Machine Learning

Section 5: Continuous Probabilties

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Probabilities on continuous variables

From discrete to continuous variables

from Murphy 2012, p32, from Jaynes 2003, p107

- let X be real-valued variable
- ▶ define propositions $A = (X \le a)$, $B = (X \le b)$ and $W = (a < X \le b)$ with a < b
- ▶ note that $E_B = E_{A \lor W}$
- ▶ note that A and W are mutually exclusive, thus sum rule:

$$p(W) = p(B) - p(A)$$

• with $F(x) := p(X \le x)$ and $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x)$ we get

$$p(a < X \le b) = F(b) - F(a) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

 F is called cumulative distribution function (CDF) and f is called probability density function (PDF)

Discrete vs. continuous probabilities (1)

Probability theory as an extension of propositional logic

- ▶ finite set of propositional variables $A, B, ..., Z \in \{0, 1\}$ jointly ranging over all boolean assignments
- sample space Ω = {all boolean assignments}
- ▶ probability mass function $f: \Omega \to [0,1]$, such that $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} f(\omega) = 1$

Discrete probability theory (includes the previous case)

- ▶ random variable ranging in a discrete set, e.g. {0,1,2,...,}
- sample space Ω = {0, 1, 2, ...}
- ▶ probability mass function $f: \Omega \to [0,1]$, such that $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} f(\omega) = 1$

Continuous probability theory

- lacktriangleright random variable ranging in a continuous set, e.g. real numbers ${\mathfrak R}$
- sample space Ω = ℜ
- ▶ probability density function $f: \Omega \to \mathfrak{R}_+$, such that $\int_{\omega \in \Omega} f(\omega) d\omega = 1$

Discrete vs. continuous probabilities (2)

Probabilities measure the mass of subsets $E \subset \Omega$ of the sample space.

Discrete probabilities

- e.g. $\Omega = \mathbb{N}$
- ▶ probability mass function $f: \mathbb{N} \to [0,1]$, such that $\sum_n f(n) = 1$
- probability $p(E) = \sum_{n \in E} f(n)$
- small letter p

Continuous probabilities

- e.g. $\Omega = \Re$
- ▶ probability density function (PDF) $f: \Re \to \Re_+$, such that $\int f(x) dx = 1$
- probability $P(E) = \int_E f(x) dx$
- large letter P

Rules for continuous variables

Theorem 5.1 (rules for PDFs)

The standard rules of probability theory do hold for PDFs,

$$f(x,y) = f(x|y) f(y)$$
 product rule
 $f(x) = \int f(x,y) dy$ sum rule

For that reason we often write p for PDFs. Sums turn into integrals. Note that the product rule implies Bayes' rule.

Different way to think about the probability rules

- consider three random variables A, B, C with values a, b, c
- for probabilistic inference we need the joint PDF p(a, b, c)
- ▶ assume we get PDFs p(c), p(b|c), p(a|b,c) from domain expert
- define the joint PDF p(a, b, c) := p(a|b, c)p(b|c)p(c)
- define all partial joints by integration, e.g.

$$p(a,b) := \int p(a,b,c)dc$$

- now all sum rules hold! (also for p(c) used in the definition)
- define the conditional PDF as quotients, e.g.

$$p(c|a) := p(a,c)/p(a)$$

- now all product rules hold (also for p(a|b,c), p(b|c))
- ... and this is compatible with p(a, b, c) := p(a|b, c)p(b|c)p(c)

Using these definitions all rules hold automatically!

Definition of random variable

Definition 5.2

A discrete random variable X is a variable with values x ranging over some discrete set \mathcal{X} and a probability mass function (PMF)

$$f: \mathcal{X} \to [0,1]$$
$$x \mapsto f(x)$$

that sums up to one, $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x) = 1$.

Definition 5.3

A continuous random variable X is a variable with values x ranging over some continuous set \mathcal{X} and a probability density function (PDF)

$$f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$
$$x \mapsto f(x)$$

that integrates to one, $\int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x) dx = 1$.

Range of a random variable

- Consider a random variable X with values x ranging over some set X.
- ▶ Sometimes we call X the *range* of X.
- ▶ Sometimes we call the subset of \mathcal{X} the *range* of X where p(x) > 0.

Random variables and their values

Note:

- ▶ RV are denoted by capital letters X, its values by small letters x
- ▶ More precisely (and complicated): the small *x* is a variable as well, that ranges over the values of the *random variable X*.
- Using the same letter, we know which small letter variable corresponds to which random variable (denoted by a capital letter). This is just a useful convention!
- So, when we write p(x) we are talking about the PDF with input x that belongs to random variable X. When we write p(y)...

Sidenote: what really is a random variable?

• A random variable is a (measurable) mapping from the sample space Ω to the real numbers, i.e.

$$X:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$$

- Assuming we have a probability measure P on Ω we get one for X as well, e.g. for $E \subset \mathbb{R}$ we choose $P(E) = P(X^{-1}(E))$ since $X^{-1}(E) \subset \Omega$.
- ▶ If the distribution of *X* is absolutely continuous with respect to the Lebesgue measure we have a density (i.e. a PDF).

Here in this lecture:

- For simplicity we always assume that we have a PDF for our continuous random variables.
- Let's view a random variable to be a variable that also knows its range and its distribution either represented by its PDF (for cont. X) or by its PMF, probability mass function (for discrete X).
- A random variable could have any type, e.g. also being a function itself like for Gaussan processes.

Expectations

Integration with densities

Weighted average/sum

$$\sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}$$

with weights wi

Weighted integral

$$\int w(x)x\,dx$$

with weights/density w(x)

Expectations of a random variable (1)

Definition 5.4 (expected value of *X*)

1. The expected value of a discrete random variable X with probability mass function p(x) is:

$$\mathsf{E}\,X=\mathsf{E}(X)=\sum_{x}x\,p(x)$$

2. The expected value of a continuous random variable X with PDF p(x) is:

$$EX = E(X) = \int x p(x) dx$$

The operator E turns a random variable X into a single number (usually into a single value from its range).

Expectations of a random variable (2)

Definition 5.5 (expected value of a function of *X*)

1. The expected value of a function f wrt the discrete random variable X with probability mass function p(x) is:

$$\mathsf{E}\,f(X)=\mathsf{E}(f(X))=\sum_X f(X)p(X)$$

2. The expected value of a function f wrt the continuous random variable X with PDF p(x) is:

$$E f(X) = E(f(X)) = \int f(x)\rho(x)dx$$

- f(X) can be also understood as a new random variable Y = f(X).
- Sometimes we write E_x to specify which variable is summed up. Note that we use a small x in those cases since the subindex to E binds the variable and makes it local, e.g. E_x x.
- "wrt" = "with respect to"

Expectations of a random variable (3)

Examples

Mean

$$EX = E(X) = E_X X$$

Variance

$$Var X = Var(X) = E(X - \mu)^2 = E_x(x - \mu)^2$$

is the average squared distance to the mean $\mu = E_x x$

Product- and sum-rule combined

$$p(y) = \int p(x,y) dx = \int p(y|x) p(x) dx = E_x p(y|x) = E p(y|X)$$

Probabilities as expectations

$$p(X \in A) = E1_A(X) = E[X \in A]$$

with Iverson bracket [F] = 1 if formula F is true, and zero otherwise.

Example – infer probability of wearing glasses

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (1)

Question:

What's the probability that a person wears glasses?

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (2)

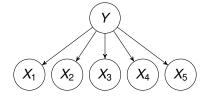
Represent all unknowns as random variables (RVs)

- probability to wear glasses is represented by RV Y
- five observations are represented by RVs X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5

Possible values of the RVs

- ▶ Y takes values $y \in [0,1]$ (it is a probability value)
- $ightharpoonup X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5$ are binary, i.e. values 0 and 1

Graphical representation



Generative model and joint probability

- we abbreviate Y = y as y, $X_i = x_i$ as x_i
- p(y) is the prior of Y, written fully p(Y = y)
- \triangleright $p(x_i|y)$ is the likelihood of observation x_i
- note that the likelihood is a function of y

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (3)

Probability of wearing glasses without observations

$$p(y|\text{"nothing"}) = p(y)$$

Probability of wearing glasses after one observation

$$p(y|x_1) = Z_1^{-1}p(x_1|y)p(y)$$

Probability of wearing glasses after two observations

$$p(y|x_1,x_2) = Z_2^{-1}p(x_2|x_1,y)p(x_1|y)p(y) = Z_2^{-1}p(x_2|y)p(x_1|y)p(y)$$

Probability of wearing glasses after five observations

$$p(y|x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = Z_5^{-1} \left(\prod_{i=1}^5 p(x_i|y) \right) p(y)$$

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (4)

What is the likelihood?

$$p(x_1|y) = \begin{cases} y & \text{for } x_1 = 1\\ 1 - y & \text{for } x_1 = 0 \end{cases}$$

More helpful RVs:

- ▶ RV *N* for the number of observations being 1 (with values *n*)
- ▶ RV *M* for the number of observations being 0 (with values *m*)

Probability of wearing glasses after five observations

$$p(y|x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5) = Z_5^{-1} \left(\prod_{i=1}^5 p(x_i|y) \right) p(y)$$
$$= Z_5^{-1} y^n (1 - y)^m p(y)$$
$$= p(y|n, m)$$

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (5)

Posterior after seeing five observations:

$$p(y|n,m) = Z_5^{-1}y^n(1-y)^mp(y)$$

What prior p(y) would make the calculations easy?

$$p(y) = Z^{-1}y^{a-1}(1-y)^{b-1}$$
 with parameters $a > 0, b > 0$

called "Beta distribution with parameter a and b"

Let's give the normalization factor Z of the beta distribution a name!

$$B(a,b) = \int_0^1 y^{a-1} (1-y)^{b-1} dy$$

called "Beta function with parameters a and b"

Note: for a = 1, b = 1, the Beta distribution is the uniform distribution p(y) = 1 for $y \in [0, 1]$, zero elsewhere.

Gamma function, Beta function, and all that

from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gamma_function
and http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beta_function

Gamma function (extension of factorial function)

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{z-1} dt \qquad \text{for } z \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$\Gamma(n) = (n-1)! = n!/n \qquad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Beta function (extension of ...?)

$$B(x,y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)} \qquad \text{for } x, y \in \mathbb{C} \text{ with } x + \bar{x}, y + \bar{y} > 0$$

$$B(m,n) = \frac{(m-1)! (n-1)!}{(m+n-1)!} \qquad \text{for } m, n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$= \left(\frac{m+n}{n}\right)^{-1} \frac{m+n}{mn} \qquad \text{binomial coefficient}$$

Example — inferring probability of wearing glasses (6)

The prior of the probability with parameters *a* and *b*:

$$p(y) = \frac{y^{a-1}(1-y)^{b-1}}{B(a,b)}$$

The likelihood of the observations:

$$p(n,m \mid y) = y^n (1-y)^m$$

The posterior with the beta prior:

$$p(y|n,m) = \frac{y^{n+a-1}(1-y)^{m+b-1}}{B(a+n,b+m)}$$

Note:

▶ If the prior and the posterior have the same form (here: both are Beta distribution), we call prior the *conjugate* prior for likelihood. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Conjugate_prior.

Summary

From discrete to continuous random variables:

- based on probabilities for discrete variables, we can introduce probabilities for continuous variables (construction due to E.T. Jaynes (see his book "Logic of Science")
- sum- and product-rule hold for PDFs
- definition of random variables
- expectations of random variables

Example: wearing glasses

- viewing a parameter as a random variable
- Beta distribution
- conjugate prior