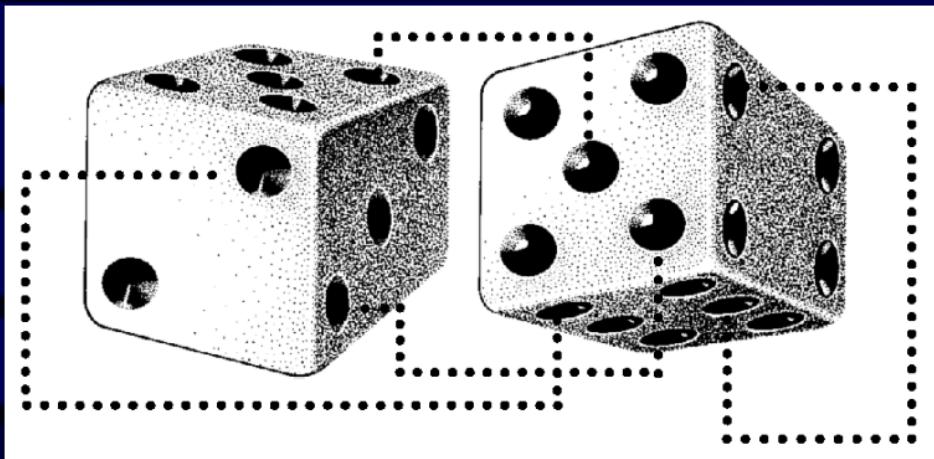


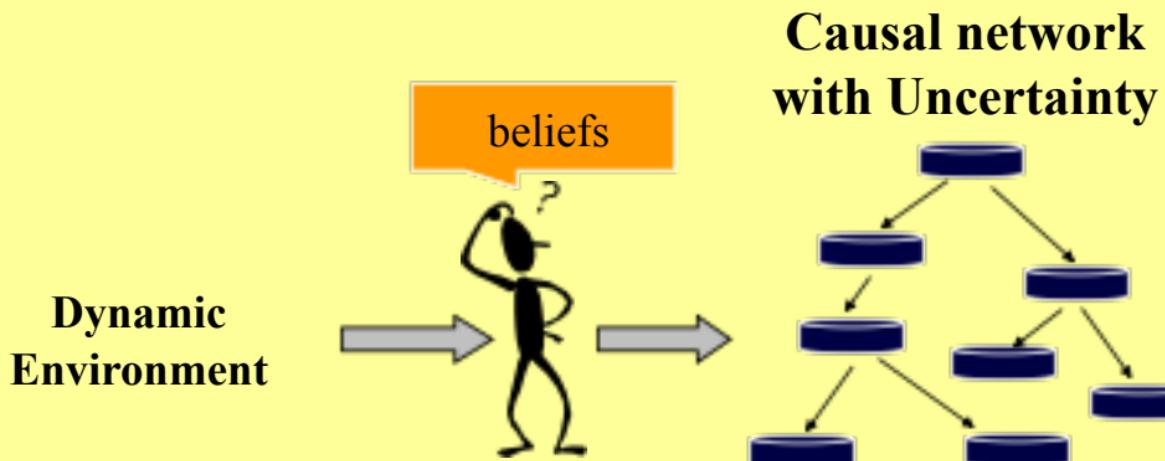
Introduction to Bayesian Networks



Based on the Tutorials and Presentations:

- (1) Dennis M. Buede Joseph A. Tatman, Terry A. Bresnick;
- (2) Jack Breese and Daphne Koller;
- (3) Scott Davies and Andrew Moore;
- (4) Thomas Richardson
- (5) Roldano Cattoni
- (6) Irina Rich

Discovering Causal Relationship from the Dynamic Environmental Data and Managing Uncertainty - are among the basic abilities of an intelligent agent



Overview

- **Probabilities basic rules**
- Bayesian Nets
- Conditional Independence
- Motivating Examples
- Inference in Bayesian Nets
- Join Trees
- Decision Making with Bayesian Networks
- Learning Bayesian Networks from Data
- Profiling with Bayesian Network
- References and links

Probability of an event

- Define the *probability* of an event A, $P(A)$ to be a number between 0 and 1 such that:
- $P(A) = 1$ if the event A is certain.
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if the events A and B are mutually exclusive
 - » i.e. it is not possible for both A and B to occur simultaneously.
 - » $A \cup B$ is the event “either A happens or B happens”

Conditional probability

- A *conditional probability statement* has the form:
- “Given that B happened, the probability that A happened is x . ”
 - » This is written: $P(A | B) = x$.
- This does *not* imply that whenever B is true the probability of A is x
 - » $P(\text{Snow today} | \text{Snow yesterday})$
 - » $\neq P(\text{Snow today} | \text{Snow yesterday, the month is July})$

Probabilities

- Probability distribution $P(X|\xi)$
 - ◆ X is a random variable
 - Discrete
 - Continuous
 - ◆ ξ is background state of information

Discrete Random Variables

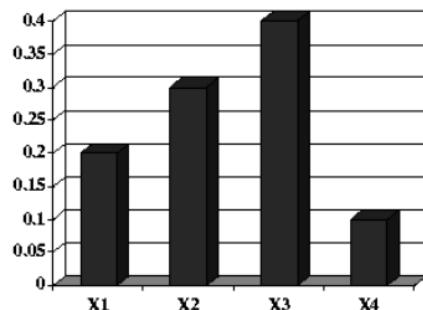
- Finite set of possible outcomes

$$X \in \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$$

$$P(x_i) \geq 0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(x_i) = 1$$

X binary: $P(x) + P(\bar{x}) = 1$



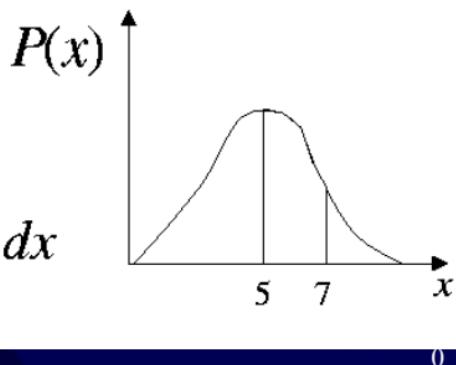
Continuous Random Variable

- Probability distribution (density function) over continuous values

$$X \in [0,10] \quad P(x) \geq 0$$

$$\int_0^{10} P(x) dx = 1$$

$$P(5 \leq x \leq 7) = \int_5^7 P(x) dx$$



More Probabilities

■ Conditional

$$P(x \mid y) \equiv P(X = x \mid Y = y)$$

- ◆ Probability that $X=x$ given we know that $Y=y$

■ Joint

$$P(x, y) \equiv P(X = x \wedge Y = y)$$

- ◆ Probability that both $X=x$ and $Y=y$

Conditional independence

- Two events A and B are said to be (probabilistically) independent if:

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

equivalently $P(A \mid B) = P(A) \quad (P(B) > 0)$

- Two events A and B are said to be (probabilistically) independent given C if:

$$P(A, B \mid C) = P(A \mid C)P(B \mid C)$$

equivalently $P(A \mid B, C) = P(A \mid C) \quad (P(B) > 0)$

The fundamental rule

Conditional and joint probabilities are combined with the following rule:

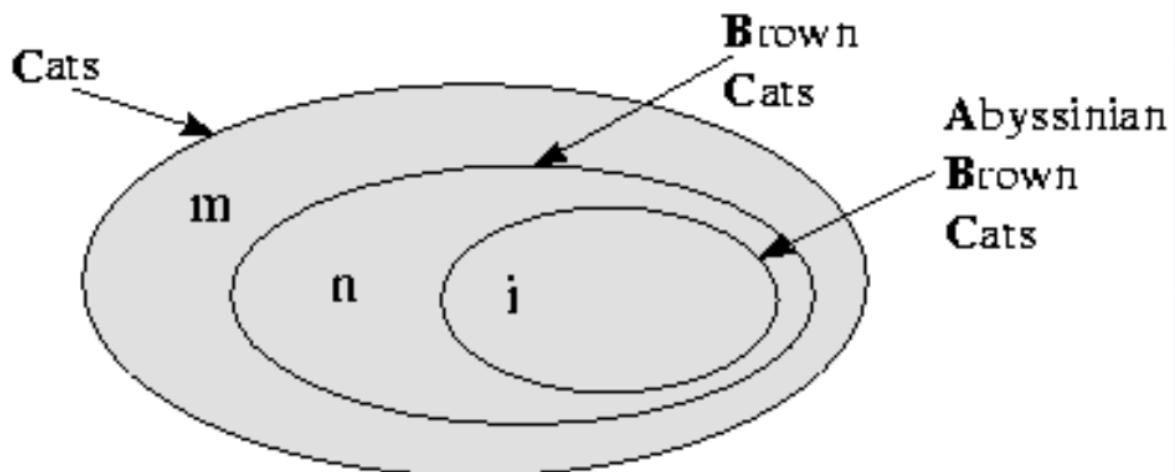
The ‘Fundamental Rule’

$$P(A \mid B) P(B) = P(A, B)$$

Fundamental Rule given a context

$$P(A \mid B, C) P(B \mid C) = P(A, B \mid C)$$

Instance of “Fundamental rule”



$$P(A | B, C) = i/n \quad P(B | C) = n/m \quad P(A, B | C) = i/m$$

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

Rules of Probability

- Product Rule

$$P(X, Y) = P(X | Y)P(Y) = P(Y | X)P(X)$$

- Marginalization

$$P(Y) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(Y, x_i)$$

X binary: $P(Y) = P(Y, x) + P(Y, \bar{x})$

Bayes rule

Likelihood of Evidence given Hypothesis

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

Posterior Probability
of Hypothesis given
evidence

Normalizing
Constant

Prior Probability
of Hypothesis

Bayes rule example (1)

$$P(\text{Cancer} \mid \text{Test+}) = \frac{P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{Cancer})P(\text{Cancer})}{P(\text{Test+})}$$

$$P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{Cancer}) = 0.9 \quad P(\text{Test-} \mid \text{Cancer}) = 0.1$$

$$P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{No Cancer}) = 0.01 \quad P(\text{Test-} \mid \text{No Cancer}) = 0.99$$

$$P(\text{Cancer}) = 0.0001$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{Test+}) &= P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{Cancer})P(\text{Cancer}) + \\&\quad P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{No cancer})P(\text{No Cancer}) \\&= 0.9 \times 0.0001 + 0.01 \times (1 - 0.0001) \\&= 0.0010899\end{aligned}$$

Bayes rule example (2)

$$P(\text{Cancer} \mid \text{Test+}) = \frac{P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{Cancer})P(\text{Cancer})}{P(\text{Test+})}$$

$$P(\text{Test+} \mid \text{Cancer}) = 0.9$$

$$P(\text{Cancer}) = 0.0001$$

$$P(\text{Test+}) = 0.0010899$$

$$\begin{aligned}P(\text{Cancer} \mid \text{Test+}) &= 0.9 \times 0.0001 / 0.0010899 \\&= 0.08\end{aligned}$$

Overview

- Probabilities basic rules
- **Bayesian Nets**
- Conditional Independence
- Motivating Examples
- Inference in Bayesian Nets
- Join Trees
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What are Bayesian nets?

ବୈସେନ୍ ରୂପାଳ୍ପଣା ବିଷୟ (କୌଣସି)

- Bayesian nets (BN) are a network-based framework for representing and analyzing models involving uncertainty;
- BN are different from other knowledge-based systems tools because uncertainty is handled in mathematically rigorous yet efficient and simple way
- BN are different from other probabilistic analysis tools because of network representation of problems, use of Bayesian statistics, and the synergy between these

Definition of a Bayesian Network

Knowledge structure:

variables are nodes

arcs represent probabilistic dependence between variables

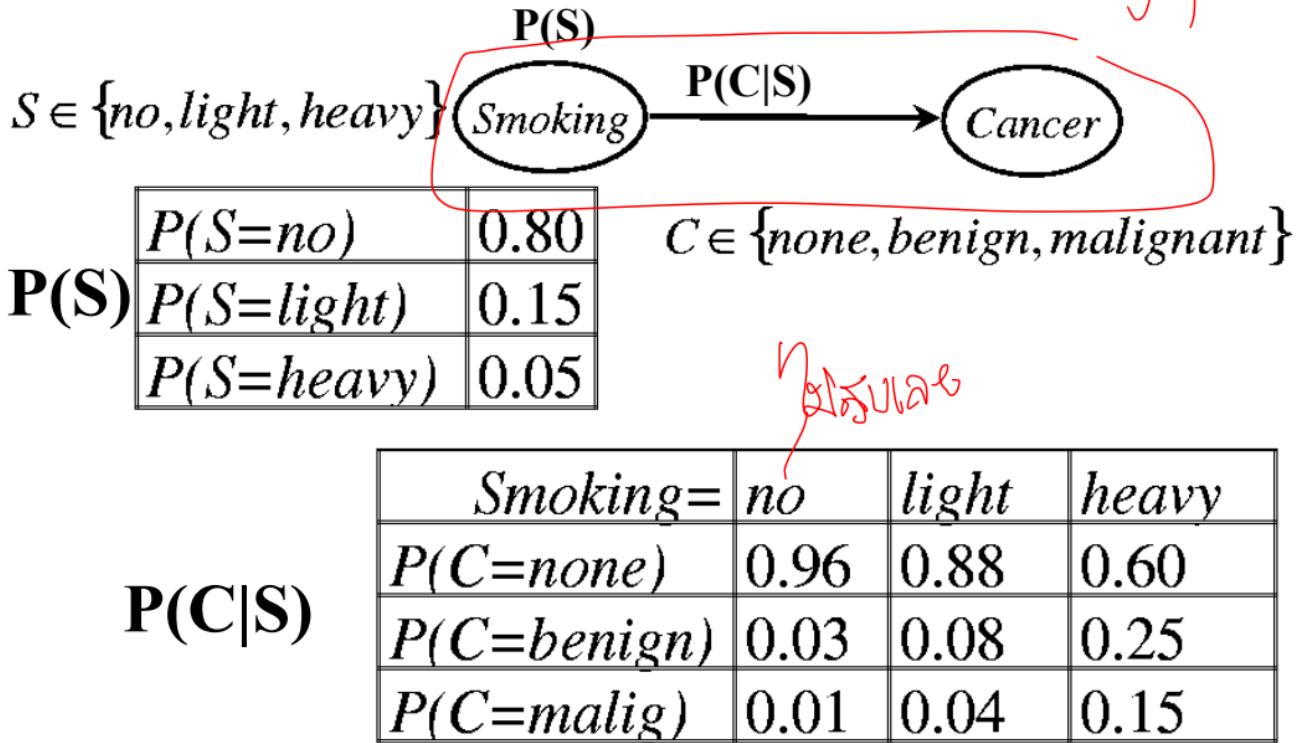
conditional probabilities encode the strength of the dependencies

Computational architecture:

- computes posterior probabilities given evidence about some nodes
- exploits probabilistic independence for efficient computation

Bayesian Networks

direct graph



Product Rule

$$\blacksquare P(C,S) = P(C|S) P(S)$$

$$P(C|S) = \frac{P(C \cap S)}{P(S)}$$

$S \downarrow$	$C \Rightarrow$	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malignant</i>
<i>no</i>		0.768	0.024	0.008
<i>light</i>		0.132	0.012	0.006
<i>heavy</i>		0.035	0.010	0.005

Marginalization

$S \downarrow$	$C \Rightarrow$	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malig</i>	total	$P(\text{Smoke})$
<i>no</i>		0.768	0.024	0.008	.80	
<i>light</i>		0.132	0.012	0.006	.15	
<i>heavy</i>		0.035	0.010	0.005	.05	
total		0.935	0.046	0.019		

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{P(\text{Cancer})}$

Bayes Rule Revisited

$$P(S|C) = \frac{P(C|S)P(S)}{P(C)} = \frac{P(C,S)}{P(C)}$$

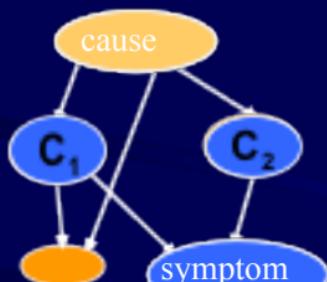
$S \downarrow$	$C \Rightarrow$	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malig</i>
<i>no</i>		0.768/.935	0.024/.046	0.008/.019
<i>light</i>		0.132/.935	0.012/.046	0.006/.019
<i>heavy</i>		0.030/.935	0.015/.046	0.005/.019

<i>Cancer=</i>	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malignant</i>
$P(S=no)$	0.821	0.522	0.421
$P(S=light)$	0.141	0.261	0.316
$P(S=heavy)$	0.037	0.217	0.263

What Bayesian Networks are good for?

- Diagnosis: $P(\text{cause}|\text{symptom})=?$
- Prediction: $P(\text{symptom}|\text{cause})=?$
- Classification: $\text{map}(\text{class}|\text{data})$
- Decision-making (given a cost function)

↑
(on 20%)



Speech
recognition



Bio-
informatics



Stock market

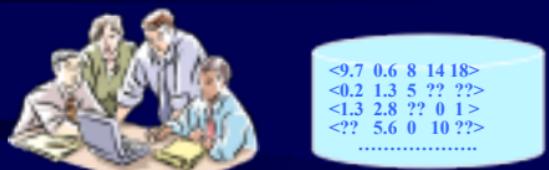


Computer
troubleshooting



Why learn Bayesian networks?

- Combining domain expert knowledge with data
- Efficient representation and inference
- Incremental learning
- Handling missing data: <1.3 2.8 ?? 0 1>
- Learning causal relationships:



Overview

- Probabilities basic rules
- Bayesian Nets

Conditional Independence

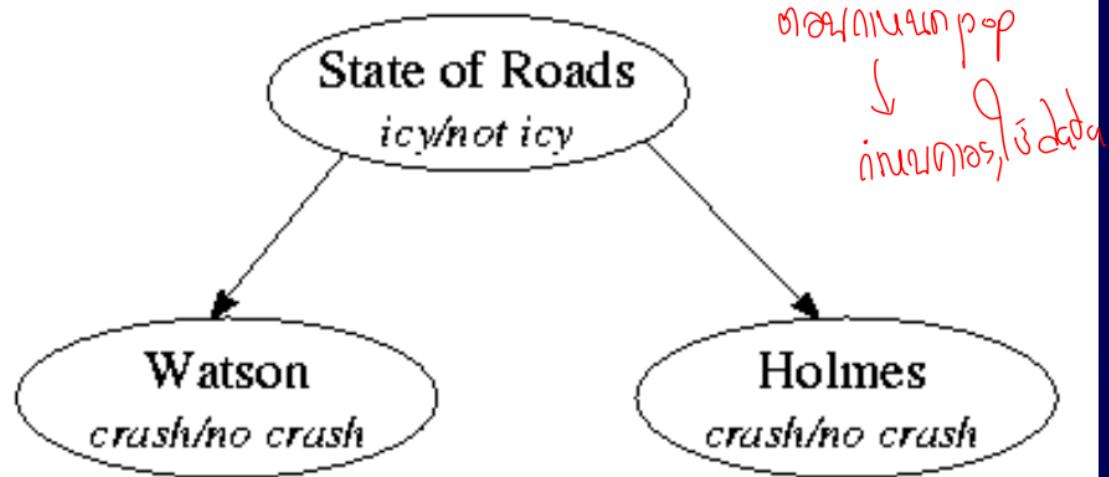
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“Icy roads” example

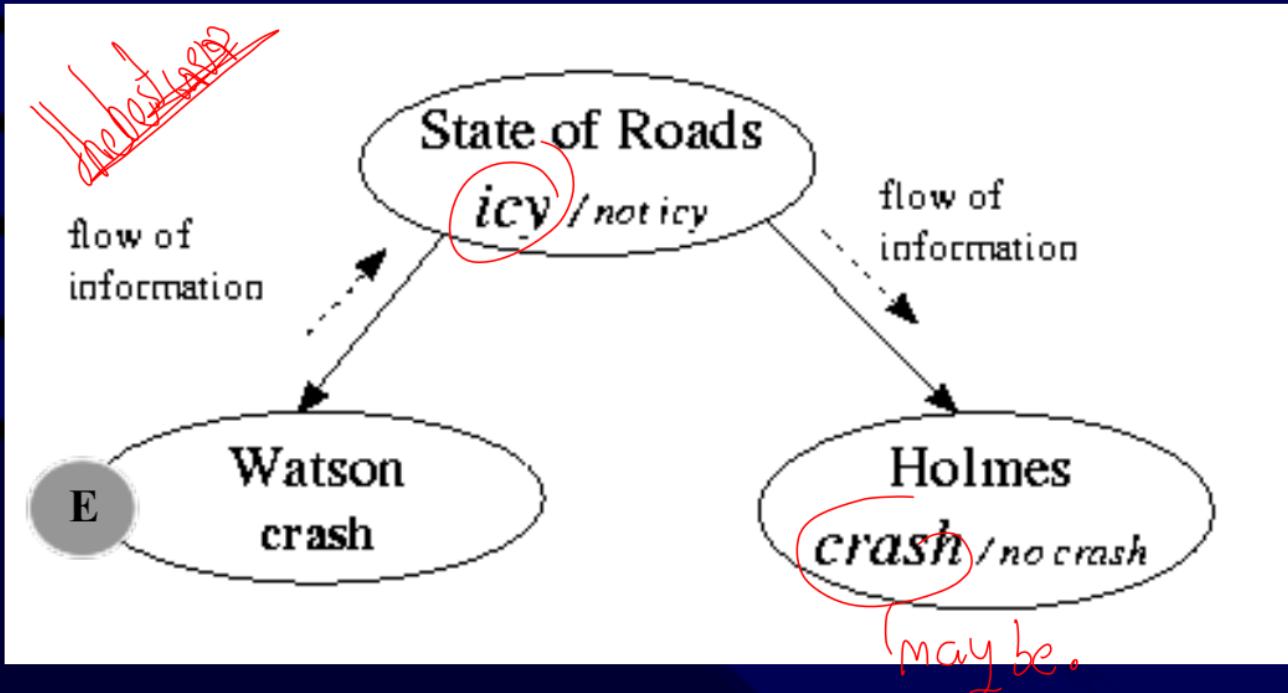
(a) case analysis network

- Inspector Smith is waiting for Holmes and Watson who are both late for an appointment.
- Smith is worried that if the roads are icy one or both of them may have crashed his car.
- Suddenly Smith learns that Watson has crashed.
- Smith thinks: *If Watson has crashed, probably the roads are icy, then Holmes has probably crashed too!*
- Smith then learns it is warm outside and roads are salted
- Smith thinks: *Watson was unlucky; Holmes should still make it.*

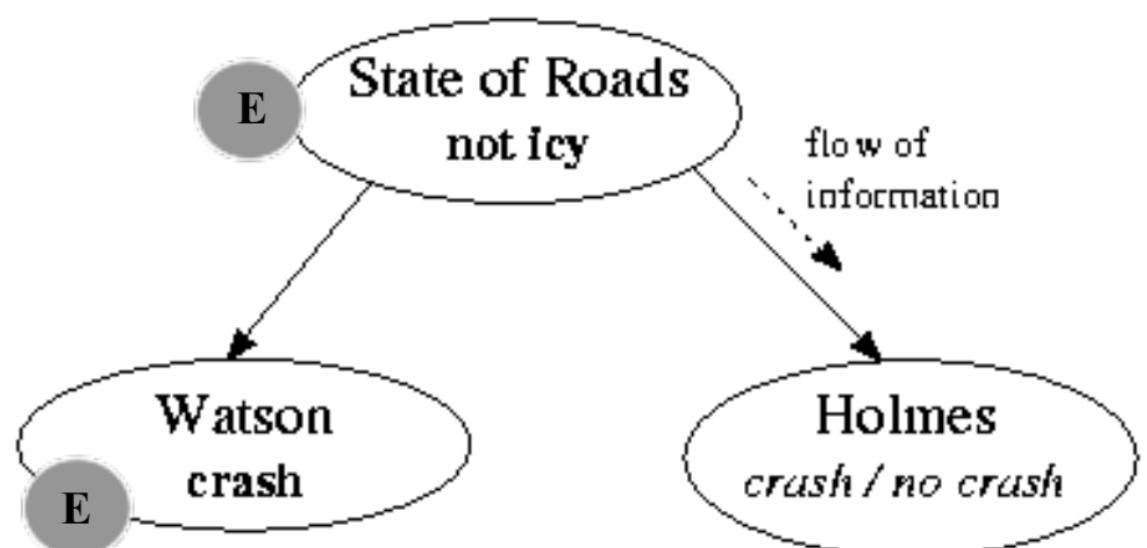
Causal relationships



Watson has crashed !



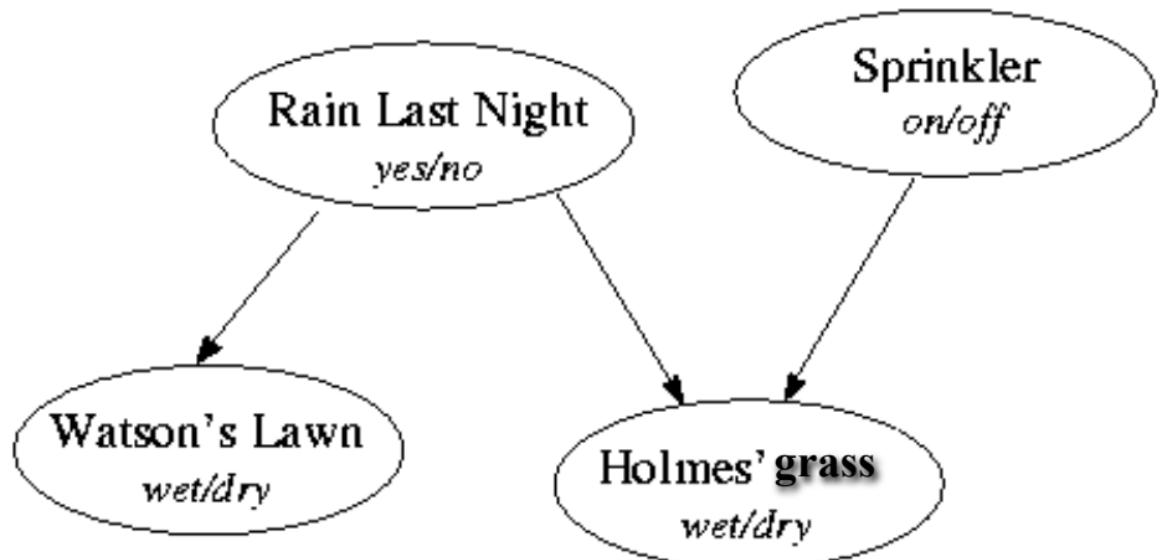
... But the roads are salted !



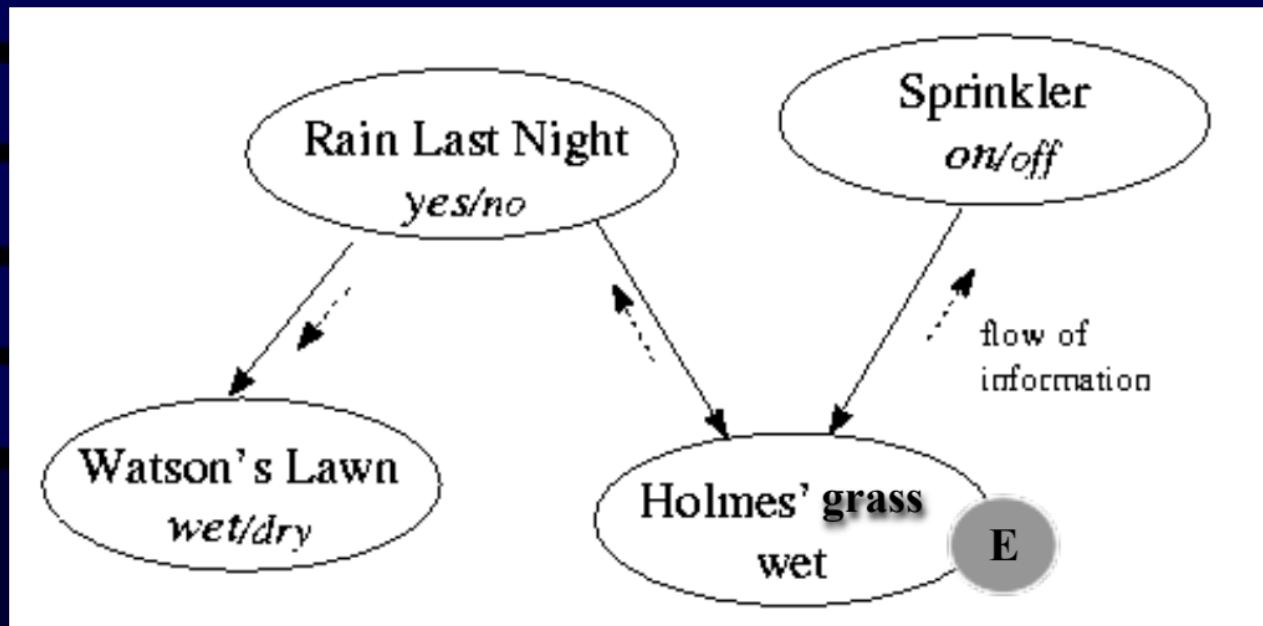
“Wet grass” example

- One morning as Holmes leaves for work, he notices that his grass is wet. He wonders whether he has left his sprinkler on, or it has rained.
- Glancing over to Watson’s lawn he notices that it is also wet.
- Holmes thinks: *Since Watson’s lawn is wet, it probably rained last night.*
- He then thinks: *If it rained then that explains why my grass is wet, so probably the sprinkler is off.*

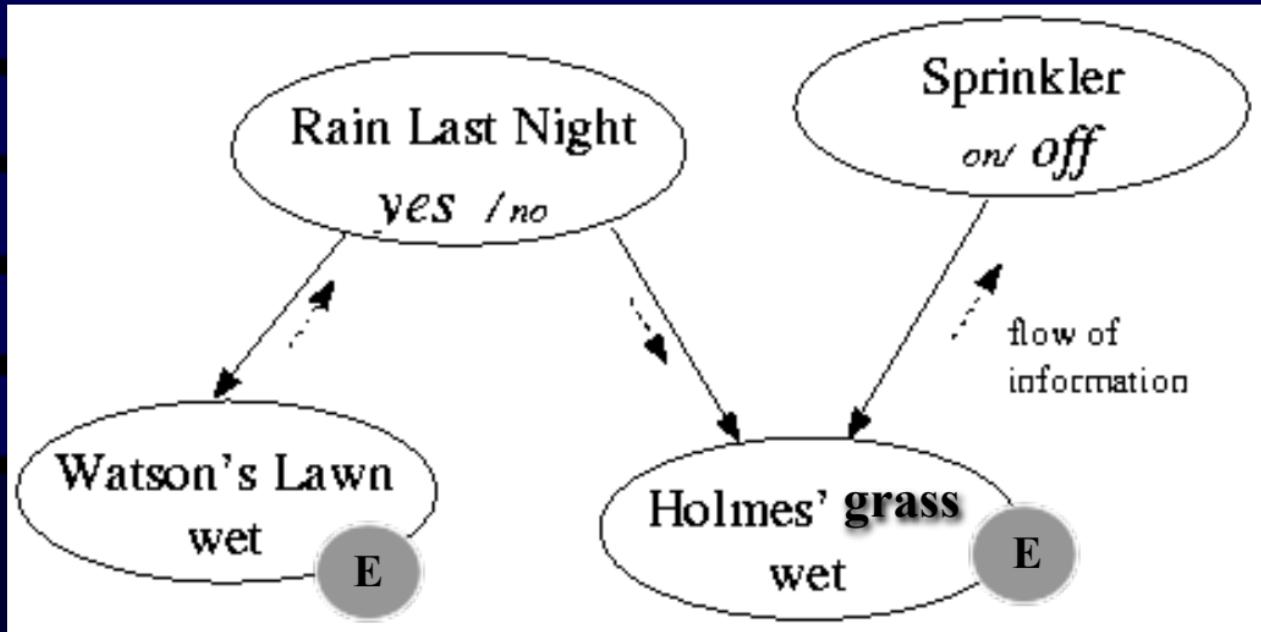
Causal relationships



Holmes' grass is wet !



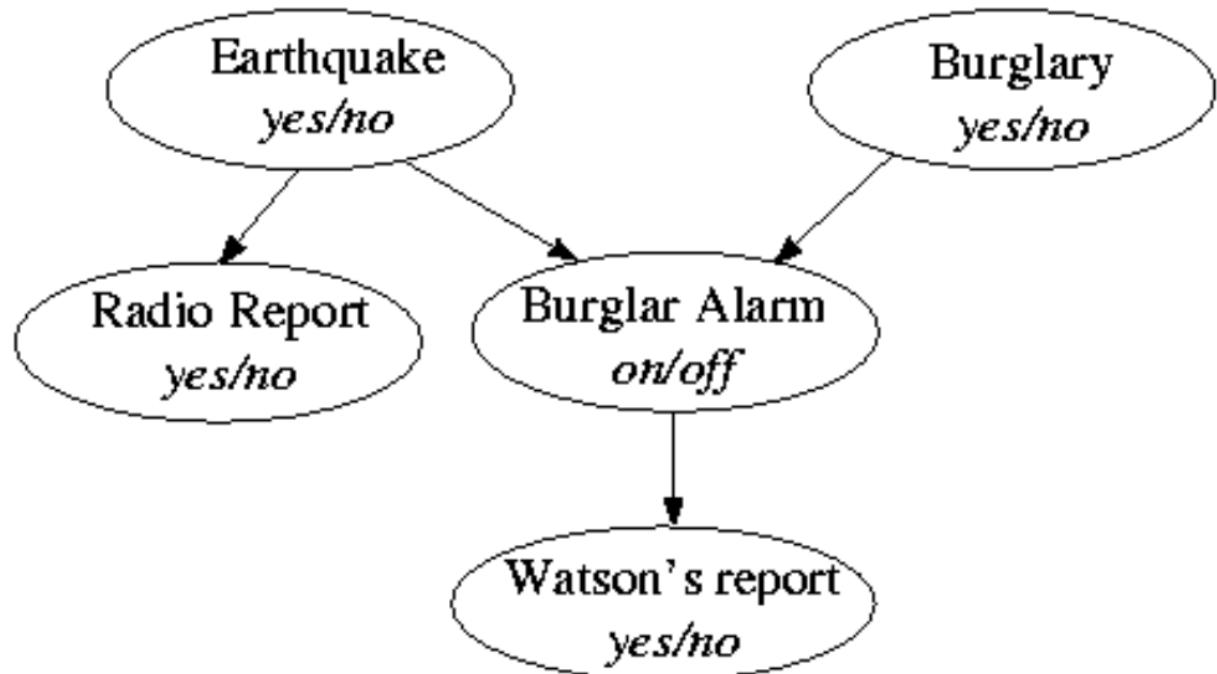
Watson's lawn is also wet !



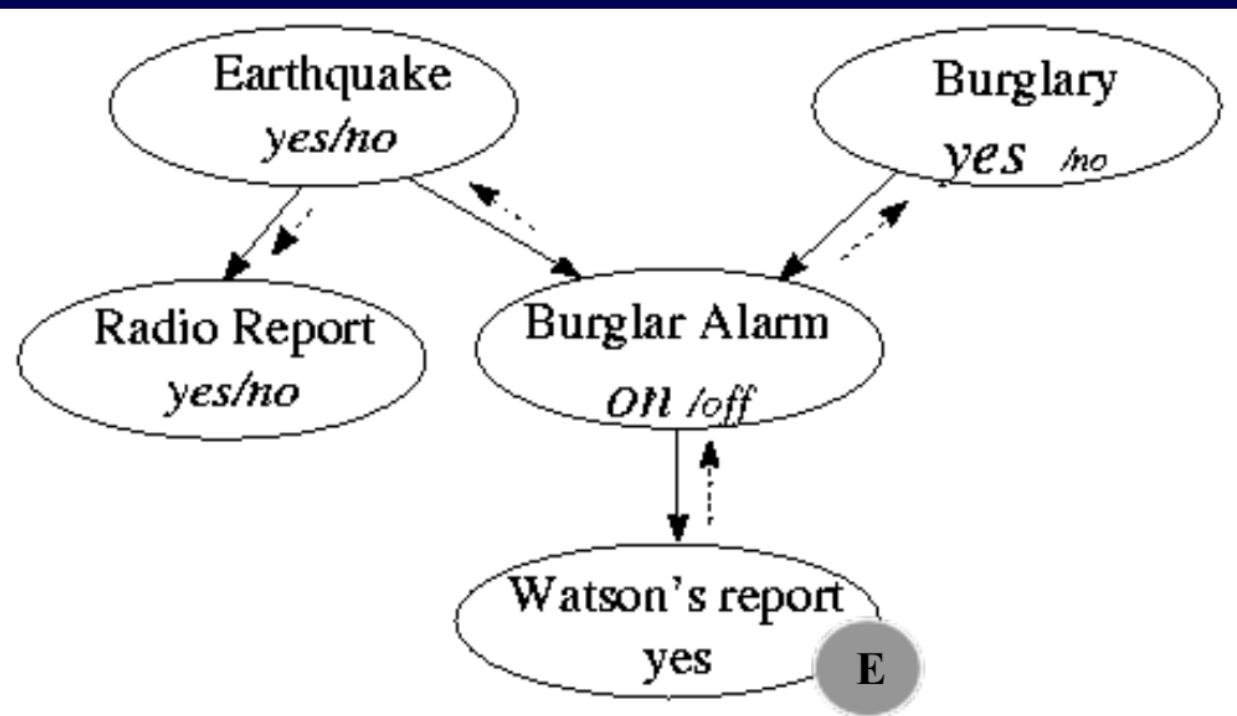
“Burglar alarm” example

- Holmes is at work when he receives a call from Watson, informing him that his alarm has gone off.
- Holmes thinks it is likely that the alarm really went off, although Watson sometimes play practical jokes.
- Holmes is on his way home when he hears a report on the radio, that there was an earthquake in the vicinity.
- Since the burglar alarm has been known to go off when there is an earthquake, Holmes reckons that a burglary is unlikely.
- Holmes goes back to work. (Leaving the noise for Watson)

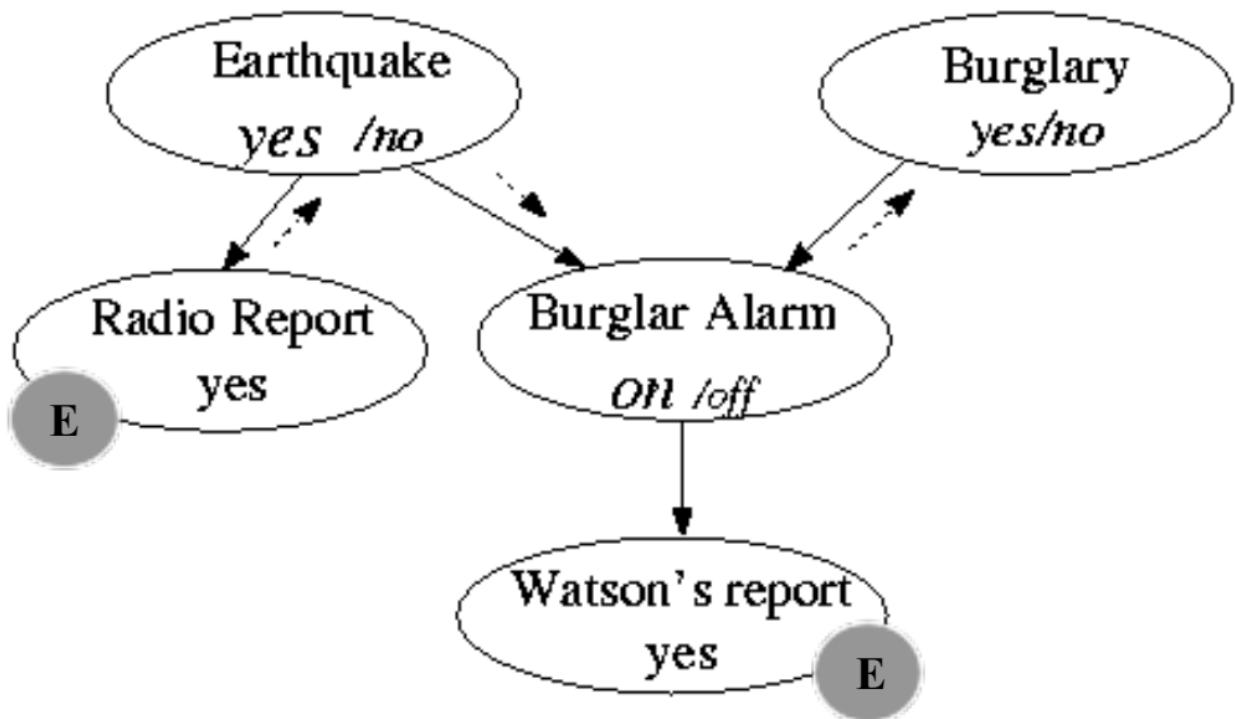
Causal relationships



Watson reports about alarm

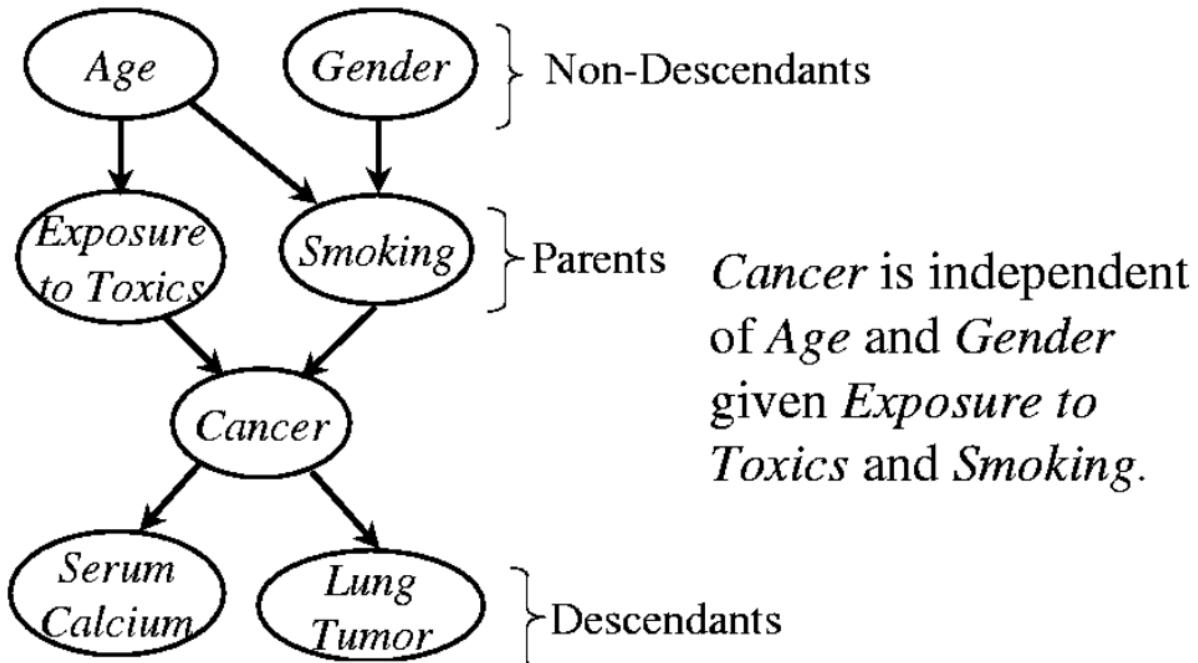


Radio reports about earthquake

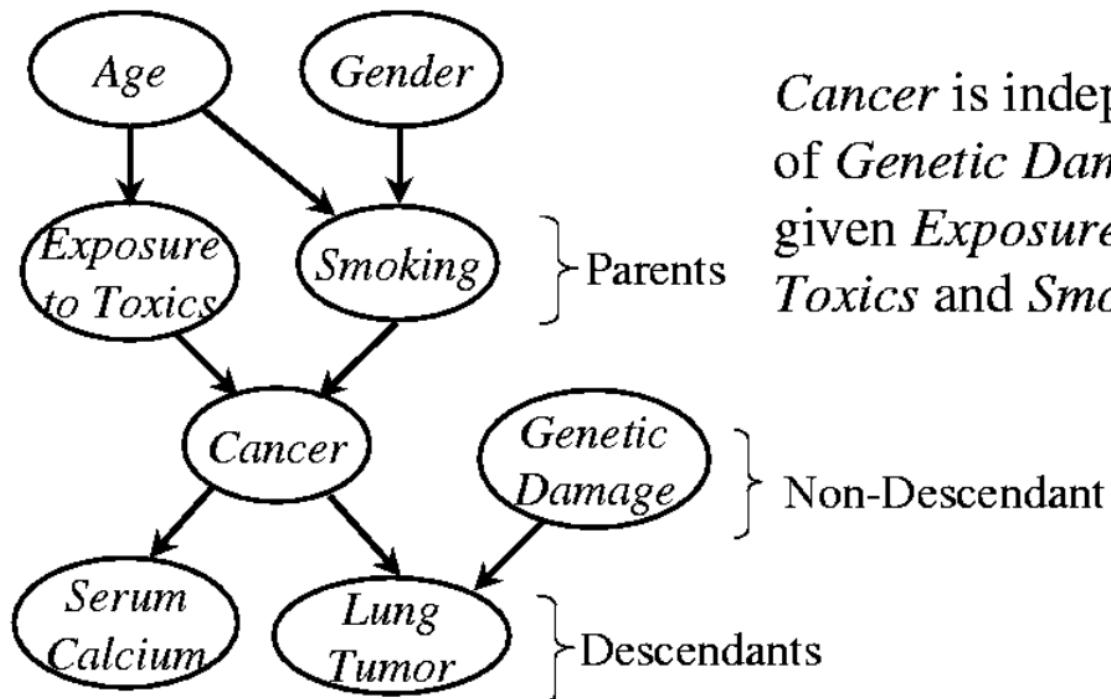


Conditional Independence

A variable (node) is conditionally independent of its non-descendants given its parents.



Another non-descendant

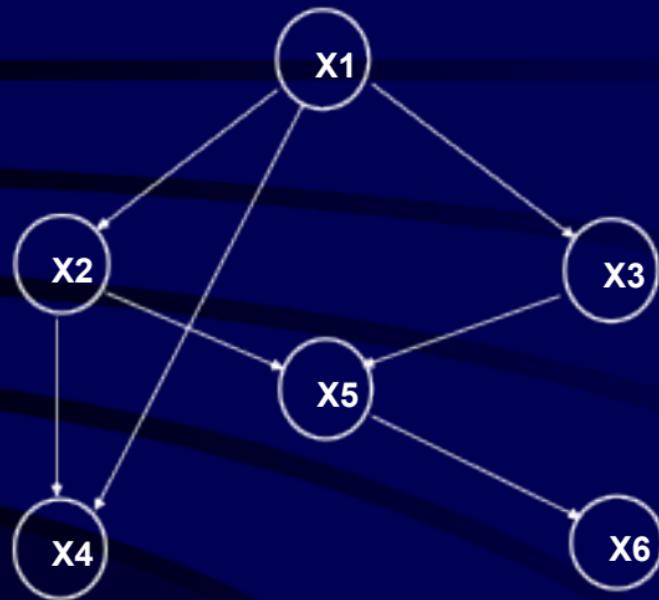


Cancer is independent of *Genetic Damage* given *Exposure to Toxics* and *Smoking*.

General Product (Chain) Rule for Bayesian Networks

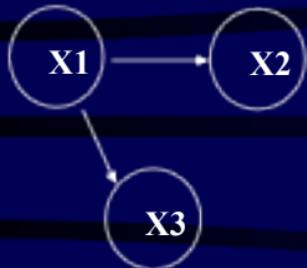
$$P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i \mid \textbf{\textit{Pa}}_i)$$
$$\textbf{\textit{Pa}}_i = \textit{parents}(X_i)$$

Sample of General Product Rule



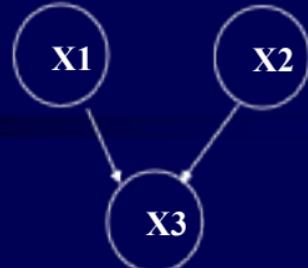
$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6) = p(x_6 | x_5) p(x_5 | x_3, x_2) p(x_4 | x_2, x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_2 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

Arc Reversal - Bayes Rule



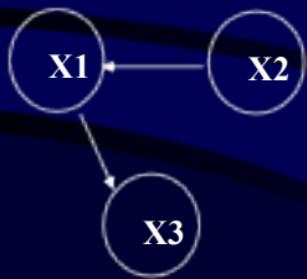
$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_2 | x_1)$$
$$p(x_1)$$

is equivalent to

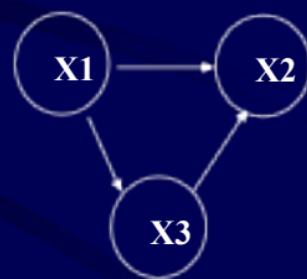


$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_2, x_1) p(x_2) p(x_1)$$

is equivalent to



$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_2 | x_1)$$
$$= p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1 | x_2) p(x_2)$$



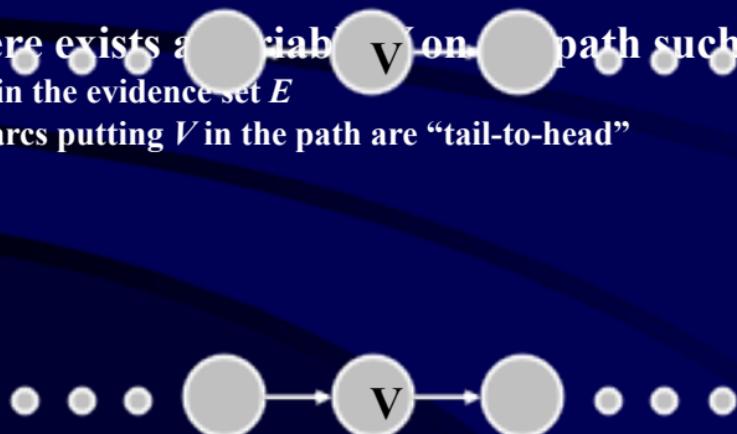
$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3) = p(x_3 | x_2, x_1) p(x_1)$$
$$= p(x_2 | x_3, x_1) p(x_3 | x_1) p(x_1)$$

D-Separation of variables

- Fortunately, there is a relatively simple algorithm for determining whether two variables in a Bayesian network are conditionally independent: *d-separation*.
- Definition: X and Z are *d-separated* by a set of evidence variables E iff every undirected path from X to Z is “blocked”.
- A path is “blocked” iff one or more of the following conditions is true: ...

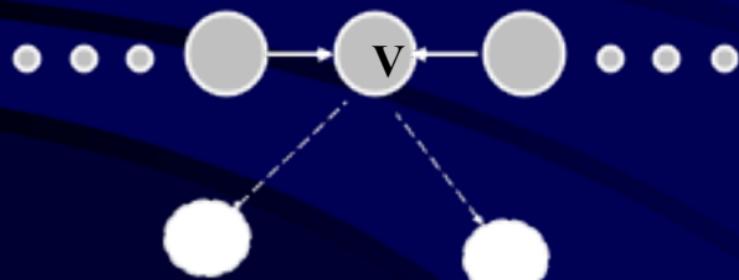
A path is blocked when:

- There exists a variable V on the path such that
 - it is in the evidence set E
 - the arcs putting V in the path are “tail-to-tail”
- Or, there exists a variable V on the path such that
 - it is in the evidence set E
 - the arcs putting V in the path are “tail-to-head”
- Or, ...



... a path is blocked when:

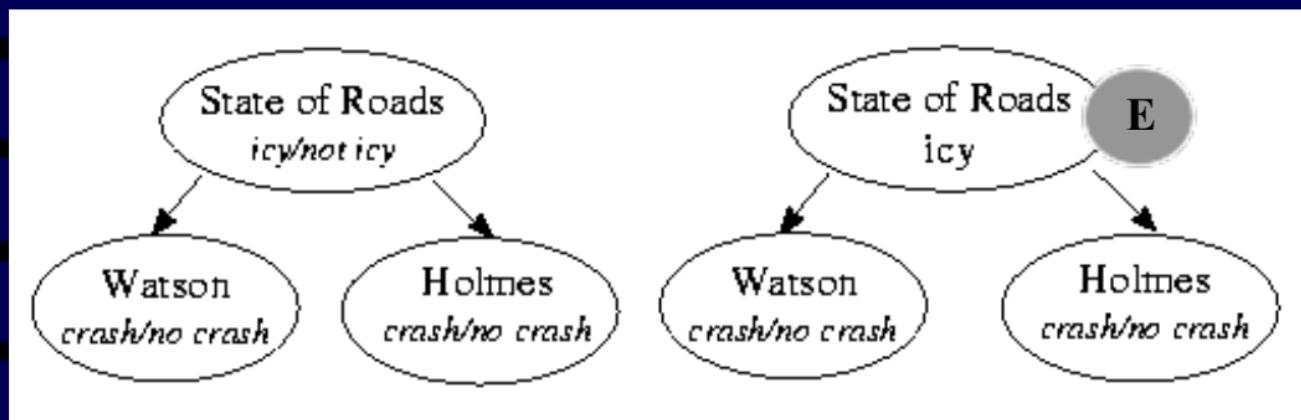
- ... Or, there exists a variable V on the path such that
 - it is NOT in the evidence set E
 - neither are any of its descendants
 - the arcs putting V on the path are “head-to-head”



D-Separation and independence

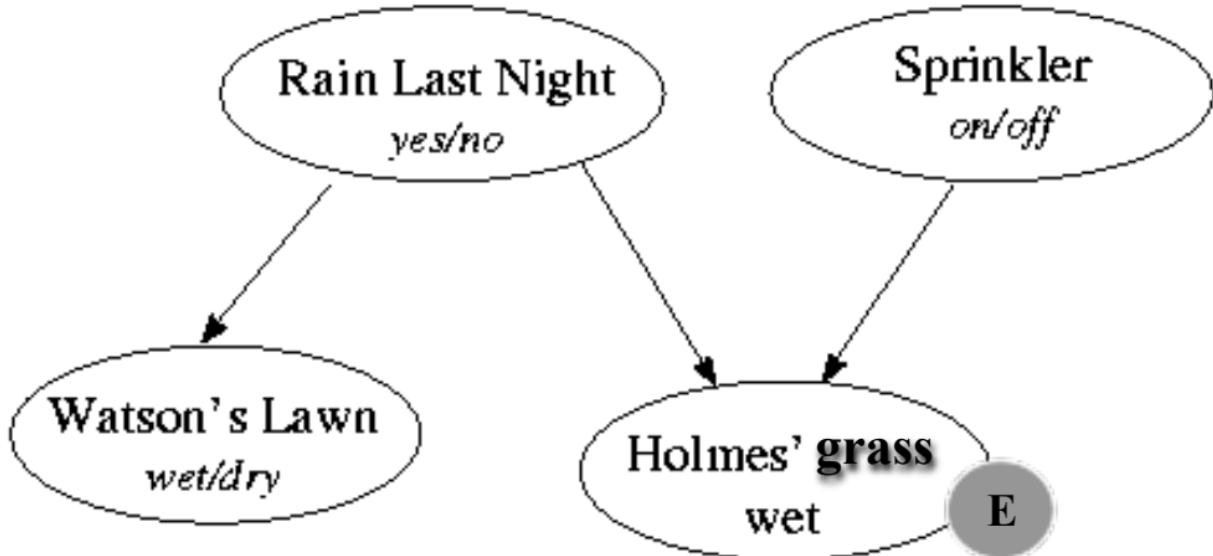
- Theorem [Verma & Pearl, 1998]:
 - If a set of evidence variables E d-separates X and Z in a Bayesian network's graph, then X and Z will be independent.
- d -separation can be computed in linear time.
- Thus we now have a fast algorithm for automatically inferring whether learning the value of one variable might give us any additional hints about some other variable, given what we already know.

Holmes and Watson: “Icy roads” example



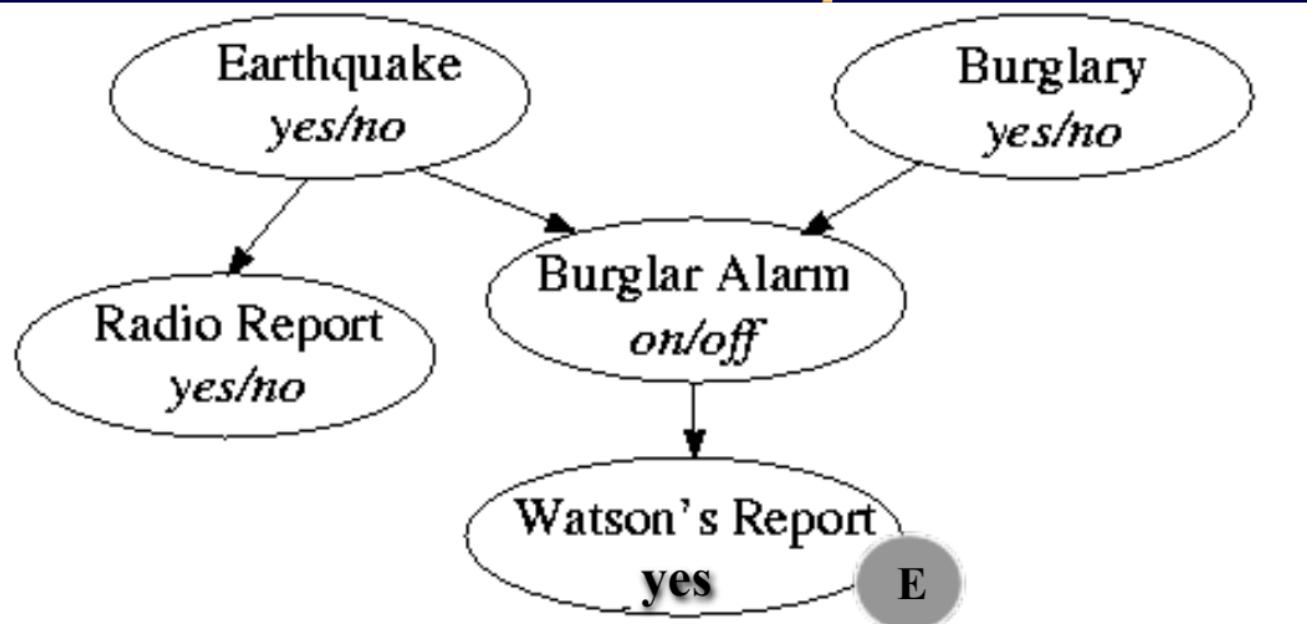
Watson and Holmes are d-connected given no evidence, but
Watson and Holmes are d-separated given State of Roads

Holmes and Watson: “Wet grass” example



Watson's Lawn and Sprinkler are d-connected given Holmes' grass

Holmes and Watson: “Burglar alarm” example



Radio Report and Burglary are d-connected given Watson's Report

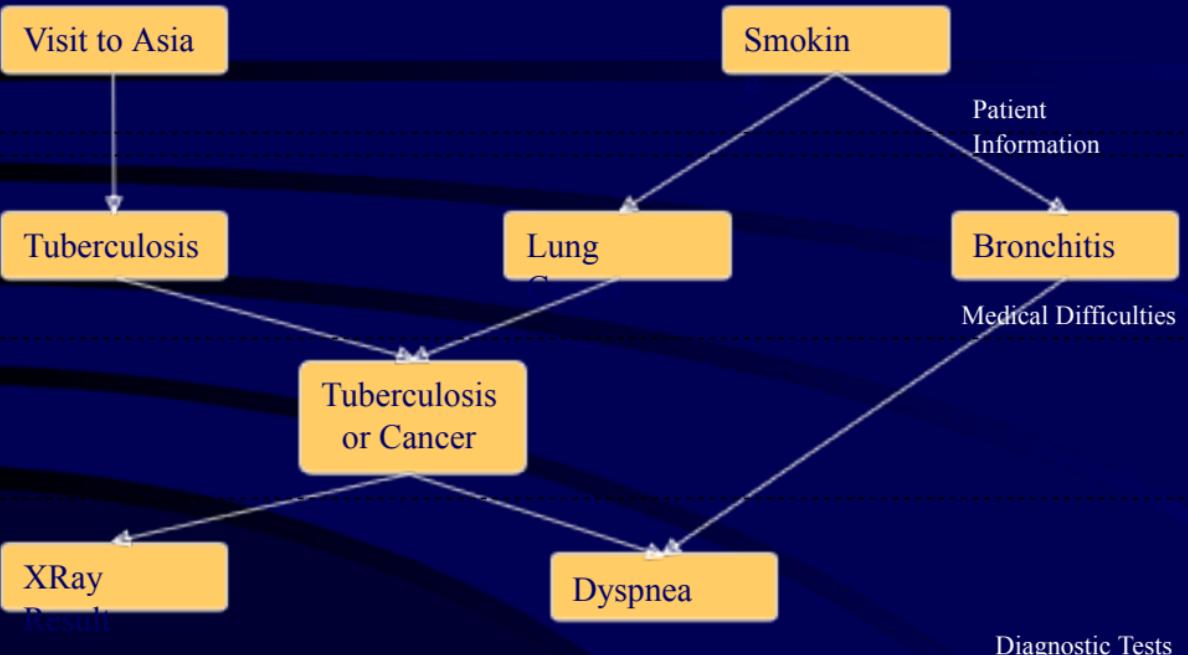
Overview

- Probabilities basic rules
- Bayesian Nets
- Conditional Independence

Motivating Examples

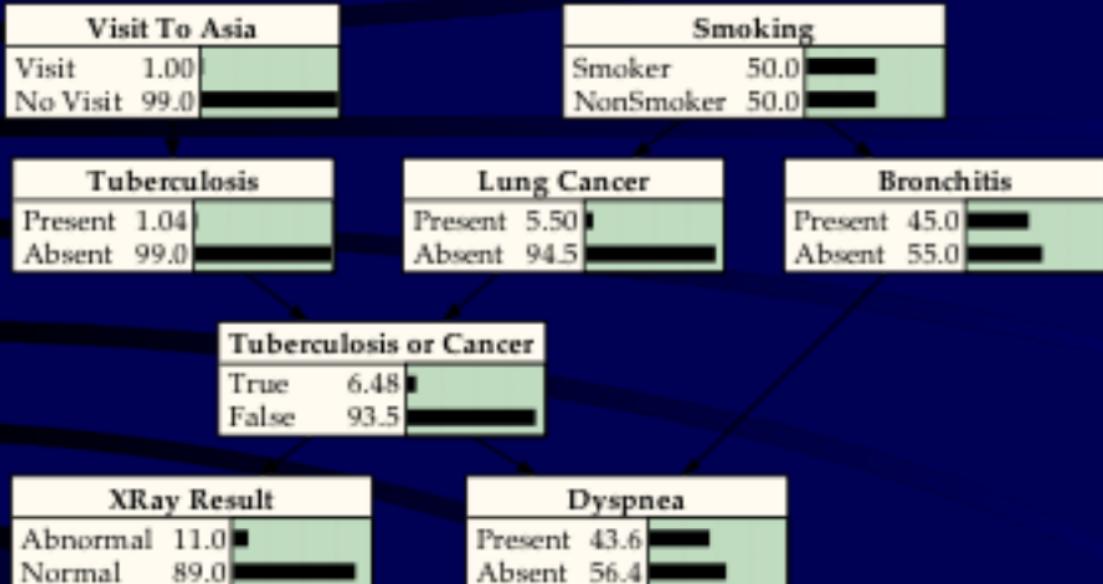
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Example from Medical Diagnostics



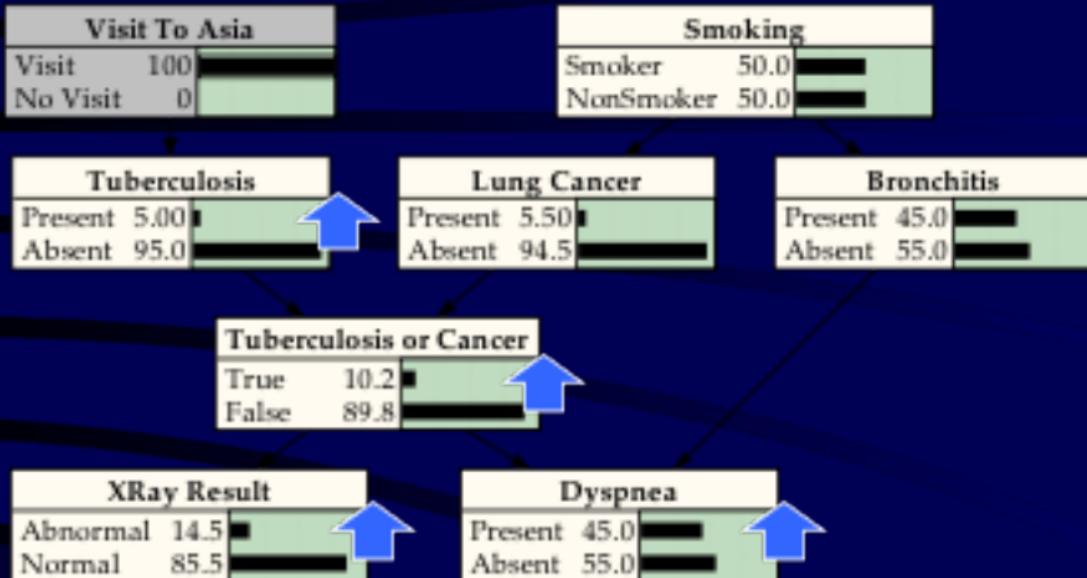
Network represents a knowledge structure that models the relationship between medical difficulties, their causes and effects, patient information and diagnostic tests

Example from Medical Diagnostics



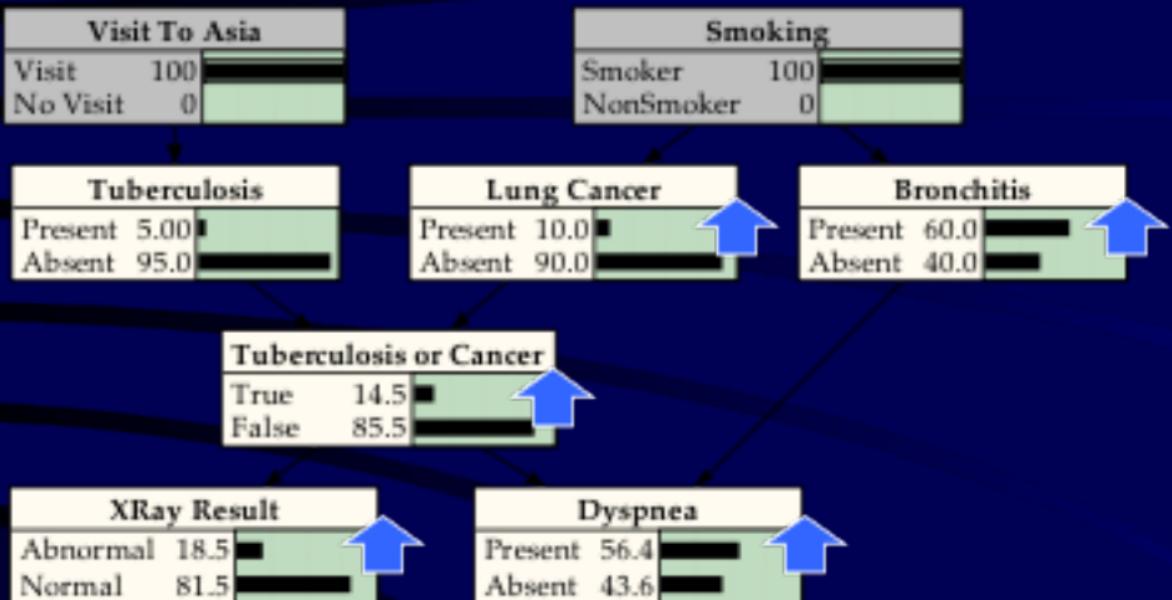
- Propagation algorithm processes relationship information to provide an unconditional or marginal probability distribution for each node
- The unconditional or marginal probability distribution is frequently called the belief function of that node

Example from Medical Diagnostics



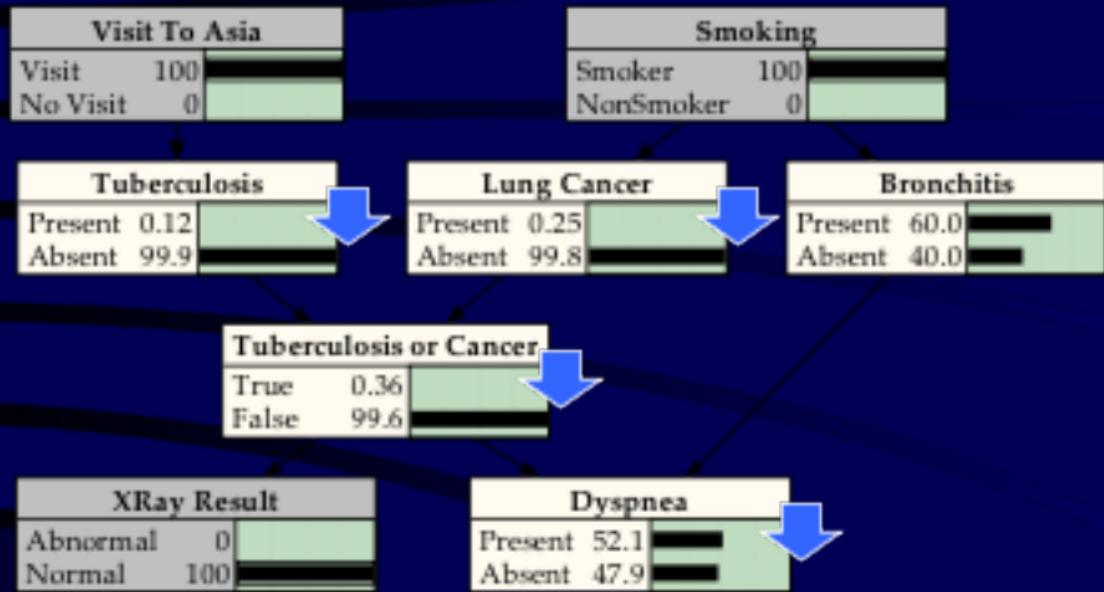
- As a finding is entered, the propagation algorithm updates the beliefs attached to each relevant node in the network
- Interviewing the patient produces the information that “Visit to Asia” is “Visit”
- This finding propagates through the network and the belief functions of several nodes are updated

Example from Medical Diagnostics



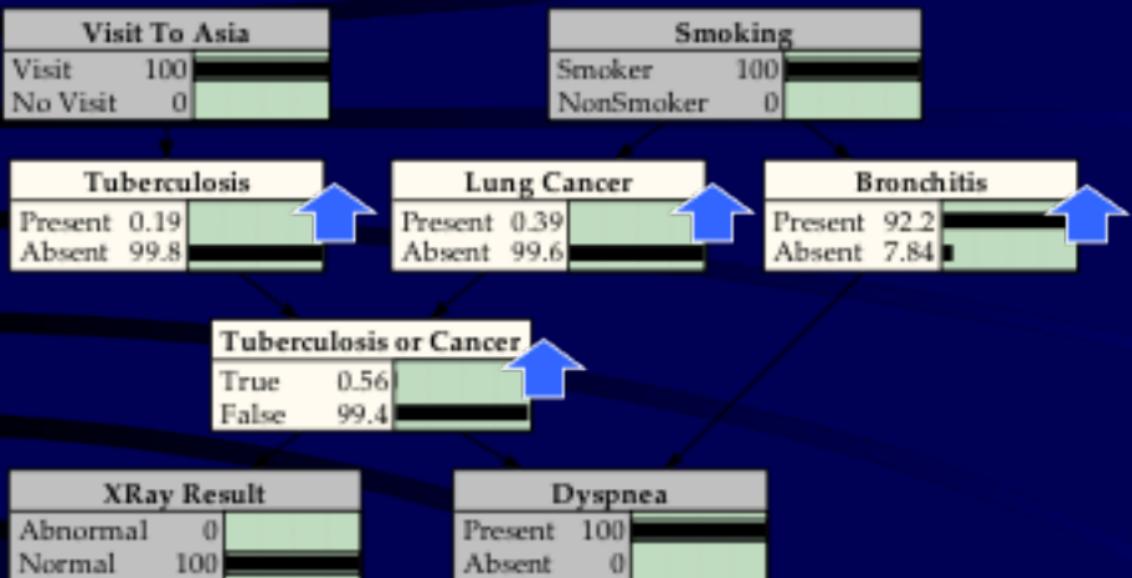
- Further interviewing of the patient produces the finding “Smoking” is “Smoker”
- This information propagates through the network

Example from Medical Diagnostics



- Finished with interviewing the patient, the physician begins the examination
- The physician now moves to specific diagnostic tests such as an X-Ray, which results in a “Normal” finding which propagates through the network
- Note that the information from this finding propagates backward and forward through the arcs

Example from Medical Diagnostics



- The physician also determines that the patient is having difficulty breathing, the finding “Present” is entered for “Dyspnea” and is propagated through the network
- The doctor might now conclude that the patient has bronchitis and does not have tuberculosis or lung cancer

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Inference in Bayesian Nets

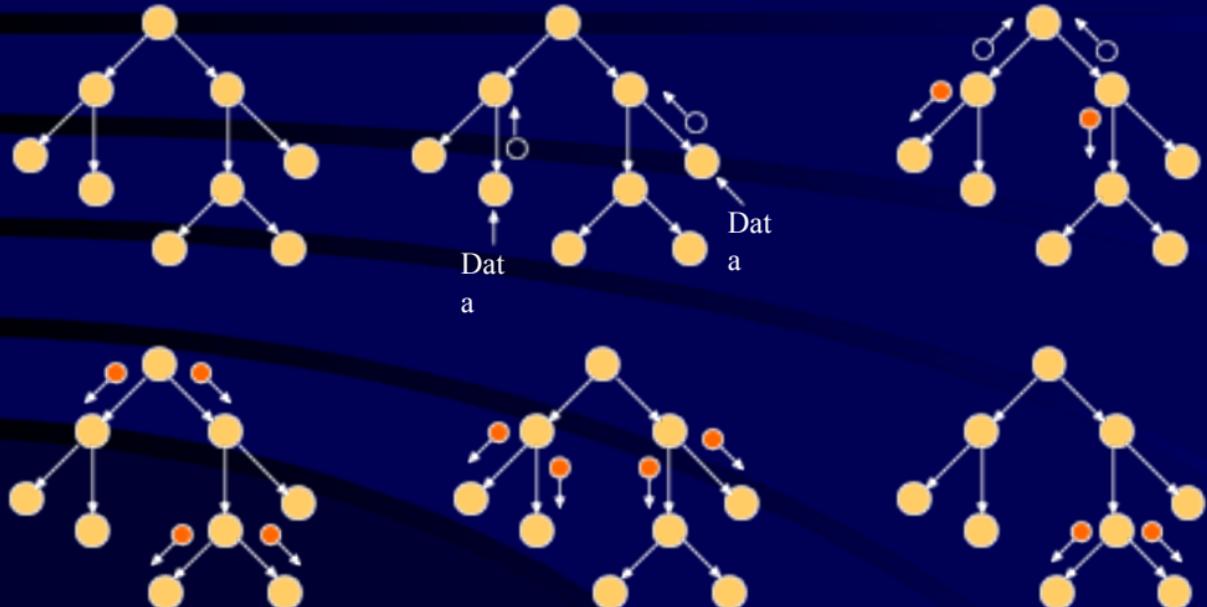
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Inference Using Bayes Theorem

- The general probabilistic inference problem is to find the probability of an event given a set of evidence;
- This can be done in Bayesian nets with sequential applications of Bayes Theorem;
- In 1986 Judea Pearl published an innovative algorithm for performing inference in Bayesian nets.

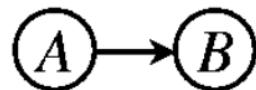
Propagation Example

“The impact of each new piece of evidence is viewed as a perturbation that propagates through the network via message-passing between



- The example above requires five time periods to reach equilibrium after the introduction of data (Pearl, 1988, p 174)

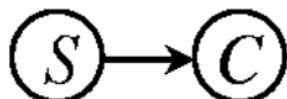
Basic Inference



$$P(b) = ?$$

Product Rule

$$\blacksquare P(C,S) = P(C|S) P(S)$$



$S \downarrow$	$C \Rightarrow$	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malignant</i>
<i>no</i>		0.768	0.024	0.008
<i>light</i>		0.132	0.012	0.006
<i>heavy</i>		0.035	0.010	0.005

Marginalization

$S \downarrow$	$C \Rightarrow$	<i>none</i>	<i>benign</i>	<i>malig</i>	total	
<i>no</i>		0.768	0.024	0.008	.80	$P(Smoke)$
<i>light</i>		0.132	0.012	0.006	.15	
<i>heavy</i>		0.035	0.010	0.005	.05	
total		0.935	0.046	0.019		

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad}_{P(Cancer)}$

Basic Inference



$$\underbrace{P(b)}_{a} = \sum_a P(a, b) = \sum_a P(b | a) P(a)$$

$$P(c) = \sum_b P(c | b) \overbrace{P(b)}^{\rightarrow}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(c) &= \sum_{b,a} P(a, b, c) = \sum_{b,a} P(c | b) P(b | a) P(a) \\ &= \sum_b P(c | b) \underbrace{\sum_a P(b | a) P(a)}_{P(b)} \end{aligned}$$

Variable elimination



$$P(c) = \sum_b P(c \mid b) \underbrace{\sum_a P(b \mid a) P(a)}_{P(b)}$$

$$P(A) \quad P(B \mid A)$$



$$P(B, A) \rightarrow \sum_A \rightarrow P(B) \quad P(C \mid B)$$

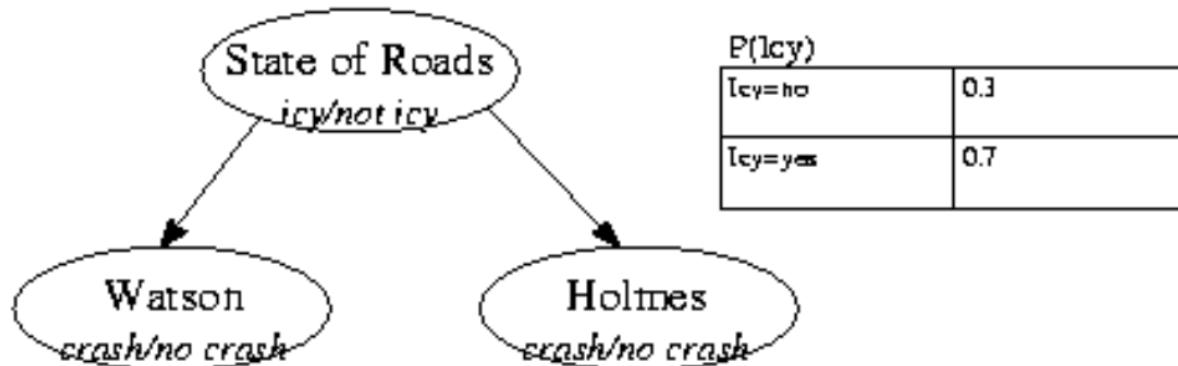


$$P(C, B) \rightarrow \sum_B \rightarrow P(C)$$

“Icy roads” example

- Inspector Smith is waiting for Holmes and Watson who are both late for an appointment.
- Smith is worried that if the roads are icy one or both of them may have crashed his car.
- Suddenly Smith learns that Watson has crashed.
- Smith thinks: *If Watson has crashed, probably the roads are icy, then Holmes has probably crashed too!*
- Smith then learns it is warm outside and roads are salted
- Smith thinks: *Watson was unlucky; Holmes should still make it.*

Bayes net for “icy roads” example



$P(\text{Watson} \mid \text{Icy})$	Icy = yes	Icy = no
Watson Crash = yes	0.8	0.1
Watson Crash = no	0.2	0.9

$P(\text{Holmes} \mid \text{Icy})$	Icy = yes	Icy = no
Holmes Crash = yes	0.8	0.1
Holmes Crash = no	0.2	0.9

Extracting marginals

To find $P(\text{Holmes Crash})$ we first compute
 $P(\text{Holmes Crash}, \text{Icy})$ using the fundamental rule:

e.g. $P(\text{H Crash} = \text{yes}, \text{Icy} = \text{yes})$

$$= P(\text{H Crash}=\text{yes} \mid \text{Icy}=\text{yes})P(\text{Icy}=\text{yes})$$

$P(\text{Holmes, Icy})$	$\text{Icy} = \text{yes}$	$\text{Icy} = \text{no}$	$P(\text{H Crash})$
$\text{Holmes Crash} = \text{yes}$	$0.8 \times 0.7 = 0.56$	$0.1 \times 0.3 = 0.03$	$0.56 + 0.03 = 0.59$
$\text{Holmes Crash} = \text{no}$	$0.2 \times 0.7 = 0.14$	$0.9 \times 0.3 = 0.27$	$0.14 + 0.27 = 0.41$

Then summing each row gives us the required probabilities.
By symmetry $P(\text{W Crash})$ is the same.

Updating with Bayes rule (given evidence “Watson has crashed”)

After we discover that Watson has crashed we can compute $P(\text{Icy} \mid \text{W Crash} = y)$ using Bayes rule:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Icy} \mid \text{W Crash} = y) &= \frac{P(\text{W Crash} = y \mid \text{Icy})P(\text{Icy})}{P(\text{W Crash} = y)} \\ &= (0.8 \times 0.7, 0.1 \times 0.3) / 0.59 \\ &= (0.95, 0.05) \end{aligned}$$

Extracting the marginal

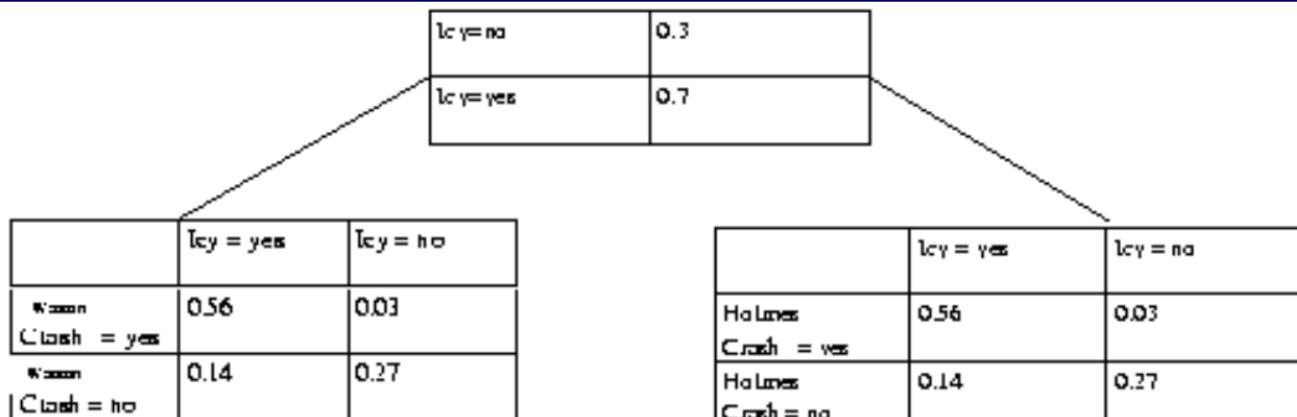
- To calculate $P(H \text{ Crash} | W \text{ Crash} = y)$ we first calculate
 $P(H \text{ Crash}, Icy | W \text{ Crash})$

$P(H W=y, icy)$	$Icy = yes$	$Icy = no$	
Holmes Crash = yes	$0.8 \times 0.95 = 0.76$	$0.1 \times 0.05 = 0.005$	0.765
Holmes Crash = no	$0.2 \times 0.95 = 0.19$	$0.9 \times 0.05 = 0.045$	0.235

Again, summing gives us $P(H \text{ Crash} | W \text{ Crash} = \text{yes})$

$$\begin{aligned}P(H \text{ Crash} | W \text{ Crash}, Icy=no) &= P(H \text{ Crash} | Icy=no) \\&= (0.1, 0.9)\end{aligned}$$

Alternative perspective



We represent the model as two joint tables, $P(\text{Watson}, \text{Icy})$ and $P(\text{Holmes}, \text{Icy})$ with a table for the overlap $P(\text{Icy})$.

Alternative perspective

	lcy = no	0.3
	lcy = yes	0.7

	lcy = yes	lcy = no
Watson Crash = yes	$0.56 / 0.59 = 0.95$	$0.03 / 0.59 = 0.05$
Watson Crash = no	0	0

	lcy = yes	lcy = no
HoLmes Crash = yes	0.56	0.03
HoLmes Crash = no	0.14	0.27

If evidence on Watson arrives of the form $P^{\text{New}}(W \text{ Crash}) = (1, 0)$

then

$$P^{\text{New}}(W \text{ Crash}, lcy)$$

$$= P(lcy | W \text{ Crash}) P^{\text{New}}(W \text{ Crash}) = \frac{P(W \text{ Crash}, lcy)}{P(W \text{ Crash})} P^{\text{New}}(W \text{ Crash})$$

Alternative perspective

The diagram illustrates the flow of information from a general table at the top to more specific tables for Watson and Holmes below it.

Top Table:

lcy=no	0.95
lcy=yes	0.05

Watson Table:

	lcy = yes	lcy = no
Watson Crash = yes	$0.56/0.59 = 0.95$	$0.03/0.59 = 0.05$
Watson Crash = no	0	0

Holmes Table:

	lcy = yes	lcy = no
Holmes Crash = yes	$0.56 \times 0.95 \times 0.7 = 0.76$	$0.03 \times 0.05 \times 0.3 = 0.005$
Holmes Crash = no	$0.14 \times 0.95 \times 0.7 = 0.19$	$0.27 \times 0.05 \times 0.3 = 0.045$

The table for Icy can then be updated by marginalizing the table for Watson. The table for Holmes can then be updated using the same rule:

$$P^{\text{New}}(\text{H Crash}, \text{lcy}) = \frac{P(\text{H Crash}, \text{lcy})}{P(\text{lcy})} P^{\text{New}}(\text{lcy})$$

Overview

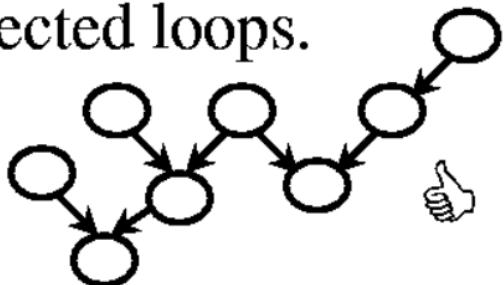
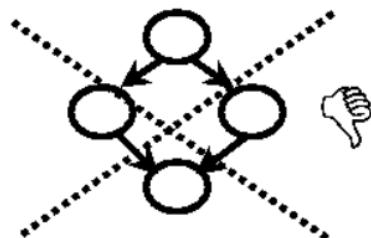
- Probabilities basic rules
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Join Trees

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Polytrees

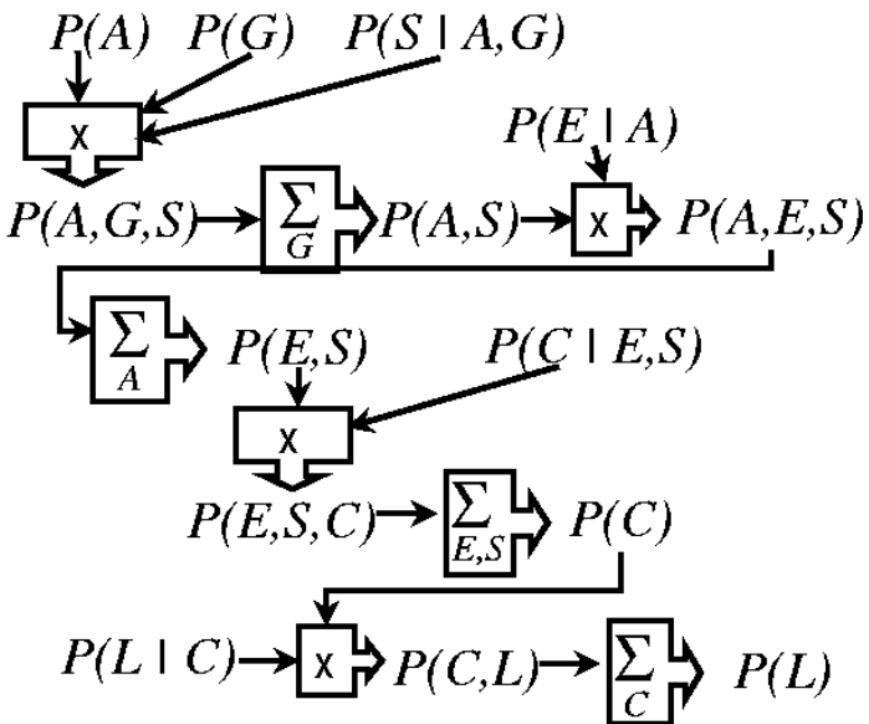
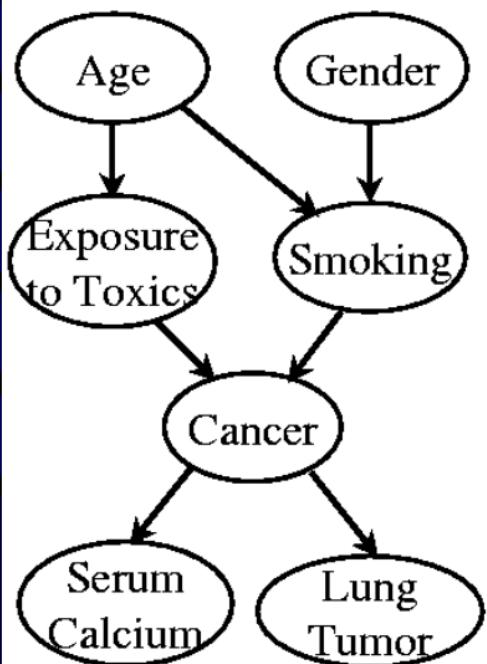
- A network is *singly connected* (a *polytree*) if it contains no undirected loops.



Theorem: Inference in a singly connected network can be done in linear time*.

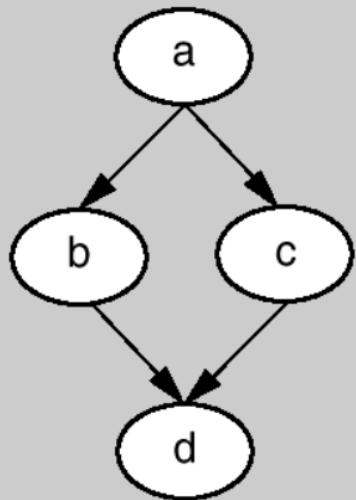
Main idea: in variable elimination, need only maintain distributions over single nodes.

Variable Elimination with loops

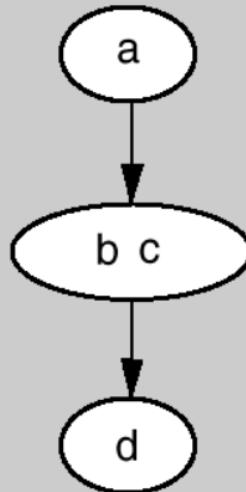


Complexity is exponential in the size of the factors

Join Trees



*A Multiply Connected Network.
There are two paths between node a and node d.*



*A Clustered, Multiply
Connected Network.*

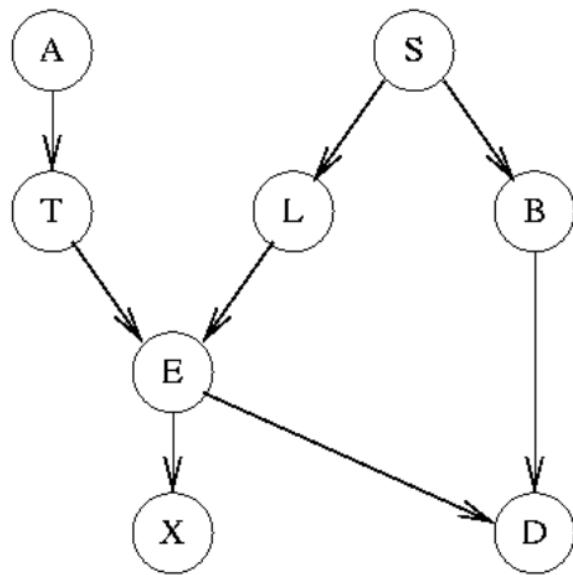
*By clustering nodes b and c, we turned the graph
into a singly connected network.*

Graphical Method of Building the Junction Tree

The Junction Tree can be constructed through a series of graph operations

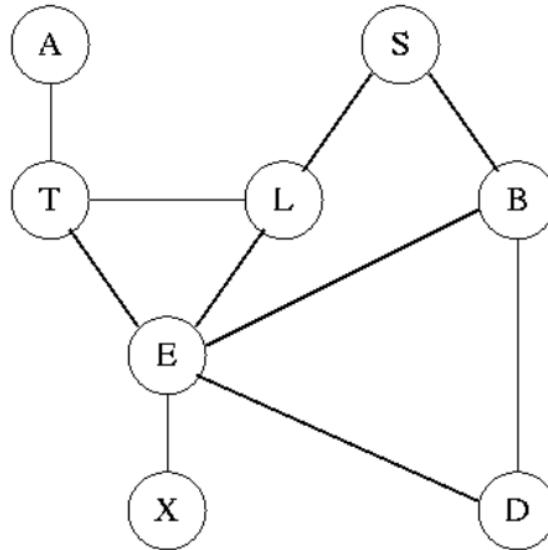
- **Marry the Parents** (“moralize the graph”): Add an undirected edge between every pair of parents of a node (unless they are already connected).
- **Make All Arrows Undirected**
- **Triangulate the Graph:** Add edges so that every cycle of length 4 or more contains a chord.
- **Identify the maximal Cliques:** A clique is a complete graph. A maximal clique is a maximal complete subgraph.
- **Form Junction Graph:** Create a cluster node for each clique and label it with the variables in the clique.
Create an edge between any pair of cluster nodes that share variables.
Place a separator node on the edge labeled with the set of variables shared by the cluster nodes it joins.
- **Form the junction tree:** Compute a maximum weighted spanning tree of the junction graph where the weight on each edge is the number of variables in the separator of the edge.

Example



$$P(U) = P(A)P(S)P(T|A)P(L|S)P(B|S)P(E|L,T)P(D|B,E)P(X|E)$$

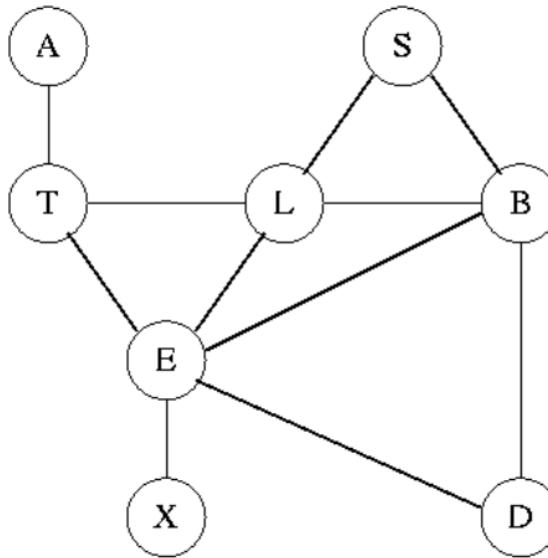
Step 1: Moralize the Graph



We join **T** and **L** because they are parents of **E**.

We join **E** and **B** because they are parents of **D**.

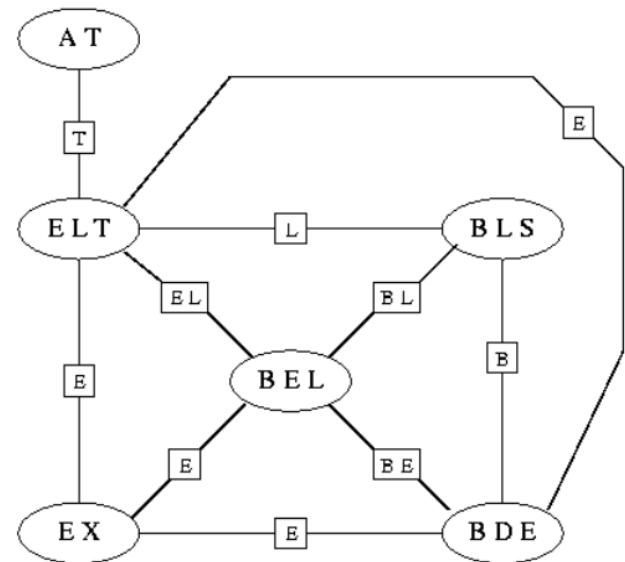
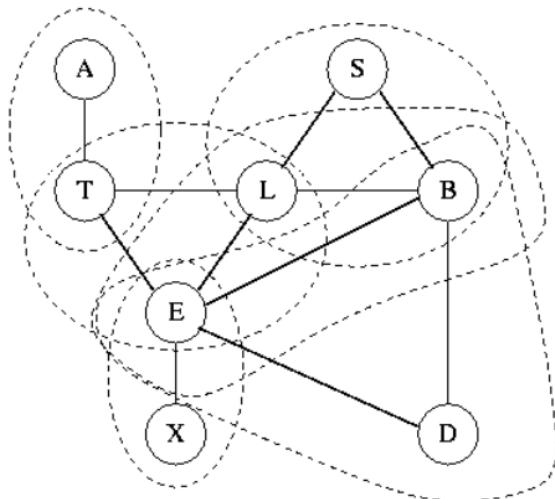
Step 2: Triangulate the Moral Graph



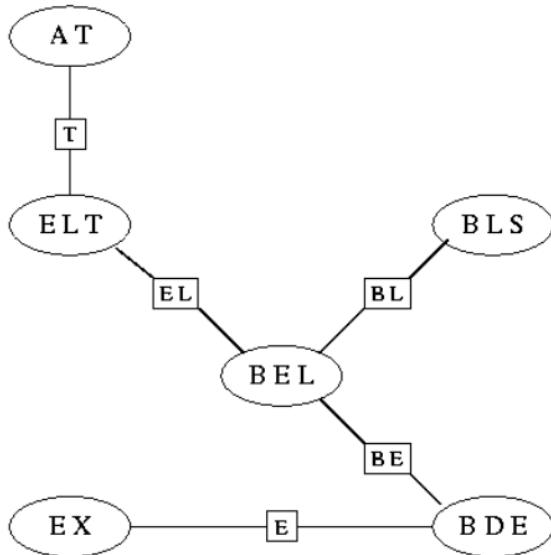
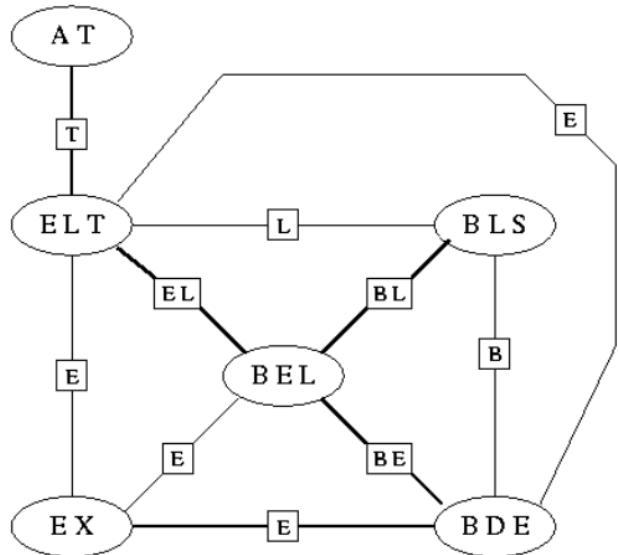
There is a cycle of length four with no shortcuts: **E, L, S, B**.

We have a choice of where to add the shortcut. Either **LB** or **SE** would work.

Step 3: Cliques and Junction Graph



Step 4: Junction Tree



Notice that the running intersection property holds (this is guaranteed by the maximum weight spanning tree and the moralizing and triangulating edges).

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Decision Making with Bayesian Networks

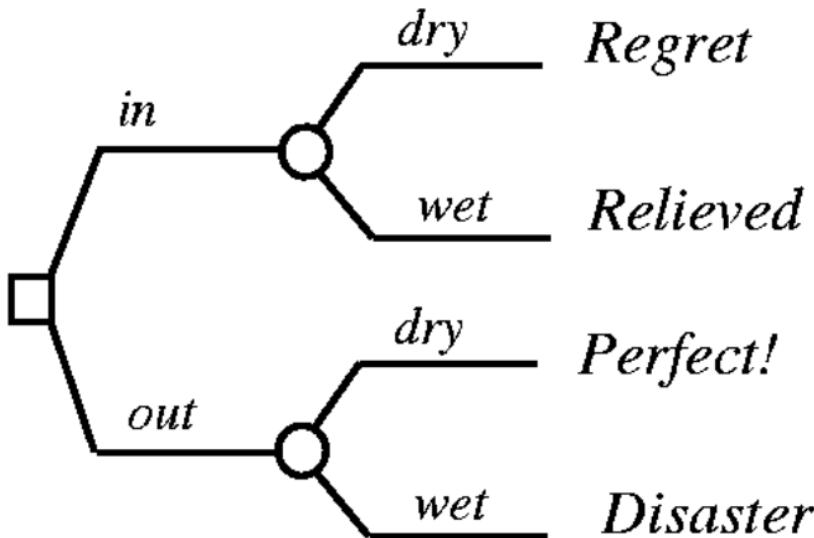
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Decision making

- Decision - an irrevocable allocation of domain resources
- Decision should be made so as to maximize expected utility.
- View decision making in terms of
 - ◆ Beliefs/Uncertainties
 - ◆ Alternatives/Decisions
 - ◆ Objectives/Utilities

A Decision Problem

Should I have my party inside or outside?

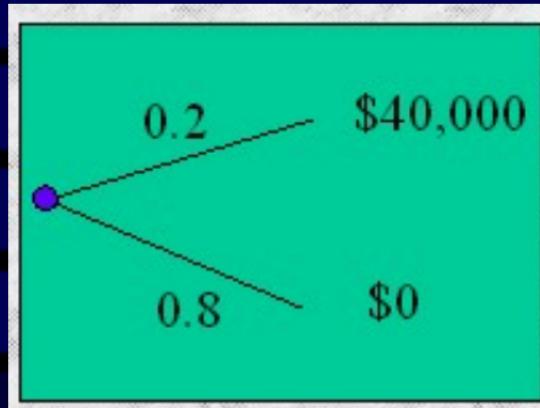


Value Function

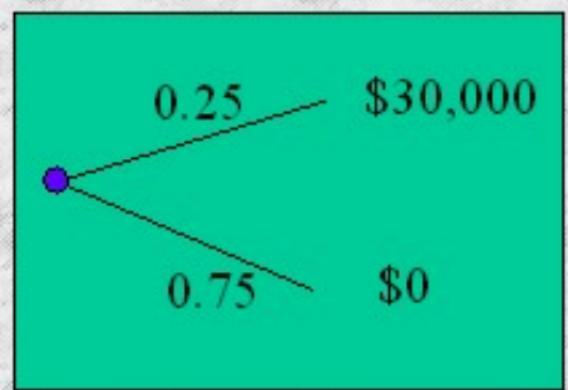
- A numerical score over all possible states of the world.

Location?	Weather?	Value
in	dry	\$50
in	wet	\$60
out	dry	\$100
out	wet	\$0

Preference for Lotteries

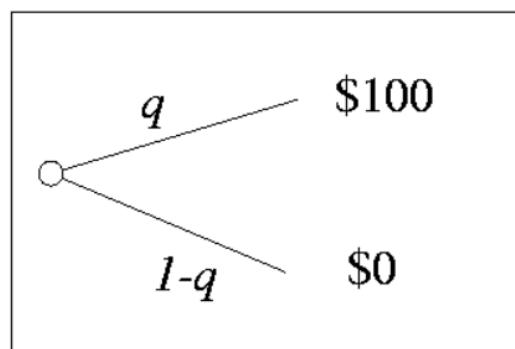
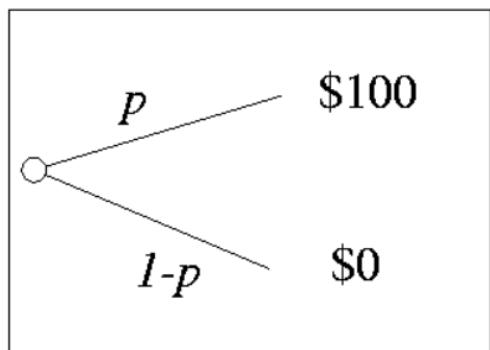


≈ ≈ ≈



Desired Properties for Preferences over Lotteries

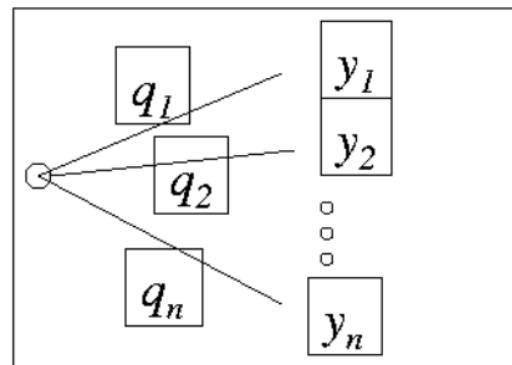
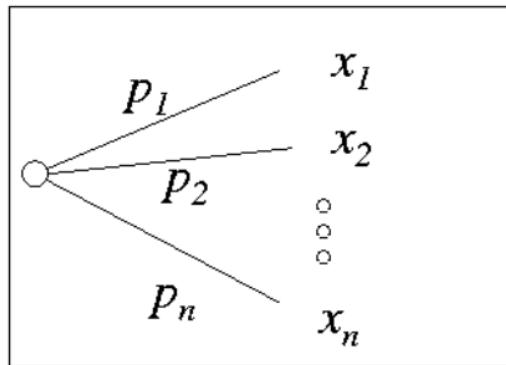
If you prefer \$100 to \$0 and $p < q$ then



(always)

Expected Utility

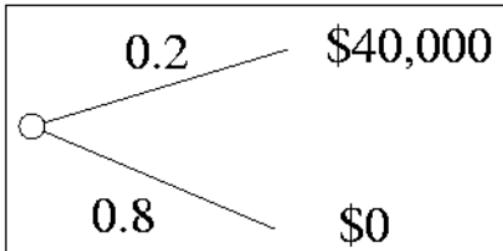
Properties of preference \Rightarrow
existence of function U , that satisfies:



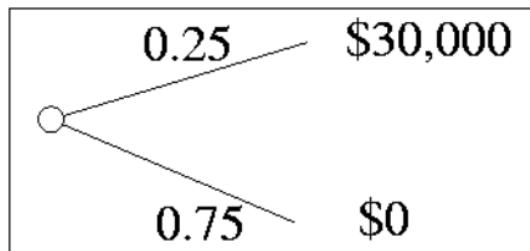
iff

$$\sum_i p_i U(x_i) < \sum_i q_i U(y_i)$$

Are people rational?

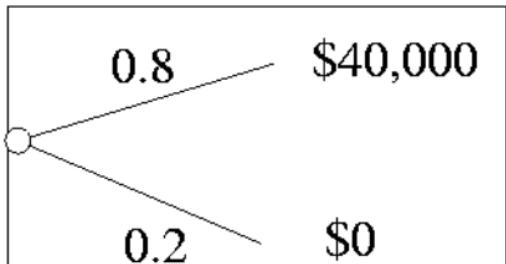


Y

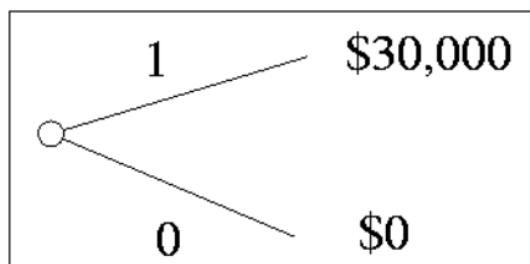


$$\begin{array}{c} 0.2 \cdot U(\$40k) \\ \hline 0.8 \cdot U(\$40k) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} > \\ 0.25 \cdot U(\$30k) \\ > U(\$30k) \end{array}$$

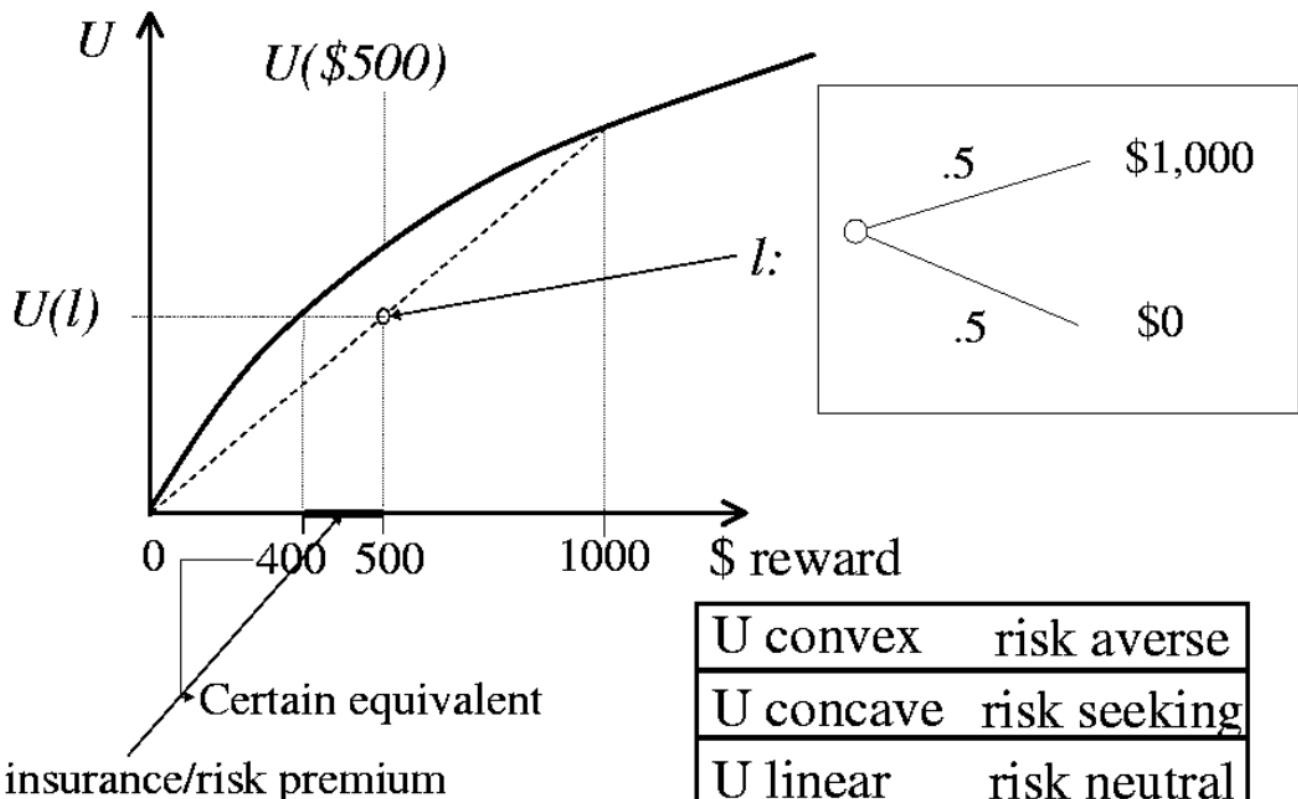


Z

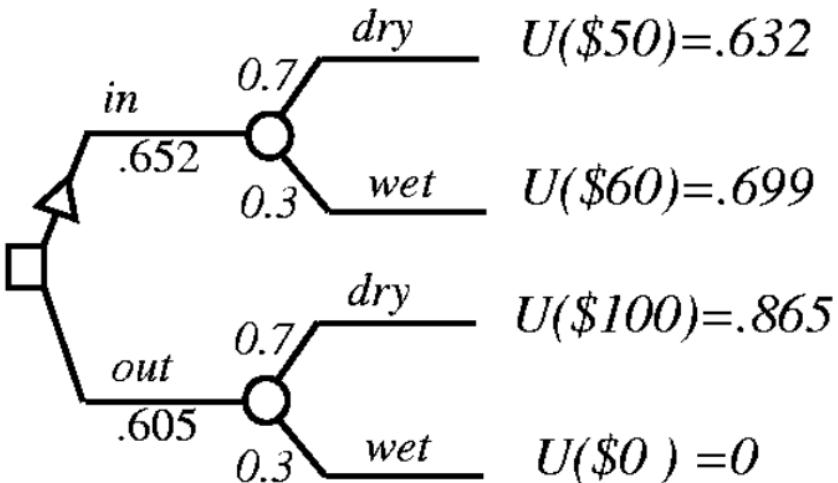


$$0.8 \cdot U(\$40k) < U(\$30k)$$

Attitudes towards risk



Maximizing Expected Utility



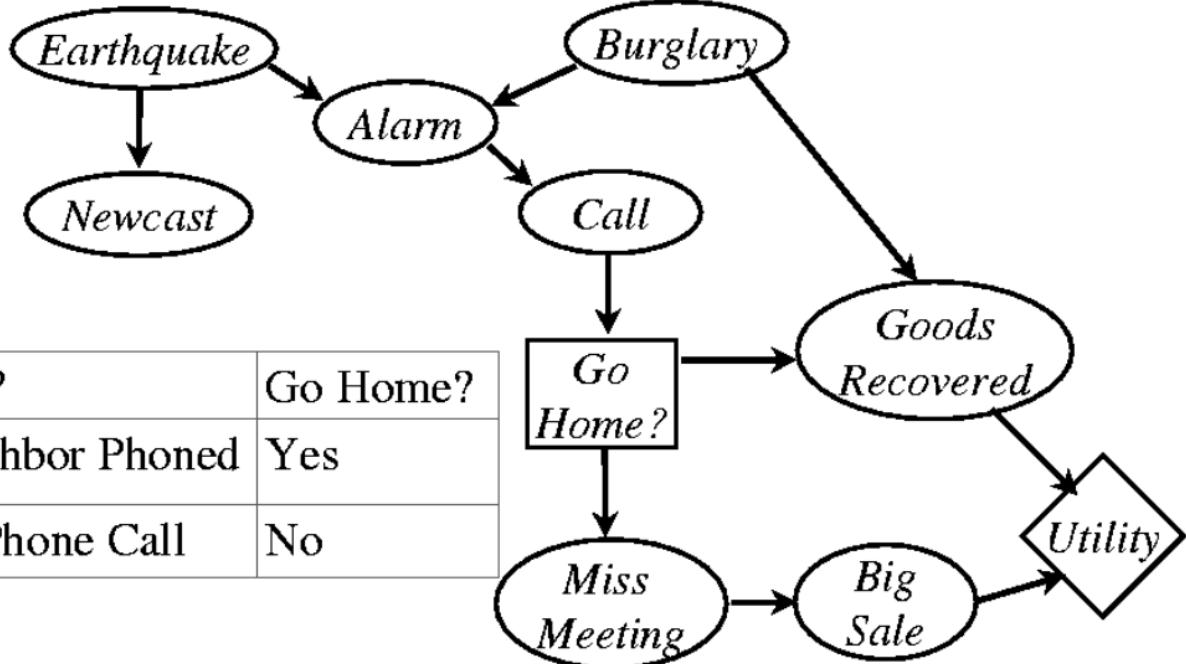
choose the action that maximizes expected utility

$$EU(\text{in}) = 0.7 \cdot .632 + 0.3 \cdot .699 = .652$$

→ Choose *in*

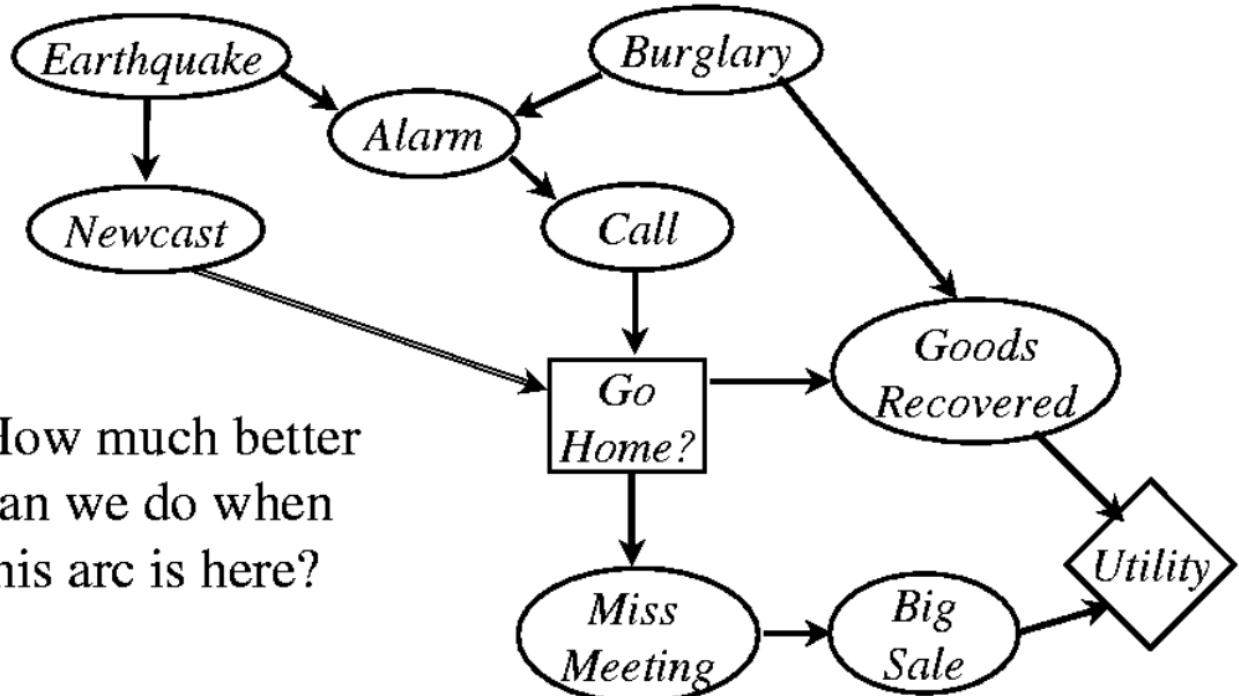
$$EU(\text{out}) = 0.7 \cdot .865 + 0.3 \cdot 0 = .605$$

Decision Making with Influence Diagrams

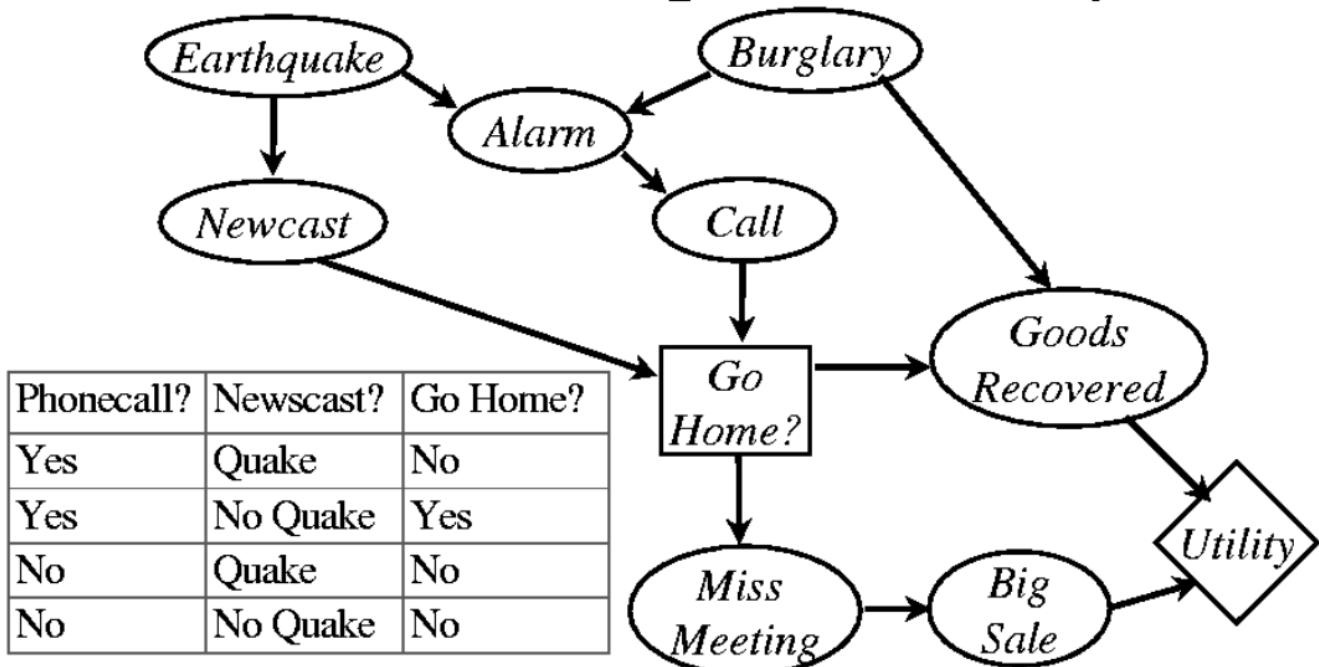


Expected Utility of this policy is 100

Value-of-Information in an Influence Diagram



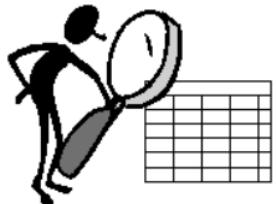
Value-of-Information is the increase in Expected Utility



Expected Utility of this policy is 112.5

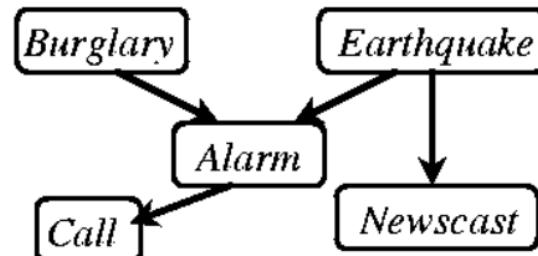
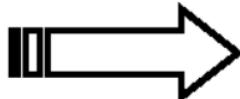
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The learning task

B	E	A	C	N
b	e	a	c	n
b	—	—	—	—
b	e	a	c	n
:				

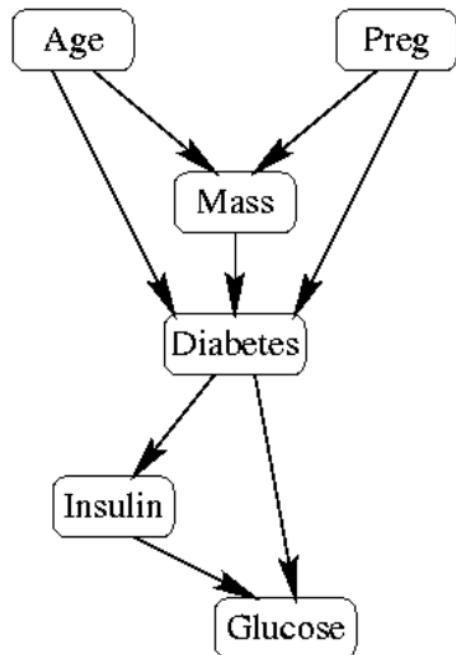


Input: training data

Output: BN modeling data

- Input: fully or partially observable data cases?
- Output: parameters or also structure?

Known structure, Fully Observable



Preg	Glucose	Insulin	Mass	Age	Diabetes
5	121	112	26.2	30	0
10	101	180	32.9	63	0
7	137	0	32.0	39	0
12	100	105	30.0	46	0
9	140	0	32.7	45	1
1	102	0	39.5	42	1
2	99	160	36.6	21	0
2	174	120	44.5	24	1
1	111	0	32.8	45	0
5	117	105	39.1	42	0

Learning Process

- Discretize the Data

Glucose < 100 \Rightarrow 0

100 \leq Glucose < 120 \Rightarrow 1

120 \leq Glucose < 140 \Rightarrow 2

140 \leq Glucose \Rightarrow 3

- Count Cases

$$P(\text{Mass} = 0 | \text{Preg} = 1, \text{Age} = 2) = \frac{N(\text{Mass} = 0, \text{Preg} = 1, \text{Age} = 2)}{N(\text{Preg} = 1, \text{Age} = 2)}$$

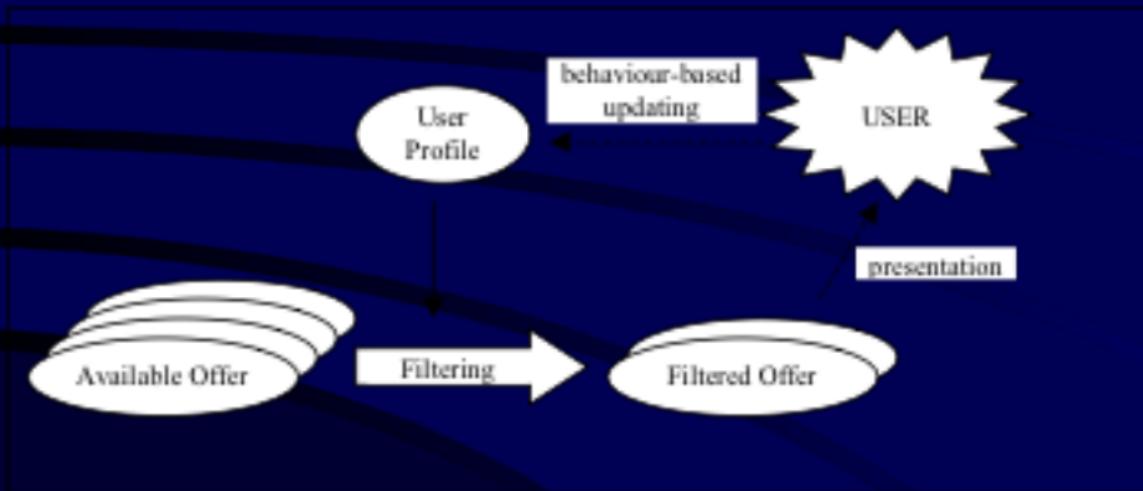
Read more about Learning BN in:

<http://http.cs.berkeley.edu/~murphyk/Bayes/learn.html>

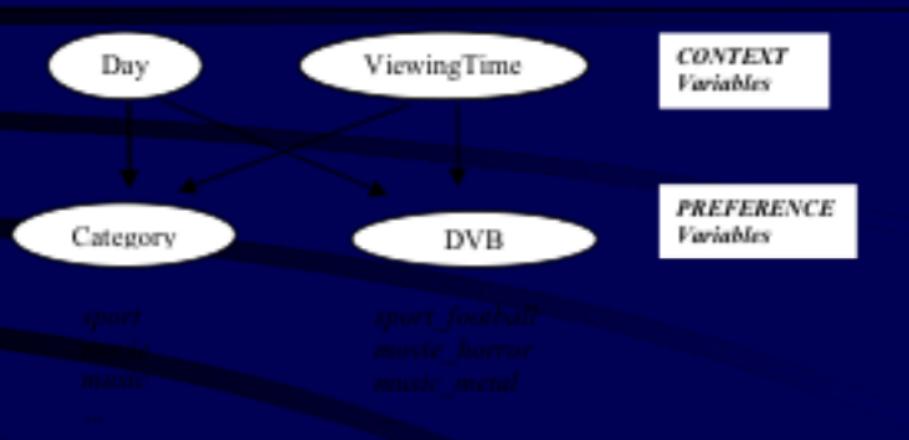
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User Profiling: the problem



The BBN encoding the user preference



- Preference Variables:
what kind of TV programmes does the user prefer and how much?
- Context Variables:
in which (temporal) conditions does the user prefer ...? ^

BBN based filtering

1) From each item of the input offer extract:

- the classification**
- the possible (empty) context**

2) For each item compute

Prob (<classification> | <context>)

**3) Items with highest probabilities are the output
of the filtering**

Example of filtering

The input offer is a set of 3 items:

1. a concert of classical music on Thursday afternoon
2. a football match on Wednesday night
3. a subscription for 10 movies on evening

The probabilities to be computed are:

1. $P(MUS = CLASSIC_MUS | Day = Thursday, ViewingTime = afternoon)$
2. $P(SPO = FOOTBAL_SPO | Day = Wednesday, ViewingTime = night)$
3. $P(CATEGORY = MOV | ViewingTime = evening)$

BBN based updating

- The BBN of a new user is initialised with uniform distributions
- The distributions are updated using a Bayesian learning technique on the basis of user's actual behaviour
- Different user's behaviours -> different *learning weights*:
 - 1) the user declares their preference
 - 2) the user watches a specific TV programme
 - 3) the user searches for specific kind of programmes

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Basic References

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- Oliver, R.M. and Smith, J.Q. (eds.) (1990). Influence Diagrams, Belief Nets, and Decision Analysis, Chichester, Wiley.
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- Suermondt, H.J. and Cooper, G.F. (1990). Probabilistic inference in multiply connected belief networks using loop cutsets. International Journal of Approximate Reasoning, 4, 283-306.

Key Events in Development of Bayesian Nets

- 1763 Bayes Theorem presented by Rev Thomas Bayes (posthumously) in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London
- 19xx Decision trees used to represent decision theory problems
- 19xx Decision analysis originates and uses decision trees to model real world decision problems for computer solution
- 1976 Influence diagrams presented in SRI technical report for DARPA as technique for improving efficiency of analyzing large decision trees
- 1980s Several software packages are developed in the academic environment for the direct solution of influence diagrams
- 1986? Holding of first Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence Conference motivated by problems in handling uncertainty effectively in rule-based expert systems
- 1986 “Fusion, Propagation, and Structuring in Belief Networks” by Judea Pearl appears in the journal *Artificial Intelligence*
- 1986,1988 Seminal papers on solving decision problems and performing probabilistic inference with influence diagrams by Ross Schachter
- 1988 Seminal text on belief networks by Judea Pearl, *Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent Systems: Networks of Plausible Inference*
- 199x Efficient algorithm
- 199x Bayesian nets used in several industrial applications
- 199x First commercially available Bayesian net analysis software available

Software

- **Many software packages available**
 - See Russell Almond's Home Page
- **Netica**
 - www.norsys.com
 - Very easy to use
 - Implements learning of probabilities
 - Will soon implement learning of network structure
- **Hugin**
 - www.hugin.dk
 - Good user interface
 - Implements continuous variables

