Probabilistic Reasoning

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Outline



- Uncertainty
- Probability
- Inference
- Independence and Bayes' Rule



uncertainty

Uncertainty



- Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight Will A_t get me there on time?
- Problems
 - partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
 - noisy sensors (WBAL traffic reports)
 - uncertainty in action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
 - immense complexity of modelling and predicting traffic
- Hence a purely logical approach either
 - 1. risks falsehood: " A_{25} will get me there on time"
 - 2. leads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making: " A_{25} will get me there on time if there's no accident on the bridge and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact etc etc."

Methods for Handling Uncertainty



• **Default** or **nonmonotonic** logic:

Assume my car does not have a flat tire Assume A_{25} works unless contradicted by evidence Issues: What assumptions are reasonable? How to handle contradiction?

Rules with fudge factors:

 $A_{25} \mapsto_{0.3} AtAirportOnTime$ $Sprinkler \mapsto_{0.99} WetGrass$ $WetGrass \mapsto_{0.7} Rain$

Issues: Problems with combination, e.g., Sprinkler causes Rain?

Probability

Given the available evidence, A_{25} will get me there on time with probability 0.04 Mahaviracarya (9th C.), Cardamo (1565) theory of gambling



probability

Probability



- Probabilistic assertions **summarize** effects of laziness: failure to enumerate exceptions, qualifications, etc. ignorance: lack of relevant facts, initial conditions, etc.
- **Subjective** or **Bayesian** probability: Probabilities relate propositions to one's own state of knowledge e.g., $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}) = 0.06$
- Might be learned from past experience of similar situations
- Probabilities of propositions change with new evidence: e.g., $P(A_{25}|\text{no reported accidents}, 5 \text{ a.m.}) = 0.15$

Making Decisions under Uncertainty



• Suppose I believe the following:

```
P(A_{25} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.04

P(A_{90} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.70

P(A_{120} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.95

P(A_{1440} \text{ gets me there on time}|...) = 0.9999
```

- Which action to choose?
- Depends on my **preferences** for missing flight vs. airport cuisine, etc.
- **Utility theory** is used to represent and infer preferences
- **Decision theory** = utility theory + probability theory

Probability Basics



- Begin with a set Ω—the sample space
 e.g., 6 possible rolls of a die.
 ω ∈ Ω is a sample point/possible world/atomic event
- A **probability space** or **probability model** is a sample space with an assignment $P(\omega)$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ s.t.

$$0 \le P(\omega) \le 1$$

 $\sum_{\omega} P(\omega) = 1$
e.g., $P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = P(4) = P(5) = P(6) = 1/6$.

• An **event** A is any subset of Ω

$$P(A) = \sum_{\{\omega \in A\}} P(\omega)$$

• E.g., $P(\text{die roll} \le 3) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2$

Random Variables



• A **random variable** is a function from sample points to some range, e.g., the reals or Booleans

e.g.,
$$Odd(1) = true.$$

• *P* induces a **probability distribution** for any random variable *X*:

$$P(X = x_i) = \sum_{\{\omega: X(\omega) = x_i\}} P(\omega)$$

• E.g., P(Odd = true) = P(1) + P(3) + P(5) = 1/6 + 1/6 + 1/6 = 1/2

Propositions



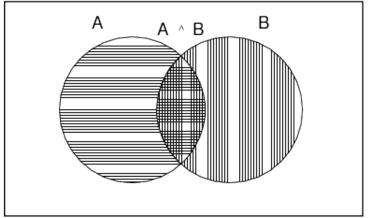
- Think of a proposition as the event (set of sample points) where the proposition is true
- Given Boolean random variables A and B: event $a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = true$ event $\neg a = \text{set of sample points where } A(\omega) = false$ event $a \land b = \text{points where } A(\omega) = true$ and $B(\omega) = true$
- Often in AI applications, the sample points are **defined** by the values of a set of random variables, i.e., the sample space is the Cartesian product of the ranges of the variables
- With Boolean variables, sample point = propositional logic model e.g., A = true, B = false, or $a \land \neg b$. Proposition = disjunction of atomic events in which it is true e.g., $(a \lor b) \equiv (\neg a \land b) \lor (a \land \neg b) \lor (a \land b)$ $\implies P(a \lor b) = P(\neg a \land b) + P(a \land \neg b) + P(a \land b)$

Why use Probability?



- Logically related events have related probabilities
- E.g., $P(a \lor b) = P(a) + P(b) P(a \land b)$





Syntax for Propositions



- Propositional or Boolean random variables
 e.g., Cavity (do I have a cavity?)
 Cavity = true is a proposition, also written cavity
- Discrete random variables (finite or infinite)
 e.g., Weather is one of \(\sunny, rain, cloudy, snow \)\
 Weather = rain is a proposition
 Values must be exhaustive and mutually exclusive
- **Continuous** random variables (bounded or unbounded) e.g., Temp = 21.6; also allow, e.g., Temp < 22.0.
- Arbitrary Boolean combinations of basic propositions

Joint Probability



• Prior or unconditional probabilities of propositions

e.g.,
$$P(Cavity = true) = 0.1$$
 and $P(Weather = sunny) = 0.72$ correspond to belief prior to arrival of any (new) evidence

- **Probability distribution** gives values for all possible assignments: P(Weather) = (0.72, 0.1, 0.08, 0.1) (normalized, i.e., sums to 1)
- **Joint probability distribution** for a set of random variables gives the probability of every every sample point

 $P(Weather, Cavity) = a \ 4 \times 2 \text{ matrix of values:}$

Weather =	sunny	rain	cloudy	snow
Cavity = true	0.144	0.02	0.016	0.02
Cavity = false	0.576	0.08	0.064	0.08

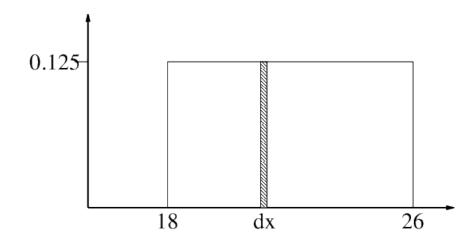
• Every question about an event can be answered by the joint distribution because every event is a sum of sample points

Probability for Continuous Variables



• Example:

P(X = x) = U[18, 26](x) = uniform density between 18 and 26



• Here *P* is a **density**; integrates to 1.

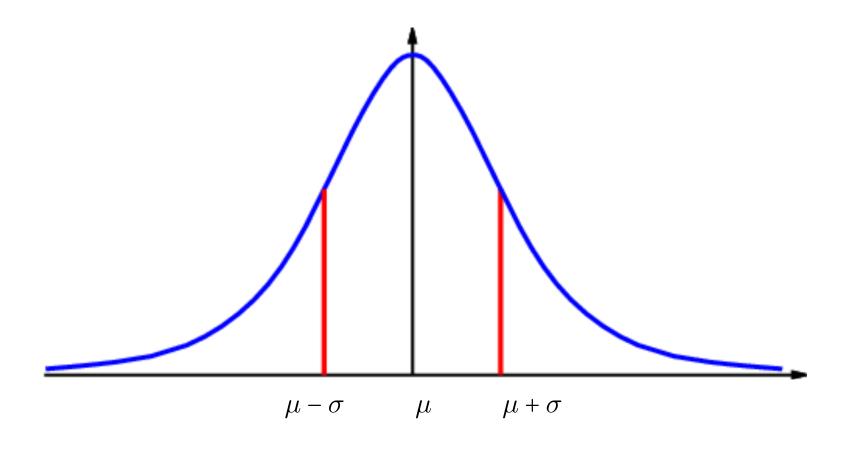
$$P(X = 20.5) = 0.125$$
 really means

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{P(20.5 - \epsilon \le X \le 20.5 + \epsilon)}{2\epsilon} = 0.125$$

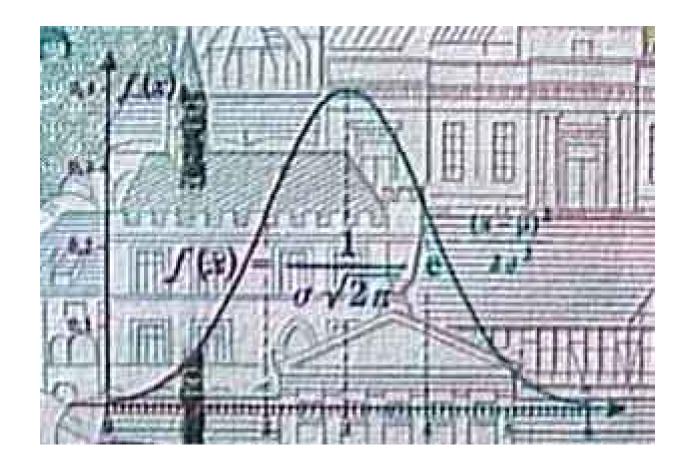
Gaussian Density



$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$$









inference

Conditional Probability



Conditional or posterior probabilities

e.g.,
$$P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8$$

• If we know more, e.g., cavity is also given, then we have P(cavity|toothache, cavity) = 1

Note: the less specific belief **remains valid** after more evidence arrives, but is may be less **useful!**

• New evidence may be irrelevant, allowing simplification, e.g., P(cavity|toothache, RavensWin) = P(cavity|toothache) = 0.8

This kind of inference, sanctioned by domain knowledge, is crucial

Conditional Probability



Definition of conditional probability:

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)} \text{ if } P(b) \neq 0$$

• **Product rule** follows from this:

$$P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$$

• A general version holds for whole distributions, e.g.,

$$P(Weather, Cavity) = P(Weather|Cavity)P(Cavity)$$

• Chain rule is derived by successive application of product rule:

$$\mathbf{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n}) = \mathbf{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-1}) \, \mathbf{P}(X_{n}|X_{1},...,X_{n-1})
= \mathbf{P}(X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \, \mathbf{P}(X_{n-1}|X_{1},...,X_{n-2}) \, \mathbf{P}(X_{n}|X_{1},...,X_{n-1})
= ...
= \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{P}(X_{i}|X_{1},...,X_{i-1})$$

Example: Joint Distribution



• Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch		catch	¬ catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega:\omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

(catch = dentist's steel probe gets caught in cavity)



• Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
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cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
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$$P(toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.2$$



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	toothache		¬ toothache	
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• For any proposition ϕ , sum the atomic events where it is true:

$$P(\phi) = \sum_{\omega : \omega \models \phi} P(\omega)$$

$$P(cavity \lor toothache) = 0.108 + 0.012 + 0.072 + 0.008 + 0.016 + 0.064 = 0.28$$



• Start with the joint distribution:

	toothache		¬ toothache	
	catch		catch	\neg catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• Can also compute conditional probabilities:

$$P(\neg cavity | toothache) = \frac{P(\neg cavity \land toothache)}{P(toothache)}$$
$$= \frac{0.016 + 0.064}{0.108 + 0.012 + 0.016 + 0.064} = 0.4$$

Normalization



	toothache		¬toothache	
	catch	¬catch	catch	\neg catch
cavity	.108	.012	.072	.008
¬ cavity	.016	.064	.144	.576

• Denominator can be viewed as a normalization constant α

```
\mathbf{P}(Cavity|toothache) = \alpha \mathbf{P}(Cavity,toothache)
= \alpha \left[ \mathbf{P}(Cavity,toothache,catch) + \mathbf{P}(Cavity,toothache,\neg catch) \right]
= \alpha \left[ \langle 0.108, 0.016 \rangle + \langle 0.012, 0.064 \rangle \right]
= \alpha \left\langle 0.12, 0.08 \rangle = \langle 0.6, 0.4 \rangle
```

• General idea: compute distribution on query variable by fixing **evidence variables** and summing over **hidden variables**



- Let **X** be all the variables.
 - Typically, we want the posterior joint distribution of the **query variables Y** given specific values **e** for the **evidence variables E**
- Let the **hidden variables** be **H** = **X Y E**
- Sum out the hidden variables:

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

- The terms in the summation are joint entries because Y, E, and H together exhaust the set of random variables
- Obvious problems
 - Worst-case time complexity $O(d^n)$ where d is the largest arity
 - Space complexity $O(d^n)$ to store the joint distribution



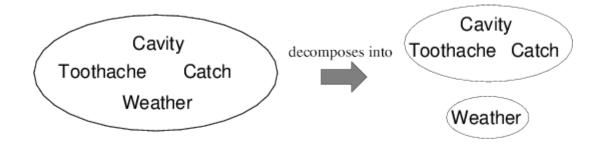
independence

Independence



• A and B are **independent** iff

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



- P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity, Weather)= P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity) P(Weather)
- 32 entries reduced to 12
- Absolute independence powerful but rare
- Dentistry is a large field with hundreds of variables, none of which are independent. What to do?

Conditional Independence



- P(Toothache, Cavity, Catch) has $2^3 1 = 7$ independent entries
- If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:
 - (1) P(catch|toothache, cavity) = P(catch|cavity)
- The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:
 - (2) $P(catch|toothache, \neg cavity) = P(catch|\neg cavity)$
- Catch is conditionally independent of Toothache given Cavity: P(Catch|Toothache, Cavity) = P(Catch|Cavity)
- Equivalent statements:

```
P(Toothache|Catch, Cavity) = P(Toothache|Cavity)

P(Toothache, Catch|Cavity) = P(Toothache|Cavity)P(Catch|Cavity)
```

Conditional Independence



• Write out full joint distribution using chain rule:

```
P(Toothache, Catch, Cavity)
= P(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)P(Catch, Cavity)
= P(Toothache|Catch, Cavity)P(Catch|Cavity)P(Cavity)
= P(Toothache|Cavity)P(Catch|Cavity)P(Cavity)
```

- I.e., 2 + 2 + 1 = 5 independent numbers (equations 1 and 2 remove 2)
- In most cases, the use of conditional independence reduces the size of the representation of the joint distribution from exponential in n to linear in n.
- Conditional independence is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.



bayes rule

Bayes' Rule



• Product rule $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b) = P(b|a)P(a)$

$$\implies$$
 Bayes' rule $P(a|b) = \frac{P(b|a)P(a)}{P(b)}$

• Or in distribution form

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)} = \alpha P(X|Y)P(Y)$$

Bayes' Rule



• Useful for assessing diagnostic probability from causal probability

$$P(Cause|Effect) = \frac{P(Effect|Cause)P(Cause)}{P(Effect)}$$

• E.g., let *M* be meningitis, *S* be stiff neck:

$$P(m|s) = \frac{P(s|m)P(m)}{P(s)} = \frac{0.8 \times 0.0001}{0.1} = 0.0008$$

Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

Bayes' Rule and Conditional Independence 34

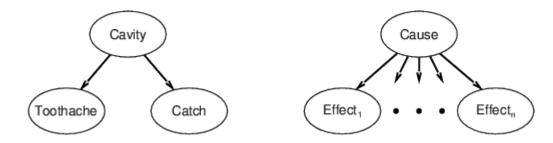


• Example of a **naive Bayes** model

 $P(Cavity|toothache \land catch)$

- = $\alpha P(toothache \wedge catch|Cavity)P(Cavity)$
- = $\alpha P(toothache|Cavity)P(catch|Cavity)P(Cavity)$
- Generally:

$$P(Cause, Effect_1, \dots, Effect_n) = P(Cause) \prod_i P(Effect_i | Cause)$$



• Total number of parameters is **linear** in n



wampus world

Wumpus World



1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
^{1,2} В ОК	2,2	3,2	4,2
1,1	2,1 B	3,1	4,1
OK	ОК		

- $P_{ij} = true \text{ iff } [i, j] \text{ contains a pit }$
- B_{ij} = true iff [i,j] is breezy Include only $B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1}$ in the probability model

Specifying the Probability Model



- The full joint distribution is $P(P_{1,1}, ..., P_{4,4}, B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1})$
- Apply product rule: $P(B_{1,1}, B_{1,2}, B_{2,1} | P_{1,1}, \dots, P_{4,4}) P(P_{1,1}, \dots, P_{4,4})$ This gives us: P(Effect|Cause)
- First term: 1 iff pits are adjacent to breezes, 0 otherwise
- Second term: pits are placed randomly, independent of each other, probability 0.2 per square:

$$\mathbf{P}(P_{1,1},\ldots,P_{4,4}) = \prod_{i,j=1,1}^{4,4} \mathbf{P}(P_{i,j}) = 0.2^n \times 0.8^{16-n}$$

for n pits.

Observations and Query



• We know the following facts:

$$b = \neg b_{1,1} \land b_{1,2} \land b_{2,1} known = \neg p_{1,1} \land \neg p_{1,2} \land \neg p_{2,1}$$

- Query is $P(P_{1,3}|known,b)$
- Define $Unknown = P_{ij}$ other than $P_{1,3}$ and Known
- For inference by enumeration, we have

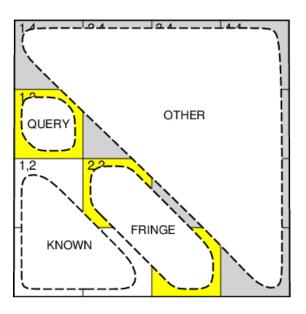
$$\mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b) = \alpha \sum_{unknown} \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3},unknown,known,b)$$

• Grows exponentially with number of squares!

Using Conditional Independence



• Basic insight: observations are conditionally independent of other hidden squares given neighbouring hidden squares



- Define $Unknown = Fringe \cup Other$ $P(b|P_{1,3}, Known, Unknown) = P(b|P_{1,3}, Known, Fringe)$
- Manipulate query into a form where we can use this!

Using Conditional Independence

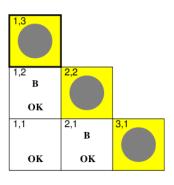


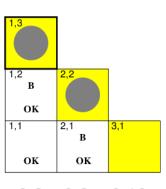
$$\mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b) = \alpha \sum_{unknown} \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3},unknown,known,b)$$

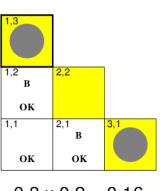
- $= \alpha \sum_{unknown} \mathbf{P}(b|P_{1,3}, known, unknown) \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}, known, unknown) \mathbf{I}$
- = $\alpha \sum_{fringe\ other} \sum_{other} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe, other) \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}, known, fringe, other)$
- = $\alpha \sum_{fringe\ other} \sum_{other} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe) \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}, known, fringe, other)$
- = $\alpha \sum_{fringe} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe) \sum_{other} \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}, known, fringe, other)$
- = $\alpha \sum_{fringe} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe) \sum_{other} \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}) P(known) P(fringe) P(other)$
- = $\alpha P(known) \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}) \sum_{fringe} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe) P(fringe) \sum_{other} P(other) \mathbf{I}$
- = $\alpha' \mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}) \sum_{fringe} \mathbf{P}(b|known, P_{1,3}, fringe) P(fringe)$

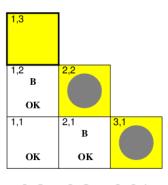
Using Conditional Independence

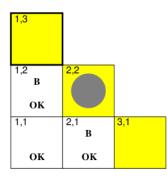












$$0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$

$$0.2 \times 0.8 = 0.16$$

$$0.8 \times 0.2 = 0.16$$

$$0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$

$$0.2 \times 0.8 = 0.16$$

$$\mathbf{P}(P_{1,3}|known,b) = \alpha' \langle 0.2(0.04 + 0.16 + 0.16), 0.8(0.04 + 0.16) \rangle$$

$$\approx \langle 0.31, 0.69 \rangle$$

$$P(P_{2,2}|known,b) \approx \langle 0.86, 0.14 \rangle$$

Summary



- Probability is a rigorous formalism for uncertain knowledge
- Joint probability distribution specifies probability of every atomic event
- Queries can be answered by summing over atomic events
- For nontrivial domains, we must find a way to reduce the joint size
- Independence and conditional independence provide the tools