REASONING UNDER UNCERTAINTY

Universidad Carlos III de Madrid

ΑI







- 1 Introduction
- 2 Probabilistic reasoning
- 3 Bayesian networks
- 4 Markov Models
- 5 Fuzzy logic

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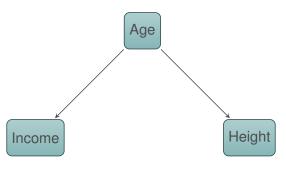
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Previous class

- Representation on domains with random variables + probability distribution
- Given probability distribution for all possible events, we can solve queries P(Variables|Observation)
- The distribution size is exponential on the number of variables
- Independence could allow us a more efficient reasoning
- Today: how can we use probabilities more efficiently?
 - · Answer: Bayesian networks

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P(Income|Height,Age) = P(Income|Age)



Income and Height are conditionally independent "given" Age

P(Shoesize|Height,Age) = P(Shoesize|Height)



 Age and Shoesize are conditionally independent "given" Height

X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if

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

Also:

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

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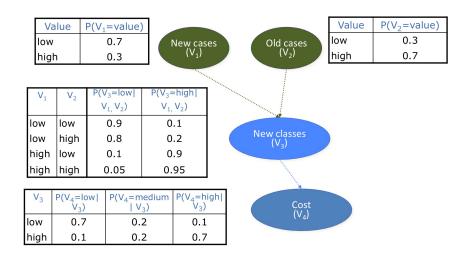
Also:

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

- It often reduces the number of parameters from exponential in n (number of variables) to linear in n
- Conditional independence is the tool for efficient probabilistic reasoning
 - · less parameters
 - less computation
- It is represented by the missing edges

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Bayesian network



Definition of Bayesian Network

- A set of nodes
 - · each node represents a random variable
 - · variables can be either discrete or continuous
- A set of edges
 - · an edge from node X to node Y: X has a direct influence on Y
 - it is a Direct Acyclic Graph (DAG)
- Probability distributions
 - each node X has a Conditional Probability Table (CPT) that defines the effects of its parents

P(Node|Parents(Node))

- parents of node X are the only edges directed to X
- if a node does not have parents, it is the "a priori" probability

P(Node)

Example of an alarm

- We have an anti-theft system at home with an alarm
- It detects robbers, but the alarm also fires with some earthquakes
- There are two neighbors (Juan and Maria) that will call us if they hear the alarm
- Juan always calls when he hears the alarm, but he sometimes is confused with some door bell
- Maria hears music very loud, so sometimes she cannot hear the alarm

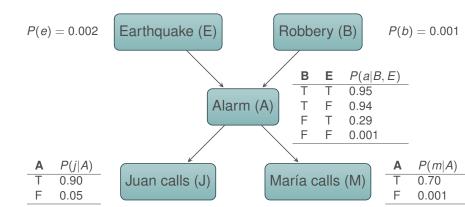
Modelling

- Earthquake: E
 - E=T *→* e
 - E=F ~> ¬ e

Modelling

- Earthquake: E
 - E=T *→* e
 - E=F → ¬ e
- · Robbery: B
 - B=T → b
 - B=F $\leadsto \neg b$
- Alarm: A (a, ¬ a)
- Juan calls: J (j, ¬ j)
- María calls: M (m, ¬ m)

Complete BN for the Alarm example

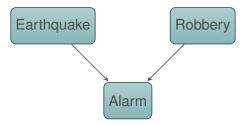


Alarm. Causal relations

- We only provide P(e) given that $P(\neg e) = 1 P(e)$
- Also, $P(\neg a|b, \neg e) = 1 P(a|b, \neg e)$
- The topology of this BN reflects the direct causes of its variables:
 - · a robber can fire the alarm
 - · an earthquake can fire the alarm
 - · the alarm can cause Maria to call
 - · the alarm can cause Juan to call

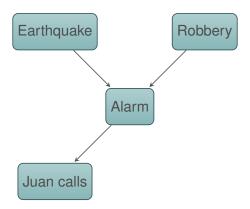
BN for the example

- There is no dependency between Earthquake and Robbery
- But, there is dependency between Alarm and the other two variables:
 - P(Alarm|Earthquake, Robbery) ≠ P(Alarm|Earthquake)
 - $P(Alarm|Earthquake, Robbery) \neq P(Alarm|Robbery)$



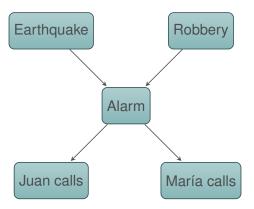
BN for the example

- There is conditional independence between Juan calling and variables Earthquake and Robbery, given the Alarm variable
 - P(Juan|Alarm, Earthquake, Robbery) = P(Juan|Alarm)



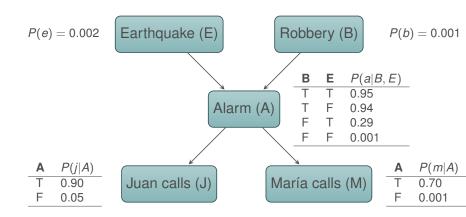
BN for the example

- The same applies to María calling
 - P(Maria|Alarm, Earthquake, Robbery) = P(Maria|Alarm)



BN are compact

- The explicit joint distribution would require $2^5 1 = 31$ parameters
- The BN uses 1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10 parameters



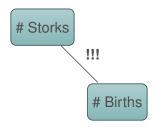
BN are compact

- A CPT for a propositional variable X with k propositional parents has 2^k rows, one for each combination of parent values
- Each row has a value p for X = true (X = false would be 1 p)
- If each variable has a maximum of k parents, the complete BN requires $O(n \cdot 2^k)$ parameters
 - that grows linearly in n, vs. the explicit joint probability distribution that requires O(2ⁿ)
- The ordering of variables to add to the BN can greatly influence the resulting BN

Causality and correlation

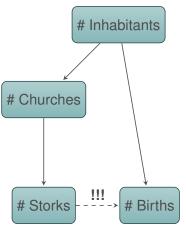
How do we build a BN?

 A study showed that there is a strong correlation between the number of storks in a city and the number of births



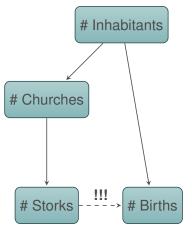
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Causality and correlation

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- · Causality implies correlation
- · But, correlation does not imply causality



Semantics of BNs

Global semantics: the joint probability distribution is the product of local distributions

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

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Basic Bayesian inference

Bayes theorem

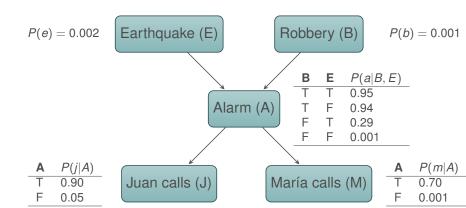
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

Law of total probability

If we have variables A_1, \ldots, A_n and an event B:

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(B|A_i)P(A_i)$$

Alarm example



Exact inference. Enumeration

- Events: b= robbery, e = earthquake, a = alarm,
 j = juan calls, m = maría calls
- Query: probability of robbery given that both Juan and María called: P(b|j, m)

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$$P(b|j,m) = \frac{P(b,j,m)}{P(j,m)} = \alpha P(b,j,m)$$

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- We do not have P(b, j, m), but we can use the joint distribution of all variables in the BN: P(B, E, A, J, M)
 - the value of output variable is fixed, B = T(b)
 - the values of evidences are fixed, J = T(j), M = T(m)
 - the values of all hidden variables (E, A) are summed

Exact inference. Enumeration. Algorithm

· Using the law of total probability:

$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha P(b,j,m)$$

$$= \alpha \sum_{e'=\{v,f\}} \sum_{a'=\{v,f\}} P(b,E=e',A=a',j,m)$$

Then, the joint distribution is decomposed by using BN:

$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha \sum_{e'} \sum_{a'} P(b)P(e')P(a'|b,e')P(j|a')P(m|a')$$
$$= \alpha P(b) \sum_{e'} P(e') \sum_{a'} P(a'|b,e')P(j|a')P(m|a')$$

 And all these probabilities can be obtained from the CPTs of the BN



Exact inference for the Alarm example

$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha P(b)[P(e)(P(a|b,e)P(j|a)P(m|a) +$$

$$P(\neg a|b,e)P(j|\neg a)P(m|\neg a)) +$$

$$P(\neg e)(P(a|b,\neg e)P(j|a)P(m|a) +$$

$$P(\neg a|b,\neg e)P(j|\neg a)P(m|\neg a))]$$

Exact inference for the Alarm example

$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha 0.001[0.002(0.95 \times 0.90 \times 0.70 + 0.05 \times 0.05 \times 0.001) + 0.998(0.94 \times 0.90 \times 0.70 + 0.06 \times 0.05 \times 0.001)]$$

Exact inference. Enumeration

- To compute the normalization factor $\alpha = \frac{1}{P(j,m)}$
 - · we perform the same steps for the other case

$$P(\neg b, j, m)$$

and apply the Law of total probability

$$P(j,m) = P(b,j,m) + P(\neg b,j,m)$$

- $P(B|j,m) = \langle 0.284, 0.716 \rangle$
- Meaning: P(B = T|j, m) = 28.4%, P(B = F|j, m) = 71.6%

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- $P(B|j,m) = \langle 0.284, 0.716 \rangle$
- Meaning: P(B = T|j, m) = 28.4%, P(B = F|j, m) = 71.6%
- Problem of enumeration: exponential complexity (in the worst case)
- If we have N hidden variables, each with M values, we have to compute M^N values

Exact inference. Caching

$$P(b|j,m) = \alpha P(b)[P(e)(P(a|b,e)P(j|a)P(m|a) +$$

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- It can be cumbersome, specially with bigger BN
- It can be alleviated by noticing repetitions: P(m|a), $P(m|\neg a)$, P(j|a), $P(j|\neg a)$
- But, more importantly: P(j|a)P(m|a), $P(j|\neg a)P(m|\neg a)$
- · Can be arbitrarily big formulae
- · Caching: remember the first computation



Approximate inference

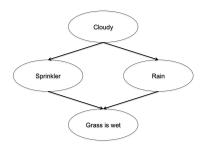
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- Often, the relation among values is more important than the exact values: P(e) > P(e')?

Approximate inference

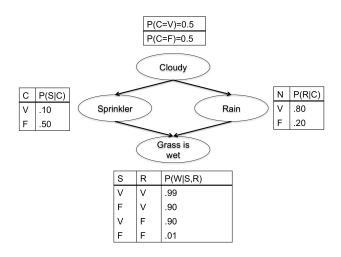
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 - goal: obtain an estimate $\hat{P}(X, e)$ of P(X, e)
 - idea: we can progressively improve results while we still have time

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 - goal: obtain an estimate $\hat{P}(X, e)$ of P(X, e)
 - idea: we can progressively improve results while we still have time
- Direct sampling



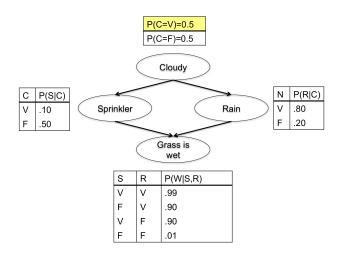
Approximate inference. Direct sampling¹





¹From [Russell and Norvig, 1995]

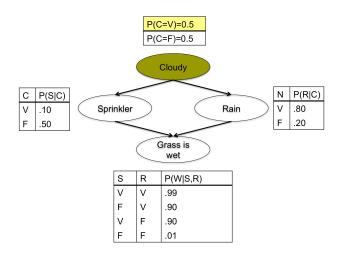
Approximate inference. Direct sampling²





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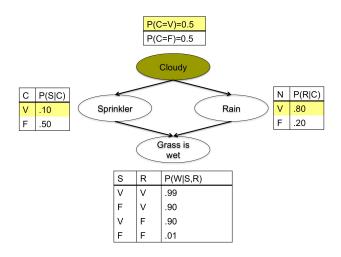
Approximate inference. Direct sampling³





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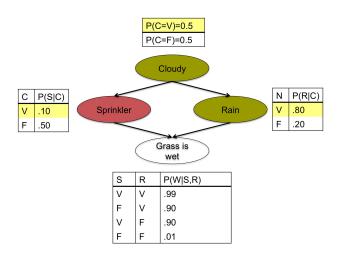
Approximate inference. Direct sampling⁴





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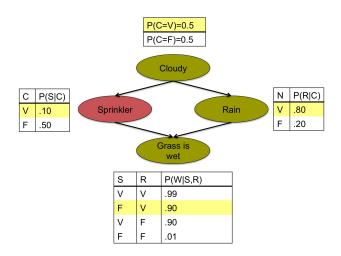
Approximate inference. Direct sampling⁵

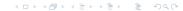




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Approximate inference. Direct sampling⁶





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Approximate inference. Direct sampling

• If we repeat the previous process N times

$$\hat{P}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\text{\#times we saw } X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n}{N}$$

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• And if we want to compute P(X|e)?

$$P(X|e) \sim \hat{P}(X|e) = \frac{\hat{P}(X,e)}{P(e)}$$

- We need
 - Random variables and their domain
 - Conditional independence ⇒ Graph
 - Conditional Probability Tables

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- We can
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- · We can also learn the structure

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Summary Bayesian networks

- Representation of the joint probability distribution
- Show graphically the conditional (in)dependencies
- Save parameters and thus more efficient inference
- Very successful
 - decision support systems
 - documents classification, image understanding, . . .
 - bioinformatics
 - man-machine interaction (e.g. Microsoft Research)
- Several commercial tools: Hugin, Netica, Agena Risk

Credits

- Material from previous years at UC3M
- Book and teaching materal of Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach. Russell&Novig. 2nd edition

References

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- Yang, X. Probabilistic Reasoning in MultiAgent Systms. A graphical models approach
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References



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