



CS 540 Introduction to Artificial Intelligence **Probability**

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Probability: What is it good for?

- Language to express **uncertainty**



In AI/ML Context

- Quantify predictions

$$[p(\text{lion}), p(\text{tiger})] = [0.98, 0.02]$$



$$[p(\text{lion}), p(\text{tiger})] = [0.01, 0.99]$$



$$[p(\text{lion}), p(\text{tiger})] = [0.43, 0.57]$$

Model Data Generation

- Model complex distributions



StyleGAN2 (Karras et al '20)

Win At Poker

- Wisconsin Ph.D. student Ye Yuan 5th in WSOP

Not unusual: probability began
as study of gambling techniques

Cardano

Liber de ludo aleae
Book on Games of Chance
1564!



pokernews.com

Outline

- Basics: definitions, axioms, RVs, joint distributions
- Independence, conditional probability, chain rule
- Bayes' Rule and Inference



Basics: Outcomes & Events

- Outcomes: possible results of an **experiment**
- **Events:** subsets of outcomes we're interested in

Ex: $\Omega = \underbrace{\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}}_{\text{outcomes}}$

$\mathcal{F} = \underbrace{\{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{1, 2\}, \dots, \Omega\}}_{\text{events}}$



Basics: Outcomes & Events

- Event space can be smaller:

$$\mathcal{F} = \underbrace{\{\emptyset, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \Omega\}}_{\text{events}}$$

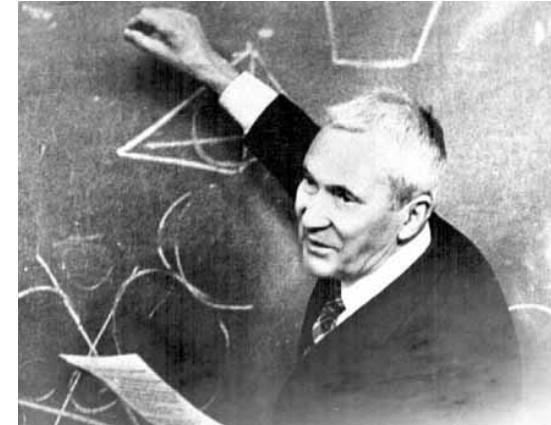
- Two components always in it!

$$\emptyset, \Omega$$



Advanced: Sigma Fields

- Won't be using this. Extra context:
 \mathcal{F} is a ``sigma algebra'', follows rules:
Closed under complements & countable unions
- Part of **axiomatic** development of probability
- Long process: 17th century to 1930s



A. N. Kolmogorov

Basics: Probability Distribution

- We have outcomes and events.
- Now assign probabilities For $E \in \mathcal{F}$, $P(E) \in [0, 1]$

Back to our example:

$$\mathcal{F} = \underbrace{\{\emptyset, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \Omega\}}_{\text{events}}$$

$$P(\{1, 3, 5\}) = 0.2, P(\{2, 4, 6\}) = 0.8$$



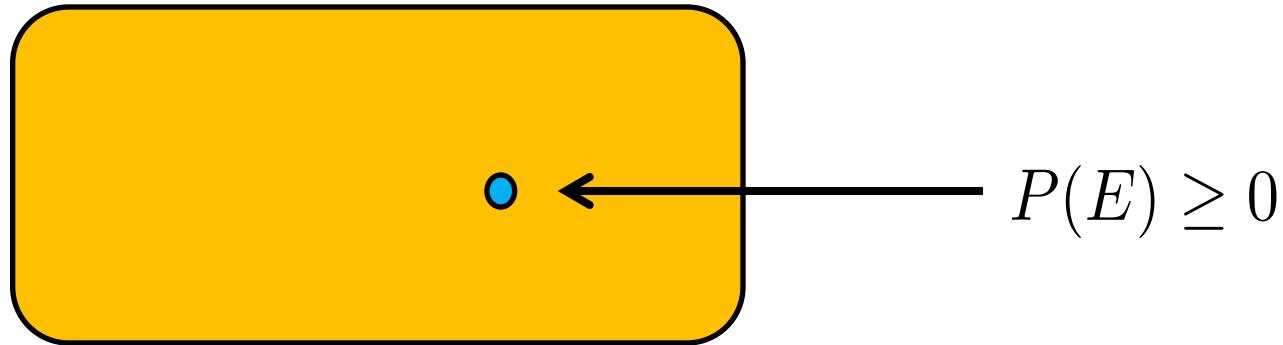
Basics: Axioms

- Rules for probability:
 - For all events $E \in \mathcal{F}, P(E) \geq 0$
 - Always, $P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$
 - For disjoint events, $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2)$
- Easy to derive other laws. Ex: non-disjoint events

$$P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) - P(E_1 \cap E_2)$$

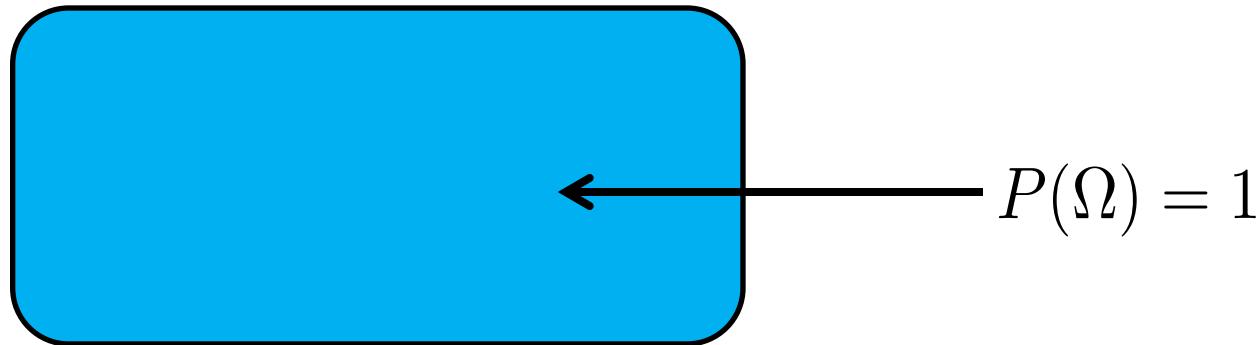
Visualizing the Axioms: I

- Axiom 1: $E \in \mathcal{F}, P(E) \geq 0$



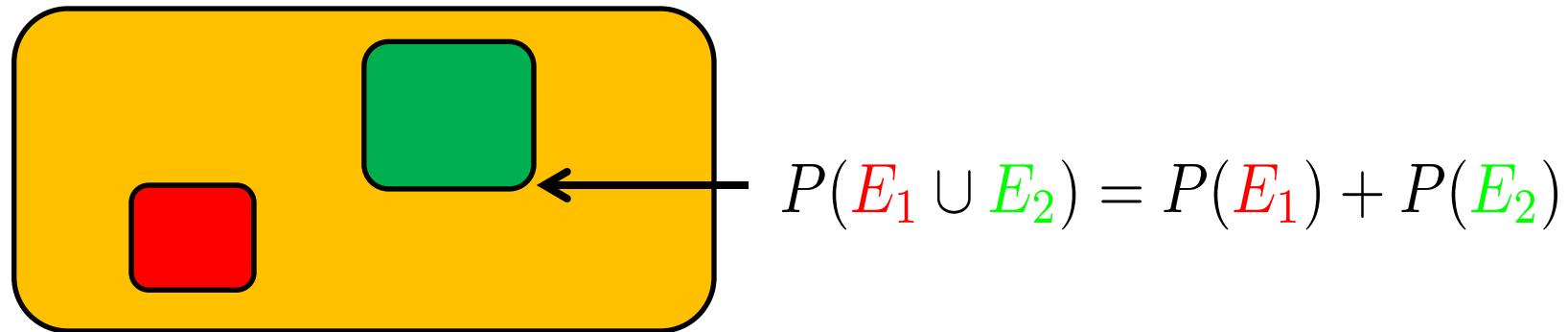
Visualizing the Axioms: II

- Axiom 2: $P(\emptyset) = 0, P(\Omega) = 1$



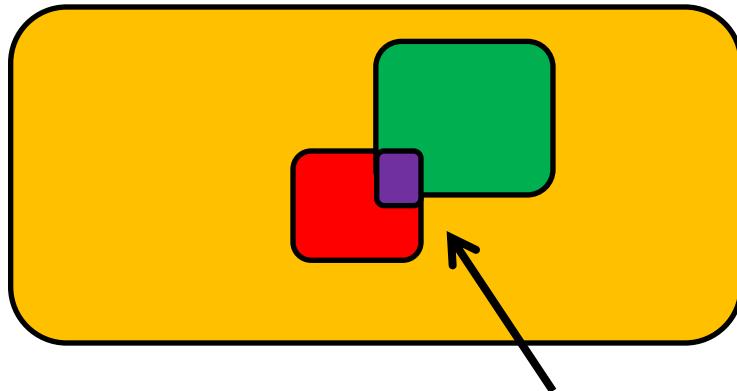
Visualizing the Axioms: III

- Axiom 3: disjoint $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2)$



Visualizing the Axioms

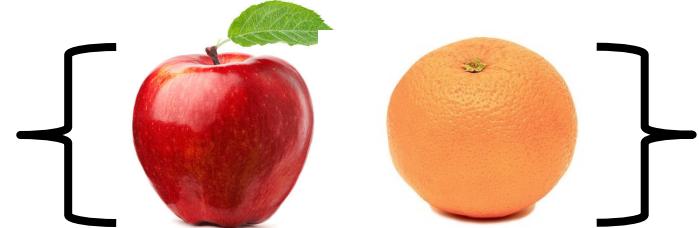
- Also, other laws:



$$P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) - P(E_1 \cap E_2)$$

Basics: Random Variables

- Really, functions
- Map outcomes to real values $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- Why?
 - So far, everything is a set.
 - Hard to work with!
 - Real values are easy to work with



Basics: CDF & PDF

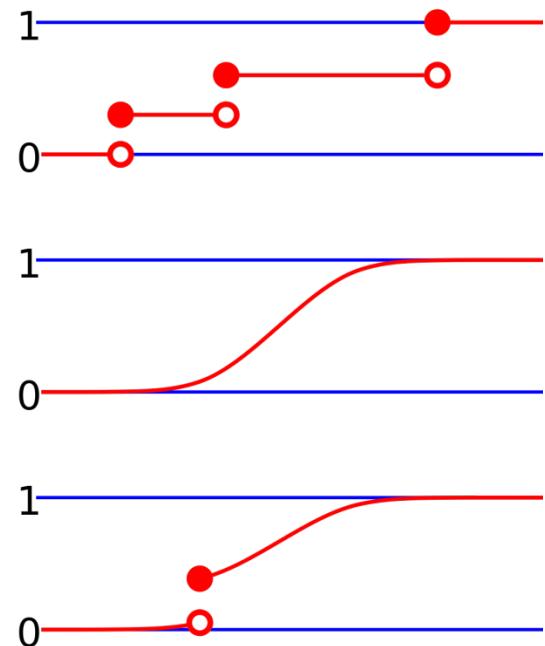
- Can still work with probabilities:

$$P(X = 3) := P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = 3\})$$

- Cumulative Distribution Func. (CDF)

$$F_X(x) := P(X \leq x)$$

- Density / mass function $p_X(x)$



Wiki CDF

Basics: Expectation & Variance

- Another advantage of RVs are ``summaries''
- Expectation: $E[X] = \sum_a a \times P(x = a)$
 - The “average”
- Variance: $Var[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$
 - A measure of spread
- Higher moments: other parametrizations

Basics: Joint Distributions

- Move from one variable to several
- Joint distribution: $P(X = a, Y = b)$
 - Why? Work with **multiple** types of uncertainty



Basics: Marginal Probability

- Given a joint distribution $P(X = a, Y = b)$

- Get the distribution in just one variable:

$$P(X = a) = \sum_b P(X = a, Y = b)$$

- This is the “marginal” distribution.

	Eating W ^e	
Oct 1 1832	Ginger Beer	6
5	slice of orange wdy	16
"	Rocking Egg 1/2	3
Dec 11	Dinner at Club	19
"	Office	6
12	Breakfast	16
13	Breakfast	16
"	Soup	6
14	Breakfast	16
15	Breakfast	16
1833		
Jan 29	Soup at Union Club	6
29	Breakfast	16
"	Soup	1
Feb 10	Soda Water	6
23	Oranges	16
March 22	3rd tables	8
April 30	Brimble & Ranges	10
May 1 st	Breakfast	16
"	Walter	6
14	Soup &	11
June 1	Soup	1
		£ 1 19 11

Basics: Marginal Probability

$$P(X = a) = \sum_b P(X = a, Y = b)$$



	Sunny	Cloudy	Rainy
hot	150/365	40/365	5/365
cold	50/365	60/365	60/365



$$[P(\text{hot}), P(\text{cold})] = [\frac{195}{365}, \frac{170}{365}]$$



Probability Tables

- Write our distributions as tables

	Sunny	Cloudy	Rainy
hot	150/365	40/365	5/365
cold	50/365	60/365	60/365

- # of entries? 6.
 - If we have n variables with k values, we get k^n entries
 - **Big!** For a 1080p screen, 12 bit color, size of table: $10^{7490589}$
 - No way of writing down all terms



Independence

- Independence between RVs:

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

- Why useful? Go from k^n entries in a table to $\sim kn$
- Collapses joint into **product** of marginals

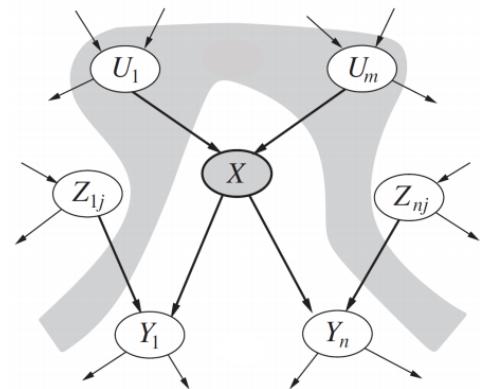
Conditional Probability

- For when we know something,

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

- Leads to **conditional independence**

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



Credit: Devin Soni

Chain Rule

- Apply repeatedly,

$$P(A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n)$$

$$= P(A_1)P(A_2|A_1)P(A_3|A_2, A_1)\dots P(A_n|A_{n-1}, \dots, A_1)$$

- Note: still big!
 - If some **conditional independence**, can factor!
 - Leads to **probabilistic graphical models**



Reasoning With Conditional Distributions

- Evaluating probabilities:
 - Wake up with a sore throat.
 - Do I have the flu?
- One approach: $S \rightarrow F$
 - Too strong.
- **Inference:** compute probability given evidence $P(F|S)$
 - Can be much more complex!



Using Bayes' Rule

- Want: $P(F|S)$
- **Bayes' Rule:** $P(F|S) = \frac{P(F,S)}{P(S)} = \frac{P(S|F)P(F)}{P(S)}$
- Parts:
 - $P(S) = 0.1$ Sore throat rate
 - $P(F) = 0.01$ Flu rate
 - $P(S|F) = 0.9$ Sore throat rate among flu sufferers

So: $P(F|S) = 0.09$

Using Bayes' Rule

- Interpretation $P(F|S) = 0.09$
 - Much higher chance of flu than normal rate (0.01).
 - Very different from $P(S|F) = 0.9$
 - 90% of folks with flu have a sore throat
 - But, only 9% of folks with a sore throat have flu

evidence



Bayesian Inference

- Fancy name for what we just did. Terminology:

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)}$$

- H is the hypothesis
- E is the evidence



Bayesian Inference

- Terminology:

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)} \longleftarrow \text{Prior}$$

- Prior: estimate of the probability **without** evidence

Bayesian Inference

- Terminology:

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)}$$

Likelihood



- Likelihood: probability of evidence **given a hypothesis.**

Bayesian Inference

- Terminology:

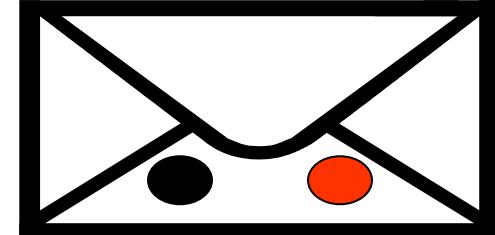
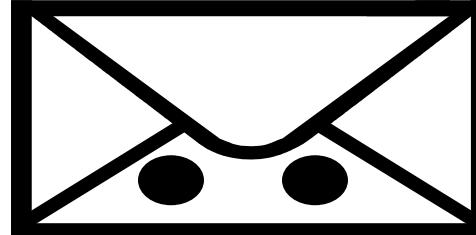
$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)}$$

↑
Posterior

- Posterior: probability of hypothesis **given evidence**.

Two Envelopes Problem

- We have two envelopes:
 - E_1 has two black balls, E_2 has one black, one red
 - The **red** one is worth \$100. Others, zero
 - Open an envelope, see one ball. Then, can switch (or not).
 - You see a black ball. **Switch?**



Two Envelopes Solution

- Let's solve it.

$$P(E_1|\text{Black ball}) = \frac{P(\text{Black ball}|E_1)P(E_1)}{P(\text{Black ball})}$$

- Now plug in:

$$P(E_1|\text{Black ball}) = \frac{1 \times \frac{1}{2}}{P(\text{Black ball})}$$

$$P(E_2|\text{Black ball}) = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}}{P(\text{Black ball})}$$

So switch!

