ML & Advanced Analytics For Biomedicine

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Today

- Probability Theory
- Bayesian Statistics
- Naive Bayes Classifier



Probability Theory

- Probability Theory is the cornerstone of ML. Almost all arguments are probabilistic.
 - when event A occurs, B generally follows
 - complicated model of a million possible events, and wish to simplify the model by allowing it to neglect the least likely events



Possible Outcomes: H, T

Probabilities: Pr(H) = Pr(T) = 0.5

$$\frac{\#H}{\#Tosses} = \frac{\#H}{\#H + \#T} \longrightarrow 0.5 \tag{1}$$



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- Notion of Independence
- General Notion of Probability Measure



Notion of Independence



Possible Outcomes: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6

Probabilities:
$$Pr(1) = Pr(2) = Pr(3) = Pr(4) = Pr(5) =$$

$$Pr(6) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\forall i, \frac{\#i}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=6} \#i} \longrightarrow \frac{1}{6} \tag{2}$$



Possible Outcomes: $(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), \dots, (6, 6)$ Probabilities: $\forall i, j, Pr((i, j)) = \frac{1}{36}$

$$\forall i, \frac{\#i}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=6} \#i} \longrightarrow \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} \tag{3}$$



Notion of Independence



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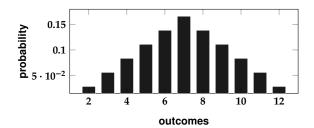


Combining Events

What is the probability distribution of the sum of the rolls?



```
1 + 1 = 2
          2 + 1 = 3
                     3 + 1 = 4
                                4 + 1 = 5
                                            5 + 1 = 6
                                                        6 + 1 = 7
          2 + 2 = 4
                     3 + 2 = 5
                               4+2=6 5+2=7
                                                        6 + 2 = 8
1 + 2 = 3
1 + 3 = 4
          2 + 3 = 5
                     3 + 3 = 6
                               4 + 3 = 7
                                           5 + 3 = 8
                                                        6 + 3 = 9
1 + 4 = 5
          2 + 4 = 6
                     3 + 4 = 7
                              4+4=8 5+4=9
                                                       6 + 4 = 10
1 + 5 = 6
         2 + 5 = 7
                     3 + 5 = 8
                              4 + 5 = 9
                                            5 + 5 = 10
                                                       6 + 5 = 11
1 + 6 = 7
          2 + 6 = 8
                     3 + 6 = 9
                                4 + 6 = 10
                                            5 + 6 = 11
                                                       6 + 6 = 12
```





Combining Events

- what is the probability that either a 1 or 6 come up on any particular toss?
 - \bullet Pr(1) + Pr(6) = (0+5)/36 = 5/36
- what is the probability that the outcome is prime?
 - Pr(2) + Pr(3) + Pr(5) + Pr(7) + Pr(11) = (1+2+4+6+2)/36 = 15/36 = 5/12



$$Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) - Pr(A \cap B) \tag{4}$$

A and B are independent \Leftrightarrow :

$$Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A)Pr(B) \tag{5}$$



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$$Pr(A \cup B) = Pr(A) + Pr(B) - Pr(A \cap B)$$

A and B are independent \Leftrightarrow :

$$Pr(A \cap B) = Pr(A)Pr(B) \tag{5}$$

Q. What happens to the equality when A and B are not independent? It is possible that $Pr(A \cap B) < Pr(A)Pr(B)$?

Can you give an example?

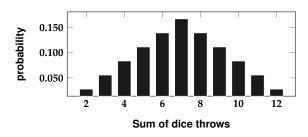
(6)

(4)



Random Variables & Probability Distributions

What is the connection between sample space, event probabilities, and random variables?



Define variable X : Sum of Dice Throws

Then X is a function that maps the sample space to the space of integers.

$$X: \Omega \to \mathbb{N} \tag{7}$$

Here
$$\mathcal{S} = (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), \cdots, (6, 6)$$

Then, we can ask:

What is the probability that X takes the value 4?
What is the probability that X takes the value between 4 and 6?



Random Variables & Probability Distributions

A random variable $X:\Omega\to E$ is a measurable function from a set of possible outcomes Ω to a measurable space E

Let Ω be the sample space. In the example of 2 dice, the sample space is the set of all possible outcomes $(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (6, 6)$.

Then $X: \Omega \to E$ is a function on the sample space.

For some subset $S \subset E$, we can then calculate:

$$Pr(X \in S) = Pr(\{\omega \in \Omega : X(\omega) \in S\})$$
 (8)

Example of Dice:

Random Variable
$$U = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (6, 6)\}$$
 (9)
 $\Omega = 2^{U}$ (Sample space)
 $\mu: \Omega \to [0, 1]$ (Prob. Measure)
 $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ (10)
 $\forall a \in U, \mu(\{a\}) = 1/36$ (11)
 $\forall a, b \in U, \mu(\{a, b\}) = \mu(a) + \mu(b)$ (12)
 $X: \Omega \to \mathbb{N}$ (13)

$$\mu(\emptyset) = 0$$
 (10)
 $\forall a \in U, u(\{a\}) = 1/36$ (11)

$$\forall a, b \in U, \mu(\{a, b\}) = \mu(a) + \mu(b)$$
 (12)

$$X: \Omega \to \mathbb{N}$$
 (13)

(9)

$$\forall (i,j) \in U, X((i,j)) = i+j \tag{14}$$



Random Variables & Probability Distributions

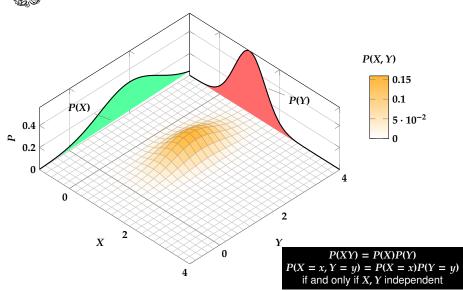
- Random variables can be discrete or continuous.
- O For any discrete random variable, we can define a corresponding discrete distribution.
- O We also can define the cumulative distribution, which is $Pr(X \le x)$



- O CDFs are always monotonicaly non-decreasing
- $^{\rm O}$ In the continuous domain, the analogous notion to "probability distribution" in the discrete case is "probability density function".
- O Loosely speaking the density function is the derivative of the distribution. You have to be careful about the differentiation.

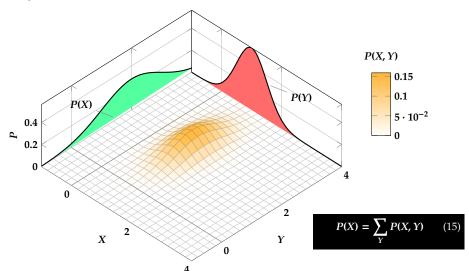


Joint Distributions





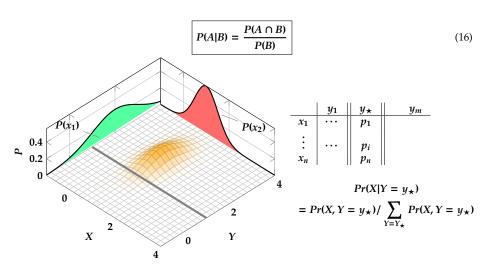
Marginal Distributions





Conditional Probability

Incorporating knowledge of events



The Chain Rule

$$P(A,B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)}P(B) = P(A|B)P(B)$$
 (17)

This generalizes to n variables:

$$P(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{i-1})$$
(18)



Bayes Rule

DID THE SUN JUST EXPLODE? (IT'S NIGHT, SO WE'RE NOT SURE.)





THE PROBABILITY OF THIS RESULT HAPPENING BY CHANCE IS $\frac{1}{36}$ =0027. SINCE $\rho < 0.05$, I conclude: THAT THE SUN HAS EXPLODED.



BAYESIAN STATISTICIAN:

BET YOU \$50 IT HASN'T













$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{\sum P(B|A)P(A)}$$
(19)

O Why is this advantageous?

Example (Chance of rare disease given positive test)

A blood test for a rare disease correctly returns positive 99% of the time if the subject indeed has the disease. And falsely indicates a positive result in 1% of subjects who do not have the disease. The prevalence of the disease in the population is 0.1%.

What is the probability that you have the disease if you test positive?

$$Pr(H|E) = \frac{Pr(E|H)Pr(H)}{Pr(E|H)Pr(H) + Pr(E|\neg H)Pr(\neg H)}$$

$$= \frac{0.99 \times 0.001}{0.99 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999} = 0.0902 \approx 9\%$$
(21)



Independence and Conditional Independence

O Independence $(X \perp Y)$

$$P(XY) = P(X)P(Y) \tag{22}$$

$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(X|Y)}{P(Y)} = P(X) \tag{23}$$

$$P(Y|X) = P(Y) \tag{24}$$

O Conditional Independence $((X \perp Y)|Z)$

$$P(X|ZY) = P(X|Z) \tag{25}$$

$$P(Y|ZX) = P(Y|Z) \tag{26}$$

$$P(XY|Z) = P(X|Z)P(Y|Z)$$
(27)

Example 2

Example (Chance of rare disease given mutiple positive tests)

A blood test for a rare disease correctly returns positive 99% of the time if the subject indeed has the disease. And falsely indicates a positive result in 1% of subjects who do not have the disease. The prevalence of the disease in the population is 0.1%.

What is the probability that you have the disease if you test positive twice?

$$Pr(H|E) = \frac{Pr(E|H)Pr(H)}{Pr(E|H)Pr(H) + Pr(E|\neg H)Pr(\neg H)}$$
(28)

$$= \frac{0.99 \times 0.001}{0.99 \times 0.001 + 0.01 \times 0.999} = 0.0902 \approx 9\%$$
 (29)

$$Pr(H|E) = \frac{Pr(E|H)Pr(H)}{Pr(E|H)Pr(H) + Pr(E|\neg H)Pr(\neg H)}$$
(30)

$$= \frac{0.99 \times 0.0902}{0.99 \times 0.0902 + 0.01 \times (1 - 0.0902)} = 0.908 \approx 91\%$$
 (31)



Bayesian Mechanics





Bayesian Inference
$$x \sim P(x|\theta)$$
 $\theta \sim P(\theta|x)$
Sampling $P(x|\theta)$
or Linelihood $L(\theta|x)$
Marginal $P(x|x)$
Likelihood $P(x|x)$



$$P(x|x) = \int P(x|\theta) P(\theta|x) d\theta$$

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

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



$$P(\widetilde{x}|x,x) = \int P(\widetilde{x}|\theta)P(\theta|x,x)d\theta$$
$$P(\widetilde{x}|x) = \int P(\widetilde{x}|\theta)P(\theta|x)d\theta$$





Conjugate Priors.

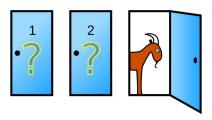
$$P(\theta|x) \qquad f(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_K)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$P(\theta|x,\alpha) \qquad f(\alpha'_1, ..., \alpha'_K)$$
where $\alpha'_1 = f(\alpha_1, ..., \alpha_K)$



Example 2: The Monty Hall Problem



In a gameshow, contestants try to guess which of 3 closed doors contain a cash prize (goats are behind the other two doors).

Odds of choosing the correct door are 1 in 3.

As a twist, the host of the show occasionally opens a door after a contestant makes his or her choice. This door is always one of the two the contestant did not pick, and is also always one of the goat doors (note that it is always possible to do this, since there are two goat doors).

At this point, the contestant has the option of keeping his or her original choice, or swtiching to the other unopened door.

The question is: is there any benefit to switching doors?



Example (Two Child Problem)

The two child problem asks the following question: I have two children, and at least one of them is a son. What is the probability that both children are boys?

Hint: It is not 1/2.

Here is a table of the possible family makeups:

First child	Second child	, 1
Boy	Boy	
Boy	Girl	
Girl	Boy	
Girl	Girl	Not possible

The probability that both children are boys is actually 1/3.

Q. Show this using Bayes Theorem

Q. I have two children, and at least one is a son born on a Tuesday. What is the probability that I have two boys?