

Probabilistic reasoning: representation & inference

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Boolean algebra

A non-empty collection of subsets Σ of a set W such that:

1) $A, B \in \Sigma \implies A \cup B \in \Sigma$

2)
$$A \in \Sigma \implies A^c \in \Sigma$$

3) $\varnothing \in \Sigma$

Corollary:

The sets $\emptyset \in W$ belong to any Boolean algebra generated on W Σ is also closed under <u>binary</u> intersection

σ-algebra

A non-empty collection of subsets Σ of a set W such that:

1)
$$A_k \in \Sigma, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}^+ \implies (\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k) \in \Sigma$$

2) $A \in \Sigma \implies A^c \in \Sigma$
3) $\emptyset \in \Sigma$
Corollary:
The sets \emptyset and W belong to any σ - algebra generated on W

The sets \emptyset and W belong to any σ -algebra generated on W Σ is also closed under <u>countable</u> intersection

σ-algebra (*definition*)

A non-empty collection of subsets Σ of a set W such that:

- 1) $A_k \in \Sigma, \ \forall k \in \mathbb{N}^+ \implies (\bigcup_{k=1}^\infty A_k) \in \Sigma$
- 2) $A \in \Sigma \implies A^c \in \Sigma$
- 3) $\varnothing \in \Sigma$
- Probability *measure* over a *σ*-algebra

A function $P: \Sigma \to [0,1]$

i.e. *P* assigns a measure (i.e. a real number) to each elements of a σ -algebra Σ of subsets of *W*

1)
$$\forall A \in \Sigma, P(A) \ge 0$$

2) $A_k \in \Sigma, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}^+$ are disjoint $\implies P(\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} A_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} P(A_k)$
3) $P(\emptyset) = 0$
4) $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$ (which implies $P(W) = 1$)

Probability space

A triple $\langle W, \Sigma, P \rangle$

- σ-algebra
- Probability *measure* over a *σ*-algebra
- Probability space

A triple $\langle W, \Sigma, P \rangle$

Why bothering so much with these (very) technical definitions?

Rationale (just a few hints)

Closure w.r.t. *countable unions* of a *σ*-algebras (as well as *countable additivity* of *P*) is required for dealing with *infinite sequences of events* and their properties However, assuming <u>countable</u> union and additivity is also a *restriction*, i.e. to ensure <u>measurability</u>

(see the so-called Banach-Tarski paradox for counterexamples)

- Probability *measure* over a *σ*-algebra
- Disjoint events

In general

 $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$ then events A and B are <u>disjoint</u>

 $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

(*) Note that $A \cap B = \varnothing \implies P(A \cap B) = 0$

but not vice-versa: as an event can have zero probability without being empty

(**) Unlike in propositional logic, knowing P(A) and P(B) is <u>not</u> sufficient for determining $P(A \cup B)$ Namely, probability is not *truth-functional*...

Studying basic properties: a finitary setting

It can be useful to adopt, at least for a while, a simpler setting that allows a simpler definition of fundamental properties

Finite algebra of events

Σ is a <u>finite</u> collection of subsets

In this setting, boolean algebra = σ -algebra Events could also be defined via propositional logic (à la de Finetti, 1937)

Finitely additive probability measure

Just summations, no integrals Computability is always guaranteed

Partitions, random variables*

Partition

A <u>finite</u> collection A_i of *disjoint* subsets (i.e. events) such that

 $\bigcup_i A_i = W$

A σ -algebra can be generated from a *partition* by taking its closure under union and complement

Random Variable

Is a convenient way to define a $\sigma\text{-algebra}$ over W

Partitions, random variables*

(*) In a finitary setting

Partition

A *finite* collection A_i of *disjoint* subsets (i.e. events) such that

 $\bigcup_i A_i = W$

Random Variable

Let X be a variable having a *finite* set of values $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$

- In each possible world, X has a specific value v_i
- The set of values $X = x_{1'} X = x_{2'} \dots X = x_n$ defines a *partition* of W
- Each constraint $X = x_i$ defines an <u>event</u> (i.e. a subset of W)
- Given that $X=x_i \in X=x_j$ are disjoint events (i.e. $i \neq j$)

$$P(X = x_i \cup X = x_j) = P(X = x_i) + P(X = x_j)$$

Random variables having binary values are also said to be *binomial* (also *Bernoullian*) Random variables with multiple values are also said to be *multinomial*



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Random variables, joint distribution*

Multiple random variables

In practice, in a probabilistic representation, multiple random variables can coexist

Example:

 X_i occurrence of a word i in the body of an email (binomial)

Y classification of that email as spam (binomial)

Together, a collection of random variable defines

a partition of W

The intersection of two or more σ -algebras is a σ -algebra

Joint probability distribution

for a given set of random variables, e.g. X, Y, Z

It is a *function* that associates a value in [0, 1] to each individual combination of values

$$P(X = x, Y = y, Z = z)$$

Given that X, $Y \in Z$ define each a partition of W:

$$\sum_{x} \sum_{y} \sum_{z} P(X = x, Y = y, Z = z) = 1$$



Random variables: notation

Random variables, events and σ-algebras

(sometimes the notation can be ambiguous)

Examples:

P(X)

This is the probability measure over the <u> σ -algebra</u> generated by the <u>random variable</u> X

P(X = x)

This the probability (i.e. a value in [0,1]) associated to the event X = x

P(X, Y = y)

This is the probability measure over the σ -algebra generated by the random variable X in the subspace of W corresponding to the event Y = y

Marginalization

Removing a random variable from a joint distribution

Given a joint probability distribution

P(X = x, Y = y)

The *marginal probability* P(X = x) is obtained via summation:

$$P(X = x) = \sum_{y} P(X = x, Y = y)$$

A marginal probability can be a joint probability too ...

Marginal probability of an event (shorthand notation, values of Y omitted):

$$P(X = x) = \sum_{Y} P(X = x, Y)$$

Marginal probability of a σ -algebra (shorthand notation, values of Y omitted):

$$P(X) = \sum_{Y} P(X, Y)$$

Conditional probability

Definition

P

$$(X|Y = y) := \frac{P(X, Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$

It is a form of *inference*: from a set W to a set W'*Therefore, from a probability space to another probability space*



Example: W is the set of possible worlds, X, Y are binary random variables and P(X, Y) is the joint probability distribution Suppose the agent learns that event Y = 1 has occurred: the event Y = 0 is now *impossible* (to him/her) $W' := \{w \in W | Y = 1\}$ is the new set of possible worlds P(X|Y = 1) is the new probability of X

More in general

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

Denotes the conditional probabilities for the whole σ -algebra of events generated by Y

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Bayes' Theorem (T. Bayes, 1764)

Definition

A relation between conditional and marginal probabilities $P(X|Y) = \frac{P(Y|X)P(X)}{P(Y)}$

P(Y|X) is also called *likelihood* L(X|Y)

The theorem follows from the definition of conditional probability (chain rule) P(X,Y) = P(X|Y)P(Y) = P(Y|X)P(X)

Furthermore, given the definition of marginalization:

$$P(Y) = \sum_{X} P(X,Y) = \sum_{X} P(Y|X)P(X) \qquad \qquad \text{Also called 'law of total probability}$$

it follows an alternative formulation of the Bayes' theorem:

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



Example: information and bets



Two envelopes, only one is extracted

One envelope contains two red tokens and two black tokens, it is worth \$1.00 One envelope contains one red token and two black tokens, it is valueless

The envelope has been extracted.

Before posing you bet, you are allowed to extract on token from it

- a) The token is black. How much do you bet?
- b) The token is red. How much do you bet?

Purpose: showing that Bayes' Theorem makes the representation easier

Independence, conditional independence

Independence (also marginal independence)

Two events are independent iff their joint probability is equal to the product of the marginals

$$\langle X \perp Y \rangle \implies P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y)$$

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

Conditional independence

Two events are conditional independent, given a third event, iff their joint conditional probability is equal to the product of the *conditional marginals*

$$\langle X \perp Y | Z \rangle \Rightarrow P(X, Y | Z) = P(X | Z) P(Y | Z)$$

 $\Rightarrow P(X | Y, Z) = \frac{P(X, Y | Z)}{P(Y | Z)} = \frac{P(X | Z) P(Y | Z)}{P(Y | Z)} = P(X | Z)$

CAUTION: the two forms of independence are distinct! $\langle X \perp Y \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X \perp Y \mid Z \rangle, \quad \langle X \perp Y \mid Z \rangle \Rightarrow \langle X \perp Y \rangle$

Independence, conditional independence



The example above shows that (conditional) independence of two specific <u>events</u> does NOT imply (conditional) independence of the whole <i>o-algebras

Probabilistic Inference (no *learning*)

General setting

The starting point is a fully-specified joint probability distribution $P(X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n)$

In an *inference* problem, the set of random variables $\{X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n\}$ is divided into three categories:

- 1) Observed variables $\{X_o\}$, i.e. having a definite (and certain) value
- 2) Irrelevant variables $\{X_i\}$, i.e. which are not directly part of the answer
- 3) Relevant variables $\{X_r\}$, i.e. which are part of the answer we seek

In general, the problem is finding:

$$P(\{X_r\}|\{X_o\}) = \sum_{\{X_i\}} P(\{X_r\}, \{X_i\}|\{X_o\})$$

- "Decidability" (actually "computability") is not an issue (*in a finitary setting) Given that the joint probability distribution is completely specified
- Computational efficiency can be a problem

The number of value combinations grows exponentially with the number of random variables

Continuous random variables (hint)

Although conceptually the same, dealing with continuous random variables is technically difficult

Consider a continuous random variable $X \in \mathcal{X}^{--}$

A continuous domain *e.g. the real interval* [0, 1]

$$X = x$$
 does not describe a proper *event*

Again for technical reasons (i.e. measurability) this must have probability zero

$$X \le a \quad X \le b \qquad a < X \le b$$

(where a < b) these are subsets are proper events (i.e. they may have non-zero probability)

$$P(X \le b) = P(X \le a) + P(a < X \le b)$$
These two events are disjoints
$$P(a < X \le b) = P(X \le b) - P(X \le a)$$
Assume that the derivative $p(X) := \frac{dP(X)}{dX}$ exists
$$C_{umulative distribution function (cdf)}$$

$$P(a < X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} p(X) dX$$
probability density function (pdf)

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Expected value of a random variable

(also expectation)

Basic definition

$$\mathbb{E}_X[X] := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x \ P(X = x)$$

More concise notation

$$\mathbb{E}[X] := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x \ P(x)$$

A linear operator

$$\mathbb{E}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$
$$\mathbb{E}[cX] = c\mathbb{E}[X]$$

Continuous case		ſ	
	$\mathbb{E}[X] :=$	$\int_{x\in\mathcal{X}}$	x p(x) dx

Conditional expectation

$$\mathbb{E}_X[X|Y=y] = \mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} x \ P(X=x|Y=y)$$

Iterated expectation (see Wikipedia)

 $\mathbb{E}_X[X] = \mathbb{E}_Y[\mathbb{E}_X[X|Y]]$

Variance of a random variable

Basic definition

$$\operatorname{Var}(X) := \mathbb{E}_X[(X - \mathbb{E}_X[X])^2] = \mathbb{E}_X[(X - \mu_X)^2]$$

where $\mu_X := \mathbb{E}_X[X]$
$$\operatorname{Var}(X) := \sum P(X = x) \ (x - \mu)^2$$

variance is *not* a linear operator

 $x \in \mathcal{X}$

Conditional variance

$$\operatorname{Var}(X|Y=y) := \mathbb{E}_X[(X - \mathbb{E}_X[X|Y=y])^2 | Y=y]$$

Variance lemma

$$Var(X) = \mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)^2] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2\mu_X \mathbb{E}[X] + \mu_X^2$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[X^2] - 2\mu_X^2 + \mu_X^2 = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mu_X^2$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \mu_X^2 + \sigma_X^2$$
where $\sigma_X := \sqrt{Var(X)}$ standard deviation

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