

Inference in Belief Network using Logic Sampling and Likelihood Weighing algorithms Jasmine K.S^a, PrathviRaj S. Gavani^b, Rajashekar P Ijantakar^b, Sumithra Devi.K.A^c

^a Associate Professor ,Department of MCA, jasmineks@rvce.edu.in

^b Students, Department of MCA, <u>prathviraj@gmail.com</u>, rijantakar1@gmail.com

^c Director Dept of MCA, sumithraka@gmail.com

R.V. College of Engineering, Bangalore,

KEYWORD

ABSTRACT

Belief network Logic sampling Likelihood weighing Dynamic decision making Uncertainty Over the time in computational history, belief networks have become an increasingly popular mechanism for dealing with uncertainty in systems. It is known that identifying the probability values of belief network nodes given a set of evidence is not amenable in general. Many different simulation algorithms for approximating solution to this problem have been proposed and implemented. This paper details the implementation of such algorithms, in particular the two algorithms of the belief networks namely Logic sampling and the likelihood weighing are discussed. A detailed description of the algorithm is given with observed results. These algorithms play crucial roles in dynamic decision making in any situation of uncertainty.

1. Introduction

A belief network is a formal knowledge representation and inference technique consisting of a directed graph and a set of conditional probabilities. Belief networks are an elegant, well founded way to reason with uncertainty, but in general, inference with them is computationally difficult to manage.

Belief networks are used to model uncertainty in a domain. The term "Belief networks" encompasses a whole range of different but related techniques which deal with reasoning under uncertainty. Both quantitative and qualitative techniques are used. Influence diagrams are an extension to belief networks; they are used when working with decision making.

This report describes the implementation and use of stochastic simulation algorithms for doing approximate inference with belief networks. The two main algorithm discussed in this paper are Logic sampling algorithm and Likelihood weighing algorithm.

1.1. Background

Many approaches to reasoning with uncertain knowledge have been proposed. The argument is favour of belief networks, made by Pearl and others, is that only belief networks are based on a really firm theoretical foundation: probability theory.

One use of belief networks has been in the field of expert systems ^[1]. A rule based system might contain a rule, "If A, then conclude B with certainty C." In probabilistic terms, this would correspond to the conditional probability statement, p(B | A) = C. In general, without making conditional probability assumptions, p(B | A) does not tell us much, because if there are any other variables in the system, we must consider them as well as B before we can determine the probability of B. Belief networks provide a graphical means of specifying which other variables a variable depends on, and more importantly, which variables can be ignored.

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Fig 1: A simple belief network with its associated conditional probabilities and posterior marginal probabilities on nodes.

2. Proposed System

The proposed approach deals with two basic algorithms which facilitates dynamic decision making in node to node communication. Our intent here is to give enough detail for the reader to get an intuitive understanding of the algorithms.

We first describe a brute force algorithm for propagating belief network values. Consider a network with two nodes, A and B (Figure 2) where node A has three states and node B has two states (Boolean). This network has 3*2 = 6states. For each state of the network, we can calculate a joint probability value of the state (Table 1).

The probability value of any variable in any state can be calculated by simply summing over all rows in which the variable is assigned the state.



Fig 2: A trivial 2 node belief network

Table 1: Exhaustive list of joint probabilities for a trivial belief network.

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A	B	Value		
a_0	b	$p(A = a_0)p(B = b \mid A = a_0)$	0.001 * 1.0 =	0.001
a_0	\bar{b}	$p(A = a_0)p(B = \overline{b} \mid A = a_0)$	0.001 * 0.0 =	0.0
a_1	b	$p(A = a_1)p(B = b \mid A = a_1)$	0.1 * 0.6 =	0.06
a_1	\bar{b}	$p(A = a_1)p(B = \overline{b} \mid A = a_1)$	0.1 * 0.4 =	0.04
a_2		$p(A = a_2)p(B = b \mid A = a_2)$	0.899 * 0.01 =	0.00899
a_2		$p(A = a_2)p(B = \overline{b} \mid A = a_2)$	0.899 * 0.99 =	0.89001

Evidence restricts the cases to those in which the evidence node is in the desired state, and then normalizing. We normalize a variable by dividing each of its possible states by the sum of its possible states. For example, if B is set to !b, we only consider the 3 rows where B is false. In this case, the calculated value for A=a2 would be 0.89001 / 0.0+0.04+0.89001=0.957.

Unfortunately, the size of this table is exponential in the number of nodes, so this algorithm quickly becomes intractable as the number of nodes increases. Simulation algorithms select a subset of the rows and use the values calculated to estimate the values for the variables. The simulation algorithms we consider here differ primarily in the method they use to select rows. Each time a row is selected, the probability of selecting that row, pselecting, is used to normalize the values.

2.1. Logic Sampling Algorithm

The simplest simulation algorithm, logic sampling^[4], randomly chooses a state for each node in the network from among the possible states by giving an equal chance to all states. The value of p selecting for this algorithm is a constant (\prod 1/states_i where states_i is the number of states of the node i), but since normalization will negate the e effects of this constant, we avoid the computation and use 1.0. The following pseudo code describes this algorithm [6].

Loop for the number of simulations

For each non-evidence node in the network

Set the state of the node to one of its possible states at random

End For

Set p-selecting to 1.0

Calculate a score (total probabilities / p-selecting)

Score the net (using traditional or Markov blanket scoring)

End Loop Normalize the node values

For example, consider a very simple graph with two nodes, A and B. Node A represents the arrival time of a student a summer job, and is one of three mutually exclusive and exhaustive states:

 a_0 means the student arrives before 7:30, a_1 means the student arrives between 7:30 and 9:00, and a_2 means the student arrives after 9:00. Node B represents the proposition that the student will find a parking space within a ten minute walk of the laboratory, and is conditioned on node A. For

Simplicity, we will let a_i stand for the expression A=ai, and b or !b stand for the expressions B=b or B=!b. The initial probabilities would then be:

p(a0) = 0.001 It is very unlikely the student will arrive before 7:30

p(a1) = 0.1 It is unlikely the student will arrive before 9:00

p(a2) = 0.899 Usually the student shows up after 9:00

 $p(b|a_0) = 1.0$ Before 7:30 there is always parking

 $p(b|a_1) = 0.6$ There is usually parking between 7:30 and 9:00

 $p(b|a_2) = 0.01$ It is hard to park close after 9:00

Flowchart for the algorithm is depicted below



Fig 3: Flowchart of Logical sampling algorithm

2.2. Likelihood Weighing Algorithm

This algorithm is considered to be more advanced compared to the Logic sampling algorithm^[5]. This uses more information than the Logic Sampling to choose its state.

Likelihood Weighing is different from the logic sampling by weighing the node states



before selecting them. The node states are weighed by their prior probabilities.

The likelihood algorithm is as follows[6]

Sort the nodes of the graph so that parents always proceed children

Loop for the number of simulations p-selecting = 1.0

For each non-evidence node N in the network (in graph order) where N has k parents P_1 P_k in states SP_i

End For

Calculate a score (total probabilities / p-selecting)

Score the net (using traditional or Markov blanket scoring)

End Loop

Normalize the node values

The flowchart for the algorithms is depicted in the figure 4





3. Result obtained

3.1. Logic Sampling Algorithm

The below figures can be understood well with the example mentioned in section 2.1.

In Fig 5 and Fig 7 the values of a0,a1,a2 nodes are in increasing order and the value for node a0 still stands out against the values of node a1 and a2.

In Fig 6 we get quite obvious result where the node a0 gets higher values than other nodes

In Fig 7 assigns highest values to node a0. So the value of node a0 gets maximum value in return.

0 0			2		\bigcirc			
		Node 1 a0 3 • a1 6 • a2 8 • Bayesia After logic	Node 2 (True) 9 • 6 • 2 • n Inference					
	Node 1	Node 2	Values					
	a0	true		27				
	al	true		18				
	a2	true		6				
	a0	false		-48				
	al	false		-318				
	a2	false		-6				
After normalization								
	Node 1	Node 2	Values					
	a0	true		0.529				
	al	true		0.353				
	a2	true		0.118				
	a0	false		0.129				
	al	false		0.855				
	a2	false		0.016				

Fig 5 . Output Screen-1

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00		2		00				
	Node 1 a0 1 a1 2 a2 2 Baye	5 •				al 3 a2 1 Bay	Node 2 (True)	
	After l	ogic sampling			Node 1	Node 2	Values	
	After i	ogic sampling			a0	true		54
Node 1	Node 2	Values			al	true		30 12
		values			a2	true		12
a0	true		9		a0	false		-24
al	true		5		al	false		-84
a2	true		5		a2	false		-3
a0	false		-16					
al	false		-40					
a2	false		-8		After normalization			
					Node 1	Node 2	Values	
					a0	true		0.562
	After pr	ormalization			al	true		0.312
	After no	maization			a2	true		0.125
Node 1	Node 2	Values			a0	false		0.216
a0	true		0.474		al	false		0.757
	true		0.263		a2	false		0.027
al								
a2	true		0.263		г.	0.0	+ C 4	
a0	false		0.25		F19	z 8.Outp	ut Screen-4	
al	false		0.625			- 1		
a2	false		0.125					

Fig 6 . Output Screen-2

00			2		C		
		Node 1 a0 1 • a1 5 • a2 6 •	Node 2 (True) 3 • 5 • 7 •				
		Bayesia	an Inference				
k		After logi	: sampling				
	Node 1	Node 2	Values				
	a0	true		3			
	al	true		5			
	a2	true		7			
	a0	false		-10			
	al	false		-70			
	a2	false		-30			
After normalization							
	Node 1	Node 2	Values				
	a0	true		0.2			
	al	true		0.333			
	a2	true		0.467			
	a0	false		0.091			
	al	false		0.636			
	a2	false		0.273			

Fig 7.Output Screen-3

3.2. Likelihood Weighing Algorithm

800				
Burglary				Earthquake
false P(B) 0.001				P(E) 0.002
		Alarm B E P(A B,E) 1 1 0.95 1 0 0.94 0 1 0.29 0 0 0.001		
John Calls				Marry Calls
null A P(JA 1 0.9 0 0.0	0			null A P(MJA) 1 0.70 0 0.01
		Calculate		
		w		
	Sample 0	key	Weight	
	U	∼be~a~j~m	0.001998	

Fig 9. Output Screen-5





Fig.10. Output Screen-6



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In this paper, two algorithms for implementing Bayesian belief network are discussed. The results from a set of empirical experiments comparing Logic Sampling and Likelihood Weighting are presented as part of results.

The obtained results will help one to simulate the variables and the functions with more information to weight the simulations. In this waywwe expect to obtain more uniform weights. The output screens from 1 to 11 help to compare the performance of the proposed algorithms in random fashion.

As for future work, many new simulation algorithm methods are proposed, such as Latin Hypercube Sampling and Systemic sampling which are better to deal with extreme distributions, if we can use these random networks as benchmark to test and we can our work for more complicated over communication network.

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