

The background is a collage of abstract data visualizations. It features a network graph with red lines and green nodes, a scatter plot with orange and blue dots, and a grid of small plus signs. The title text is overlaid on a white, angular shape in the center.

Bayes Classifier and Bayesian Networks

Outline

- ❑ Bayes Classifier
- ❑ Bayesian Networks

The background of the slide is a complex, abstract composition. It features a dark, reddish-brown base with a network of thin, light-colored lines forming a mesh or web-like structure. Scattered throughout are numerous small, colored dots in shades of green, blue, and orange. In the upper left, there's a horizontal band with a grid of small, light-colored squares. In the lower left, there's a vertical band with a grid of small, light-colored squares. The overall effect is a high-tech, data-driven aesthetic.

Bayes Classifier

What Is Bayes Classifier?

- ❑ A statistical classifier
 - ❑ Perform *probabilistic prediction* (i.e., predict the probability of a class membership)
- ❑ Foundation - Based on Bayes' Theorem
- ❑ Performance: A simple Bayes classifier, *naïve Bayes classifier*, has comparable performance with decision tree and many other classification methods
- ❑ Incremental
 - ❑ Each training example can incrementally increase/decrease the probability that a hypothesis is correct: Prior knowledge can be combined with observed data
- ❑ Theoretical Standard
 - ❑ Even when Bayesian methods are computationally intractable, they can provide a standard of optimal decision making against which other methods can be measured

Bayes' Theorem: Basics

- Total probability Theorem:

$$p(B) = \sum_i p(B|A_i)p(A_i)$$

- Bayes' Theorem:

$$\boxed{p(H|X)} = \frac{p(X|H)P(H)}{p(X)} \propto \boxed{p(X|H)} \boxed{P(H)}$$

posteriori probability likelihood prior probability

What we should choose What we just see What we knew previously

- **X**: A data sample (“evidence”)
- **H**: X belongs to class C

Prediction can be done based on Bayes' Theorem:

Classification is to derive the maximum posteriori

Naïve Bayes Classifier: Making a Naïve Assumption

- ❑ Practical difficulty of Bayes classifier: It requires initial knowledge of many probabilities, which may not be available or involving significant computational cost

- ❑ A Naïve special case

- ❑ Make an additional assumption to simplify the model, but achieve comparable performance

Attributes are conditionally independent
(i.e., no dependence relation between attributes)

$$p(X|C_i) = \prod_k p(x_k|C_i) = p(x_1|C_i) \cdot p(x_2|C_i) \cdots p(x_n|C_i)$$

- ❑ Only need to count the class distribution w.r.t. features
- ❑ Naive Bayes classifier: Combines the independent feature model with a decision rule
- ❑ The *MAP* (*maximum a posteriori*) decision rule: Pick the hypothesis that is most probable

Naïve Bayes Classifier: Categorical vs. Continuous Valued Features

- If feature x_k is categorical, $p(x_k = v_k | C_i)$ is the # of tuples in C_i with $x_k = v_k$, divided by $|C_{i,D}|$ (# of tuples of C_i in D)

$$p(X|C_i) = \prod_k p(x_k|C_i) = p(x_1|C_i) \cdot p(x_2|C_i) \cdots p(x_n|C_i)$$

- If feature x_k is continuous-valued, $p(x_k = v_k | C_i)$ is usually computed based on Gaussian distribution with a mean μ and standard deviation σ

$$p(x_k = v_k | C_i) = N(x_k | \mu_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{C_i}} e^{-\frac{(x - \mu_{C_i})^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Naïve Bayes Classifier: Training Dataset

Class:

C1:buys_computer = 'yes'

C2:buys_computer = 'no'

Data to be classified:

X = (age <=30, Income = medium,
Student = yes, Credit_rating = Fair)

age	income	student	credit_rating	buys_computer
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31...40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31...40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31...40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31...40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

Naïve Bayes Classifier: An Example

❑ $P(C_i)$: $P(\text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 9/14 = 0.643$

$P(\text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 5/14 = 0.357$

❑ Compute $P(X|C_i)$ for each class

$P(\text{age} = \text{"<=30"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 2/9 = 0.222$

$P(\text{age} = \text{"<= 30"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 3/5 = 0.6$

$P(\text{income} = \text{"medium"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 4/9 = 0.444$

$P(\text{income} = \text{"medium"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 2/5 = 0.4$

$P(\text{student} = \text{"yes"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 6/9 = 0.667$

$P(\text{student} = \text{"yes"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 1/5 = 0.2$

$P(\text{credit_rating} = \text{"fair"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 6/9 = 0.667$

$P(\text{credit_rating} = \text{"fair"} | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 2/5 = 0.4$

❑ **$X = (\text{age} \leq 30, \text{income} = \text{medium}, \text{student} = \text{yes}, \text{credit_rating} = \text{fair})$**

$P(X|C_i)$: $P(X | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 0.222 \times 0.444 \times 0.667 \times 0.667 = 0.044$

$P(X | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 0.6 \times 0.4 \times 0.2 \times 0.4 = 0.019$

$P(X|C_i) \cdot P(C_i)$: $P(X | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) \cdot P(\text{buys_computer} = \text{"yes"}) = 0.028$

$P(X | \text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) \cdot P(\text{buys_computer} = \text{"no"}) = 0.007$

Therefore, X belongs to class ("buys_computer = yes")

age	income	student	credit_rating	buys_computer
<=30	high	no	fair	no
<=30	high	no	excellent	no
31...40	high	no	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	low	yes	excellent	no
31...40	low	yes	excellent	yes
<=30	medium	no	fair	no
<=30	low	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	yes	fair	yes
<=30	medium	yes	excellent	yes
31...40	medium	no	excellent	yes
31...40	high	yes	fair	yes
>40	medium	no	excellent	no

Avoiding the Zero-Probability Problem

- Naïve Bayesian prediction requires each conditional probability be **non-zero**
 - Otherwise, the predicted probability will be zero

$$p(X|C_i) = \prod_k p(x_k|C_i) = p(x_1|C_i) \cdot p(x_2|C_i) \cdots p(x_n|C_i)$$

- Example. Suppose a dataset with 1000 tuples:

income = low (0), income = medium (990), and income = high (10)

- Use **Laplacian correction** (or Laplacian estimator)

- *Adding 1 to each case*

$$\text{Prob}(\text{income} = \text{low}) = 1/(1000 + 3)$$

$$\text{Prob}(\text{income} = \text{medium}) = (990 + 1)/(1000 + 3)$$

$$\text{Prob}(\text{income} = \text{high}) = (10 + 1)/(1000 + 3)$$

- The “corrected” probability estimates are close to their “uncorrected” counterparts

Naïve Bayes Classifier: Strength vs. Weakness

□ Strength

- Easy to implement
- Good results obtained in most of the cases

□ Weakness

- Assumption: Attributes conditional independence, therefore loss of accuracy
- Practically, dependencies exist among variables

- E.g., Patients: Profile: Age, family history, etc.

- Symptoms: Fever, cough, etc.

- Disease: Lung cancer, diabetes, etc.

- Dependencies among these cannot be modeled by Naïve Bayes Classifier

□ How to deal with these dependencies?

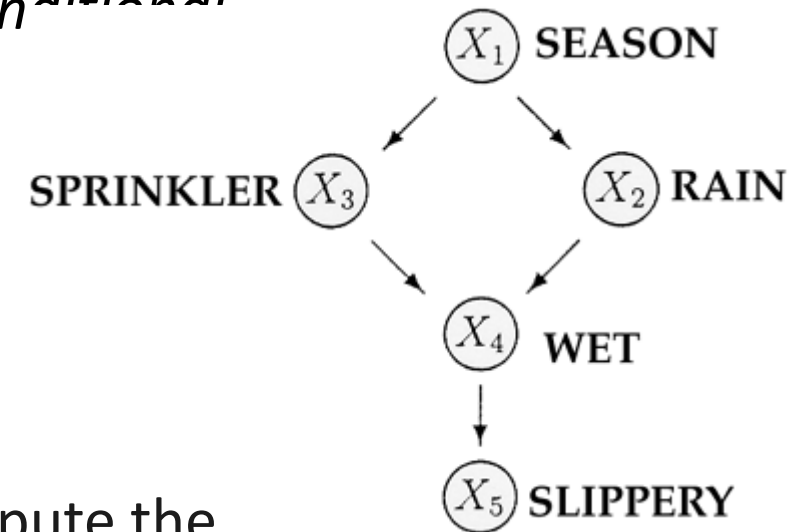
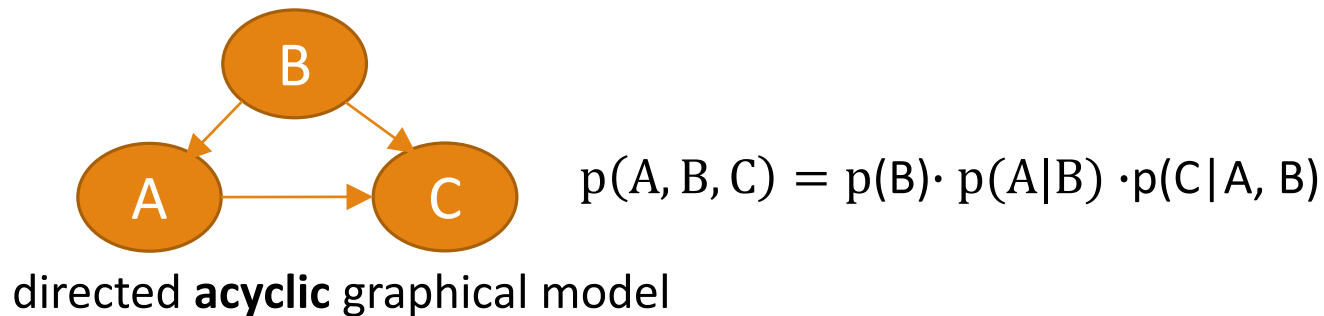
- Use Bayesian Belief Networks

The background features a complex network of red lines connecting green dots, resembling a graph or neural network. This is overlaid on a light blue and white geometric pattern. In the top left, there is a small inset image showing a grid of orange and red dots. The title 'Bayesian Networks' is centered in a large, bold, black font.

Bayesian Networks

From Naïve Bayes to Bayesian Network

- A naïve Bayes classifier assumes that the value of a particular feature is independent of the value of any other feature, given the class variable
 - This assumption is often too simple to model the real world well
- Bayesian network (or Bayes network, belief network, Bayesian model, or probabilistic directed acyclic graphical model) is a probabilistic **graphical model**
- Represented by a set of *random variables and their conditional dependencies* via a *directed acyclic graph* (DAG)



- Ex. Given symptoms, the network can be used to compute the probabilities of the presence of various diseases

Bayesian Network

- **Bayesian network** (or **Bayesian belief network**, **probabilistic network**):

- Allows *class conditional independencies* between *subsets* of variables
- Represents the joint distribution compactly in a factorized way
- Can be described by a generative process

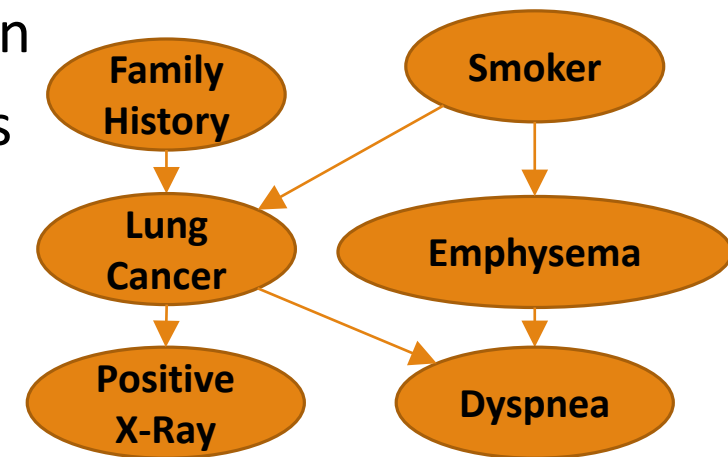
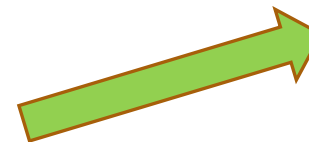
- Two components:

- A *directed acyclic graph* (called a structure)

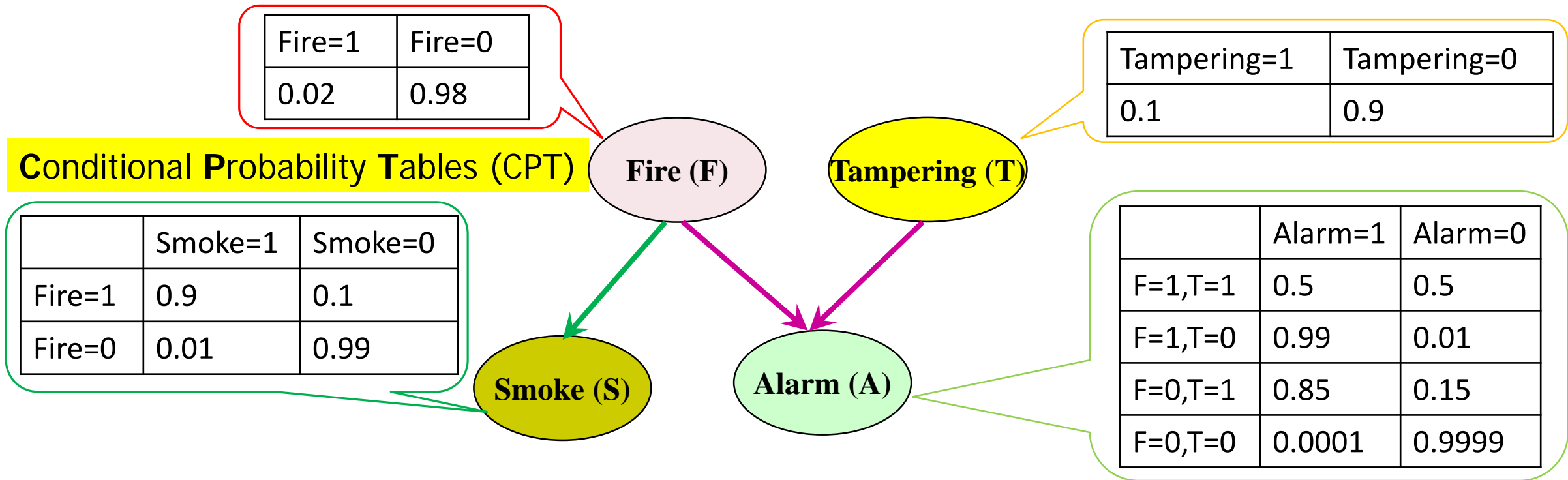
Nodes: random variables Links: dependency

- The **nodes** represent random variables, observed or hidden
- The **edges** represent direct dependency between variables
- A set of *conditional probability tables* (CPTs)
- CPTs are attached to the nodes

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



Representing Joint Distribution with Bayesian Network



From the Bayesian network we can read the factorization of the joint distribution: $p(F, S, A, T) = p(F) \cdot p(T) \cdot p(S|F) \cdot p(A|F, T)$

In general, we have the chain rule for Bayesian networks:

$$p(X) = \prod_k p(x_k | \text{Parents}(x_k))$$

Bayesian Network: An Example

□ Causal Reasoning:

- The value of variable Fire influences variable Smoke

- If $F=1 \rightarrow p(S=1|F=1)=0.9$; if $F=0 \rightarrow p(S=1|F=0)=0.01$

□ Evidential Reasoning:

- The value of variable Smoke also influences Fire

- If $S=1 \rightarrow p(F=1|S=1) = \frac{p(S=1|F=1)*p(F=1)}{p(S=1)} = 0.647$; if $S=0$, $p(F=1|S=0)=0.002$

□ Intercausal Reasoning:

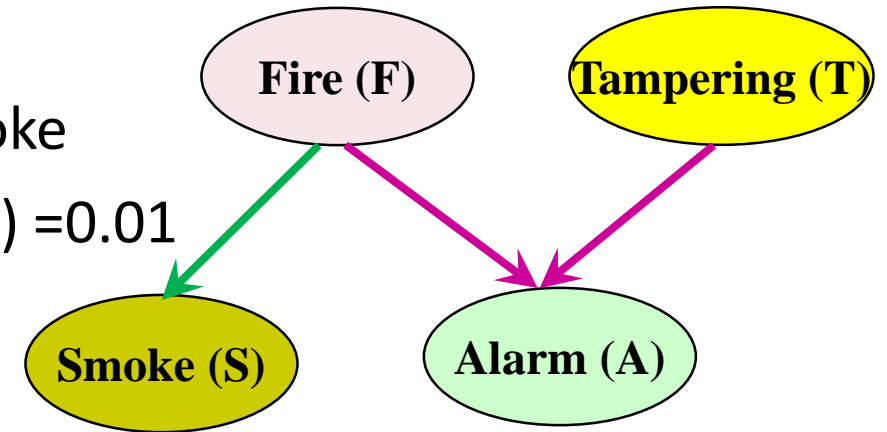
- The value of variable Fire does not influence Tampering

- $p(T|F) = p(T)$, F and T are **independent**

- However, observing Alarm makes Fire and Tampering **coupled**

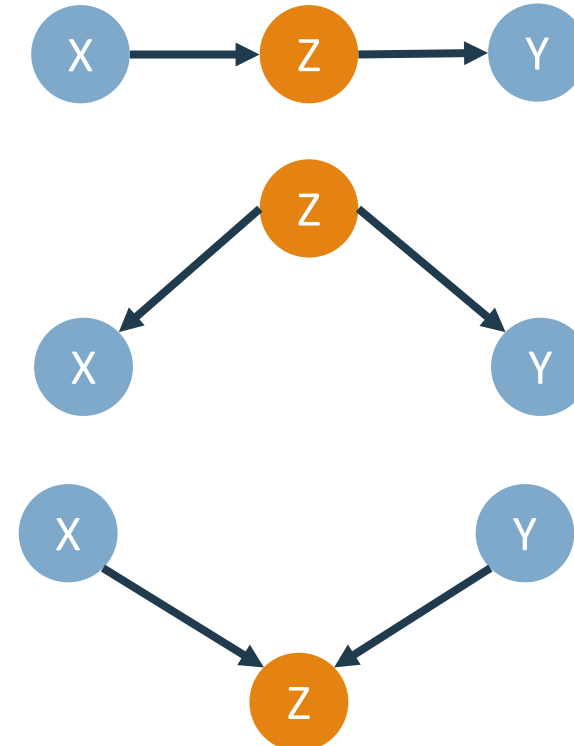
- $p(T|F, A) = \frac{p(T,A,F)}{p(A|F)p(F)} = \frac{p(A|F, T)p(F)p(T)}{p(F) \sum_T p(A,T|F)} = \frac{p(A|F, T)p(T)}{\sum_T p(A|F, T)p(T)}$

- $p(T=1|F=1, A=1) = 0.053$; $p(T=1|F=0, A=1) \approx 1.000$



Dependencies in Bayesian Network

- ❑ Markovian assumption
 - ❑ Each variable becomes **independent** of its non-effects once its **direct causes** are known
- ❑ Consider the local structure of three variables
 - ❑ **Cascade**
 - ❑ Given the middle node Z, X, and Y are independent
 - ❑ **Common parent**
 - ❑ Given the parent node Z, X, and Y are independent
 - ❑ **V-structure** (common child):
 - ❑ Given the child node Z, X, and Y are coupled
 - ❑ Also called X explains away Y w.r.t. Z



Three Major Tasks on Bayesian Network

□ Representation (Construction)

- How can we construct a Bayesian network so that the probability distribution reflects real-world phenomenon?

□ Inference

- Given a Bayesian network, how can we answer questions about events?
- Marginal inference: What is the probability of a variable after summing all other variables?
- MAP inference: What is the most likely assignment to the unobserved variables?

□ Learning (Training)

- How can we fit a Bayesian network to data?
- In some cases, the network structure needs to be learned as well

How Are Bayesian Networks Constructed?

- ❑ **Subjective construction**

- ❑ Human identification of (direct) causal structure
- ❑ People are quite good at identifying direct causes from a given set of variables & whether the set contains all relevant direct causes

- ❑ **Synthesis from other specifications**

- ❑ E.g., from a formal system design: Block diagrams & information flow

- ❑ **Learning from data** (e.g., from medical records or student admission records)

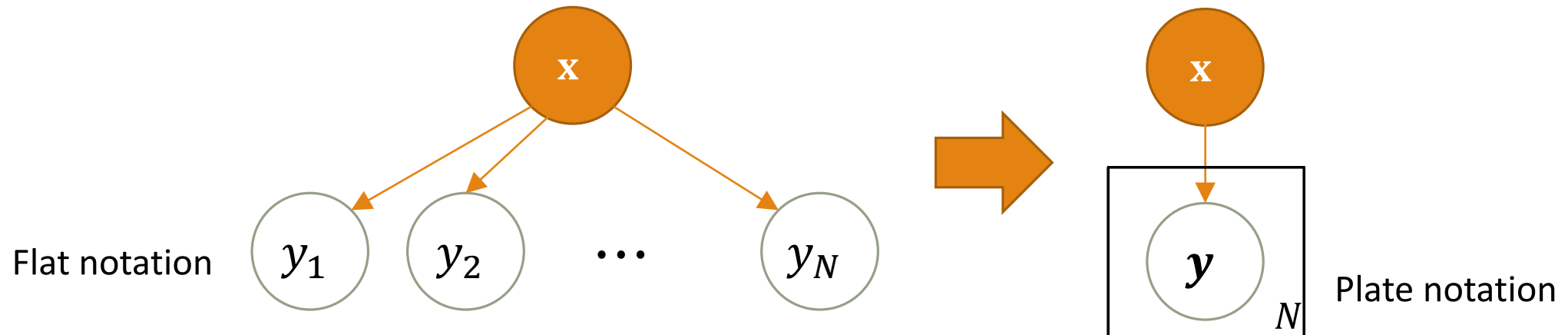
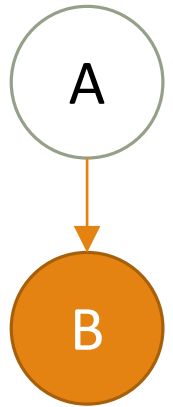
- ❑ Learn parameters given its structure or learn both structure and parameters
- ❑ Maximum likelihood principle: Favors Bayesian networks that maximize the probability of observing the given data set

Training Bayesian Networks: Several Scenarios

- ❑ Scenario 1: Given both the network structure and all variables observable
 - ❑ *Compute only the CPT entries*
- ❑ Scenario 2: Network structure known, some variables hidden
 - ❑ Use *gradient descent* (a greedy hill-climbing method), i.e., search for a solution along the steepest descent of a criterion function
- ❑ Scenario 3: Network structure unknown, all variables observable
 - ❑ Search through the model space to *reconstruct network topology*
- ❑ Scenario 4: Unknown structure, all hidden variables
 - ❑ No good algorithms known for this purpose
- ❑ D. Heckerman. [A Tutorial on Learning with Bayesian Networks](#). In *Learning in Graphical Models*, M. Jordan, ed. MIT Press, 1999

Probabilistic Graphical Model: Plate Notation

- ❑ How to represent variables and their dependencies concisely in a graphical model?
- ❑ Node (or **circle**) representing variables
 - ❑ A solid (or shaded) circle means the corresponding variable is *observed*; otherwise it is *hidden*
- ❑ **Directed edge** representing dependency among variables:
 - ❑ A Directed Acyclic Graphical (DAG) model
- ❑ Using plate notation instead of flat notation
 - ❑ The variables in the same plate share the same **conditional probability table**



An Example of Plate Notation

Flat notation

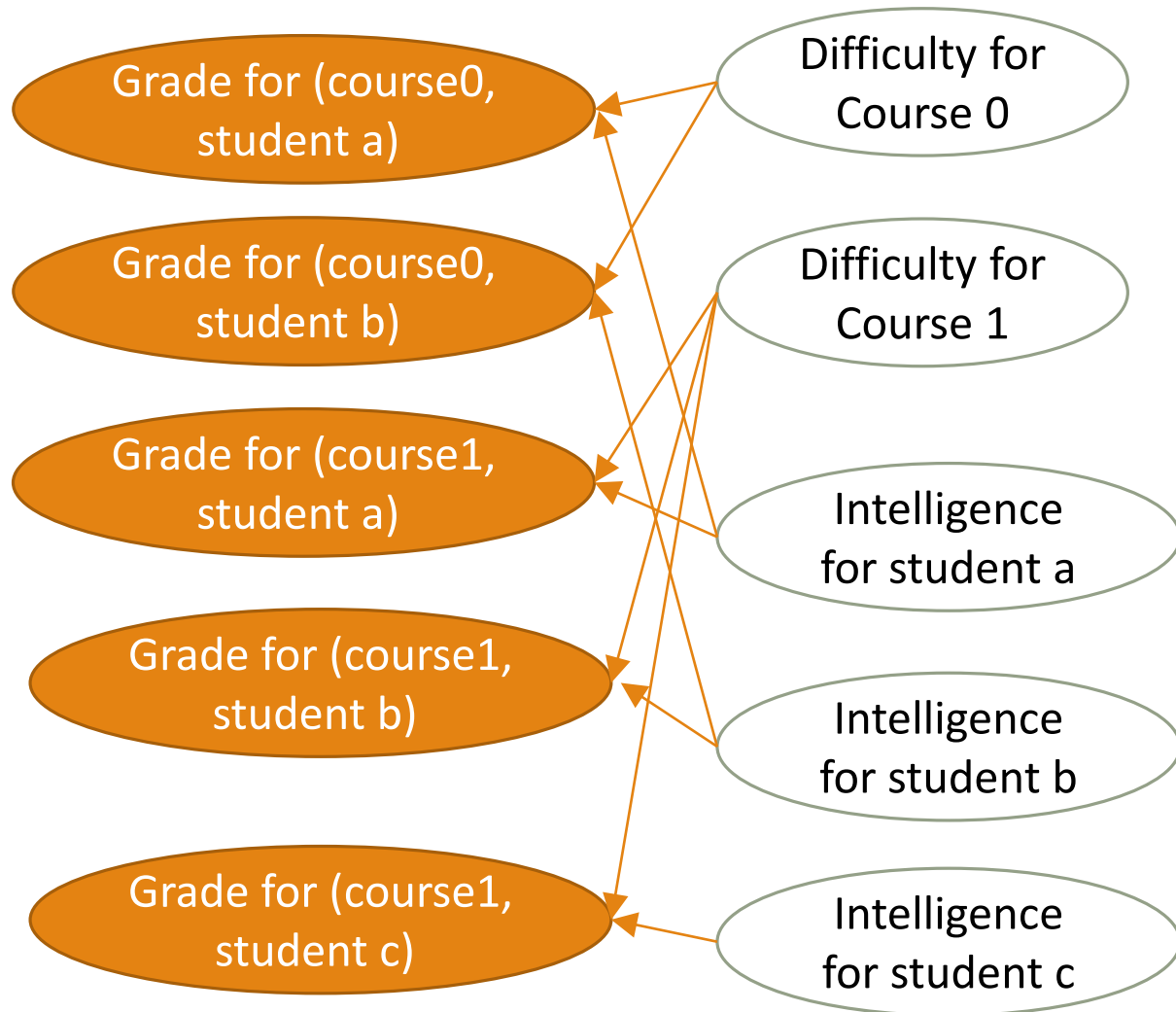
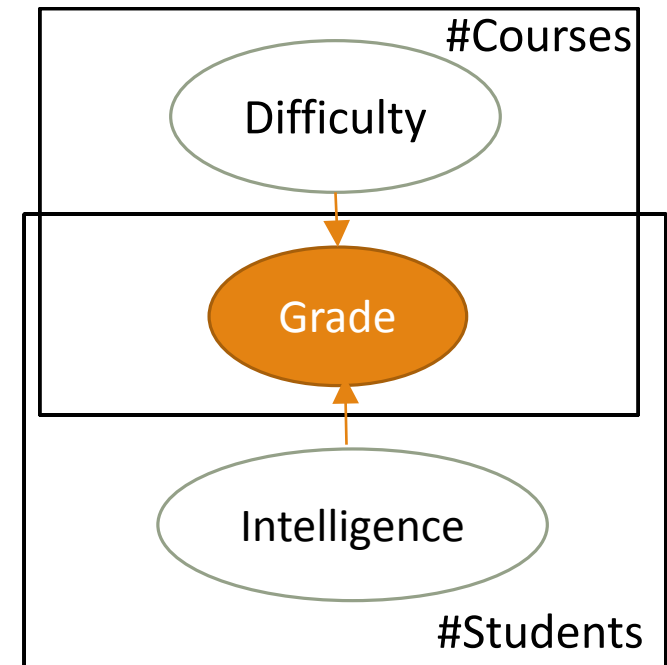


Plate notation



The background of the slide is a complex, abstract composition. It features a central white banner with a subtle, light gray geometric pattern. This banner is flanked by two large, overlapping triangular shapes in shades of light blue and white. The entire composition is set against a dark, textured background that appears to be a network of thin, light-colored lines forming a mesh or web-like structure. Scattered throughout this background are numerous small, colorful dots in shades of green, blue, and orange. In the upper left corner, there is a small, rectangular inset image showing a close-up of a network of nodes and edges, with some nodes highlighted in red and orange. The word "Summary" is centered on the white banner in a large, bold, black font.

Summary

Summary

- ☐ Bayes Classifier
- ☐ Bayesian Networks

Recommended Readings

- ❑ Heckerman, D. (1999). A tutorial on learning with Bayesian networks. *Learning in Graphical Models*, M. Jordan ed. Retrieved from <https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/publication/a-tutorial-on-learning-with-bayesian-networks/?from=http%3A%2F%2Fresearch.microsoft.com%2Fen-us%2Fum%2Fpeople%2Fheckerman%2Ftutorial.pdf>
- ❑ Lewis, D. D. (1998). Naive (Bayes) at forty: The independence assumption in information retrieval. *Machine Learning, ECML-98, 1398*, 4-15. Retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/BFb0026666#citeas>
- ❑ Lim, T.-S., Loh, W.-Y., & Shih, Y.-S. (2000). A comparison of prediction accuracy, complexity, and training time of thirty-three old and new classification algorithms. *Machine Learning, 40*(3), 203–228. retrieved from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1023/A:1007608224229>
- ❑ Murphy, K. P. (2012). *Machine learning: A probabilistic perspective*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- ❑ Ng, A. Y. & Jordan, M. I. (2002). On discriminative vs. generative classifiers: A comparison of logistic regression and naïve Bayes. *NIPS*. Retrieved from <https://papers.nips.cc/paper/2020-on-discriminative-vs-generative-classifiers-a-comparison-of-logistic-regression-and-naive-bayes>
- ❑ Pearl, J. (2000). *Causality: Models, reasoning, and inference*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge Univ. Press.
- ❑ Russell, S. & Norvig, P. (2003). *Artificial intelligence: A modern approach (2nd ed.)*. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.

References

- ❑ All other multimedia elements belong to © 2018 University of Illinois Board of Trustees.

Appendix: Detailed Computation of Some Probabilities on Slide #16 “Bayesian Network: An Example”

$$\begin{aligned}s(F = 1|S = 1) &= \frac{p(S = 1, F = 1)}{p(S = 1)} \\&= \frac{p(S = 1|F = 1) \times p(F = 1)}{\sum_f p(S = 1, F)} \\&= \frac{p(S = 1|F = 1) \times p(F = 1)}{p(S = 1|F = 1)p(F = 1) + p(S = 1|F = 0)p(F = 0)} \\&= \frac{0.9 \times 0.02}{0.9 \times 0.02 + 0.01 \times 0.98} \\&= 0.647\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}p(T = 1|F = 1, A = 1) &= \frac{p(T = 1, F = 1, A = 1)}{p(A = 1|F = 1)p(F = 1)} \\&= \frac{p(A = 1|F = 1, T = 1)p(F = 1)p(T = 1)}{p(A = 1|F = 1)p(F = 1)} \\&= \frac{p(A = 1|F = 1, T = 1)p(T = 1)}{\sum_T p(A = 1, T|F = 1)} \\&= \frac{0.5 \times 0.1}{0.5 \times 0.1 + 0.99 \times 0.9} \\&= 0.053\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}p(T = 1|F = 0, A = 1) &= \frac{p(A = 1|T = 1, F = 0)p(T = 1)}{\sum_T p(A = 1, T|F = 0)} \\&= \frac{0.85 \times 0.1}{0.85 \times 0.1 + 0.001 \times 0.9} \\&= 0.9989 \sim 1.000\end{aligned}$$