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Bayesian inference ppt

Bayesian InferenceRev. Thomas Bayes 1701-1761Probability ReminderWhat is a probability distribution? $p(15) = 1/38 = 0.0263$ $p(\text{black}) = 18/38 = 0.473$ $p(\text{black}) = 18/38 = 0.473$ $p(\text{red}) = 18/38 = 0.473$ What is a conditional probability? $p(\text{black}|\text{col1}) = 6/12 = 0.5$ $p(\text{black}|\text{col2}) = 8/12 = 0.666$ Bayesian InferenceWhen do people use Bayesian Inference? • You have probability distribution over the state of a variable of interest, x • You learn something new, for example that some other random variable, y , has a particular value • You'd like to update your beliefs about x , to incorporate this new evidenceWhat do you need to know to use it? • You need to be able to express your prior beliefs about x as a probability distribution, $p(x)$ • You must able to relate your new evidence to your variable of interest in terms of it's likelihood, $p(y|x)$ • You must be able to multiply.And now, the moment you've all been waiting for...Bayes's Rule $p(x)$ is a probability distribution over the variable of interest prior to the addition of your new observationBayes's Rule $p(x|y)$ is the probability of any value of x given our observation of y . or as they say, the probability distribution posterior to our observation.Bayes's Rule $p(y|x)$ is the likelihood of obtaining our particular observation y , under the supposition that any of the possible states of the variable x were actually the case.Bayes's Rule $p(y)$ is the probability of making our observation, period. $p(y)$ is NOT a probability distribution, it's just a single number. $p(y)$ is a constant of proportionality. $p(y)$ is a normalization constant.Bayes's RuleBayes's Rule so simple... so elegant... it just must be true.no proofs... but who would not forgive me a brief derivation Bayesian RouletteBayesian Roulette • We're interested in which column will win. • $p(\text{column})$ is our prior. $p(x)$ Bayesian Roulette • We're interested in which column will win. • $p(\text{column})$ is our prior. • We learn $\text{color}=\text{black}$. Bayesian Roulette • We're interested in which column will win. • $p(\text{column})$ is our prior. • We learn $\text{color}=\text{black}$. • What is $p(\text{color}=\text{black}|\text{column})$? $p(\text{black}|\text{col1}) = 6/12 = 0.5$ $p(\text{black}|\text{col2}) = 8/12 = 0.666$ $p(\text{black}|\text{col3}) = 4/12 = 0.333$ $p(\text{black}|\text{zeros}) = 0/2 = 0$ $p(y|x)$ Bayesian Roulette • We're interested in which column will win. • $p(\text{column})$ is our prior. • We learn $\text{color}=\text{black}$. • What is $p(\text{color}=\text{black}|\text{column})$? • We could calculate $p(\text{color}=\text{black})$, but who cares, we'll normalize when we're done. Bayesian Roulette • We're interested in which column will win. • $p(\text{column})$ is our prior. • We learn $\text{color}=\text{black}$. • What is $p(\text{color}=\text{black}|\text{column})$? • We could calculate $p(\text{color}=\text{black})$, but who cares, we'll normalize when we're done. • Go directly to BAYES.Bayes's Rule Bayes's Rule Bayes's RuleNo one would really use Bayesian Inference for Roulette. Stanford University Hospital $p(\text{hepittitus|fever, hematuria, pale stool, abdominal pain, jaundice})$ NASA $p(\text{hull breach|pressure loss, tremor, attitude sensor failure})$ Stanford Bioinformatics Group $p(\text{transmembrane protein|genetic sequence})$ Microsoft Word $p(\text{you are writing a letter|last 100 keystrokes})$ How do we uses Bayes in morecomplex circumstances? How do we uses Bayes in morecomplex circumstances? Let's imagine you're a home owner yeah right. And image you have valued possessions that's rich. So, you're interested in home security what, in palo alto?There are several variables. Have I been burgled? Is my alarm sounding? Did my neighbors call me at lab to bitch about my alarm going off again?Our model of the world.There some complicating factors Your burglar alarm is set off by even the most minute tremor of the earthOur model of the world. 1. BAYESIAN INFERENCE Chartha. Gagliani. 2. CONTENTS 1. Introduction 2. Likelihood function 3. Example 4. Prior probability distribution 5. Introduction to Naïve Bayes 6. Applications 7. Advantages 8. Disadvantages 3. INTRODUCTION • Bayesian inference is a method of statistical inference in which Bayes' theorem is used to update the probability for a hypothesis as more evidence or information becomes available. • Bayesian inference is an important technique in statistics, and especially in mathematical statistics. • Bayesian inference has found application in a wide range of activities, including science, engineering, philosophy, medicine, sport, and law. • In the philosophy of decision theory, Bayesian inference is closely related to subjective probability, often called "Bayesian probability". 4. • Bayes theorem adjusts probabilities given new evidence in the following way: $P(H_0|E) = \frac{P(E|H_0) P(H_0)}{P(E)}$ • Where, H_0 represents the hypothesis, called a null hypothesis, inferred before new evidence • $P(H_0)$ is called the prior probability of H_0 . • $P(E|H_0)$ is called the conditional probability • $P(E)$ is called the marginal probability of E : the probability of witnessing the new evidence. • $P(H_0|E)$ is called the posterior probability of H_0 given E . • The factor $P(E|H_0)/P(E)$ represents the impact that the evidence has on the belief in the hypothesis. 5. • Multiplying the prior probability $P(H_0)$ by the factor $P(E|H_0)/P(E)$ will never the yield a probability that is greater than 1. • Since $P(E)$ is at least as great as $P(E \cap H_0)$, which equals to $P(E|H_0) \cdot P(H_0)$, replacing $P(E)$ with $P(E \cap H_0)$ in the factor $P(E|H_0)/P(E)$ will yield a posterior probability of 1. • Therefore, the posterior probability could yield a probability greater than 1 only if $P(E)$ were less than $P(E \cap H_0)$ which is never true. 6. LIKELIHOOD FUNCTION • The probability of E given H_0 , $P(E|H_0)$, can be represented as function of its second argument with its first argument held at a given value. Such a function is called likelihood function; it is a function of H_0 given E . A ratio of two likelihood functions is called a likelihood ratio, " $= \frac{L(H_0|E)}{L(\text{not } H_0|E)} = \frac{P(E|H_0)}{P(E|\text{not } H_0)}$ " • The marginal probability, $P(E)$, can also be represented as the sum of the product of all probabilities of mutually exclusive hypothesis and corresponding conditional probabilities: $P(E|H_0) P(H_0) + P(E|\text{not } H_0) P(\text{not } H_0)$ 7. • As a result, we can rewrite Bayes Theorem as $P(H_0|E) = \frac{P(E|H_0) P(H_0)}{P(E|H_0) P(H_0) + P(E|\text{not } H_0) P(\text{not } H_0)}$ • $\frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_0) + P(\text{not } H_0)}$ • With two independent pieces of evidence E_1 and E_2 , Bayesian inference can be applied iteratively. • We could use the first piece of evidence to calculate an initial posterior probability, and then use that posterior probability as a new prior probability to calculate a second posterior probability given the second piece of evidence. 8. • Independence of evidence implies that, $P(E_1, E_2 | H_0) = P(E_1 | H_0) \cdot P(E_2 | H_0)$ $P(E_1, E_2) = P(E_1) \cdot P(E_2)$ $P(E_1, E_2 | \text{not } H_0) = P(E_1 | \text{not } H_0) \cdot P(E_2 | \text{not } H_0)$ 9. From which bowl is the cookie? • Suppose there are two full bowls of cookies. Bowl #1 has 10 chocolate chip and 30 plain cookies, while bowl #2 has 20 of each. Our friend Hardika picks a bowl at random, and then picks a cookie at random. We may assume there is no reason to believe Hardika treats one bowl differently from another, likewise for the cookies. The cookie turns out to be a plain one. How probable is it that Hardika picked it out of bowl #1? Bowl#1 Bowl#2 10. • Intuitively, it seems clear that the answer should be more than a half, since there are more plain cookies in bowl #1. • The precise answer is given by Bayes' theorem. Let H_1 correspond to bowl #1, and H_2 to bowl #2. • It is given that the bowls are identical from Hardika's point of view, thus $P(H_1) = P(H_2)$ and the two must add up to 1, so both are equal to 0.5. • The D is the observation of a plain cookie. • From the contents of the bowls, we know that $P(D | H_1) = 30/40 = 0.75$ and $P(D | H_2) = 20/40 = 0.5$ 11. • Bayes formula then yields, $P(H_1 | D) = \frac{P(H_1) \cdot P(D | H_1)}{P(H_1) \cdot P(D | H_1) + P(H_2) \cdot P(D | H_2)} = \frac{0.5 \cdot 0.75}{0.5 \cdot 0.75 + 0.5 \cdot 0.5} = 0.6$ • Before observing the cookie, the probability that Hardika chose bowl#1 is the prior probability, $P(H_1)$ which is 0.5. After observing the cookie, we revise the probability as 0.6. • Its worth noting that our belief that observing the plain cookie should somewhat affect the prior probability $P(H_1)$ has formed the posterior probability $P(H_1 | D)$, increased from 0.5 to 0.6 12. • This reflects our intuition that the cookie is more likely from the bowl#1, since it has a higher ratio of plain to chocolate cookies than the other. 13. PRIOR PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION • In Bayesian statistical inference, a prior probability distribution, often called simply the prior, of an uncertain quantity p (For e.g. suppose p is the proportion of voters who will vote for Mr. Narendra Modi in a future election) is the probability distribution that would express ones uncertainty about p before the data (For e.g. an election poll) are taken into account. • It is meant to attribute uncertainty rather than randomness to the uncertain quantity. 14. INTRODUCTION TO NAIVE BAYES • Suppose your data consist of fruits, described by their color and shape. • Bayesian classifiers operate by saying "If you see a fruit that is red and round, which type of fruit most likely to be, based on the observed data sample? In future, classify red and round fruit as that type of fruit." • A difficulty arises when you have more than a few variables and classes- you would require an enormous number of observations to estimate these probabilities. 15. • Naive Bayes classifier assume that the effect of a variable value on a given class is independent of the values of other variable. • This assumption is called class conditional independence. • It is made to simplify the computation and in this sense considered to be Naïve. 16. APPLICATIONS 1. Computer applications • Bayesian inference has applications in artificial intelligence and expert systems. • Bayesian inference techniques have been a fundamental part of computerized pattern recognition techniques since the late 1950s. • Recently Bayesian inference has gained popularity among the phylogenetics community for these reasons; a number of applications allow many demographic and evolutionary parameters to be estimated simultaneously. 17. 2. Bioinformatics applications • Bayesian inference has been applied in different Bioinformatics applications, including differentially gene expression analysis, single-cell classification, cancer subtyping, and etc. 18. ADVANTAGES • Including good information should improve prediction. • Including structure can allow the method to incorporate more data (for example, hierarchical modeling allows partial pooling so that external data can be included in a model even if these external data share only some characteristics with the current data being modeled). 19. DISADVANTAGES • If the prior information is wrong, it can send inferences in the wrong direction. • Bayes inference combines different sources of information; thus it is no longer an encapsulation of a particular dataset (which is sometimes desired, for reasons that go beyond immediate predictive accuracy and instead touch on issues of statistical communication). 20. THANK YOU.

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