Lecture 5 Propositional Logic

1. Inferencing Methods

1.1 Model Checking Exhaustive truth table

enumeration (brute-force)

 $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$

 $(\alpha \to \beta) \land (\beta \to \alpha)$

1.2 Proof by Deduction

- a. Modus Ponens (top right corner 1)
- AND-Elimination rules (trc2)
- c. Inferencing rules (right)

d. Forward/Backward Chaining 1.3 Proof by Contradiction

Resolution Theorem

Converts inferencing problem into SAT problem with clauses as constraints.

Relies on two tools: Refutation and Resolution a. Resolution

Given either X or Y are true.

If we know not X is true, then we can resolve Y as true.

$$\{X \vee Y, \neg X\} \models Y$$

$$\{(X \lor Y) \land (\neg X)\} \models Y$$

Refutation (Proof by contradiction)

 $KB \models \alpha$ if and only if $KB \land \neg \alpha$ is a contradiction $KB \models \alpha$ if and only if $KB \land \neg \alpha \models false$

Examples:

Fact

Goal Clause

• Ex: $(\neg X \lor \neg Y)$

• (X V Y) is not a definite clause

(¬X ∨ Y) is a definite clause

 $(\neg X \lor \neg Y)$ is not a definite clause

Two positive literals

One positive literal

No positive literal

· One positive literal

· Horn clause with single positive lite

• Horn clause with no positive literal

• $(\neg X \lor \neg Y) \equiv (X \land Y \Rightarrow False)$

X is a definite clause

• $X \equiv (True \Rightarrow X)$

Grammar for CNF

Disjunction of (conjunction of laterals)

Propositional Definite Clauses

Must contain exactly 1 positive literal Definite clauses can be written as implications because

$$X \to Y \equiv (\neg X \lor Y)$$

Example:

$$(\neg X \lor \neg Y \lor Z) \equiv X \land Y \to Z$$

- 4. Horn Clauses: Allows at most 1 positive literal
 - Closed under resolution
 - · Resolvent of two Horn clauses is a Horn clause
 - - $((\neg X \lor \neg Y \lor \neg Z) \land (\neg X \lor \neg Y \lor Z)) \vDash (\neg X \lor \neg Y)$

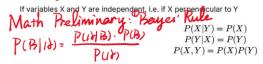
5. Fact and Goal Clauses (right)

- 6. Forward & Backward Chaining
- **6.1 Backward Chaining**
 - a. Start with query alpha
 - Find the implications whose **conclusion is alpha**
 - Recursively prove the **antecedents** of each implication

- d. If at least one of the antecedents can not be proved to be true, return False
- 6.2 Which method to choose?
- (a) Forward Chaining: Known facts are available. Goalindependent reasoning. Exhaustively derive conclusions.
- (b) Backward Chaining: Specific goal or query is given. Goaloriented reasoning. Efficiency gained by pruning the search space.
- (c) If the KB contains NON-definite clauses (like A ⇔ B V
- E), we can't use forward/backward chaining. We should use resolution-refutation instead.

Lecture 6 Probabilistic Reasoning

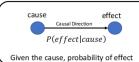
1. Independent Events



If X and Y are conditionally independent given a variable Z then P((A,B) = P(A|B) P(B) = P(B|A) P(A). P(X|Y,Z) = P(X|Z)Law of total probability: P(Y|X,Z) = P(Y|Z) $P(Id) = \sum P(Id|B_n) \cdot P(B_n) P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z)P(Y|Z)$

2. Evidential Reasoning and Causal Reasoning

Causal Direction: P(symptoms|disease)Causal Reasoning



Diagnostic Direction: P(disease|symptoms) **Evidential Reasoning**

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Tips for converting

propositional

symbols:

natural language into

1. Unless A ,does not

B 就 A = B->A

2. A only if B = A -> B

4. A if and only if B =

3. A if B = B -> A

A ⇔ B

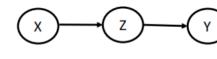
B = 不 A 就不 B =

P(cause|effect) Given the effect, probability of the cause

Diagnostic knowledge

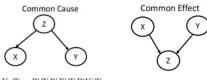
Components of Bayesian Networks

3.1 Casual Chain



$$P(X,Y,Z) = P(X)P(Z|X)P(Y|Z)$$

3.2 Common Cause and Common Effe

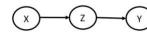


P(X,Y,Z) = P(Z)P(X|Z)P(Y|Z)

P(X,Y,Z) = P(X)P(Y)P(Z|X,Y)

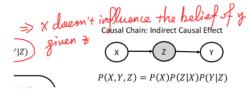
4. Dependencies in Causal Chains

Causal Chain: Indirect Causal Effect



P(X,Y,Z) = P(X)P(Z|X)P(Y|Z)

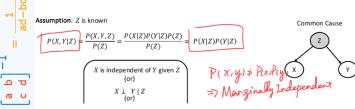
5.1 d-Separation in Causal Chains



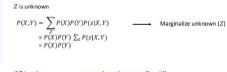
Assume evidence on Z, i.e. Z is known

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

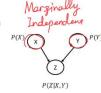
d-Separation in Common Cause



5.3 d-Separation in Common Effect

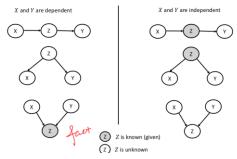


If Z is unknown, we are not sure about the events X and Y



If Z is known, then knowledge of X reduces the uncertainty about Y

5.4 d-Separation summary



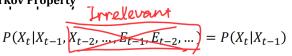
೨.5 Identifying d-separation



- Given a set of nodes Z, are the set of nodes X conditionally independent of set of nodes Y?
 - 1. Consider the ancestral subgraph consisting of X, Y, and Z
 - 2. Construct Moral Graph, i.e., add links between any unlinked pair of nodes that share a
 - 3. Replace directed links by undirected links
 - 4. If Z blocks all paths between X and Y in the resulting graph, then Z d-separates X and Y

Lecture 7 Hidden Markov Models

1. Markov Property



2. Joint distribution

▼ Markov Models: Joint Distribution

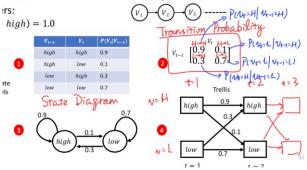


Joint distribution of the first n variables:

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_t) = P(X_1) \prod_{i=2}^{n} P(X_i | X_{i-1})$$

Transition in Markov Chains

3.1 Transition model representations



3.2 Transition matrix

Same previous state -> same row in matrix

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} P(V_2 = high|V_1 = high) & P(V_2 = low|V_1 = high) \\ P(V_2 = high|V_1 = low) & P(V_2 = low|V_1 = low) \end{bmatrix}$$

3.3 Calculating the probability distribution of the next state

a. Next state

$$\mathbf{P}(V_2) = \mathbf{T}^T \mathbf{P}(V_1)$$

$$P(V_2 = high)$$

Next n states

$$P(X_{n+1}) = T^T P(X_n) = (T^T)^n P(X_1)$$

3.4 Stationary Distribution properties

Stationary distribution is independent of the initial distribution. Properties of stationary distribution:

$$\begin{split} P_{\infty}(X) &= P_{\infty+1}(X) \\ P(X_{\infty}) &= T^T P(X_{\infty}) \\ P_{\infty}(X) &= \sum_x P(X|x) P_{\infty}(x) \\ \sum_x P_{\infty}(X) &= 1 \end{split}$$

In practice, we usually use these equations:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} P(X_{\infty} = H) & = & P(H|H)P(X_{\infty} = H) + P(H|L)P(X_{\infty} = L) \\ P(X_{\infty} = L) & = & P(L|H)P(X_{\infty} = H) + P(L|L)P(X_{\infty} = L) \\ P(X_{\infty} = H) + P(X_{\infty} = L) & = & 1 \end{array}$$

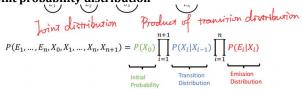
Hidden Markov Models

4.1 Observation property

Current observation is independent of everything else given the current state

$$P(E_t|E_1,...,E_{t-1},E_{t+1}...,E_n,X_{0:n+1}) = P(E_t|X_t)$$

4.2 Joint probability distribution



4.3 Bayesian Recursive Filtering

- · Objective:
 - Calculation of $B(X_{t+1}) = P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) \ \forall t$
- Solution: Recursive Filtering

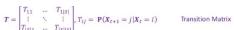
$$f_{1:t+1} = \alpha \underbrace{0}_{T} T^{T} f_{1:t}$$

$$f_{1:t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} B(X_{t+1} = 1) \\ \vdots \\ B(X_{t+1} = |S|) \end{bmatrix}$$
Probability distribution of states at time t -

$$f_{1:t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ B(X_{t+1} = |S|) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} B(X_t = 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$f_{1:t} = \begin{bmatrix} B(X_t = 1) \\ \vdots \\ B(X_t = |S|) \end{bmatrix}$$





B(X+)=P(X+le1+)

Hint: for P(X1|E1)try converting to joint p. First, then break it down **Lecture 8 Markov Decision Process**

1. Bellman's Update Equation for Utility

• Expected utility of state s with a policy π

to state s' with action $\pi(s)$ at state s

 $U^{\pi}(s) = P(s'|\pi(s), s)[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma U^{\pi}(s')]$

with policy π

D. 1 (+10) + P2 (2+20) + P3 (3+30)



Utility of a state is expressed in terms of utility of neighbors

O(s,a): expected value of action a at state s

$$Q(s,a) = \sum_{s'} P(s'|a,s) [R(s,a,s') + \gamma U(s')]$$

 $U(s) = \max_{a \in A(s)} Q(s, a)$

2. Policy Iteration

- Start with a **random policy** pi_i
- Policy evaluation: calculate utility values for the policy pi_i

- Policy improvement: Create new policy pi_{i+1} based on utility values
- d) Repeat the above steps until no change in policy

3. Value Iteration

- ▼ Value Iteration (VI)
 - Start with U_i(s) = 0 for all s
 - · Calculate Q values and update Utility values
 - · Once utility values converge to optimal values, select the corresponding policy

Lecture 9&10 Introduction to Learning, PLA

1. Linear Regression

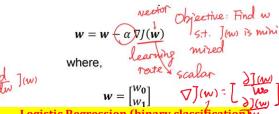
X usually needs to be augmented with a column of 1 at left!

1.1 Choosing cost functions

Outliers are due to human errors - MAE

Outlier detection is critical - MSE 1.2 What can be done to the value of the learning rate to

- enable better convergence: Start from large steps to reach the optimal value faster, as optimal value is reached, reduce step size to allow for more gradual convergence
- 1.3 Gradient Descent



Logistic Regression (binary classification)

$${\bf 2.1\ One\ hypothesis\ for\ each\ class}$$

$$z_1^{(i)} = \boldsymbol{w}_{cat} \cdot \boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}$$
 and so on so forth

2.2 Output of the classifier

then break it down

2.2 Output of the classifier

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} P(\hat{y}^{(i)} = 1) \\ P(\hat{y}^{(i)} = 2) \\ P(\hat{y}^{(i)} = 3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}_{1}^{(i)} \\ \hat{y}_{2}^{(i)} \\ \hat{y}_{3}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} = Softmax \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_{1}^{(i)} \\ z_{2}^{(i)} \\ z_{3}^{(i)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} softmax(z_{1}^{(i)}) \\ softmax(z_{2}^{(i)}) \\ softmax(z_{3}^{(i)}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V^{\pi}(s) \stackrel{>}{>} R(s) + V(s)$$

$$softmax\left(z_{j}^{(i)}\right) = \frac{e^{z_{j}^{(i)}}}{\sum_{j} e^{z_{j}^{(i)}}} \qquad \text{\rightleftharpoons} \quad \text{\swarrow} \quad \text{\swarrow} \quad \text{\swarrow} \quad \text{\swarrow} \quad \text{\searrow} \quad \text{$\searrow$$

Perceptron Learning Algorithm

Difference between Plit & Gradient Descent? @ Can put the luming

Perceptron Learning Algorithm (PLA)

Frank Rosenblatt (1943)

- For each instance i with features $x^{(i)}$
- Classify $\hat{y}^{(i)} = sgn(w^T x^{(i)})$
- Select one misclassified instance
- Update weights: $w \leftarrow w + \Delta w$ —How do we update w?
- Iterate steps 2 to 3 until
- Convergence (classification error < threshold), or
- Maximum number of iterations

