

Graphical Models for Inference and Decision Making

Knowledge Engineering

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Learning Objectives

- Describe knowledge elicitation as a problem in system lifecycle engineering
 - Describe the stages in building a Bayesian network and/or decision graph model
 - Describe the activities that occur at each stage
 - Describe the products produced at each stage
- Describe how the KE process is managed
- Be prepared to carry out the process of developing, implementing and testing a Bayesian network or decision graph model for a problem of interest to you



Unit 7 Outline

- The Knowledge Acquisition Lifecycle
- Building the Model
- Managing and Evaluating the Model
- Knowledge Engineering for Relational Graphical Models



Importance of Structured KE Process

- Graphical models have become well established tools for representing and reasoning under uncertainty
- Applications are growing more complex
- A formal, repeatable process for knowledge engineering is becoming more important
 - Early work on elicitation of probability models (1970's) focused on eliciting single probabilities or univariate probability distributions
 - Early work in graphical models tended to assume that structure elicitation was relatively straightforward
 - As models become more complex the KE process must be managed
- Knowledge elicitation for large Bayesian networks is a problem in systems engineering



What is Knowledge Acquisition?

- Objective:
 - Construct a model to perform defined task
 - Develop knowledge base for use in solving problems in defined class
 - » Modularity
 - » Modifiability and reusability
- Participants: Collaboration between problem expert(s) and modeling expert(s)
- Process: Iterate until done
 - Define task objective
 - Construct model
 - Evaluate model



Systems Engineering

- System
 - A set of interacting components organized to serve a specified objective
- Systems engineering
 - The technical and managerial process by which a user need is translated into an operational system
- System life cycle
 - Systems evolve through predictable phases
 - » Design
 - » Development
 - » Operation
 - » Retirement
 - Systems engineering is organized around life cycle
 - » Support current phase
 - » Anticipate and plan for next phase



Spiral Model of Lifecycle Engineering



- System development viewed as repeating cycles of design, implementation, operation, evaluation
- Evaluation used to plan next cycle
- Early phases develop prototype for planning and risk mitigation
- Later phases develop operational versions



Agile Development

- Developed by software engineers; being applied by systems engineers
 - http://www.incose.org/chesapek/Docs/2011/Presentations/2011_09_ 21_Johnson_AgileEngineering.pdf
- Principles:
 - Continuous collaboration with customer
 - Continuous updates
 - New delivery on very short cycle (often weekly)
 - Value participants and interactions
 - Emphasize simplicity
- Difficult to do well but good implementation can provide major benefits on projects emphasizing interaction between developers and customers



Agile Process for Graphical Model Engineering

- Goal of knowledge engineering
 - Discovery and construction of appropriate model
 - Not extraction of pre-existing model
- Agile approach is necessary for systems in which requirements are discovered as development progresses
- KE spirals
 - Construct series of prototype models
 - Explore behavior of prototype model on sample problems
 - Evaluate prototypes and restructures as necessary
- KE changes both expert and elicitor
 - Understanding of expert and elicitor deepen as KE proceeds
 - Improves communication between elicitor and expert





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Applying Agile Knowledge Engineering

- Begin with a small sub-problem
 - Self-contained
 - Can be completed in short time
 - Interesting in its own right
 - Reasonably representative of global problem
- Build and test model for sub-problem
 - Look for common structures and processes that will recur
 - Think about more efficient ways to structure KE
 - Develop and document conventions ("style guide") to be followed as models are expanded
- Expand to more complex problems



Selecting a Subproblem

- Initial model or expansion of existing model
- Characteristics
 - Manageable size
 - Interesting in its own right
 - Path to expansion
 - Risk mitigation
- How to restrict
 - Focus or target variables variables of direct interest to client
 - » Restrict to subset of variables of interest
 - » Restrict to subset of values
 - Evidence variables variables for which information will be available; used to draw inferences about the focus variables
 - » Restrict to subset of evidence sources
 - Context variables variables that will be assumed known and will be set to definite values
 - » Restrict to subset of contextual conditions (sensing conditions, background casual conditions; assignment of objects to sensors; number of objects)



The Participants

- Naive view
 - Put problem experts and modeling experts in a room together and magic will happen"
- Realistic view
 - Pure "problem experts" and pure "modeling experts" will often talk past each other
 - Modeling experts must learn about the problem and problem experts must learn what models can do
 - This process can be time consuming and frustrating
 - Team will be more productive if both sides expect and tolerate this process
- Training
 - The most productive way of training modelers and problem experts is to construct very simple models of stylized domain problems
 - Goal is understanding and NOT realism or accuracy!
 - Beware: the training phase can seem pointless and frustrating
 - It is important to get expert buy-in



The Domain and the Expert

- Domains well suited to reliably and measurably good performance
 - Tasks are repeatable
 - Outcome feedback is available
 - Problems are decomposable
 - Phenomena are inherently predictable
 - Human behavior/"gaming" not involved
- Characteristics to look for in an expert
 - Expertise acknowledged by peers
 - Articulate
 - Interest and ability to reason about reasoning process
 - Tolerant of messy model-building process
- Note: some of the best experts as measured by performance on the problem are not very good experts for knowledge elicitation
 - Can do it but cannot articulate how they do it
 - Become frustrated with elicitation process



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Model Components

- What are the variables?
 - Random variables
 - Action and utility nodes
- What are their states?
- What is the graph structure?
 - Is there repeated structure?
- What is the structure of the local distributions?
- What are the parameters?
 - Probability distributions
 - Utility functions



The Clarity Test

- Usually begin with vague structure to develop understanding of problem
- Final model should have clear operational meaning for all components
- Clarity test:
 - Could a clairvoyant unambiguously specify value of all nodes and states?
 - "Fever is high" does not pass clarity test
 - "Fever ≥ 103° F" passes clarity test



Defining the Variables

- Begin with "focus variable" and spread out to related variables
- Ask about causally related variables
 - Variables that could cause a state to be true
 - Variables that could prevent a state from being true
- Ask about enabling variables
 - Conditions that permit, enhance or inhibit operation of a cause
- Ask about effects of a variable
- Ask about associated variables
 - Knowing value provides information about another variable
- Ask about observables
 - What evidence could be observed that would enable you to infer state of a variable



Target or Focus Variable in Diagnosis

- Diagnosis problem: goal is to infer "fault," "disease," "problem" from a set of "findings," "symptoms" or "indicators"
 - Direction of inference is usually from effect to cause
- Modeling issue: single or multiple fault?
- Single fault
 - Collect all faults as states of a single node
 - Modeling simplicity and inference tractability
- Applicable domains:
 - Pathology- one disease/slide
 - Pediatrics- acute diseases
 - Highly maintained mechanical systems
- Modified single-disease hypothesis:
 - Include common combinations as explicit hypotheses





Target or Focus Variable in Prediction

- Prediction:
 - Objective is to predict a variable that has not yet occurred or is not known
 - Direction of inference is usually from cause to effect
- Applications:
 - Planning
 - Intelligence analysis
 - Policy modeling
 - Strategic decision making



States of Variables

- States must be exclusive and exhaustive
 - Naive modelers sometimes create separate variables for different states of the same variable
- Types of variable
 - Binary (2-valued)
 - Qualitative
 - Numeric discrete
 - Numeric continuous
- Dealing with infinite and continuous state sets
 - Standard Bayesian network software requires finitely many states per random variable
 - » Continuous random variables must be grouped into bins
 - » Bin boundaries should represent meaningful differences in effect on related variables
 - » Different resolutions may be appropriate for different purposes
 - Exact inference algorithms exist for linear Gaussian and conditional linear Gaussian BNs
 - » Software support is limited
 - Monte Carlo inference can be used for BNs with continuous variables
 - » Software support is limited



Graph Structure

- Goal: develop model that is good enough for task
- Criteria to consider
 - Parameter parsimony
 - » Fewer nodes, fewer arcs, smaller state spaces, coarser partitions simplifies elicitation makes learning more efficient (fewer observations required)
 - Fidelity of model to problem
 - » Greater fidelity often requires more nodes, arcs, states, finer partitions
 - » Balance benefit against cost of additional modeling
 - » Too much detail can decrease accuracy
 - Expert comfort with probability assessments
- Direction of arcs
 - Causal direction can increase:
 - » Conditional independence
 - » Ease of probability elicitation
 - » Efficiency of learning
 - Causal direction is required if modeling effects of interventions (planning)
 - It may be helpful to show user a graph with arcs in inferential direction even if BN has causal arcs



Naïve Bayes

- Commonly applied in diagnosis problems
 - Simplifies elicitation
 - Simplifies inference
 - Simplifies learning
- Single parent node and multiple leaf nodes that are conditionally independent given parent
 - Also known as "idiot Bayes"
 - Simplifies knowledge engineering and speeds up computation
 - Often OK at least approximately





Handling Dependency: Adding States to Parent Variable

- Problem: Symptoms not independent given fault
- Solution: Redefine parent variable to create model with independent symptoms
 - Incorporate into states of parent variable conditions that modify relationship between symptoms
- Example
 - P(Malaise|UTI, fever) > P(Malaise | UTI)
 - Redefine UTI states {absent, mild, moderate, severe}
 - P(Malaise | severe UTI, fever) \approx P(Malaise | Severe UTI)



Example courtesy of Mike Shwe



Handling Dependency: Adding Intermediate Variables

- Intermediate variable is used to model dependency of children given parent
 - Symptoms are independent of fault given intermediate variable
 - Children are dependent given original parents
 - More parsimonious than drawing arcs between symptoms
- Examples:
 - "True state" variable creates conditional independence of sensor reports
 - Intermediate mechanism creates independence among a set of related findings



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Local Distribution Structure

- Local distributions:
 - One distribution for each combination of values of parent variables
 - Assessment is exponential in number of parent variables
 - Assessment can be reduced by exploiting structure
- Examples of local distribution structure
 - Context specific independence: elicitation by partition
 - Independence of causal influence
 - Divorcing



Context-Specific Independence

- Partition state set of parents into subsets
 - Set of subsets is called a partition
 - Each subset is a partition element
- Elicit one probability distribution per partition element
- Child is independent of parent given partition element
- Examples:
 - P(reported location | location, sensor-type, weather) independent of sensor type given weather=sunny
 - P(fever=high | disease) is the same for disease \in {flu, measles}
- Knowledge elicitation using partitions
 - For each child variable ask expert to group states of parent variable having same probability distributions
 - Sometimes several children induce same partition
 - Partitions may form basis of type hierarchy
 - » When many indicators induce a common partition element we may name that partition element as a subtype of the parent variable
 - » e.g., acute infectious disease "isa" infectious disease "isa" disease



Independence of Causal Influence

- Assumption: causal influences operate independently of each other in producing effect
 - Probability that C1 causes effect does not depend on whether C2 is operating
 - Excludes synergy or inhibition
- Examples
 - Noisy logic gates (Noisy-OR, Noisy-AND, Noisy-XOR)
 - Noisy adder
 - Noisy MAX
 - General noisy deterministic function
- Elicitation:
 - ICI structure:
 - » "Does the presence of C2, C3, ... increase or decrease [strengthen or weaken] the impact of C1 on E?"
 - » "Does the presence of C2, C3, … increase or decrease the probability C1 will cause E to occur?"
 - Parameters:
 - » ICI structure allows calculation of entire probability table from single-cause distributions

Divorcing

- Divorcing generalizes partitions and ICI
- An intermediate variable summarizes the effect of a subset of parents on the child





Exploiting Context-Specific Indepdendence

- Context-specific independence can simplify elicitation
- Example:
 - Government supporters and apolitical people rarely criticize the government. Dissidents often do, as do government agents (because they are trying to lure Rechtian agents into thinking they are dissidents)
 - Need to specify only one distribution given {Supporter, Apolitical} and another probability given {Agent, Dissident}

• Eliciting partitions from expert:

- Ask expert: "Which variables help to distinguish between supporters and agents?"
- Expert answers: "Criticizing the government"
- Ask: "Does this variable give any information to help distinguish between agents and dissidents? Between supporters and apolitical people?"
- Expert answers: "No"
- Result: Distribution for criticism is same for agents and dissidents, and same for supporters and apolitical people



Specialists and Generalists

- In many disciplines experts tend to partition problems into sub-categories exhibiting context-specific independence.
- If we know which sub-category to focus on, we can ignore cues relevant for other categories.
 - Specialists focus on difficult cases in one sub-category
 - Generalists focus on
 - » Solving easy cases in any category
 - » Diagnosing when to call in a specialist and which specialist to call
- Context-specific independence justifies and supports this strategy
 - Some variables are most useful for sorting cases into sub-categories, and may be (approximately) independent of which hypothesis is correct within subcategory
 - Other cues may be useful for discriminating within sub-categories
- Partitions can represent this type of reasoning



Assessing Probability Distributions

- Theory
 - Parametric expression may be suggested on theoretical grounds
 - » P(Node|Parents) = f(parents,parameter)
 - Elicit parameter from expert or estimate from observations
 - Test theory against data
- Statistical estimation (when data are available)
 - Frequencies (problem with zero probabilities)
 - Posterior distribution given Dirichlet prior distribution
 - » Uniform prior
 - » Elicit prior frequencies and virtual prior sample size from expert
 - Regression model (discrete or continuous)
 - Independence of causal influence
- Direct elicitation
 - Probabilities
 - Odds (better for extreme probabilities)
 - Continuous distributions: percentiles, density function, parameters



Direct Elicitation

Example: Will George Mason University make Sweet 16 in 2018?

- Direct question: "What is the probability GMU will make Sweet 16 in 2009?"
- Ask for probability or area on wheel so that decision maker is indifferent between 2 lotteries:

Visual representation

 Adjust the size of the gray area so the probability that we will make Sweet 16 is the same as the probability that a spinner will land in the gray area



Ask decision maker about betting odds and solve for probability





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Comments

- Many decision makers are uncomfortable with numerical probabilities
 - Decision makers may prefer qualitative terms such as "fairly likely" or "improbable"
 - These phrases have ambiguous meaning and can cause miscommunication unless they are calibrated to agreed-upon numerical values
 - Sometimes visual devices are a good compromise. If manipulated on a computer screen they can be translated directly into numerical probabilities
 - Betting odds are often less useful in practice than asking directly about probabilities betting odds come from probabilities and not vice versa
 - People find frequencies (3 out of every 100) easier than probabilities (0.03)
 - For very small probabilities orders of magnitude must be used
 - » "State a1 is 100 times more likely than State a2"
 - » "We will generally see about 100 cases of State a1 for every case of State a2"
 - Assessing very small probabilities is difficult
- Probability assessors should be aware of systematic distortions of probability judgment
 - Treating low-probability events as impossible
 - Overconfidence and other anchoring effects
 - Neglect of base rates
 - Overweighting salient events
- If time permits it is good to phrase questions in multiple ways and to feed back consequences of judgments to decision maker



Probability Scales: an Empirical Study

- Twenty-three NATO intelligence analysts were given statements about likelihood of events, e.g.:
 - "It is highly likely that the Soviets will invade Czechoslovakia"
- The basic sentence structure was fixed but qualifiers varied, e.g.:
 - "It is almost certain that the Soviets will invade Czechoslovakia"
- Analysts indicated percentage they would assign to each statement if it appeared in an intelligence assessment





Source: Barclay, et al (1977)

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Assessing Odds

- Direct assessment of probabilities can yield very poor results on extreme probabilities
 - Direct assessment focuses on absolute magnitude
 - 0.01 seems "not much different" from 0.001
 - Orders of magnitude are important in Bayes Rule



- Assessing by odds
 - "State a1 of variable A is 3 times more likely than state a2"
 - Yields equation P(a1) = 3P(a2)
 - Solve for P(a1) and P(a2)



Continuous Distributions

- Continuous random variables can take on values on a continuum
 - Parametric models (e.g., Normal, Gamma, Chi-square)
 - Nonparametric models
 - "Semi-parametric" models (kernel density functions)
- The cumulative distribution function (cdf)
 - $F(x) = P(X \le x)$
 - Value of cdf at x is the probability that the random variable is less than or equal to the number x
 - F(x) is a step function for discrete variables, and a smoothly increasing function for continuous variables

• Probability density function (pdf)

- The pdf measures the relative probability of different values of the continuous random variable. The value $f(x)\Delta x$ is approximately equal to the probability that X lies in the small interval $[x-\Delta x, x+\Delta x]$
- The pdf is the derivative of the cdf:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$$

- The cdf is the integral of the pdf:

» $F(x) = \int_{u \le x} f(u) du$

- The probability that X lies in the interval [a, b] is equal to the area under the curve defined by the cdf:

-
$$P(a \le X \le b) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(u) du$$



Example Types of Density Function

• Symmetric and unimodal



• Symmetric and skewed distribution

f(x) versus x

0.1

0



0.2

0

2

F(x) versus x



We can show the expert different shapes and ask which best fits judgments

It may help to show density function and report percentiles ("With this density function, 23% of the cases will have value less than 1.5.")

Bimodal distribution may mean a missing parent

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Assessing Continuous Distributions

- Continuous distributions are often assessed by asking about the cdf
 - Pick values and assess probability (this method can also be used for discrete random variables) :
 - » P(sales ≤ \$10,000) = ?
 - » $P(sales \le \$20,000) = ?$
 - » $P(sales \le \$40,000) = ?$
 - » $P(sales \le \$65,000) = ?$
 - » $P(sales \le \$100,000) = ?$
 - Pick probabilities and assess values:
 - » $P(sales \le ?) = .10$
 - » $P(sales \le ?) = .30$
 - » $P(sales \le ?) = .50$
 - » $P(sales \le ?) = .70$
 - » $P(sales \le ?) = .90$
- Depending on how the judgments will be used, we may interpolate between these points or we may fit a parameterized probability distribution to the expert's judgments
- This method may be problematic for parameters whose meaning is not straightforward to the decision maker
 - e.g., What is your cdf for the mean number of transmission errors per hour?
- Another method is to ask about shape of density function
- These methods can yield different results
 - Suggestion: use both and resolve inconsistencies



Parameterized Continuous Distributions

- Use of standard parameterized distributions may greatly economize on elicitation, e.g.:
 - Normal
 - Log-normal
 - Gamma
 - Exponential
- Assess several percentiles and select parameters to fit the percentiles (this may take some work)
- Check that shape of density function is acceptable
- Ask about "sufficient statistics"
 - What do you think is the average number of transmission errors per 8-hour period when averaged over many periods?
- When data are available they can be used to augment expert judgment
 - Use expert judgment to specify a prior distribution
 - Learn posterior distribution for parameters
 - Use structure learning method to check structural assumptions
 - » Partitions, presence/absence of arcs, functional form of distribution



Combining Models from Multiple Sources

- Problem decomposition
 - Some elements learned from data; others elicited from experts
 - Different experts specify different parts of model
- Aggregating different inputs on same model component
 - There is a large literature on combining probability estimates
 - We can combine estimates from multiple experts, multiple models, or both
 - Typically the combination rule is some kind of average
 - Many weighting schemes have been proposed; it has proven surprisingly difficult to beat simple averaging
- Prediction markets
 - Useful for forecasting well-defined events on which outcome feedback will become available

49¢ ↑ 17¢

51¢ ↓17¢

×

Yes

No

44¢ NC

42¢ ↓1¢



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Moon	75¢ 4 2¢		56¢ 14	3+	30¢ 14
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51¢



Unit 7 Outline

- The Knowledge Acquisition Lifecycle
- Building the Model
- Managing and Evaluating the Model
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Managing Knowledge Acquisition

- Record rationale for modeling decisions
- Develop "style guide" to maintain consistency across multiple subproblems
 - Naming conventions
 - Variable definitions
 - Modeling conventions
- Enforce configuration management
 - History of model versions
 - Protocols for making and logging changes to current model
 - Rationale for changes
- Develop protocol for testing models
 - Record of test results traced to model changes and rationale



Configuration Management

- Formal process is required for managing evolution of complex models
- Configuration management includes:
 - Archiving history of evolving versions
 - Protocols for making and logging changes to current knowledge base
 - Protocols for documenting changes and rationale
 - Automated comparison of similarities and differences between different versions of knowledge base



Model Agility

- Requirement: rapid adaptation of model to a new situation
- Support for model agility
 - Libraries of reusable model fragments
 - Documentation of stable and changeable aspects of model
 - Development of data sources for inputs to changeable model components
 - » Protocols for data collection and maintenance
 - » Protocols for importing data into knowledge base
 - Automated support for propagating impact of changes



Model Evaluation

- Model walk-through
 - Present completed model to "fresh" experts and/or modelers
 - Evaluate all components of model
- Sensitivity analysis
 - Measures effect of one variable on another
 - Compare with expert intuition to evaluate model
 - Evaluate whether additional modeling is needed
- Case-based evaluation
 - Run model on set of test cases
 - » Cases to check local model fragments (component testing)
 - » Cases to test behavior of global model (whole-model testing)
 - Compare with expert judgment or "ground truth"
 - Important issue: selection of test cases



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Knowledge Engineering for Relational Models

- Relational representations (e.g., MEBN, PRM, OOBN) require knowledge about:
 - Entity types (e.g., patients, diseases, tests)
 - Attributes of entities (e.g., gender of patient, sensitivity of test)
 - Relationships among entities (e.g., patients have diseases; patients take tests)
- Entity-relationship model specification is needed for database schema design; object-oriented software design; ontological engineering
 - There is a literature on methodologies for entity-relationship modeling
- Literature in these areas usually does not treat uncertainty
- Growth area in probabilistic modeling
 - Software support is not widely available
 - Experience base is small of people knowledgeable in specifying relational models
 - Literature is still small



Uncertainty Modeling Process for Semantic Technology (UMP-ST)



- Guideline for probabilistic ontology developers
- Describes main tasks involved in creating probabilistic ontologies
- Based on Unified Process (UP) for software engineering

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Use Case: Detecting Procurement Fraud

- The Comptroller's office is responsible for inspecting and auditing Brazilian Government projects and programs
 - Provides transparency and helps to prevent corruption
- All contracts with the private sector must follow the national Procurement law
 - Select the most advantageous proposal for a contract in its interest
 - Susceptible to many forms of corruption
- Use case purpose: support information fusion to detect possible fraud in procurements







Use Case: Maritime Security Operations

- Support maritime domain awareness (MDA)
- Enable predictive situational awareness in maritime operations
- Provide higher-level fusion to reason about threats in the maritime domain





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UMP-ST Plugin to UnBBayes

- Provides support for probabilistic ontology creation, evolution and maintenance
- Addresses problems faced by PO designers:
 - Complexity of creating probabilistic ontologies
 - Difficulty of maintaining and evolving probabilistic ontologies
 - Lack of tool for documenting probabilistic ontologies
 - Need for tools to support requirements traceability
- Tool for documenting, maintaining and evolving probabilistic ontologies
 - Provides step by step guidance for creating probabilistic ontologies
 - Provides centralized tool for documenting probabilistic ontologies
 - Enables identification of impact of changes through requirements traceability



Summary and Synthesis

- Graphical model development is a problem in system lifecycle engineering
 - Begin with a small subproblem
 - » Self-contained
 - » Can be completed in short time
 - » Interesting in its own right
 - » Reasonably representative of global problem
 - Iteratively expand and refine
 - Test and evaluate at each stage
 - » Elicitation review
 - » Sensitivity analysis quantitative and qualitative
 - » Case-based testing local and global
 - » Evaluation against empirical data
- Effective management of knowledge engineering process improves
 - Communication between domain experts and knowledge engineers
 - Quality of model
 - Reusability of results
- Software supports are needed for agile lifecycle engineering of probabilistic graphical models



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