Uncertainty



Dr. Ganesh Bhutkar VIT, Pune INDIA ganesh.bhutkar@vit.edu

TY BTech Comp - 2020-21







- Logical agents Make the epistemological commitment that propositions are true, false or unknown.
- Unfortunately, agents almost never have access to the whole truth about their environment.

Qualification problem

" A_{90} will get me there on-time if there is no accident on the bridge, it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact."





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

"A₉₀ will get me there on-time if there is no accident on the bridge and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact."

"A₁₂₀ might reasonably be said to get me there ontime but I'd have to wait ..."

Uncertainty Knowledge

- Medical Diagnosis always involves uncertainty
 - Symptom cannot conclude disease.
 - Disease cannot conclude symptom.
- First-Order Logic (FOL) fails for three reasons:
 - Laziness
 - Too much work to list
 - Theoretical ignorance
 - No complete theory for diagnosis
 - Practical ignorance
 - Not all the necessary tests have been run.
- How to solve?
 - Degree of Belief, Probability Theory & Fuzzy Logic







Probabilistic assertions **summarize** effects of

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

Subjective probability:

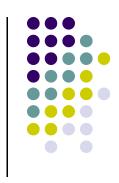
 Probabilities relate propositions to agent's own state of knowledge

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

These are **not** assertions about the world.

Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence: e.g., $P(A_{25} \mid \text{no reported accidents}, 5 \text{ a.m.}) = 0.15$

Rational Decisions



- Preferences of outcomes
- Utility theory
- Maximum Expected Utility

Decision Theory = Probability Theory + Utility Theory

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. time spent waiting

- Utility theory is used to represent and infer preferences.
- Decision theory = Probability Theory + Utility Theory





- 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 you have a dental 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
- Complex propositions formed from elementary propositions and standard logical connectives e.g., Weather = sunny \(\times \) 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 \land Toothache = false
Cavity = false \land Toothache = true
Cavity = true \land Toothache = false
Cavity = true \land Toothache = true
```

Atomic events are mutually exclusive and exhaustive.

Axioms of Probability

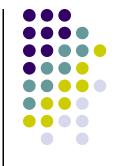
- For any propositions A, B
 - $0 \le P(A) \le 1$
 - P(true) = 1 and P(false) = 0

True

• $P(A \lor B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \land B)$

A A B 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 × ½ 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 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



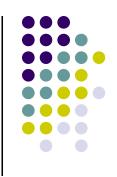
Definition of conditional probability:

$$P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(a \land b)}{P(b)} \quad where \quad P(b) > 0$$

Product rule gives an alternative formulation:

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a \mid b) P(b) = P(b \mid a) P(a)$$

Axioms of Probability



- Kolmogorov's three axioms
 - 1. All probabilities are between 0 and 1

2. Necessarily true is 1, necessarily false is 0

$$P(true)=1, P(false)=0$$

3. Disjunction

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





• Start with the joint probability distribution:

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

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





Start with the joint probability distribution:

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

P(cavity \(\strict{toothache} \)) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28





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:

$$P(\neg cavity \mid toothache) = P(\neg cavity \land toothache)$$

$$= \frac{P(toothache)}{0.016+0.064}$$

$$= 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064$$

$$= 0.4$$





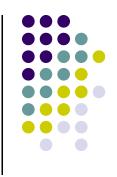
	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch	¬ catch	catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• Denominator can be viewed as a **normalization constant** α

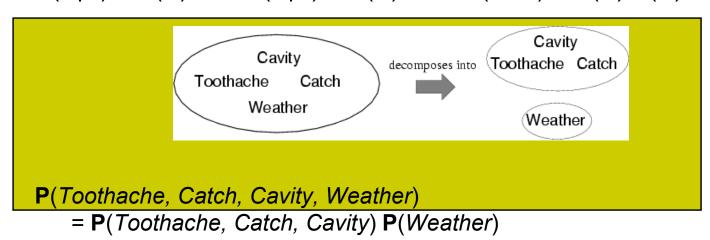
```
P(Cavity \mid toothache) = α, P(Cavity,toothache)
= α, [P(Cavity,toothache,catch) + P(Cavity,toothache,¬ catch)]
= α, [<0.108,0.016> + <0.012,0.064>]
= α, <0.12,0.08> = <0.6,0.4>
```

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

Independence



A and B are independent iff
 P(A|B) = P(A) or P(B|A) = P(B) or P(A, B) = P(A) P(B)



- 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?





- **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) $P(catch \mid toothache, \neg cavity) = P(catch \mid \neg cavity)$
- Catch is conditionally independent of Toothache given 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



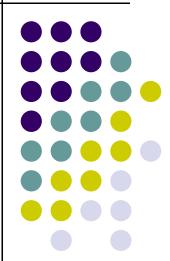
- Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:
 - **P**(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)
 - = P(Toothache | Catch, Cavity) P(Catch, Cavity)
 - = P(Toothache | Catch, Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity) P(Cavity)
 - = P(Toothache | Cavity) P(Catch | Cavity) P(Cavity)

i.e., 2 + 2 + 1 = 5 independent numbers

- 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

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



Bayes' Rule



- Product rule P(a \(b \)) = P(b \) = P(b \) a) P(a)
 - \Rightarrow Bayes' rule: $P(a \mid b) = \frac{P(b \mid a) P(a)}{P(b)}$
- or in distribution form

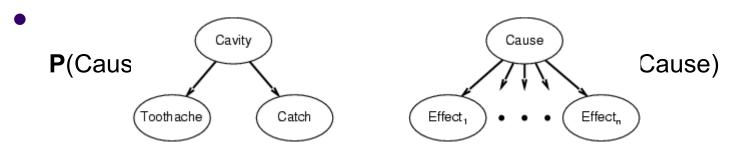
$$P(Y|X) = P(X|Y) P(Y) / P(X) = \alpha P(X|Y) P(Y)$$

- 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:
 - $P(m|s) = P(s|m) P(m) / P(s) = 0.5 \times 0.00002 / 0.05 = 0.0002$

Combining Evidence

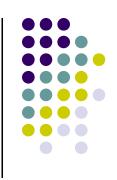
Assume independence of catch and toothache

- **P**(Cavity | toothache ∧ catch)
 - = α**P**(toothache ∧ catch | Cavity) **P**(Cavity)
 - = αP(toothache | Cavity) P(catch | Cavity) P(Cavity)
- This is an example of a naïve Bayes model:



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