Artificial Intelligence Chapter 13, Uncertainty

Stuart RUSSEL

reorganized by L. Aszalós

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Outline

- Uncertainty
- Probability
- Syntax and Semantics
- Inference
- Independence and Bayes' Rule

Uncertainty

- Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight.
- Will A_t get me there on time?
- Problems:
 - partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
 - noisy sensors (KCBS traffic reports)
 - uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
 - immense complexity of modelling and predicting traffic
- Hence a purely logical approach either
 - $oldsymbol{0}$ risks falsehood: " A_{25} will get me there on time" or
 - eads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making: "A₂₅ will get me there on time if there's no accident on the 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 ...)

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Methods for handling uncertainty

Default or nonmonotonic logic:

- Assume my car does not have a flat tire
- ullet 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?

Probability

Given the available evidence, A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04

Mahaviracarya (9th C.), Cardamo (1565) theory of gambling

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Methods for handling uncertainty

Fuzzy logic

- handles degree of truth
- NOT uncertainty
- e.g. 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
 - e.g., $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}) = 0.06$
- These are not claims of a "probabilistic tendency" in the current situation
 - ▶ but might be learned from past experience of similar situations
- Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:
 - e.g., $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}, 5 a.m.) = 0.15$
 - (Analogous to logical entailment status $KB \models \alpha$, not truth.)

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Making decisions under uncertainty

Suppose I believe the following:

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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
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Which action to choose?

Depends on my **preferences** for missing flight vs. airport cuisine, etc.

Utility theory is used to represent and infer preferences

Decision theory = utility theory + probability theory

Probability basics

- Begin with a set Ω —the **sample space**
 - e.g., 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 $\omega \in \Omega$ s.t.
 - $0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$
 - $\triangleright \sum_{\omega} P(\omega) = 1$
- e.g., P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6.
- An **event** A is any subset of Ω

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

• E.g., P(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, e.g., the reals or Booleans
 - e.g., Odd(1) = true.
- P induces a probability distribution for any r.v. X:

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

• e.g., 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:
 - event $a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = true$
 - event $\neg a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = \text{false}$
 - event $a \wedge b = \text{points}$ where $A(\omega) = true$ and $B(\omega) = true$
- Often in Al applications, the sample points are defined by the values
 of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian
 product of the ranges of the variables
- With Boolean variables, sample point = propositional logic model
 - e.g., A = true, B = false, or $a \land \neg b$.
- Proposition = disjunction of atomic events in which it is true
 - e.g., $(a \lor b) = (\neg a \land b) \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor (a \land b)$
 - $ightharpoonup P(a \lor b) = P(\neg a \land b) + P(a \land \neg b) + P(a \land b)$

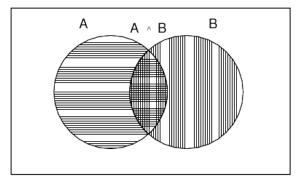
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Why use probability?

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

E.g.,
$$P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \land b)$$

True



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.

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Syntax for propositions

Propositional or Boolean random variables

- e.g., Cavity (do I have a cavity?)
- Cavity = true is a proposition, also written cavity

Discrete random variables (finite or infinite)

- e.g., Weather is one of \(\sunny, rain, cloudy, snow \rangle \)
- Weather = rain is a proposition
- Values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive

Continuous random variables (bounded or unbounded)

• e.g., Temp = 21.6; also allow, e.g., Temp < 22.0.

Arbitrary Boolean combinations of basic propositions

Prior probability

- Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions
 - e.g., P(Cavity = true) = 0.1 and P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72
 - correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence
- Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments $\mathcal{P}(\textit{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$ (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)
- 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)
 - ▶ $P(Weather, Cavity) = a \ 4 \times 2 \text{ matrix of values}$:

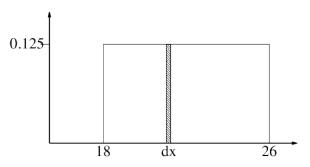
Weather =	sunny	rain	cloudy	snow
Cavity = true				
Cavity = false	0.576	0.08	0.064	0.08

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

Probability for continuous variables

Express distribution as a parameterized function of value:

• P(X = x) = U[18, 26](x) =uniform density between 18 and 26



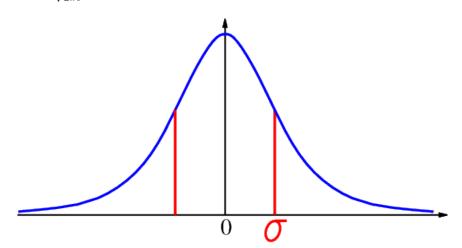
Here P is a **density**; integrates to 1.

$$P(X = 20.5) = 0.125$$
 really means

$$\lim_{dx\to 0} P(20.5 \le X \le 20.5 + dx)/dx = 0.125$$

Gaussian density

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$



Conditional probability

Conditional or posterior probabilities

- e.g., P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8
- ▶ i.e., given that toothache is all I know
- ▶ NOT "if toothache then 80% chance of cavity"
- Notation for conditional distributions: $\mathcal{P}(\textit{Cavity}|\textit{Toothache}) = 2$ -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, e.g.,
 - ▶ P(cavity|toothache, 49ersWin) = P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8
 - ▶ This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

Conditional probability

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, e.g.
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{P}(Weather, Cavity) = \mathcal{P}(Weather|Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Cavity)$
- View as a 4×2 set of equations, *not* matrix mult.
- Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:
 - $\mathcal{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n}) = \mathcal{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-1})\mathcal{P}(X_{n}|X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) \} = \\ \mathcal{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \mathcal{P}(X_{n-1}|X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \mathcal{P}(X_{n}|X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) = ... = \\ \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{P}(X_{i}|X_{1},...,X_{i-1})$

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:

•
$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

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:

- $P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$
- P(toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2

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:

- $P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega\models\phi} P(\omega)$
- $P(cavity \lor toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28$

Start with the joint distribution:

	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	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity			.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

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

$$= \alpha \, [\mathcal{P}(\textit{Cavity}, \textit{toothache}, \textit{catch}) + \mathcal{P}(\textit{Cavity}, \textit{toothache}, \neg \textit{catch})]$$

$$= \alpha \, [\langle 0.108, 0.016 \rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064 \rangle]$$

$$= \alpha \, \langle 0.12, 0.08 \rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4 \rangle$$

General idea: compute distribution on query variable by fixing **evidence** variables and summing over **hidden variables**

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Inference by enumeration, contd.

Let ${\bf X}$ be all the variables. Typically, we want the posterior joint distribution of the **query variables Y** given specific values ${\bf e}$ for the **evidence variables E**

Let the **hidden variables** be H = X - Y - E

Then the required summation of joint entries is done by *summing out* the hidden variables:

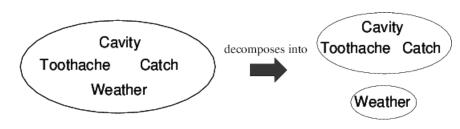
$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}) = \alpha \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}) = \alpha \sum_{\mathbf{h}} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{h})$$

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

- 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?

Independence

- A and B are independent iff
- $\mathcal{P}(A|B) = \mathcal{P}(A)$ or $\mathcal{P}(B|A) = \mathcal{P}(B)$ or $\mathcal{P}(A,B) = \mathcal{P}(A)\mathcal{P}(B)$



- $\mathcal{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity, Weather)$
- = $\mathcal{P}(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Weather)$
- 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

- $\mathcal{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Cavity}, \textit{Catch})$ 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:
- The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:
 - $P(catch|toothache, \neg cavity) = P(catch|\neg cavity)$
- Catch is **conditionally independent** of Toothache given Cavity:
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{P}(\mathit{Catch}|\mathit{Toothache},\mathit{Cavity}) = \mathcal{P}(\mathit{Catch}|\mathit{Cavity})$
- Equivalent statements:
 - $ightharpoonup \mathcal{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity) = \mathcal{P}(Toothache|Cavity)$
 - $\qquad \qquad \mathcal{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}|\textit{Cavity}) = \mathcal{P}(\textit{Toothache}|\textit{Cavity}) \mathcal{P}(\textit{Catch}|\textit{Cavity})$

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Conditional independence contd.

- Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:
 - ► P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)
 - $ightharpoonup = \mathcal{P}(\textit{Toothache}|\textit{Catch},\textit{Cavity})\mathcal{P}(\textit{Catch},\textit{Cavity})$
 - $ightharpoonup = \mathcal{P}(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Cavity)$
 - $ightharpoonup = \mathcal{P}(Toothache|Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Catch|Cavity)\mathcal{P}(Cavity)$
- I.e., 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.

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Bayes' Rule

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

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

or in distribution form

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

Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability:

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

E.g., 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!

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Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

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

$$= \alpha \mathcal{P}(\textit{toothache} \land \textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity}) \mathcal{P}(\textit{Cavity})$$

$$= \alpha \mathcal{P}(\textit{toothache}|\textit{Cavity}) \mathcal{P}(\textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity}) \mathcal{P}(\textit{Cavity})$$

This is an example of a naive Bayes model:

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathit{Cause}, \mathit{Effect}_1, \dots, \mathit{Effect}_n) = \mathcal{P}(\mathit{Cause}) \prod_i \mathcal{P}(\mathit{Effect}_i | \mathit{Cause})$$

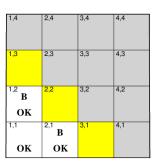
Total number of parameters is *linear* in *n*

Catch

Toothache

Effect,

Wumpus World



- $P_{ij} = true \text{ iff } [i,j] \text{ contains a pit }$
- $B_{ij} = true \text{ iff } [i,j] \text{ is breezy}$
- ullet Include only $B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1}$ in the probability model

Specifying the probability model

The full joint distribution is $\mathcal{P}(P_{1,1},\ldots,P_{4,4},B_{1,1},B_{1,2},B_{2,1})$ Apply product rule: $\mathcal{P}(B_{1,1},B_{1,2},B_{2,1}\,|\,P_{1,1},\ldots,P_{4,4})\mathcal{P}(P_{1,1},\ldots,P_{4,4})$ (Do it this way to get $P(\textit{Effect}\,|\,\textit{Cause}\,)$.) First term: 1 if pits are adjacent to breezes, 0 otherwise Second term: pits are placed randomly, probability 0.2 per square:

$$\mathcal{P}(P_{1,1},\ldots,P_{4,4}) = \prod_{i,j=1,1}^{4,4} \mathcal{P}(P_{i,j}) = 0.2^n \times 0.8^{16-n}$$

for n pits.

Observations and query

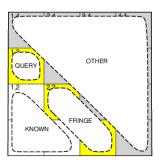
- We know the following facts:
 - $b = \neg b_{1,1} \wedge b_{1,2} \wedge b_{2,1}$
 - ▶ $known = \neg p_{1,1} \land \neg p_{1,2} \land \neg p_{2,1}$
- Query is $\mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b)$
- Define $Unknown = P_{ij}s$ other than $P_{1,3}$ and Known
- For inference by enumeration, we have

$$\mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b) = \alpha \sum_{unknown} \mathcal{P}(P_{1,3},unknown,known,b)$$

Grows exponentially with number of squares!

Using conditional independence

Basic insight: observations are conditionally independent of other hidden squares given neighbouring hidden squares



Define $Unknown = Fringe \cup Other$

• $\mathcal{P}(b|P_{1,3}, Known, Unknown) = \mathcal{P}(b|P_{1,3}, Known, Fringe)$

Manipulate query into a form where we can use this!

Using conditional independence contd.

$$\mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}|\mathit{known}, \mathit{b}) = \alpha \sum_{\mathit{unknown}} \mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}, \mathit{unknown}, \mathit{known}, \mathit{b}) =$$

$$\alpha \sum_{\textit{unknown}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{b}|\textit{P}_{1,3},\textit{known},\textit{unknown}) \mathcal{P}(\textit{P}_{1,3},\textit{known},\textit{unknown}) =$$

$$\alpha \sum_{fringe} \sum_{other} \mathcal{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe, other) \mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}, known, fringe, other) =$$

$$\alpha \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \sum_{\textit{other}} \mathcal{P}(b|\textit{known}, P_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) \mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}, \textit{known}, \textit{fringe}, \textit{other}) =$$

$$\alpha \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{b}|\textit{known}, \textit{P}_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) \sum_{\textit{other}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{P}_{1,3}, \textit{known}, \textit{fringe}, \textit{other}) =$$

$$\alpha \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{b}|\textit{known}, \textit{P}_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) \sum_{\textit{other}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{P}_{1,3}) \textit{P}(\textit{known}) \textit{P}(\textit{fringe}) \textit{P}(\textit{other}) =$$

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Using conditional independence contd.

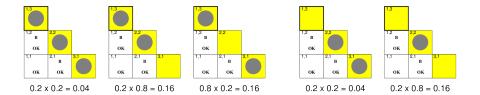
$$\alpha \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{b}|\textit{known}, \textit{P}_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) \sum_{\textit{other}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{P}_{1,3}) \textit{P}(\textit{known}) \textit{P}(\textit{fringe}) \textit{P}(\textit{other}) =$$

$$\alpha \ \textit{P(known)P(P}_{1,3}) \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \mathcal{P}(\textit{b}|\textit{known}, \textit{P}_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) \textit{P(fringe)} \sum_{\textit{other}} \textit{P(other)} =$$

$$\alpha' \mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}) \sum_{\textit{fringe}} \mathcal{P}(b|\textit{known}, P_{1,3}, \textit{fringe}) P(\textit{fringe})$$

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Using conditional independence contd.



$$\mathcal{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b) = \alpha' \langle 0.2(0.04 + 0.16 + 0.16), 0.8(0.04 + 0.16) \rangle$$

 $\approx \langle 0.31, 0.69 \rangle$

$$\mathcal{P}(P_{2,2}|known,b) \approx \langle 0.86, 0.14 \rangle$$

Summary

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