Lecture 5: Probability and statistics revision



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Outline

In this lecture, we quickly revise the fundamental concepts of probability, including:

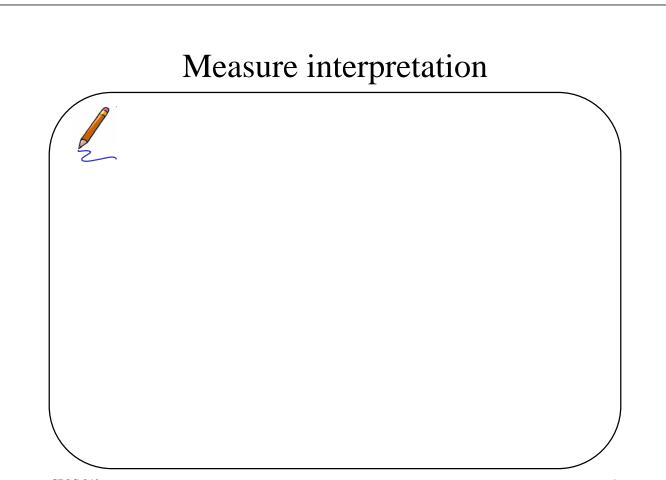
- Marginalization
- Conditioning
- Bayes rule
- Expectation

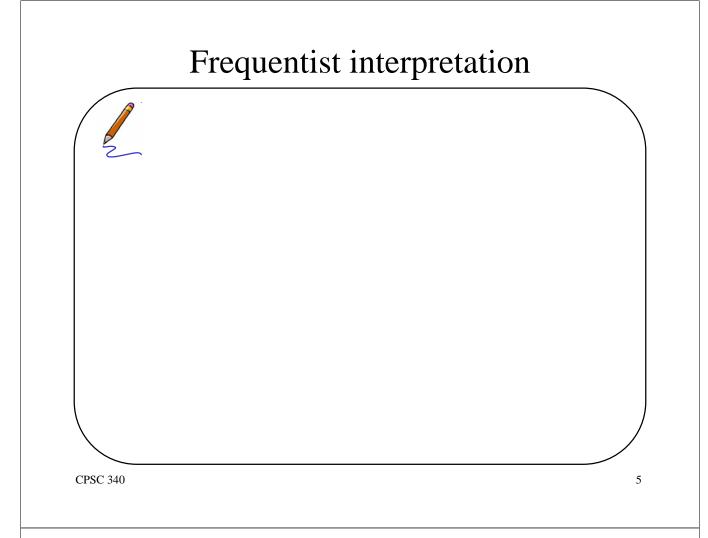
Probability

Probability theory is the formal study of the laws of chance. It is our tool for dealing with uncertainty. Notation:

- Sample space: is the set Ω of all outcomes of an experiment.
- Outcome: what we observed. We use ω ∈ Ω to denote a particular outcome. e.g. for a die we have Ω = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6} and ω could be any of these six numbers.
- Event: is a subset of Ω that is well defined (measurable). able). e.g. the event $A = \{even\}$ if $w \in \{2, 4, 6\}$

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Axiomatic interpretation

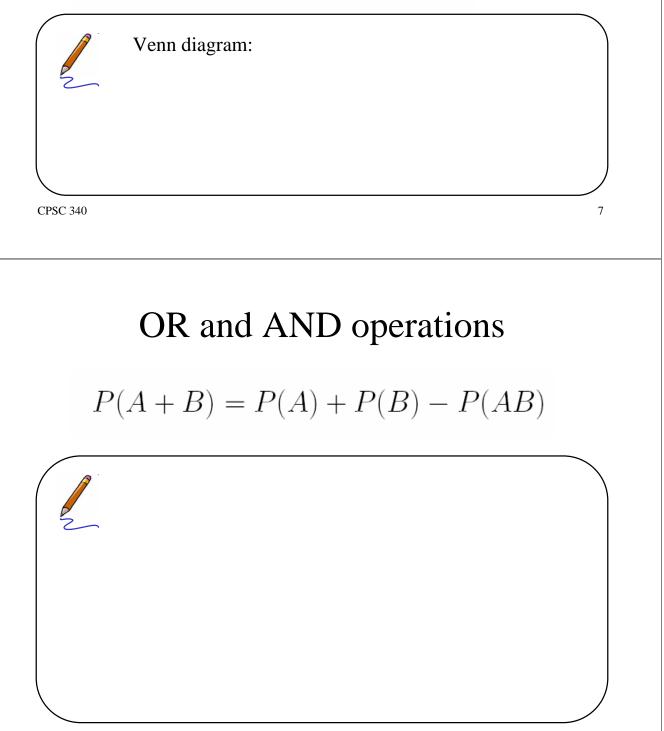
The axiomatic view is a more elegant mathematical solution. Here, a **probabilistic model** consists of the triple (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , where Ω is the sample space, \mathcal{F} is the sigma-field (collection of measurable events) and P is a function mapping \mathcal{F} to the interval [0, 1]. That is, with each event $A \in \mathcal{F}$ we associate a probability P(A).

The axioms

1.
$$P(\emptyset) = 0 \le p(A) \le 1 = P(\Omega)$$

2. For **disjoint sets** A_n , $n \ge 1$, we have

$$P\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(A_n)$$



Conditional probability

 $P(A|B) \triangleq \frac{P(AB)}{P(B)}$

where P(A|B) is the **conditional probability** of A given that B occurs, P(B) is the **marginal probability** of Band P(AB) is the **joint probability** of A and B. In general, we obtain a **chain rule**

$$P(A_{1:n}) = P(A_n | A_{1:n-1}) P(A_{n-1} | A_{1:n-2}) \dots P(A_2 | A_1) P(A_1)$$

If the events A and B are **independent**, we have P(AB) = P(A)P(B).

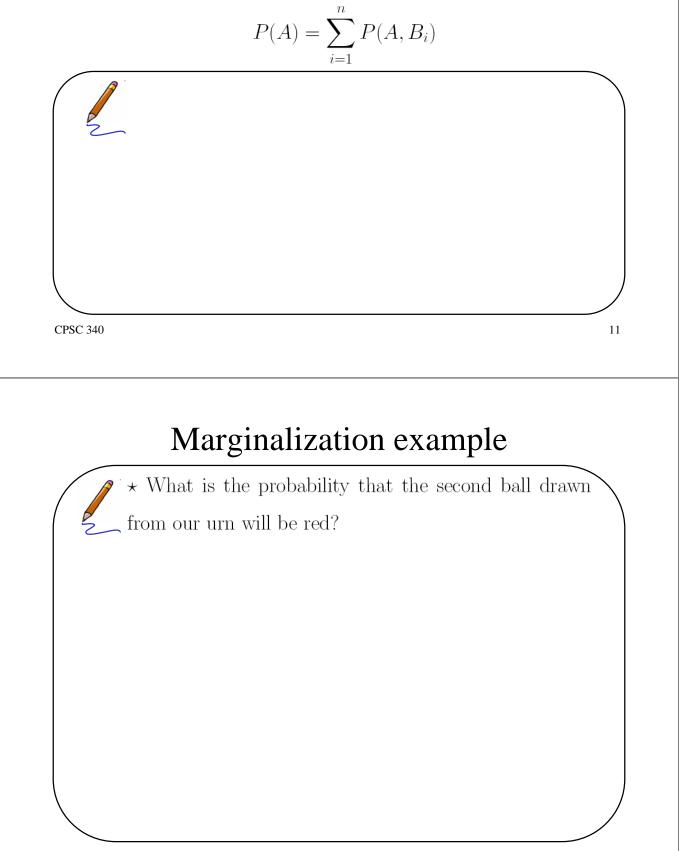
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Conditional probability example

* Assume we have an urn with 3 red balls and 1 blue ball: $U = \{r, r, r, b\}$. What is the probability of drawing (without replacement) 2 red balls in the first 2 tries?

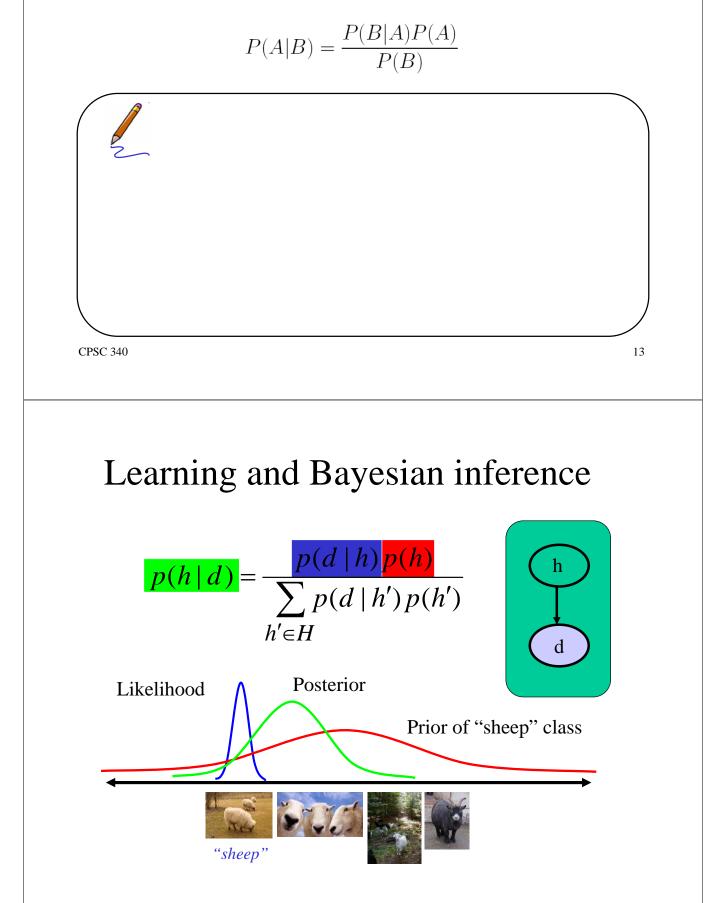
Marginalization

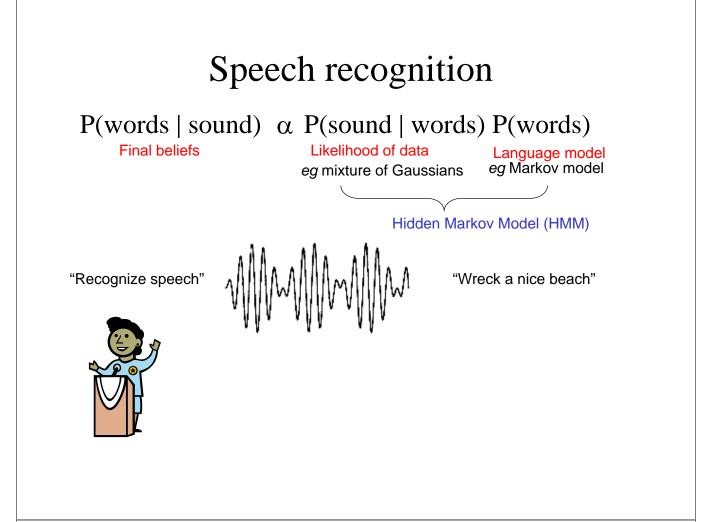
Let the sets $B_{1:n}$ be disjoint and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} B_i = \Omega$. Then



Bayes rule

Bayes rule allows us to reverse probabilities:





Bayes rule: Inverting probabilities

Combining this with marginalisation, we obtain a powerful tool for statistical modelling:

$$P(model_i|data) = \frac{P(data|model_i)P(model_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{M} P(data|model_j)P(model_j)}$$

That is, if we have **prior** probabilities for each model and generative data models, we can compute how likely each model is **a posteriori** (in light of our prior knowledge and the evidence brought in by the data).

Definition of discrete r.v.s

Let E be a discrete set, e.g. $E = \{0, 1\}$. A **discrete** random variable (r.v.) is a map from Ω to E:

 $X(w): \Omega \mapsto E$

such that for all $x \in E$ we have $\{w | X(w) \leq x\} \in \mathcal{F}$. Since \mathcal{F} denotes the measurable sets, this condition simply says that we can compute (measure) the probability P(X = x).

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Probability distributions

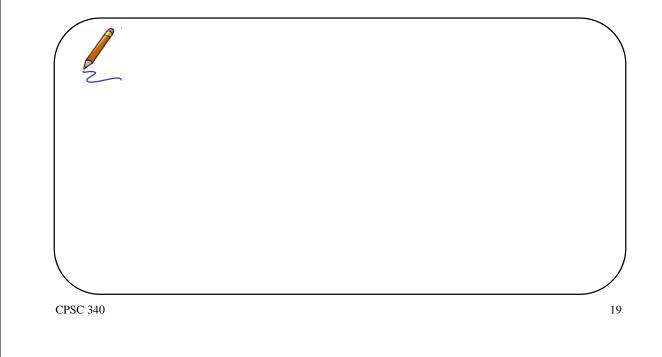
* Assume we are throwing a die and are interested in the events $E = \{even, odd\}$. Here $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. The r.v. takes the value X(w) = even if $w \in \{2, 4, 6\}$ and X(w) = odd if $w \in \{1, 3, 5\}$. We describe this r.v. with a **probability distribution** $p(x_i) = P(X = x_i) = \frac{1}{2}, i = 1, ..., 2$

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The CDF

The **cumulative distribution function** is defined as

 $F(x) = P(X \le x)$ and would for this example be:



Expectation

The expectation of a discrete random variable X is

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{E} x_i p(x_i)$$

The expectation operator is linear, so $\mathbb{E}(ax_1+bx_2) = a\mathbb{E}(x_1)+$

 $b\mathbb{E}(x_2)$. In general, the expectation of a function f(X) is

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)] = \sum_{E} f(x_i) \, p(x_i)$$

$$\label{eq:mean: } \begin{split} \mathbf{Mean:} \ \mu &\triangleq \mathbb{E}(X) \\ \mathbf{Variance:} \ \sigma^2 &\triangleq \mathbb{E}[(X-\mu)^2] \end{split}$$

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Bernoulli r.v.s and the indicator function

Let $E = \{0, 1\}, P(X = 1) = \lambda$, and $P(X = 0) = 1 - \lambda$.

We now introduce the *set indicator variable*. (This is a very useful notation.)

$$\mathbb{I}_{A}(w) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \qquad w \in A \\ 0 & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Using this convention, the probability distribution of a **Bernoulli** random variable reads:

$$p(x) = \lambda^{\mathbb{I}_{\{1\}}(x)} (1 - \lambda)^{\mathbb{I}_{\{0\}}(x)}.$$

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Continuous r.v.s

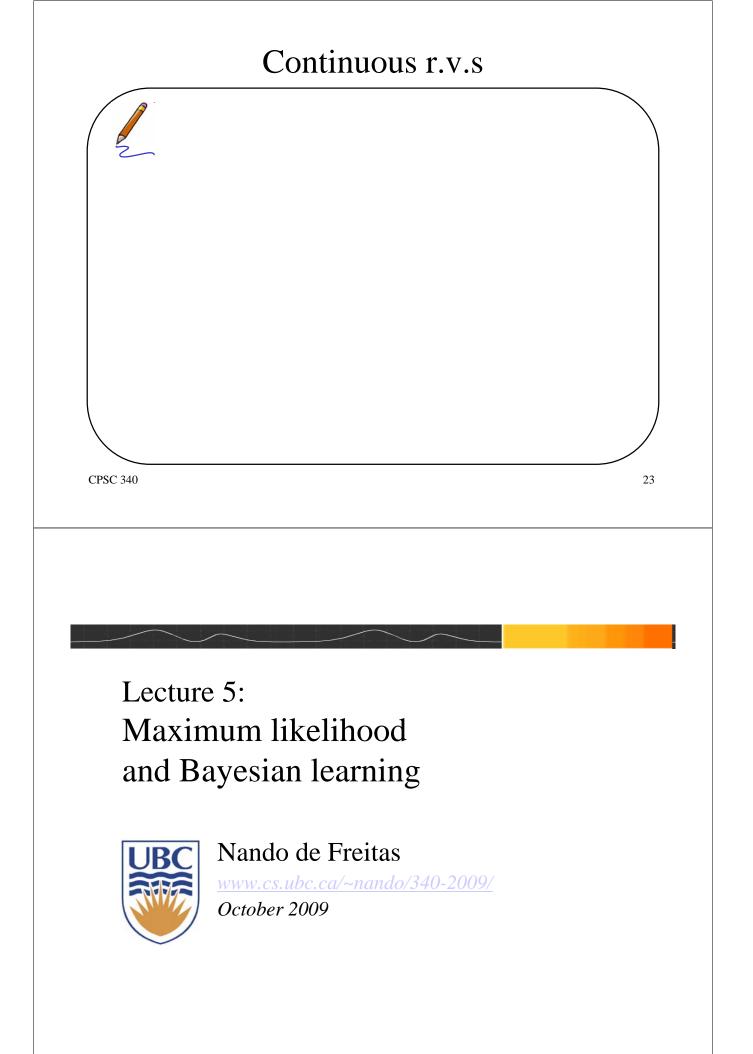
A continuous r.v. is a map to a continuous space, X(w): $\Omega \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, under the usual measurability conditions. The **cu mulative distribution function** F(x) (cdf) is defined by

$$F(x) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{x} p(y) \, dy = P(X \le x)$$

where p(x) denotes the **probability density function** (pdf). For an infinitesimal measure dx in the real line, distributions F and densities p are related as follows:

$$F(dx) = p(x)dx = P(X \in dx).$$

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Outline

We revise maximum likelihood (ML) for a simple binary model. We then introduce Bayesian learning for this simple model.

The key difference between the two approaches is that the frequentist view assumes there is one true model responsible for the observations, while the Bayesian view assumes that the model is a random variable with a certain prior distribution. Computationally, the ML problem is one of optimization, while Bayesian learning is one of integration.

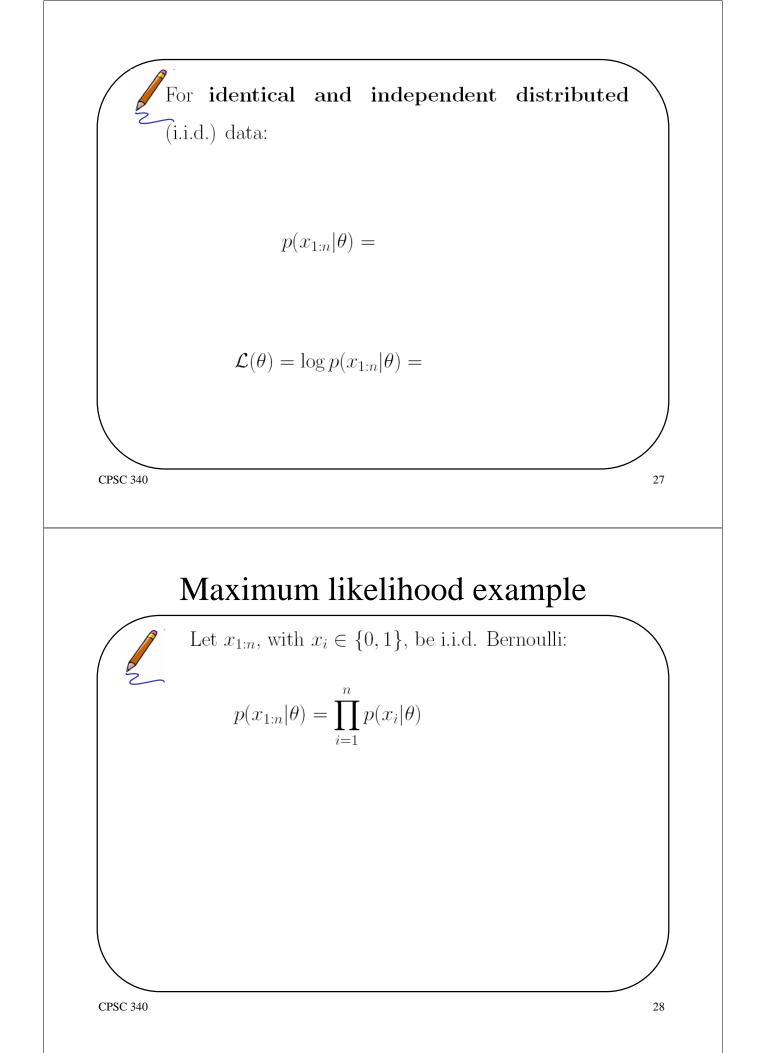
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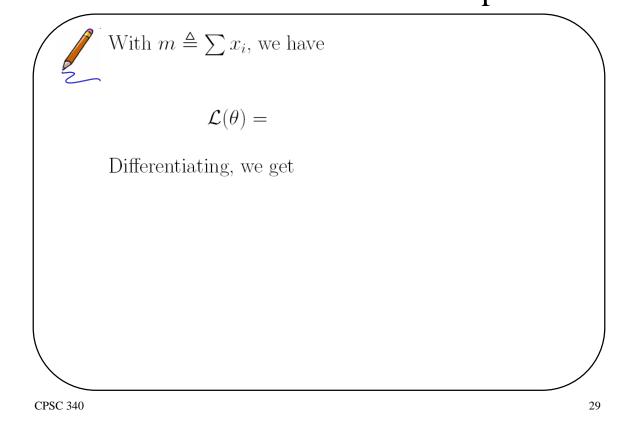
Frequentist learning

Frequentist Learning assumes that there is a true model (say a parametric model with parameters θ_0). The estimate is denoted $\hat{\theta}$. It can be found by maximising the **likelihood**:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \quad p(x_{1:n}|\theta)$$



Maximum likelihood example



Bayesian learning

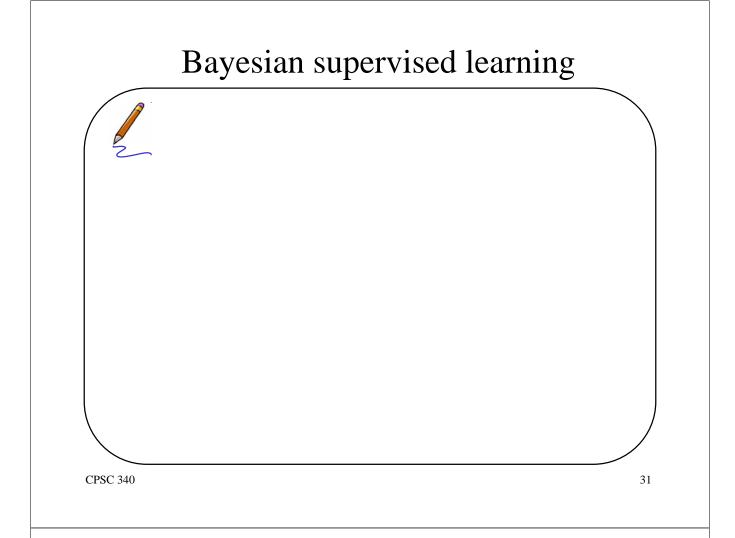
Given our **prior** knowledge $p(\theta)$ and the data **model** $p(\cdot|\theta)$, the Bayesian approach allows us to update our prior using the new data $x_{1:n}$ as follows:

$$p(\theta|x_{1:n}) = \frac{p(x_{1:n}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(x_{1:n})}$$

where $p(\theta|x_{1:n})$ is the **posterior distribution**, $p(x_{1:n}|\theta)$ is the likelihood and $p(x_{1:n})$ is the **marginal likelihood** (evidence). Note

$$p(x_{1:n}) = \int p(x_{1:n}|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$$

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Bayesian model selection

For a particular model structure M_i , we have

$$p(\theta|x_{1:n}, M_i) = \frac{p(x_{1:n}|\theta, M_i)p(\theta|M_i)}{p(x_{1:n}|M_i)}$$

Models are selected according to their posterior:

$$P(M_i|x_{1:n}) \propto P(x_{1:n}|M_i)p(M_i) = P(M_i) \int p(x_{1:n}|\theta, M_i)p(\theta|M_i)d\theta$$

The ratio $P(x_{1:n}|M_i)/P(x_{1:n}|M_j)$ is known as the **Bayes** Factor.

Example

Let $x_{1:n}$, with $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$, be i.i.d. Bernoulli: $x_i \sim \mathcal{B}(1, \theta)$

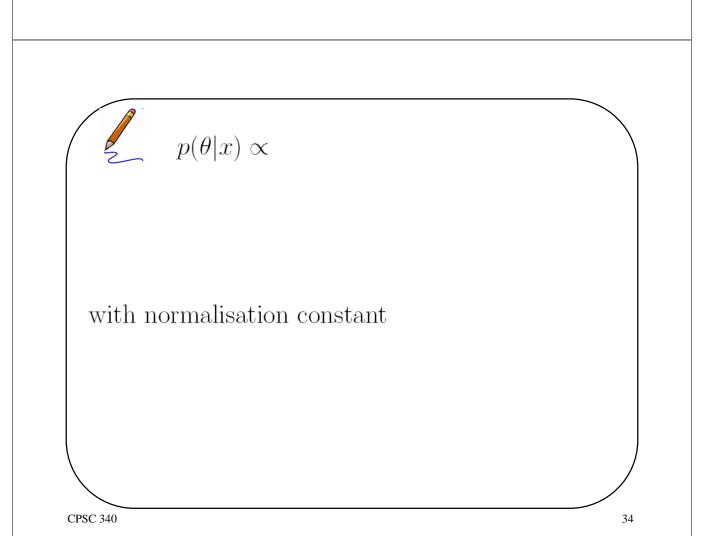
$$p(x_{1:n}|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i|\theta) = \theta^m (1-\theta)^{n-m}$$

Let us choose the following **Beta** prior distribution:

$$p(\theta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)} \theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}$$

where Γ denotes the Gamma-function. For the time being, α and β are fixed **hyper-parameters**. The posterior distribution is proportional to:

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Conjugate analysis

Since the posterior is also Beta, we say that the Beta prior is **conjugate** with respect to the binomial likelihood. Conjugate priors lead to the same form of posterior.

Different hyper-parameters of the Beta $\mathcal{B}e(\alpha,\beta)$ distribution give rise to different prior specifications:

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CPSC 340	35
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