

Introduction

- So far we have considered mainly accessible/observable environments.
 - Or pretended that environments were accessible/observable.
- Clearly not true of the real world:
 - Is is raining in Manhattan?
- Partial observability can arise for many reasons.
 - World structure *vs.* sensor ability.
 - Sensor noise.
 - Computational complexity.

Types of problem

- Who is outside in the corridor?
 - Uncertainty
- The radio says it is raining in Manhattan, but when I phone my wife she says it isn't raining.
 - Ambiguity
 - Contradiction.
- Is it true that "Simon is tall"
 - Vagueness
- Who will be in next year's World Series?
 - Ignorance

Uncertainty

- Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight
 - Will A_t get me there on time?
- Problems:
 - 1. partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
 - 2. noisy sensors (1010 WINS traffic reports)
 - 3. uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
 - 4. immense complexity of modelling and predicting traffic

- Hence a purely logical approach either:
 - 1. risks falsehood: " A_{90} will get me there on time"
 - 2. leads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making: " A_{90} will get me there on time if there's no accident on the Williamsburg bridge, and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact etc etc."
- (A_{1440} might reasonably be said to get me there on time but I'd have to stay overnight in the airport . . .)





• How could an agent cope with this? $csc74010\hbox{-} fall 2011\hbox{-} parsons\hbox{-} lect 05$

Methods for handling uncertainty

- Nonmonotonic logic
 - Assume my car does not have a flat tire
 - Assume A_{25} works unless contradicted by evidence
- Issues: What assumptions are reasonable? How to handle contradiction?



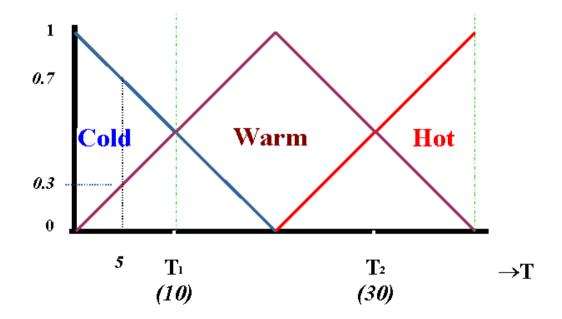


- Rules with fudge factors:
 - $-A_{25} \mapsto_{0.3} AtAirportOnTime$
 - Sprinkler \mapsto _{0.99} WetGrass
 - WetGrass \mapsto _{0.7} Rain
- Issues: Problems with combination, e.g., *Sprinkler* causes *Rain*??
- Semantics?

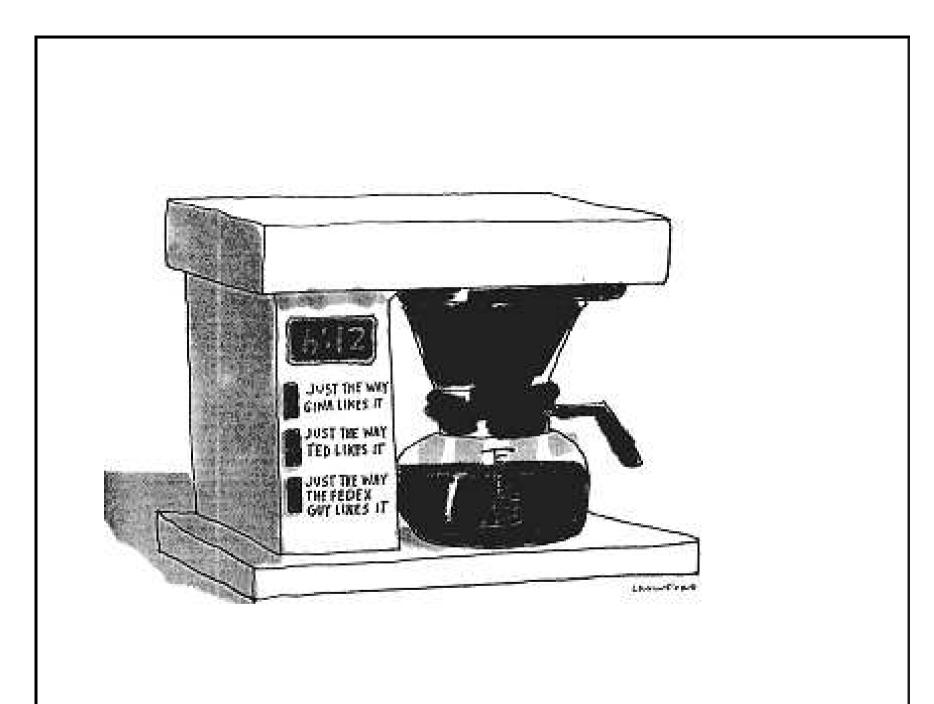
- Probability
 - Given the available evidence, A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04
- Issues: Computational complexity, obtaining values, semantics.
 - We will consider the computational issues in some detail.

Aside

- Fuzzy logic handles degree of truth NOT uncertainty
 - WetGrass is true to degree 0.2







Probability

- Probabilistic assertions *summarize* effects of
 - laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.
 - ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.
- *Subjective* or *Bayesian* probability:
 - Probabilities relate propositions to one's own state of knowledge

$$P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}) = 0.06$$

• Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:

$$P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}, 5 \text{ a.m.}) = 0.15$$

(Analogous to logical entailment status $KB \models \alpha$, not truth.)

Making decisions under uncertainty

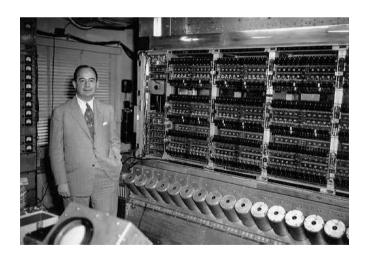
• Suppose I believe the following:

 $P(A_{25} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.04$ $P(A_{90} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.70$ $P(A_{120} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.95$ $P(A_{1440} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.9999$

Which action to choose?

- Depends on my *preferences* for missing flight vs. airport cuisine, sleeping on a bench, and so on.
- *Utility theory* is used to represent and infer preferences
- *Decision theory* = utility theory + probability theory
- We will come back to decision theory with a vengence next time.





Probability basics

- Begin with a set Ω —the *sample space*.
- This is all the possible things that could happen.
 - 6 possible rolls of a die.
- $\omega \in \Omega$ is a sample point, possible world, atomic event.



• A *probability space* or *probability model* is a sample space with an assignment $P(\omega)$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ such that:

$$0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$$
$$\sum_{\omega} P(\omega) = 1$$

$$P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6.$$





• An *event* A is any subset of Ω

$$P(A) = \sum_{\{\omega \in A\}} P(\omega)$$

$$P(\text{die roll} < 4) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$$





Random variables

- A *random variable* is a function from sample points to some range.
 - raining(Brooklyn) = true.
 - temperature(234NE) = 73
- *P* induces a *probability distribution* for any r.v. *X*:

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_{\{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

$$P(Odd = true) = P(1) + P(3) + P(5) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$$

Propositions

- Think of a proposition as the event (set of sample points) where the proposition is true
- Given Boolean random variables *A* and *B*:

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event a = \text{set} of sample points where A(\omega) = true event \neg a = \text{set} of sample points where A(\omega) = false event a \wedge b = \text{points} where A(\omega) = true and B(\omega) = true
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- Often in AI applications, the sample points are *defined* by the values of a set of random variables.
- A state can be defined by a set of Boolean variables.

$$a \wedge b \wedge \neg c$$
 $A = true, B = true, C = false$

This is then just a sample point.

• Thus, with Boolean variables, sample point = propositional logic model

$$A = true, B = false$$
 $a \land \neg b$

• Proposition = disjunction of atomic events in which it is true

$$(a \lor b) \equiv (\neg a \land b) \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor (a \land b)$$

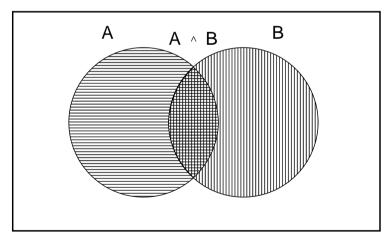
$$\Rightarrow P(a \lor b) = P(\neg a \land b) + P(a \land \neg b) + P(a \land b)$$

Why use probability?

• The definitions imply that certain logically related events must have related probabilities

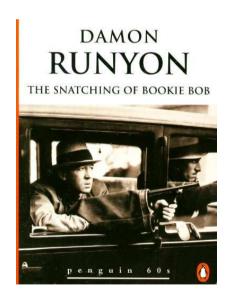
$$P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \land b)$$

True



Dutch book argument

• de Finetti (1931): an agent who bets according to probabilities that violate these axioms can be forced to bet so as to lose money regardless of outcome.





Why Dutch?





Syntax for propositions

- Propositional or Boolean random variables
 - *Cavity* (do I have a cavity?)
 - *Cavity* = *true* is a proposition, also written *cavity*
- *Discrete* random variables (finite or infinite)
 - Weather is one of $\langle sunny, rain, cloudy, snow \rangle$
 - Weather = rain is a proposition

Values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive

- Continuous random variables (bounded or unbounded)
 - Temp = 21.6; also allow, e.g., Temp < 22.0.
- Arbitrary Boolean combinations of basic propositions

Prior probability

• *Prior* or *unconditional probabilities* of propositions P(Cavity = true) = 0.1 and P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72 correspond to belief before (prior) to arrival of any (new)

• *Probability distribution* gives values for all possible assignments:

$$P(Weather) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$$

• Distribution is normalized, i.e., sums to 1

evidence.

• *Joint probability distribution* for a set of r.v.s gives the probability of every atomic event on those r.v.s (i.e., every sample point)

 $P(Weather, Cavity) = a 4 \times 2 \text{ matrix of values}$

Weather =
 sunny
 rain
 cloudy
 snow

 Cavity = true

$$0.144$$
 0.02
 0.016
 0.02

 Cavity = false
 0.576
 0.08
 0.064
 0.08

• Every question about a domain can be answered by the joint distribution because every event is a sum of sample points

Conditional probability

• Conditional or posterior probabilities

P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8

given that toothache is all I know NOT "if *toothache* then 80% chance of *cavity*"

• Notation for conditional distributions:

P(Cavity|Toothache)

A 2-element vector of 2-element vectors.

• If we know more, e.g., *cavity* is also given, then we have P(cavity|toothache, cavity) = 1

Note: the less specific belief *remains valid* after more evidence arrives, but is not always *useful*

- New evidence may be irrelevant, allowing simplification P(cavity|toothache, jetsWin) = P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8
- This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

• Definition of conditional probability:

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)}$$
 if $P(b) \neq 0$

• *Product rule* gives an alternative formulation:

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$$

A general version holds for whole distributions,

$$\mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}, \textit{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity})$$

(View as a 4×2 set of equations, *not* matrix multiplication)

• *Chain rule* is derived by successive application of product rule:

$$\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \mathbf{P}(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-2}) \mathbf{P}(X_{n-1} | X_1, \dots, X_{n-2})$$

$$\mathbf{P}(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

• Or, in terms of a more concrete example:

$$P(a,b,c) = P(a,b)P(c|b,a)$$

= $P(a)P(b|a)P(c|b,a)$

Inference by enumeration

• Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum\limits_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$$

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum\limits_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$$

• P(toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
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• For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum\limits_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$$

• $P(cavity \lor toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28$

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• Can also compute conditional probabilities:

$$P(\neg cavity | toothache) = \frac{P(\neg cavity \land toothache)}{P(toothache)}$$

$$= \frac{0.016 + 0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064} = 0.4$$

Normalization

	toothache		¬ toothache		
	catch	¬ catc	h	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012		.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064		.144	.576

• Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

 $\mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache) = \alpha \mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache)$

- $= \alpha \left[\mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache, catch) + \mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache, \neg catch) \right]$
- = $\alpha [\langle 0.108, 0.016 \rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064 \rangle]$
- $= \alpha \langle 0.12, 0.08 \rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4 \rangle$

Inference by enumeration

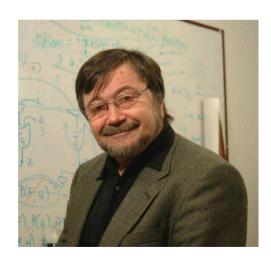
- Let **X** be all the variables.
- Typically, we want the posterior joint distribution of the *query* variables **Y** given specific values **e** for the evidence variables **E**
- Let the hidden variables be $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{E}$
- Then the required summation of joint entries is done by summing out the hidden variables:

$$P(Y|E=e) = \alpha P(Y, E=e)$$

= $\alpha \sum_{h} P(Y, E=e, H=h)$

• The terms in the summation are joint entries because **Y**, **E**, and **H** together exhaust the set of random variables

- Obvious problems:
 - 1. Worst-case time complexity $O(d^n)$ where d is the largest arity
 - 2. Space complexity $O(d^n)$ to store the joint distribution
 - 3. How to find the numbers for $O(d^n)$ entries???
- This problem effectively stopped the use of probability in AI until the mid 80s

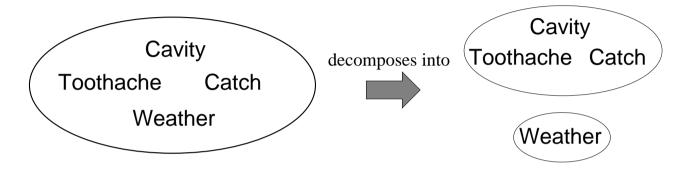


Independence

• *A* and *B* are *independent* iff

$$\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A)$$
, or $\mathbf{P}(B|A) = \mathbf{P}(B)$, or $\mathbf{P}(A,B) = \mathbf{P}(A)\mathbf{P}(B)$

- Why is this interesting?
 - Can help with the size of the problem.



- **P**(*Toothache*, *Catch*, *Cavity*, *Weather*)
 - $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}, \textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather})$
- 32 entries reduced to 12; for *n* independent biased coins, $2^n \rightarrow n$
- Absolute independence powerful but rare
- Dentistry is a large field with hundreds of variables, none of which are independent. What to do?

Conditional independence

- **P**(*Toothache*, *Cavity*, *Catch*) has $2^3 1 = 7$ independent entries
- If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:

$$\mathbf{P}(catch|toothache, cavity) = \mathbf{P}(catch|cavity) \tag{1}$$

• The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:

$$\mathbf{P}(catch|toothache, \neg cavity) = \mathbf{P}(catch|\neg cavity) \tag{2}$$

• Catch is conditionally independent of Toothache given Cavity

$$\mathbf{P}(Catch|Toothache, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)$$

• Equivalent statements:

$$\mathbf{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)$$

 $\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch|Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)$

Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:

 $\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)$

- $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}|\textit{Catch},\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Catch},\textit{Cavity})$
- $= \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$
- $= \mathbf{P}(Toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$

2 + 2 + 1 = 5 independent numbers (equations 1 and 2 remove 2)

- In most cases, the use of conditional independence reduces the size of the representation of the joint distribution from exponential in *n* to linear in *n*.
- Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.
 - Can often make conditional independence statements when little else is known.

Bayes' Rule

• Product rule $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 Bayes' rule $P(a|b) = \frac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)}$

or in distribution form

$$\mathbf{P}(Y|X) = \frac{\mathbf{P}(X|Y)\mathbf{P}(Y)}{\mathbf{P}(X)} = \alpha \mathbf{P}(X|Y)\mathbf{P}(Y)$$









• Useful for assessing *diagnostic* probability from *causal* probability:

$$P(Cause|\textit{Effect}) = \frac{P(\textit{Effect}|Cause)P(Cause)}{P(\textit{Effect})}$$

• Let *M* be meningitis, *S* be stiff neck:

$$P(m|s) = \frac{P(s|m)P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.1} = 0.0008$$

• Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

• So, in our running example

 $\mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache \land catch)$

- $= \alpha \mathbf{P}(toothache \wedge catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$
- $= \alpha \mathbf{P}(toothache|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(catch|Cavity)\mathbf{P}(Cavity)$
- This is an example of a *naive Bayes* model:

$$\mathbf{P}(Cause, Effect_1, \dots, Effect_n) = \mathbf{P}(Cause) \prod_i \mathbf{P}(Effect_i | Cause)$$



• Total number of parameters is *linear* in *n*

What we learned so far

- Probability is a rigorous formalism for uncertain knowledge
- *Joint probability distribution* specifies probability of every *atomic event*
- Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events
- For nontrivial domains, we must find a way to reduce the joint size
- *Independence* and *conditional independence* provide the tools
- Next lecture we'll look at how this is used.