

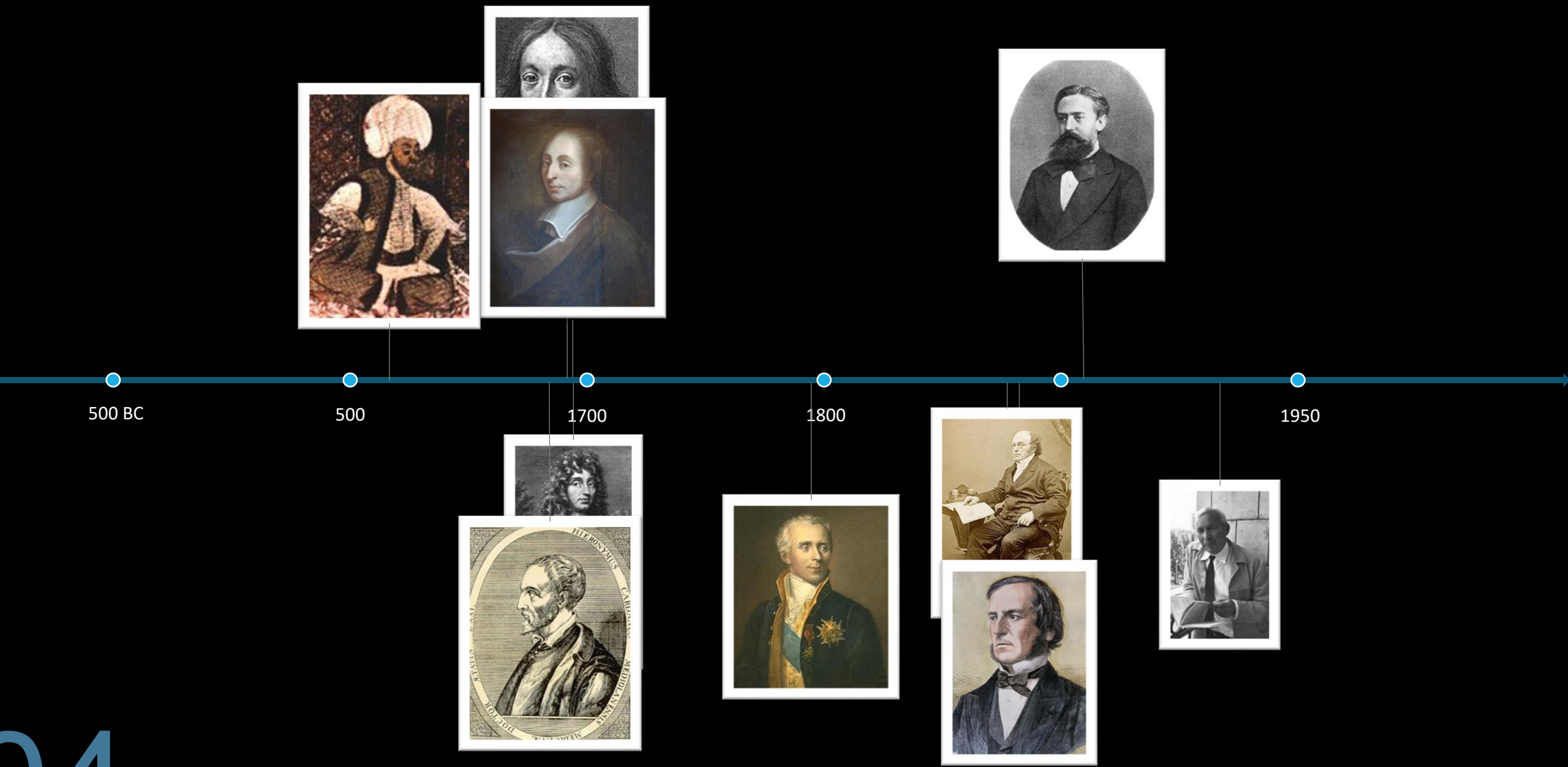
PROBABILITY THEORY 1

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE | COMP 131

TODAY ON AI

- Uncertainty
- Probability Theory
- Bayes' rule
- Questions?

Uncertainty



A black and white photograph of a dense crowd of people, likely at a public event or protest. The image is taken from a slightly elevated angle, showing the backs and heads of many individuals. The crowd is packed closely together, filling the frame. The lighting is bright, creating high contrast between the dark clothing and the lighter background. The overall mood is one of collective gathering and movement.

Emergence and
Uncertainty in
Gestaltism.

- There are many **situations** where uncertainty arises:
 - When you travel, you reason about the possibility of delays
 - When an insurance company offers a policy, it has calculated the risk that one will claim
 - When you play a game, one cannot be certain what the other player will do
 - A medical expert system that diagnoses disease has to deal with the results of tests that are sometimes incorrect
- Agents which can reason about the effects of **uncertainty** should do better than those that don't.
- How should uncertainty be **represented**?

Let's say we are planning a trip. We need to go to the airport. Will **leaving for the airport t minutes before the flight** (A_t) get me there on time?

- Partially observable state (state of the road, other drivers' plans, etc.)
- Noisy sensors (traffic reports, etc.)
- Uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
- Complexity of the model (predicting traffic is hard, etc.)

- Given the following beliefs, which action do I chose?

$$P(A_{25m}|all_known_variables) = 0.04$$

$$P(A_{90m}|all_known_variables) = 0.70$$

$$P(A_{2h}|all_known_variables) = 0.95$$

$$P(A_{24h}|all_known_variables) = 0.9999$$

- **Decision theory** combines the agent's beliefs (Probability Theory) and desires (**Utility Theory**), defining the best action as the one that maximizes expected utility

Probability Theory

- Probability assertions summarize the effect of:
 - **Laziness**: failure to enumerate exceptions, and qualifications of actions, etc.
 - **Theoretical ignorance**: complex models, etc.
 - **Practical ignorance**: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.
- **Bayesian** or **Subjective** probability relates propositions to one's own state of knowledge
- Probabilities do assert a **belief** and **not facts**
- Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence

$$P(A_{25} | \text{no_reported_accident}) = 0.80$$

$$P(A_{25} | \text{no_reported_accident, 5AM}) = 0.90$$

- A **random variable** is some event of the world that is uncertain:
 - R = Is it raining?
 - T = Is it hot or cold?
 - D = How long will it take to drive to the airport?
- Like **variables** in a **CSP**, random variables have a **domain D** :
 - **Propositional** or **Boolean**: R in $D = \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$ (often write as $\{r, \neg r\}$)
 - **Multi-valued**: T in $D = \{\text{hot}, \text{cold}\}$
 - **Discrete** or **continuous** (**finite** or **infinite**): $D = [0, \infty)$

The values of the domain for a random variable are called **outcomes**.

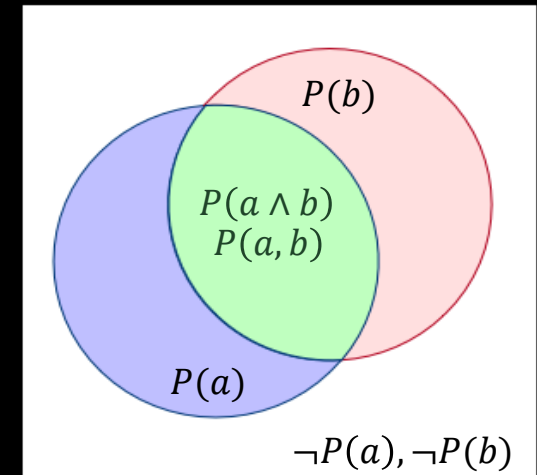
With each outcome $x \in D$ of A , we associate a number $P(A = x)$ that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur. $P(A = x)$ or $P(x)$ is called **probability**.

1. $\forall x: 0 \leq P(A = x) \leq 1$ and $\sum_x P(A = x) = 1$

2. $P(\mathbf{True}) = 1, P(\mathbf{False}) = 0$

3. $\neg P(a) = 1 - P(a)$

4. $\forall a, b \in D: P(a \vee b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \wedge b)$



- Each variable's value has an associated probability called **prior** that corresponds to the **belief** prior to the arrival of any evidence.
- A **distribution** is a table of probability values:

$P(\text{Temperature})$		$P(\text{Weather})$	
T	P	W	P
hot	0.5	sun	0.6
cold	0.5	rain	0.1
		fog	0.3
		meteor	0.0

- We can create events out of **combinations** of the outcomes of **random variables**
- An **atomic event** is a complete specification of the values of the random variables of interest:
 - Example: if our world consists of only **two** Boolean random variables, then the world has a **four possible atomic events**:

Toothache = **true** \wedge *Cavity* = **true**

Toothache = **true** \wedge *Cavity* = **false**

Toothache = **false** \wedge *Cavity* = **true**

Toothache = **false** \wedge *Cavity* = **false**

- The set of **all possible atomic events** has two properties:
 - It is **mutually exhaustive** (nothing else can happen)
 - It is **mutually exclusive** (only one of the four can happen at one time)

- An **atomic event** (or **event**) is a set E of outcomes:

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \quad P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n) \quad P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

- We can use atomic events to calculate the probability of any new combination:
 - Probability that it's hot \wedge sunny?
 - Probability that it's hot?
 - Probability that it's hot \vee sunny?

A **joint distribution** (\wedge distribution) over a set of random variables is a table that specifies a probability for each assignment (or **outcome**) when the **random variables happen all at the same time**:

- Must respect the following rules:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \geq 0$$

$$\sum_{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)} P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1$$

T	W	$P(T, W)$
<i>hot</i>	<i>sun</i>	0.4
<i>hot</i>	<i>rain</i>	0.1
<i>cold</i>	<i>sun</i>	0.2
<i>cold</i>	<i>rain</i>	0.3

- A **probabilistic model** is a joint distribution over a set of random variables

Typically, the events we care about are **partial assignments**, like $P(T = \text{hot})$. **Marginal distributions** are sub-tables of joint distributions in which some variables have been eliminated:

$$P(X_1 = x_1) = \sum_{x_2} P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2)$$

T	W	$P(T, W)$
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$\forall t \in T : P(t) = \sum_{w=\{\text{sun}, \text{rain}\}} P(t, w)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$\forall w \in W : P(w) = \sum_{t=\{\text{hot}, \text{cold}\}} P(t, w)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

A **conditional probability** expresses the likelihood that one event a will occur if b occurs:

$$P(a \mid b)$$

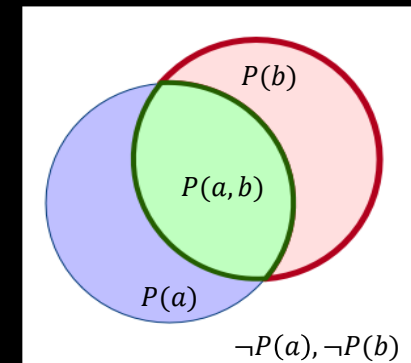
$$P(\text{Cavity} = \mathbf{T}) = 0.2$$

$$P(\text{Toothache} = \mathbf{T} \mid \text{Cavity} = \mathbf{T}) = 0.6$$

- So conditional probabilities reflect the fact that **some events** make other **events more** (or **less**) **likely**
- If one event doesn't affect the likelihood of another event, they are said to be independent and therefore:
- Conditional probability and joint probability are related:

$$P(a \mid b) = P(a)$$

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a, b)}{P(b)}$$



Let's assume we have the following probabilistic model:

<i>T</i>	<i>W</i>	<i>P(T, W)</i>
<i>hot</i>	<i>sun</i>	0.4
<i>hot</i>	<i>rain</i>	0.1
<i>cold</i>	<i>sun</i>	0.2
<i>cold</i>	<i>rain</i>	0.3

$$P(W = \text{sun} | T = \text{cold}) = \frac{P(T = \text{cold}, W = \text{sun})}{P(T = \text{cold})}$$

$$P(T = \text{cold}, W = \text{sun}) = \mathbf{0.2}$$

$$P(T = \text{cold}) = P(T = \text{cold}, W = \text{sun}) + P(T = \text{cold}, W = \text{rain})$$

$$P(T = \text{cold}) = 0.2 + 0.3 = \mathbf{0.5}$$

$$P(W = \text{sun} | T = \text{cold}) = \frac{0.2}{0.5} = \mathbf{0.4}$$

- How we can work out the likelihood of two events occurring together given their **prior** and **conditional probabilities**? We use the **product rule**:

$$P(a, b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$$

- So in our example:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{Toothache}, \text{Cavity}) &= P(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Cavity}) \\ &= P(\text{Cavity} \mid \text{Toothache}) P(\text{Toothache}) \end{aligned}$$

- Unfortunately, this doesn't answer the question:
"I have toothache. Do I have a cavity?"

Bayes' rule

- We can rearrange the two parts of the product rule:

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

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

- **Bayes' rule** states that: $P(a | b) = \frac{P(b | a)}{P(b)} P(a)$
- Then Bayes' rule is a **relationship cause-effect** that allows us to use a probability model to infer the likelihood of the hidden cause:

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{POSTERIOR BELIEF} \\
 P(\text{cause} | \text{observation}) = \frac{P(\text{observation} | \text{cause})}{P(\text{observation})} P(\text{cause}) \\
 \text{HYPOTHESIS} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{EVIDENCE} \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{PRIOR BELIEF}
 \end{array}$$

- We can think about some events as being **hidden** causes: not necessarily directly observed (i.e. a cavity)
- Observations **must have arisen** because of **one** of the hypothesised causes. We **cannot** reason directly about causes we have not imagined.
- Sometimes is **easier** to model how **likely observable effects** are given **hidden causes**: $P(\text{toothache} \mid \text{cavity})$
- In fact good models of $P(\text{observation} \mid \text{cause})$ are **often available** to us in real domains (i.e. medical diagnosis)

- If we know $P(\text{observation} \mid \text{cause})$ for **every cause**, we can avoid having to know $P(\text{observation})$:

$$P(\text{cause} \mid \text{effect}) = \frac{P(\text{effect} \mid \text{cause}) P(\text{cause})}{P(\text{effect})} = \frac{P(\text{effect} \mid \text{cause}) P(\text{cause})}{\sum_{\forall c \in \text{Causes}} P(\text{effect} \mid c) P(c)}$$

- Sometimes it's harder to find out $P(\text{effect} \mid \text{cause})$ for **all causes** independently than it is simply to find out $P(\text{effect})$

Suppose a **doctor** knows that:

- **Meningitis** causes a **stiff neck** in 50% of cases:

$$P(s \mid m) = 0.5$$

- She also knows that the **probability** in the general population of someone having a **stiff neck** at **any time** is 1/20:

$$P(s) = 0.05$$

- She also has to know the incidence of meningitis in the population is 1/50,000:

$$P(m) = 0.00002$$

- Using Bayes' rule, she can calculate the **probability** the patient has meningitis:

$$P(m \mid s) = \frac{P(s \mid m) P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.5 \times 0.00002}{0.05} = 0.0002 = 1/5000$$

- Why wouldn't the doctor be better off if she just knew the **likelihood of meningitis** given a **stiff neck**? I.e. information in the diagnostic direction from symptoms to causes?
- Because **diagnostic knowledge** is often more fragile than **causal knowledge**
- Suppose there was a meningitis epidemic? The rate of meningitis goes up 20 times within a group:

$$P(m | s) = \frac{P(s | m) P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.5 \times 0.0004}{0.05} = 0.004 = 1/250$$

- The **conditional belief** $P(s|m)$ is unaffected by the change in $P(m)$, whereas the diagnostic model $P(m|s) = 1/5000$ is now **completely wrong**.

PRACTICE

Exercises from the textbook:
any exercise of chapter 13

QUESTIONS ?

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

COMP 131

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