Probabilistic Modelling

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Content

1 Introduction

2 PGM

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 $P(\Omega) = 1$

Example

Consider the event of tossing a six-sided die. The sample space is $\Omega=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$. We can define the simplest event space $F=\{\emptyset,\Omega\}$. Another event space is the set of all subsets of Ω .

For the first event space, the unique probability measure satisfying the requirements above is given by $P(\emptyset)=0,\ P(\Omega)=1.$

For the second event space, one valid probability measure is to assign the probability of each set in the event space to be $\frac{i}{6}$ where i is the number of elements of that set; for example, $P(\{1,2,3,4\})=\frac{4}{6}$ and $P(\{1,2,3\})=\frac{3}{6}$

Conditional probability

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The conditional probability of any event A given B is defined as:

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• $P(A \mid B)$ is the probability measure of the event A after observing the occurrence of event B.

Chain rule

• Let S_1, \dots, S_k be events, $P(S_i) > 0$. Then the chain rule:

$$P(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) = P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1)P(S_3|S_2, S_1) \cdot P(S_k|S_1, S_2, \cdot S_{k-1})$$
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• In general, the chain rule is derived by applying the definition of conditional probability multiple times, for example:

$$P(S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3}, S_{4})$$

$$=P(S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3})P(S_{4} | S_{1}, S_{2}, S_{3})$$

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$$(4)$$

Independence

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- lacktriangleright Thus, independence is equivalent to saying that observing B does not have any effect on the probability of A

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.
 - The sample space Ω are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$.

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- We will denote the value that a random variable may take on using lower case letters x.
 - Thus, X=x means that we are assigning the value $x\in\Re$ to the random variable X

Cumulative distribution functions

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Properties:

$$0 \le F_X(x) \le 1$$

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} F_X(x) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} F_X(x) = 1$$

$$x < y \leftarrow F_X(x) < F_X(y)$$
(6)

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- $p_X: \Omega \to \Re$ such that $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$
- Properties:

$$0 \le p_X(x) \le 1$$

$$\sum_{x \in Val(X)} p_X(x) = 1$$

$$\sum_{x \in Val(X)} p_X(x) = P(X \in A)$$
(7)

Probability density functions

• For some continuous random variables, the cumulative distribution function $F_X(x)$ is differentiable everywhere. In these cases, we define the Probability Density Function or PDF as the derivative of the CDF

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} \tag{8}$$

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Properties:

$$f_X(x) \ge 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) = 1$$

$$\int_{x \in A} f_X(x) dx = P(X \in A)$$
(9)

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$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in Val(X)} g(x) p_X(x) \tag{10}$$

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• If X is a continuous random variable with PDF $f_X(x)$, then the expected value of g(X) is defined as:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_X(x) dx \tag{11}$$

• Intuitively, the expectation of g(X) can be thought of as a weighted average of the values that g(x) can taken on for different values of x, where the weights are given by $p_X(x)$

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- Properties:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[a] &= a \text{for any constant} a \in \Re \\ \mathbb{E}[af(X)] &= a \, \mathbb{E}[f(X)] \text{for any constant} a \in \Re \\ \text{Linearity of Expectation} \, \mathbb{E}[f(X) + g(X)] &= \mathbb{E}[f(X)] + \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \end{split} \tag{12}$$

• $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ (where $0 \le p \le 1$): one if a coin with heads probability p comes up heads, zero otherwise

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } x = 1. \\ 1 - p, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$
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• $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n,p)$ (where $0 \le p \le 1$): the number of heads in n independent flips of a coin with heads probability p

$$p = \binom{n}{x} \cdot p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \tag{14}$$

• $X \sim \mathsf{Geometric}(p)$ (where p>0): the number of flips of a coin with heads probability p until the first heads.

$$p(x) = p(1-p)^{x-1} (15)$$

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• $X \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(\lambda)$ (where $\lambda > 0$): a probability distribution over the non-negative integers used for modelling the frequency of rare events.

$$p(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \tag{16}$$

Continuous random variables

• $X \sim \mathsf{Uniform}(a,b)$ (where a < b): equal probability density to every value between a and b on the real line

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } a \le b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
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• $X \sim \mathsf{Exponential}(\lambda)$ (where $\lambda > 0$): decaying probability density over the non-negative real

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• $X \sim \mathsf{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$: also known as the Gaussian distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
 (19)

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- We denote the sum rule as (also known as the marginalization property):

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y), & \text{if } y \text{is discrete} \\ \int_{Y} p(x, y) dy, & \text{if } y \text{is continuous} \end{cases}$$
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 We sum out (or integrate out) the set of states y of the random variable Y.

• To derive expressions for conditional probability Bayes' rule

$$\underbrace{p(y \mid x)}_{\text{posterior}} = \underbrace{\frac{p(x \mid y)}{p(y)}}_{\substack{p(x) \\ evidence}} \underbrace{p(y)}_{\substack{p(x) \\ evidence}} \tag{21}$$

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• If the random variables X and Y are continuous

$$f(y \mid x) = \frac{f(x,y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f(x \mid y)f(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x \mid y')f(y')dy'}$$
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Probabilistic modelling

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- Inference
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- Learning
 Goal of fitting a model given a dataset. The model can be then use to make predictions about the future.

Bayesian networks



References I