

Artificial Intelligence (CS303)

Lecture 12: Representing and Inference with Uncertainty

Hints for this lecture

- An agent can seldom precisely know the state, knowledge should be represented such that wise decisions/actions can still be made.

I. Uncertainty and Rational Decisions

The World is Uncertain

- Things don't always happen with simple true or false.
- We never know what “state” we are in exactly, because the world is only partially observable.
- We (agents) seldom make decisions with full certainty, while more often make **rational** decision based on **utility**.

| Language | Ontological Commitment | Epistemological Commitment |
|---------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Propositional logic | facts | true/false/unknown |
| First-order logic | facts, objects, relations | true/false/unknown |
| Probability theory | facts | degree of belief |
| Fuzzy logic | facts | degree of truth known interval value |

Alternative to Logic

- Utility theory: Assign utility to each state/actions
- Probability theory: Summarize the uncertainty associated with each state
- Rational Decisions: Maximize the **expected utility** (Probability + Utility)
- Thus we need to represent states in the language of probability.

II. Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

- Joint probability distribution specifies probability of every atomic event.
- Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events.

| | <i>toothache</i> | | \neg <i>toothache</i> | |
|----------------------|------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| | <i>catch</i> | \neg <i>catch</i> | <i>catch</i> | \neg <i>catch</i> |
| <i>cavity</i> | .108 | .012 | .072 | .008 |
| \neg <i>cavity</i> | .016 | .064 | .144 | .576 |

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Prior probability

Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g., $P(\text{Cavity} = \text{true}) = 0.1$ and $P(\text{Weather} = \text{sunny}) = 0.72$

correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence

Probability distribution gives values for all possible assignments:

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Weather}) = \langle 0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1 \rangle$ (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)

Joint probability distribution for a set of r.v.s gives the probability of every atomic event on those r.v.s (i.e., every sample point)

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Weather}, \text{Cavity})$ = a 4×2 matrix of values:

| <i>Weather =</i> | <i>sunny</i> | <i>rain</i> | <i>cloudy</i> | <i>snow</i> |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| <i>Cavity = true</i> | 0.144 | 0.02 | 0.016 | 0.02 |
| <i>Cavity = false</i> | 0.576 | 0.08 | 0.064 | 0.08 |

Every question about a domain can be answered by the joint distribution because every event is a sum of sample points

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Conditional probability

Conditional or posterior probabilities

e.g., $P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}) = 0.8$

i.e., **given that toothache is all I know**

NOT “if *toothache* then 80% chance of *cavity*”

(Notation for conditional distributions:

$\mathbf{P}(\text{Cavity}|\text{Toothache}) = 2\text{-element vector of 2-element vectors})$

If we know more, e.g., *cavity* is also given, then we have

$P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}, \text{cavity}) = 1$

Note: the less specific belief **remains valid** after more evidence arrives, but is not always **useful**

New evidence may be irrelevant, allowing simplification, e.g.,

$P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}, \text{49ersWin}) = P(\text{cavity}|\text{toothache}) = 0.8$

This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Conditional probability

Definition of conditional probability:

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)} \text{ if } P(b) \neq 0$$

Product rule gives an alternative formulation:

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

A general version holds for whole distributions, e.g.,

$$\mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}, \textit{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity})$$

(View as a 4×2 set of equations, **not** matrix mult.)

Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

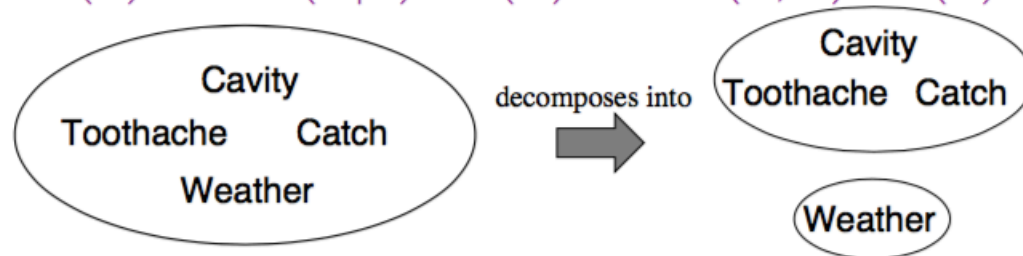
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_{n-2}) \mathbf{P}(X_{n-1}|X_1, \dots, X_{n-2}) \mathbf{P}(X_n|X_1, \dots, X_{n-1}) \\ &= \dots \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Independence

A and B are independent iff

$$P(A|B) = P(A) \quad \text{or} \quad P(B|A) = P(B) \quad \text{or} \quad P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$$



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

32 entries reduced to 12; for n independent biased coins, $2^n \rightarrow n$

Absolute independence powerful but rare

Dentistry is a large field with hundreds of variables,
none of which are independent. What to do?

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Bayes' Rule

Product rule $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Bayes' rule } P(a|b) = \frac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)}$$

or in distribution form

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)} = \alpha P(X|Y)P(Y)$$

Useful for assessing **diagnostic** probability from **causal** probability:

$$P(Cause|Effect) = \frac{P(Effect|Cause)P(Cause)}{P(Effect)}$$

Basic Probability Theory and Its Use

Bayes' Rule and conditional independence

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}|\textit{toothache} \wedge \textit{catch}) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(\textit{toothache} \wedge \textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}) \\ &= \alpha \mathbf{P}(\textit{toothache}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{catch}|\textit{Cavity})\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cavity}) \end{aligned}$$

This is an example of a **naive Bayes** model:

$$\mathbf{P}(\textit{Cause}, \textit{Effect}_1, \dots, \textit{Effect}_n) = \mathbf{P}(\textit{Cause}) \prod_i \mathbf{P}(\textit{Effect}_i|\textit{Cause})$$

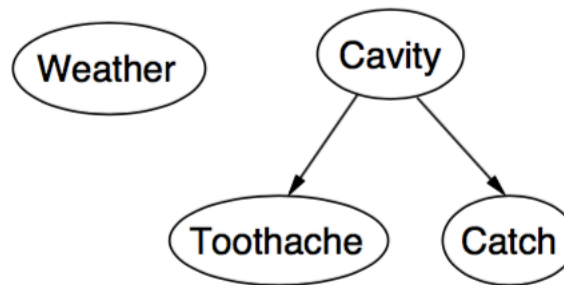


Total number of parameters is **linear** in n

III. Bayesian Networks

What is a BN?

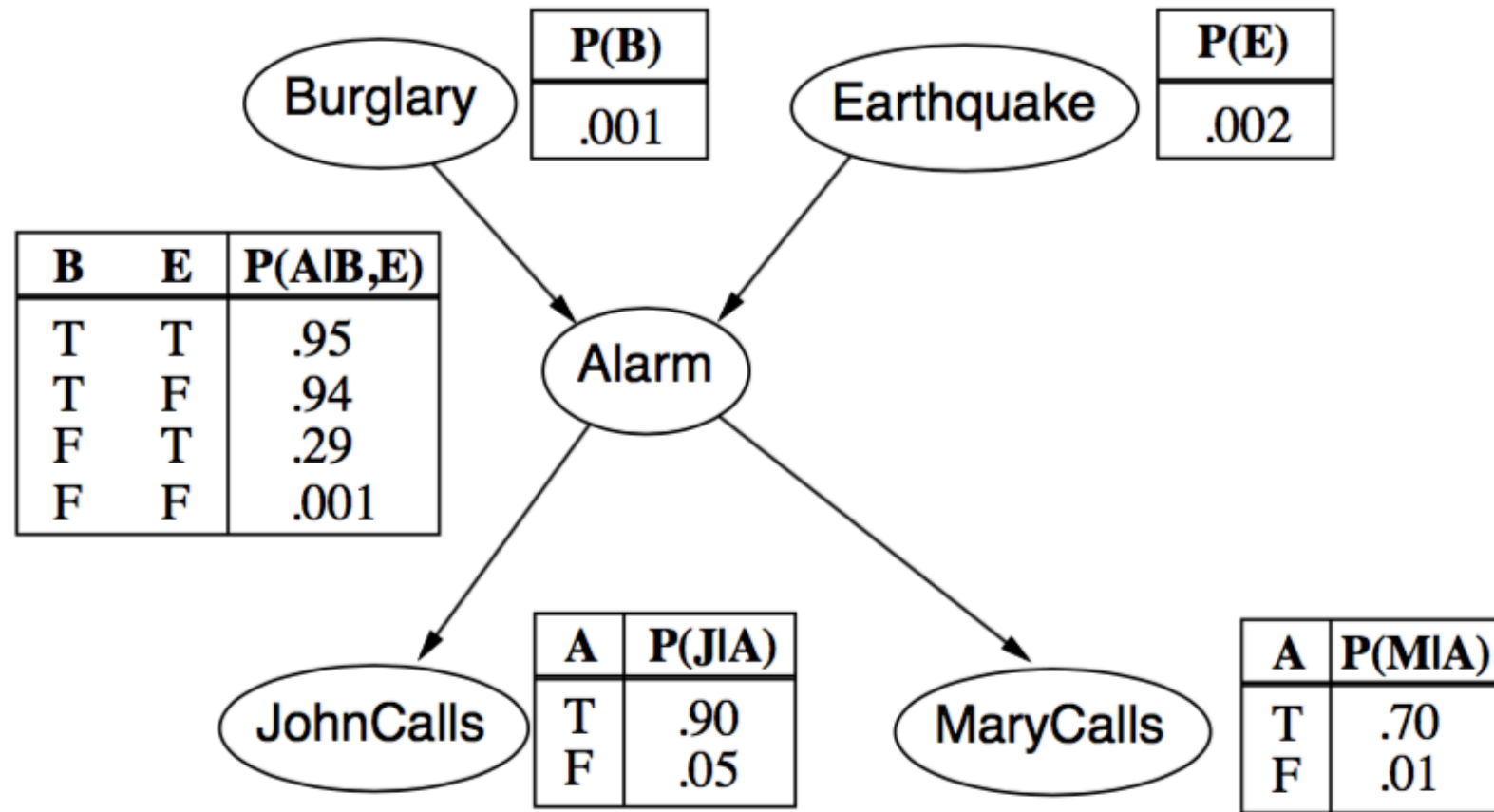
- A Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG).
- Each node is a random variable, associated with conditional distribution.
- Each arc (link) represent **direct influence** of a parent node to a child node.



Weather is independent of the other variables

Toothache and *Catch* are conditionally independent given *Cavity*

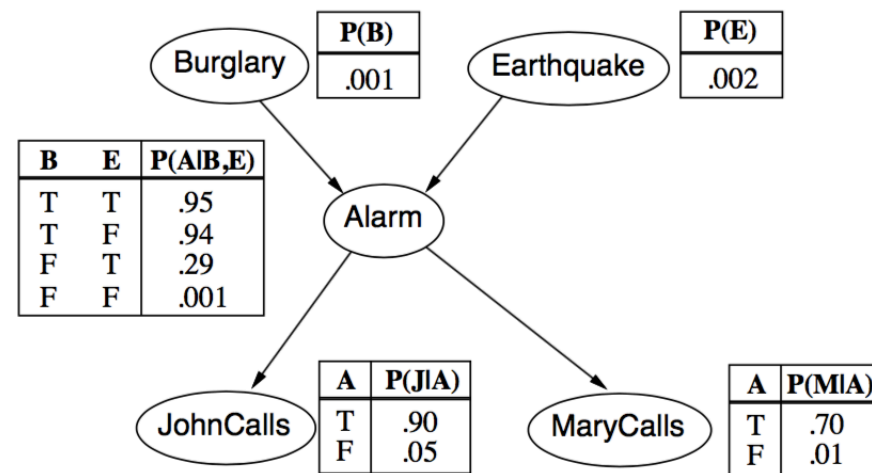
A Simple Example of BN



Inference with BN

- Given a Bayesian Network, and an (or some) observed events, which specifies the value for **evidence variables**, we want to know the probability distribution of one (or several) **query variables X**, $P(X \mid \text{events})$.

- E. g. : $P(\text{Burglary} \mid \text{JohnCalls} = \text{true}, \text{MaryCalls} = \text{true})$



BN in the form of Conditional Probability Table

- More compact representation (compared to propositional logic).

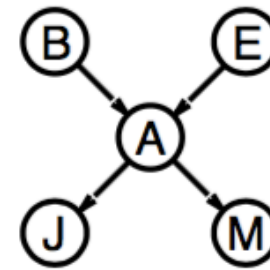
A CPT for Boolean X_i with k Boolean parents has 2^k rows for the combinations of parent values

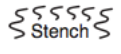






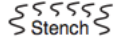




Each row requires one number p for $X_i = \text{true}$ (the number for $X_i = \text{false}$ is just $1 - p$)

If each variable has no more than k parents, the complete network requires $O(n \cdot 2^k)$ numbers

I.e., grows linearly with n , vs. $O(2^n)$ for the full joint distribution

For burglary net, $1 + 1 + 4 + 2 + 2 = 10$ numbers (vs. $2^5 - 1 = 31$)



| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|--|
| 4 |  | |  | PIT |
| 3 |  |    | PIT |  |
| 2 |  | |  | |
| 1 |  START |  | PIT |  |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

- Easier to utilize independence and conditional dependence relations to define the joint distribution.

How to construct a CPT for BN?

1. Choose an ordering of variables X_1, \dots, X_n
2. For $i = 1$ to n
 - add X_i to the network
 - select parents from X_1, \dots, X_{i-1} such that
$$\mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) = \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$

This choice of parents guarantees the global semantics:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{P}(X_1, \dots, X_n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}) \quad (\text{chain rule}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{P}(X_i | \text{Parents}(X_i)) \quad (\text{by construction})\end{aligned}$$

To be continued