

EECS 49I

Probabilistic Graphical Models

Probabilistic Reasoning

Probabilistic Reasoning

- book reading: Barber Ch. 1
- brief review basic probability
- expressing reasoning using probabilities
- reasoning using Bayes' rule

Motivating examples: Barber Example 1.2

- Doctors find that people with Kreuzfeld-Jacob disease (KJ) almost invariably ate hamburgers.
 - What is the probability that a hamburger eater will have Kreuzfeld-Jacob disease?
 - How do we express this relationship?
 - How do we compute the probabilities?
- What are the variables?
 - person has Kreuzfeld-Jacob's disease (or not) = $K = T|F$
 - person eats hamburgers (or not) = $H = T|F$
 - note the variables are binary; they represent a state of the world
- What are the assumptions?
 - eating hamburgers *causes* Kreuzfeld-Jacob's disease
- What is expression for the proposition we want to evaluate?
 - $P(K = T \mid H = T)$

Motivating examples: Barber Example 1.3

- Inspector Clouseau arrives at the scene of a crime.
 - The victim lies dead in the room alongside the possible murder weapon, a knife.
 - The butler and maid are the inspector's main suspects.
- What are the variables?
 - suspects: butler = B; maid = M
 - knife = K (or murder weapon = W ?)
- What do the variables represent?
 - B = true: butler is the murder
 - M = true: maid is the murder
 - K = true: knife was the murder weapon
- More generally we could write:
 - W = knife | rope | candlestick | etc.
 - S (for suspect) = butler | maid | Prof. Plum | etc.

Barber Example 1.3 (continued)

- What do we want to evaluate?
- In principle, could want to know everything: $P(B, M, K)$
 - This is the full joint probability: probabilities of all states of the world, e.g.
 - $P(B = T, M = F, K=T)$
 - “The probability that the Butler is the murderer, the Maid is not, and the knife was the murder weapon”
- Also might want: $P(B|K)$
 - What does this represent?
 - “The probability that the butler was the murderer assuming that (“given that”) the knife was the murder weapon.
 - What about the maid?
- How do we specify the model?
 - Can’t just enter probabilities for all entries in the table for $P(B, M, K)$
 - Need to specify the joint in terms of our real-world knowledge, and *then* derive these using the rules of probability

Axioms of probability

- Axioms (Kolmogorov):

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$$

$$P(\text{true}) = 1$$

$$P(\text{false}) = 0$$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

- Corollaries:

- A single random variable must sum to 1:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(D = d_i) = 1$$

- The joint probability of a set of variables must also sum to 1.
- If A and B are mutually exclusive:

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

Rules of probability

- conditional probability

$$Pr(A|B) = \frac{Pr(A \text{ and } B)}{Pr(B)}, \quad Pr(B) > 0$$

- corollary (Bayes' rule)

$$\begin{aligned} Pr(B|A)Pr(A) &= Pr(A \text{ and } B) = Pr(A|B)Pr(B) \\ \Rightarrow Pr(B|A) &= \frac{Pr(A|B)Pr(B)}{Pr(A)} \end{aligned}$$

Basic concepts

Making rational decisions when faced with uncertainty:

- *Probability*
the precise representation of knowledge and uncertainty
- *Probability theory*
how to optimally update your knowledge based on new information
- *Decision theory: probability theory + utility theory*
how to use this information to achieve maximum expected utility

Simple example: medical test results

- Test report for rare disease is positive, 90% accurate
 - What's the probability that you have the disease?
 - What if the test is repeated?
-
- This is the simplest example of reasoning by combining sources of information.

How do we model the problem?

- Which is the correct description of “Test is 90% accurate” ?

$$P(T = \text{true}) = 0.9$$

$$P(T = \text{true} | D = \text{true}) = 0.9$$

$$P(D = \text{true} | T = \text{true}) = 0.9$$

- What do we want to know?

$$P(T = \text{true})$$

$$P(T = \text{true} | D = \text{true})$$

$$P(D = \text{true} | T = \text{true})$$

- More compact notation:

$$P(T = \text{true} | D = \text{true}) \rightarrow P(T | D)$$

$$P(T = \text{false} | D = \text{false}) \rightarrow P(\bar{T} | \bar{D})$$

Evaluating the posterior probability through Bayesian inference

- We want $P(D|T)$ = “The probability of the having the disease given a positive test”
- Use Bayes rule to relate it to what we know: $P(T|D)$

$$\textit{posterior} \quad P(D|T) = \frac{\overset{\textit{likelihood}}{P(T|D)} \overset{\textit{prior}}{P(D)}}{\underset{\textit{normalizing constant}}{P(T)}}$$

- What's the prior $P(D)$?
- Disease is rare, so let's assume

$$P(D) = 0.001$$

- What about $P(T)$?
- What's the interpretation of that?

Evaluating the normalizing constant


$$\textit{posterior} \quad P(D|T) = \frac{\textit{likelihood} \quad \textit{prior} \quad P(T|D)P(D)}{\textit{normalizing constant} \quad P(T)}$$

- $P(T)$ is the marginal probability of $P(T,D) = P(T|D) P(D)$
- So, compute with summation

$$P(T) = \sum_{\text{all values of } D} P(T|D)P(D)$$

- For true or false propositions:

$$P(T) = P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|\bar{D})P(\bar{D})$$



What are these?

Refining our model of the test

- We also have to consider the negative case to incorporate all information:

$$P(T|D) = 0.9$$

$$P(T|\bar{D}) = ?$$

- What should it be?
- What about $P(\bar{D})$?

Plugging in the numbers

- Our complete expression is

$$P(D|T) = \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|\bar{D})P(\bar{D})}$$

- Plugging in the numbers we get:

$$P(D|T) = \frac{0.9 \times 0.001}{0.9 \times 0.001 + 0.1 \times 0.999} = 0.0089$$

- Does this make intuitive sense?

Same problem different situation

- Suppose we have a test to determine if you won the lottery.
- It's 90% accurate.
- What is $P(\$ = \text{true} \mid T = \text{true})$ then?

Playing around with the numbers

$$P(D|T) = \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|\bar{D})P(\bar{D})}$$

- What if the test were 100% reliable?

$$P(D|T) = \frac{1.0 \times 0.001}{1.0 \times 0.001 + 0.0 \times 0.999} = 1.0$$

- What if the test was the same, but disease wasn't so rare?

$$P(D|T) = \frac{0.9 \times 0.1}{0.9 \times 0.1 + 0.1 \times 0.9} = 0.5$$

Repeating the test

- We can relax, $P(D|T) = 0.0089$, right?
- Just to be sure the doctor recommends repeating the test.
- How do we represent this?

$$P(D|T_1, T_2)$$

- Again, we apply Bayes' rule

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_1, T_2|D)P(D)}{P(T_1, T_2)}$$

- How do we model $P(T_1, T_2|D)$?

Modeling repeated tests

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_1, T_2|D)P(D)}{P(T_1, T_2)}$$

- Easiest is to assume the tests are *independent*.

$$P(T_1, T_2|D) = P(T_1|D)P(T_2|D)$$

- This also implies:

$$P(T_1, T_2) = P(T_1)P(T_2)$$

- Plugging these in, we have

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_1|D)P(T_2|D)P(D)}{P(T_1)P(T_2)}$$

Evaluating the normalizing constant again

- Expanding as before we have

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_1|D)P(T_2|D)P(D)}{\sum_{D=\{t,f\}} P(T_1|D)P(T_2|D)P(D)}$$

- Plugging in the numbers gives us

$$P(D|T) = \frac{0.9 \times 0.9 \times 0.001}{0.9 \times 0.9 \times 0.001 + 0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.999} = 0.075$$

- Another way to think about this:
 - What's the chance of 1 false positive from the test?
 - What's the chance of 2 false positives?
- The chance of 2 false positives is still 10x more likely than the a prior probability of having the disease.

Simpler: Combining information the Bayesian way

- Let's look at the equation again:

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_1|D)P(T_2|D)P(D)}{P(T_1)P(T_2)}$$

- If we rearrange slightly:

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_2|D) \underbrace{P(T_1|D)P(D)}_{\text{We've seen this before!}}}{P(T_2)P(T_1)}$$

We've seen this before!

- It's the posterior for the first test, which we just computed

$$P(D|T_1) = \frac{P(T_1|D)P(D)}{P(T_1)}$$

The old posterior is the new prior

- We can just plugin the value of the old posterior
- It plays exactly the same role as our old prior

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_2|D)P(T_1|D)P(D)}{P(T_2)P(T_1)}$$

$$P(D|T_1, T_2) = \frac{P(T_2|D) \times 0.0089}{P(T_2)}$$

- Plugging in the numbers gives the same answer:

$$P(D|T) = \frac{P(T|D)P'(D)}{P(T|D)P'(D) + P(T|\bar{D})P'(\bar{D})}$$

$$P(D|T) = \frac{0.9 \times 0.0089}{0.9 \times 0.0089 + 0.1 \times 0.9911} = 0.075$$

This is how Bayesian reasoning combines old information with new information to update our belief states.

Can use an identical approach to solve the Hamburgers problem

Example 1.2 (Hamburgers). Consider the following fictitious scientific information: Doctors find that people with Kreuzfeld-Jacob disease (KJ) almost invariably ate hamburgers, thus $p(\text{Hamburger Eater} | KJ) = 0.9$. The probability of an individual having KJ is currently rather low, about one in 100,000.

1. Assuming eating lots of hamburgers is rather widespread, say $p(\text{Hamburger Eater}) = 0.5$, what is the probability that a hamburger eater will have Kreuzfeld-Jacob disease?

This may be computed as

$$p(KJ | \text{Hamburger Eater}) = \frac{p(\text{Hamburger Eater}, KJ)}{p(\text{Hamburger Eater})} = \frac{p(\text{Hamburger Eater} | KJ) p(KJ)}{p(\text{Hamburger Eater})} \quad (1.2.1)$$

$$= \frac{\frac{9}{10} \times \frac{1}{100000}}{\frac{1}{2}} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \quad (1.2.2)$$

2. If the fraction of people eating hamburgers was rather small, $p(\text{Hamburger Eater}) = 0.001$, what is the probability that a regular hamburger eater will have Kreuzfeld-Jacob disease? Repeating the above calculation, this is given by

$$\frac{\frac{9}{10} \times \frac{1}{100000}}{\frac{1}{1000}} \approx 1/100 \quad (1.2.3)$$

This is much higher than in scenario (1) since here we can be more sure that eating hamburgers is related to the illness.

Return to Inspector Clouseau

- Variables: B | M = Butler | Maid was murder, K = Knife was used
- Need to convert Inspector's real-world knowledge into probabilities.
- He might assign these *a priori* probabilities:
 - $p(B = \text{murder}) = 0.6$ $p(M = \text{murderer}) = 0.2$
- What about other knowledge? Barber writes:

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(\text{knife used} | B = \text{not murderer}, M = \text{not murderer}) & = 0.3 \\ p(\text{knife used} | B = \text{not murderer}, M = \text{murderer}) & = 0.2 \\ p(\text{knife used} | B = \text{murderer}, M = \text{not murderer}) & = 0.6 \\ p(\text{knife used} | B = \text{murderer}, M = \text{murderer}) & = 0.1 \end{array}$$

- These are arbitrary, but can imagine other cases:
 - $p(\text{rope used} | G = \text{strong gardener is murderer}) = 0.4$ // possible, uses that rope
 - $p(\text{rope used} | M = \text{one-armed butler is murderer}) = 0.01$ // not really plausible
- We can calculation of other probabilities starting with the full joint probability.

Return to Inspector Clouseau

- Suppose we know (or have very good evidence) that the knife is the murder weapon.
- Then we want to know $p(B | K)$ and $p(M | K)$ (using the shorthand notation)
- To compute these apply the rules of probability.

- Using the definition of conditional probability and marginalization:

$$p(B | K) = \sum_m p(B, m | K)$$

- Here the sum is over m = Maid was murder and Maid was not murder.
 - This is summing values of Maid over the joint conditional probability.

- We don't know $p(B, M | K)$ — rewrite until in terms of known distributions:

$$p(B | K) = \underbrace{\sum_m}_{\text{marginalization}} p(B, m | K) = \underbrace{\sum_m}_{\text{conditional prob.}} \frac{p(B, m, K)}{p(K)} = \underbrace{\frac{\sum_m \boxed{p(K | B, m)} p(B, m)}{\sum_{m,b} P(K | b, m) \boxed{p(b, m)}}}_{\text{marginalization + factorization}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{known} \\ \text{What is?} \end{array}$$

- Assume butler and maid aren't colluding, i.e. they're acting independently:

$$p(B, M) = P(B)P(M)$$

- Now we have all the information necessary to evaluate the propositions.

$$p(B = \text{murderer} | \text{knife used}) = \frac{\frac{6}{10} \left(\frac{2}{10} \times \frac{1}{10} + \frac{8}{10} \times \frac{6}{10} \right)}{\frac{6}{10} \left(\frac{2}{10} \times \frac{1}{10} + \frac{8}{10} \times \frac{6}{10} \right) + \frac{4}{10} \left(\frac{2}{10} \times \frac{2}{10} + \frac{8}{10} \times \frac{3}{10} \right)} = \frac{300}{412} \approx 0.73$$