Chapter 13
Uncertainty

BBM 405 – Fundamentals of Artificial Intelligence

Pinar Duygulu

Slides are mostly adapted from AIMA and MIT Open Courseware

Uncertainty

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

Problems:

1. partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
2. noisy sensors (traffic reports)
3. uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
4. immense complexity of modeling 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 reasonably be said to get me there on time but I'd have to stay overnight in the airport …)

Methods for handling uncertainty

- Default or nonmonotonic logic:
  - Assume my car does not have a flat tire
  - Assume A_{25} works unless contradicted by evidence
- Issues: What assumptions are reasonable? How to handle contradiction?

- Rules with fudge factors:
  - $A_{25} \mid\!\rightarrow_{0.3}$ get there on time
  - $Sprinkler \mid\!\rightarrow_{0.99} WetGrass$
  - $WetGrass \mid\!\rightarrow_{0.7} Rain$
- Issues: Problems with combination, e.g., *Sprinkler* causes *Rain*??

- Probability
  - Model agent's degree of belief
  - Given the available evidence,
  - A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04

Probability

Probabilistic assertions summarize effects of

- laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc.
- ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.

Subjective probability:

- Probabilities relate propositions to agent's own state of knowledge

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

These are not assertions about the world

Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence:

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

Making decisions under uncertainty

Suppose I believe the following:

$P(A_{25}$ gets me there on time | …) $= 0.04$
$P(A_{90}$ gets me there on time | …) $= 0.70$
$P(A_{120}$ gets me there on time | …) $= 0.95$
$P(A_{1440}$ gets me there on time | …) $= 0.9999$

- Which action to choose?

  Depends on my preferences for missing flight vs. time spent waiting, etc.

  - Utility theory is used to represent and infer preferences
  - Decision theory = probability theory + utility theory

Syntax

- Basic element: random variable
- Similar to propositional logic: possible worlds defined by assignment of values to random variables.
- Boolean random variables

  e.g., *Cavity* (do I have a cavity?)
- Discrete random variables

  e.g., *Weather* is one of <*sunny,rainy,cloudy,snow*>
- Domain values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive
- Elementary proposition constructed by assignment of a value to a random variable: e.g., Weather = sunny, Cavity = false (abbreviated as ~cavity)
- Complex propositions formed from elementary propositions and standard logical connectives e.g., $Weather = sunny \vee Cavity = false$

Syntax

- Atomic event: A complete specification of the state of the world about which the agent is uncertain

  E.g., if the world consists of only two Boolean variables *Cavity* and *Toothache*, then there are 4 distinct atomic events:

  $Cavity = false \wedge Toothache = false$

  $Cavity = false \wedge Toothache = true$

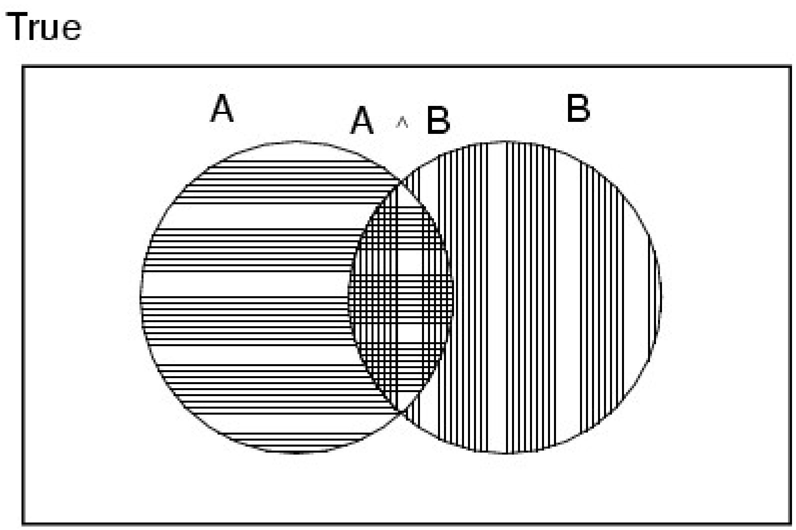
  $Cavity = true \wedge Toothache = false$

  $Cavity = true \wedge Toothache = true$

- Atomic events are mutually exclusive and exhaustive

Axioms of probability

- For any propositions *A, B*
  - $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
  - $P(true) = 1$ and $P(false) = 0$
  - $P(A \vee B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \wedge B)$



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(*Weather*) = <0.72,0.1,0.08,0.1> (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)

- Joint probability distribution for a set of random variables gives the probability of every atomic event on those random variables

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

Weather =	sunny	rainy	cloudy	snow
Cavity = true	0.144	0.02	0.016	0.02
Cavity = false	0.576	0.08	0.064	0.08

- Every question about a domain can be answered by the joint distribution

Conditional probability

- Conditional or posterior probabilities
  e.g., P(*cavity* | *toothache*) = 0.8
  i.e., given that *toothache* is all I know

- (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

- New evidence may be irrelevant, allowing simplification, e.g.,
  P(*cavity* | *toothache, sunny*) = P(*cavity* | *toothache*) = 0.8
- This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

Conditional probability

- Definition of conditional probability:
  $P(a \mid b) = P(a \wedge b) / P(b)$ if $P(b) > 0$

- Product rule gives an alternative formulation:
  $P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$

- A general version holds for whole distributions, e.g.,
  $\mathbf{P}(Weather, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Weather \mid Cavity)\, \mathbf{P}(Cavity)$
- (View as a set of 4×2 equations, not matrix mult.)

- Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(X_1, \ldots, X_n) &= \mathbf{P}(X_1,\ldots,X_{n-1})\, \mathbf{P}(X_n \mid X_1,\ldots,X_{n-1}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X_1,\ldots,X_{n-2})\, \mathbf{P}(X_{n-1} \mid X_1,\ldots,X_{n-2})\, \mathbf{P}(X_n \mid X_1,\ldots,X_{n-1}) \\ &= \ldots \\ &= \pi_{i=1}\hat{}n\, \mathbf{P}(X_i \mid X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1})\end{aligned}$$

Inference by enumeration

- Start with the joint probability 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: $P(\varphi) = \Sigma_{\omega:\omega \models \varphi} P(\omega)$

Inference by enumeration

- Start with the joint probability 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: $P(\varphi) = \Sigma_{\omega:\omega \models \varphi} P(\omega)$
- P(*toothache*) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2

Inference by enumeration

- Start with the joint probability distribution:

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

- Can also compute conditional probabilities:

$$P(\neg cavity \mid toothache) = \frac{P(\neg cavity \wedge toothache)}{P(toothache)}$$

$$= \frac{0.016+0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064}$$

$$= 0.4$$

Normalization

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

- Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

$\mathbf{P}(Cavity \mid toothache) = \alpha,\ \mathbf{P}(Cavity, toothache)$

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

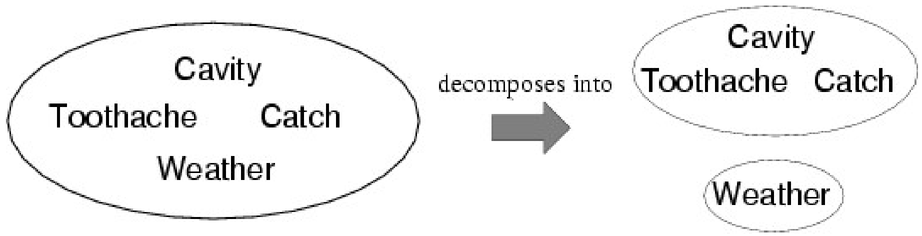
$= \alpha,\ [<0.108, 0.016> + <0.012, 0.064>]$

$= \alpha,\ <0.12, 0.08> = <0.6, 0.4>$

General idea: compute distribution on query variable by fixing evidence variables and summing over hidden variables

Independence

- A and B are independent iff
  $\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A)$ or $\mathbf{P}(B|A) = \mathbf{P}(B)$ or $\mathbf{P}(\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}) = \mathbf{P}(A)\,\mathbf{P}(B)$



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

- 32 entries reduced to 12; for n independent biased coins, $O(2^n) \rightarrow O(n)$
- Absolute independence powerful but rare
- Dentistry is a large field with hundreds of variables, none of which are independent. What to do?

Conditional independence

- $\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Cavity, Catch)$ 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) $\mathbf{P}(catch \mid toothache, cavity) = \mathbf{P}(catch \mid cavity)$
- The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:
  (2) $\mathbf{P}(catch \mid toothache, \neg cavity) = \mathbf{P}(catch \mid \neg cavity)$
- *Catch* is conditionally independent of *Toothache* given *Cavity*:
  $\mathbf{P}(Catch \mid Toothache, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Catch \mid Cavity)$
- Equivalent statements:
  $\mathbf{P}(Toothache \mid Catch, Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache \mid Cavity)$
  $\mathbf{P}(Toothache, Catch \mid Cavity) = \mathbf{P}(Toothache \mid Cavity)\ \mathbf{P}(Catch \mid Cavity)$

Conditional independence contd.

- Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:
  $\mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache, Catch, Cavity})$
  $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache} \mid \textit{Catch, Cavity})\ \mathbf{P}(\textit{Catch, Cavity})$
  $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache} \mid \textit{Catch, Cavity})\ \mathbf{P}(\textit{Catch} \mid \textit{Cavity})\ \mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity})$
  $= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache} \mid \textit{Cavity})\ \mathbf{P}(\textit{Catch} \mid \textit{Cavity})\ \mathbf{P}(\text{Cavity})$
  I.e., $2 + 2 + 1 = 5$ independent numbers

- 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.

Bayes' Rule

- Product rule $P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b)\, P(b) = P(b \mid a)\, P(a)$
  $\Rightarrow$ Bayes' rule: $P(a \mid b) = P(b \mid a)\, P(a) / P(b)$

- or in distribution form
  $\mathbf{P}(Y|X) = \mathbf{P}(X|Y)\, \mathbf{P}(Y) / \mathbf{P}(X) = \alpha \mathbf{P}(X|Y)\, \mathbf{P}(Y)$

- Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability:
  - P(Cause|Effect) = P(Effect|Cause) P(Cause) / P(Effect)
  - E.g., let *M* be meningitis, *S* be stiff neck:
    $P(m|s) = P(s|m)\, P(m) / P(s) = 0.8 \times 0.0001 / 0.1 = 0.0008$
  - Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

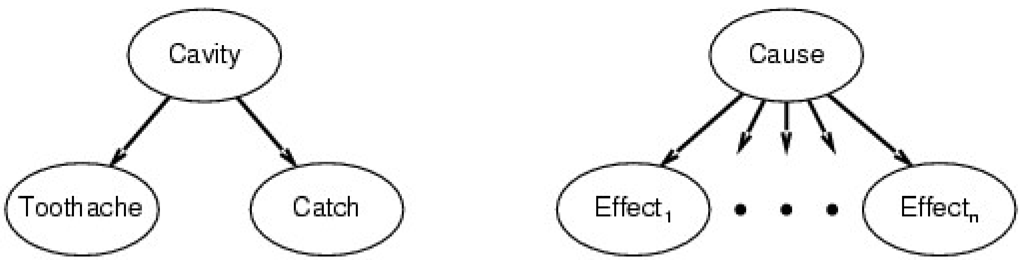
$\mathbf{P}(Cavity \mid toothache \wedge catch)$

$= \alpha\mathbf{P}(toothache \wedge catch \mid Cavity)\, \mathbf{P}(Cavity)$

$= \alpha\mathbf{P}(toothache \mid Cavity)\, \mathbf{P}(catch \mid Cavity)\, \mathbf{P}(Cavity)$

- This is an example of a naïve Bayes model:

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Cause}, \text{Effect}_1, \ldots, \text{Effect}_n) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Cause})\, \pi_i \mathbf{P}(\text{Effect}_i \mid \text{Cause})$



- Total number of parameters is linear in *n*

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