

Probability Overview (very brief)

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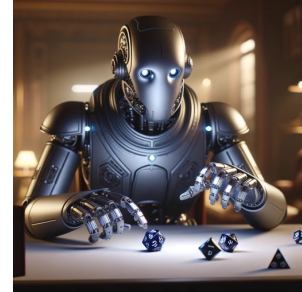
Goals Of These Slides

- Revisit a topic most of you have seen already to
 - Refresh your memories
 - Synchronize notation

- Provide context – for AI, RL, etc.

Why does AI need uncertainty?

- Reason: Sh*t happens
- Actions don't have deterministic outcomes
- Can logic be 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"



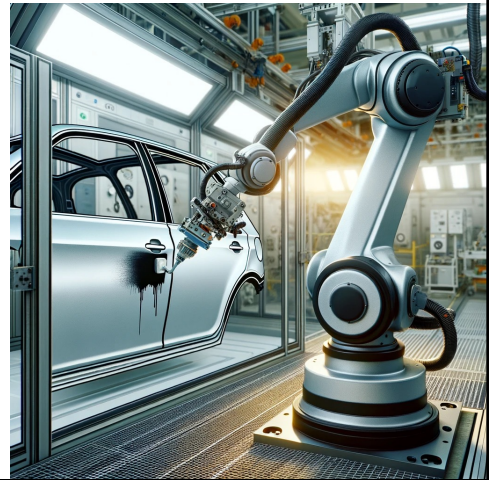
The Qualification Problem

- Is this a real concern?
- YES!
- Systems that try to avoid dealing with uncertainty tend to be brittle.
- Plans fail
- Finding shortest path to goal isn't that great if the path doesn't really get you to the goal



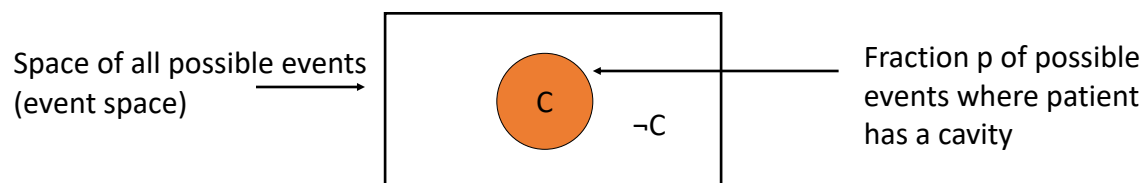
When can we (mostly) ignore qualifications?

- When environment is highly engineered/controlled
- Objects moving in free space
- Carefully controlled factories
- When replanning is relatively cheap



Relative Frequencies (simplest view of probs)

- Consider a world where a dentist agent D meets a new patient
- D is interested in **only one thing**: whether patient has a cavity (C)
- Before making any observation, D's belief state is:



- This means that D believes that a fraction p of patients have cavities

Notation

- $P(XY) = P(X,Y)$ = a joint probability distribution over all settings of X and Y (potentially a **table** with a large number of entries)
- $P(xy) = P(x,y) = P(x \text{ AND } y) = P(x \wedge y) = P(X=x,Y=y), P(X=x \text{ AND } Y=y) = P(X=x \wedge Y=y) =$ a **single number** corresponding the probability that both $X=x$ and $Y=y$
- $P(Xy)$ = a table with one entry for each value of X when y is true – not a distribution
- $P(X=\text{false}) = P(\bar{x}) = P(\neg x) = P(\sim x)$ = a single number for case where X is a binary variable takes value false (or zero)

Why Probabilities Are Messy

- Probabilities are not truth-functional
- Computing $P(a \text{ and } b)$ requires the joint distribution
 - It is not, in general, 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?)

Working With 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 by *marginalization*:

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

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

Example

- $P(\text{cold} \wedge \text{headache}) = 0.4$
- $P(\neg \text{cold} \wedge \text{headache}) = 0.2$
- $P(\text{cold} \wedge \neg \text{headache}) = 0.3$
- $P(\neg \text{cold} \wedge \neg \text{headache}) = 0.1$

- What are $P(\text{cold})$ and $P(\text{headache})$?

Independence

- If A and B are independent: $P(A \wedge B) = P(A)P(B)$
- $P(\text{cold} \wedge \text{headache}) = 0.4$
- $P(\neg \text{cold} \wedge \text{headache}) = 0.2$
- $P(\text{cold} \wedge \neg \text{headache}) = 0.3$
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- Are cold and headache independent?

Independence and Mutual Exclusivity

- Examples of independent events:
 - KC winning Superbowl, Biden winning reelection
 - Two successive, fair coin flips
 - My car starting and my iPhone working
 - etc.
- If A and B are mutually exclusive:
 $P(A \vee B) = P(A) + P(B)$

Expectation

- Most of us use expectation in some form when we compute averages
- What is the average value of a fair die roll?
- $(1+2+3+4+5+6)/6 = 3.5$
(we divide by 6 because all outcomes are equally likely)
- Is it possible for all children to be above average?

Expectation in General

- Suppose we have some RV X
- Suppose we have some function $f(X)$
- What is the expected value of $f(X)$?

$$E_x f(x) = \sum_x P(X) f(X)$$

Linearity of Expectation

- Suppose we have $f(X)$ and $g(Y)$.
- What is the expected value of $f(X)+g(Y)$?

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{XY} f(X) + g(Y) &= \sum_{XY} P(X \wedge Y) (f(X) + g(Y)) \\
 &= \sum_{XY} P(X \wedge Y) f(X) + \sum_{XY} P(X \wedge Y) g(Y) \\
 &= \sum_X \sum_Y P(X \wedge Y) f(X) + \sum_Y \sum_X P(X \wedge Y) g(Y) \\
 &= \sum_X f(x) \sum_Y P(X \wedge Y) + \sum_Y g(y) \sum_X P(X \wedge Y) \\
 &= \sum_X f(x) P(X) + \sum_Y g(y) P(Y) \\
 &= E_X f(X) + E_Y g(Y)
 \end{aligned}$$

AI avoided probabilities for decades

- Reasoning about probabilities correctly requires the joint distribution
 - Exponentially large! (all truth values of all variables)
 - Very inconvenient!
- But...assuming independence (**mutual exclusivity**) when there is not independence (**mutual exclusivity**) leads to **incorrect answers**
- Examples:
 - ANDing symptoms by multiplying (independence)
 - ORing symptoms by adding (mutual exclusivity)
- “Dutch Book” argument shows that any system of beliefs not consistent with probability theory can lead to bad bets

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**
(without additional assumptions)
- Annoying, but solves the qualification problem...

Probability **Solves** the Qualification Problem

- $P(\text{disease} | \text{symptom1})$
- 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*

Condition with Bayes's Rule

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

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

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

Note that we will usually call Bayes's rules "Bayes Rule"

Let's Play Doctor

- $P(\text{cold}) = 0.7$, $P(\text{headache}) = 0.6$
- $P(\text{headache} | \text{cold}) = 0.57$
- What is $P(\text{cold} | \text{headache})$ using Bayes Rule?

$$\begin{aligned} P(c | h) &= \frac{P(h | c)P(c)}{P(h)} \\ &= \frac{0.57 * 0.7}{0.6} = 0.66 \end{aligned}$$

- IMPORTANT: **Not always symmetric**

Conditional Independence

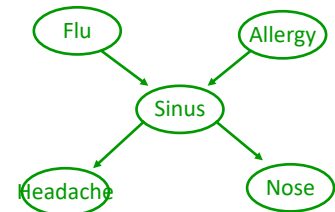
- We say that two variables, A and B, are conditionally independent given C if:
 - $P(A|BC) = P(A|C)$
 - $P(AB|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)$
- How does this help?
- We **store only a conditional probability table (CPT)** of each variable given its parents
- Naïve Bayes (e.g. Spam Assassin) is a special case of this! (Words are conditionally independent given spam/ham)

What is a Bayes Net?

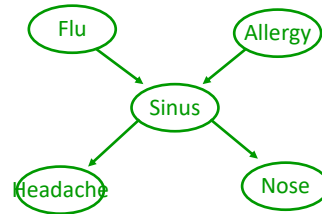
- A directed acyclic graph (DAG)
- **Given parents**, each variable is *conditionally independent of non-descendants*,
- Joint probability decomposes:

$$P(x_1 \dots x_n) = \prod_i P(x_i | \text{parents}(x_i))$$

- For each node X_i , store $P(X_i | \text{parents}(X_i))$
- Call this a Conditional Probability Table (CPT)
- CPT size is exponential in number of parents



Space Efficiency



- Entire joint distribution as 32 (31) entries
 - $P(H|S), P(N|S)$ have 4 (2)
 - $P(S|AF)$ has 8 (4)
 - $P(A), P(F)$ have 2 (1)
 - Total is 20 (10)
- This can require exponentially less space
- **Space problem is solved** for “most” problems

(Non)Uniqueness of Bayes Nets I

- Suppose you have two variables that are **NOT** independent
- Two possible networks:
 - A is parent of B
 - B is parent of A
- Which is right?
- **There is no wrong answer!**
- Each network can express arbitrary $P(AB)$
- Network does **NOT** encode causal or temporal dynamics

(Non)Uniqueness of Bayes Nets II

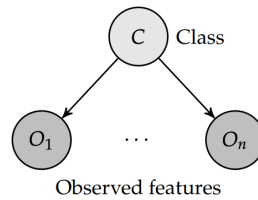
- Can construct valid Bayes net by adding variables incrementally
- For each new variable, connect all influencing variables as parents – new variables never become parents of existing variables (how does this ensure that all variables are conditionally independent of non-descendants given parents?)
- Different order → different Bayesian networks for same distribution

Working with Bayes nets

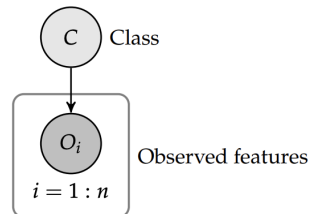
- Can give exponential reduction in storage for joint distribution
- What if we want to answer questions using joint distro, e.g., $P(f|h)$?
- In the worst case, answering arbitrary queries using a Bayesian network is NP-hard
- This doesn't always occur (depends upon the structure, and the query), so Bayes nets are still useful in practice
- For this class: Mostly used to show relationships between variables

Plate Notation

- A compact way of representing a Bayes net with repeated structure
- Naïve Bayes:



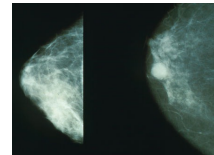
- Plate version:



Bonus material (if time permits)

Another Example

- From: <http://opinionator.blogs.nytimes.com/2010/04/25/chances-are/> (attributed to Gerd Gigerenzer)
- “...The probability that one of these women has breast cancer is 0.8 percent. If a woman has breast cancer, the probability is 90 percent that she will have a positive mammogram. If a woman does **not** have breast cancer, the probability is 7 percent that she will still have a positive mammogram. Imagine a woman who has a positive mammogram. What is the probability that she actually has breast cancer?”
- 95/100 U.S. doctors answered ~75%



Source: Wikipedia

Understanding Probabilities More Subtly

- Initially, probabilities are “relative frequencies”
- This works well for dice and coin flips
- For more complicated events, this is problematic
- Probability Trump running and winning in 2024?
 - 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
- Most things are in the middle
 - Not repeatable and identical
 - Not fully unique – previous, related events may inform us