnosis Reasoning

การอนุมานจากผล  
(ใช้ผลหรืออาการเพื่อหาสาเหตุ)



CPT ไม่ใช้ค่า Bayes Theorem

- ความน่าจะเป็นที่ไม่เป็น Lungcancer เมื่อรู้ Dyspnea

$$P(\neg L / \neg D) = \frac{P(\neg L | \neg D) P(\neg L)}{P(\neg D)} \text{ Bayes theorem}$$

หา  $P(\neg L | \neg D)$  โดยใช้ causal reasoning

$$P(\neg L | \neg D) = \frac{C_1}{P(\neg D)}$$

ทำนองเดียวกัน

$$P(L | \neg D) \text{ ให้วิธีเดียวกันกับข้างต้น} = \frac{C_2}{P(\neg D)}$$

$$P(L | \neg D) + P(\neg L | \neg D) = 1$$

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$$\frac{C_1}{P(\neg D)} + \frac{C_2}{P(\neg D)} = 1$$