

Example

$P(x_1, y_2) = P(X=x_1 \text{ AND } Y=y_2)$

		Y	
		y ₁	y ₂
X	x ₁	0.04	0.36
	x ₂	0.30	0.30

$P(x_1) = P(x_1, y_1) + P(x_1, y_2)$
[i.e., sum across]

		Y	
		y ₁	y ₂
X	x ₁	0.04	0.36
	x ₂	0.30	0.30
		0.34	0.66

0.4 ← P(x₁)
0.6 ← P(x₂)
P(x)

(Recall that P(x) is short hand for the probability that the random variable X takes the value x, similarly for P(y)).

		Y	
		y ₁	
X	x ₁	0.04	0.04 / 0.34
	x ₂	0.30	0.30 / 0.34
		P(0.34)	}

P(x|y₁)

(Recall that P(x|y₁) is short hand for the probability that the random variable X takes the value x, given that the random variable Y has value y₁)

Probabilistic Queries

Organize variables into

- Evidence (observed), **E**
- Query (what you want to know), **Y**
- Hidden (leftover), **X** (for completeness)

Bold face because these are vectors of variables

Generic Query: P(**Y|E**)

This leads to a distribution over Y given the evidence

Note that X is marginalized out

We can use this to make a decision

Simplest is most probable, i.e., $\text{Argmax}_Y P(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{E})$

MAP Query (most probably configuration of variables):

$\text{MAP}(\mathbf{W} | \mathbf{E}) = \text{Argmax}_w P(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{E})$ ($\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{Y} \cup \mathbf{X}$)

		Y		
		y ₁	y ₂	
X	x ₁	0.04	0.36	0.4
	x ₂	0.30	0.30	0.6
		0.34	0.66	

Arg max P(x,y) is (x₁, y₂) Arg max P(x) is (x₂)
 Arg max P(y) is (y₂)

Arg max P(x,y) is **not necessarily** (Arg max P(x), Arg max P(y))

Review

Independence

This can cause confusion. If P(Y) is zero, the other case cannot be used (divide by zero). However, in this case, Y never happens, and so we (a priori) have a choice to declare whether X is independent from Y or not. However, under scrutiny, the choice does make sense, and allows consistency with the second definition. Note that the second formula works in this (weird) case because if P(Y)=0, then P(X,Y) is also 0.

$$X \perp Y \Leftrightarrow P(X|Y) = P(X) \quad \text{or} \quad P(Y)=0 \quad *$$

$$X \perp Y \Leftrightarrow P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y) \quad *$$

Note that Bishop uses $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ instead of \perp

Review

Conditional Independence

$$X \perp Y | Z \Leftrightarrow P(X|Y,Z) = P(X|Z) \quad \text{or} \quad P(Y,Z)=0 \quad *$$

Equivalent, sometimes more convenient definition

$$X \perp Y | Z \Leftrightarrow P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z)P(Y|Z) \quad *$$

Discrete Distributions (Bernoulli)

$$x \in \{0,1\} \quad (\text{e.g., } 1 \text{ is "heads" and } 0 \text{ is "tails"})$$

$$p(x=1|\mu) = \mu \quad \text{and} \quad p(x=0|\mu) = 1 - \mu$$

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

Study this trick!

x is an indicator variable which is constrained to be "1" for exactly on value, and "0" for the rest.

Code for sampling a Bernoulli

```
a=rand()
```

```
if (a<u) return heads  
else return tails
```

Discrete Distributions (Binomial)

Probability distribution for getting m "heads" in N tosses.

$$Bin(m|N, \mu) = \underbrace{\binom{N}{m}}_{\substack{\text{Number of} \\ \text{ways to get} \\ m \text{ heads} \\ \text{in } N \text{ tosses.}}} \cdot \underbrace{\mu^m (1-\mu)^{N-m}}_{\substack{\text{Probability of each} \\ \text{way to get } m \text{ heads} \\ \text{in } N \text{ tosses}}}$$

$$\text{where } \binom{N}{m} \equiv \frac{N!}{(N-m)!m!}$$

Example
 $N=3, m=2$
HHT
HTH
THH

Multi-outcome Bernoulli

Simple extensions to Bernoulli to multiple outcomes (e.g., a six sided die).

Let K be the number of outcomes.

Now we use vectors for u and x , i.e., \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{x} .

\mathbf{x} is a vector of 0's and exactly one 1 for observed outcome (e.g., rolling 3 with a 6 sided die is (0,0,1,0,0,0)).

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{u}) = \prod_{k=1}^K u_k^{x_k} \quad (\text{note that } \sum_{k=1}^K u_k = 1)$$

Multinomial

Extension of binomial to multiple outcomes.

Let K be the number of outcomes.

$$Mult(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_K) = \binom{N}{m_1 \ m_2 \ \dots \ m_K} \prod_{k=1}^K u_k^{m_k}$$

$$\text{where } \binom{N}{m_1 \ m_2 \ \dots \ m_K} = \left(\frac{N!}{m_1! \ m_2! \ \dots \ m_K!} \right)$$

$$\text{and } \sum_{k=1}^K m_k = N$$

Continuous Spaces

Outcome space is observation of real values (e.g., height, mass)

Example, a random variable, X , can take any value in $[0,1]$ with equal probability.

We say that X is uniformly distributed over $[0,1]$.

Here, $P(X=x) = 0$ (uncountable number of possibilities).

To deal with this, we use Probability Density Functions.

Probability Density Functions

$p : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a probability density function for X if $p(x) \geq 0$ and

$$\int_{\text{Val}(X)} p(x) dx = 1$$

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b p(x) dx \quad (\text{Probability of the event that } x \in [a,b])$$

$$P(X \in \Delta X) \cong p(x)|\Delta X| \quad (\text{For small } \Delta X)$$

Note that $P \in [0,1]$ but $p(x)$ **can be larger** than 1.

Example one

A random variable is uniformly distributed between 0.4 and 0.6, and never occurs outside of that range.

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \kappa & x \in [0.4, 0.6] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

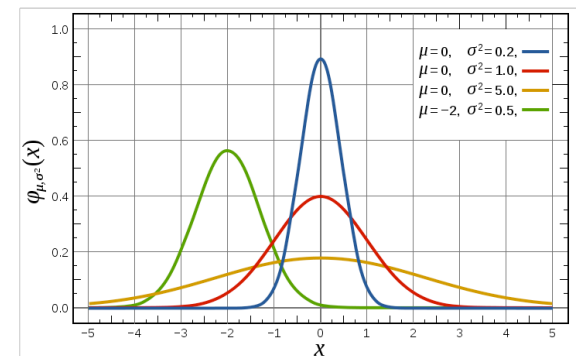
$$\int_{0.4}^{0.6} p(x) dx = \int_{0.4}^{0.6} \kappa dx = (0.2)\kappa = 1$$

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{0.2} = 5 \quad \text{and thus} \quad p(x) = \begin{cases} 5 & x \in [0.4, 0.6] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example two

The univariate Gaussian (or Normal) distribution

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



Example Three

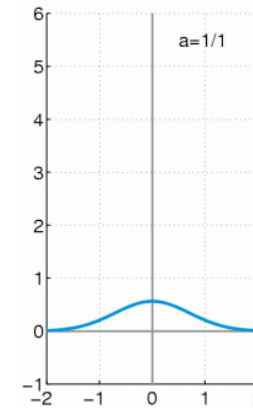
A continuous random variable can take on the exact values 0.3 and 0.6 with equal probability, and nothing else.

This is really a discrete distribution in disguise.

This PDF is not a function, let alone a continuous function.

If we want to use a PDF to represent it, we can use the "generalized" function $\delta(x)$.

Delta "function" demo



Dirac delta function

The Dirac delta (generalized) function

$$\delta(x) = 0, \text{ where } x \neq 0$$

$$\int \delta(x) dx = 1$$

$$\int \delta(x-a) f(x) dx = f(a)$$

Example three (continued)

Recall our "function" which was the PDF of a continuous random variable that took the exact values 0.3 and 0.6 with equal probability, and nothing else.

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2} \delta(x-0.3) + \frac{1}{2} \delta(x-0.6)$$

Joint Density Functions

Analogous to univariate case (illustrated with two variables)

$$\iint_{\text{Val}(X) \times \text{Val}(Y)} p(x,y) dx dy = 1$$

$$P(a_X \leq X \leq b_X, a_Y \leq Y \leq b_Y) = \int_{a_Y}^{b_Y} \int_{a_X}^{b_X} p(x,y) dx dy$$

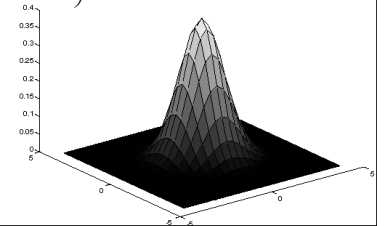
Example--- multivariate Gaussian

$$\mathbb{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{k}{2}} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

k is the number of variables (dimension)

If the variables are independent, then the covariance is diagonal

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{k}{2}} \prod_{i=1}^k \sigma_i} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T (\text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2))^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2) \end{aligned}$$



Marginalization

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x,y) dy$$

Conditional Distributions

$$p(y|x) = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)} \quad \text{where } p(x) \neq 0$$

Can get this by marginalizing

$$p(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x,y) dy$$

Gaussian Facts

For a multivariate Gaussian $p(\mathbf{x}_a, \mathbf{x}_b)$ with variables partitioned into \mathbf{x}_a and \mathbf{x}_b we have:

$p(\mathbf{x}_a)$ is also Gaussian

and

$p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b)$ is also Gaussian

Chapter 2.3 of Bishop has a very thorough treatment of the Gaussian distribution.