

Chapter 13: Probability

- Properties:
 - Partially observable world.
 - Still deterministic, discrete.

Example: driving to the airport.

- Uncertainty: Road state, other drivers' plans, weather, flat tire, ...
- A purely logical approach either
 - Risks falsehood: Plan A₂₅ will get me there on time.
 - Gives answers that are too weak for decision making: A₂₅ will get me there on time if I don't get a flat tire, no accident, etc.
 - Is more certain than necessary: Get to the airport the day before.

Probabilistic analysis is present in almost all practical AI tasks.

- Health: diagnosis, testing, response to treatment
- Logistics: weather, traffic, demand
- Finance: weather, global forces

Probabilities, atomic events and events

Atomic event: Specific possible world.

$$\omega \in \Omega$$

Probability model: Assignment $P(\omega)$ to each atomic event ω .

- Atomic event: Specific possible world
 - Example: Roll a die
 - Example: Roll two dice. Atomic events are pairs of rolls = (1,1), (1,2), (2,1), ... (6,6)
 - Atomic event ω in Ω (set of all atomic events)
- Probability model: Assignment $P(\omega)$ to each ω in Ω .
 - $0 \leq P(\omega) \leq 1$
 - $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega) = 1$
 - One die: $P(1) = P(2) = \dots = P(6) = 1/6$
 - Two dice: $P((1,1)) = P((1,2)) = \dots = P(6,6) = 1/36$

Events

An *event* A is a subset of of atomic events.

$$A \subseteq \Omega$$

- An Event A is a subset of Ω
 - $A = \text{die roll} < 4$
 - Probability of an event is the sum of probabilities of atomic events
 - $P(A) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = 1/2$

Random variables

A *random variable* is a mapping from atomic events to values.

Domain of a random variable: Set of possible values it can take.

- Examples:
 - Odd = First die is odd.
 - Sum = Sum of dice rolls.
 - Doubles = Both dies have the same value
- We can define events according to random variable values.
 - $P(\text{Odd} = \text{true}) = 1/2$
 - $P(\text{Sum} = 2) = 1/36$
 - $P(\text{Sum} = 3) = 2/36$
 - $P(\text{Sum} \geq 4) = 33/36$
 - $P(\text{Double} = \text{true}) = 6/36$
- Types of domains:
 - Boolean: Odd in {true, false}. Also called propositional random variables.
 - Discrete: (Weather in {sunny, rainy, cloudy})
 - Continuous: Temperature = 21.3

Notation and shorthand

We use capital letters for random variables: *Odd*, *Total*, ...

We use lowercase letters for atomic events: *true*, *false*, *heads*, *sunny*...

Shorthand:

- $P(\textit{sunny})$: $P(\textit{Weather} = \textit{sunny})$
- $P(\textit{odd})$: $P(\textit{Odd} = \textit{true})$
- $P(\neg\textit{odd})$: $P(\textit{Odd} = \textit{false})$
- $P(\textit{Weather}) = [0.6, 0.1, 0.2]$

Propositional logic using Boolean random variables

- We can define events based on logical expressions of random variables
 - $P(\text{sunny} \wedge \text{odd})$
 - $P(\text{sunny} \vee \text{odd})$

Joint probability distribution

<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

- Defines a probability for every atomic event.
- $P(\text{Cavity} = \text{true}, \text{Weather} = \text{sunny})$
- Could also be written as $P(\text{Cavity} = \text{true} \wedge \text{Weather} = \text{sunny})$

Conditional probability

- $P(a | b) = P(a, b) / P(b)$
- Alternatively: $P(a, b) = P(a | b) P(b)$
- Chain rule: $P(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = P(X_1) P(X_2 | X_1) P(X_3 | X_1, X_2) \dots$

Inference by enumeration

We want to compute $P(y | e)$.

We have the joint distribution $P(Y,E,H)$.

Each random variable is in one of three sets:

- Query Y
- Evidence E
- Hidden H

$$P(y|e) = \frac{P(y, e)}{P(e)} = \sum_{h \in H} \frac{P(y, e, h)}{P(e, h)} = \sum_{h \in H} \frac{P(y, e, h)}{\sum_{y' \in Y} P(y', e, h)}$$

- Variables divided into three sets:
 - Query Y
 - Evidence E
 - Hidden H
- We want to compute: $P(Y | E) = P(Y,E) / P(E) = \sum_{h \in H} P(Y,E,h) / P(E,h)$

Normalization factor

$$P(Y|e) = \frac{P(Y, e)}{P(e)} = \alpha P(Y, e) = \alpha \sum_{h \in H} P(Y, e, h)$$

$$\alpha = \sum_{y \in Y} P(Y, e)$$

- We know $P(y | e)$ sums to 1.
- Instead of calculating the denominator explicitly, we can calculate the whole distribution $P(Y, e)$ and multiply it by whatever factor makes its sum to 1.
- alpha: "normalization factor", "partition function"

Inference by enumeration

	<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

- First task: inference.
- Given an event, sum the atomic events where it is true.
- $P(\text{toothache}) = 0.2$
- $P(\text{cavity} \vee \text{toothache}) = 0.28$
- $P(\text{cavity} \wedge \text{toothache}) = 0.12$

Inference by enumeration

	<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

- Inference in general:

Inference by enumeration

	<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

Inference by enumeration

Rain	Traffic	Late	Probability
F	F	F	0.729
F	F	T	0.081
F	T	F	0.063
F	T	T	0.027
T	F	F	0.018
T	F	T	0.002
T	T	F	0.056
T	T	T	0.024

- P(no rain, traffic, not late)? 0.063
- P(late | rain, traffic). Two ways:
 - Normalization factor: $[0.056, 0.024]$. $\text{Alpha} = 0.08$. $0.024/0.08 = 0.3$.
 - Denominator: $0.024 / (0.056 + 0.024) = 0.3$.
- P(rain): 0.1
- P(late | rain):
 - $P(\text{Late} | \text{rain}) = [0.018+0.056, 0.024+0.002] = 0.074, 0.026$
 - $\text{Alpha} = 0.1$
 - $P(\text{late} | \text{rain}) = 0.26$

Independence

- W43-Wed:
 - Contest:
 - Focus on: choice of symbol to branch on.
 - Branch on symbol that appears in the most clauses.
 - Better: Favor variables in shorter clauses.
 - Start with the value that satisfies the most clauses.
- Consider variables: Cavity, Catch, Toothache, Weather
- Intuitively, Weather is unrelated.
- Two sets of variables: Cavity, Toothache, Catch. Weather.
- A and B are independent ($A \perp B$) iff $P(A,B) = P(A)P(B)$
 - Equivalently, $P(A|B) = P(A)$
- Makes inference much easier. For n independent biased coins:
 - Size of probability table: $2^n - 1 \rightarrow n$
 - Time for inference on a single variable: $O(2^n) \rightarrow O(1)$
- Full independence is rare.

Conditional independence

- Assuming I have a cavity, probability that probe catches doesn't depend on toothache.
 - Intuitively
 - Evaluate based on table
- `toothache <- cavity -> catch`
- Conditional independence:
 - A is conditionally independent of B given C iff $P(A|B,C) = P(A|C)$
 - Equivalent: $P(A,B | C) = P(A | C) P(B | C)$

$P(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity})$ has 8 independent entries

Chain rule:

$P(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity})$

= $P(\text{Toothache} | \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Catch}, \text{Cavity})$

= $P(\text{Toothache} | \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Catch} | \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Cavity})$

= $P(\text{Toothache} | \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Catch} | \text{Cavity}) P(\text{Cavity})$

-> 5 independent entries

Using just the conditional probability tables, we can reconstruct the full joint distribution.

We almost always represent probability distributions using conditional probability tables. Benefits

- Much smaller representation.
- Usually more intuitive.
- Usually more efficient for inference.

Another example: Rain, Traffic, Late

Bayes' rule

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

- We can derive from product rule.
- $P(\text{cause} | \text{effect}) = P(\text{effect} | \text{cause}) P(\text{cause}) / P(\text{effect})$

Example: Meningitis causes stiff neck.

$$P(m) = 1/50,000$$

$$P(s) = 0.1$$

$$P(s | m) = 0.7$$

->

$$P(m | s) = 0.0008$$