Machine Intelligence

Lecture 4: Reasoning under uncertainty - probabilities

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Tentative course overview

Topics:

- Introduction
- Search-based methods
- Constrained satisfaction problems
- Representing domains endowed with uncertainty
- Bayesian networks
- Machine learning
- Planning
- Multi-agent systems

Certainty

Certainty in Search

Assumptions for using search for solving planning problems:

- Current state is fully known
- Actions have deterministic effects

Certainty in CSP and Logic

- Possible worlds are possible or impossible (according to given constraints/propositions)
- Propositions are fully known/believed, or unknown
- Generalization: soft constraints possible worlds are more or less desirable

More realistic scenarios

- Agents do not observe the world perfectly
- Actions have uncertain effects
- Propositions are believed only with a certain confidence

Degrees of Belief for Propositions

In reality, states of knowledge may better be represented by degrees of belief:

```
Bel(light\_on \leftarrow switch\_on \land breaker\_up) = 0.7

Bel(\neg umbrella \rightarrow rain) = 1.5

Bel(umbrella \rightarrow rain) = 0.2

Bel(global\_warming) = 0.8
```

Question: what rules must (rational) degrees of belief obey?

Basic Probability Calculus

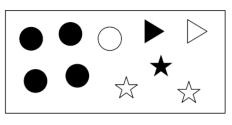
Probability Measures

Probability theory is built on the foundation of variables and worlds.

Worlds described by the variables:

- Filled: {true, false}
- Shape: {circle, triangle, star}

as well as position.



Probability measures

 Ω : set of all possible worlds (for a given, fixed set of variables). A **probability measure over** Ω , is a function P, that assigns **probability values**

$$P(\Omega') \in [0,1]$$

to subsets $\Omega' \subseteq \Omega$, such that

Axiom 1:
$$P(\Omega) = 1$$
.

Axiom 2: if
$$\Omega_1 \cap \Omega_2 = \emptyset$$
, then $P(\Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2) = P(\Omega_1) + P(\Omega_2)$.

Simplification for finite Ω

If all variables have a finite domain, then

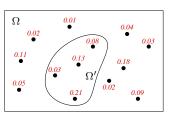
- Ω is finite, and
- a probability distribution is defined by assigning a probability value

$$P(\omega)$$

to each individual possible world $\omega \in \Omega$.

For any $\Omega' \subseteq \Omega$ then

$$P(\Omega') = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega'} P(\omega)$$



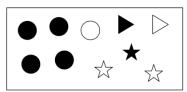
 $P(\Omega') = 0.08 + 0.13 + 0.03 + 0.21 = 0.45$

From now on, we will only consider variables with finite domains.

A probability distribution over possible worlds defines probabilities for propositions α :

$$\begin{split} P(\alpha) &= P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid \omega \models \alpha\}) \\ &= \sum_{\omega:\alpha \text{ is true in } \omega} P(\omega) \end{split}$$

Example

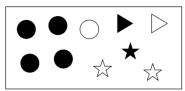


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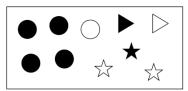


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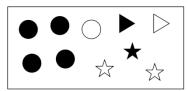


- P(Shape = circle) = 0.5
- P(Filled = false) = 0.4
- $P(Shape = c \land Filled = f) =$

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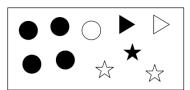


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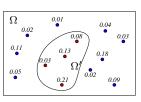
Example



Assume probability for each world is 0.1:

- P(Shape = circle) = 0.5
- P(Filled = false) = 0.4
- $P(Shape = c \land Filled = f) = 0.1$

Another example



$$\begin{split} P(\textit{Color} = \textit{red}) &= 0.08 + 0.13 + 0.03 + 0.21 \\ &= 0.45 \end{split}$$

Axiom

If A and B are disjoint, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$.

Example

Consider a deck with 52 cards. If $\mathcal{A}=\{2,3,4,5\}$ and $\mathcal{B}=\{7,8\}$, then

$$P(A \cup B) =$$

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$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) = \frac{4}{13} + \frac{2}{13} = \frac{6}{13}.$$

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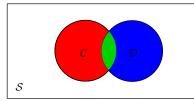
More generally

If $\mathcal C$ and $\mathcal D$ are not disjoint, then $P(\mathcal C\cup\mathcal D)=P(\mathcal C)+P(\mathcal D)-P(\mathcal C\cap\mathcal D).$

Example

If
$$\mathcal{C} = \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$$
 and $\mathcal{D} = \{\spadesuit\}$, then

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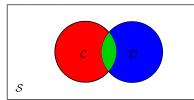
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$$P(\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{D}) = \frac{4}{13} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{4}{52} = \frac{25}{52}.$$

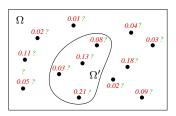


- Given new information (**evidence**), degrees of belief change.
- Evidence can consist of:
 - learning that a certain proposition p is true ("switch_up")
 - measuring the value of some variable ("room_ai = 0.2.90")
 - obtaining partial information on the value of some variable ("room_ai \neq 0.2.90")
 - ...
- In all cases: evidence can be represented as the set of possible world Ω' not ruled out by the observation.

How should the probabilities be updated, when I observe Ω' ?:

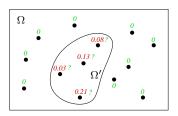
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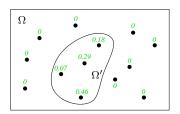
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• worlds that are not consistent with evidence have probability 0

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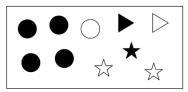
- worlds that are not consistent with evidence have probability 0
- the probabilities of worlds consistent with evidence are proportional to their probability before observation, and they must sum to 1

Definition

The **conditional probability** of proposition p given e is

$$P(p \mid e) = \frac{P(p \land e)}{P(e)}$$

Example



(probability for each world is 0.1)

$$P(\textit{S=circ.} \mid \textit{Fill} = f) = \frac{P(\textit{S=circ.} \land \textit{Fill} = f)}{P(\textit{Fill} = f)}$$
$$= \frac{0.1}{0.4} = 0.25$$

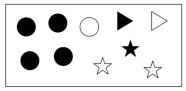
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What is the probability of P(S=star | Fill = f)?

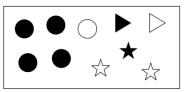
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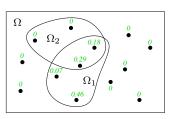
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Another example



- e and p are represented by possible worlds Ω_1 and Ω_2
- division by $P(\Omega_1)$ already in green numbers

$$P(\Omega_2 \mid \Omega_1) = 0.18 + 0.29$$

10

What is the probability of P(S=star | Fill = f)?

Two important rules

Bayes rule

For propositions p, e:

$$P(p \mid e) = \frac{P(e \land p)}{P(e)} = \frac{P(e \mid p)P(p)}{P(e)}$$

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Example

A doctor observes symptoms and wishes to find the probability of a disease:

$$P(\textit{disease} \,|\, \textit{symp.}) = \frac{P(\textit{symp.} \,|\, \textit{disease}) P(\textit{disease})}{P(\textit{symp.})}$$

Bayes rule

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$$P(p \mid e) = \frac{P(e \land p)}{P(e)} = \frac{P(e \mid p)P(p)}{P(e)} = \frac{P(e \mid p)P(p)}{P(e \land p) + P(e \land \neg p)}$$

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Chain rule

For propositions p_1, \ldots, p_n :

$$P(p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_n) = P(p_1)P(p_2 \mid p_1) \cdots P(p_i \mid p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_{i-1}) \cdots P(p_n \mid p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_{n-1})$$

Both rules are immediate consequences of the definition of conditional probability!

Random Variables and Distributions

Random Variables

Variables defining possible worlds on which probabilities are defined are called **random variables**.

Distributions

For a random variable A, and $a \in D_A$ we have the probability

$$P(A = a) = P(\{\omega \in \Omega \mid A = a \text{ in } \omega\})$$

The **probability distribution of** A is the function on D_A that maps a to P(A=a). The distribution of A is denoted

Joint Distributions

Extension to several random variables:

$$P(A_1,\ldots,A_k)$$

is the **joint distribution of** A_1, \ldots, A_k . The joint distribution maps tuples (a_1, \ldots, a_k) with $a_i \in D_{A_i}$ to the probability

$$P(A_1 = a_1, \dots, A_k = a_k)$$

Chain rule for distributions

With random variables instead of propositions, the chain rule becomes:

$$P(A_1, ..., A_n) = P(A_1)P(A_2 \mid A_1) \cdots P(A_i \mid A_1, ..., A_{i-1}) \cdots P(A_n \mid A_1, ..., A_{n-1})$$

Note: each $P(p_i \mid p_1 \land \ldots \land p_{i-1})$ was a *number*. Each $P(A_i \mid A_1, \ldots, A_{i-1})$ is a *function* on tuples (a_1, \ldots, a_i) .

Bayes' rule can also be written for variables:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

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Example

Consider the variables

- Temp : $sp(Temp) = \{l, m, h\}$
- Sensor : $sp(Sensor) = \{l, m, h\}$

$$P(\mathsf{Temp}) = (0.1, 0.6, 0.3)$$

 $\begin{array}{c|cccc} P(\mathsf{Sensor}|\mathsf{Temp}) = & & & & \\ & \mathsf{I} & \mathsf{Temp} & & \\ \hline & \mathsf{I} & \mathsf{m} & \mathsf{h} \\ \hline & \mathsf{0} & \mathsf{1} & 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.05 \\ \mathsf{0} & \mathsf{m} & 0.15 & 0.8 & 0.1 \\ \mathcal{O} & \mathsf{h} & 0.05 & 0.1 & 0.85 \\ \end{array}$

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Assume we observe S = low:

 $P(T|\mathsf{low}) = \frac{P(\mathsf{low}|T)P(T)}{\sum_{T} P(\mathsf{low}|T)P(T)} =$

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NN

M/8#/

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 $P(\mathsf{Sensor}|\mathsf{Temp}) =$ Temp h m Sensor 0.10.05 0/8 O/I

101/051

P(low T)P(T) =					
		Temp			
	- 1	m	h		P(
S = low	0.08	0.06	0.015	\rightarrow	

 $(S = \mathsf{low})$

0.155

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	ICITIP		
	- 1	m	h
ρ	0.8	0.1	0.05
Sensor	0/15/	10/18	Ø/./V
κκ	0.105/	0/1	01/85/

ı	Temp m	h
0.08 / 0.155 (low T)P(T) =	0.06 / 0.155	0.015 / 0.155

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$$P(Sensor|Temp) = I Temp$$

		ionip	
	- 1	m	h
ρĪ	0.8	0.1	0.05
Sensor	0/15/	0/8	Ø/./IV
ις Ν	0.05/	0/1	0.185/

Assume we observe S = low:

$$P(T|\mathsf{low}) = \frac{P(\mathsf{low}|T)P(T)}{\sum_{T} P(\mathsf{low}|T)P(T)} =$$

		lemp			
	- 1	m	h		P(S = low)
S = low	0.08	0.06	0.015	\rightarrow	0.155

Independence

Example: Football statistics

Results for Bayern Munich and SC Freiburg in seasons 2001/02 and 2003/04. (Not counting the matches Munich vs. Freiburg):

$$D_{\mathit{Munich}}) = D_{\mathit{Freiburg}} = \{\mathit{Win, Draw, Loss}\}$$

2001/02

Munich: LWDWWWWWWWLDLDLDLWLDWWWDWDDWWWW
Freiburg: WLLDDWLDWDWLLLDDLWDDLLLLLLLWLW

2003/04

Munich: WDWWLDWWDWLWWDDWDWLWWWDDWWWLWWLL Freiburg: LDDWDWLWLLLWWLWLLDDWDDLLLWLD

Summary:

	F			
Munich	W	D	L	
W	12	9	15	36 16
D	3	4	9	16
L	6	4	2	12
	21	17	26	

Independence of Outcomes

The joint distribution of Munich and Freiburg:

P(Munich,Freiburg):

1 (Munich, relouig).					
		Freiburg			
Munich	W	D	L	$P(\mathit{Munich})$	
W	.1875	.1406	.2344	.5625	
D	.0468	.0625	.1406	.25	
L	.0937	.0625	.0312	.1875	
P(Freiburg)	.3281	.2656	.4062		

Independence of Outcomes

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		Freiburg		
Munich	W	D	L	$P(\mathit{Munich})$
W	.1875 .571	.1406	.2344	.5625
D	.0468	. <mark>529</mark> .0625	.577 .1406	.25
L	.143	.0625	.346	.1875
P(Freiburg)	.285 .3281	.235	.077 .4062	

Conditional distribution: $P(Munich \mid Freiburg)$

Independence of Outcomes

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	.285	.235	.077	
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Conditional distribution: *P*(*Munich* | *Freiburg*)

We have (almost):

$$P(Munich | Freiburg) = P(Munich)$$

The variables *Munich* and *Freiburg* are **independent**.

Definition of Independence

The variables A_1, \ldots, A_k and B_1, \ldots, B_m are **independent** if

$$P(A_1,...,A_k \mid B_1,...,B_m) = P(A_1,...,A_k)$$

This is equivalent to:

$$P(B_1, ..., B_m \mid A_1, ..., A_k) = P(B_1, ..., B_m)$$

and also to:

$$P(A_1, ..., A_k, B_1, ..., B_m) = P(A_1, ..., A_k) \cdot P(B_1, ..., B_m)$$

Compact Specifications by Independence

Independence properties can greatly simplify the specification of a joint distribution:

M =	W	D	L	P(M)
W			adent	.5625
D	,	$_{ m F}$ are inde	beline	.25
L	$_{ m M}$ and	1 -		.1875
P(F)	.3281	.2656	.4062	

The probability for each possible world then is defined, e.g.

$$P(M = D, F = L) = 0.25 \cdot 0.4062 = 0.10155$$

Example

Joint distribution for variables

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textit{Sex}: & D_{\textit{Sex}} = \{\textit{male}, \textit{female}\} \\ \textit{Hair length}: & D_{\textit{Hair length}} = \{\textit{long}, \textit{short}\} \\ \textit{Height}: & D_{\textit{Height}} = \{\textit{tall}, \textit{medium}\} \\ \end{array}$

	Sex			
	male		fen	nale
	Hair length		Hair	length
Height	long	short	long	short
tall	0.06	0.24	0.07	0.03
medium	0.04	0.16	0.28	0.12

P(Hair length, Height) P(Height), P(Height | Hair length):

	Hair l		
Height	long	short	
tall	0.13	0.27	0.4
	0.289	0.49	
medium	0.32	0.28	0.6
	0.711	0.51	

→ Hair length and Height are not independent.

Example Continued

P(Hair length, Height | Sex = female), P(Height | Sex = female), P(Height | Hair length, Sex = female):

	Hair length		
Height	long	short	
tall	0.14	0.06	0.2
	0.2	0.2	
medium	0.56	0.24	8.0
	8.0	8.0	

→ Hair length and Height are independent given Sex=female.

Also: Hair length and Height are independent given Sex=male.

 \leadsto Hair length and Height are independent given Sex.

Conditionally Independent Variables

Definition of Conditional Independence

The variables A_1, \ldots, A_n are **conditionally independent** of the variables B_1, \ldots, B_m **given** C_1, \ldots, C_k , if

$$P(A_1, ..., A_n \mid B_1, ..., B_m, C_1, ..., C_k) = P(A_1, ..., A_n \mid C_1, ..., C_k)$$

Agenda: use conditional independence to facillitate specification of probability distributions on complex state spaces