

# Probability

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# Discrete Random Variables

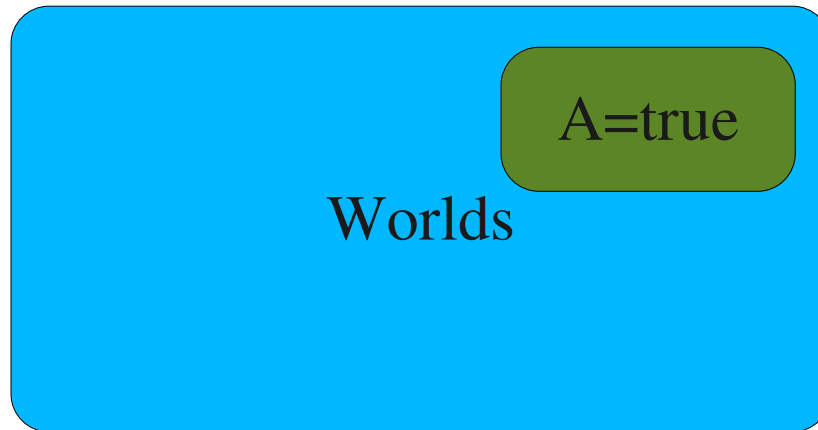
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- We denote discrete random variables with capital letters.
- A boolean random variable may be either true or false
  - $A = \text{true}$  or  $A = \text{false}$ .
- $P(a)$ , or  $P(A = \text{true})$  denotes the probability that  $A$  is true.
- Also **unconditional** probability or **prior** probability.
- $P(\neg a)$  or  $P(A = \text{false})$  denotes the probability that  $A$  is not true.

# Discrete Random Variables

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- $P(a)$ : the fraction of worlds in which  $A$  is true.

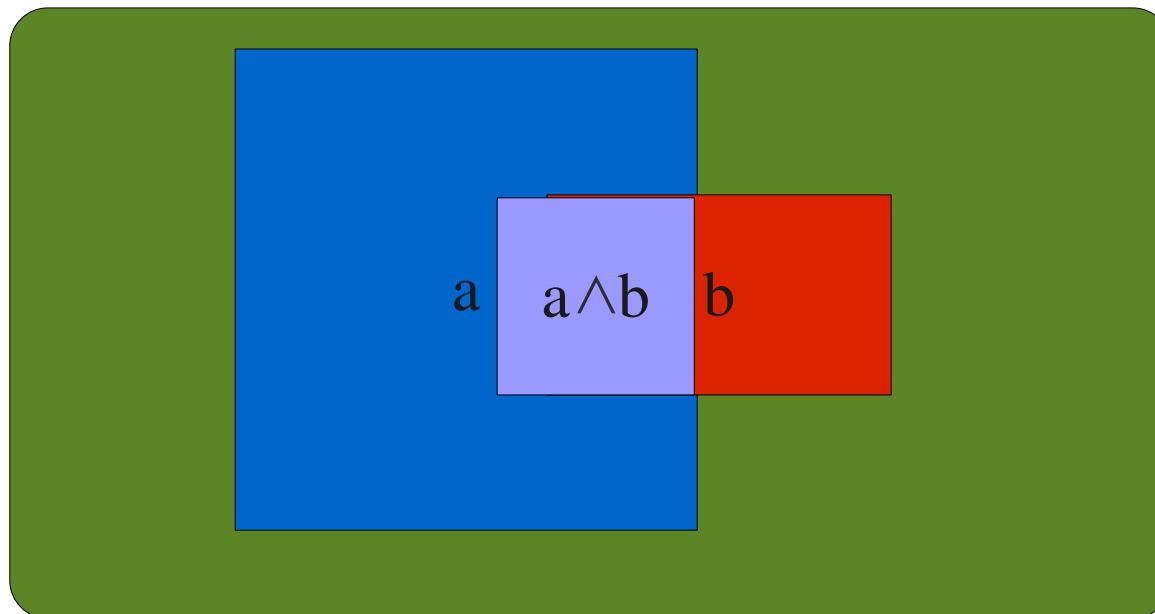


- $P(a) = .2$       $P(\neg a) = .8$

# More Notation

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- We can apply boolean operators
  - Probability of  $a$  AND  $b$ :  $P(a \wedge b)$  or  $P(a,b)$
  - Probability of  $a$  OR  $b$ :  $P(a \vee b)$
  - In general:  $P(\alpha)$



# The Axioms of Probability

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- $0 \leq P(\alpha)$  for any proposition  $\alpha$ .
- $P(\tau) = 1$  if  $\tau$  is a tautology.
- $P(\alpha \vee \beta) = P(\alpha) + P(\beta)$  if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are contradictory propositions

# A Simple Proof

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- $0 \leq P(\alpha)$  for any proposition  $\alpha$ .
- $P(\tau) = 1$  if  $\tau$  is a tautology.
- $P(\alpha \vee \beta) = P(\alpha) + P(\beta)$  if  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are contradictory propositions
- Prove that  $P(\neg\alpha) = 1 - P(\alpha)$

$$P(\neg\alpha \vee \alpha) = 1 \quad (\text{axiom 2})$$

$$P(\neg\alpha) + P(\alpha) = 1 \quad (\text{axiom 3})$$

$$P(\neg\alpha) = 1 - P(\alpha) \quad \text{rearranging terms}$$

# Multi-valued Random Variables

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- We can define a random variable that can take on more than two possible values.
- E.g.  $C$  is one of  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N\}$
- Note, it must be the case that :

$$\sum_{i=1}^N P(v_i) = 1$$

- Example:  $W$  may have the domain {sunny, cloudy, rainy}.

# Conditional Probability

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- $P(a | b)$ , the probability that A is true given that B is true.
  - $P(\text{sunny}) = .1$
  - $P(\text{sunny} | \text{warm}) = .3$

- Definition: 
$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)}$$

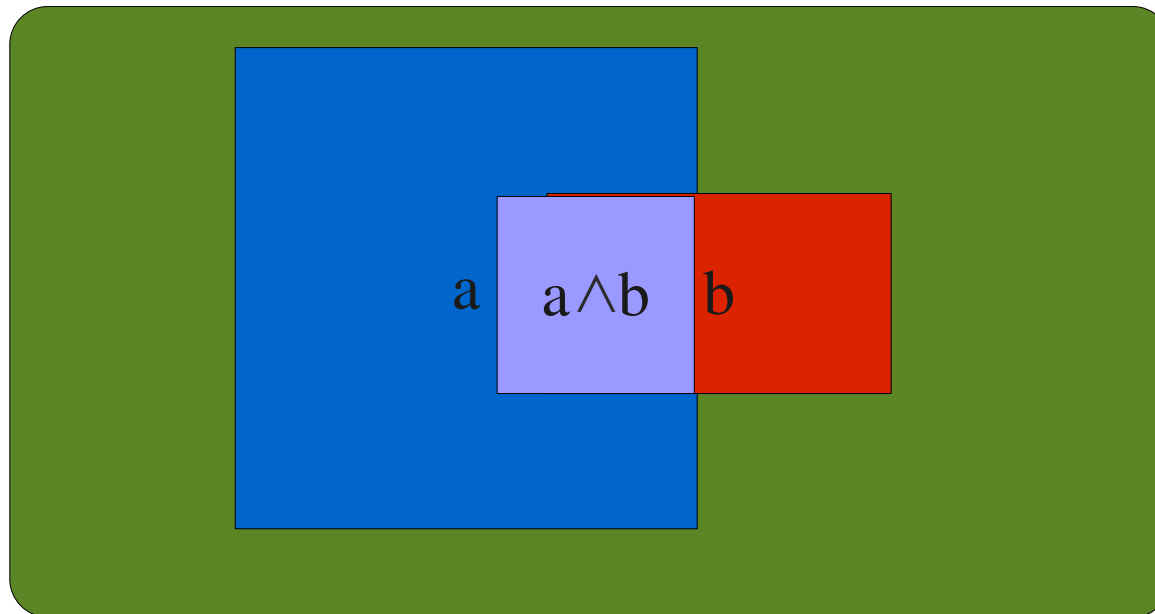
- The fraction of worlds in which B is true, that also have A true.
- May also be written as the **product rule**:

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



# Conditional Probability

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- $P(a) = .3$
- $P(b) = .1$
- $P(a \wedge b) = .05$
- $P(a \mid b) = .5$

# Probability Distributions

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- A probability distribution is a complete description of the probability of all possible assignments to a random variable.
- Examples:
- For a boolean variable
  - $P(A=\text{TRUE}) = .1$
  - $P(A=\text{FALSE}) = .9$
- Random variable  $W$  from the domain {sunny, cloudy, rainy}
  - $\mathbf{P}(W) = \langle .2, .7, .1 \rangle$

# Joint Probability Distribution

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- A complete description of the probability of all possible assignments to all variables (atomic event).

## Two boolean variables A and B

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	T	.1
T	F	.2
F	T	.5
F	F	.2

## Rooster Crows (C) and Weather (W)

<u>C</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	sunny	.05
T	cloudy	.2
T	rainy	0
F	sunny	.05
F	cloudy	.4
F	rainy	.3

# Inference

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- Determining the probability of an event of interest, given everything that we know about the world.
- This is easy if we have the joint probability distribution.
- *The probability of a proposition is equal to the sum of the probabilities of worlds in which it holds.*

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

# Inference Example

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<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	T	.1
T	F	.2
F	T	.5
F	F	.2

- What is  $P(A = \text{true})$ ?
- $P(a) = ??$

# Inference Example

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<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	T	.1
T	F	.2
F	T	.5
F	F	.2

- What is  $P(A = \text{true})$ ?
- $P(a) = .1 + .2 = .3$
- In general  $P(Y) = \sum_z P(Y, z)$  **marginalization.**
- Here  $Y$  and  $Z$  may be sets of variables, and the sum is over all possible assignments to the variables  $Z$ .

# Conditional Inference

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<u>C</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	sunny	.05
T	cloudy	.2
T	rainy	0
F	sunny	.05
F	cloudy	.4
F	rainy	.3

- $P(C=\text{true} \mid W = \text{sunny})?$
- Remember that:  $P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)}$
- $P(C=\text{true} \mid W = \text{sunny}) = ??$

# Conditional Inference

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<u>C</u>	<u>W</u>	<u>Prob</u>
T	sunny	.05
T	cloudy	.2
T	rainy	0
F	sunny	.05
F	cloudy	.4
F	rainy	.3

- $P(C=\text{true} \mid W = \text{sunny})?$
- Remember that:  $P(a|b) = \frac{P(a \wedge b)}{P(b)}$
- $P(C=\text{true} \mid W = \text{sunny}) = .05 / (.05 + .05) = .5$



# “Learning” a Joint Probability Distribution

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- Where does the joint probability distribution come from?
- Maybe we (or an expert) make it up.

- Or we can learn it:  $\hat{P}(row) = \frac{\# \text{ instances that match row}}{\# \text{ total instances}}$

C	W	#days	Prob
T	sunny	12	12/38 = .32
T	cloudy	3	3/38 = .08
T	rainy	0	0/38 = .0
F	sunny	8	8/38 = .21
F	cloudy	10	10/38 = .26
F	rainy	5	5/38 = .13

total: 38

ANY PROBLEMS?

# Problems with Learning PD

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- This will quickly break down if we have more than a few variables.

# Independence

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- Variables A and B are independent if  $P(a \mid b) = P(a)$
- We can also write:  $P(a \wedge b) = P(a)P(b)$ 
  - Remember the product rule:  $P(a \wedge b) = P(a|b)P(b)$
- Independence is a big deal for probabilistic reasoning.
  - Specifying the full joint PD requires exponential storage.
  - Learning it requires an exponentially growing amount of data.
  - These both become linear if all variables are independent.
  - This is called factoring the joint distribution.

# Bayes' Rule

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- The most useful identity in AI:

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

- Think of  $h$  as hypothesis and  $e$  as evidence.
- $P(e|h)$  is called **likelihood**.

$$\textit{posterior} = \frac{\textit{likelihood} \times \textit{prior}}{\textit{evidence}}$$

- Why would we know  $P(e | h)$  and not  $P(h | e)$ ?

# Diagnosis

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

- I have a cough, I want to know the probability that I have pneumonia.
- $P(\text{cough}) = .1$ ,  $P(\text{pneumonia}) = .001$ ,  
 $P(\text{cough} | \text{pneumonia}) = .5$
- $P(\text{pneumonia} | \text{cough}) = (.5 * .001) / .1 = .005 = .5\%$

# P(e)?

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- That P(e) term seems a little odd. How do we know the prior probability of the evidence?
- We don't need to:
  - Maybe we don't care (if only want to know which hypothesis is most likely).
  - Otherwise:

$$P(e) = \sum_{h \in H} P(e|h)P(h)$$