# Probability Theory 

CMPUT 366: Intelligent Systems
P\&M §8.1

## Logistics \& Assignment \#1

- Assignment \#1 was released last week See eClass
- Due Tuesday, September 27 at 11:59pm
- Office hours have begun!
- Not mandatory; for getting help from TAs
- There are no labs for this course: You do not need to show up for your scheduled lab section
- There will be an example/practice midterm


## Recap: Search

- Agent searches internal representation to find solution
- Fully-observable, deterministic, offline, single-agent problems
- Graph search finds a sequence of actions to a goal node
- Efficiency gains from using heuristic functions to encode domain knowledge
- Local search finds a goal node by repeatedly making small changes to the current state
- Random steps and random restarts help handle local optima, completeness


## Lecture Outline

1. Recap
2. Uncertainty
3. Probability Semantics
4. Conditional Probability
5. Expected Value

After this lecture, you should be able to:

- Compute joint, marginal, and conditional probabilities
- Compute expected values
- Apply Bayes' rule to compute posterior probabilities
- Apply the Chain rule to compute joint probabilities


## Uncertainty

- In search problems, agent has perfect knowledge of the world and its dynamics
- In most applications, an agent cannot just make assumptions and then act according to those assumptions
- Knowledge is uncertain:
- Must consider multiple hypotheses
- Must update beliefs about which hypotheses are likely given observations


## Example: Wearing a Seatbelt

- An agent has to decide between three actions:

1. Drive without wearing a seatbelt
2. Drive while wearing a seatbelt
3. Stay home

- If the agent knows that an accident will happen, it will just stay home
- If the agent knows that an accident will not happen, it will not bother to wear a seatbelt!
- Wearing a seatbelt only makes sense because the agent is uncertain about whether driving will lead to an accident.


## Measuring Uncertainty

- Probability is a way of measuring uncertainty
- We assign a number between 0 and 1 to events (hypotheses):
- 0 means absolutely certain that statement is false
- 1 means absolutely certain that statement is true
- Intermediate values mean more or less certain
- Probability is a measurement of uncertainty, not truth
- A statement with probability .75 is not "mostly true"
- Rather, we believe it is more likely to be true than not


## Subjective vs. Objective: The Frequentist Perspective

- Probabilities can be interpreted as objective statements about the world, or as subjective statements about an agent's beliefs.
- Objective view is called frequentist:
- The probability of an event is the proportion of times it would happen in the long run of repeated experiments
- Every event has a single, true probability
- Events that can only happen once don't have a well-defined probability


## Subjective vs. Objective: The Bayesian Perspective

- Probabilities can be interpreted as objective statements about the world, or as subjective statements about an agent's beliefs.
- Subjective view is called Bayesian:
- The probability of an event is a measure of an agent's belief about its likelihood
- Different agents can legitimately have different beliefs, so they can legitimately assign different probabilities to the same event
- There is only one way to update those beliefs in response to new data
- In this course, we will primarily take the Bayesian view


## Example: Dice

- Diane rolls a fair, six-sided die, and gets the number $X$
- Question: What is $P(X=5)$ ? (the probability that Diane rolled a 5)
- Diane truthfully tells Oliver that she rolled an odd number.
- Question: What should Oliver believe $P(X=5)$ is?
- Diane truthfully tells Greta that she rolled a number $\geq 5$.
- Question: What should Greta believe $P(X=5)$ is?
- Question: What is $P(X=5)$ ?


## Semantics: Possible Worlds

- Random variables take values from a domain. We will write them as uppercase letters (e.g., $X, Y, D$, etc.)
- A possible world is a complete assignment of values to variables We will usually write a single "world" as $\omega$ and the set of all possible worlds as $\Omega$
- A probability measure is a function $P: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ over possible worlds $\omega$ satisfying:

1. $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega)=1$
2. $P(\omega) \geq 0 \forall \omega \in \Omega$

## Propositions

- A primitive proposition is an equality or inequality expression
E.g., $X=5$ or $X \geq 4$
- A proposition is built up from other propositions using logical connectives.
E.g., $(X=1 \vee X=3 \vee X=5)$
- The probability of a proposition is the sum of the probabilities of the possible worlds in which that proposition is true:

$$
P(\alpha)=\sum_{\omega: \omega \vDash \alpha} P(\omega) \quad \omega \vDash \alpha \text { means " } \alpha \text { is true in } \omega \text { " }
$$

- Therefore:

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\alpha \vee \beta) & \geq P(\alpha) & \alpha \vee \beta \text { means " } \alpha \text { OR } \beta \text { " } \\
P(\alpha \wedge \beta) & \leq P(\alpha) & \alpha \wedge \beta \text { means " } \alpha \text { AND } \beta \text { " } \\
P(\neg \alpha) & =1-P(\alpha) & \neg \alpha \text { means "NOT } \alpha \text { " }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Joint Distributions

- In our dice example, there was a single random variable
- We typically want to think about the interactions of multiple random variables
- A joint distribution assigns a probability to each full assignment of values to variables
- e.g., $P(X=1, Y=5)$. Equivalent to $P(X-1 \wedge Y=5)$
- Can view this as another way of specifying a single possible world


## Joint Distribution Example

- What might a day be like in Edmonton? Random variables:
- Weather, with domain \{clear, snowing\}
- Temperature, with domain \{mild, cold, very_cold\}
- Joint distribution

P(Weather, Temperature):

| Weather | Temperature | $\mathbf{P}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| clear | mild | 0.20 |
| clear | cold | 0.30 |
| snowing | mery cold | 0.25 |
| mild | 0.05 |  |
| snowing | cold | 0.10 |
| snowing | very cold | 0.10 |

## Marginalization

## Question: <br> What is the marginal distribution of Weather?

- Marginalization is using a joint distribution $P\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}, \ldots X_{n}\right)$ to compute a distribution over a smaller number of variables $P\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}\right)$
- Smaller distribution is called the marginal distribution of its variables (e.g., marginal distribution of $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{m}$ )
- We compute the marginal distribution by summing out the other variables:

$$
P(X, Y)=\sum_{w \in \operatorname{dom}(W)} \sum_{z \in \operatorname{dom}(Z)} P(W=w, X, Y, Z=z)
$$

Weather Temperature $\mathbf{P}$

| clear | mild | 0.20 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| clear | cold | 0.30 |
| clear | very cold | 0.25 |
| snowing | mild | 0.05 |
| snowing | cold | 0.10 |
| snowing | very cold | 0.10 |

## Conditional Probability

- Agents need to be able to update their beliefs based on new observations
- This process is called conditioning
- We write $P(h \mid e)$ to denote "probability of hypothesis $h$ given that we have observed evidence $e^{\prime \prime}$
- $P(h \mid e)$ is the probability of $h$ conditional on $e$


## Semantics of Conditional Probability

- Evidence $e$ lets us rule out all of the worlds that are incompatible with $e$
- E.g., if I observe that the weather is clear, I should no longer assign any probability to the worlds in which it is snowing
- We need to normalize the probabilities of the remaining worlds to ensure that the probabilities of possible worlds sum to 1


## Conditional Probability Example

- My initial marginal belief about the weather was:

$$
P(\text { Weather }=\text { snow })=0.25
$$

- Suppose I observe that the temperature is mild.
- Question: What probability should I now assign to $P($ Weather $=$ snow $)$ ?

1. Rule out incompatible worlds
2. Normalize remaining probabilities

| Weather | P |
| :---: | :---: |
| clear | $.20 /(.20+.05)=0.8$ |
| snowing | $.05 /(.20+.05)=0.2$ |
| snowing | mild |

## Chain Rule

Definition: conditional probability

$$
P(h \mid e)=\frac{P(h, e)}{P(e)}
$$

- We can run this in reverse to get

$$
P(h, e)=P(h \mid e) \times P(e)
$$

Definition: chain rule

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right) & =P\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \times P\left(\alpha_{2} \mid \alpha_{1}\right) \times \cdots \times P\left(\alpha_{n} \mid \alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1}\right) \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(\alpha_{i} \mid \alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{i-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Bayes' Rule

- From the chain rule, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(h, e) & =P(h \mid e) P(e) \\
& =P(e \mid h) P(h)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Often, $P(e \mid h)$ is easier to compute than $P(h \mid e)$.


## Likelihood

## Bayes' Rule:



## Bayes' Rule Example: Urns

- 6 urns with 100 balls each
- Four have 80 black balls, 20 white; the other 2 have 25 black balls, 75 white
- I roll a fair die and choose the urn with the corresponding number
- With what probability are the majority of the balls in the chosen urn white? i.e., $\operatorname{Pr}(G=w)$
- I draw a ball from the urn; it's white! i.e., $X=w$
- Conditional on that observation, with what probability are most of the balls in the urn white?

$$
\text { i.e., } \operatorname{Pr}(G=w \mid X=w)
$$

- 80 black

O 20 white

$G=b$

25 black
75 white

$G=w$


## Bayes' Rule Example: Urns

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(G=w)=\frac{2}{6} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(X=w \mid G=w)=0.75 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(G=w \mid X=w)=? \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(G=w \mid X=w)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=w \mid G=w) \operatorname{Pr}(G=w)}{\operatorname{Pr}(X=w)} \\
&=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=w \mid G=w) \operatorname{Pr}(G=w)}{\sum_{g \in \operatorname{dom}(G)} \operatorname{Pr}(X=w, G=g)} \\
&=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(X=w \mid G=w) \operatorname{Pr}(G=w)}{\sum_{g \in \operatorname{dom}(G)} \operatorname{Pr}(X=w \mid G=g) \operatorname{Pr}(G=g)} \\
&=\frac{0.75 \times 0.33}{0.75 \times 0.33+0.20 \times 0.67}
\end{aligned}
$$

- 80 black

O 20 white


$$
G=w
$$

$G=w$
25 black
○ 75 white

$$
G=b
$$



## Expected Value

- The expected value of a function $f$ on a random variable is the weighted average of that function over the domain of the random variable, weighted by the probability of each value:

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(X)]=\sum_{x \in \operatorname{dom}(X)} P(X=x) f(x)
$$

- The conditional expected value of a function $f$ is the average value of the function over the domain, weighted by the conditional probability of each value:

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(X) \mid Y=y]=\sum_{x \in \operatorname{dom}(X)} P(X=x \mid Y=y) f(x)
$$

## Expected Value Examples



$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X] & =3 \\
\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] & \simeq 10
\end{aligned}
$$



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E}[X]=3 \\
& \mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] \simeq 12
\end{aligned}
$$

## Summary

- Probability is a numerical measure of uncertainty
- Formal semantics:
- Weights over possible worlds sum to 1
- Probability of a proposition is total weight of possible worlds in which that proposition is true
- Conditional probability updates beliefs based on evidence
- Expected value of a function is its probability-weighted average over possible worlds

