

# Artificial Intelligence (CS303)

## Lecture 8: Representing Uncertainty

# Hints for this lecture

- An agent can seldom precisely know the state, knowledge should be represented such that wise decisions/actions can still be made.

# Outline of this lecture

- **Uncertainty and Rational Decisions**
- **Basic Probability Theory and Its Use**
- **Bayesian Network**

# **I. Uncertainty and Rational Decisions**

# The World is Uncertain

- We never know what “state” we are in exactly, because the world is only partially observable (to us).
- Agents may encounter similar situations in a real-world AI task.
- Maintaining the belief states is a possible approach, but impractical
  - Combinatorial explosion
  - An agent may not do multiple (possibly conflict actions) in one state.

# Alternative

- Utility theory: Assign utility to each state/actions
- Probability theory: Summarize the uncertainty associated with each state
- Rational Decisions: Maximize the **expected utility** (Probability + Utility)
- Thus we need to represent states in a language of probability.

## **II. Basic Probability Theory and Its Use**

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

- Joint probability distribution specifies probability of every atomic event.
- Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events.

	<i>toothache</i>		$\neg$ <i>toothache</i>	
	<i>catch</i>	$\neg$ <i>catch</i>	<i>catch</i>	$\neg$ <i>catch</i>
<i>cavity</i>	<b>.108</b>	<b>.012</b>	<b>.072</b>	<b>.008</b>
$\neg$ <i>cavity</i>	<b>.016</b>	<b>.064</b>	<b>.144</b>	<b>.576</b>



# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Prior probability

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g.,  $P(\text{Cavity} = \text{true}) = 0.1$  and  $P(\text{Weather} = \text{sunny}) = 0.72$

correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments:

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$  (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)

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

<i>Weather =</i>	<i>sunny</i>	<i>rain</i>	<i>cloudy</i>	<i>snow</i>
<i>Cavity = true</i>	0.144	0.02	0.016	0.02
<i>Cavity = false</i>	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

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Conditional probability

Conditional or posterior probabilities

e.g.,  $P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}) = 0.8$

i.e., **given that toothache is all I know**

**NOT** “if *toothache* then 80% chance of *cavity*”

(Notation for conditional distributions:

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Cavity}|\text{Toothache}) = 2\text{-element vector of 2-element vectors})$

If we know more, e.g., *cavity* is also given, then we have

$P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}, \text{cavity}) = 1$

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.,

$P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}, \text{49ersWin}) = P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}) = 0.8$

This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Conditional probability

Definition of conditional probability:

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

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.,

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

(View as a  $4 \times 2$  set of equations, **not** matrix mult.)

Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

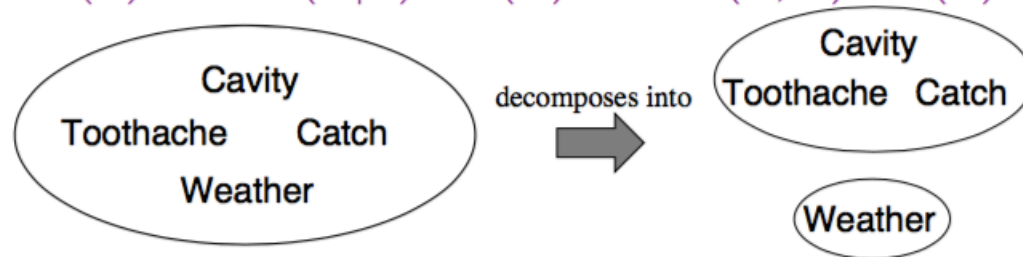
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-2}) \mathbf{P}(X_{n-1}|X_1, \dots, X_{n-2}) \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \dots \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Independence

$A$  and  $B$  are independent iff

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



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

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?

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Bayes' Rule

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

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

or in distribution form

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

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

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

# Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

## Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}|\textit{toothache} \wedge \textit{catch}) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(\textit{toothache} \wedge \textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(\textit{toothache}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}) \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of a **naive Bayes** model:

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

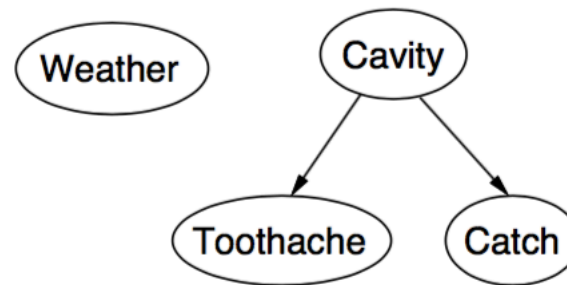


Total number of parameters is **linear** in  $n$

# III. Bayesian Networks

# What is a BN?

- A Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG).
- Each node is a random variable, associated with conditional distribution.
- Each arc (link) represent direct influence of a parent node to a child node.

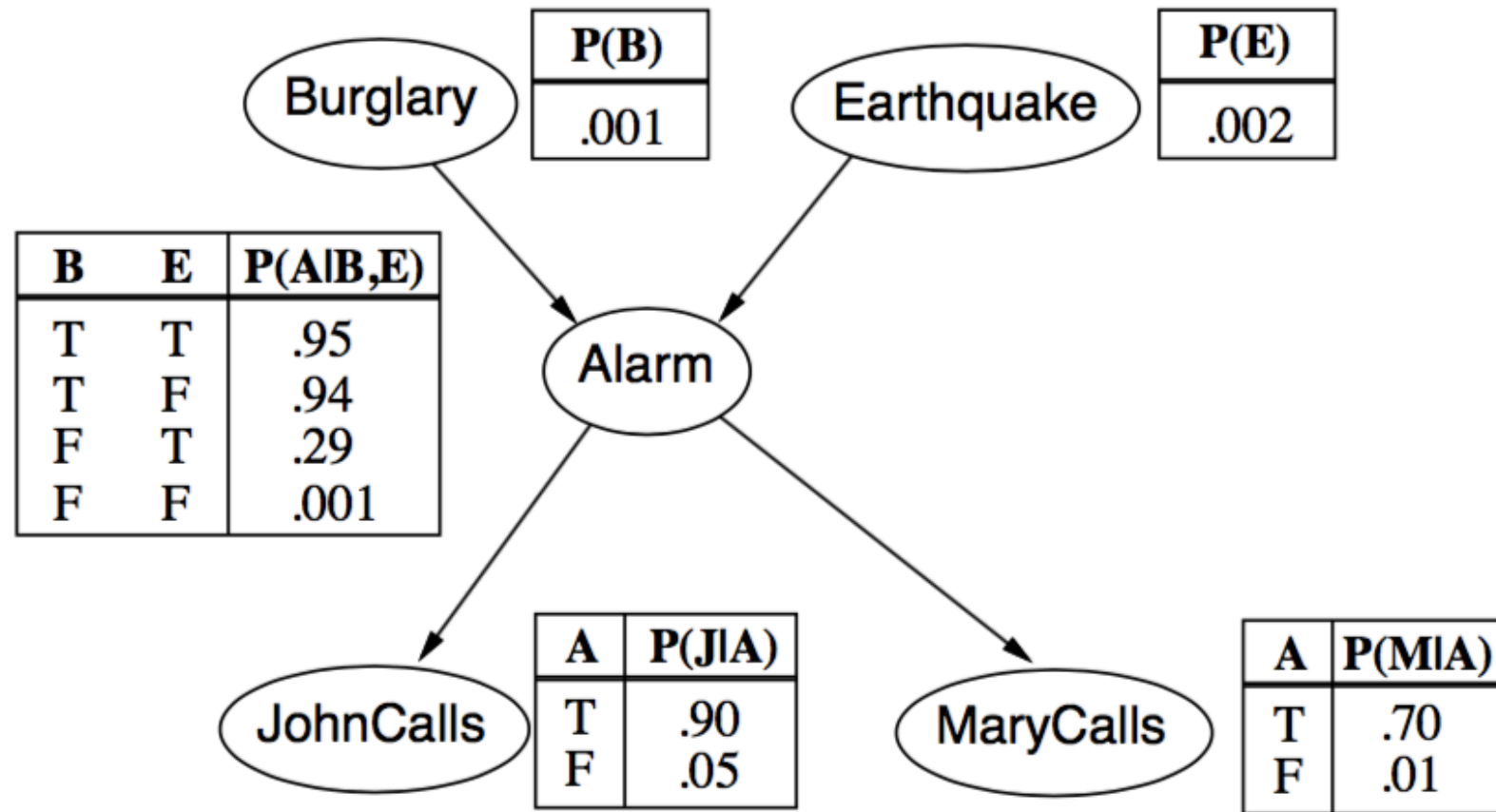


*Weather* is independent of the other variables

*Toothache* and *Catch* are conditionally independent given *Cavity*



# What is a BN?



# Why BN?

- More compact representation.

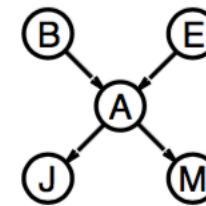
A CPT for Boolean  $X_i$  with  $k$  Boolean parents has  $2^k$  rows for the combinations of parent values

Each row requires one number  $p$  for  $X_i = \text{true}$  (the number for  $X_i = \text{false}$  is just  $1 - p$ )

If each variable has no more than  $k$  parents, the complete network requires  $O(n \cdot 2^k)$  numbers

I.e., grows linearly with  $n$ , vs.  $O(2^n)$  for the full joint distribution

For burglary net,  $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$  numbers (vs.  $2^5 - 1 = 31$ )



- Easier to utilize independence and conditional dependence relations to define the full joint distribution.

# How to construct a BN?

1. Choose an ordering of variables  $X_1, \dots, X_n$
2. For  $i = 1$  to  $n$ 
  - add  $X_i$  to the network
  - select parents from  $X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}$  such that
$$\mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) = \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \quad (\text{chain rule}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) \quad (\text{by construction})\end{aligned}$$

To be continued