

CS 331: Artificial Intelligence Probability I

Thanks to Andrew Moore for some course material

1

Dealing with Uncertainty

- We want to get to the point where we can reason with **uncertainty**
- This will require using probability eg. probability that it will rain today is 0.99
- We will review the fundamentals of probability

2

Outline

1. Random variables
2. Probability

Random Variables

- The basic element of probability is the **random variable**
- Think of the random variable as an event with some degree of uncertainty as to whether that event occurs
- Random variables have a **domain** of values it can take on

4

Random Variables

- 3 types of random variables:
1. Boolean random variables
 2. Discrete random variables
 3. Continuous random variables

Random Variables

Example:

- *ProfLate* is a random variable for whether your prof will be late to class or not
- The domain of *ProfLate* is $\{true, false\}$
 - *ProfLate* = *true*: proposition that prof will be late to class
 - *ProfLate* = *false*: proposition that prof will not be late to class

6

Random Variables

Example:

- *ProfLate* is a random variable for whether your prof will be late to class or not
- The domain of *ProfLate* is $\langle true, false \rangle$
 - *ProfLate* = *true*: proposition that prof will be late to class
 - *ProfLate* = *false*: proposition that prof will not be late to class

You can assign some degree of belief to this proposition eg.
 $P(\text{ProfLate} = \text{true}) = 0.9$

7

Random Variables

Example:

- *ProfLate* is a random variable for whether your prof will be late to class or not
- The domain of *ProfLate* is $\langle true, false \rangle$
 - *ProfLate* = *true*: proposition that prof will be late to class
 - *ProfLate* = *false*: proposition that prof will not be late to class

And to this one eg.
 $P(\text{ProfLate} = \text{false}) = 0.1$

8

Random Variables

- We will refer to **random variables** with **capitalized names** eg. *X*, *Y*, *ProfLate*
- We will refer to **names of values** with **lower case names** eg. *x*, *y*, *proflate*
- This means you may see a statement like *ProfLate* = *proflate*
 - This means the random variable *ProfLate* takes the value *proflate* (which can be *true* or *false*)
- Shorthand notation:
ProfLate = *true* is the same as *proflate* and
ProfLate = *false* is the same as \neg *proflate*

9

Boolean Random Variables

- Take the values *true* or *false*
- Eg. Let *A* be a Boolean random variable
 - $P(A = \text{false}) = 0.9$
 - $P(A = \text{true}) = 0.1$

10

Discrete Random Variables

Allowed to taken on a finite number of values
eg.

- $P(\text{DrinkSize} = \text{Small}) = 0.1$
- $P(\text{DrinkSize} = \text{Medium}) = 0.2$
- $P(\text{DrinkSize} = \text{Large}) = 0.7$

Discrete Random Variables

Values of the domain must be:

- **Mutually Exclusive** ie. $P(A = v_i \text{ AND } A = v_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$

This means, for instance, that you can't have a drink that is both *Small* and *Medium*

- **Exhaustive** ie. $P(A = v_1 \text{ OR } A = v_2 \text{ OR } \dots \text{ OR } A = v_k) = 1$

This means that a drink can only be either *small*, *medium* or *large*. There isn't an *extra large*

Discrete Random Variables

Values of the domain must be:

- Mutually Exclusive ie. $P(A = v_i \text{ AND } A = v_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$

This means, for i

The AND here means intersection ie. $(A = v_i) \cap (A = v_j)$

- Exhaustive ie. $P(A = v_1 \text{ OR } A = v_2 \text{ OR } \dots \text{ OR } A = v_k) = 1$

This means that

The OR here means union ie. $(A = v_1) \cup (A = v_2) \cup \dots \cup (A = v_k)$

Discrete Random Variables

- Since we now have multi-valued discrete random variables we can't write $P(a)$ or $P(-a)$ anymore
- We have to write $P(A = v_i)$ where $v_i = a$ value in $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$

14

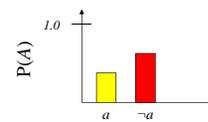
Continuous Random Variables

- Can take values from the real numbers
- eg. They can take values from $[0, 1]$
- **Note: We will primarily be dealing with discrete random variables**
- (The next slide is just to provide a little bit of information about continuous random variables)

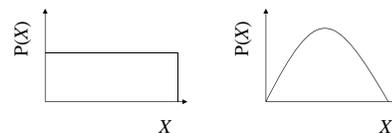
15

Probability Density Functions

Discrete random variables have probability distributions:



Continuous random variables have probability density functions eg:



Probabilities

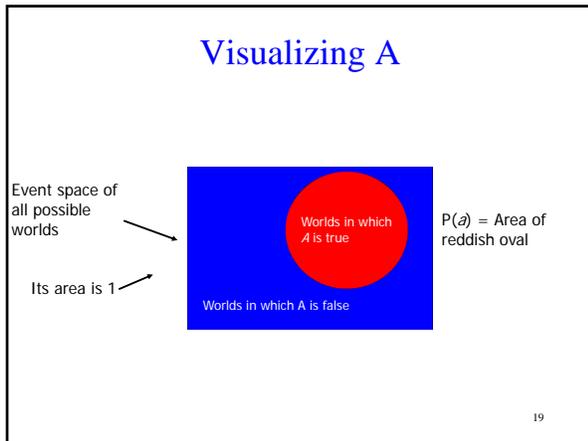
- We will write $P(A=true)$ as “the fraction of possible worlds in which A is true”
- We can debate the philosophical implications of this for the next 4 hours
- But we won't

Probabilities

- We will sometimes talk about the probabilities of all possible values of a random variable
- Instead of writing
 - $P(A=false) = 0.25$
 - $P(A=true) = 0.75$
- We will write **$P(A) = (0.25, 0.75)$**

Note the boldface!

18



The Axioms of Probability

- $0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{true}) = 1$
- $P(\text{false}) = 0$
- $P(a \text{ OR } b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \text{ AND } b)$

↑ The logical OR is equivalent to set union \cup .
 ↑ The logical AND is equivalent to set intersection (\cap) . Sometimes, I'll write it as $P(a, b)$

These axioms are often called Kolmogorov's axioms in honor of the Russian mathematician Andrei Kolmogorov

20

Interpreting the axioms

- $0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{true}) = 1$
- $P(\text{false}) = 0$
- $P(a \text{ OR } b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a, b)$

The area of $P(a)$ can't get any smaller than 0

And a zero area would mean that there is no world in which a is false

21

Interpreting the axioms

- $0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{true}) = 1$
- $P(\text{false}) = 0$
- $P(a \text{ OR } b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a, b)$

The area of $P(a)$ can't get any bigger than 1

And an area of 1 would mean all worlds will have a is true

22

Interpreting the axioms

- $0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{true}) = 1$
- $P(\text{false}) = 0$
- $P(a \text{ OR } b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a, b)$

$P(a, b)$ [The purple area]

$P(a \text{ OR } b)$ [the area of both circles]

23

These Axioms are Not to be Trifled With

- There have been attempts to do different methodologies for uncertainty
 - Fuzzy Logic
 - Three-valued logic
 - Dempster-Shafer
 - Non-monotonic reasoning
- But the axioms of probability are the only system with this property:

If you gamble using them you can't be unfairly exploited by an opponent using some other system [de Finetti 1931]

Prior Probability

- We can consider $P(A)$ as the unconditional or **prior probability**
– eg. $P(\text{ProfLate} = \text{true}) = 1.0$
- It is the probability of event A in the absence of any other information
- If we get new information that affects A , we can reason with the **conditional probability** of A given the new information.

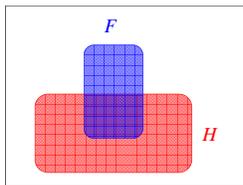
25

Conditional Probability

- $P(A | B)$ = Fraction of worlds in which B is true that also have A true
- Read this as: “Probability of A conditioned on B ”
- Prior probability $P(A)$ is a special case of the conditional probability $P(A | \cdot)$ conditioned on no evidence

26

Conditional Probability Example



H = “Have a headache”
 F = “Coming down with Flu”

$$P(H) = 1/10$$

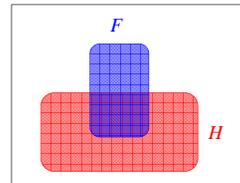
$$P(F) = 1/40$$

$$P(H | F) = 1/2$$

“Headaches are rare and flu is rarer, but if you’re coming down with ‘flu there’s a 50-50 chance you’ll have a headache.”

27

Conditional Probability



$P(H|F)$ = Fraction of flu-inflicted worlds in which you have a headache

$$= \frac{\text{\# worlds with flu and headache}}{\text{\# worlds with flu}}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Area of "H and F" region}}{\text{Area of "F" region}}$$

$$= \frac{P(H, F)}{P(F)}$$

H = “Have a headache”
 F = “Coming down with Flu”

$$P(H) = 1/10$$

$$P(F) = 1/40$$

$$P(H | F) = 1/2$$

28

Definition of Conditional Probability

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

Corollary: The Chain Rule (aka The Product Rule)

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

29

Important Note

$$P(A | B) + P(\neg A | B) = 1$$

But:

$$P(A | B) + P(A | \neg B) \text{ does not always} = 1$$

30

The Joint Probability Distribution

- $P(A, B)$ is called the joint probability distribution of A and B
- It captures the probabilities of all combinations of the values of a set of random variables

31

The Joint Probability Distribution

- For example, if A and B are Boolean random variables, then $P(A,B)$ could be specified as:

$P(A=false, B=false)$	0.25
$P(A=false, B=true)$	0.25
$P(A=true, B=false)$	0.25
$P(A=true, B=true)$	0.25

32

The Joint Probability Distribution

- Now suppose we have the random variables:
 - $Drink = \{Coke, Sprite\}$
 - $Size = \{Small, Medium, Large\}$
- The joint probability distribution for $P(Drink, Size)$ could look like:

$P(Drink=Coke, Size=Small)$	0.1
$P(Drink=Coke, Size=Medium)$	0.1
$P(Drink=Coke, Size=Large)$	0.3
$P(Drink=Sprite, Size=Small)$	0.1
$P(Drink=Sprite, Size=Medium)$	0.2
$P(Drink=Sprite, Size=Large)$	0.2

33

Full Joint Probability Distribution

- Suppose you have the complete set of random variables used to describe the world
- A joint probability distribution that covers this complete set is called the **full joint probability distribution**
- Is a complete specification of one's uncertainty about the world in question
- Very powerful: Can be used to answer any probabilistic query

34