



Lecture 16: Uncertainty - 6

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Today's lecture

- Alternative Models of Dealing with Uncertainty Information/Evidence
 - Dempster-Shaffer Theory of Evidence
 - Fuzzy logic
 - Logical ways of dealing with uncertainty

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Dempster-Shafer Theory

- **Designed to Deal with the distinction between uncertainty and ignorance**
 - Rather than computing the probability of a proposition it computes the **probability that evidence supports the proposition**
- **Applicability of D-S**
 - assume lack of sufficient data to accurately estimate the prior and conditional probabilities to use Bayes rule
 - incomplete model \Rightarrow rather than estimating probabilities it uses belief intervals to **estimate how close the evidence is to determining the truth of a hypothesis**

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Dempster-Shafer Theory

Allows representation of *ignorance* about support provided by evidence

- allows reasoning system to be skeptical

For example, suppose we are informed that one of three terrorist groups, A, B or C has planted a bomb in a building.

We may have some evidence the group C is guilty, $P(C) = 0.8$
We would not want to say the probability of the other two groups being guilty is .1

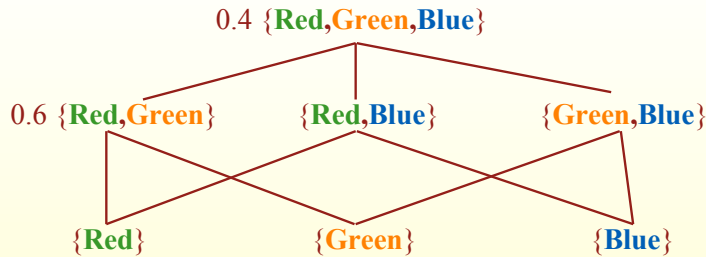
In traditional theory, forced to regard belief and disbelief as functional opposites $p(a) + p(\text{not } a) = 1$ and to distribute an equal amount of the remaining probability to each group

D-S allows you to leave relative beliefs unspecified

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Belief Subsets



Suppose that the evidence supports {red,green} to the degree .6. The remaining support will be assigned to {red,green,blue} while a Bayesian model assumes that the remaining support is assigned to the negation of the hypothesis (or its complement) {blue}.

Dempster-Shafer theory

- Given a population $F = \{blue, red, green\}$ of mutually exclusive elements, exactly one of which (f) is true, a basic probability assignment (m) assigns a number in $[0,1]$ to every subset of F such that the sum of the numbers is 1.
 - Mass as a representation of evidence support
- There are $2^{|F|}$ propositions, corresponding to “the true value of f is in subset A ”.
 - $\{blue\}, \{red\}, \{green\}, \{blue, red\}, \{blue, green\}, \{red, green\}, \{red, blue, green\}, \{empty\}$
- A belief in a subset entails belief in subsets containing that subset.
 - Belief in $\{red\}$ entails Belief in $\{red, green\}, \{red, blue\}, \{red, blue, green\}$

Interpretation of $m(X)$

- **Random switch model:** Think of the evidence as a switch that oscillates randomly between two or more positions. The function m represents the fraction of the time spent by the switch in each position.
- **Voting model:** m represents the proportion of votes cast for each of several results of the evidence (possibly including that the evidence is inconclusive).
- **Envelope model:** Think of the evidence as a sealed envelope, and m as a probability distribution on what the contents may be.

Belief and Plausibility

- **Belief (or possibility) is the probability that B is provable (supported) by the evidence.**
 - $Bel(A) = \sum_{\{B \text{ in } A\}} m(B)$ (Support committed to A)
 - $Bel(\{red, blue\}) = m(\{red\}) + m(\{blue\}) + m(\{red, blue\})$
- **Plausibility is the probability that B is compatible with the available evidence (cannot be disproved).**
 - Upper belief limit on the proposition A
- $PI(A) = \sum_{\{B \cap A \neq \emptyset\}} m(B)$ Support that can move into A
 - $PI(\{red, blue\}) = m(\{red\}) + m(\{blue\}) + m(\{red, blue\}) + m(\{red, green\}) + m(\{red, blue, green\}) + m(\{blue, green\})$
- $PI(A) = 1 - Bel(\neg A)$

Confidence Interval

- Belief Interval $[\text{Bel}(A), \text{Pl}(A)]$, confidence in A
 - Interval width is good aid in deciding when you need more evidence
- $[0, 1]$ no belief in support of proposition
 - total ignorance
- $[0, 0]$ belief the proposition is false
- $[1, 1]$ belief the proposition is true
- $[\cdot 3, 1]$ partial belief in the proposition is true
- $[0, \cdot 8]$ partial disbelief in the proposition is true
- $[\cdot 2, \cdot 7]$ belief from evidence both for and against proposition

DS's Rule of Combination

- Given two basic probability assignment functions m_1 and m_2 how to combine them
 - Two different sources of evidence
 - $P(s_i, s_j | d) = P(s_i | d) P(s_j | d)$; assume conditional independence
- $\text{Bel}(C) = \text{Sum}(m_1(A_i) m_2(B_j))$ where $A_i \text{ intersect } B_j = C$
- Normalized by amount of non-zero mass left after intersection $\text{Sum}(m_1(A_i) m_2(B_j))$ where $A_i \text{ intersect } B_j$ not empty

Example of Rule Combination

- Suppose that $m_1(D) = .8$ and $m_2(D) = .9$

	{D} .9	{-D} 0	{D, -D} .1
{D} .8	{D} .72	{ } 0	{D} .08
{-D} 0	{ } 0	{-D} 0	{-D} 0
{D, -D} .2	{D} .18	{-D} 0	{D, -D} .02

- $m_{12}(D) = .72 + .18 + .08 = .98$ $m_{12}(-D) = 0$
 $m_{12}(D, -D) = .02$
- Using intervals: $[\cdot 8, 1]$ and $[\cdot 9, 1] = [\cdot 98, 1]$

DS's Rule of Combination cont.

- Suppose that $m_1(D) = .8$ and $m_2(-D) = .9$

	{D} 0	{-D} .9	{D, -D} .1
{D} .8	{D} 0	{ } .72	{D} .08
{-D} 0	{ } 0	{-D} 0	{-D} 0
{D, -D} .2	{D} 0	{-D} .18	{D, -D} .02

- Need to normalize $(.18 + .08 + .02)$ by $.72$:
 $m_{12}(D) = .29$ $m_{12}(-D) = .64$
 $m_{12}(D, -D) = .07$
- Using intervals: $[\cdot 8, 1]$ and $[0, \cdot 1] = [\cdot 29, \cdot 36]$

Dempster-Shafer Example

Let Θ be:

- All : allergy
- Flu : flu
- Cold : cold
- Pneu : pneumonia

When we begin, with no information m is:

$$\{\Theta\} (1.0)$$

suppose m_1 corresponds to our belief after observing fever:

$$\{Flu, Cold, Pneu\} (0.6)$$

$$\{\Theta\} (0.4)$$

Suppose m_2 corresponds to our belief after observing a runny nose:

$$\{All, Flu, Cold\} (0.8)$$

$$\Theta (0.2)$$

Dempster-Shafer Example (cont'd)

Then we can combine m_1 and m_2 :

	{A, F, C} (0.8)	Θ (0.2)
{F, C, P} (0.6)	{F, C} (0.48)	{F, C, P} (0.12)
Θ (0.4)	{A, F, C} (0.32)	Θ (0.08)

So we produce a new, combined m_3 :

$$\{Flu, Cold\} (0.48)$$

$$\{All, Flu, Cold\} (0.32)$$

$$\{Flu, Cold, Pneu\} (0.12)$$

$$\Theta (0.08)$$

Suppose m_4 corresponds to our belief that the problem goes away on trips and thus is associated with an allergy:

$$\{All\} (0.9)$$

$$\Theta (0.1)$$

Dempster-Shafer Example (cont'd)

Applying the numerator of the combination rule yields:

	{A} (0.9)	Θ (0.1)
{F, C} (0.48)	{}	{F, C} (0.048)
{A, F, C} (0.32)	{A}	{A, F, C} (0.032)
{F, C, P} (0.12)	{}	{F, C, P} (0.012)
Θ (0.08)	{A}	Θ (0.008)

Normalizing to get rid of the belief of 0.54 associated with {} gives m_5 :

$$\{Flu, Cold\} (0.104) = .048 / .46$$

$$\{Allergy, Flu, Cold\} (0.0696) = .032 / .46$$

$$\{Flu, Cold, Pneu\} (0.026) = .012 / .46$$

$$\{Allergy\} (0.782) = (.288 + .072) / .46$$

$$\Theta (0.017) = .008 / .46$$

What is the [belief, possibility] of Allergy?

Dempster-Shafer Pros

- Addresses questions about necessity and possibility that Bayesian approach cannot answer.
- Prior probabilities not required, but uniform distribution cannot be used when priors are unknown.
- Useful for reasoning in rule-based systems

Dempster-Shafer Cons

- Source of evidence not independent; can lead to misleading and counter-intuitive results
- The normalization in Dempster's Rule loses some meta-information, and this treatment of conflicting evidence is controversial.
 - Difficult to develop theory of utility since Bel is not defined precisely with respect to decision making
- Bayesian approach can also do something akin to confidence interval by examining how much one's belief would change if more evidence acquired
 - Implicit uncertainty associated with various possible changes

Conflicting Evidence and Normalization Problems with Dempster-Shafer Theory

Normalization process can produce strange conclusions when conflicting evidence is involved:

$$\Theta = \{A, B, C\}$$

$$m_1 = \{A\} (0.99), \{B\} (0.01)$$

$$m_2 = \{C\} (0.99), \{B\} (0.01)$$

$$m_1 + m_2 = \{B\} (1.0)$$

- Certain of B even though neither piece of evidence supported it well
- No representation of inconsistency and resulting uncertainty/ignorance

Fuzzy Set Theory/Logic

- Method for reasoning with logical expressions describing fuzzy set membership
 - Knowledge representation based on *degrees of membership* rather than a crisp membership of binary logic
 - Rather than stochastic processes
 - *Degree of truth in proposition rather than degree of belief*
- **Logic of gradual properties** as well as calculus for incomplete information
 - “precision in reasoning is costly and should not be pursued more than necessary.”
- **Application - Fuzzy Control Theory**
 - expert knowledge coded as fuzzy rules
 - if the car's speed is *slow* then the braking force is *light*
 - computer control of a wide range of devices
 - washing machines, elevators, video cameras, etc.

Representing Vagueness/Fuzziness

- Fuzziness is a way of defining concepts or categories that admit vagueness and degree
 - nothing to do with degree of belief in something and need not be related to probabilities
 - we believe (.5) it will rain today
 - example of “was it a rainy day” fuzziness
 - misty all day long but never breaks into a shower
 - rain for a few minutes and then sunny
 - heavy showers all day long

Example of Fuzzy Control Rules

Given two inputs:

E = difference between current temperature and target temperature normalized by the target temperature.

dE = the time derivative of E (dE/dt)

Compute one output:

W = the change in heat (or cooling) source

Fuzzy variables: NB (neg big), NS, ZO, PS, PB

Example rule: if E is ZO and dE is NS then W is PS
if E is ZO and dE is PB then W is NB

.....

Significant Reduction in number of rules needed and handles noisy sensors

Fuzzy Logic

- A different type of approximation related to “vagueness” rather than “uncertainty.”
- Measures the “degree of membership” in certain sets or categories such as: age, height, red, several, old, many,...
- Example: “Several” = $\{2/.3, 3/.5, 4/1, \dots, 9/.1\}$
- Representation $A = \{u/a(u) \mid u \in U\}$

Fuzzy Variable

- Fuzzy variable takes on a fuzzy set as a value
 - A fuzzy set (class) A in X is characterized by a membership function v/a that assigns each point x in X a real number between 0,1
- Height Example-- in the tall class
 - $v/a(x) = 1$ for any person over 6 feet tall
 - $v/a(x) = 0$ for any person under 5 feet tall
 - $v/a(x)$ in between for height > 5 and < 6
- Piecewise Linear Function for values in between
 - vector/tall = $(0/4, 0/5, 1/6, 1/7)$
- Hedge
 - systematic modification to a characteristic function to represent a linguistic specialization
 - “very tall” $v/\text{very tall}(x) = (v/\text{tall}(x))^2$

Fig. 6.38

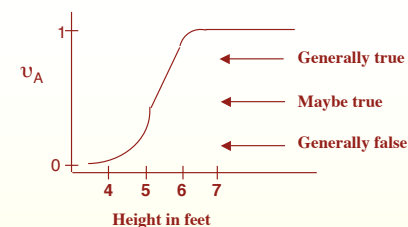


Fig. 6.38: An example characteristic function for a fuzzy set representing “tall people.” The function f_A indicates the degree to which individuals of different heights would be considered to be members of the fuzzy set of tall persons.

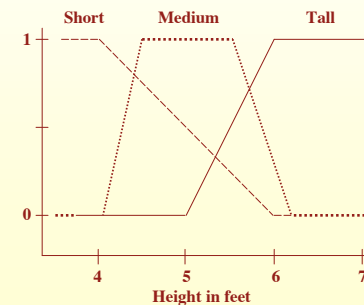


Fig. 6.39: Three piecewise linear characteristic functions

Possibility Distribution

- Express preferences on possible values of a variable where exact value is not known
 - “concept of medium”
 - Used in reasoning in fuzzy rule sets
- Consistency of a subset with respect to a concept “tall people”**
 - $A = \{.5/\text{Joe} = 5.5, .9/\text{Bob} = 5.9, .6/\text{Ray} = 5.6\}$
 - Possibility Measure $\Pi(A)$**
 - $\Pi(A)$ max of $v/\text{tall over } A \leq 1$
 - measure of the degree to which the set “tall people” is possibly in A
 - $.9/\text{Bob} = 5.9$ implies $\Pi(A) = .9$
 - Necessity Measure $N(A)$**
 - $N(A) = 1 - \Pi(\text{complement of } A)$
 - measure of the degree to which the set “tall people” is necessary in A
 - Complement of $A = \{.5(1-.5)/\text{Joe} = 5.5, .1(1-.9)/\text{Bob} = 5.9, .4(1-.6)/\text{Ray} = 5.6\}$
 - $N(A) = 1 - .5 = .5$

Fuzzy Set Operators

- Representation** $A = \{u/a(u) \mid u \in U\}$
- Set operators over same variable:**
 - $A \cup B = \{u/\max(a(u), b(u)) \mid u \in U\}$
 - $A \cap B = \{u/\min(a(u), b(u)) \mid u \in U\}$
 - $\neg A = \{u/(1 - a(u)) \mid u \in U\}$

For example: Young and Rich ($Y \cap R$) . . .

cartesian product over two variables:

$$A \times B = \{(u,v)/\min(a(u), b(v)) \mid u \in U, v \in V\}$$

Other set operators are sometimes used, for example:

$$A \cup B = \{u/(a(u) + b(u) - a(u) \cdot b(u)) \mid u \in U\}$$

$$A \cap B = \{u/(a(u) \cdot b(u)) \mid u \in U\}$$

etc...

Fuzzy Inference (extension of modus ponens)

Let c, c', d, d' , be fuzzy sets. Then the “generalized modus ponens” states:

x is c'

if x is c then y is d ;

y is d'

e.g.:

Visibility is very low

If visibility is low then condition is poor

Condition is very poor

How c is characterized by c' effect how d is characterized by d'

The fuzzy inference is based on two concepts:

- fuzzy implication
- the compositional rule of inference

Fuzzy implication: represented as:

$$a \rightarrow b$$

a and b are fuzzy sets.

Fuzzy Relation

- A fuzzy relation is represented by a matrix.**
- A fuzzy relation R associated with the implication**
 - $a \rightarrow b$ is a fuzzy set of the cartesian product $U \times V$:
 - $R = \{(u, v)/m(u,v) \mid u \in U, v \in V\}$
- One of the most commonly used fuzzy implications is based on the min op:**
 - $m_R(u,v) = \min(a(u), b(v))$

The Compositional Rule of Inference

If R is a relation from A to B
S is a relation from B to C

The composition of R and S is a relation from A to C denoted R ∘ S

$$R \circ S = \{(a,c)/\max[\min(m_R(a,b), m_S(b,c))]\}$$

Similarly, can be used as rule of inference when:

R is a fuzzy relation from U to V
X is a fuzzy subset of U
Y is a fuzzy subset of V

Y is induced by X and R by: $Y = X \circ R$; modus-ponens

$$Y = \{v/\max[\min(m_X(u), m_R(u,v))]\mid u \in U\}$$

notice that when $R = (a \rightarrow b)$

$$\begin{matrix} x = a \\ \text{then } y = b \end{matrix}$$

Example of max-min inference

If speed is normal
then braking.force is medium.

speed:

Normal = (0/0, .1/20, .8/40, 1/60, .1/80, 0/100)

braking.force:

Medium = (0/0, .5/1, 1/2, 1/3, .2/4, 0/5)

When characteristic functions are piecewise linear, one way to carry out max-min inference is to define a matrix for the composition. The matrix M for compositional inference is defined so that

$$m_{ij} = \min(a_i, b_j)$$

The matrix for this example is as follows...

Example of max-min inference, p.2

$$m_{ij} = \min(a_i, b_j)$$

The matrix for this example is as follows:

M =	Brake					
Speed	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	min(0,0)	min(0,.5)	min(0,1)	min(0,1)	min(0,2)	min(0,0)
20	min(.1,0)	min(.1,.5)	min(.1,1)	min(.1,1)	min(.1,2)	min(.1,0)
40	min(.8,0)	min(.8,.5)	min(.8,1)	min(.8,1)	min(.8,2)	min(.8,0)
60	min(1,0)	min(1,.5)	min(1,1)	min(1,1)	min(1,2)	min(1,0)
80	min(.1,0)	min(.1,.5)	min(.1,1)	min(.1,1)	min(.1,2)	min(.1,0)
100	min(0,0)	min(0,.5)	min(0,1)	min(0,1)	min(0,2)	min(0,0)

Simplifying terms, we have the following:

0	0	0	0	0	0
0	.1	.1	.1	.1	0
0	.5	.8	.8	.2	0
0	.5	1	1	.2	0
0	.1	.1	.1	.1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0

Example of Max-Min Inference, cont'd

The braking force predicted by max-min inference is the fuzzy vector resulting from multiplying the matrix M by the input speed $S = (0/0, 0/20, .8/40, 0/60, 0/80, 0/100)$

$$\text{braking.force} = B = S \circ M$$

The general term is given by:

$$b_j = \max[\Lambda(s_i m_{ij})]$$

$$1 \leq i \leq n$$

Thus, for the given speed vector, we have:

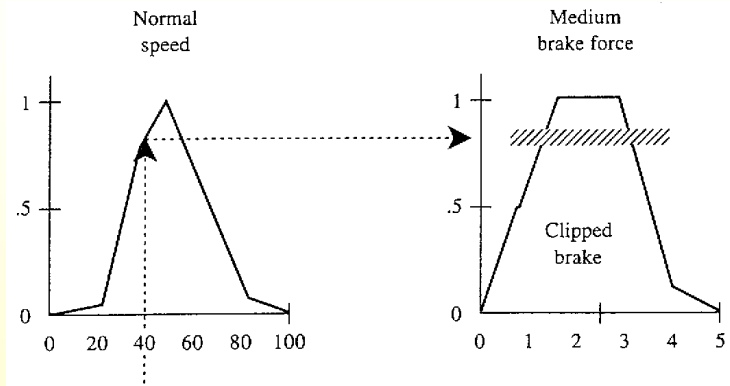
$$\begin{aligned} b_0 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0)] = 0 \\ b_1 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,.1), \min(.8,.5), \min(0,.5), \min(0,.1), \min(0,0)] = .5 \\ b_2 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,.1), \min(.8,.8), \min(0,1), \min(0,1), \min(0,0)] = .8 \\ b_3 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,.1), \min(.8,.8), \min(0,1), \min(0,1), \min(0,0)] = .8 \\ b_4 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,.1), \min(.8,.2), \min(0,2), \min(0,1), \min(0,0)] = .2 \\ b_5 &= \max[\min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(.8,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0), \min(0,0)] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$B = (0, .5, .8, .8, .2, 0)$$

Equivalently, in the vector notation we have the following fuzzy representation for the braking force to be applied: $B = (0/0, .5/1, .8/2, .8/3, .2/4, 0/5)$ **Induced fuzzy set**

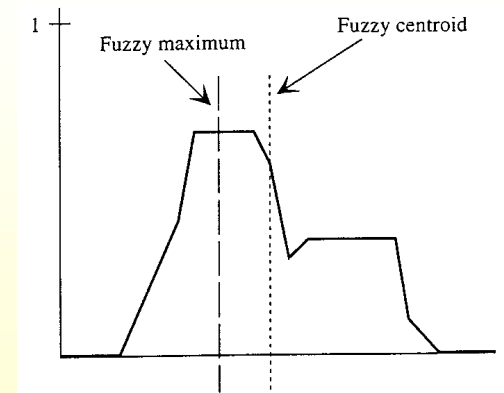
M =	Brake
Speed	.. 2 ..
0	0
20	.1
40	.8
60	1
80	.1
100	0

The effects of max-min inference



Given speed (.8/40)

Two approaches to Defuzzification



How to decide what to do -- what breaking force to apply?

Fuzzy Control

Given two inputs:

E = difference between current temperature and target temperature normalized by the target temperature.

dE = the time derivative of E (dE/dt)

Compute one output:

W = the change in heat (or cooling) source

Fuzzy variables: NB (neg big), NS, ZO, PS, PB

Example rule: if E is ZO and dE is NS then W is PS
if E is ZO and dE is PB then W is NB

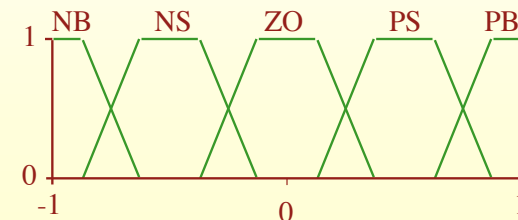
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Control rules determine the output

Table
Representing
All 9 Rules

	NB	NS	ZO	PS	PB
NB					
NS					
ZO	PB ¹	PS ²	ZO ³	NS ⁴	NB ⁵
PS					
PB					

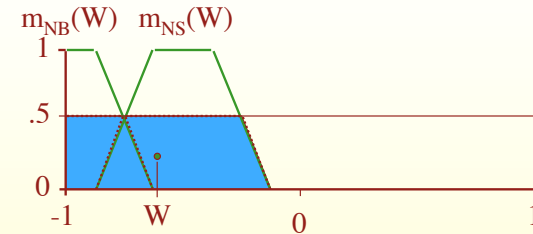
Definition of
Variables
associated
with rules



Computing the Output Value

- Suppose that $E=.75$ and $dE=0$
- Hence E is PB with degree $.5$
 E is PS with degree $.5$
 dE is ZO with degree 1
- Two rules are applicable:
 $\alpha_8 = m_{PB}(E) \wedge m_{ZO}(dE) = .5 \wedge 1 = .5$
 $\alpha_9 = m_{PS}(E) \wedge m_{ZO}(dE) = .5 \wedge 1 = .5$
- $m_8(W) = \alpha_8 \wedge m_{NS}(W)$
 $m_9(W) = \alpha_9 \wedge m_{NB}(W)$

Computing the Output Value, *cont'd*



- Defuzzification: translating a fuzzy category to a precise output.
- Defuzzification using the center of gravity.
- Why is fuzzy logic so successful?

Why is fuzzy logic so successful?

- Easily and succinctly represent expert system rules that involve continuous variables
- Model environment variables in terms of piecewise linear characteristic functions

Next Lecture

- More on Logical Reasoning about Uncertainty
- Learning