

## Session 8

### I. **Announcements [5 minutes]**

- **Feedback:** *I'd like to get feedback from everybody in section on how I can improve sections: 3 things you like, 3 things you dislike.*
  - I've sent out a link to a *Remailer* you can send email to me from anonymously. Also the link is posted on my webpage.
  - I know you're busy with Sudoku's, train tracks, and so forth, but take 10 minutes and send me feedback – it'll make the course better for you and me.

### II. **Test Recap... briefly [10-20 minutes]**

- How did the test go?
- What questions did you have the most problems with?

### III. **Introduction to Probability**

- Agents almost never have access to all of their environment's information.
  - This qualification problem is due to 3 things
    1. Laziness – too much work to explore all possibilities
    2. Incomplete Theory
    3. Practical Limitations – not all tests can be performed
  - Must be able to derive a plan that will work most of the time.
  - In uncertain environments, the rational decision depends on
    1. The relative importance of various goals
    2. The likelihood and degree of achievement of each goal
- Agent's knowledge provides a degree of belief → Probability Theory
  - Probability Theory provides the degree to which an agent believes a statement given all plausible alternative situations that are indistinguishable from the current situation.
  - Probability Theory has the same ontological commitment as logic
    - *Facts either hold or do not hold in the world*
  - Probabilities depend on the evidence (precepts) the agent has acquired.
- Agents must have preferences towards the outcomes of different plans.
  - **Utility Theory** – Theory of preference based on an object's utility.
    - Preference indicates that different agents might have different goals so while goals might seem misguided, they are not necessarily irrational.
  - **Decision Theory** – Combination of Probability and Utility Theory.
    - **Principle of Maximum Expected Utility** - An agent is rational iff it chooses the action that yields the highest expected utility (averaged over all outcomes).
- **Belief State** – a representation of probabilities of all possible actual states of the world.

## Probability Theory

- Language of Probability – ascribes degrees of belief to propositions.
  - **Random Variable** – refers to part of the world with initial unknown status
  - Domain – the values a random variable can take on.
    - Boolean – true/false
    - Discrete – countable, mutually exclusive, and exhaustive.
    - Continuous – uncountable
  - **Atomic Event** – a specific complete specification of the world about which the agent is uncertain.
    - The set of atomic events is mutually exclusive and exhaustive → forms a partition
    - Any atomic event entails true/false for every proposition.
    - Any proposition is equivalent to the disjunction of all atomic events that entail the proposition as true.
- **Prior Probability P(x)** – the degree of belief of proposition x in the absence of any evidence about other propositions.
  - **Probability Distribution, P(X)** – the vector of probabilities ascribed to each of the possible states of proposition X.
  - **Joint Probability Distribution, P(X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, ..., X<sub>n</sub>)** – the probabilities of all combinations of values of variables X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, ..., X<sub>n</sub>.
  - **Full Joint Probability Distribution** – includes the complete set of variables for the environment.
  - **Probability Density Function, p(x)dx** – The probability of a continuous variable on the interval [x, x+dx] in the limit as dx → 0.
- **Conditional Probability P(x|y)** – the degree of belief of proposition x given the evidence y.

- **Product Rule:**  $P(X, Y) = P(X | Y)P(Y)$

- **Kolmogrov's Axioms**

1. All probabilities are between 0 and 1:

$$0 \leq P(a) \leq 1$$

2. True propositions have probability 1; false propositions have 0:

$$P(\text{true}) = 1 \quad P(\text{false}) = 0$$

3. Probability of a disjunction is given by

$$P(a \vee b) = P(a) + P(b) - P(a \wedge b)$$

- Using these Axioms we can derive other important rules:

- Let a discrete variable X have a domain  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  or  $\mathcal{X}$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(X = x_i) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{\mathcal{X}} P(x) dx = 1$$

- The probability of a proposition is equal to the sum of the probabilities in which it holds; the set  $e(a)$  for proposition a.

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

- In probability, statements do not refer directly to the world, but rather to an agent's belief about the world, so why can't agent's beliefs violate the probability axioms?
  - **de Finetti Theorem** – If Agent 1 expresses a set of degrees of belief that violate Kolmogorov's Axioms, then there is a combination of bets Agent 2 can place that guarantees that Agent 1 will lose money every time.
  - Decision making is an unavoidable process (not making a decision is a decision).
- Probability Philosophy (Briefly)
  - **Frequentist** – probabilities are results of repeated experiments.
  - **Objectivist** – probabilities come from a propensity of objects to act in a certain way.
  - **Subjectivist** – probabilities are a way of characterizing beliefs.
  - **Principle of Indifference** – Propositions that are syntactically 'symmetric' w.r.t. evidence should be given equal probability.
  - **Inductive Logic** – a logic capable of computing the correct probability for any proposition from any collection of observations. Unclear if it exists.

**Probabilistic Inference** – computation of posterior probability of query proposition from observed evidence.

- **Marginalization (Conditioning)** – variables other than the query variable are summed out in order to obtain the probability of the query variable:

$$\text{joint: } P(Y) = \sum_z P(Y, z)$$

$$\text{conditional: } P(Y) = \sum_z P(Y | z) P(z)$$

- **Normalization** – introduction of constant  $\alpha$  that normalizes the distribution to 1 instead of explicitly computing the constant probabilities that do not depend on the variable being calculated
- **Combinatorial Explosion** – Full Joint Table is size  $O(2^n)$  and requires  $O(2^n)$  time to be processed.

**(Marginal) Independence** – variables independent of each other can be factored:

$$P(X, Y) = P(X)P(Y) \quad P(X | Y) = P(X)$$

- If a complete set of variables can be divided into independent subsets, then the full joint distribution can be factored into separated joint distributions on those subsets.

**Bayes' Rule** – application of product rule that allows diagnostic beliefs to be derived from casual beliefs:

$$P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X)} \quad P(Y|X,e) = \frac{P(X|Y,e)P(Y|e)}{P(X|e)}$$

- Diagnostic knowledge is often more fragile than casual knowledge → direct casual (model-based) knowledge provides robustness needed for probabilistic systems to function in the real world.
- Conditional Independence – implies that two variables X,Y are independent given variable Z:

$$P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z)P(Y|Z) \quad P(X|Y,Z) = P(X|Z)$$

- Given n symptoms that are conditionally independent given Z, the size of the representation grows as O(n) instead of O(2<sup>n</sup>).
  - Allows probabilistic systems to scale up.
  - Conditional independence assertions are more common than marginal independence assertions.
- **Naïve Bayes Model** – a single cause Y directly influences a number of events X<sub>i</sub> that are all conditionally independent given the cause:

$$P(Y, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = P(Y) \prod_i P(X_i | Y)$$

- Often works in situations where conditional independence does not hold.