

# Uncertainty and Probabilistic Reasoning

## 1 The Need of Uncertainty Reasoning

- Humans easily reason with uncertain (not 100% correct) statements and knowledge.
- Classical logic needs 100% correct statements.
- Probability theory needs lots of data to compute conditional probabilities.
- Rules with certainty factors are oversimplified model.

## 2 Uncertainty Reasoning – Basic Terms

- *Random variable*: term in predicate calculus that may take a number of values (including continuous variables).
- *Variable domain*:  $dom(x)$  = the set of possible values of  $x$ .
- *Statement*: Boolean expression of variable assignments ( $x_i = v_j$ ). For example,  $A = (outlook = rain) \vee (temperature = cool) \vee \neg (wind = strong)$ .
- *Probability*: measure of confidence in a statement  $A$ . If  $P(A) = 0 \rightarrow 100\%$  confidence that  $A$  is false,  $P(A) = 1 \rightarrow 100\%$  that  $A$  is true. If  $P(A)$  is between 0 and 1 this does not mean that  $A$  is "partially true", rather this reflects our uncertainty about the actual truth value of  $A$ .
- *Probability distribution*: the probabilities of each value of a random variable. If  $dom(x) = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ , then  $\sum_{i=1}^n P(x = v_i) = 1$ .
- *Prior probability*: probability without any additional information about a statement.
- *Conditional probability*: probability when the values of other random variables are known. For example,  $P(temperature = cool | humidity = low)$ .

### 3 Uncertainty Reasoning – Basic Formulas

- $P(A \vee B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \wedge B)$
- $A, B$  – *independent* (knowing the one does not change the probability of the other),  $P(A \wedge B) = P(A)P(B)$ .
- *Disjoint events*: never happen together,  $P(A \wedge B) = 0$ .
- Conditional probability:  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$
- Bayes Theorem:  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$

### 4 Probabilistic Model

- *Atomic event*:  $(x_1 = v_1) \wedge (x_2 = v_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (x_n = v_n)$ , where  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are random variables. Describes a state of the world.
- *Joint probability distribution* –  $n$ -dimensional table with  $m_i$  cells ( $i = 1, \dots, n$ ) along each dimension, if  $x_i$  has  $m_i$  possible values. Each cell shows the probability of the corresponding atomic event. For example:

	<i>toothache=true</i>	<i>toothache=false</i>
<i>cavity= true</i>	0.04	0.06
<i>cavity=false</i>	0.01	0.89

- Given the joint probability distribution the probability of any even can be found. For example:

$$P(\text{cavity} = \text{true}) = 0.04 + 0.06 = 0.1$$

$$P(\text{cavity} = \text{true} \vee \text{toothache} = \text{true}) = 0.04 + 0.01 + 0.06 = 0.11$$

$$P(\text{cavity} = \text{true} | \text{toothache} = \text{true}) = \frac{P(\text{cavity} = \text{true} \wedge \text{toothache} = \text{true})}{P(\text{toothache} = \text{true})} = \frac{0.04}{(0.04 + 0.01)} = 0.8$$

## 5 Probabilistic Inference

- Using the joint distribution
- Using Bayes theorem
  - Given:  $e$  – a set of symptoms,  $d_1, \dots, d_n$  – diagnoses,  $P(d_i)$  and  $P(e|d_i)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are also known.
  - Compute  $P(d_i|e)$  for each  $i$  and find the most probable diagnosis given the symptoms  $e$ .

$$P(d_i|e) = \frac{P(d_i)P(e|d_i)}{P(e)}$$

- $P(e)$  can be computed (if needed) by using the formulas:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(d_i|e) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{P(d_i)P(e|d_i)}{P(e)} = 1$$

$$P(e) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(d_i)P(e|d_i)$$

- Computing  $P(e|d_i)$  requires enumerating all possible combinations of values of the atomic symptoms contained in  $e$  (*exponential complexity*).
- Inference with the independence assumption ("Naive" Bayes).
  - Assuming that the atomic symptoms in  $e = \{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$  are independent:

$$P(e|d_i) = \prod_{j=1}^k P(e_j|d_i)$$

- $e_j$  ( $j = 1, \dots, k$ ) can be easily computed from observations or determined by an expert.
- Example:

Probability	healthy	flu	alergy
$P(d)$	0.9	0.05	0.05
$P(\text{sneeze} d)$	0.1	0.9	0.9
$P(\text{cough} d)$	0.1	0.8	0.7
$P(\text{fever} d)$	0.01	0.7	0.4

Assume the symptoms  $e$  are sneezing and cough, but no fever. Then:

$$P(\text{healthy}|e) = (0.9)(0.1)(0.1)(0.99)/P(e) = 0.0089/P(e)$$

$$P(\text{flu}|e) = (0.05)(0.9)(0.8)(0.3)/P(e) = 0.01/P(e)$$

$$P(\text{alergy}|e) = (0.05)(0.9)(0.7)(0.6)/P(e) = 0.019/P(e)$$

$$\text{Normalization: } P(e) = 0.0089 + 0.01 + 0.019 = 0.0379$$

$$P(\text{healthy}|e) = 0.23$$

$$P(\text{flu}|e) = 0.26$$

$$P(\text{alergy}|e) = 0.50$$

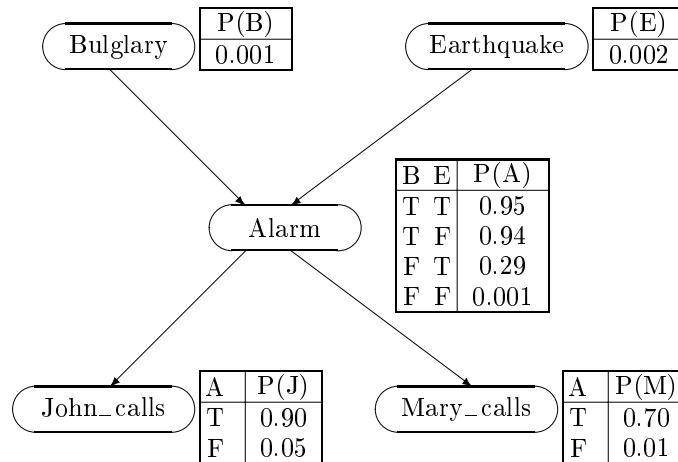


Figure 1: A Bayesian Net

## 6 Bayesian (Believe) Nets

- The independence assumption is too strong and almost never present in practice.
- Bayesian (Believe) Nets: using an acyclic graph to represent the dependencies between variables (a concise representation of the complete joint distribution).
- Each random variable is represented by a node.
- Links describe direct causal relations.
- For each node there is a conditional probability table (CPT). See the example in figure 1.
- Bayes Nets define implicitly the joint distribution of the variables in the nodes. For example, if  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are random variables and  $P(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is the joint probability that they get the values  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  respectively, then:

$$P(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(v_i | Parents(x_i)),$$

where  $P(v_i | Parents(x_i))$  is the conditional probability of  $x_i = v_i$  given the values of the parent variables of  $x_i$ ,  $Parents(x_i)$ . For example:

$$P(J, M, A, \neg B, \neg E) = 0.9 \times 0.7 \times 0.001 \times 0.999 \times 0.998 = 0.000628$$

## 7 Inference with BN

Given the values of a subset of variables (evidence variables) find the probabilities of another subset of variables (query variables).

- Diagnosis: inference from evidence to cause. For example,  $P(B|J) = ?$
- Prediction: inference from cause to evidence. For example,  $P(J|B) = ?$
- Intercausal: among causes of an evidence. For example,  $P(B|E) = ?$
- Mixed, for example:  $P(A|J \wedge \neg E) = ?$

## 8 Algorithms for implementing the inference in BN

- Exact and approximate algorithms.
- Computing the full joint distribution (exact).
- Propagating evidence – computing the probabilities of all variables according to the evidence. Iterative modification of the probabilities by message passing between nodes: successors  $\rightarrow$  parents and parents  $\rightarrow$  successors, beginning with the evidence variables.
- Algorithms led by the query variables (do not compute all variables, approximate).
- In general the problem is exponential with the number of variables.
- For special cases of BN's there exists polynomial complexity algorithms.