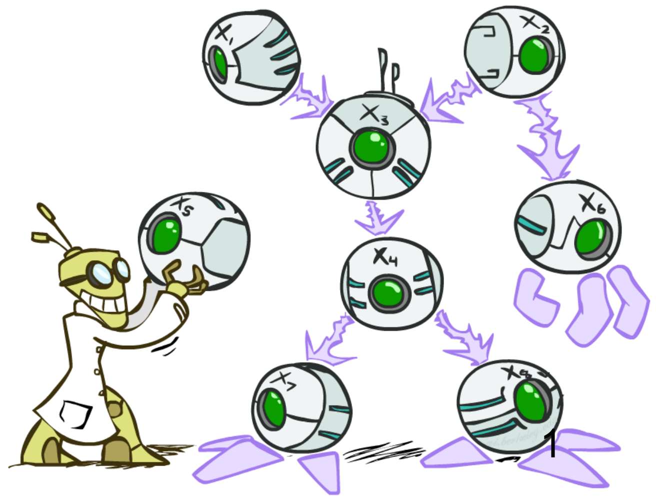
CSE 473: Artificial Intelligence

Hanna Hajishirzi

Uncertainty, Bayes Nets

slides adapted from
Dan Klein, Pieter Abbeel ai.berkeley.edu
And Dan Weld, Luke Zettlemoyer



Announcements

- HW3: Nov 15
- PS3: Nov 22
- Quiz 2: Nov 29
- RL Lecture notes released
- HW2 solutions released

Recap: Approximate Q-Learning

$$Q(s,a) = w_1 f_1(s,a) + w_2 f_2(s,a) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s,a)$$

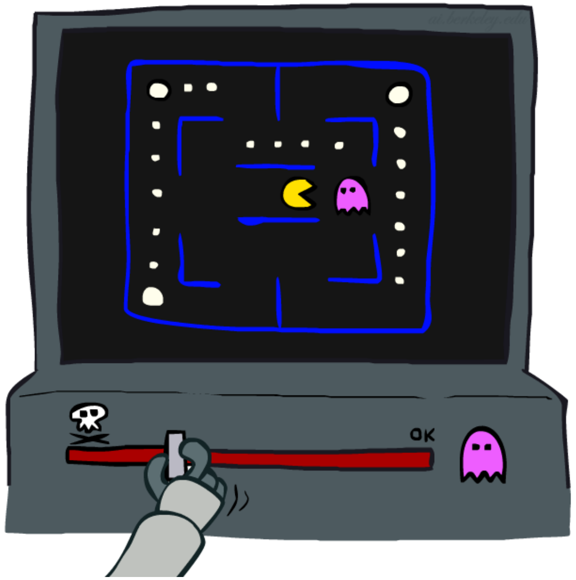
- Q-learning with linear Q-functions:

transition $= (s, a, r, s')$

difference $= \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')\right] - Q(s,a)$

$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha$ [difference]   Exact Q's

$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha$ [difference] $f_i(s,a)$ Approximate Q's

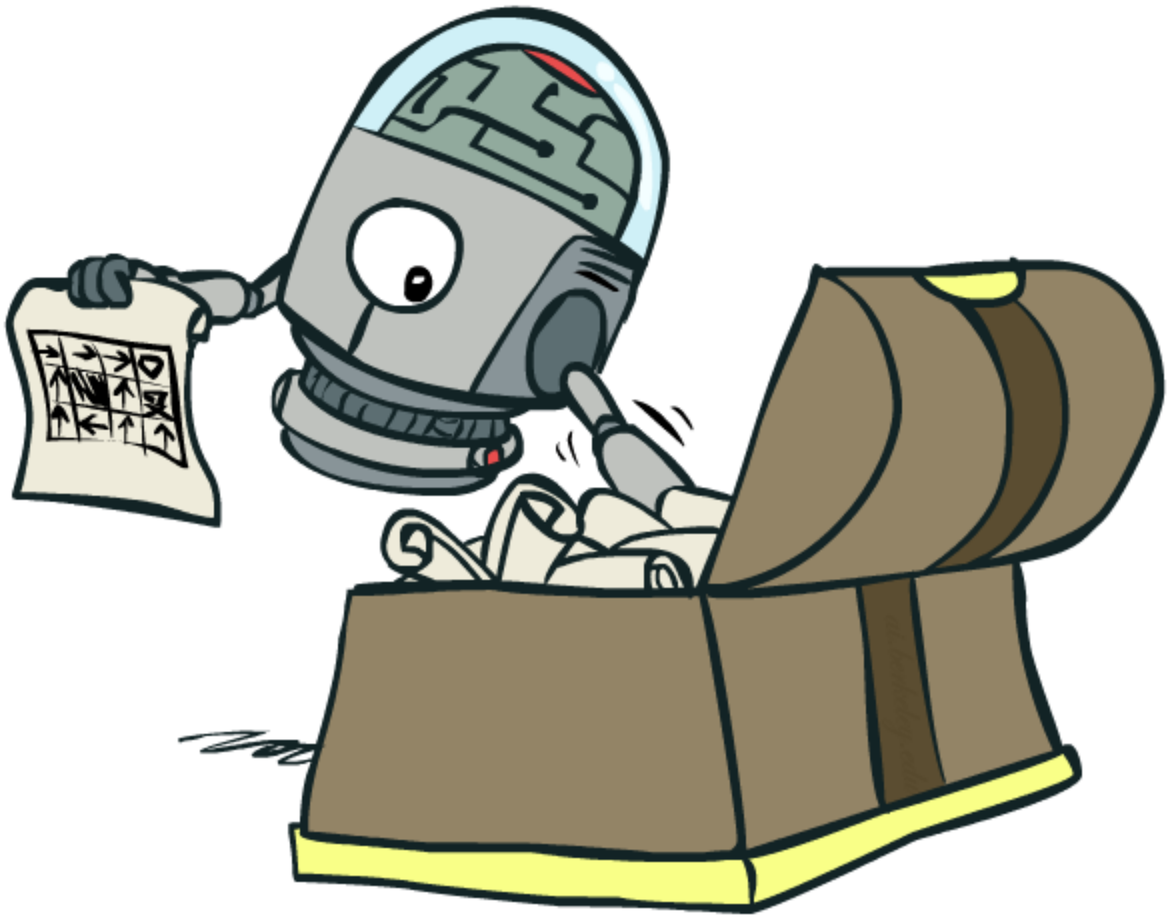


- Intuitive interpretation:
  - Adjust weights of active features
  - E.g., if something unexpectedly bad happens, blame the features that were on: disprefer all states with that state's features

- Formal justification: online least squares

Model-Free RL
Playing Atari Games

Policy Search*



Policy Search

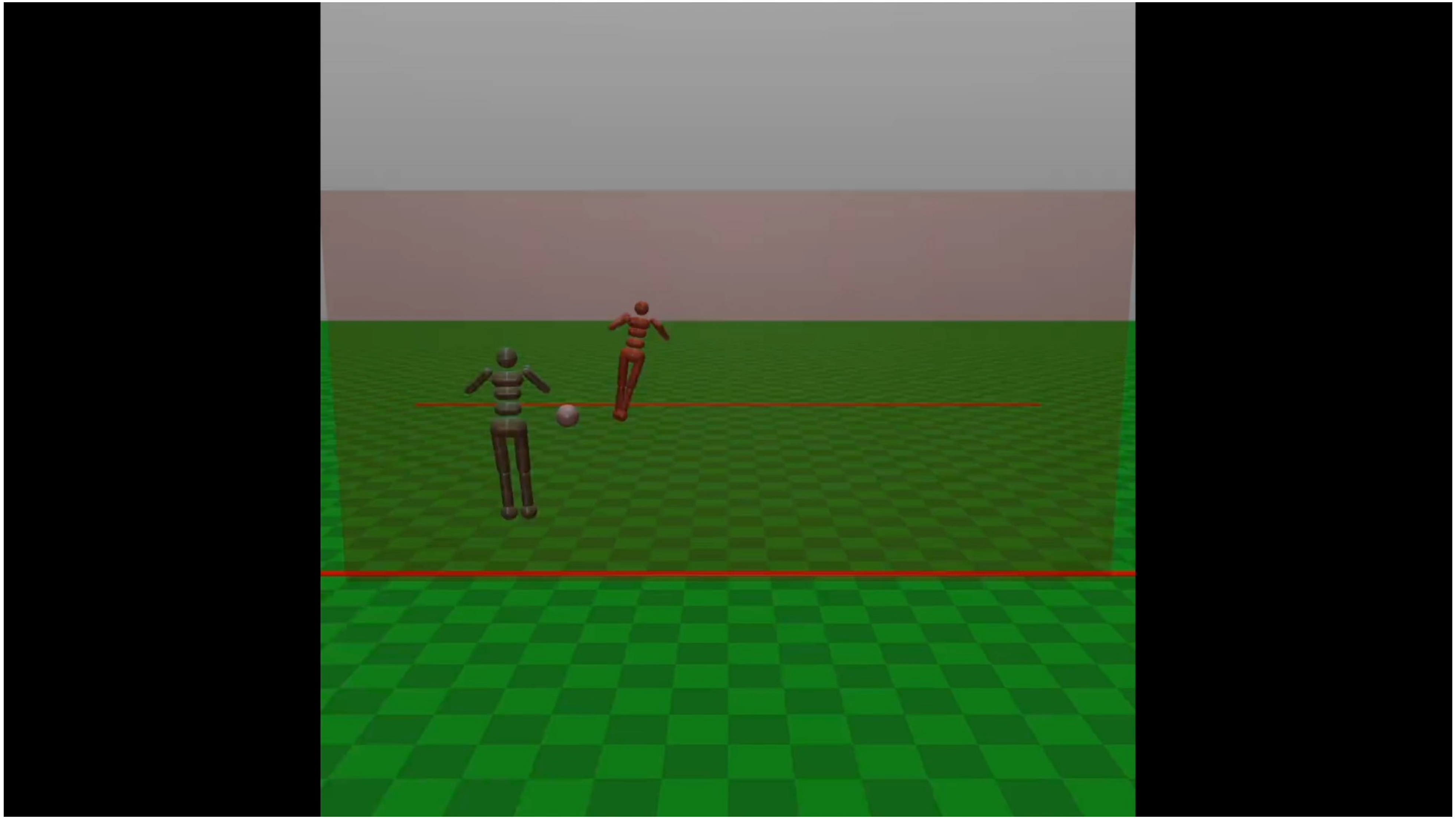
- Problem: often the feature-based policies that work well (win games, maximize utilities) aren't the ones that approximate V / Q best
  - E.g. your value functions from project 2 were probably horrible estimates of future rewards, but they still produced good decisions
  - Q-learning's priority: get Q-values close (modeling)
  - Action selection priority: get ordering of Q-values right (prediction)

- Solution: learn policies that maximize rewards, not the values that predict them

- Policy search: start with an ok solution (e.g. Q-learning) then fine-tune by hill climbing on feature weights

Policy Search

- Simplest policy search:
  - Start with an initial linear value function or Q-function
  - Nudge each feature weight up and down and see if your policy is better than before
- Problems:
  - How do we tell the policy got better?
  - Need to run many sample episodes!
  - If there are a lot of features, this can be impractical
- Better methods exploit lookahead structure, sample wisely, change multiple parameters…



Summary: MDPs and RL

Known MDP: Offline Solution

Goal	Technique
Compute V*, Q*, π*	Value / policy iteration
Evaluate a fixed policy π	Policy evaluation

Unknown MDP: Model-Based

Goal	**use features to generalize*	Technique
Compute V*, Q*, π*		VI/PI on approx. MDP
Evaluate a fixed policy π		PE on approx. MDP

Unknown MDP: Model-Free

Goal	**use features to generalize*	Technique
Compute V*, Q*, π*		Q-learning
Evaluate a fixed policy π		Value Learning

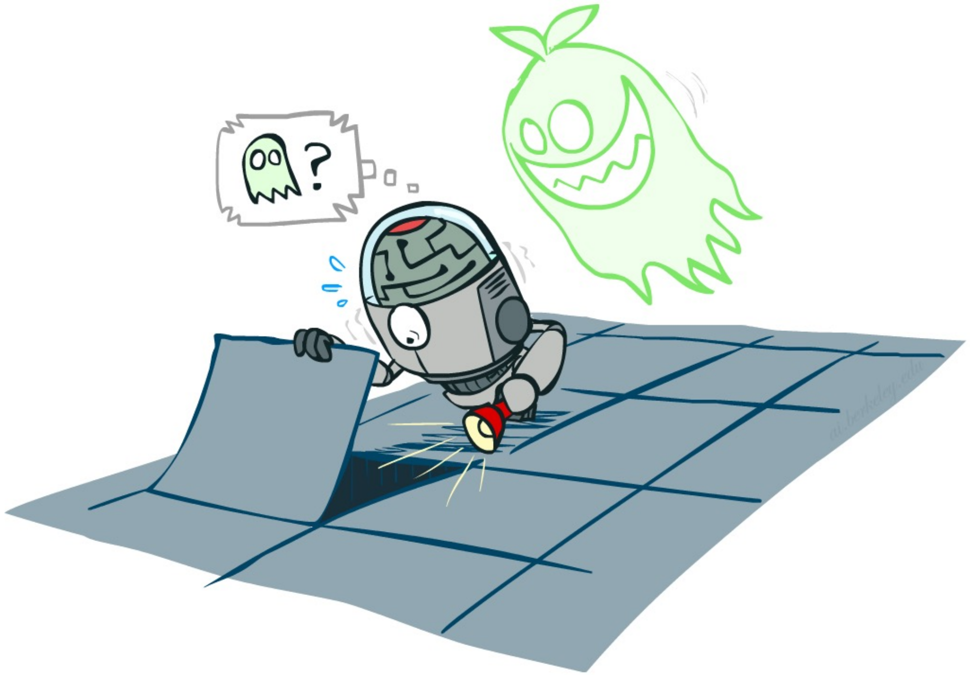
Conclusion

- We've seen how AI methods can solve problems in:
  - Search
  - Games
  - Markov Decision Problems
  - Reinforcement Learning

- Next up: Uncertainty and Learning!

Our Status in CSE473

- We' re done with Search and planning
- We are done with learning to make decisions
- Probabilistic Reasoning and Machine Learning
  - Diagnosis
  - Speech recognition
  - Tracking objects
  - Robot mapping
  - Genetics
  - Error correcting codes
  - … lots more!

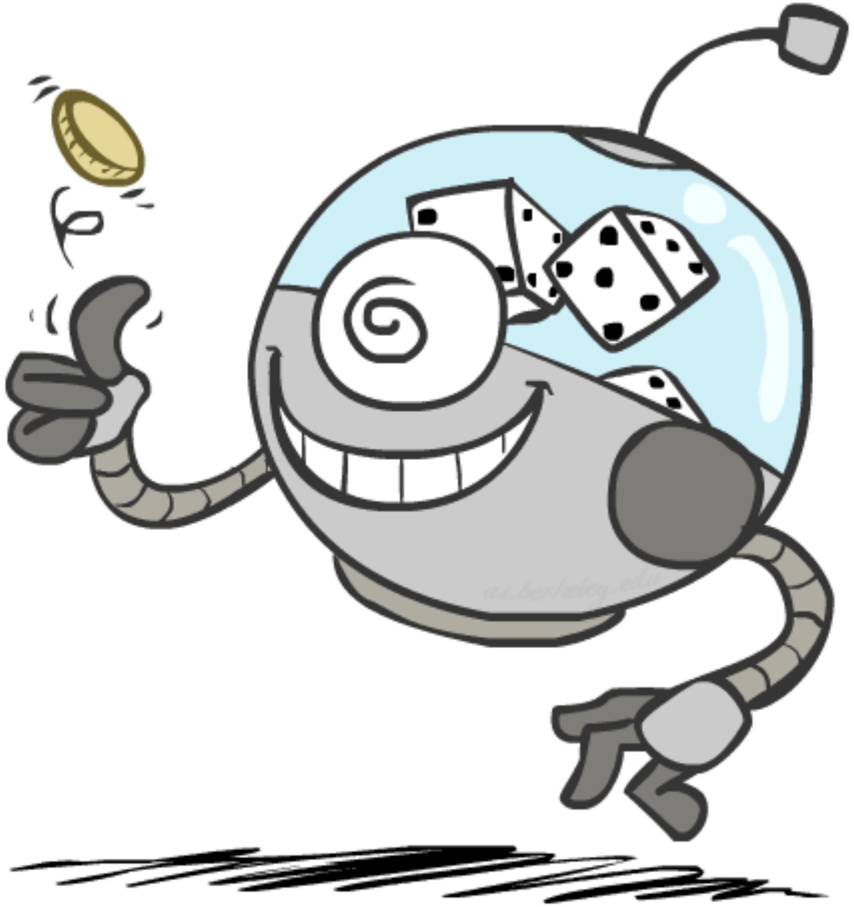


Outline

- Probability

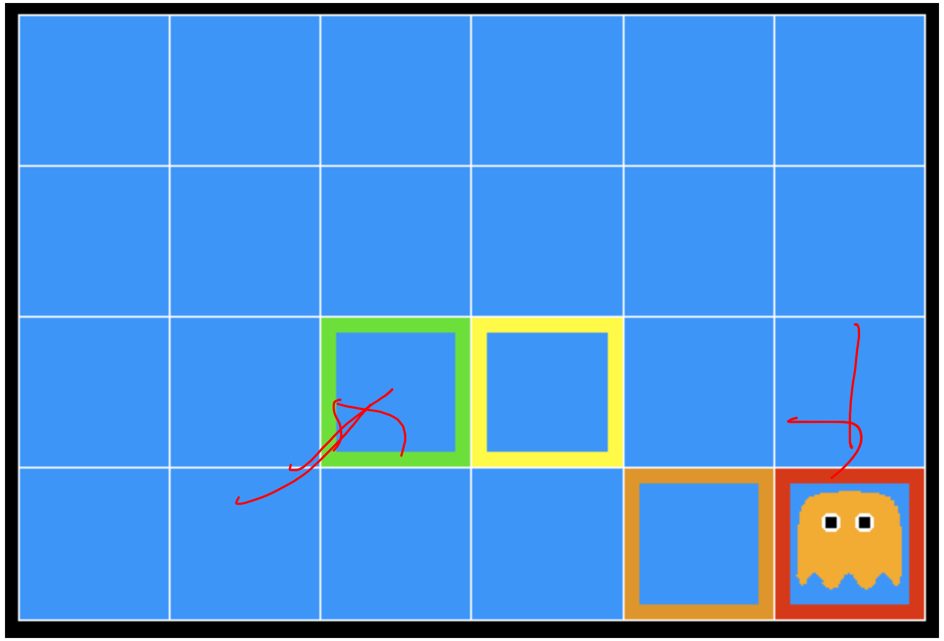
- Bayes Nets

- You'll need all this stuff for the next few weeks, so make sure you go over it now!



Inference in Ghostbusters

- A ghost is in the grid somewhere
- Sensor readings tell how close a square is to the ghost
  - On the ghost: red
  - 1 or 2 away: orange
  - 3 or 4 away: yellow
  - 5+ away: green

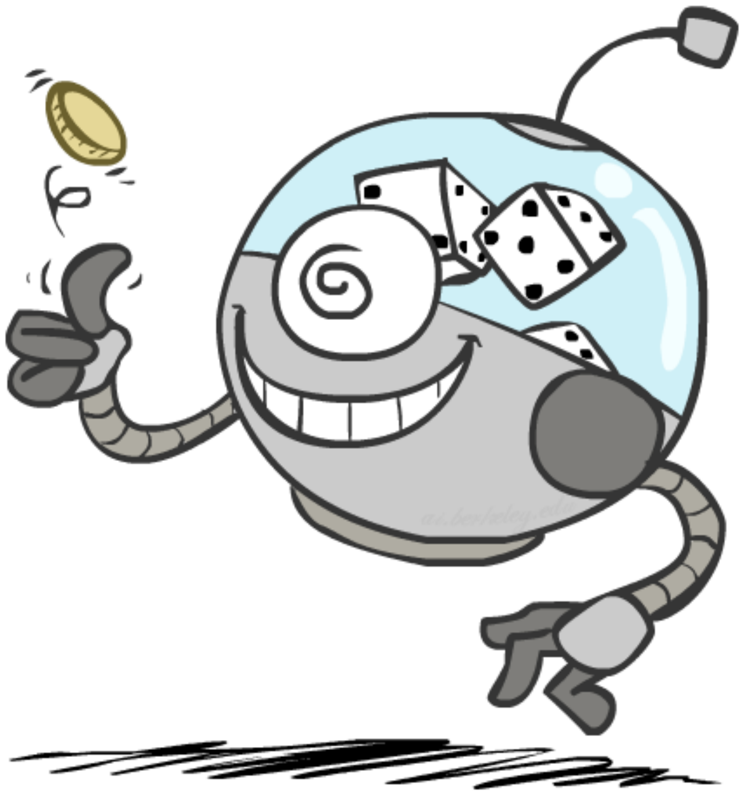


- Sensors are noisy, but we know P(Color | Distance)

P(red | 3)	P(orange | 3)	P(yellow | 3)	P(green | 3)
0.05	0.15	0.5	0.3

Random Variables

- A random variable is some aspect of the world about which we (may) have uncertainty
  - R = Is it raining?
  - T = Is it hot or cold?
  - D = How long will it take to drive to work?
  - L = Where is the ghost?



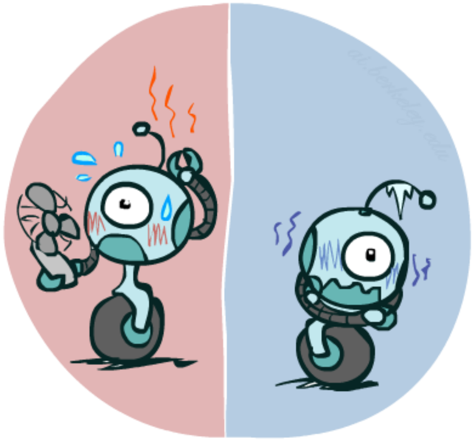
- We denote random variables with capital letters

- Random variables have domains
  - R in {true, false} (often write as {+r, -r})
  - T in {hot, cold}
  - D in [0, ∞)
  - L in possible locations, maybe {(0,0), (0,1), …}

Probability Distributions

- Associate a probability with each outcome

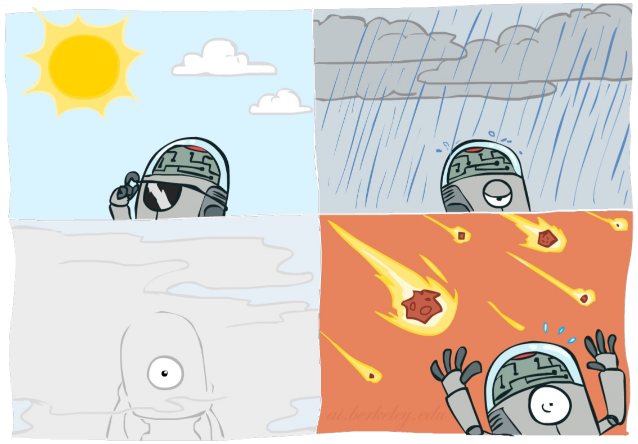
  - Temperature:



$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

  - Weather:



$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.1
fog	0.3
meteor	0.0

Probability Distributions

P(T)

- Unobserved random variables have distributions

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.1
fog	0.3
meteor	0.0

- A distribution is a TABLE of probabilities of values

- A probability (lower case value) is a single number

$$P(W = rain) = 0.1$$

- Must have: $\forall x \;\; P(X = x) \geq 0$ and $\sum_x P(X = x) = 1$

Shorthand notation:

P(T=hot) = P(hot)

$$P(hot) = P(T = hot),$$
$$P(cold) = P(T = cold),$$
$$P(rain) = P(W = rain),$$
$$\ldots$$

OK *if* all domain entries are unique

Joint Distributions

- A *joint distribution* over a set of random variables: $X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n$ specifies a real number for each assignment (or *outcome*):

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \ldots X_n = x_n)$$

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n)$$

  - Must obey: $P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) \geq 0$

$$\sum_{(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n)} P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = 1$$

$$P(T, W)$$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

- Size of distribution if n variables with domain sizes d?
  - For all but the smallest distributions, impractical to write out!

Events

- An *event* is a set E of outcomes

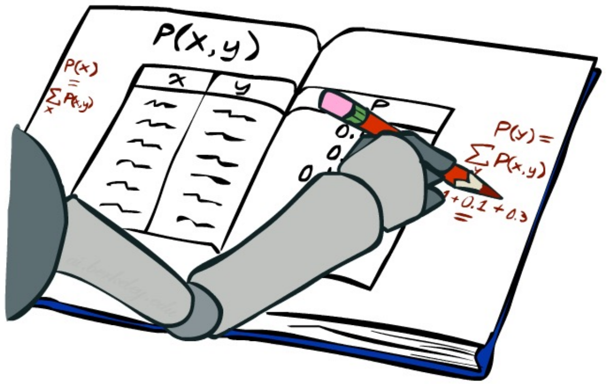
$$P(E) = \sum_{(x_1 \ldots x_n) \in E} P(x_1 \ldots x_n)$$

- From a joint distribution, we can calculate the probability of any event
  - Probability that it's hot AND sunny?
  - Probability that it's hot?
  - Probability that it's hot OR sunny?
- Typically, the events we care about are *partial assignments*, like P(T=hot)

$P(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

Marginal Distributions



- Marginal distributions are sub-tables which eliminate variables
- Marginalization (summing out): Combine collapsed rows by adding

$P(T,W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$$P(t) = \sum_s P(t,s)$$

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$$P(s) = \sum_t P(t,s)$$

$P(W)$

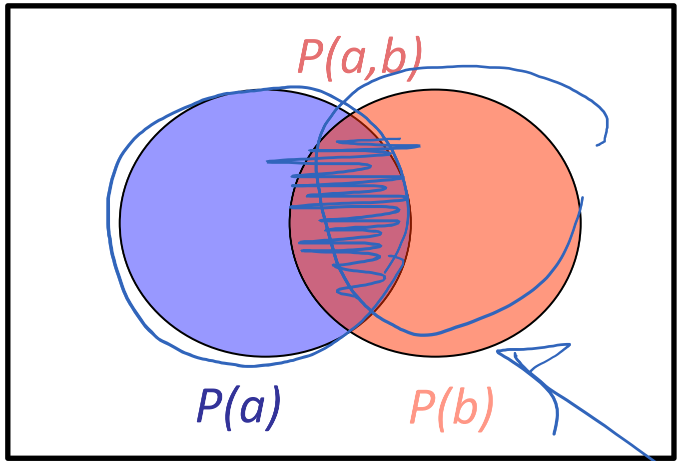
W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

$$P(X_1 = x_1) = \sum_{x_2} P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2)$$

Conditional Probabilities

- A simple relation between joint and conditional probabilities
  - In fact, this is taken as the *definition* of a conditional probability

$$P(a|b) = \frac{P(a,b)}{P(b)}$$



$P(T,W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$$P(W=s|T=c) = \frac{P(W=s,T=c)}{P(T=c)} = \frac{0.2}{0.5} = 0.4$$

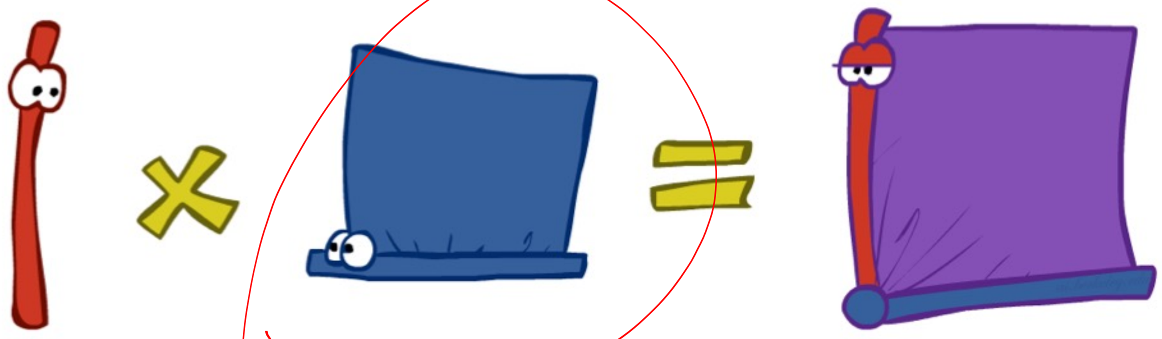
$$= P(W=s,T=c) + P(W=r,T=c)$$

$$= 0.2 + 0.3 = 0.5$$

The Product Rule

- Sometimes have conditional distributions but want the joint

$$P(y)P(x|y) = P(x, y) \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad P(x|y) = \frac{P(x, y)}{P(y)}$$



The Product Rule

$$P(y)P(x|y) = P(x,y)$$

- Example:

$P(W)$

R	P
sun	0.8
rain	0.2

$P(D|W)$

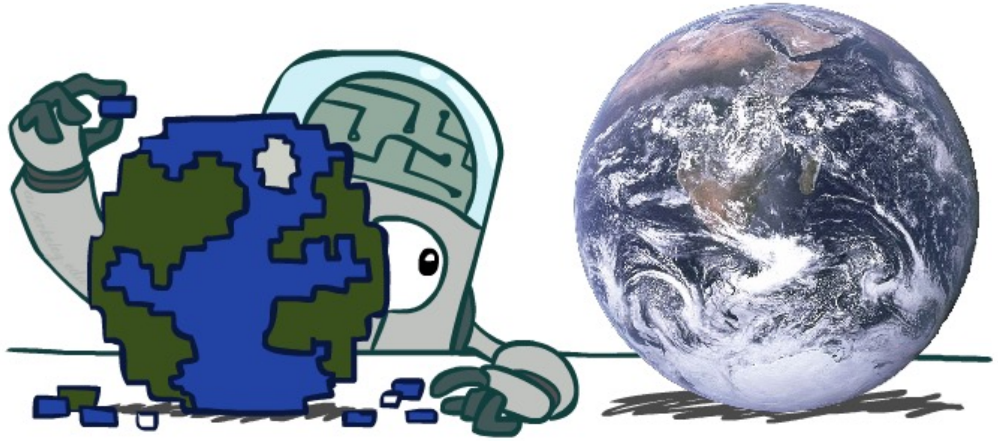
D	W	P
wet	sun	0.1
dry	sun	0.9
wet	rain	0.7
dry	rain	0.3

$P(D,W)$

D	W	P
wet	sun	
dry	sun	
wet	rain	
dry	rain	

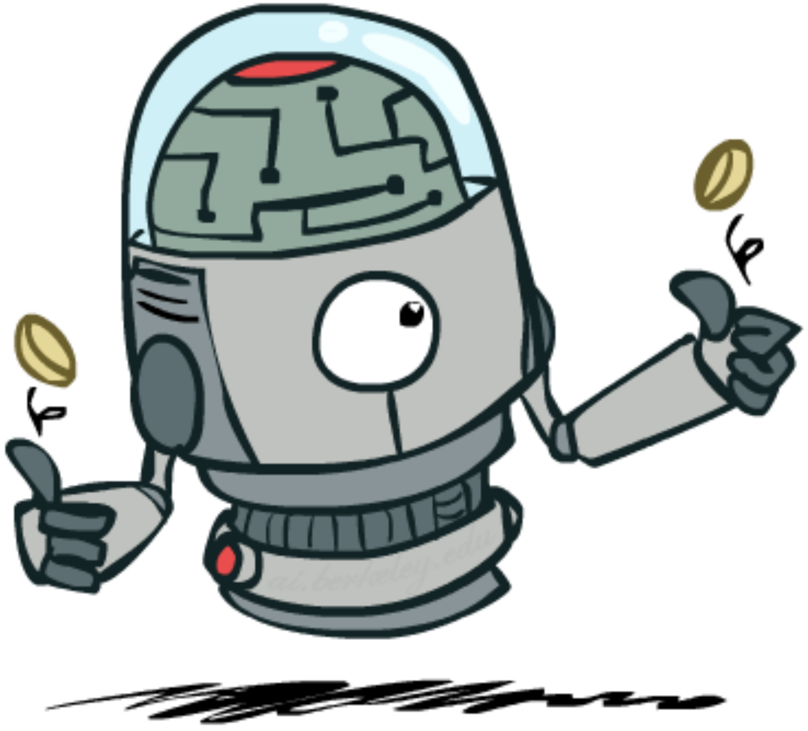
Probabilistic Models

- Models describe how (a portion of) the world works
- Models are always simplifications
  - May not account for every variable
  - May not account for all interactions between variables
  - "All models are wrong; but some are useful."
    – George E. P. Box



- What do we do with probabilistic models?
  - We (or our agents) need to reason about unknown variables, given evidence
  - Example: explanation (diagnostic reasoning)
  - Example: prediction (causal reasoning)

Independence



Independence

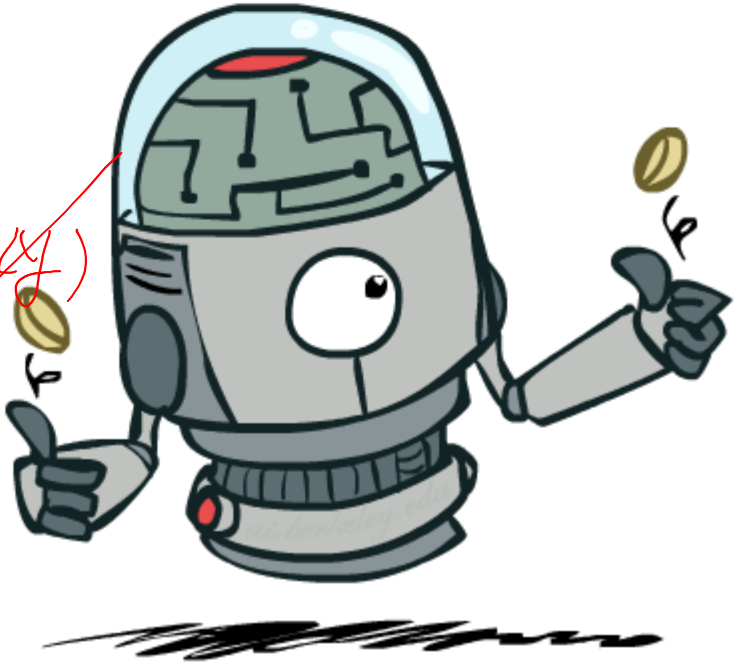
- Two variables are *independent* if:

$$\forall x, y : P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$$

  - This says that their joint distribution *factors* into a product two simpler distributions
  - Another form:

$$\forall x, y : P(x|y) = P(x)$$

  - We write: $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$



- Independence is a simplifying *modeling assumption*
  - *Empirical* joint distributions: at best "close" to independent
  - What could we assume for {Weather, Traffic, Cavity, Toothache}?

Example: Independence?

$P(T)$

T	P
hot	0.5
cold	0.5

$P_1(T, W)$

T	W	P
hot	sun	0.4
hot	rain	0.1
cold	sun	0.2
cold	rain	0.3

$P_2(T, W)$

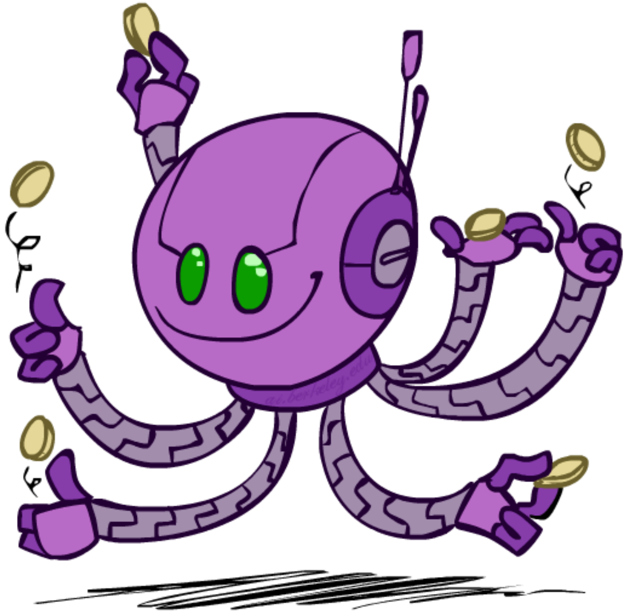
T	W	P
hot	sun	0.3
hot	rain	0.2
cold	sun	0.3
cold	rain	0.2

$P(W)$

W	P
sun	0.6
rain	0.4

Example: Independence

- N fair, independent coin flips:



$P(X_1)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

$P(X_2)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

$\ldots$

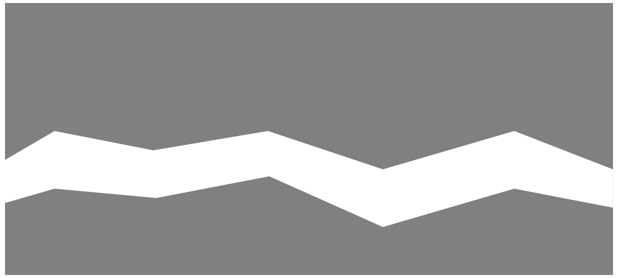
$P(X_n)$

H	0.5
T	0.5

P(h,h,t,t) =

$P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n)$

2^n



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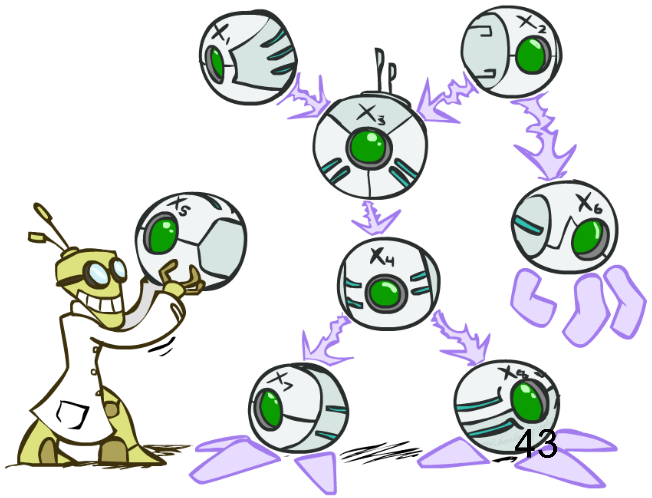


RecapUncertainty Summary

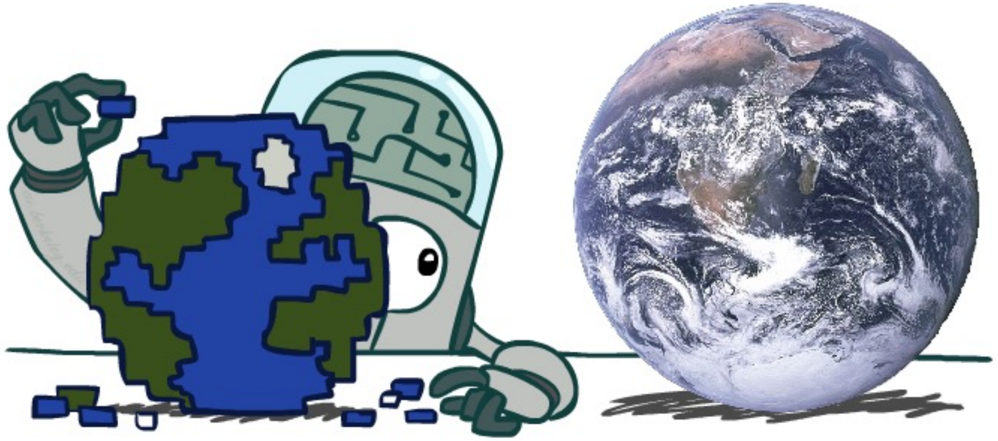
- Conditional probability $P(x|y) = \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)}$
- Product rule $P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y)$
- Chain rule $$P(X_1, X_2, \dots X_n) = P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\dots = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i|X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$
- X, Y independent if and only if: $\forall x, y : P(x,y) = P(x)P(y)$
- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if and only if: $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$
  $\forall x, y, z : P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$

BN lecture

Probabilistic Models

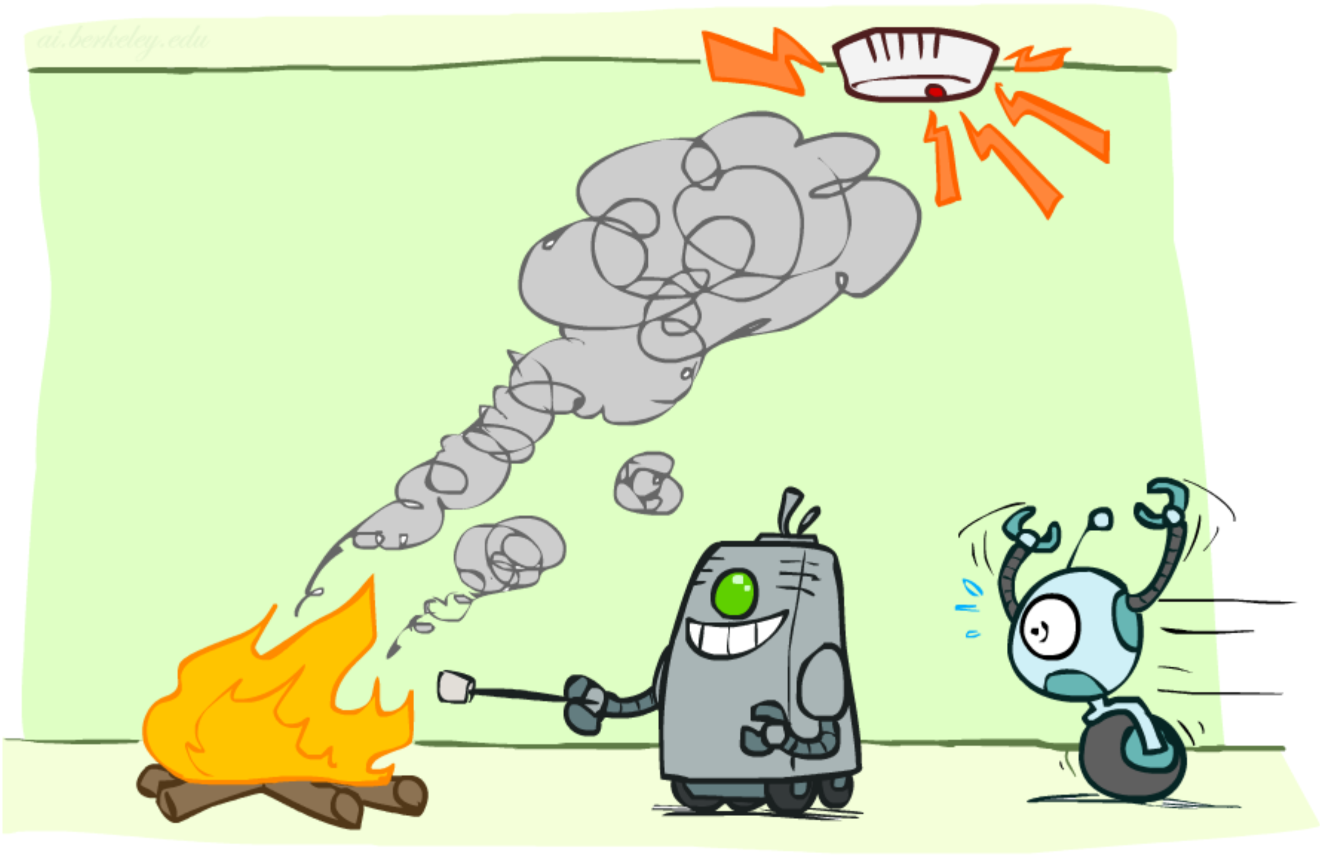
- Models describe how (a portion of) the world works

- Models are always simplifications
  - May not account for every variable
  - May not account for all interactions between variables
  - "All models are wrong; but some are useful."
    – George E. P. Box



- What do we do with probabilistic models?
  - We (or our agents) need to reason about unknown variables, given evidence
  - Example: explanation (diagnostic reasoning)
  - Example: prediction (causal reasoning)

Conditional Independence



Conditional Independence

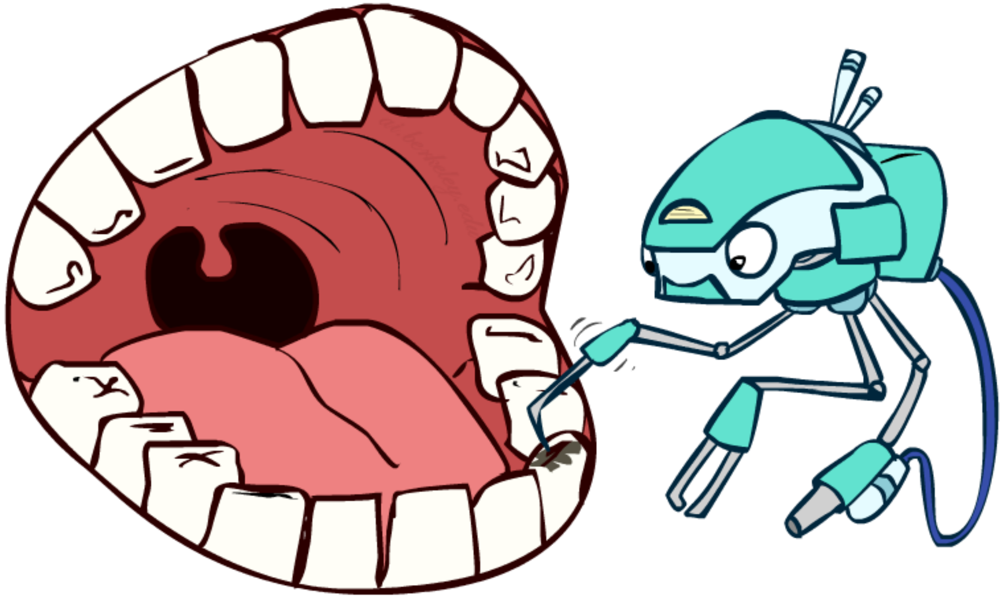
- P(Toothache, Cavity, Catch)

- If I have a cavity, the probability that the probe catches in it doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:
  - P(+catch | +toothache, +cavity) = P(+catch | +cavity)

- The same independence holds if I don't have a cavity:
  - P(+catch | +toothache, -cavity) = P(+catch| -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)
  - One can be derived from the other easily



Conditional Independence

- Unconditional (absolute) independence very rare (why?)

- *Conditional independence* is our most basic and robust form of knowledge about uncertain environments.

- X is conditionally independent of Y given Z $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$

  if and only if:

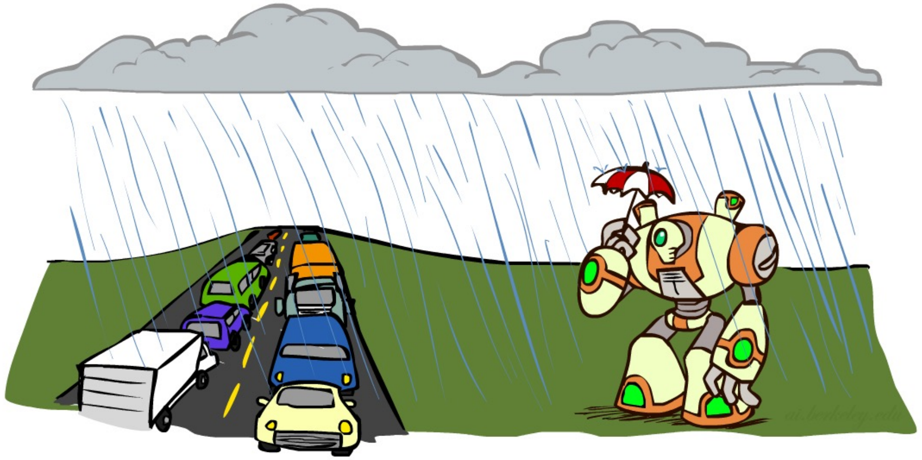
  $$\forall x, y, z : P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$$

  or, equivalently, if and only if

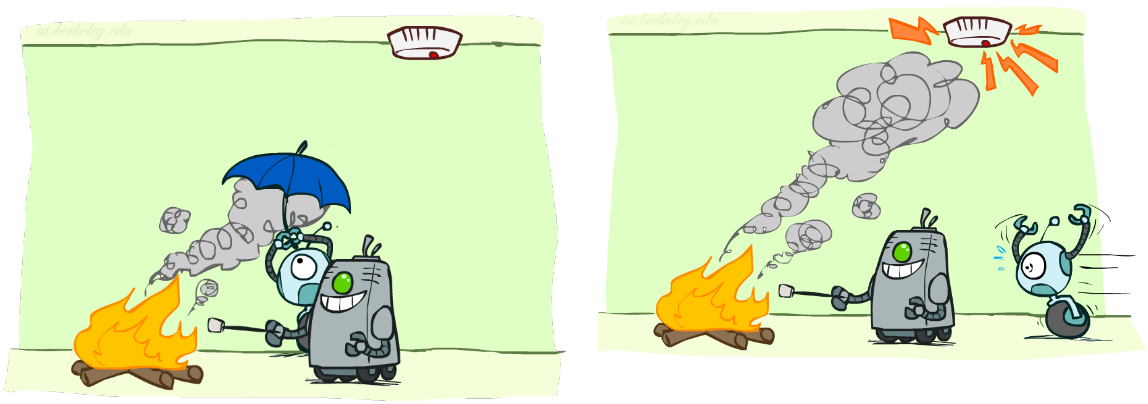
  $$\forall x, y, z : P(x|z, y) = P(x|z)$$

Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Traffic
  - Umbrella
  - Raining

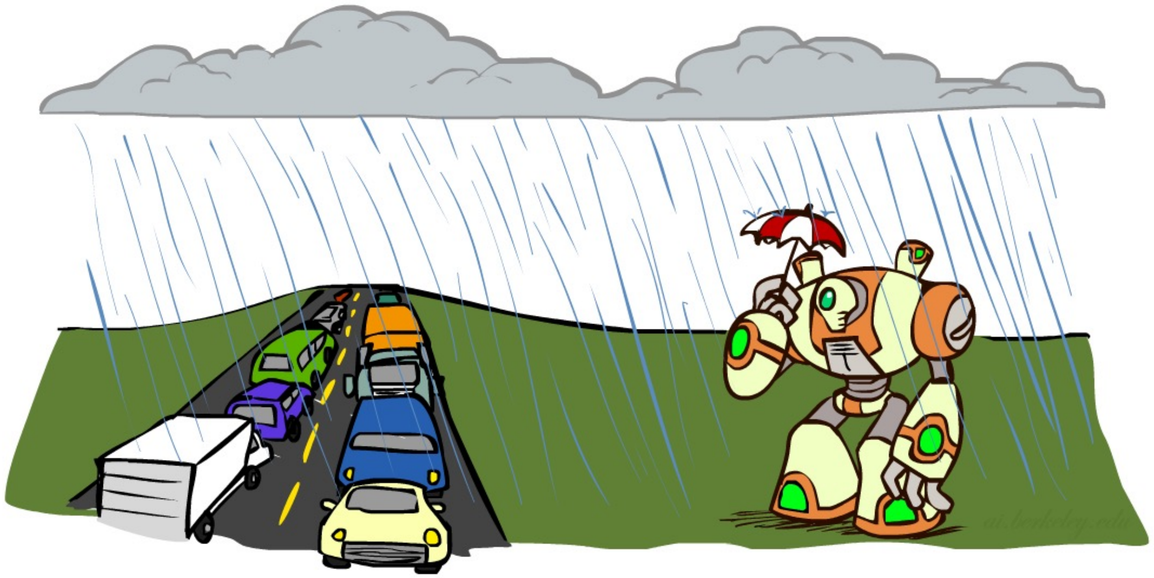


- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm



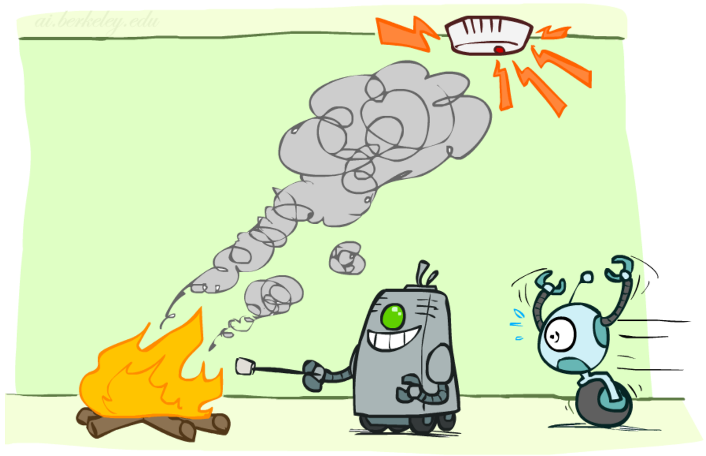
Conditional Independence

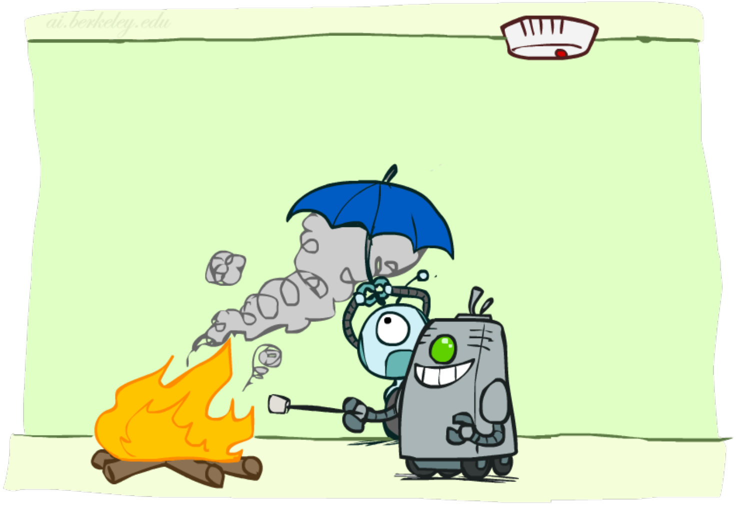
- What about this domain:
  - Traffic
  - Umbrella
  - Raining



Conditional Independence

- What about this domain:
  - Fire
  - Smoke
  - Alarm

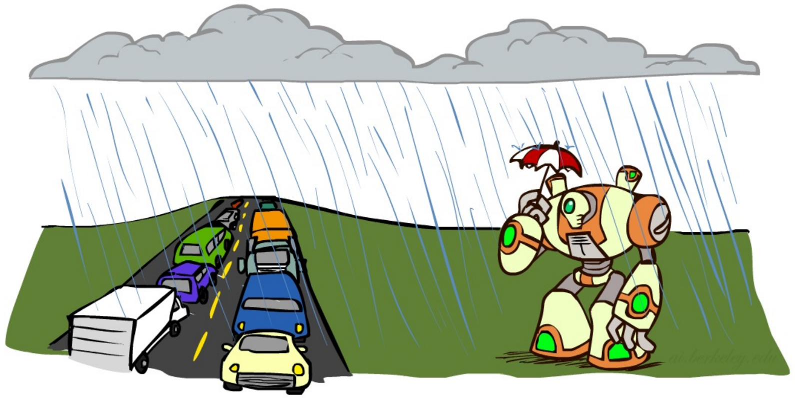




Conditional Independence and the Chain Rule

- Chain rule: $P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n) = P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\ldots$

- Trivial decomposition:



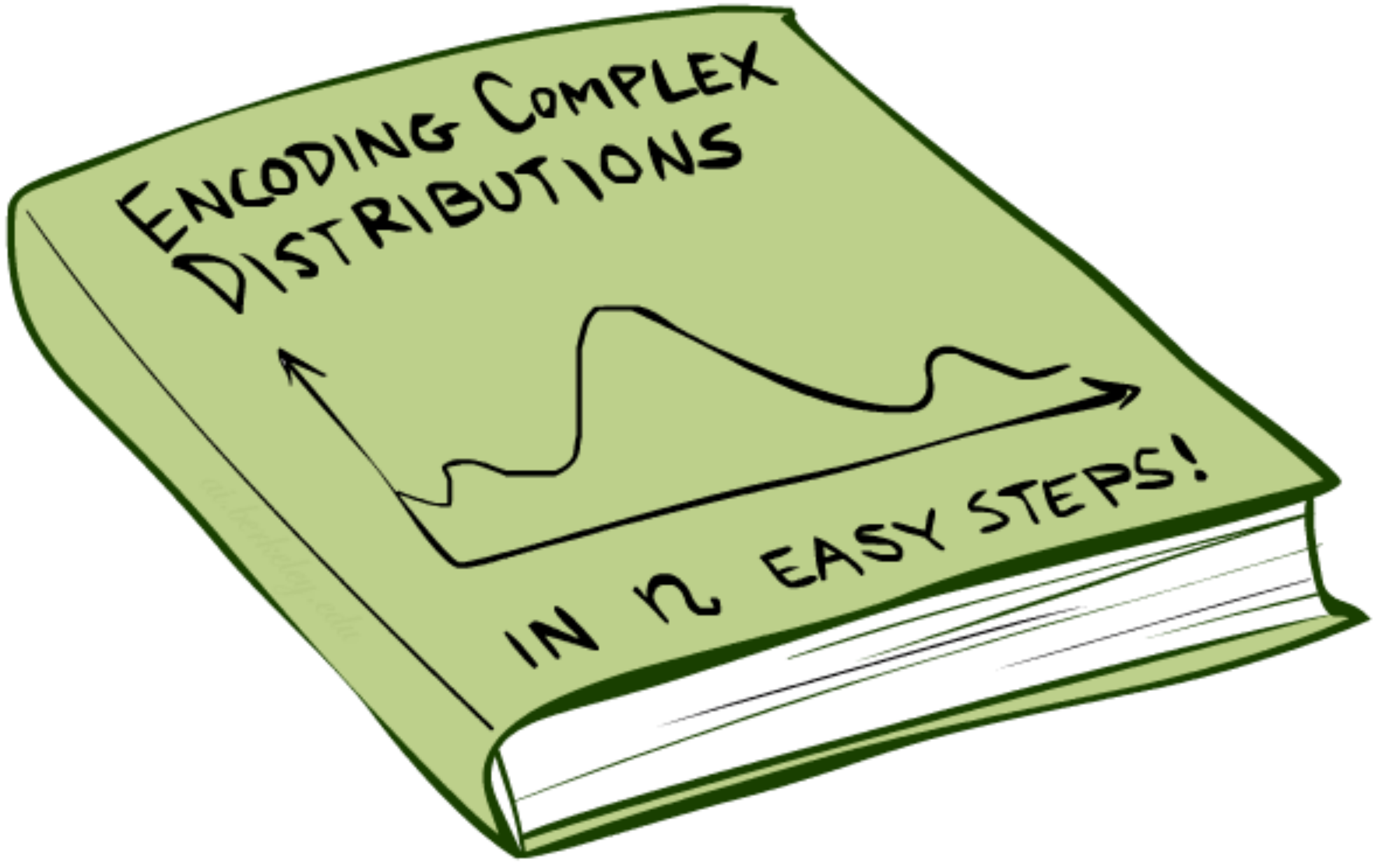
$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) =$$
$$P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain}, \text{Traffic})$$

- With assumption of conditional independence:

$$P(\text{Traffic}, \text{Rain}, \text{Umbrella}) =$$
$$P(\text{Rain})P(\text{Traffic}|\text{Rain})P(\text{Umbrella}|\text{Rain})$$

- We can represent joint distributions by multiplying these simpler local distributions.
- Bayes'nets / graphical models help us express conditional independence assumptions

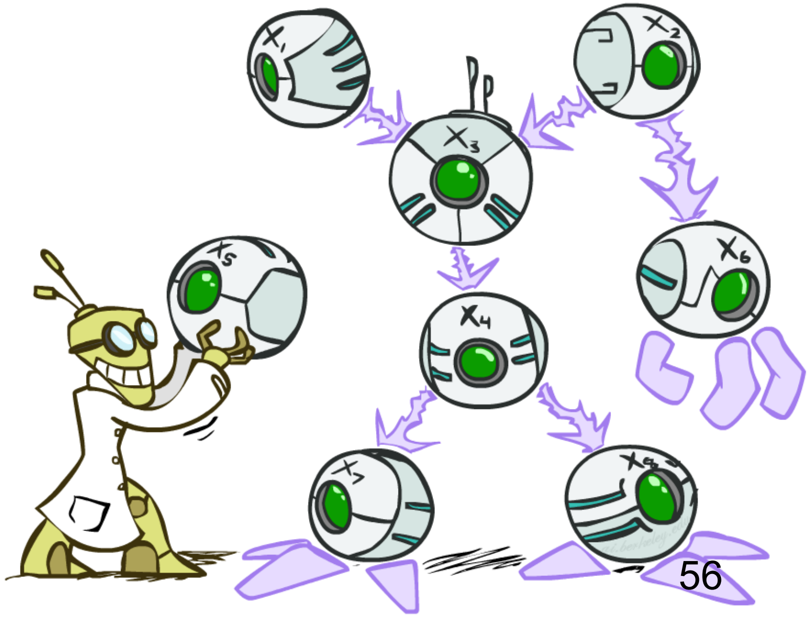
Bayes' Nets: Big Picture



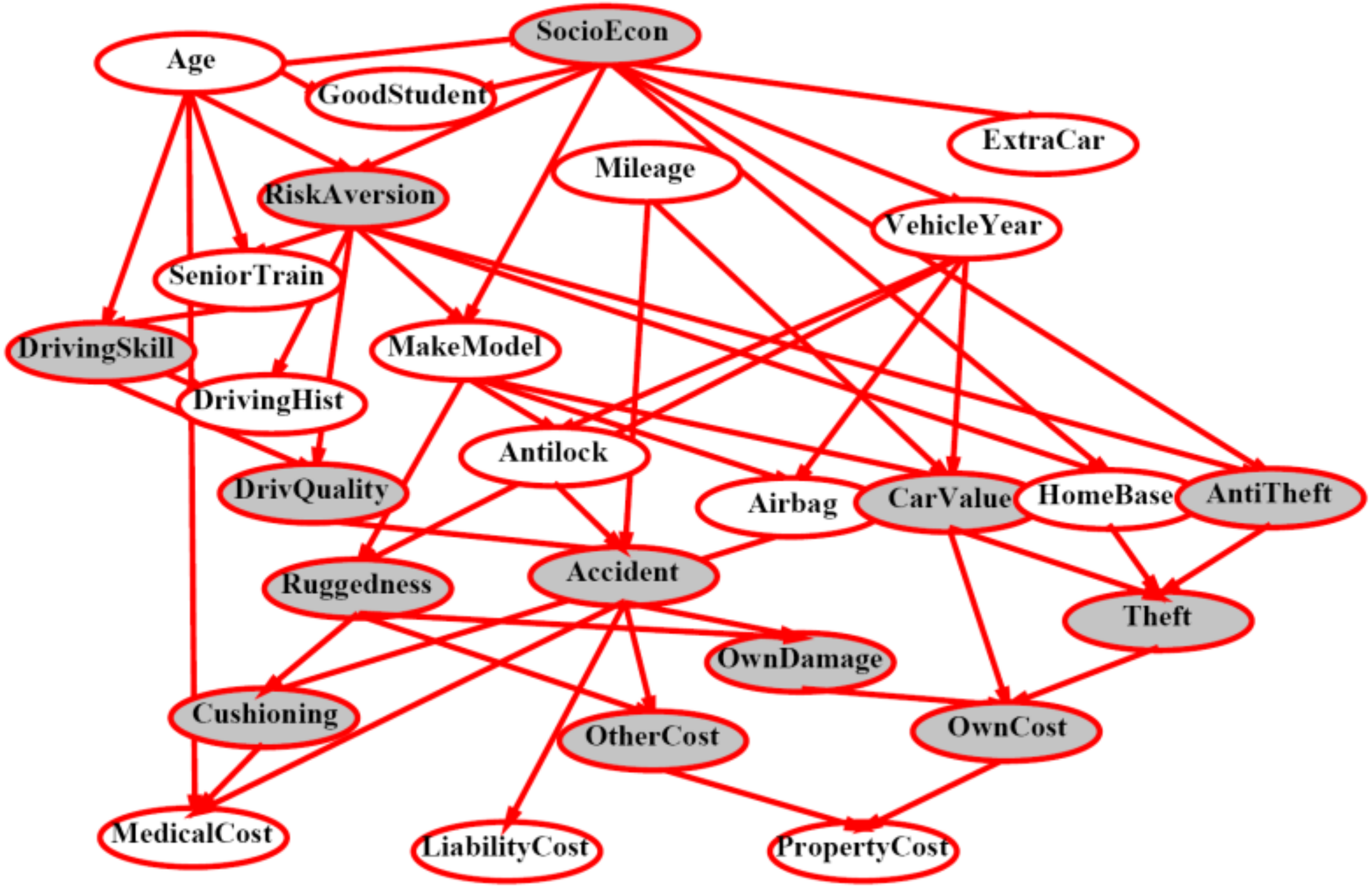
Bayes' Nets: Big Picture

- Two problems with using full joint distribution tables as our probabilistic models:
  - Unless there are only a few variables, the joint is WAY too big to represent explicitly
  - Hard to learn (estimate) anything empirically about more than a few variables at a time

- Bayes' nets: a technique for describing complex joint distributions (models) using simple, local distributions (conditional probabilities)
  - More properly called graphical models
  - We describe how variables locally interact
  - Local interactions chain together to give global, indirect interactions
  - For about 10 min, we'll be vague about how these interactions are specified

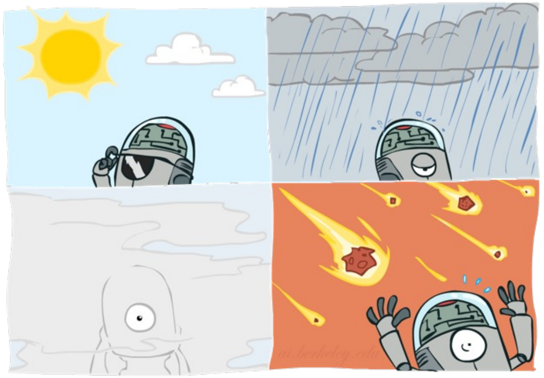


Example Bayes' Net: Insurance

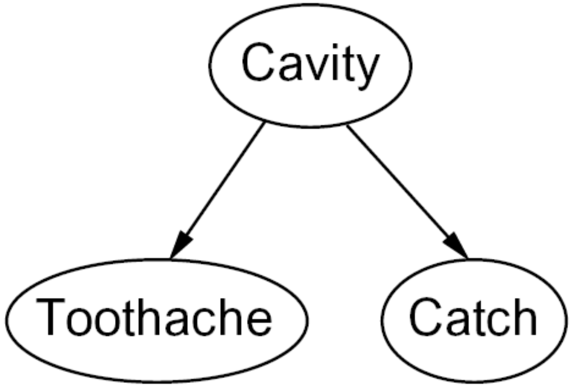


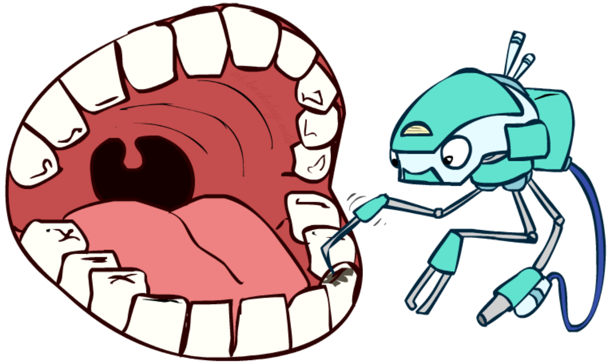
Graphical Model Notation

- Nodes: variables (with domains)
  - Can be assigned (observed) or unassigned (unobserved)



- Arcs: interactions
  - Indicate "direct influence" between variables
  - Formally: encode conditional independence (more later)

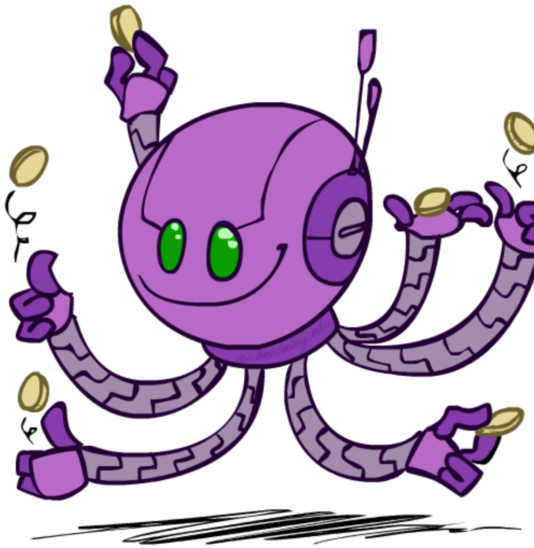




- For now: imagine that arrows mean direct causation (in general, they don't!)

Example: Coin Flips

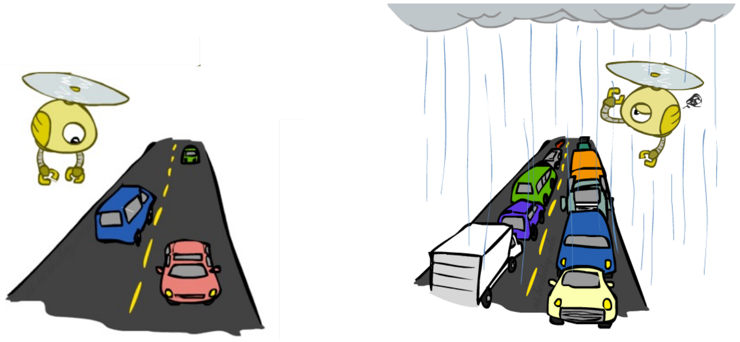
- N independent coin flips



- No interactions between variables: absolute independence

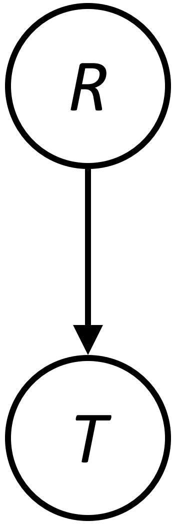
Example: Traffic

- Variables:
  - R: It rains
  - T: There is traffic



- Model 1: independence

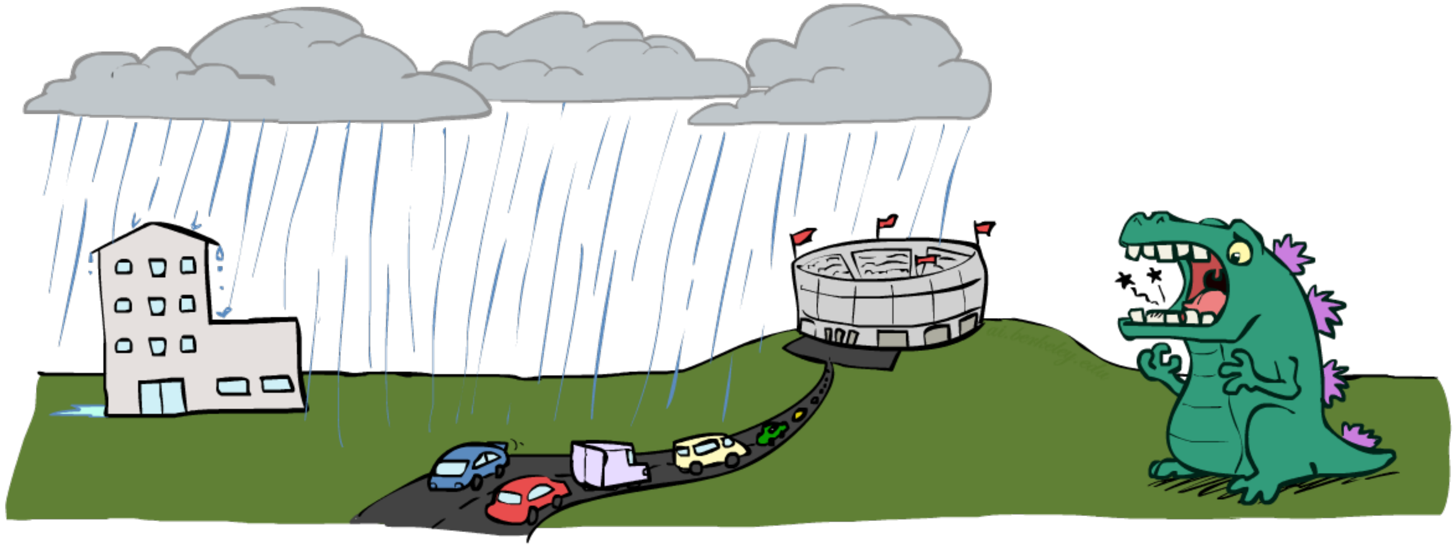
- Model 2: rain causes traffic



- Why is an agent using model 2 better?

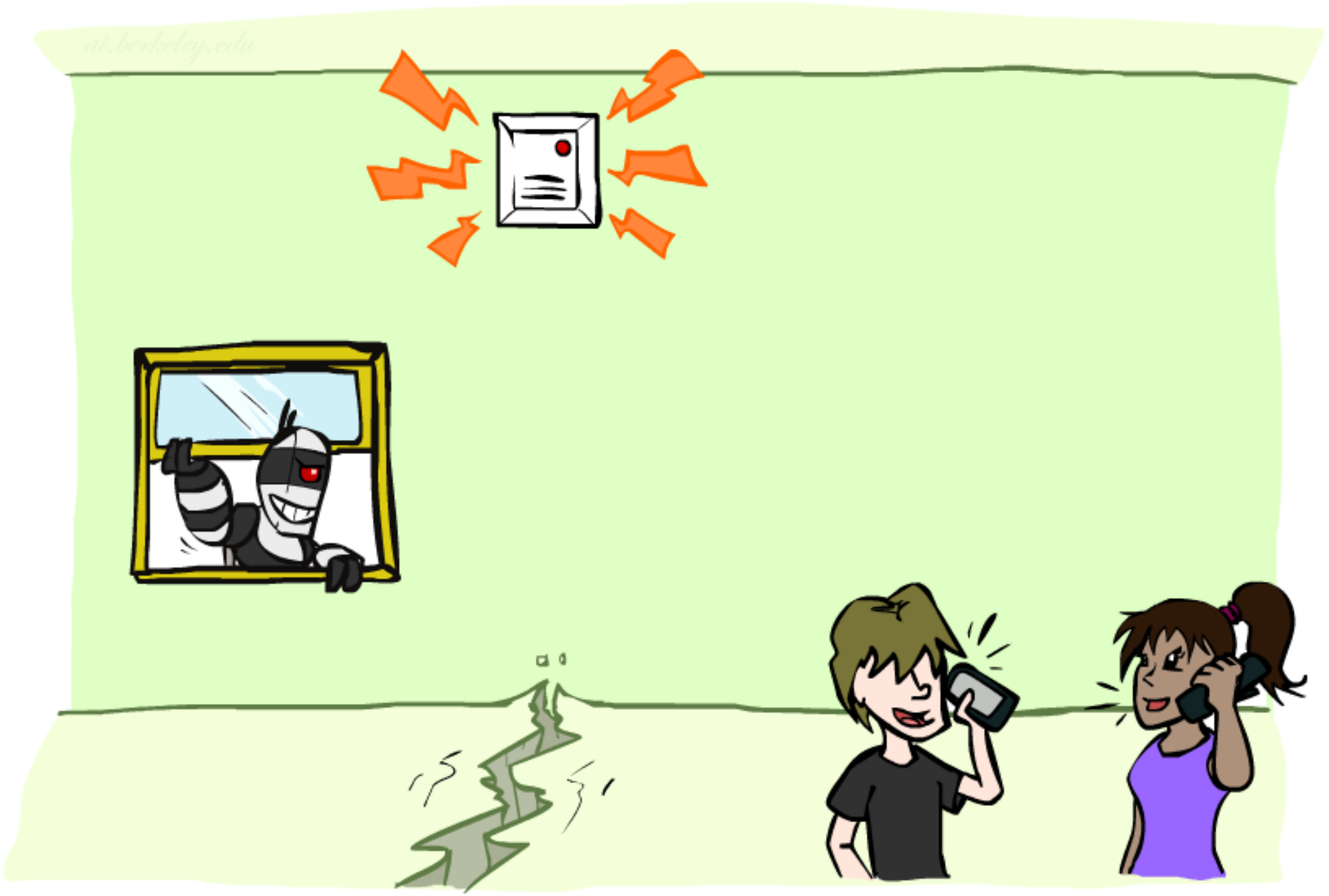
Example: Traffic II

- Variables
  - T: Traffic
  - R: It rains
  - L: Low pressure
  - D: Roof drips
  - B: Ballgame
  - C: Cavity



Example: Alarm Network

- Variables
  - B: Burglary
  - A: Alarm goes off
  - M: Mary calls
  - J: John calls
  - E: Earthquake!



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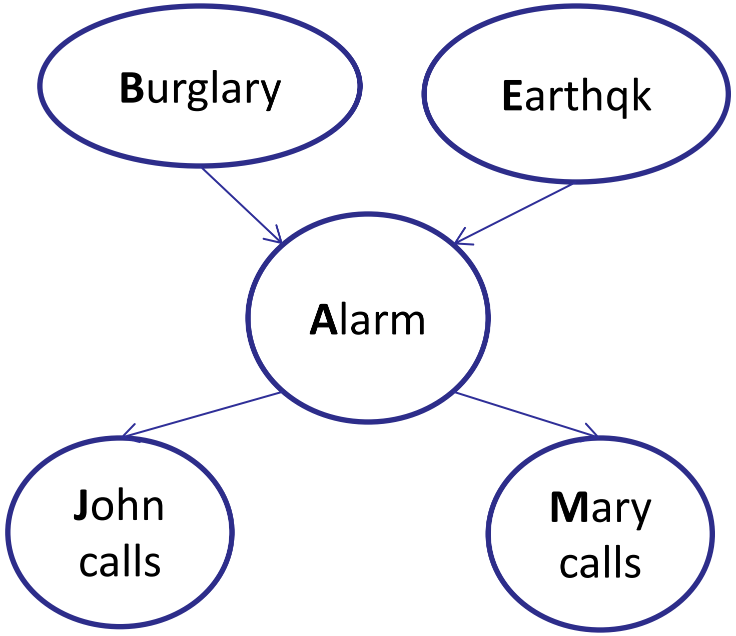
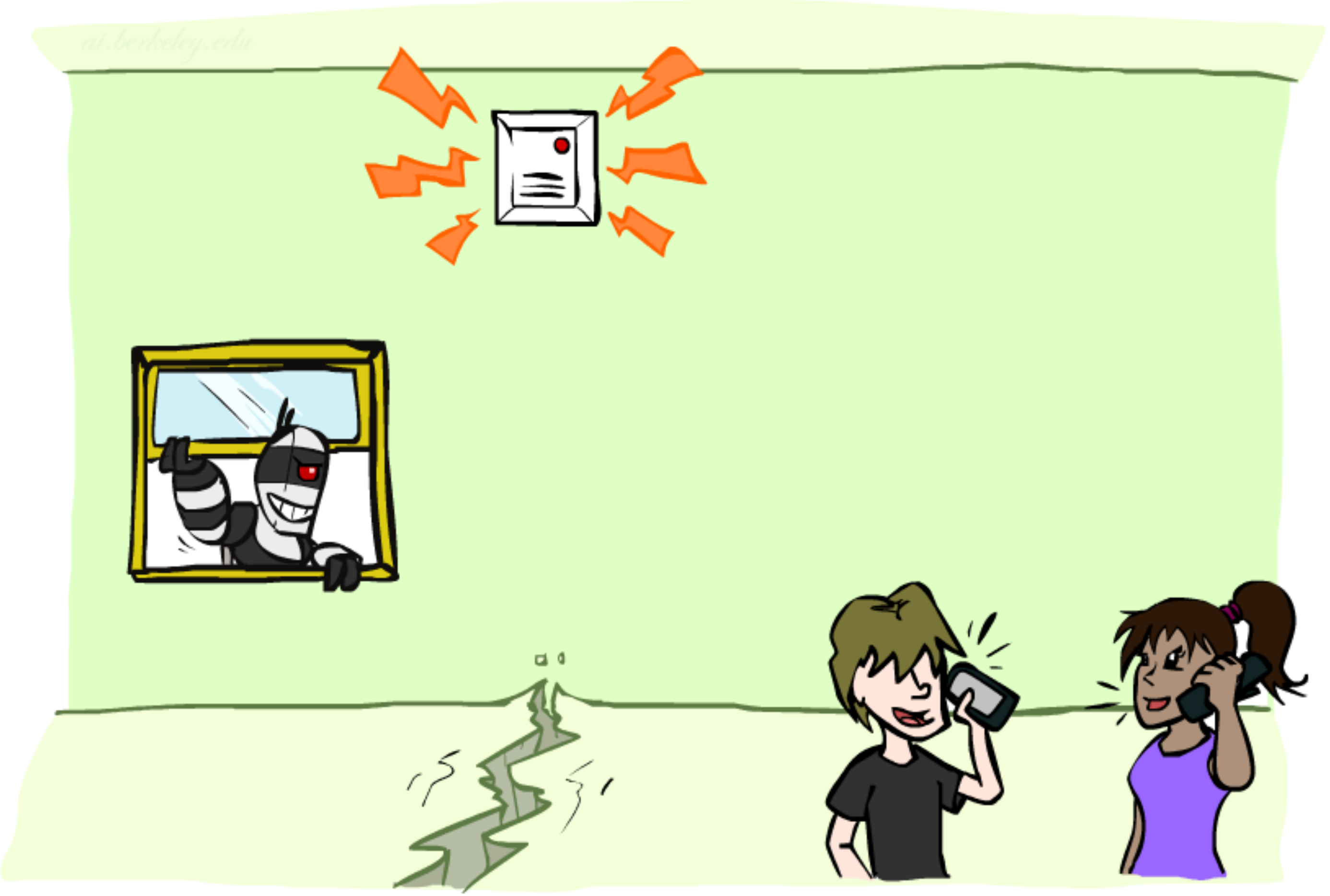




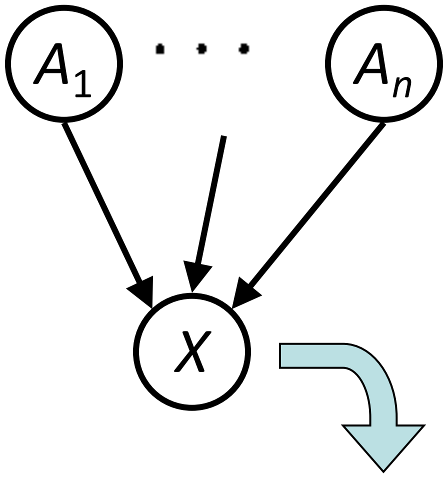
Bayes' Net Semantics

Bayes' Net Semantics

- A set of nodes, one per variable X
- A directed, acyclic graph
- A conditional distribution for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

  - CPT: conditional probability table
  - Description of a noisy "causal" process



$$P(X|A_1 \ldots A_n)$$

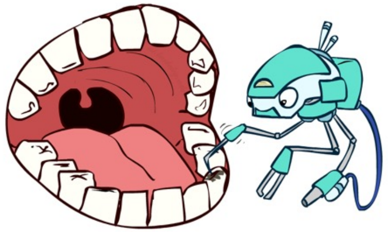
A Bayes net = Topology (graph) + Local Conditional Probabilities

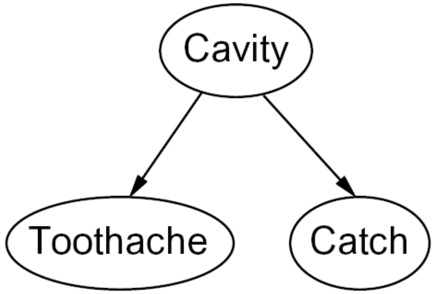
Probabilities in BNs

- Bayes' nets implicitly encode joint distributions
  - As a product of local conditional distributions
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

  - Example:





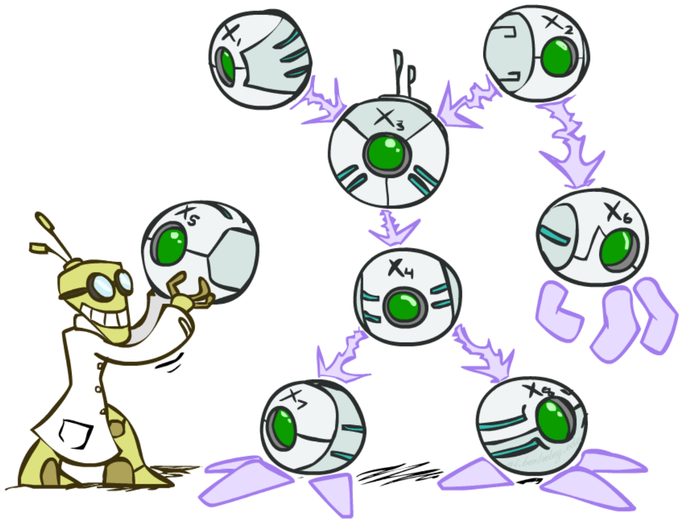
$P(+cavity, +catch, -toothache)$

=P(-toothache|+cavity)P(+catch|+cavity)P(+cavity)

Bayes' Net Representation

- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$



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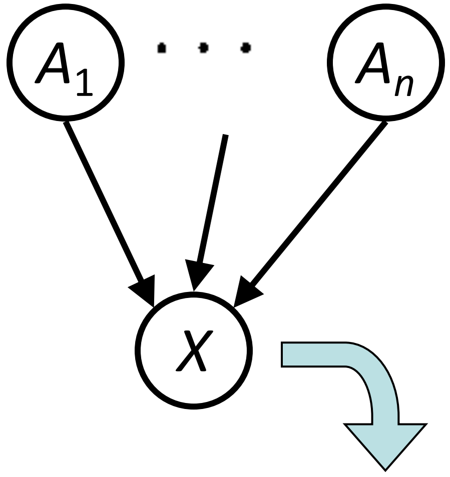


$$P(X|A_1 \ldots A_n)$$

Probabilities in BNs

- Why are we guaranteed that setting

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

results in a proper joint distribution?

- Chain rule (valid for all distributions): $$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | x_1 \ldots x_{i-1})$$

- <u>Assume</u> conditional independences: $$P(x_i | x_1, \ldots x_{i-1}) = P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

→ Consequence: $$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i | parents(X_i))$$

- Not every BN can represent every joint distribution
  - The topology enforces certain conditional independencies

Example: Coin Flips

X_1 X_2 . . . X_n

$P(X_1)$

h	0.5
t	0.5

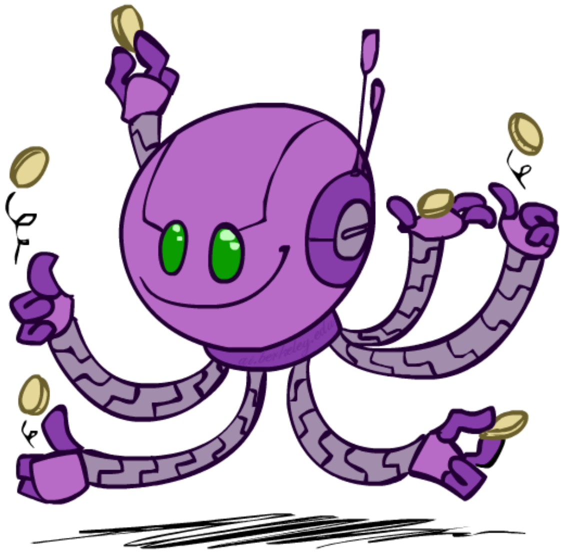
$P(X_2)$

h	0.5
t	0.5

. . .

$P(X_n)$

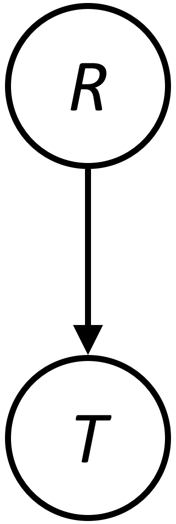
h	0.5
t	0.5



$P(h, h, t, h) =$ P(h)P(h)P(t)P(h)

Only distributions whose variables are absolutely independent can be represented by a Bayes' net with no arcs.

Example: Traffic



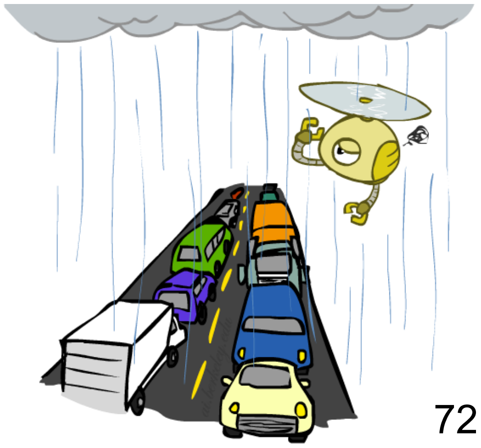
$P(R)$

+r	1/4
-r	3/4

$P(T|R)$

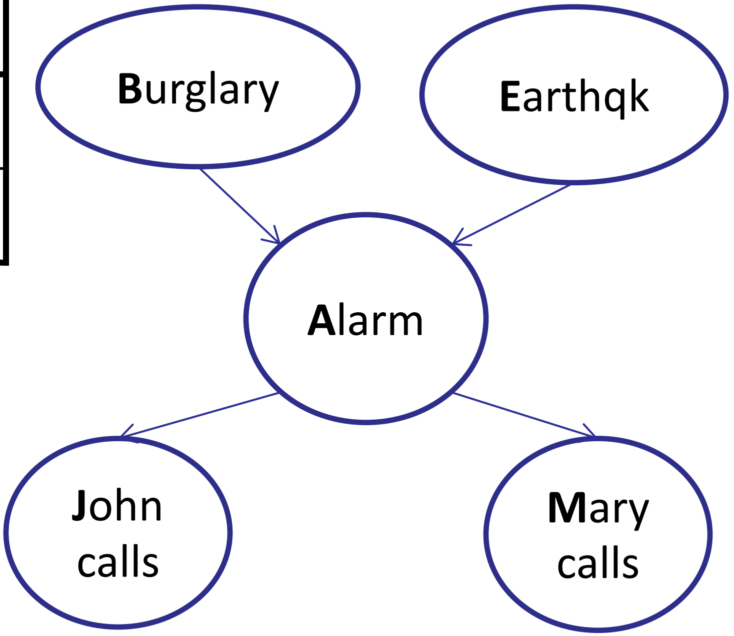
+r	+t	3/4
	-t	1/4
-r	+t	1/2
	-t	1/2

$P(+r, -t) =$ P(+r)P(-t|+r) = ¼*1/4

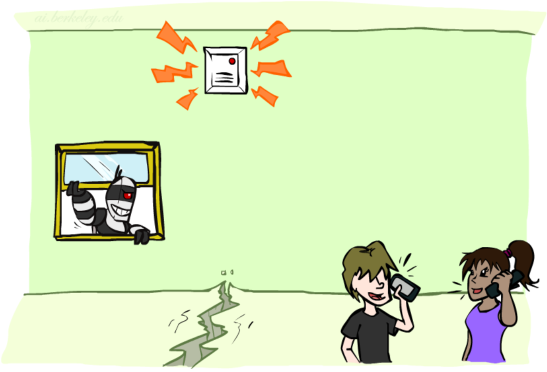


Example: Alarm Network

B	P(B)
+b	0.001
-b	0.999



E	P(E)
+e	0.002
-e	0.998



A	J	P(J|A)
+a	+j	0.9
+a	-j	0.1
-a	+j	0.05
-a	-j	0.95

A	M	P(M|A)
+a	+m	0.7
+a	-m	0.3
-a	+m	0.01
-a	-m	0.99

B	E	A	P(A|B,E)
+b	+e	+a	0.95
+b	+e	-a	0.05
+b	-e	+a	0.94
+b	-e	-a	0.06
-b	+e	+a	0.29
-b	+e	-a	0.71
-b	-e	+a	0.001
-b	-e	-a	0.999

P(M|A)P(J|A)
P(A|B,E)

Uncertainty Summary

- Conditional probability $$P(x|y) = \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)}$$
- Product rule $$P(x,y) = P(x|y)P(y)$$
- Chain rule $$\begin{aligned} P(X_1, X_2, \ldots X_n) &= P(X_1)P(X_2|X_1)P(X_3|X_1, X_2)\ldots \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(X_i|X_1, \ldots, X_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$
- X, Y independent if and only if: $\forall x, y : P(x,y) = P(x)P(y)$
- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z if and only if: $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y | Z$
  $$\forall x, y, z : P(x, y|z) = P(x|z)P(y|z)$$

BN lecture

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