

Probability

Bootcamp

13 Aug, 2024

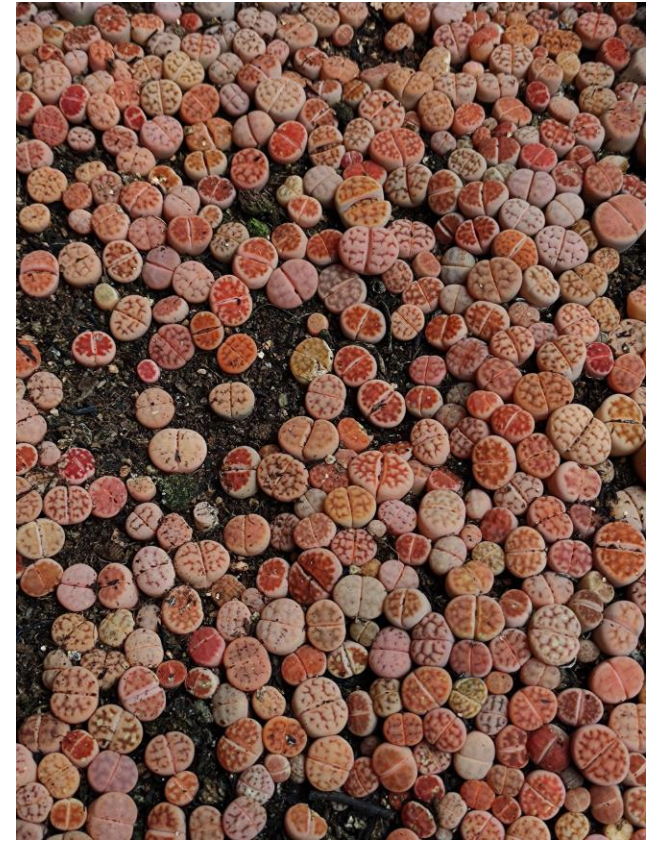
I am Zijian

2nd year, still rotating... I rotated with Tatiana, Jonathan, and Jonathan(currently)

General interest in memory, learning, and how to extract sth from neural activity(latent variable decoding)

Please feel free to ask any questions

Now, my major hobby is collecting shells.
Previously, I grew succulent plants and climbed mountains, but I give them up now because of the rainy weather and getting lazier and lazier.



Overview

1. Probability basics
2. Gaussian and Poisson distribution
3. Bayes' theorem

Part 1

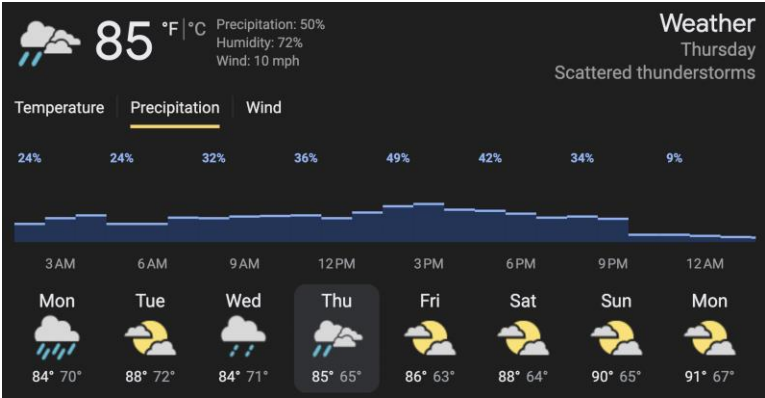
Basic of probability

- Interpretations of probability
- PDF & PMF, normalization
- Joint, marginal, condition probability

Approaches(interpretations) of probability

None of these can guarantee perfect estimation!

	Definition	Pros	Cons
Classical probability	$P(A) = \frac{\text{Number of favorable outcomes for event A}}{\text{Total number of outcomes}}$	Simplest, Clear math	Too-idealize
Frequentist probability	$P(A) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{Number of times event A occurs}}{n}$	Objective, Empirical-basis, Model free	Inconsistent, not always practical
Subjective probability	Based on subjective experience, knowledge...	Flexible, Widest-applicative	Subjective, Low reliability



Accurate probability estimation is hard!



Head



Tail

Flipping the coins 350,757 times
to reveal that same side landing
has ~1% more probability

Table 1: By-person summary of the probability of a same side landing.

Person	Same side	Flips	Coins	Proportion [95% CI]	Joined
XiaoyiL	780	1600	2	0.487 [0.463, 0.512]	Marathon-MSc
JoyceP	1126	2300	3	0.490 [0.469, 0.510]	Marathon-MSc
AndreeaZ	2204	4477	4	0.492 [0.478, 0.507]	Marathon-MSc
KaleemU	7056	14324	8	0.493 [0.484, 0.501]	Bc Thesis
FelipeFV	4957	10015	3	0.495 [0.485, 0.505]	Internet
ArneJ	1937	3900	4	0.497 [0.481, 0.512]	Marathon-MSc
AmirS	7458	15012	6	0.497 [0.489, 0.505]	Bc Thesis
ChrisGI	4971	10005	5	0.497 [0.487, 0.507]	Marathon-Manheim
FrederikaA	5219	10500	5	0.497 [0.487, 0.507]	Internet
FranziskaN	5368	10757	3	0.499 [0.490, 0.508]	Internet
JasonN	3352	6700	7	0.500 [0.488, 0.512]	Marathon-PhD
RietvanB	1801	3600	4	0.500 [0.484, 0.517]	Marathon-PhD
PierreG	7506	15000	9	0.500 [0.492, 0.508]	Bc Thesis
KarolineH	2761	5500	5	0.502 [0.489, 0.515]	Marathon-PhD
SjoerdT	2510	5000	5	0.502 [0.488, 0.516]	Marathon-MSc
SaraS	5022	10000	3	0.502 [0.492, 0.512]	Marathon-Manheim
HenrikG	8649	17182	8	0.503 [0.496, 0.511]	Marathon
IrmaT	353	701	1	0.504 [0.467, 0.540]	Bc Thesis
KatharinaK	2220	4400	5	0.504 [0.490, 0.519]	Marathon-PhD
JillR	3261	6463	2	0.505 [0.492, 0.517]	Marathon
FrantisekB	10148	20100	11	0.505 [0.498, 0.512]	Marathon
IngeborgR	4340	8596	1	0.505 [0.494, 0.515]	Marathon
VincentO	2475	4900	5	0.505 [0.491, 0.519]	Marathon-MSc
EricJW	2071	4100	5	0.505 [0.490, 0.520]	Marathon-MSc
MalteZ	5559	11000	7	0.505 [0.496, 0.515]	Marathon-Manheim
TheresaL	1769	3500	4	0.505 [0.489, 0.522]	Marathon-MSc
DavidV	7586	14999	5	0.506 [0.498, 0.514]	Bc Thesis
AntonZ	5069	10004	2	0.507 [0.497, 0.516]	Marathon-Manheim
MagdaM	2510	4944	6	0.508 [0.494, 0.522]	Marathon-MSc
ThomasB	2540	5000	5	0.508 [0.494, 0.522]	Marathon-PhD
JonasP	5080	9996	5	0.508 [0.498, 0.518]	Marathon
BohanF	1118	2200	3	0.508 [0.487, 0.529]	Marathon-MSc
HannahA	1525	3000	4	0.508 [0.490, 0.526]	Marathon-MSc
AdrianK	1749	3400	3	0.514 [0.498, 0.531]	Marathon-MSc
AaronL	3815	7400	5	0.515 [0.504, 0.527]	Marathon-MSc

Two types of random variables

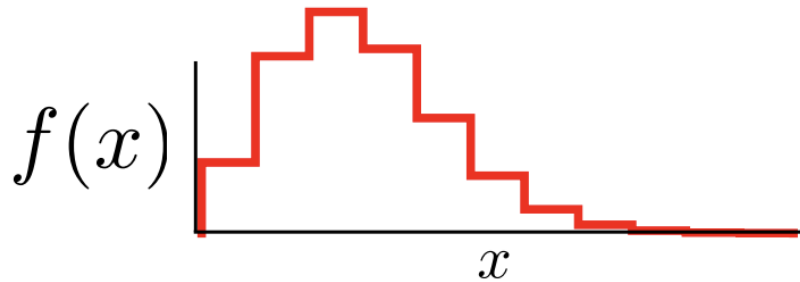
continuous

discrete

discrete probability distribution

takes finite (or countably infinite) number of values, eg $x \in \mathbb{N}$

probability mass function (pmf):

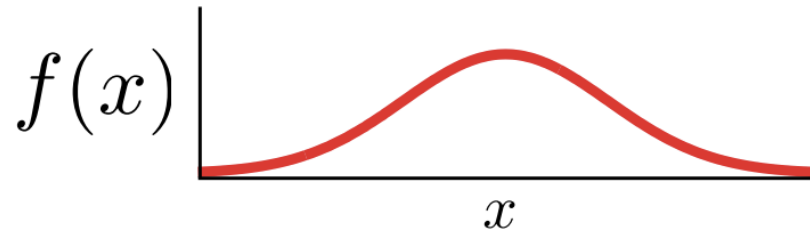


- $f(x_i) \geq 0$ for all i non-negative
- $\sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i) = 1$ sums to 1
- $P(x = a) = f(a)$ gives probability of observing a particular value of x

continuous probability distribution

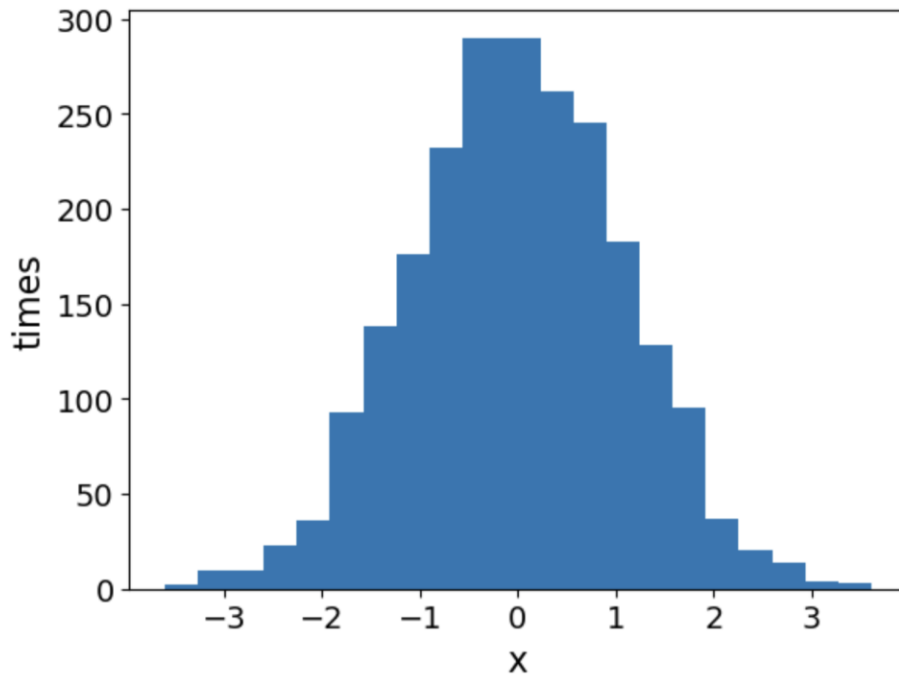
takes values in a continuous space, e.g., $x \in \mathbb{R}$

probability density function (pdf):

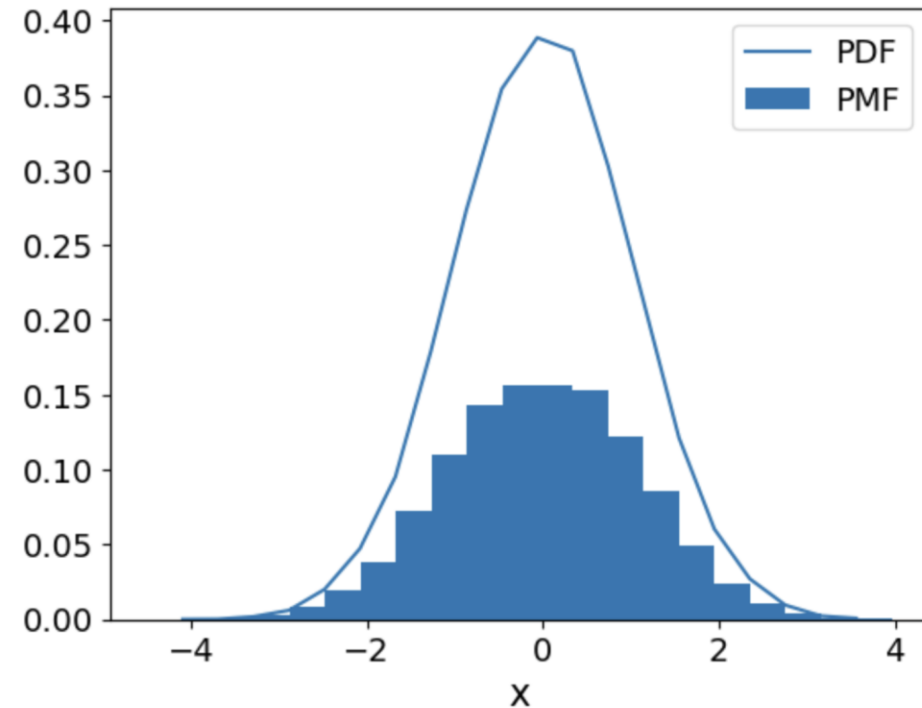
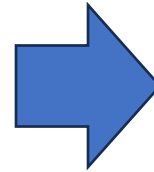


- $f(x) \geq 0$ for all x non-negative
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ integrates to 1
- $P(x = a) = 0$
- $P(a < x < b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ } gives probability of x falling within some interval

Estimation of PMF and PDF from data samples



Sample counts



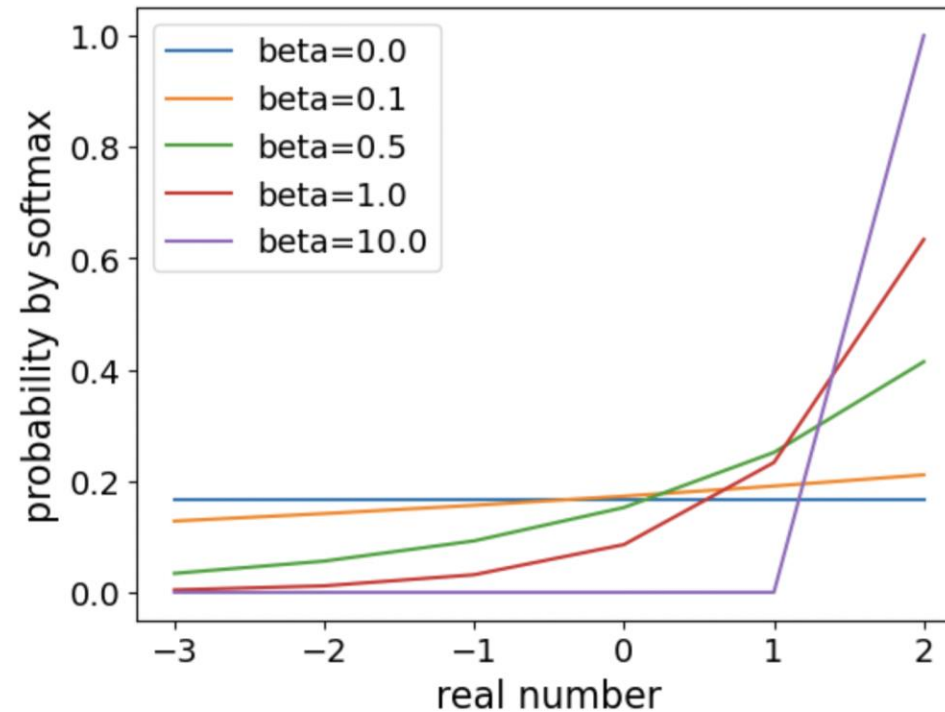
```
matplotlib.pyplot.hist(x, bins=None, range=None, density=False,  
weights=None, cumulative=False, bottom=None, histtype='bar', align='mid',  
orientation='vertical', rwidth=None, log=False, color=None, label=None,  
stacked=False, *, data=None, **kwargs) # \[source\]
```

Application of normalization

Softmax

$$\sigma(\mathbf{z})_i = \frac{e^{\beta z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{\beta z_j}}$$

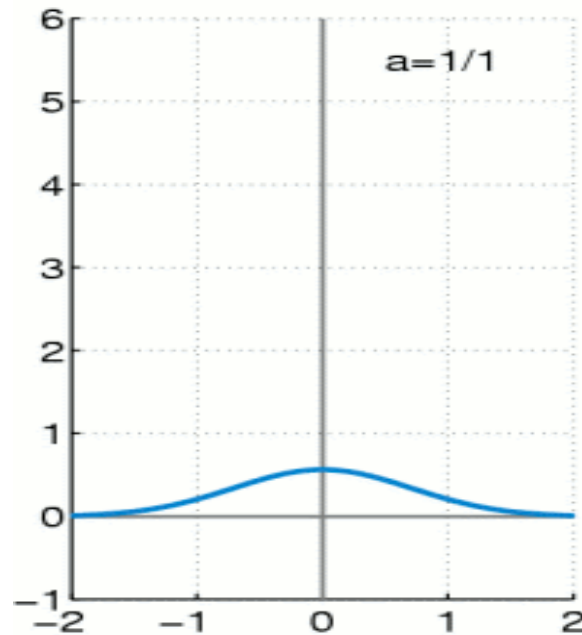
Make sure it sums
up to 1



Dirac Delta function

“Impluse function”

Describes continuous variable that only happens at only one point



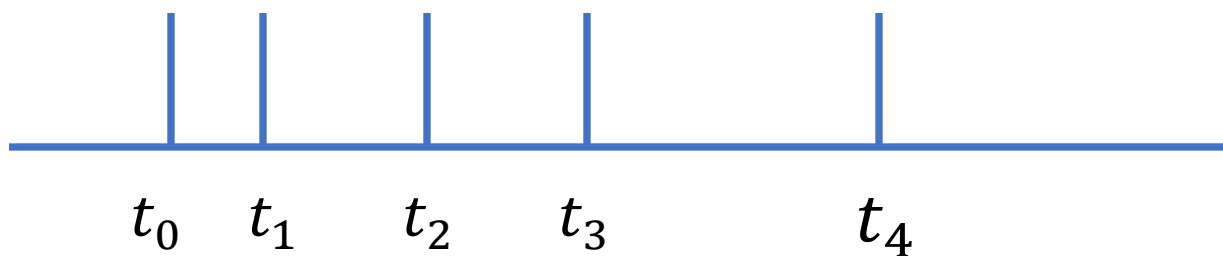
Requires $\int P(x)dx = 1$ and $P(x) = 0$ for all $x \neq 0$

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a^2}} e^{-\left(\frac{x}{2a^2}\right)^2}$$

Infinity high peak!

Can you write down an alternative form of the Delta function?
(hint: the limit of a uniform distribution)

Spike train



$$S(t) = \sum_i \delta(t - t_i)$$

$$\int_{t_a}^{t_b} S(t) dt = \text{the spike counts during } [t_a, t_b]$$

A quick recap of joint, marginal, and conditional probability

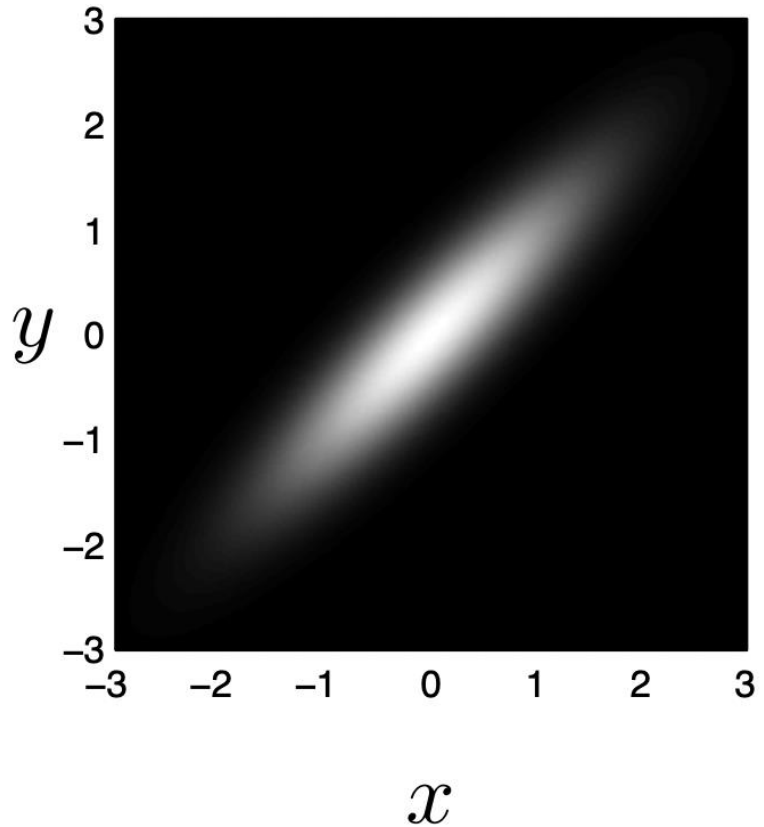
		$P(x,y)$		
y	3	0.1	0	0.1
	2	0	0.3	0
	1	0.2	0.1	0.2
		1	2	3
		x		

1. Compute the marginal $P(x)$
2. Compute the marginal $P(y)$
3. Compute the conditional $P(y \mid x = 2)$
4. Compute the conditional $P(x \mid y = 1)$
5. What is the most probable value for y ?
6. What is the conditional $P(x \mid y > 1)$?
7. What is the conditional $P(x \mid x = y)$?
8. What is the conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[x \mid y = 3]$

joint distribution

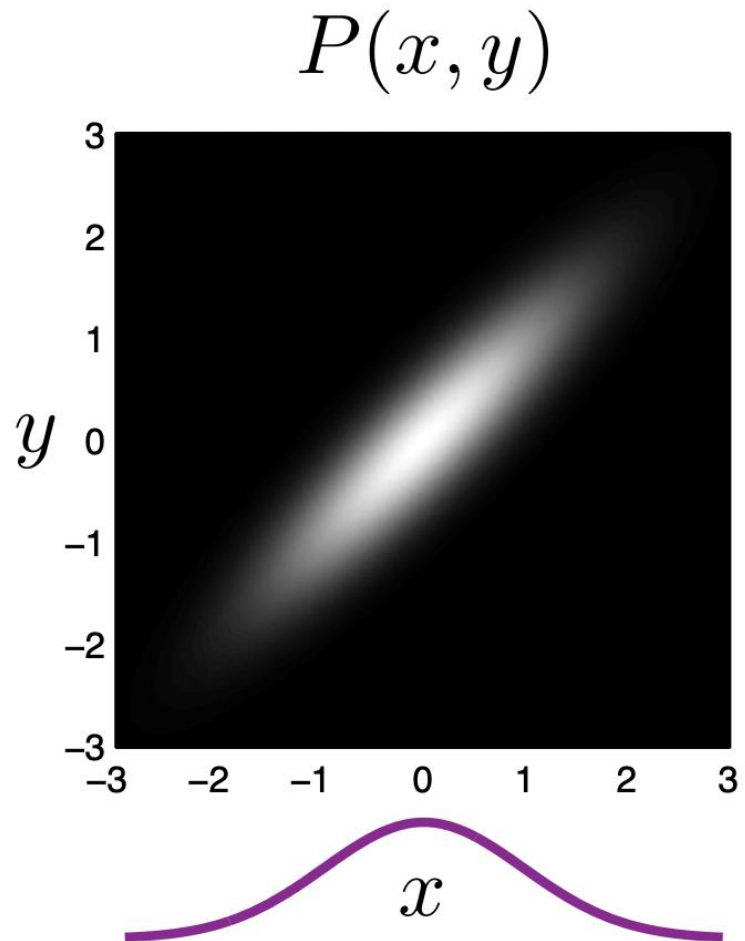
$P(x, y)$

- positive
- sums to 1



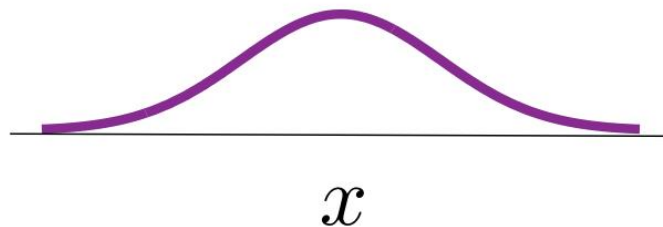
$$\iint P(x, y) dx dy = 1$$

marginalization (“integration”)



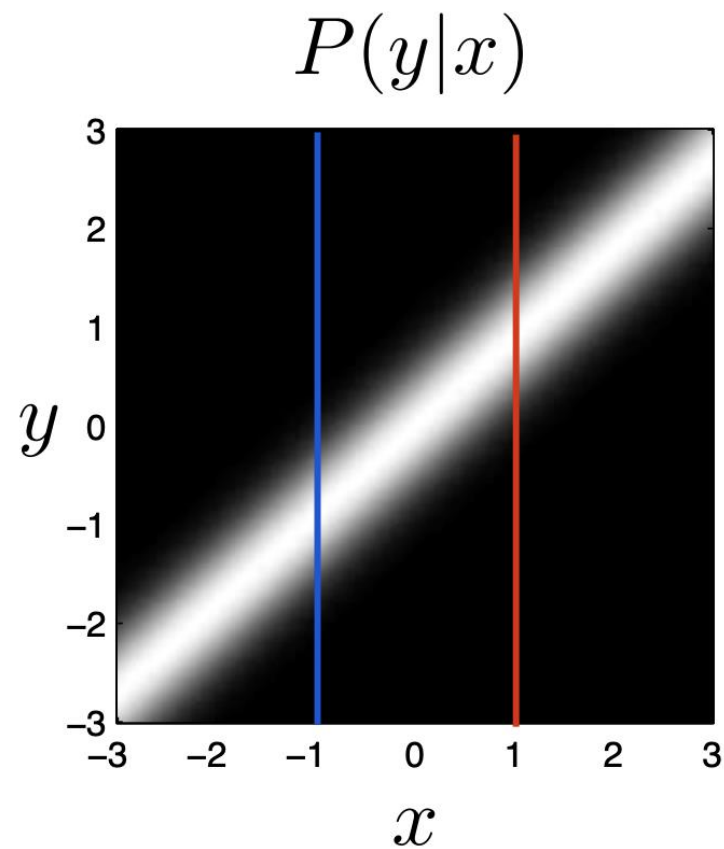
“stacking”

$$P(x) = \int P(x, y) dy$$



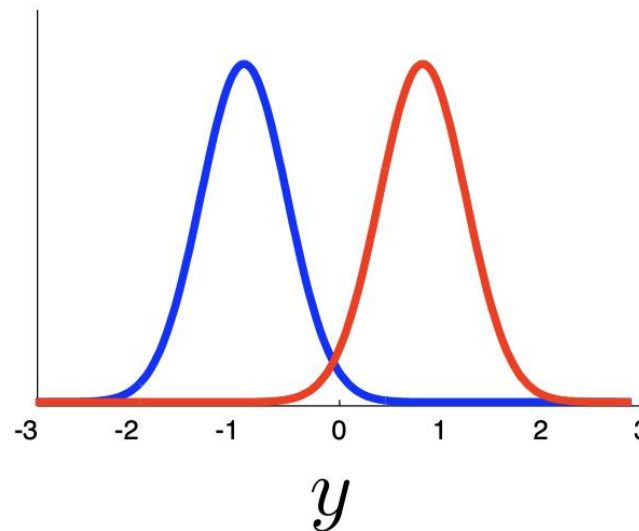
Very very frustrating in high-dimension

conditional densities

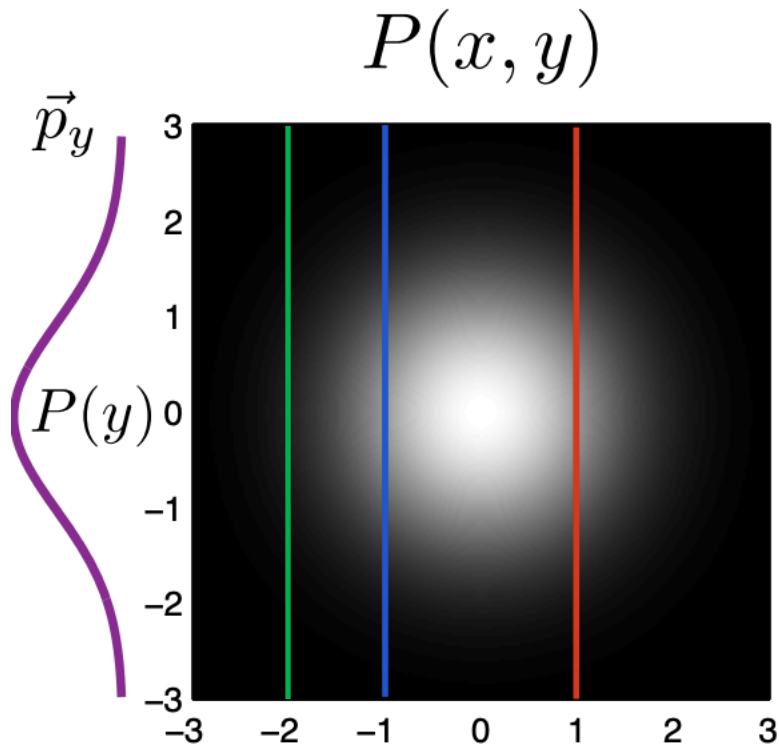


$$P(y|x) = \frac{P(x, y)}{P(x)}$$

“Slicing and
renormalizing”



independence



Original definition:

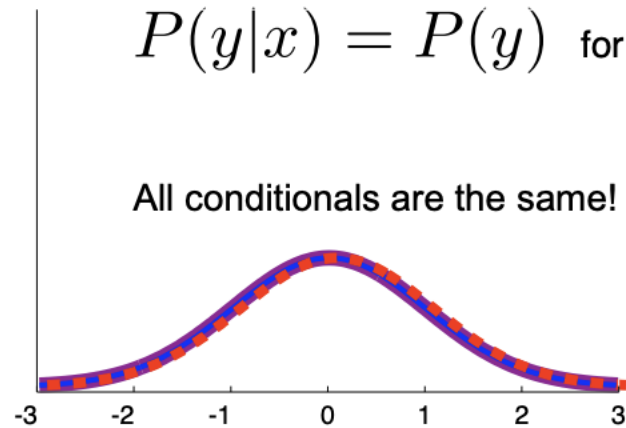
$$P(x, y) = P(x)P(y)$$

Equivalent definition:

$$P(y|x) = P(y) \text{ for all } x$$



Prove it!



Why does slicing in different parts of the sphere result in the same marginal distribution?

Correlation vs. Dependence

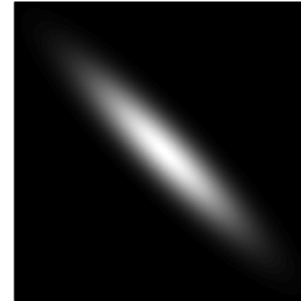
1. Correlation coefficient

$$\text{corr}(x, y) = \frac{\mathbb{E}[(x - \bar{x})(y - \bar{y})]}{\sqrt{\text{var}(x)\text{var}(y)}}$$

positive correlation



negative correlation



Linear relationship
between x and y

Q: Can you draw a distribution that is uncorrelated but dependent?

Q: if two random variables are independent, are they correlated?

Part 2

Gaussian and Poisson distribution

- PDF of Gaussian
 - Central limit theorem
 - Standardization
 - Multivariate Gaussian
-
- Definition of Poisson distribution
 - Deviation from the binomial distribution

Gaussian distribution

Worth memorizing it!

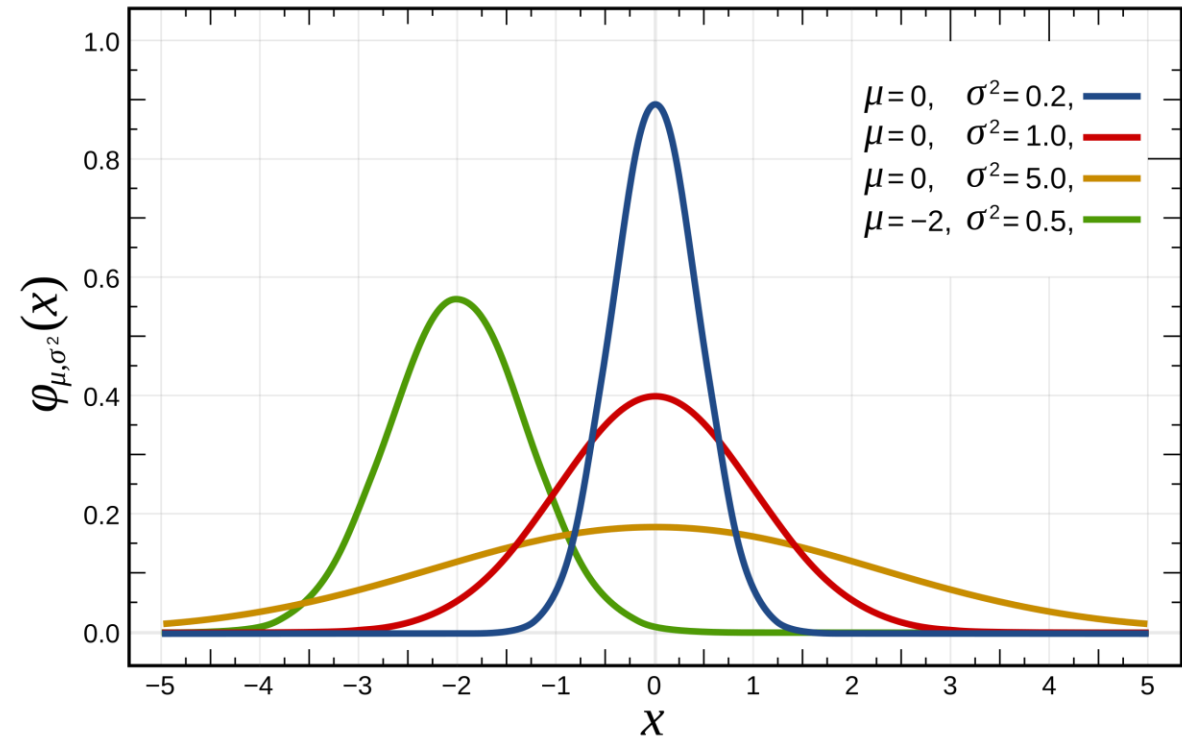
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Mean

Variance

Notation: $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Or $P(x) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2)$

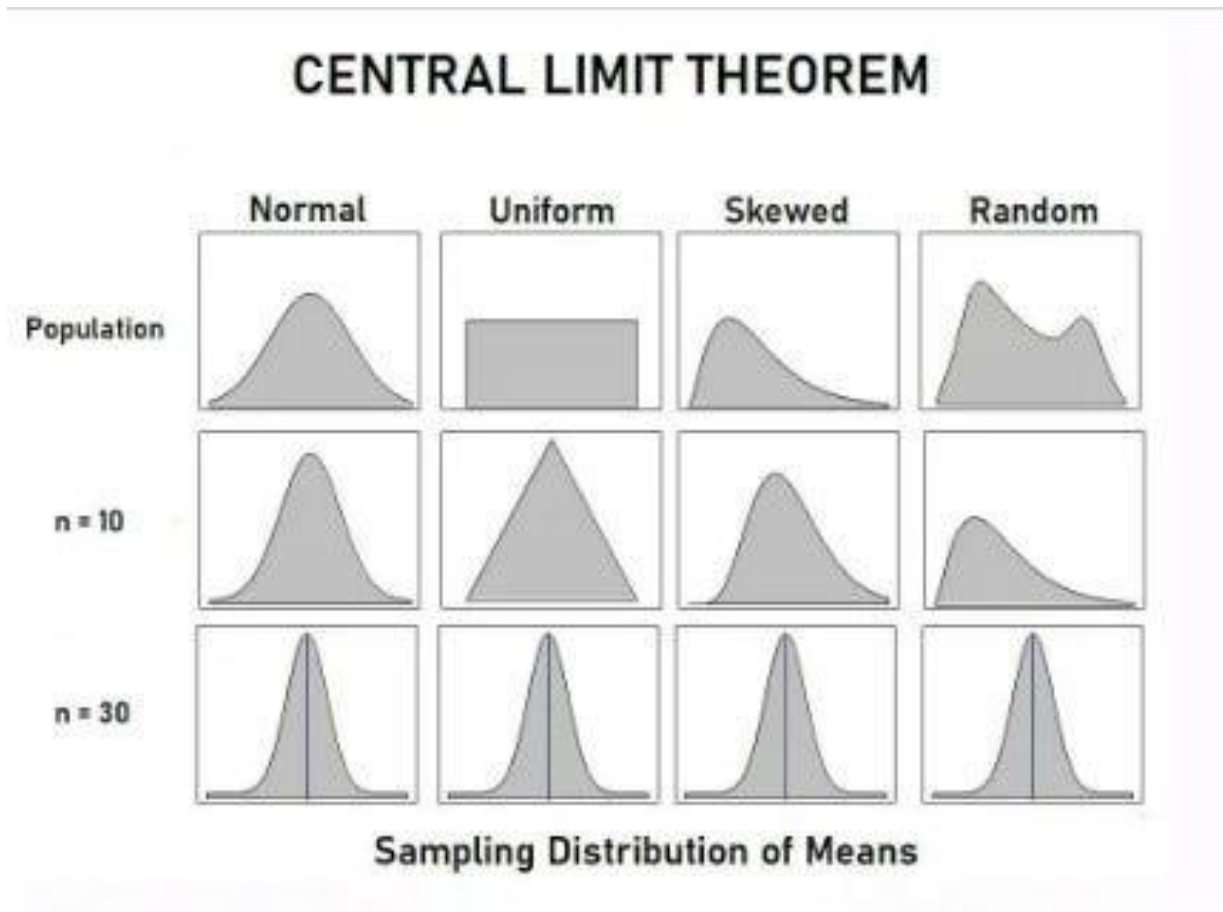


Symmetry

Central limit theorem

i.i.d: identical and independent distributed

The sum of many i.i.d random variables is Gaussian, regardless of their original distribution

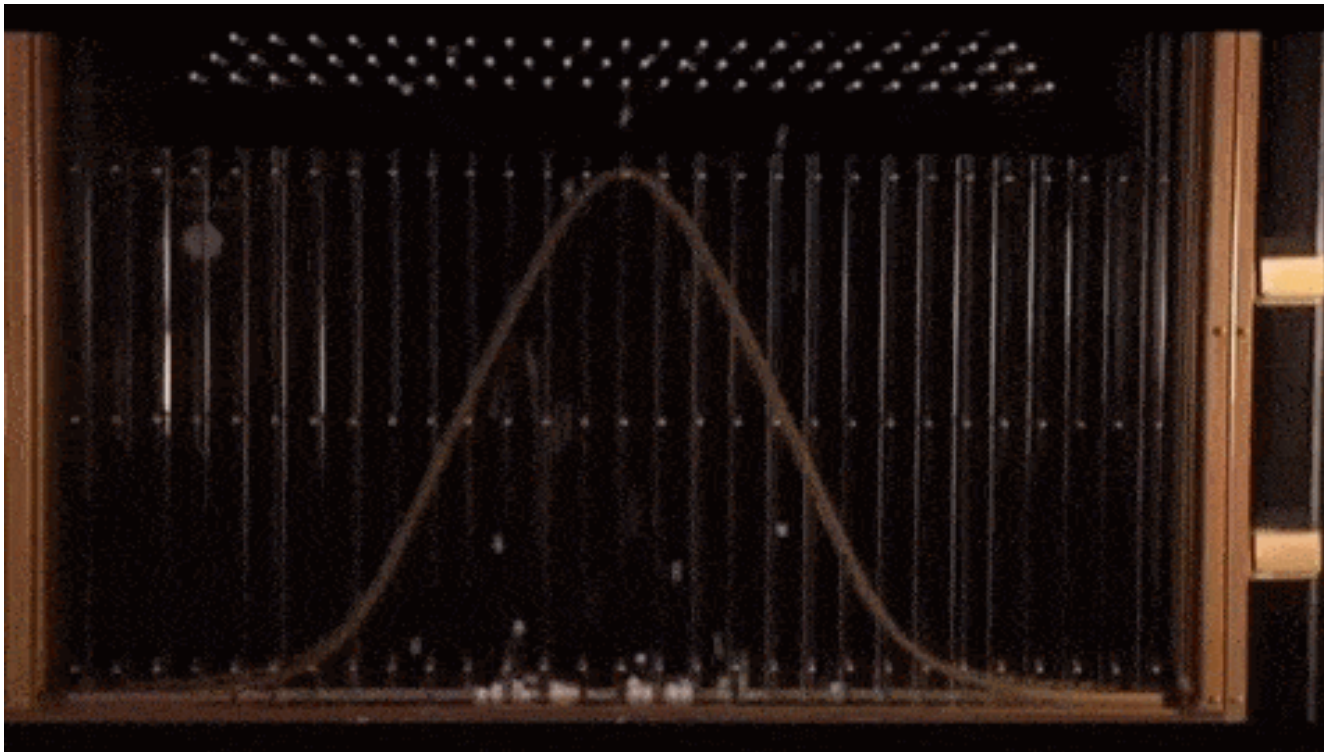
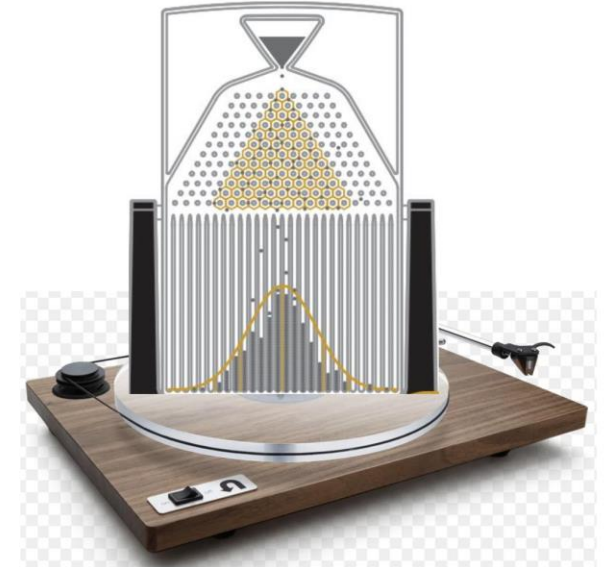
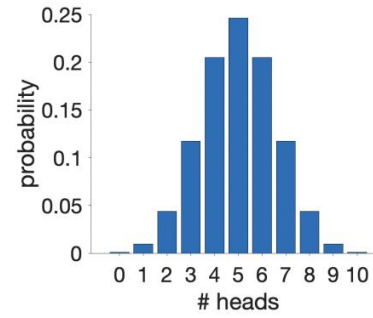


If the mean of the distribution is μ and the variance is σ^2 , then the sum $\sim \mathcal{N}(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$

That is why Gaussian is everywhere!

Galton board

binomial $P(k|n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$
(sum of n coin flips)



$$n \rightarrow \infty, k \sim \mathcal{N}(np, np(1 - p))$$

Standardization of Gaussian distribution

Any Gaussian distribution can be expressed by a standard Gaussian random variable

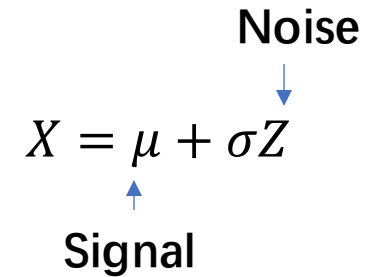
$$Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

For any random variable $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we have

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z$$

Reversely, any random variable can be standardized as a standard Gaussian

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

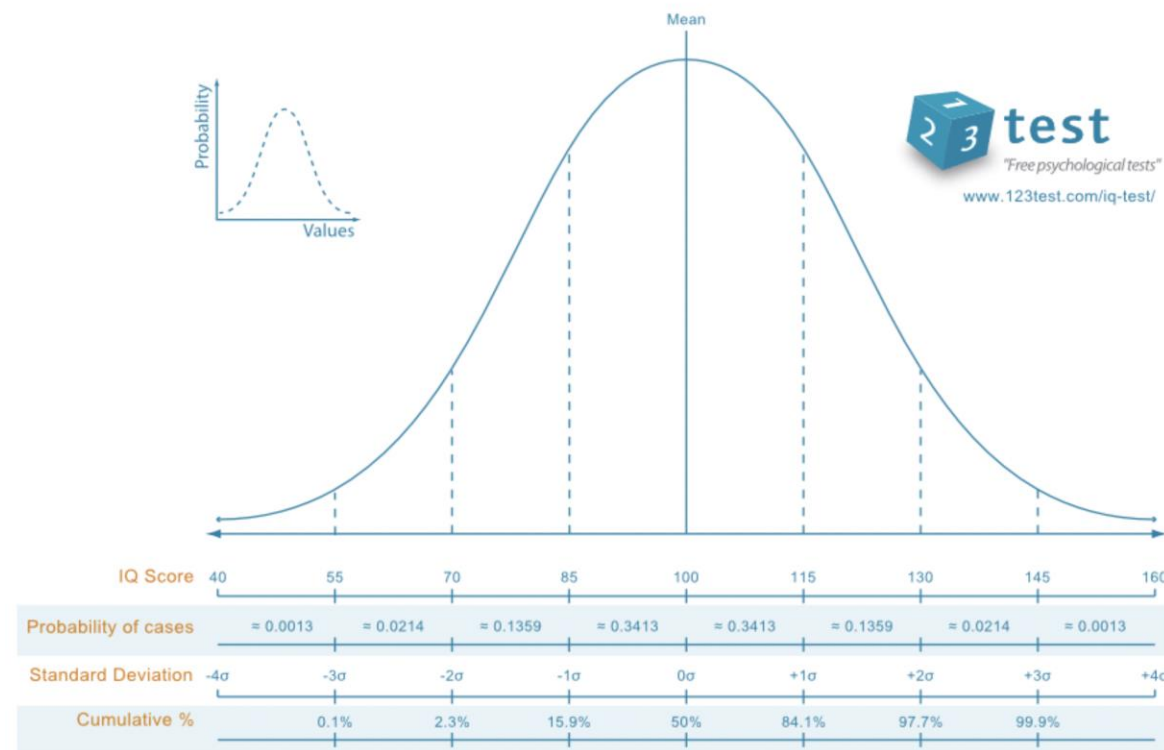
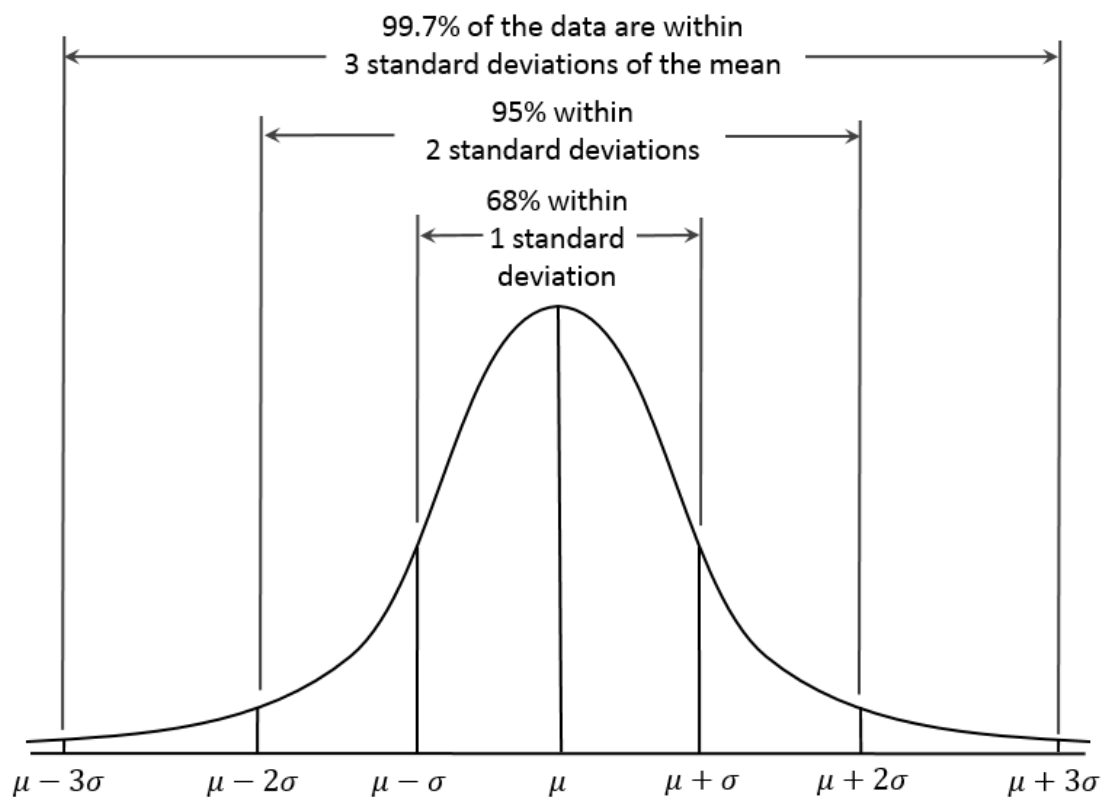

$$X = \mu + \sigma Z$$

Signal

Noise

Z-score!

IQ test



$$P(X > \mu + \sigma) = P(\mu + \sigma Z > \mu + \sigma) = P(Z > 1)$$

$$P(X > \mu + 2\sigma) = P(\mu + \sigma Z > \mu + 2\sigma) = P(Z > 2)$$

CDF

Every "proportion" problem in Gaussian can transformed into a standard Gaussian distribution problem

Exercise

You will roll a 6 sided dice 10 times. Let X be the total value of all 10 dice $= X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{10}$. You win the game if $X \leq 25$ or $X \geq 45$. Use the central limit theorem to calculate the probability that you win.

Recall that $E[X_i] = 3.5$ and $\text{Var}(X_i) = \frac{35}{12}$.

Also recall that if the mean of the distribution is μ and the variance is σ^2 , then the sum $\sim \mathcal{N}(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$

For any random variable $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, we have $X = \mu + \sigma Z$

Cumulative density function

```
import math
def phi(x):
    """
    Cumulative distribution function
    the standard normal distribution
    """
    return (1.0 + math.erf(x / sqrt(2.0))) / 2.0
```

ANS behind

Bonus: Try to use another method to evaluate the probability of winning and compare it with the result from the central limit theorem.

Connection to One-Sample t-Test

“to determine whether the sample mean \bar{x} is significantly larger than a threshold μ_0 ”

Procedure:

Collect n samples and calculate mean \bar{x} and standard deviation s

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

When $n \rightarrow \infty$, t is a standard Gaussian variable, so we estimate how is t likely to appear in this value.

In practice, n is small, t 's exact distribution is determined by n . The smaller the n , the heavier the tail.

Multivariate Gaussian distribution

$$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)^T$$

$$\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

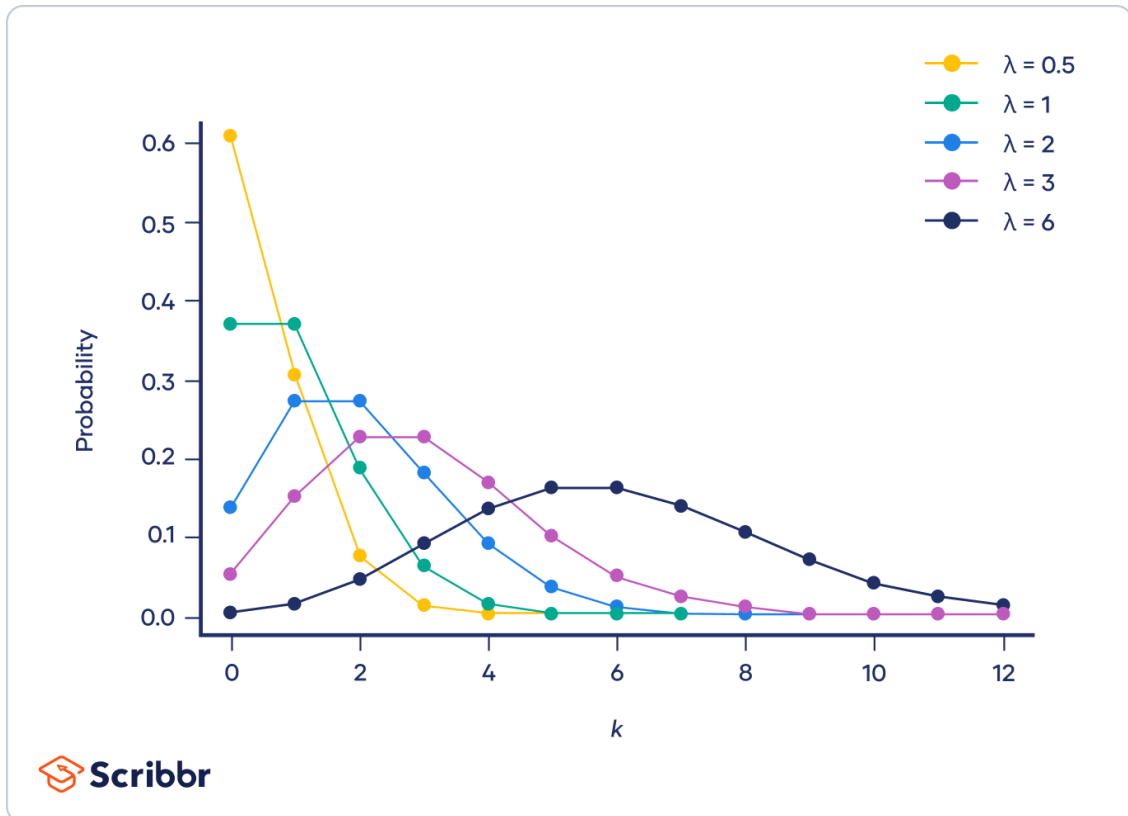
$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}}$$

numpy.random.multivariate_normal

```
random.multivariate_normal(mean, cov, size=None, check_valid='warn',  
tol=1e-8)
```

Poisson distribution

Definition: describes the **number** of events occurring within a **fixed interval** of time or space, given that these events occur with a known constant rate and independently of the time since the last event.



PMF!

Always positive

Only one parameter λ

$$P(k) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$

How does this come out?

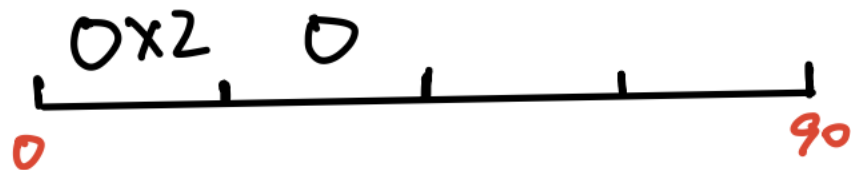
Consider a 90-minute football game with $k=3$ goals

Now let's segment the game into N chunks, and assume each chunk has probability p to have a goal, $1-p$ without a goal.

If $N=4$ and the game is not very dramatic

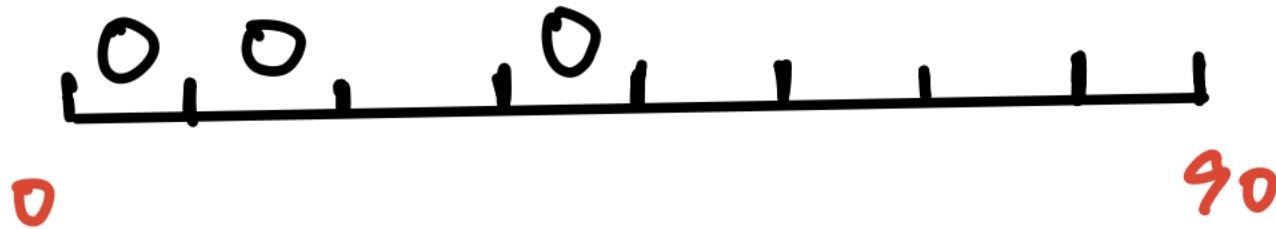


However, it is possible to have 2 or more goals in one chunk!



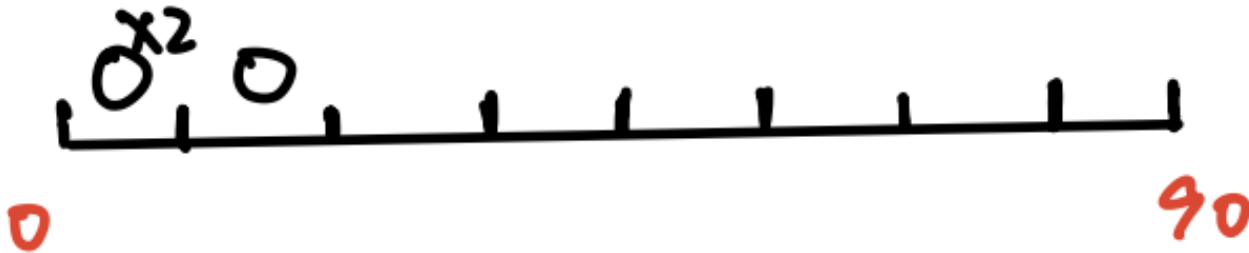
**Binomial
distribution fails!**

Try to make more chunks



$$P(K=3) = \binom{9}{3} p^3 (1-p)^6$$

Still may be over-crowded for one chunk...



So...

Infinite chunks!



$$P(k=3) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \binom{N}{3} p^3 (1-p)^{N-3}$$

0

90

For any goal number k $P(k) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}$

$\lambda = Np$ Rate (=3 in this case)

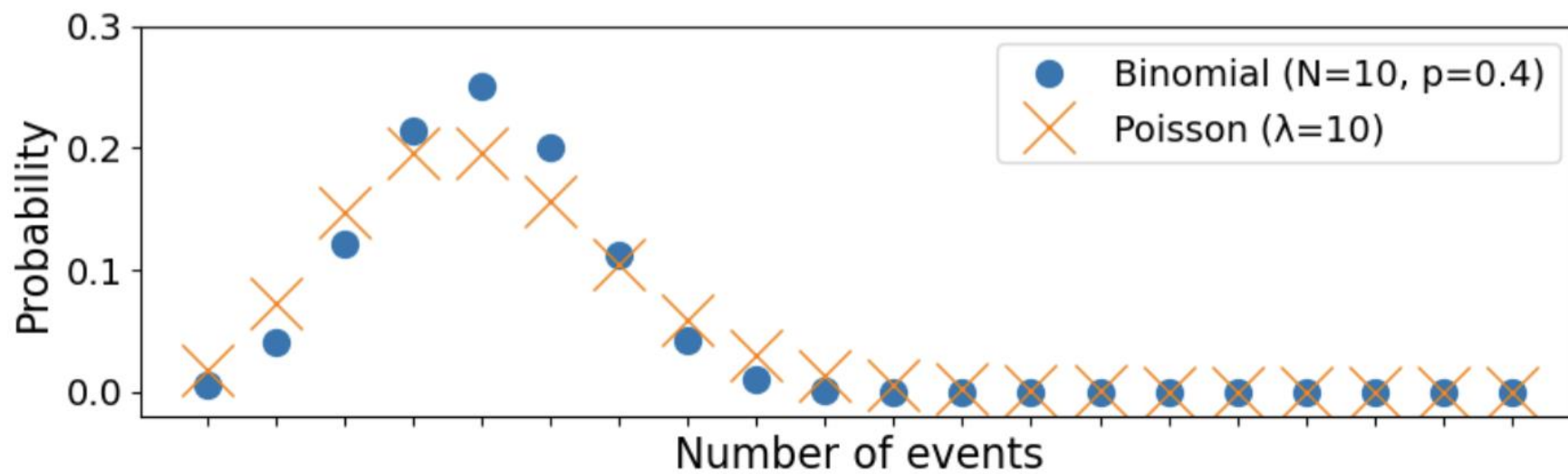
$p = \frac{\lambda}{N}$ Infinitely small

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \binom{N}{k} \left(\frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{N}\right)^{N-k} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$

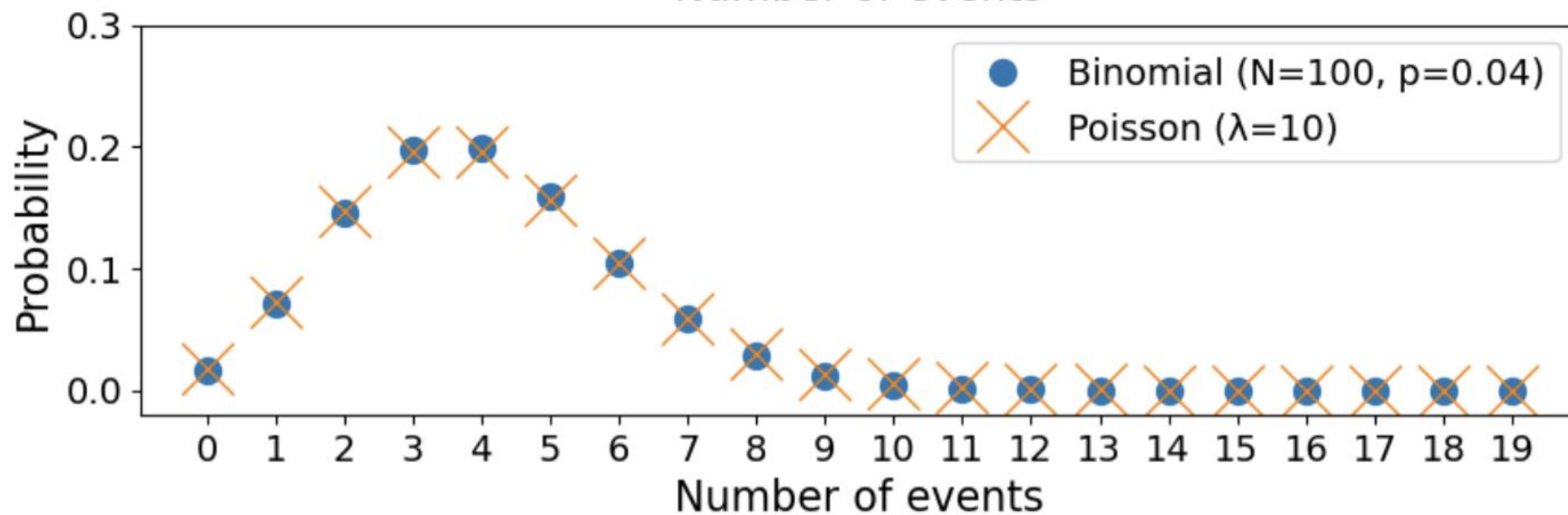
Poisson
distribution

Definition: describes the **number** of events occurring within a **fixed interval** of time or space, given that these events occur with a known constant rate and independently of the time since the last event.

Binomial PMF vs Poisson PMF



$$\lambda = Np$$



Quick questions:

1. The firing rate of a neuron is 10spk/s, what is the probability of this neuron spiking 20 times in a second?
2. In the last 100 years, there have been 93 earthquakes measuring 6.0 or more on the Richter scale. What is the probability of having 3 earthquakes in the same year that all measure 6.0 or more?

Part3: Bayes' theorem

- 1. Content of Bayes' theorem**
- 2. Intuition of Bayes' theorem**

Bayes' theorem

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

Proof:

$$P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$

$$P(A, B) = P(B|A)P(A)$$



Interpretation

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & \text{Likelihood} & & \text{Prior} \\ \text{Posterior} & & & & \\ P(A|B) & = & \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} & & \\ & & \text{Evidence} & & \end{array}$$

A: unknown
B: known

A: parameter of the model
B: model and data

A: latent state
B: behavior/neural data

A: neural activity
B: stimulus

...

Apply for everything!

An intuition for Bayesian estimation

Medical testing

A random person goes to the doctor to get a medical test for a rare disease. On average, only 1% of the population has this disease. The test is pretty accurate: it gives a positive result for 99% of those who have the disease, and gives negative result for 90% of those who do not have the disease. What are the chances that this person has the disease if the test comes out positive?

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P(\text{has disease}|+) = \frac{P(+|\text{has disease})P(\text{has disease})}{P(+)}$$

Here

A: unknown, if has the disease

B: known, test result

Goal:

$$P(\text{has disease}|+) = \frac{P(+|\text{has disease})P(\text{has disease})}{P(+)}$$

$$P(+|\text{has disease}) = 0.99$$

“The test is pretty accurate: it gives a positive result for 99% of those who have the disease, and gives negative result for 90% of those who do not have the disease.”

$$P(\text{has disease}) = 0.01$$

“On average, only 1% of the population has this disease.”

How about $P(+)$?

$$P(+) = P(+|has\ disease)P(has\ disease) + P(+|no\ disease)P(no\ disease)$$

“The test is pretty accurate: it gives a positive result for 99% of those who have the disease, and gives negative result for 90% of those who do not have the disease.”

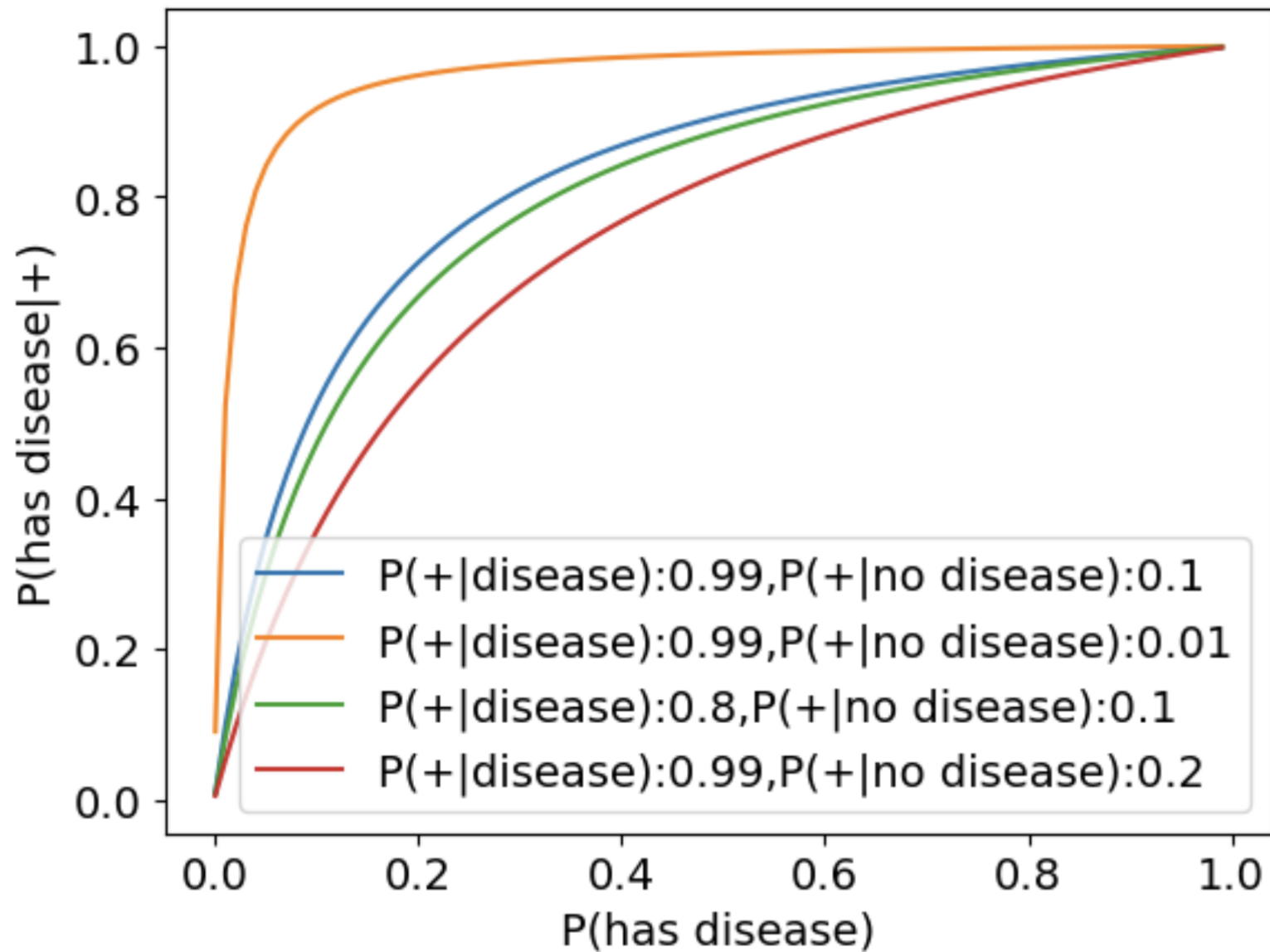
$$P(+|no\ disease) = 0.1$$

“On average, only 1% of the population has this disease.”

$$P(no\ disease) = 0.99$$

$$P(+) = 0.99 * 0.01 + 0.1 * 0.99 = 0.1089$$

$$P(has\ disease|+) = \frac{P(+|has\ disease)P(has\ disease)}{P(+)} = \frac{0.99 * 0.01}{0.1089} \approx 9\%$$



Another intuition for Bayesian estimation



Monty Hall problem

“Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors: Behind one door is a car; behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say No. 1, and the host, who knows what's behind the doors, opens another door, say No. 3, which has a goat. He then says to you, "Do you want to pick door No. 2?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice?”

Exhaustion method

Behind door 1	Behind door 2	Behind door 3	Result if staying at door #1	Result if switching to the door offered
Goat	Goat	Car	Wins goat	Wins car
Goat	Car	Goat	Wins goat	Wins car
Car	Goat	Goat	Wins car	Wins goat

If staying, the chance to win is $\frac{1}{3}$

If switching, is $\frac{2}{3}$!

Tackled by Bayes' theorem

Equivalent to solve:

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E|H)P(H) + P(E|not H)P(not H)}$$

Notations	H	E
	door 1 has a car behind it	The host has revealed a door with a goat behind it

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$$P(H) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(\text{not } H) = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$P(E|H) = 1$$

$$P(E|\text{not } H) = 1$$

The host can always open a door with a goat behind it whatever door you choose

$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E|H)P(H) + P(E|\text{not } H)P(\text{not } H)} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Probability to win if stick to door 1

So $P(\text{not } H|E) = \frac{2}{3}$ Probability to win if switch

If the host just randomly open an remaining door

$$P(H) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(\text{not } H) = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$P(E|H) = 1$$

$$P(E|\text{not } H) = \frac{1}{2}$$

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$$P(H|E) = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E)} = \frac{P(E|H)P(H)}{P(E|H)P(H) + P(E|\text{not } H)P(\text{not } H)} = \frac{1}{2}$$