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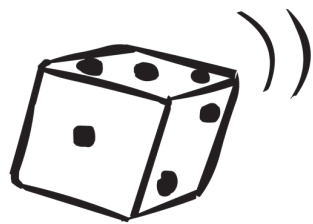
Probabilistic Machine Learning

Session 1

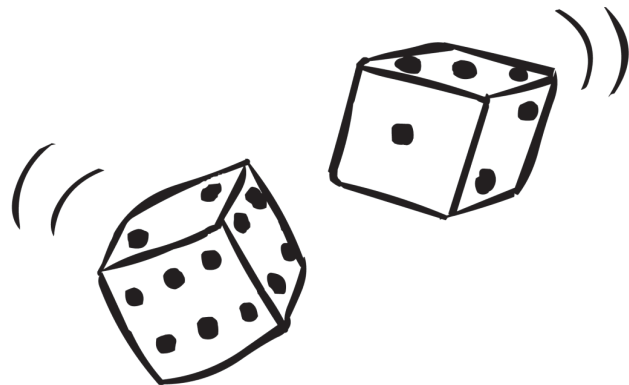
Probability Theory

Single and Joint Probabilities

Probability theory typically describes random variables, $P(X)$, and the probability that these random variables take on actual values.



$$P(D = 6) = 1/6$$

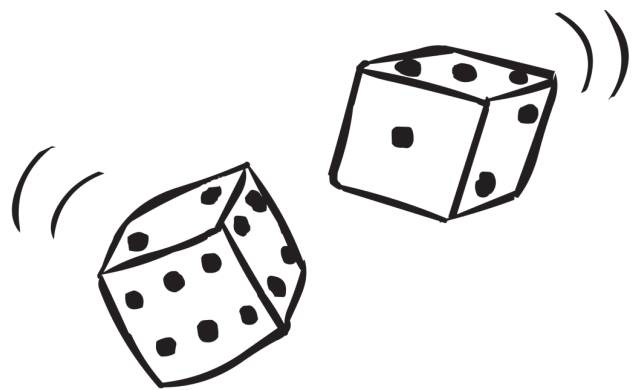


$$P(D_1 = 6, D_2 = 6) = 1/36$$

probability.ipynb

Independent Probabilities

When events are **independent** their **joint** probability is given by the product of their individual probabilities.

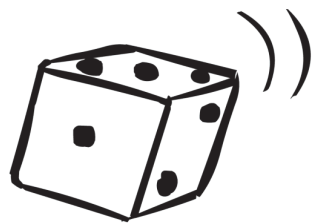


$$P(D_1 = 6, D_2 = 6) = 1/36$$

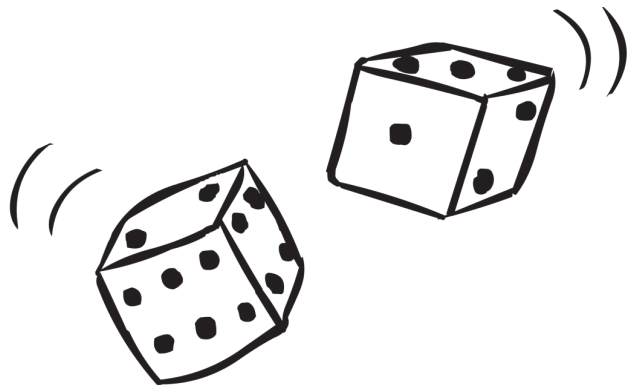
$$P(D_1 = 6, D_2 = 6) = P(D_1 = 6) \times P(D_2 = 6)$$

Conditional Probabilities

Conditional probabilities describe the probability of any event **given** the occurrence of another event.



$$P(D = 6 | D \text{ is even}) = 1/3$$



$$P(D_1 = 6 | D_1 + D_2 > 8) = ?$$

probability.ipynb

The Rules of Probabilities

There are just two fundamental rules of probability theory.

Sum rule $P(X) = \sum_Y P(X, Y)$

Product rule $P(X, Y) = P(Y|X) \times P(X)$

Plus the observation that probabilities must sum to 1.

Frequentist probability is the interpretation of probability that defines an event's probability as the limit of its relative frequency in a large number of trials.

Bayesian probability is the interpretation of the probability that holds that it can be defined as the degree to which a person (or community) believes that a proposition is true.



Rev. Thomas Bayes (1702 - 1761)

- Framework for plausible reasoning developed over the nineteenth century
- Developed by three physicists:
 - Harold Jeffreys (1891 – 1989)
 - Richard Cox (1898 - 1991)
 - Edwin Jaynes (1922 – 1998)
- Growth of computational power since 2000 has seen this become one of the dominant model for much of machine learning.
- Recent development of probabilistic programming make using Bayesian reasoning ever more accessible.

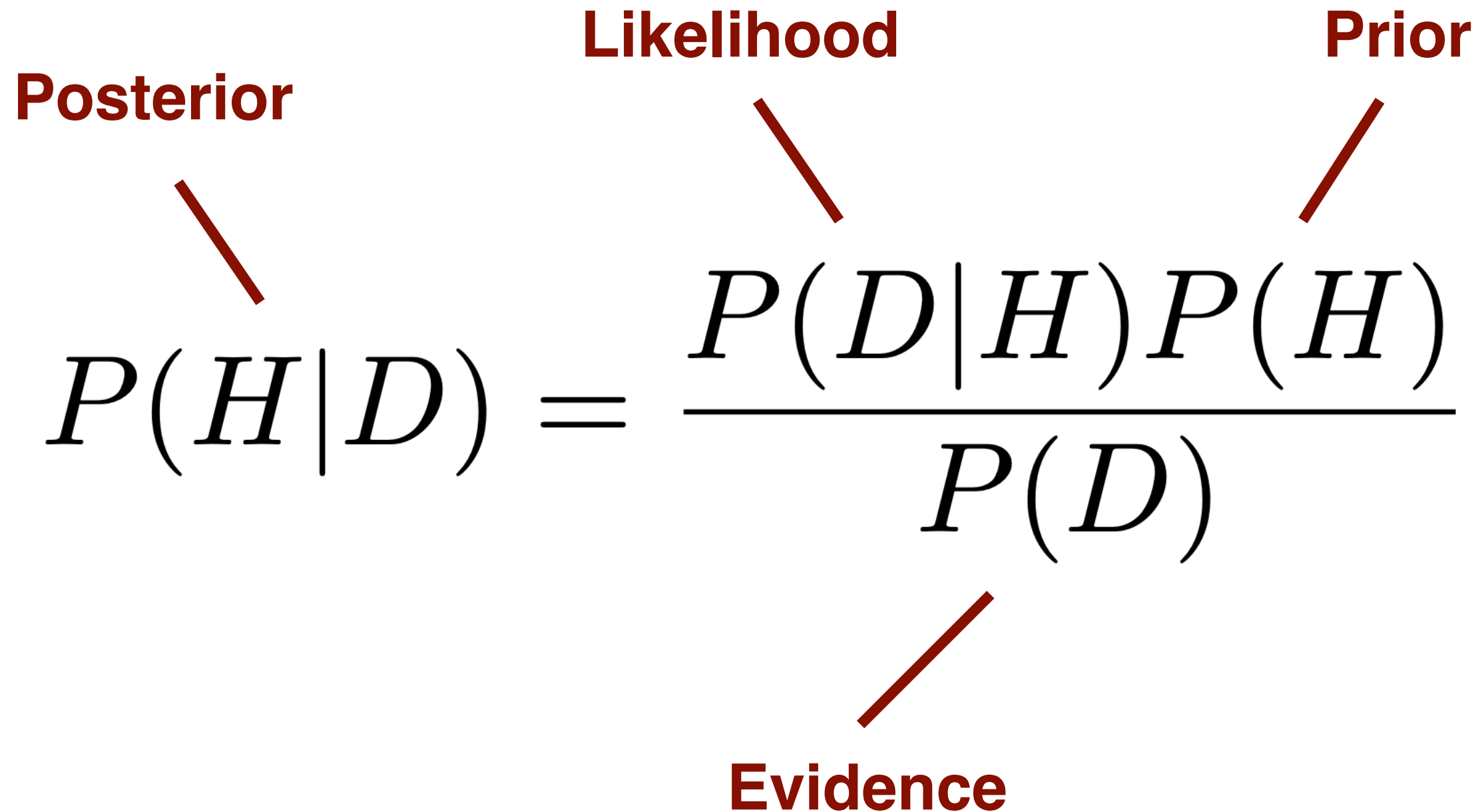
Cox's axioms describe desirable properties of a framework for reasoning about uncertainty

1. Degrees of **plausibility** are represented by real numbers.
2. Qualitative correspondence with common sense:
 - Increasing the **plausibility** of a statement, decreases the **plausibility** of its negative.
3. Consistency:
 - If a conclusion can be reasoned out in more than one way, then every possible way must lead to the same result.
 - It must be possible to incorporate all the evidence relevant to a question into the reasoning process.
 - All equivalent states of knowledge are represented by equivalent **plausibility** assignments.

Bayes Theorem

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

Bayes Theorem



The diagram illustrates Bayes Theorem with the following components:

- Posterior**: A label in dark red text above the expression $P(H|D)$, with a dark red arrow pointing down to it.
- Likelihood**: A label in dark red text above the expression $P(D|H)$, with a dark red arrow pointing down to it.
- Prior**: A label in dark red text above the expression $P(H)$, with a dark red arrow pointing down to it.
- Evidence**: A label in dark red text below the expression $P(D)$, with a dark red arrow pointing up to it.

$$P(H|D) = \frac{P(D|H)P(H)}{P(D)}$$

Example

- A clinical test, designed to diagnose a specific illness, comes out positive for a certain patient.
- We are told that
 - The test is 79 percent reliable (that is, it misses 21 percent of actual cases)
 - On average, this illness affects 1 percent of the population in the same age group as the patient
 - The test has a false positive rate of 10 percent.
- Taking this into account and assuming you know nothing about the patient's symptoms or signs, what is the probability that this patient actually has the illness?

Example

$$P(D) = 0.01$$

$$P(T|D) = 0.79$$

$$P(T|\neg D) = 0.1$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned}P(D|T) &= \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T)} \\&= \frac{P(T|D)P(D)}{P(T|D)P(D) + P(T|\neg D)P(\neg D)} \\&= \frac{0.79 \times 0.01}{0.79 \times 0.01 + 0.1 \times 0.99} \\&\approx 0.074\end{aligned}$$

Exercises 1

Next Time

Bayesian Inference and
Markov Chain Monte Carlo