

## Uncertainty

CPS 170  
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## Why do we need uncertainty?

- Many proposed logic as the “language” of AI
- Problem: General logical statements are almost always false
- Truthful and accurate statements about the world would seem to require an endless list of *qualifications*
- How do you start a car?
- Call this “The Qualification Problem”

## The Qualification Problem

- Is this a real concern?
- YES!
- Systems that try to avoid dealing with uncertainty tend to be brittle.
- Plans fail
- Plan failures result in logical contradictions
- Logical contradictions can cause huge problems

## Probabilities

- Natural way to represent uncertainty
- People have intuitive notions about probabilities
- Many of these are wrong or inconsistent
- Most people don't get what probabilities mean
- Finer details of this question still debated

## Probability Solves the Qualification Problem

- Later: we define conditional probability
- For example,  $P(\text{disease}|\text{symptom1})$
- This defines the probability of a disease given that we have observed only symptom1
- The conditioning bar indicates that the probability is defined with respect to a particular state of knowledge, not as an absolute thing

## Understanding Probabilities

- Initially, probabilities are “relative frequencies”
- This works well for dice and coin flips
- For more complicated events, this is problematic
- What is probability Bush will win a second term?
  - This event only happens once
  - We can't count frequencies
  - Still seems like a meaningful question
- In general, all events are unique
- “Reference Class” problem

## Probabilities and Beliefs

- Suppose I have rolled a die and hidden the outcome
- What is  $P(\text{Die} = 3)$ ?
- Note that this is a statement about a *belief*, not a statement about the world
- The world is in exactly one state and it is in that state with probability 1.
- Assigning truth values to probability statements is very tricky business
- Must reference speakers state of knowledge

## Belief and Determinism

- Ask the same question before rolling the die
- Your probabilities are the same, but mine are different (they now match yours)
- The world has changed, my state of knowledge has changed, but yours has not
- Changing the world doesn't change our perception of probability; only changing our knowledge does
- There is a sense in which probability can necessarily be about our beliefs *only*: Cashed random calls

## Frequentism and Subjectivism

- Frequentists hold that probabilities must come from relative frequencies
- This is a purist viewpoint
- This is corrupted by the fact that relative frequencies are often unobtainable
- Often requires complicated and convoluted assumptions to come up with probabilities
- Subjectivists: probabilities are degrees of belief
  - Taints purity of probabilities
  - Often more practical

## Why probabilities are good

- Subjectivists: probabilities are degrees of belief
- Are all degrees of belief probability?
  - AI has used many notions of belief:
    - Certainty Factors
    - Fuzzy Logic
- Can prove that a person who holds a system of beliefs inconsistent with probability theory can be tricked into accepted a sequence of bets that is guaranteed to lose

## What are probabilities?

- Probabilities are defined over random variables
- Random variables are usually represented with capitals:  $X, Y, Z$
- Random variables take on values from a finite domain  $d(X), d(Y), d(Z)$
- We use lower case letters for values from domains
- $X=x$  asserts that the random variable  $X$  has taken on value  $x$
- $P(x)$  is shorthand for  $P(X=x)$

## Domains

- In the simplest case, domains are boolean
- In general may include many different values
- Most general case: domains may be continuous
- This introduces some special complications

## Kolmogorov's axioms of probability

- $0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{true}) = 1$ ;  $P(\text{false}) = 0$
- $P(a \text{ or } b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \text{ and } b)$
- Subtract to correct for double counting
- This is sufficient to completely specify probability theory for discrete variables
- Continuous variables need density functions

## Atomic Events

- When several variables are involved, it is useful to think about atomic events
- An atomic event is a complete assignment to variables in the domain (compare with interpretation in logic)
- Atomic events are mutually exclusive
- Exhaust space of all possible events
- For  $n$  binary variables, how many unique atomic events are there?

## Joint Distributions

- A joint distribution is an assignment of probabilities to every possible atomic event
- We can define all other probabilities in terms of the joint probabilities:

$$P(a) = \sum_{e_i \in e(a)} P(e_i)$$

$$P(a) = P(a \wedge b) + P(a \wedge \neg b)$$

## Why Probabilities Are Messy

- Probabilities are not truth-functional
- To compute  $P(a \text{ and } b)$  we need to consult the joint distribution
  - sum out all of the other variables from the distribution
  - It is not a function of  $P(a)$  and  $P(b)$
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- This fact led to many approximations methods such as certainty factors and fuzzy logic (Why?)
- Neat vs. Scruffy...

## Conditional Probabilities

- Ordinary probabilities for random variables: unconditional or prior probabilities
- $P(a|b) = P(a \text{ AND } b)/P(b)$
- This tells us the probability of a **given that we know *only* b**
- If we know  $c$  and  $d$ , we can't use  $P(a|b)$  directly
- Annoying, but necessary to solve the qualification problem

## Conditioning

- Suppose we know  $P(ABCDE)$  ← Joint
- Observe  $B=b$ , update our beliefs:

$$P(acde | b) = \frac{P(abcde)}{P(b)} = \frac{P(abcde)}{\sum_{ACDE} P(ABCDE)}$$

## Condition with Bayes's Rule

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(B \wedge A)$$

$$P(A | B)P(B) = P(B | A)P(A)$$

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

## Let's Play Doctor

- Suppose  $P(\text{test\_positive}|\text{hepatitis}) = 0.99$
- Patient tests positive
- What is probability patient has hepatitis?

$$\begin{aligned} P(h | tp) &= \frac{P(tp | h)P(h)}{P(tp)} \\ &= \frac{0.99 * 0.00001}{0.001} = 0.0099 \end{aligned}$$

## Why Bayes's Rule is Helpful

- $P(\text{Disease}|\text{Symptom}) = P(S|D)P(D)/P(S)$
- $P(S|D)$  is usually easily measure or estimated
- $P(D)$ ,  $P(S)$  also somewhat easier to determine
- This is an example of *causal* reasoning
- Causal reasoning decomposes nicely

## Independence

- Joint probability distributions don't scale
- Independence makes our lives easier
- If A and B are independent then
  - $P(A \text{ and } B) = P(A)P(B)$
  - $P(A|B) = P(A)$
- Why does this help?