COMP111: Artificial Intelligence

Section 9b. Reasoning under Uncertainty 2b

Frank Wolter

Content

- ► (Conditional) Independence and Belief Networks
- Expected Value
- Expected Value and Decision Making

Independence to the Rescue

Random variables F and G are independent if

$$\mathbf{P}(F,G) = \mathbf{P}(F) \times \mathbf{P}(G),$$

that is, for all values r and s

$$P(F = r, G = s) = P(F = r) \times P(G = s)$$

As one's dental problems do not influence the weather, the pairs of random variables

- Toothache, Weather,
- Catch, Weather
- Cavity, Weather

are each independent.

Example: Weather and Dental Problems

The full joint probability distribution

P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity, Weather)

has 32 entries. It contains four tables for the variables *Toothache*, *Catch*, *Cavity*. One for each kind of weather from

sunny, rain, cloudy, snow

Thus, we have

8 probabilities for (Weather = sunny):

$$P(Weather = sunny, Toothache = r_1, Catch = r_2, Cavity = r_3)$$

8 probabilities for (Weather = rain):

$$P(Weather = rain, Toothache = r_1, Catch = r_2, Cavity = r_3)$$

▶ and so on for (Weather = cloudy) and (Weather = snow).

What is the relationship between these editions?

Example: Weather and Dental Problems

Clearly we can make the independence assumption that for any combination of values of the random variables *Toothache*, *Catch*, *Cavity*, the the probabilities for *Weather*. For example,

$$P(Weather = sunny | Toothache = r_1, Catch = r_2, Cavity = r_3)$$

= $P(Weather = sunny)$

for all $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in \{0, 1\}$.

Thus, equivalently,

$$P(Weather = sunny, Toothache = r_1, Catch = r_2, Cavity = r_3)$$

= $P(Weather = sunny)P(Toothache = r_1, Catch = r_2, Cavity = r_3)$

for all $r_1, r_2, r_3 \in \{0, 1\}$.

The same equations hold for rain, cloudy, and snow.

Example: Weather and Dental Problems

We have seen that the joint probability distribution

can be written as:

$$P(Weather) \times P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)$$

The 32-element table for four variables can be constructed from one 4-element table and one 8-element table.

Independence Analysis

- ▶ Dentist domain: the variables *Toothache*, *Catch*, and *Cavity* are all dependent on each other.
- Student exam domain with variables Grade, Answers, Background, Works_hard:
 It seems reasonable to assume that Background and Works_hard are independent. No other pair is independent.
- Fire alarm domain: Fire, Alarm, Tampering, Smoke, Leaving, and Report.
 It seems reasonable to assume that Tampering and Fire, and Tampering and Smoke are independent. No other pair is independent.

We conclude that independence is rare. We will now turn to conditional independence.

Conditional Independence

Random variables G, F are conditionally independent given H_1, \ldots, H_n if

$$\mathbf{P}(G, F \mid H_1, \dots, H_n) = \mathbf{P}(G \mid H_1, \dots, H_n) \times \mathbf{P}(F \mid H_1, \dots, H_n)$$

or, equivalently,

$$\mathbf{P}(G \mid F, H_1, \dots, H_n) = \mathbf{P}(G \mid H_1, \dots, H_n)$$

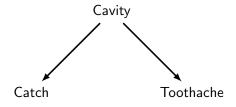
Example: Dentistry

In the dentist domain it seems reasonable to assert conditional independence of the variables *Toothache* and *Catch*, given *Cavity*:

$$P(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch} \mid \textit{Cavity}) = P(\textit{Toothache} \mid \textit{Cavity})P(\textit{Catch} \mid \textit{Cavity})$$

or, equivalently,

$$P(Toothache \mid Cavity) = P(Toothache \mid Catch, Cavity)$$



How does this help?

Example: Dentistry

Using conditional independence of *Catch* and *Toothache* given *Cavity* we can compute the joint probability distribution

using only the probability distributions:

$$P(Toothache \mid Cavity), P(Catch \mid Cavity), P(Cavity)$$

The computation is as follows (using first multiplication rule and then conditional independence):

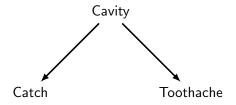
- P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)
- $= P(Toothache, Catch \mid Cavity) \times P(Cavity)$
- $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache} \mid \textit{Cavity}) \times \mathbf{P}(\textit{Catch} \mid \textit{Cavity}) \times \mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity})$

The number of probabilities needed is reduced to 5. Moreover, these probabilites can often be learned from data.

Towards Belief Networks

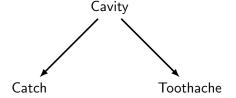
Conditional independence can be used to give concise representations of many domains.

A belief network (Bayesian network) is a graphical probabilistic model of a domain in which nodes represent random variables and arcs probabilistic dependence (often causality).



Towards Belief Networks

Informally, if there is an arc from a random variable F to another random variable G then G depends on F. F is called a parent of G. It is assumed that there are no cycles and that any random variable G is conditionally independ of any non-parent variable G' given the parents of G if G' cannot be reached by a sequence of arcs from G. For example:



The full joint probability distribution is then given as

$$\prod_{F \text{ in network}} \mathbf{P}(F \mid \mathsf{parents}(F))$$

In the example $P(Toothache \mid Cavity) \times P(Catch \mid Cavity) \times P(Cavity)$.

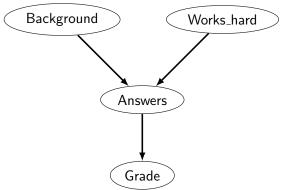
Student Exam Domain

Variables: Grade, Answers, Background, Works_hard.

Then it seems reasonable to assume that

- Works_hard and Background are independent;
- Grade and Works_hard are independent given Answers and Grade and Background are independent given Answers.

We represent this modeling of the domain using the Belief Network:



Fire Alarm Domain

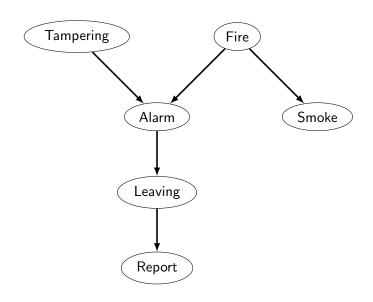
Recall the fire alarm system and reporting domain with random variables (all take value 0 or 1):

- Fire: there is fire;
- Alarm: the alarm goes off;
- ► *Tampering*: there is tampering with the alarm system;
- Smoke: there is smoke (no smoke detector used);
- Leaving: people leave the building;
- Report: it is reported that people leave the building (reporting not always correct).

Assume

- Fire is conditionally independent of Tampering;
- Alarm depends on Fire and Tampering;
- ► Smoke depends only on Fire and is conditionally independent of Tampering and Alarm given Fire;
- Leaving is conditionally independent of the other variables above given Alarm;
- Report only directly depends on Leaving.

Fire Alarm Domain



Joint Probability Distribution from $P(F \mid parents(F))$

Given a Belief Network, we can always assume an ordering

$$F_1,\ldots,F_n$$

of its random variables such that for all i, j:

$$F_i \rightarrow F_j$$
 implies $i < j$

In our example, we can order the random variables as follows:

 $Background, Works_hard, Answers, Grade$

Tampering, Fire, Alarm, Smoke, Leaving, Report

Joint Probability Distribution from $P(F \mid parents(F))$

According to the Chain Rule (proof on Exercise 8), given F_1, \ldots, F_n , we have for all r_1, \ldots, r_n :

$$P(F_{1} = r_{1}, ..., F_{n} = r_{n}) = P(F_{1} = r_{1}) \times P(F_{2} = r_{2} \mid F_{1} = r_{1}) \times P(F_{3} = r_{3} \mid F_{1} = r_{1}, F_{2} = r_{2}) \times ... P(F_{n} = r_{n} \mid F_{1} = r_{1}, ..., F_{n-1} = r_{n-1})$$

Using bold P notation this means:

$$\mathbf{P}(F_1, \dots, F_n) = \mathbf{P}(F_1) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_2 \mid F_1) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_3 \mid F_1, F_2) \times \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{P}(F_n \mid F_1, \dots, F_{n-1})$$

Joint Probability Distribution from $P(F \mid parents(F))$

$$\mathbf{P}(F_1, \dots, F_n) = \mathbf{P}(F_1) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_2 \mid F_1) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_3 \mid F_1, F_2) \times \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{P}(F_n \mid F_1, \dots, F_{n-1})$$

As parents $(F_i) \subseteq \{F_1, \dots, F_{i-1}\}$ conditional independence implies:

$$\mathbf{P}(F_i \mid F_1, \dots, F_{i-1}) = \mathbf{P}(F_i \mid \mathsf{parents}(F_i))$$

Thus:

$$\mathbf{P}(F_1, \dots, F_n) = \mathbf{P}(F_1) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_2 \mid \mathsf{parents}(F_2)) \times \\ \mathbf{P}(F_3 \mid \mathsf{parents}(F_3)) \times \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{P}(F_n \mid \mathsf{parents}(F_n))$$

Example: Student Exam Domain

The full joint probability distribution

P(Background, Works_hard, Answers, Grade)

can then be computed as

P(Background) ×

P(Works_hard) ×

 $P(Answers \mid Background, Works_hard) \times$

P(*Grade* | *Answers*)

Example: Fire Alarm

The full joint probability distribution

can then be computed as

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P(Tampering) \times P(Fire) \times P(Fire) \times P(Alarm \mid Tampering, Fire) \times P(Smoke \mid Fire) \times P(Leaving \mid Alarm) \times P(Report \mid Leaving) \times
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The full joint probability table requires $2^6 - 1$ entries. Only 12 entries are needed for the conditional probabilities.

Fire Alarm Domain

Assume the following (conditional) probabilities (where we write $P(A \mid B)$ for $P(A = 1 \mid B = 1)$, $P(\neg A \mid B)$ for $P(A = 0 \mid B = 1)$ and so on):

- ► *P*(*Tampering*) = 0.02
- ▶ P(Fire) = 0.01
- $P(Smoke \mid Fire) = 0.9$
- ▶ $P(Smoke | \neg Fire) = 0.01$
- ► $P(Alarm \mid Fire \land Tampering) = 0.5$
- ► $P(Alarm \mid Fire \land \neg Tampering) = 0.99$ ► $P(Alarm \mid \neg Fire \land Tampering) = 0.85$
- ▶ $P(Alarm \mid \neg Fire \land \neg Tampering) = 0.0001$
- $ightharpoonup P(Leaving \mid Alarm) = 0.88$
- $ightharpoonup P(Leaving \mid \neg Alarm) = 0.001$
- ▶ $P(Report \mid Leaving) = 0.75$
- $ightharpoonup P(Report \mid \neg Leaving) = 0.01$

Querying

If Report is observed, then the probability of Fire and Tampering go up:

- ▶ P(Fire) = 0.01 and $P(Fire \mid Report) = 0.2305$
- ▶ P(Tampering) = 0.02 and $P(Tampering \mid Report) = 0.399$

If, in addition, Smoke is observed, then probability of Fire goes up further but Tampering goes down:

- ▶ $P(Fire \mid Report \land Smoke) = 0.964$
- ▶ $P(Tampering \mid Report \land Smoke) = 0.0284$

If, however, \neg Smoke is observed, then the probability of Fire goes down:

- ▶ $P(Fire \mid Report \land \neg Smoke) = 0.0294$
- ▶ $P(Tampering \mid Report \land \neg Smoke) = 0.501$

Summary Belief Networks

- ▶ Belief networks are a representation of conditional independence in probabilistic models.
- Querying can often be done using exact inference (with algorithmic tricks).
- Sometimes exact inference too hard. There are also approximate algorithms.
- Lots of research on learning belief networks from data. Either learning the conditional probabilities or even the structure of a belief network.

Expectation: motivation

- ► Consider a random variable F with values from the real numbers x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- Assume $P(F = x_i) = 1/n$ for all x_i .
- ▶ Then the expected value E[F] of F is the average over the possible values x_1, \ldots, x_n of F:

$$\frac{x_1+\cdots+x_n}{n}=x_1\frac{1}{n}+\cdots+x_n\frac{1}{n}=\sum_{x_i}x_iP(F=x_i)$$

▶ If the probabilities $P(F = x_i)$ are not all equal, we take the probability-weighted average.

Expectation

Assume that $x_1, ..., x_n$ are the values a random variable F can take. Then the expected value of F is defined as follows:

$$E[F] = x_1 P(F = x_1) + \cdots + x_n P(F = x_n) = \sum_{x} x P(F = x)$$

In other words, E[F] is the probability-weighted average of all possible values of F.

E[F] is sometimes called the expectation of F or the mean of F.

Example

Suppose you roll a fair die.

To model this take a random variable F with values in

$$\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$$

and set P(F = x) = 1/6 for all $x \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

The expected value of the random variable F is

$$E[F] = \sum_{x} xP(F = x)$$

$$= 1P(F = 1) + 2P(F = 2) + 3P(F = 3)$$

$$+4P(F = 4) + 5P(F = 5) + 6P(F = 6)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} + \frac{2}{6} + \frac{3}{6} + \frac{4}{6} + \frac{5}{6} + \frac{6}{6}$$

$$= \frac{7}{2}$$

Example

Suppose I pay, in *p*, the face value of a fair die if it comes up odd and earn the face value if it comes up even. What are my expectations?

- ▶ Consider the random variable F that takes values $\{-1, -3, -5, 2, 4, 6\}$ and P(F = x) = 1/6 for all $x \in \{-1, -3, -5, 2, 4, 6\}$.
- ▶ For example, (F = -1) is the event that the face value is 1 and, thus, I pay 1p.

The expected value of the random variable F is

$$E[F] = \sum_{x} xP(F = x)$$

$$= -P(F = -1) + 2P(F = 2) - 3P(F = -3)$$

$$+4P(F = 4) - 5P(F = -5) + 6P(F = 6)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{6} + \frac{2}{6} - \frac{3}{6} + \frac{4}{6} - \frac{5}{6} + \frac{6}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

Another way to compute E[F]

Let F be a random variable from the probability space (S, P). Then

$$E[F] = \sum_{s \in S} F(s)P(s)$$

Proof. Assume F takes the values $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. Then

$$\sum_{s \in S} F(s)P(s) = \sum_{F(s)=x_1} F(s)P(s) + \dots + \sum_{F(s)=x_n} F(s)P(s)$$

$$= x_1 \sum_{F(s)=x_1} P(s) + \dots + x_n \sum_{F(s)=x_n} P(s)$$

$$= x_1P(F = x_1) + \dots + x_nP(F = x_n)$$

$$= E[F]$$

Linearity of Expectations

Let F and G be random variables from the same probability space (S, P) and let λ be a real number. Define new random variables F + G and λF by setting:

$$(F+G)(s) = F(s) + G(s), \quad (\lambda F)(s) = \lambda F(s)$$

Then

$$E[F+G] = E[F] + E[G], \quad E[\lambda F] = \lambda E[F]$$

Proof. We prove the first claim using the reformulation of the expected value from the previous slide.

$$E[F+G] = \sum_{s \in S} (F+G)(s)P(s)$$

$$= \sum_{s \in S} (F(s)P(s)+G(s)P(s))$$

$$= \sum_{s \in S} F(s)P(s) + \sum_{s \in S} G(s)P(s)$$

$$= E[F] + E[G]$$

Example: Rolling two dice again

What is the expected value of the random variable F with F(ab) = a + b from

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}^2$$

where $P(ab) = \frac{1}{36}$ for every $ab \in S$?

Note that $F(ab) = F_1(ab) + F_2(ab)$, where F_1 is the random variable from S with

$$F_1(ab) = a$$

and F_2 is the random variable from S with

$$F_2(ab) = b$$

We have

$$E(F) = E(F_1 + F_2) = E(F_1) + E(F_2) = \frac{7}{2} + \frac{7}{2} = 7$$

Expectation does not distribute over multiplication

If F and G are two random variables then, $E[F \times G]$ does not always equal $E[F] \times E[G]$.

Proof by counterexample. Consider the sample space (S, P) with

$$S = \{H, T\}, P(H) = P(T) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Define random variables F_h and F_t by setting

$$F_h(H) = 1$$
, $F_h(T) = 0$, $F_t(H) = 0$, $F_t(T) = 1$

and define the random variable F by setting $F(s) = F_h(s) \times F_t(s)$.

Then $F(s) = F_h(s) \times F_t(s) = 0$ for all $s \in S$ and so E[F] = 0 but $E(F_h) \times E(F_t) = \frac{1}{4}$ since

$$E[F_h] = 1 \times \frac{1}{2} + 0 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad E[F_t] = 0 \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Expectation and Decision Making

Consider an agent who has to deliver a mail. There is a short way and a long way to deliver it. On the short way, it is more likely that the agent will have an accident. Suppose the agent can get protectors that will not change the probability of an accident but will make one less severe. The protectors are expensive, however. Going the long way reduces the probability of an accident, but takes much longer.

Problem: the agent has to decide whether to wear protectors and which way to go.

We model this situation using

- ► Two decision variables, *Which_way* and *Protector*. The agent gets to choose the value for each decision variable.
- ► A random variable, *Accident*, which represents whether an accident happens.
- ► A utility function that gives the utility of every possible outcome.

Conditional Probability Distribution

Recall that the probability of an accident only depends on whether the long or short way is chosen but not on whether the agent is wearing protectors. Thus, all we need is the conditional probability distribution

Assume this is given by

- ▶ $P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = short) = 0.2$
- ▶ $P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = short) = 0.8$
- ▶ $P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = long) = 0.01$
- $ightharpoonup P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = long) = 0.99$

Utility

The utility of the outcome depends on whether a short or long way is chosen, whether the agent wears protectors, and whether the agent has an accident. Assume the utility values are as follows:

Protector	Which_way	Accident	Utility
true	short	true	35
true	short	false	95
true	long	true	30
true	long	false	75
false	short	true	3
false	short	false	100
false	long	true	0
false	long	false	80

What to do? Maximize Expected Utility!

Choose Protector and $Which_way$ in such a way that the expected utility is maximal: choose values r, s such that

$$E[Utility \mid Protector = r, Which_way = s]$$

is maximal.

We compute $E[Utility \mid Protector = 1, Which_way = short]$ by taking the sum of

- ▶ the value 35 of the utility of (*Protector* \land *short* \land *Accident*) multiplied by $P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = short)$;
- ▶ the value 95 of the utility of (*Protector* \land *short* $\land \neg Accident$) multiplied by $P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = short)$.

We obtain:

83 =
$$35 \times P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = short) + 95 \times P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = short)$$

Maximize Expected Utility

$$E[Utility \mid Protector = 1, Which_way = long]$$
 equals
 $74.55 = 30 \times P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = long) + 75 \times P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = long)$

$$E[Utility \mid Protector = 0, Which_way = short]$$
 equals

80.6 =
$$3 \times P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = short) + 100 \times P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = short)$$

$$E[Utility \mid Protector = 0, Which_way = long]$$
 equals

79.2 =
$$0 \times P(Accident = 1 \mid Which_way = long) + 80 \times P(Accident = 0 \mid Which_way = long)$$

As $E[Utility \mid Protector = 1, Which_way = short]$ is maximal, a rational agent should wear protectors and take the short way.

Journey to Manchester Airport

Recall the following example from the introduction: When going to the airport by car, how early should I start? 45 minutes should be enough from Liverpool to Manchester Airport, but only under the assumption that there are no accidents, no lane closures, that my car does not break down, and so on. This uncertainty is hard to eliminate, but still an agent has to make a decision.

Within the framework of "maximizing expected utility" this problem can be modeled as follows.

Journey to Manchester Airport

Consider a random variable Arrival taking values:

- miss_plane,
- ▶ wait_0_minutes, wait_5_minutes, wait_10_minutes, and so on

Consider the decision variable Start taking values:

▶ 45minutes_early, 50minutes_early, and so on.

Assume from experience/data we have a probability distribution

Finally, consider utility values associated with the values of the random variables Arrival: miss_plane has very low utility, wait_0_minutes high utilility, and so on.

Then the agent should choose the value r for Start such that the expected utility

$$E[Utility \mid Start = r]$$

is maximal.