

# Neuroinformatics Lecture (L6)

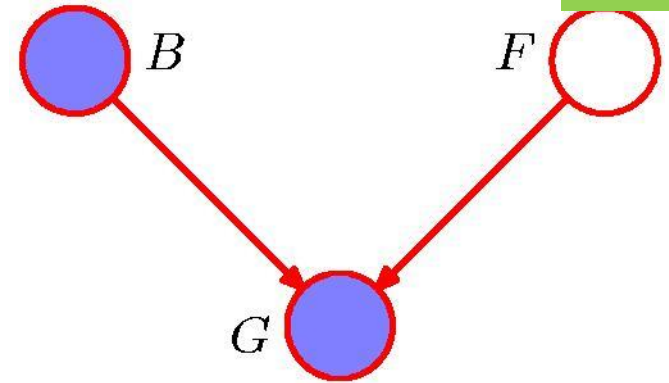
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$$p(F = 0) = 0.1$$

$$p(F = 0|G = 0) \simeq 0.257$$

$$p(F = 0|G = 0, B = 0) \simeq 0.111$$



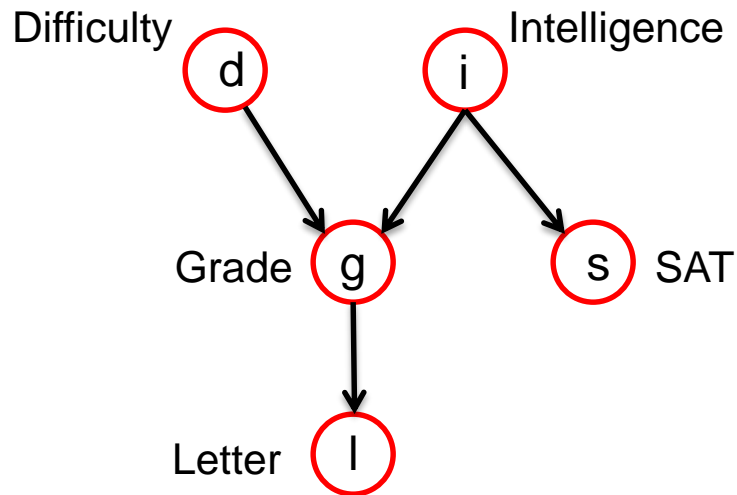
Probability of an empty tank is changed by observing  $B = 0$ .

**This is referred to as “explaining away”:**

Finding out that the battery is flat *explains away* the observation that the fuel gauge reads empty.

(In the example this leads to a reduction of the probability. For other example the probability may increase if we explain away another possible explanation)

# An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(d, i, g, s, l) = p(d)p(i)p(g | i, d)p(s | i)p(l | g)$$

What is the probability of a good letter  $p(l=1)$ ?

We marginalize the joint probability.

$$p(l=1) = \sum_{d, i, g, s} p(d, i, g, s, l)$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1,i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1
i=0	0.95	0.05
i=1	0.2	0.8

	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

# An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(l=1) = \sum_{d,i,g,s} p(d)p(i)p(g|i,d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

$$p(l=1) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} &0.6 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 + \\ &0.4 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.05 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 + \\ &0.6 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.9 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 + \\ &0.4 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
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g=3	0.99	0.01

# An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(l=1) = \sum_{d,i,g,s} p(d)p(i)p(g|i,d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

$$p(l=1) =$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.05 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.9 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 + \dots$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
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g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

# An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(l=1) = \sum_{d,i,g,s} p(d)p(i)p(g|i,d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

$$p(l=1) =$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.05 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.9 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 + \dots$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
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d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
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	s=0	s=1
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	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(l=1) = \sum_{d,i,g,s} p(d)p(i)p(g|i,d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

$$p(l=1) =$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.7 \cdot 0.05 \cdot 0.95 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.6 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.9 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 +$$

$$0.4 \cdot 0.3 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.2 \cdot 0.9 + \dots$$

Sum over all  $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 = 24$  combinations

$$p(l=1) = 0.502$$

The probability that you get a good letter without knowing anything about  $d, i, g, s$  is 0.502.

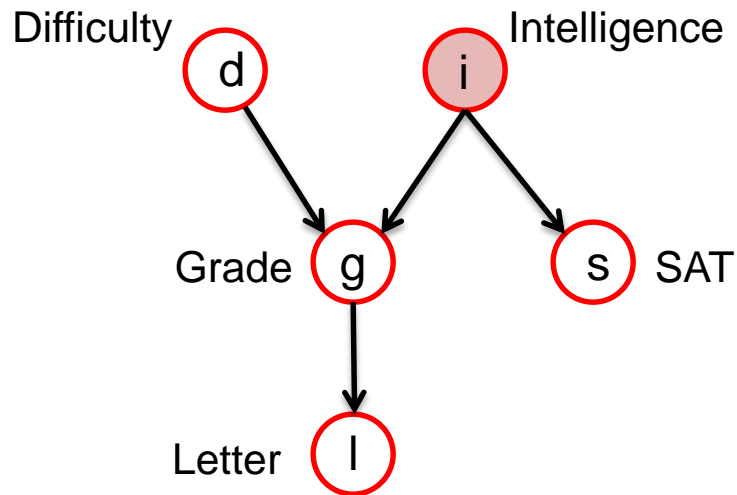
d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
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	l=0	l=1
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g=2	0.4	0.6
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# An Example: Now with real p's



$$p(d, i, g, s, l) = p(d)p(i)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

What is the probability of a good letter given that the student is normally intelligent

$$p(l=1|i=0)$$

$$p(d, i, g, s, l) = p(d, g, s, l | i) p(i) = p(d) p(i) p(g | i, d) p(s | i) p(l | g)$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0, i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1, i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0, i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1, i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1
i=0	0.95	0.05
i=1	0.2	0.8

	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01



## An Example: Now with real p's



What is the probability of a good letter given that the student is not intelligent

$$p(l=1|i=0)$$

$$p(d, g, s, l | i) =$$

$$p(d)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

Marginalizing the conditional probability

$$p(l=1|i) = \sum_{d, g, s} p(d)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

Sum over all  $2*3*2=12$  combinations

$$p(l=1|i=0) = 0.389$$

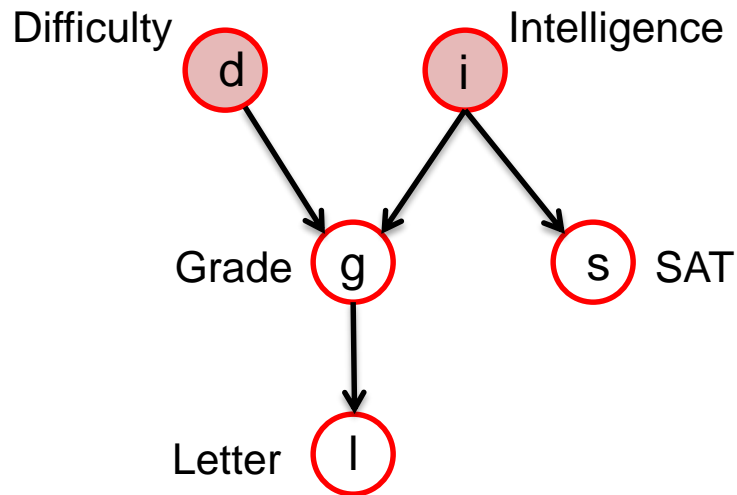
d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1,i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1
i=0	0.95	0.05
i=1	0.2	0.8

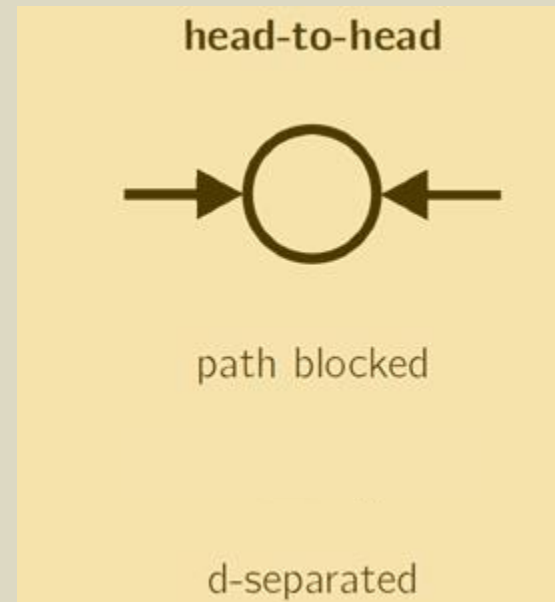
	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's



What is the probability of a good letter given that the student is normally intelligent and the exam is easy:  $p(l=1|i=0,d=0)$

$$p(d,i,g,s,l) = p(g,s,l | d,i) p(d,i) \\ = p(d)p(i)p(g|i,d)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$



Path from d to i is blocked.  $\rightarrow$  d,i are independent and  $p(d,i)=p(d)p(i)$

## An Example: Now with real p's

What is the probability of a good letter given that the student is normally intelligent and the exam is easy:  $p(l=1|i=0,d=0)$

$$p(g,s,l | d,i) = p(g | i,d)p(s | i)p(l | g)$$

Marginalizing the conditional probability

$$p(l=1 | i,d) = \sum_{g,s} p(g | i,d)p(s | i)p(l | g)$$

Sum over all  $2*3 = 6$  combinations

$$p(l=1 | i=0,d=0) = 0.513$$

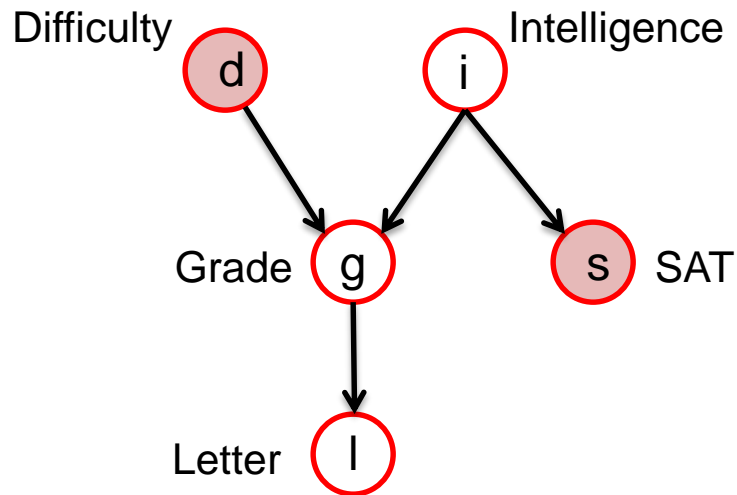
d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1,i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1
i=0	0.95	0.05
i=1	0.2	0.8

	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's

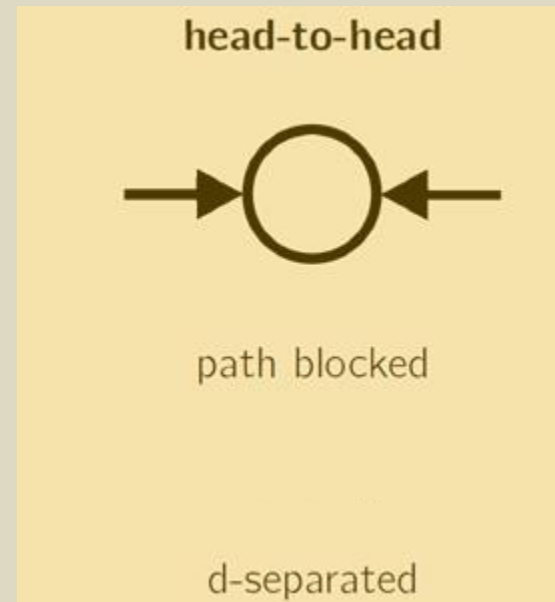


What the probability of a good letter given that you have a high Sat score and the exam is easy

$$p(l=1|s=1,d=0)$$

$$p(d,i,g,s,l) = p(g,s,l | d,s) p(d,s)$$

$$p(d,i,g,s,l) = p(g,s,l | d,s) p(d) p(s)$$



Path from d to s is blocked by g.  $\rightarrow$  d,s are independent and  $p(d,s)=p(d)p(s)$

# An Example: Now with real p's



What the probability of a good letter given that you have a high Sat score and the exam is easy

$$p(l=1|s=1,d=0)$$

$$p(d,i,g,s,l) = p(g,i,l | d,s)p(d)p(s)$$

$$p(i,g,l|d,s) = \frac{p(d,i,g,s,l)}{p(d)p(s)} \quad \text{keep in mind: } d,s \text{ are independent}$$

Joint probability given by the graphical model:

$$p(d,i,g,s,l) = p(d)p(i)p(g|d,i)p(s|i)p(l|g)$$

$$p(i,g,l|d,s) = \frac{\cancel{p(d)}p(i)p(g|d,i)p(s|i)p(l|g)}{\cancel{p(d)}p(s)}$$

$$p(i,g,l|d,s) = \frac{p(i)p(g|d,i)p(s|i)p(l|g)}{p(s)}$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1,i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1
i=0	0.95	0.05
i=1	0.2	0.8

	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's



We need to know  $p(s)$

We have  $p(s|i)$ , to find  $p(s)$  we need to marginalize  $p(s,i)$ .

To get  $p(s,i)$  we use the product rule

$$p(s) = \sum p(s,i) = \sum p(s|i)p(i)$$

$$p(s=1) =$$

$$p(s=1|i=0)p(i=0) +$$

$$p(s=1|i=1)p(i=1)$$

$$p(s=1) =$$

$$0.05 * 0.7 + 0.8 * 0.3 = 0.275$$

$$p(s=0) = 1 - p(s=1) = 0.725$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
d=0,i=1	0.9	0.08	0.02
d=1,i=1	0.5	0.3	0.2

	s=0	s=1	p(s i)
i=0	0.95	0.05	
i=1	0.2	0.8	

	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's

What the probability of a good letter given that you have a high Sat score and the exam is easy

$$p(l=1|s=1,d=0)$$

$$p(i, g, l|d, s) = \frac{p(i)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g)}{p(s)}$$

Marginalizing the conditional probability

$$\begin{aligned} p(l=1|s, d) &= \sum_{i, g} \frac{p(i)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g)}{p(s)} \\ &= \frac{1}{p(s)} \sum_{i, g} p(i)p(g|i, d)p(s|i)p(l|g) \end{aligned}$$

Sum over all  $2 \times 3 = 6$  combinations

$$p(l=1|s=1,d=0)$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
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	l=0	l=1
g=1	0.1	0.9
g=2	0.4	0.6
g=3	0.99	0.01

## An Example: Now with real p's

What the probability of a good letter given that you have a high Sat score and the exam is easy

$$p(l = 1 | s, d) = \sum_{i, g} \frac{p(i) p(g | i, d) p(s | i) p(l | g)}{p(s)}$$

$$p(l = 1 | s = 0, d = 0) = \frac{1}{p(s)} *$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (0.7 * 0.3 * 0.95 * 0.9 + \\ & 0.7 * 0.4 * 0.95 * 0.6 + \\ & 0.7 * 0.3 * 0.95 * 0.01 + \\ & 0.7 * 0.3 * 0.05 * 0.9 + \\ & 0.7 * 0.4 * 0.05 * 0.6 + \\ & 0.7 * 0.3 * 0.05 * 0.01) \end{aligned}$$

Sum over all  $2 * 3 = 6$  combinations

$$p(l = 1 | s = 0, d = 0) = 0.4953$$

d=0	d=1	i=0	i=1
0.6	0.4	0.7	0.3

	g=1	g=2	g=3
d=0,i=0	0.3	0.4	0.3
d=1,i=0	0.05	0.25	0.7
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# **Neuroinformatics Lecture**

**Topics:**

**Probability Distributions**

# Probability Distributions

We defined probability as:

$$p(X = x_i)$$

(probability that the random variable  $X$  takes the value  $x_i$ )

For some cases, we can write down analytically how the probability is dependent on  $x_i$ . Then we can define a **'distribution'** analytically.

**For example: So far we computed the probability 'by hand':**

Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.

**Here: 2 binary variables  $\rightarrow c$  can be 0, 1, or 2**

$c=0$	: (0,0)
$c=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)
$c=2$	: (1,1)

$p(c=0)$	: $p(0,0)$
$p(c=1)$	: $p(0,1)+p(1,0)$
$p(c=2)$	: $p(1,1)$



# Probability Distributions

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(probability that the random variable  $X$  takes the value  $x_i$ )

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Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.



$p(c=0)$	: $p(0,0)$	$p(0,0) = p(0)p(0)$	(the two flips are independent)
$p(c=1)$	: $p(0,1)+p(1,0)$	$p(0,1) = p(0)p(1)$	
$p(c=2)$	: $p(1,1)$	$p(1,0) = p(0,1)$	
		$p(1,1) = p(1)p(1)$	

# Probability Distributions

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Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.



$p(c=0)$	: $p(0,0)$	$p(0,0) = p(0)p(0)$	$= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25$
$p(c=1)$	: $p(0,1)+p(1,0)$	$p(0,1) = p(0)p(0)$	$= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25$
		$p(0,1) = p(1,0)$	$= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25$
$p(c=2)$	: $p(1,1)$	$p(1,1) = p(1)p(1)$	$= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25$

# Probability Distributions

We defined probability as:

$$p(X = x_i)$$

(probability that the random variable  $X$  takes the value  $x_i$ )

For some cases, we can write down analytically how the probability is dependent on  $x_i$ . Then we can define a **‘distribution’** analytically.

**For example: So far we computed the probability ‘by hand’:**

Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What’s the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.



$p(c=0)$	: $p(0,0)$	= 0.25
$p(c=1)$	: $p(0,1)+p(1,0)$	= 0.25+0.25 = 0.5
$p(c=2)$	: $p(1,1)$	= 0.25

$p(0,0) = p(0)p(0)$	= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25
$p(0,1) = p(0)p(1)$	= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25
$p(1,0) = p(1)p(0)$	= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25
$p(1,1) = p(1)p(1)$	= 0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25



**For example: So far we computed the probability 'by hand':**

Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.

$$\begin{aligned} p(c=0) &: p(0,0) &= 0.25 \\ p(c=1) &: p(0,1)+p(1,0) &= 0.25+0.25 = 0.5 \\ p(c=2) &: p(1,1) &= 0.25 \end{aligned}$$

**An analytical expression for that probability: the binominal distribution:**

Probability to get  $c$  heads for  $N=2$  flips given that the probability of a single head is  $\mu$

$$p(c|\mu, N) = J \cdot \mu^c (1 - \mu)^{N-c}$$



$c=0$	: (0,0)	$J= 1$
$c=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)	$J= 2$
$c=2$	: (1,1)	$J= 1$

Analytical definition of  
the **,distribution'**



**For example: So far we computed the probability 'by hand':**

Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.

$$\begin{aligned} p(c=0) &: p(0,0) &= 0.25 \\ p(c=1) &: p(0,1)+p(1,0) &= 0.25+0.25 = 0.5 \\ p(c=2) &: p(1,1) &= 0.25 \end{aligned}$$

**An analytical expression for that probability: the binominal distribution:**

Probability to get  $c$  heads for  $N=2$  flips given that the probability of a single head is  $\mu$

$$p(c|\mu, N) = J \cdot \mu^c (1 - \mu)^{N-c}$$

$$p(c = 0|\mu = 0.5, N = 2) = 1 \cdot 0.5^0 (1 - 0.5)^2 = 0.25$$

$c=0$	: (0,0)	$J= 1$
$c=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)	$J= 2$
$c=2$	: (1,1)	$J= 1$



**For example: So far we computed the probability 'by hand':**

Suppose we flip a coin and we assume it is a fair coin, i.e.  $p(X = \text{tail}) = 0.5$

What's the probability that we get  $c = 0, 1$  and  $2$  tails when we flip the coin twice.

$$\begin{aligned} p(c=0) &: p(0,0) &= 0.25 \\ p(c=1) &: p(0,1)+p(1,0) &= 0.25+0.25 = 0.5 \\ p(c=2) &: p(1,1) &= 0.25 \end{aligned}$$

**An analytical expression for that probability: the binominal distribution:**

Probability to get  $c$  heads for  $N=2$  flips given that the probability of a single head is  $\mu$

$$p(c|\mu, N) = J \cdot \mu^c (1 - \mu)^{N-c}$$

$$p(c = 1|\mu = 0.5, N = 2) = 2 \cdot 0.5^1 (1 - 0.5)^1 = 2 * 0.25$$

$c=0$	: (0,0)	$J= 1$
$c=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)	$J= 2$
$c=2$	: (1,1)	$J= 1$





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**An analytical expression for that probability: the binominal distribution:**

Probability to get  $c$  heads for  $N=2$  flips given that the probability of a single head is  $\mu$

$$p(c|\mu, N) = J \cdot \mu^c (1 - \mu)^{N-c}$$

$$p(c = 2|\mu = 0.5, N = 2) = 1 \cdot 0.5^2 (1 - 0.5)^0 = 0.25$$

$c=0$	: (0,0)	$J= 1$
$c=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)	$J= 2$
$c=2$	: (1,1)	$J= 1$



# Probability Distributions

We defined probability as:

$$p(X = x_i)$$

(probability that the random variable  $X$  takes the value  $x_i$ )

- **A Discrete Probability Distribution:**

A distribution is discrete if the random variable  $X$  is discrete, such that the range of  $X$  is finite or countably infinite.

*e.g. Poisson distribution, Bernoulli distribution, binomial distribution  
geometric distribution, negative binomial distribution*

- **A Continuous Probability Distribution:**

A distribution of a random variable  $X$  is called continuous if the range of  $X$  is uncountably infinite.

*e.g. normal, uniform, chi-squared, and others.*



## Discrete Distributions

- Bernoulli Distribution
- Binomial Distribution
- Poisson Distribution

## Continuous Distributions

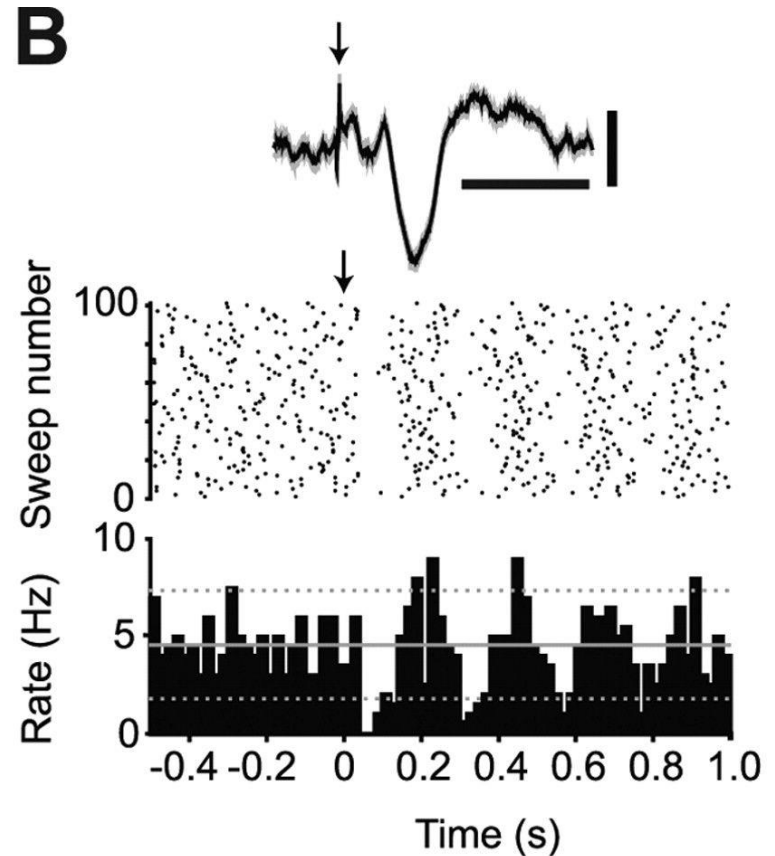
- Normal (Gauss)
- Gamma Distribution
- $\chi^2$  Distribution

Suppose we observe a spiking neuron

The neuron fires at:  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_N$



We can represent this time by a binary sequence when we bin time in small slices



Individual and population responses of dopaminergic substantia nigra neurons to an aversive electrical stimulus. **B**, PSTH and raster plot showing the inhibition of an individual dopaminergic neuron in response to stimulus delivery.



We begin by considering a single binary random variable  $x \in \{0, 1\}$ .

For example,  $x$  might describe the outcome of flipping a coin, with  $x = 1$  representing 'heads', and  $x = 0$  representing 'tails'. If the coin is fair, the probability is 0.5 for tails and heads.

In general, we can define a probability of tails and heads given a **parameter that we call  $\mu$**

$$p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu$$

Now we define a distribution (**Bernoulli Distribution**) that defines the probability of  $x$  given the distribution parameter  $\mu$

$$p(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x}$$

**Bernoulli Distribution (one function that describes the probability for all  $x$ )**



**Bernoulli Distribution** that defines the probability of  $x$ , i.e.  $x=1$  or  $x=0$ , given  $\mu$

$$p(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x}$$

$$p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu^1(1 - \mu)^{1-1} = \mu$$

$$p(x = 0|\mu) = \mu^0(1 - \mu)^{1-0} = 1 - \mu$$

with the probability of a heads defined by the parameter  $\mu$

$$p(x = 1|\mu) = \mu$$

The distribution is **ONE function** that analytically describes the probability for **all potential outcomes**.



## Summary: Bernoulli Distribution

Distribution:  $p(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x}$

Expected value:  $E[x] = \mu$

Variance:  $var[x] = \mu(1 - \mu)$

`Y = binopdf(x,n,p)`

For n=1, computes the Bernoulli pdf at each of the values in X using the corresponding probability P. The values in P must lie on the interval [0, 1].



## Discrete Distributions

- Bernoulli Distribution
- Binomial Distribution
- Poisson Distribution

## Continuous Distributions

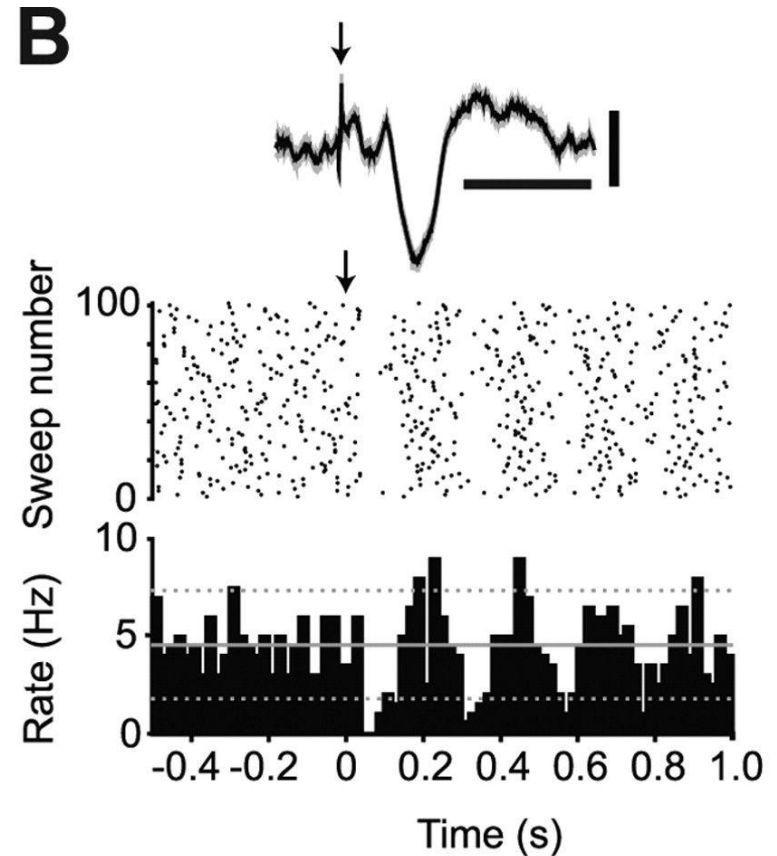
- Normal (Gauss)
- Gamma Distribution
- $\chi^2$  Distribution



Suppose we observe a spiking neuron in many trials.

We can represent every trial with an binary sequence.

T1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
T2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
T3	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
T4	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0



Individual and population responses of dopaminergic substantia nigra neurons to an aversive electrical stimulus. **B**, PSTH and raster plot showing the inhibition of an individual dopaminergic neuron in response to stimulus delivery.



The **binomial distribution** is a natural extension of the Bernoulli distribution.

Suppose that we observe a binary random variable  $X$  for  $N$  times.

Each outcome is Bernoulli distributed:  $p(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x}$

The outcome for each random variable is independent of the others. Moreover, the probability is the same, i.e. ***i.i.d.*** (**independent and identically distributed**).



1. What does i.i.d mean ?

*i.i.d*: means the random variables at hand are **independent** and **identically distributed**

2. What does i.i.d. of the random variables a,b,c mean for a factorisation of a joint probability  $p(a,b,c)$

**Independence of a,b,c implies** :  $p(a,b,c) = p(a)p(b)p(c)$

**identically distributed implies**: all three random variables a,b,c come from the same distribution. For example from a Bernoulli distribution. And that means that all their distributions are parameterized the same way. In case of the Bernoulli distribution they have the same  $\mu$ .

$$p(a,b,c) = \overbrace{p(a)p(b)p(c)}^{\text{Independence}} = \prod_{i=1}^3 \overbrace{p(x_i)}^{\text{identically distributed}}$$



The **binomial distribution** is a natural extension of the Bernoulli distribution.

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The outcome for each random variable is independent of the others. Moreover, the probability is the same, i.e. **i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed)**.

**What is the probability that we have  $k$  heads for  $N$  flips ?**

## What is the probability that we have k heads for N flips ?

For each flip it holds:  $p(x|\mu) = \mu^x(1 - \mu)^{1-x}$

1. We define a new random variable  $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$

2. We now define the probability of  $D$  that is the joint probability of the set of  $x_i$

$$p(D|\mu) = p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N|\mu)$$

3. All  $x_i$  are *i.i.d*, (independent and identically distributed)

$$p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(x_i|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mu^{x_i}(1 - \mu)^{1-x_i}$$

So far:  $x_i$  are *i.i.d*,  $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$ , and  $p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mu^x (1 - \mu)^{1-x}$

Actually we are interested in the probability of  $k$  that is  $p(k|\mu, N)$

(What is the probability that we have  $k$  heads for  $N$  flips? )

4. There are different  $D$ 's that are giving the same sum of heads  $k$ .

*i.e. 1,1,1,0 / 1,1,0,1 / 1,0,1,1 / 0,1,1,1 has all three heads*

$$p(k|\mu, N) = \sum_{j=1}^J p(D_j|\mu) \text{ with } D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\} \text{ and } k = \sum_i x_i^j$$

T1
T2
T3
T4

1
1
1
1

1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0
0	1	1	1

1	0	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1

1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	0	0	1

0
0
0
0

$k=4$

$k=3$

$k=2$

$k=1$

$k=0$

$$p(1|\mu, 4) = p(0,0,0,1|\mu) + p(0,0,1,0|\mu) + p(0,1,0,0|\mu) + p(1,0,0,0|\mu)$$

So far:  $x_i$  are *i.i.d*,  $D = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N\}$ , and  $p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mu^{x_i} (1 - \mu)^{1-x_i}$

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$$p(k|\mu, N) = \sum_{j=1}^J p(D_j|\mu) \text{ with } D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\} \text{ and } k = \sum_i x_i^j$$

3. Since all  $x_i$  *i.i.d*  $p(D_{j=l}|\mu) = p(D_{j=h}|\mu)$  (geeky way of saying: all  $p$  are the same)

$$p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$$

So far:  $p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$  with  $D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\}$  and  $k = \sum_i^N x_i^j$

3. Next we need to know  $J$  (number of  $D$ 's that have the same number of heads)

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot N}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot (N-k)} \quad \text{reads } N \text{ choose } k$$

Binomial coefficient:

Example: 2 binary variables  $\rightarrow$   $k$  can be 0, 1, or 2

$k=0$	: (0,0)	$J= 1$
$k=1$	: (0,1) ; (1,0)	$J= 2$
$k=2$	: (1,1)	$J= 1$



So far:  $p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$  with  $D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\}$  and  $k = \sum_i^N x_i^j$

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Binomial coefficient:

Example: 3 binary variables  $\rightarrow$   $k$  can be 0, 1, 2, or 3

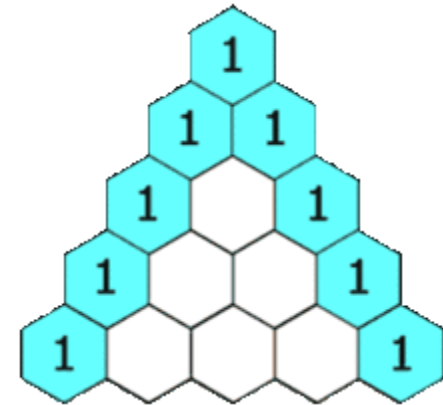
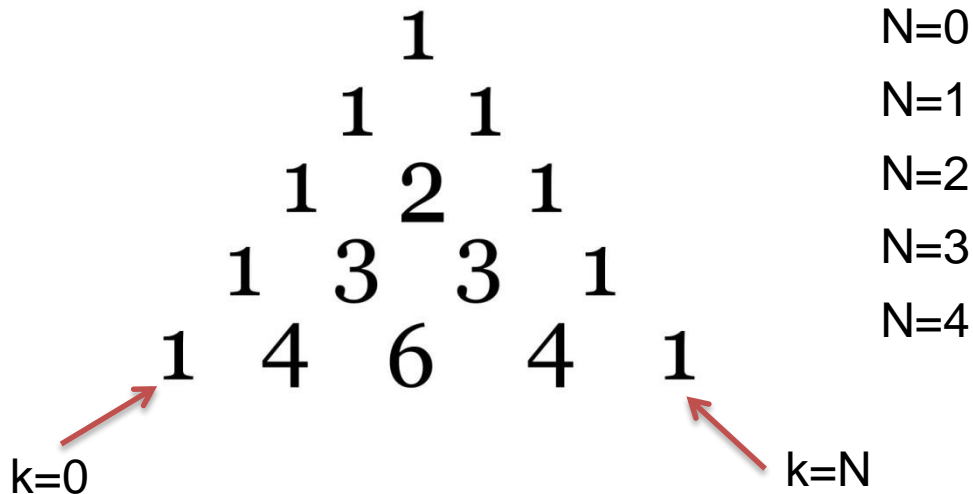
$k=0$	: (0,0,0)	$J= 1$
$k=1$	: (0,0,1) ; (0,1,0); (1,0,0)	$J= 3$
$k=2$	: (0,1,1) ; (1,0,1); (1,1,0)	$J= 3$
$k=3$	: (1,1,1)	$J= 1$

3. Next we need to know  $J$  (number of  $D$ 's that have the same number of heads)

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot N}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot (N-k)}$$

reads N choose k

# Pascal's triangle.



So far:  $p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$  with  $D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\}$  and  $k = \sum_i^N x_i^j$

3. Next we need to know  $J$  (number of  $D$ 's that have the same number of heads)

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot N}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot (N-k)} \quad \text{reads } N \text{ choose } k$$

Further link: You may still know the binomial coefficient from high school.

$$(x + y)^n = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} y + a_2 x^{n-2} y^2 + \dots + a_{n-1} x y^{n-1} + a_n y^n$$

$$a_j = \binom{n}{j}$$

So far:  $p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$  with  $D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\}$  and  $k = \sum_i^N x_i^j$

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot N}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot (N-k)} \quad \text{reads N choose k}$$

3. Next we use  $p(D|\mu)$  from the first steps

$$p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mu^{x_i} (1 - \mu)^{1-x_i}$$

$$p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^N \mu^{x_i} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^N (1 - \mu)^{1-x_i} \quad \text{with } \mu^0 = 1 \text{ and } \mu^1 = \mu$$

$$p(D|\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^k \mu \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{N-k} (1 - \mu)$$

$$p(D|\mu) = \mu^k (1 - \mu)^{N-k}$$

So far:  $p(k|\mu, N) = J \cdot p(D_j|\mu)$  with  $D_j = \{x_1^j, x_2^j, \dots, x_N^j\}$  and  $k = \sum_i^N x_i^j$

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot N}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot (N-k)} \quad \text{reads } N \text{ choose } k$$

3. Next we use  $p(D|\mu)$  from the first steps

$$p(k|\mu, N) = J p(D|\mu) \\ \text{with } p(D|\mu) = \mu^k (1 - \mu)^{N-k}$$

$$p(k|\mu, N) = J p(D|\mu) = \binom{N}{k} \cdot \mu^k (1 - \mu)^{N-k}$$

**That's the binominal distribution:**

Probability to get  $k$  heads for  $N$  flips given that the probability of a single flip is  $\mu$

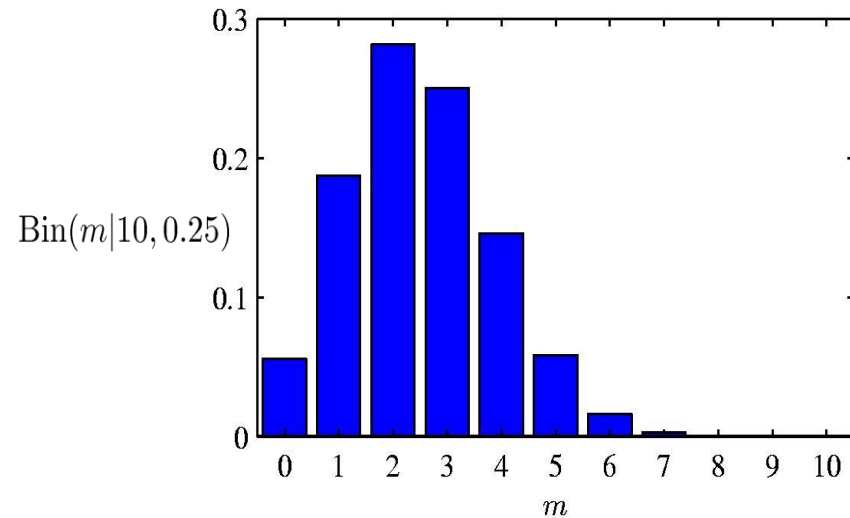
$$p(k|\mu, N) = \binom{N}{k} \cdot \mu^k (1 - \mu)^{N-k}$$

# Binomial Distribution

$$\text{Bin}(m|N, \mu) = \binom{N}{m} \mu^m (1 - \mu)^{N-m}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^N m \text{Bin}(m|N, \mu) = N\mu$$

$$\text{var}[m] \equiv \sum_{m=0}^N (m - \mathbb{E}[m])^2 \text{Bin}(m|N, \mu) = N\mu(1 - \mu)$$



`Y = binopdf(x,n,p)`

computes the binomial pdf at each of the values in X using the corresponding parameters in N and P. The parameters in N must be positive integers, and the values in P must lie on the interval [0, 1].



1. What does i.i.d mean ?
2. What does i.i.d. of the random variables a,b,c mean for a factorisation of a joint probability  $p(a,b,c)$
3. What does N choose k mean ? Compute J for  $N=4$  and  $k=0$ ,  $k=1$ ,  $k=2$ ,  $k=3$ ,  $k=4$

$$J = \binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

Timer (8min):

Start

Stop

1. What does i.i.d mean ?

*i.i.d*: means the random variables at hand are **independent** and **identically distributed**

2. What does i.i.d. of the random variables a,b,c mean for a factorisation of a joint probability  $p(a,b,c)$

**Independence of a,b,c implies** :  $p(a,b,c) = p(a)p(b)p(c)$

**identically distributed implies**: all three random variables a,b,c come from the same distribution. For example from a Bernoulli distribution. That means that all their distribution is parameterized the same way. In case of the Bernoulli distribution they have the same  $\mu$ .

$$p(a,b,c) = \overbrace{p(a)p(b)p(c)}^{\text{Independence}} = \prod_{i=1}^3 \overbrace{p(x_i | \mu)}^{\text{identically distributed}}$$





$$\binom{N}{k} = \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

$$\binom{4}{0} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{0!(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4)} = 1$$

$$\binom{4}{1} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{1!(1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3)} = \frac{4}{1} = 4$$

$$\binom{4}{2} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 2(1 \cdot 2)} = \frac{3 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 2} = 6$$

$$\binom{4}{3} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3(1)} = \frac{4}{1} = 4$$

$$\binom{4}{4} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4(0!)} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$