COMP9414/9814/3411: Artificial Intelligence 13. Uncertainty

Russell & Norvig, Chapter 13.

UNSW (©)AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1 Uncertainty

Uncertainty

Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight Will A_t get me there on time? Problems:

- partial observability, noisy sensors
- uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
- immense complexity of modelling and predicting traffic

Hence a purely logical approach either

- 1) risks falsehood: " A_{25} will get me there on time", or
- 2) leads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making:
- " A_{25} will get me there on time if there's no accident on the bridge and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact etc etc."

 $(A_{1440}$ might be safe but I'd have to stay overnight in the airport ...)

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1 Uncertainty 1

Outline

- Uncertainty
- Probability
- Syntax and Semantics
- Inference
- Independence and Bayes' Rule

UNSW © AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1 Uncertainty 3

Methods for handling Uncertainty

Default or nonmonotonic logic:

Assume my car does not have a flat tire, etc.

Assume A_{25} works unless contradicted by evidence

Issues: What assumptions are reasonable? How to handle contradiction?

Probability

2

Given the available evidence,

 A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04

Mahaviracarya (9th C.), Cardamo (1565) theory of gambling

Probability

Probabilistic assertions summarize effects of

Laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.

Ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective or Bayesian probability:

Probabilities relate propositions to one's own state of knowledge

e.g. $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}) = 0.06$

These are not claims of a "probabilistic tendency" in the current situation (but might be learned from past experience of similar situations)

Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:

e.g. $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}, 5 \text{ a.m.}) = 0.15$

(Analogous to logical entailment status $KB \models \alpha$, not absolute truth)

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

Uncertainty

Probability basics

Begin with a set Ω – the sample space (e.g. 6 possible rolls of a die)

 $\omega \in \Omega$ is a sample point/possible world/atomic event

A probability space or probability model is a sample space $P(x) = P(x) \cdot P(x)$

with an assignment $P(\omega)$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ s.t.

$$0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$$

$$\sum_{\omega} P(\omega) = 1$$

e.g.
$$P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$
.

An event A is any subset of Ω

$$P(A) = \sum_{\{\omega \in A\}} P(\omega)$$

e.g.
$$P(\text{die roll} < 4) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Making decisions under uncertainty

Suppose I believe the following:

 $P(A_{25} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.04$

 $P(A_{90} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.70$

 $P(A_{120} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.95$

 $P(A_{1440} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.9999$

Which action to choose?

Depends on my preferences for missing flight vs. airport cuisine, etc.

Utility theory is used to represent and infer preferences

Decision theory = utility theory + probability theory

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

7

Random variables

A random variable (r.v.) is a function from sample points to some range (e.g. the Reals or Booleans)

For example, Odd(3) = true.

P induces a probability distribution for any r.v. X:

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_{\{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

e.g.,
$$P(\text{Odd} = \text{true}) = P(1) + P(3) + P(5) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Propositions

Think of a proposition as the event (set of sample points) where the proposition is true

Given Boolean random variables A and B:

event
$$a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = \text{true}$$

event $\neg a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = \text{false}$
event $a \wedge b = \text{points where } A(\omega) = \text{true}$ and $B(\omega) = \text{true}$

With Boolean variables, sample point = propositional logic model

e.g.,
$$A = \text{true}, B = \text{false}, \text{ or } a \land \neg b.$$

Proposition = disjunction of atomic events in which it is true

e.g.,
$$(a \lor b) \equiv (\neg a \land b) \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor (a \land b)$$

 $\rightarrow P(a \lor b) = P(\neg a \land b) + P(a \land \neg b) + P(a \land b)$

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

Uncertainty

10

Syntax for propositions

Propositional or Boolean random variables

e.g., Cavity (do I have a cavity?)

Cavity = true is a proposition, also written Cavity

Discrete random variables (finite or infinite)

e.g., Weather is one of (sunny, rain, cloudy, snow)

Weather = rain is a proposition

Values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive

Continuous random variables (bounded or unbounded)

e.g. Temp = 21.6; also allow, e.g. Temp < 22.0

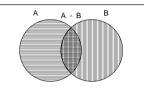
Arbitrary Boolean combinations of basic propositions.

Why use probability?

The definitions imply that certain logically related events must have related probabilities

For example, $P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \land b)$

True



de Finetti (1931): an agent who bets according to probabilities that violate these axioms can be forced to bet so as to lose money regardless of outcome.

IINSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

11

Prior probability

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g. P(Cavity = true) = 0.1 and P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72 correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence.

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments:

 $P(\text{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$ (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)

Joint probability

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) P(Weather, Cavity) is a 4×2 matrix of values:

Weather =	sunny	rain	cloudy	snow
$Cavity = \mathtt{true}$	0.144	0.02	0.016	0.02
$Cavity = \mathtt{false}$	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.

UNSW

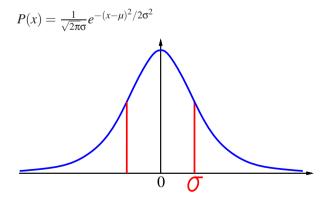
© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

14

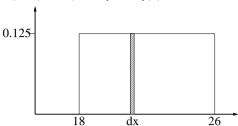
Gaussian density



Probability for continuous variables

Express distribution as a parameterized function.

e.g. P(X = x) = U[18, 26](x) =uniform density between 18 and 26



Here *P* is a density; integrates to 1.

$$P(X = 20.5) = 0.125$$
 really means

$$\lim_{dx\to 0} P(20.5 \le X \le 20.5 + dx)/dx = 0.125$$

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

15

Conditional probability

Conditional or posterior probabilities

e.g., P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8

(Notation for conditional distributions:

P(Cavity|Toothache) = 2-element vector of 2-element vectors)

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

P(cavity|toothache,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(cavity|toothache, 49ersWin) = P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial.

UNSW

17

Conditional probability

Definition of conditional probability:

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

Alternative formulation: $P(a \land b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

A general version holds for whole distributions,

e.g. P(Weather, Cavity) = P(Weather | Cavity) P(Cavity)

(View as a 4×2 set of equations, not matrix multiplication)

Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

$$P(X_1, ..., X_n) = P(X_1, ..., X_{n-1}) P(X_n | X_1, ..., X_{n-1})$$

$$= P(X_1, ..., X_{n-2}) P(X_{n-1} | X_1, ..., X_{n-2}) P(X_n | X_1, ..., X_{n-1})$$

$$= ... = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i | X_1, ..., X_{i-1})$$

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

Uncertainty

18

rtuinty

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

$$P(toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2$$

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

19

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

 $P(\text{cavity} \lor \text{toothache})$

$$= 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28$$

Inference by enumeration

Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	\neg catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

Can also compute conditional probabilities:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} P(\neg Cavity|Toothache) & = & \frac{P(\neg \texttt{cavity} \land \texttt{toothache})}{P(\texttt{toothache})} \\ & = & \frac{0.016 + 0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064} = 0.4 \end{array}$$

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

Uncertainty

22

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

23

Independence

A and B are independent iff

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$
 or $P(B|A) = P(B)$ or $P(A,B) = P(A)P(B)$



P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity, Weather)

= P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity) P(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?

Normalization

	toothache		¬ too	¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch	
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008	
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576	

Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

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

$$= \alpha[P(\text{cavity}, \text{toothache}, \text{catch}) + P(\text{cavity}, \text{toothache}, \neg \text{catch})]$$

Uncertainty

$$= \alpha[\langle 0.108, 0.016 \rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064 \rangle]$$

$$= \quad \alpha \langle 0.12, 0.08 \rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4 \rangle$$

General idea: compute distribution on query variable

by fixing evidence variables and summing over hidden variables

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

Conditional independence

P(Toothache, Cavity, Catch) has $2^3 - 1 = 7$ independent entries

If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:

(1) P(Catch|Toothache, cavity) = P(Catch|cavity)

The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:

(2) $P(Catch|Toothache, \neg cavity) = P(Catch|\neg cavity)$

 ${\tt Catch}\ is\ conditionally\ independent\ of\ {\tt Toothache}\ given\ {\tt Cavity};$

P(Catch|Toothache,Cavity) = P(Catch|Cavity)

Equivalent statements: P(Toothache|Catch,Cavity) = P(Toothache|Cavity)P(Toothache,Catch|Cavity) = P(Toothache|Cavity)P(Catch|Cavity)

Conditional independence contd.

Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:

P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)

- = P(Toothache|Catch,Cavity)P(Catch,Cavity)
- = P(Toothache|Catch,Cavity) P(Catch|Cavity) P(Cavity)
- = P(Toothache|Cavity)P(Catch|Cavity)P(Cavity)

I.e., 2 + 2 + 1 = 5 independent numbers (equations 1 and 2 remove 2)

In most cases, the use of conditional independence reduces the size of the representation of the joint distribution from exponential in n to linear in n.

Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.

UNSW

© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

Uncertainty

26

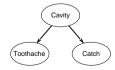
Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

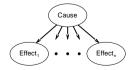
 $P(\texttt{Cavity}|\texttt{Toothache} \land \texttt{Catch})$

- $= \alpha P(\texttt{Toothache} \land \texttt{Catch} | \texttt{Cavity}) P(\texttt{Cavity})$
- $= \alpha P(\text{Toothache}|\text{Cavity})P(\text{Catch}|\text{Cavity})P(\text{Cavity})$

This is an example of a naive Bayes model:

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





Total number of parameters is linear in n

Bayes' Rule

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

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

Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability:

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

e.g., let *M* be meningitis, *S* be stiff neck:

$$P(m|s) = \frac{P(s|m)P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.1} = 0.0008$$

Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

UNSW

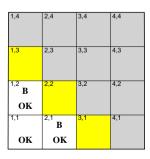
© AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Uncertainty

27

Wumpus World



 $P_{ij} = \text{true iff } [i, j] \text{ contains a pit }$

 $B_{ij} = \text{true iff } [i, j] \text{ is breezy}$

Include only $B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1}$ in the probability model.

30

Specifying the probability model

The full joint distribution is $P(P_{1,1}, \ldots, P_{4,4}, B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1})$

Apply product rule: $P(B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1} | P_{1,1}, \dots, P_{4,4}) P(P_{1,1}, \dots, P_{4,4})$

Uncertainty

(Do it this way to get P(Effect|Cause).)

First term: 1 if pits are adjacent to breezes, 0 otherwise

Second term: pits are placed randomly, probability 0.2 per square:

$$P(P_{1,1},...,P_{4,4}) = \prod_{i,j=1,1}^{4,4} P(P_{i,j}) = 0.2^n \times 0.8^{16-n}$$

for *n* pits.

UNSW © AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1 Uncertainty

Using conditional independence

Basic insight: observations are conditionally independent of other hidden squares given neighbouring hidden squares



Define Unknown = Fringe \cup Other

 $P(b|P_{1,3}, \text{Known}, \text{Unknown}) = P(b|P_{1,3}, \text{Known}, \text{Fringe})$

Manipulate query into a form where we can use this!

Observations and guery

We know the following facts:

$$b = \neg b_{1,1} \wedge b_{1,2} \wedge b_{2,1}$$

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

Known =
$$\neg p_{1,1} \land \neg p_{1,2} \land \neg p_{2,1}$$

Ouerv is $P(P_{1,3}|\text{Known},b)$

Define Unknown = $P_{i,i}$ s other than $P_{1,3}$ and Known

For inference by enumeration, we have

$$P(P_{1,3}|\mathtt{Known},b) = \alpha \sum_{\mathtt{Unknown}} P(P_{1,3},\mathtt{Unknown},\mathtt{Known},b)$$

Grows exponentially with number of squares!

UNSW © AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

COMP9414/9814/3411 13s1

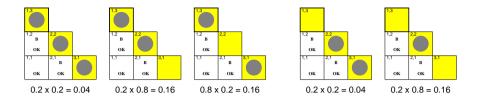
Uncertainty

31

Using conditional independence contd.

$$\begin{split} P(P_{1,3}|\mathsf{Known},b) &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Unknown}} P(P_{1,3},\mathsf{Unknown},\mathsf{Known},b) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Unknown}} P(b|P_{1,3},\mathsf{Known},\mathsf{Unknown}) P(P_{1,3},\mathsf{Known},\mathsf{Unknown}) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} \sum_{\mathsf{Other}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe},\mathsf{Other}) P(P_{1,3},\mathsf{Known},\mathsf{Fringe},\mathsf{Other}) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} \sum_{\mathsf{Other}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(P_{1,3},\mathsf{Known},\mathsf{Fringe},\mathsf{Other}) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) \sum_{\mathsf{Other}} P(P_{1,3},\mathsf{Known},\mathsf{Fringe},\mathsf{Other}) \\ &= \alpha \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) \sum_{\mathsf{Other}} P(P_{1,3}) P(\mathsf{Known}) P(\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Other}) \\ &= \alpha P(\mathsf{Known}) P(P_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Fringe}) \sum_{\mathsf{Other}} P(\mathsf{Other}) \\ &= \alpha' P(P_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Fringe}) \\ &= \alpha' P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Fringe}) \\ &= \alpha' P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(b|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Fringe}) \\ &= \alpha' P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(\mathsf{Pol}|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) \\ &= \alpha' P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3}) \sum_{\mathsf{Fringe}} P(\mathsf{Pol}|\mathsf{Known},P_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3},\mathsf{Fringe}) P(\mathsf{Pol}_{1,3},\mathsf{Frin$$

Using conditional independence contd.



$$P(P_{1,3}|\texttt{Known},b) = \alpha' \langle 0.2(0.04 + 0.16 + 0.16), 0.8(0.04 + 0.16) \rangle$$

 $\approx \langle 0.31, 0.69 \rangle$

$$P(P_{2,2}|\mathtt{Known},b) \approx \langle 0.86, 0.14 \rangle$$

UNSW © AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012

Summary

Probability is a rigorous formalism for uncertain knowledge

Joint probability distribution specifies probability of every atomic event

Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events

For nontrivial domains, we must find a way to reduce the joint size

Independence and conditional independence provide the tools

UNSW ©AIMA, 2004, Alan Blair, 2012