Probabilistic Modelling and Reasoning — Introduction —

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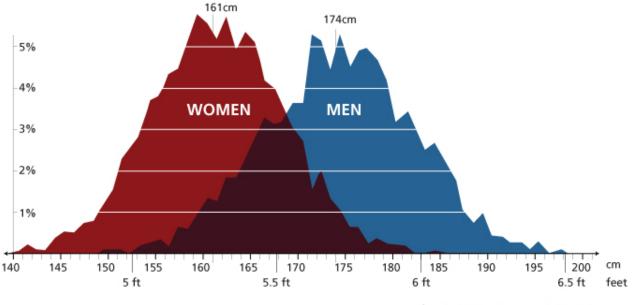
Probabilistic Modelling and Reasoning (INFR11134) School of Informatics, University of Edinburgh

Spring semester 2018

Variability

- Variability is part of nature
- Human heights vary
- Men are typically taller than women but height varies a lot

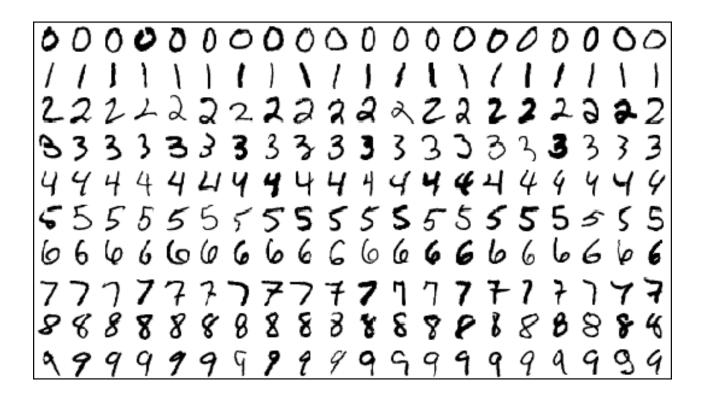




Data from U.S. CDC, adults ages 18-86 in 2007

Variability

- Our handwriting is unique
- Variability leads to uncertainty: e.g. 1 vs 7 or 4 vs 9



Variability

- Variability leads to uncertainty
- Reading handwritten text in a foreign language



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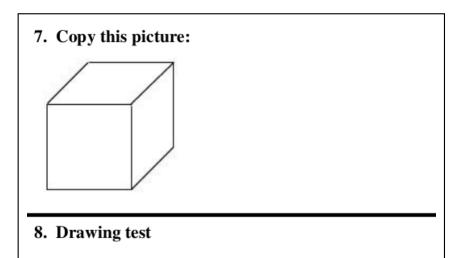
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Example: Screening and diagnostic tests

- ► Early warning test for Alzheimer's disease (Scharre, 2010, 2014)
- Detects "mild cognitive impairment"

- ► Takes 10–15 minutes
- Freely available
- Assume a 70 year old man tests positive.
- Should he be concerned?

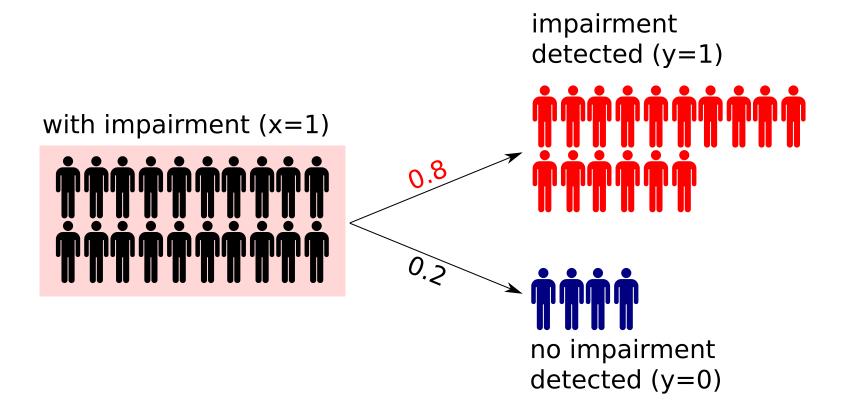


- Draw a large face of a clock and place in the numbers
- Position the hands for 5 minutes after 11 o'clock

(Example from sagetest.osu.edu)

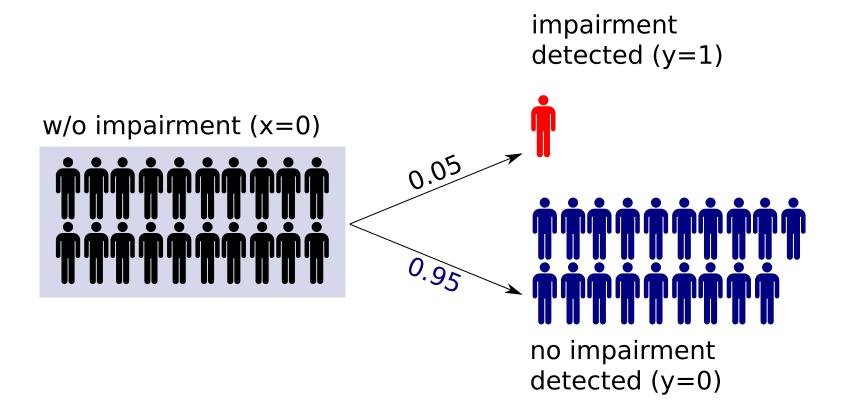
Accuracy of the test

- Sensitivity of 0.8 and specificity of 0.95 (Scharre, 2010)
- ► 80% correct for people with impairment



Accuracy of the test

- Sensitivity of 0.8 and specificity of 0.95 (Scharre, 2010)
- ► 95% correct for people w/o impairment



People of the same group do not have the same test results

- Test outcome is subject to variability
- The data are noisy
- Variability leads to uncertainty
 - ► Positive test ≡ true positive ?
 - Positive test \equiv false positive ?
- What can we safely conclude from a positive test result?
- How should we analyse such kind of ambiguous data?

Probabilistic approach

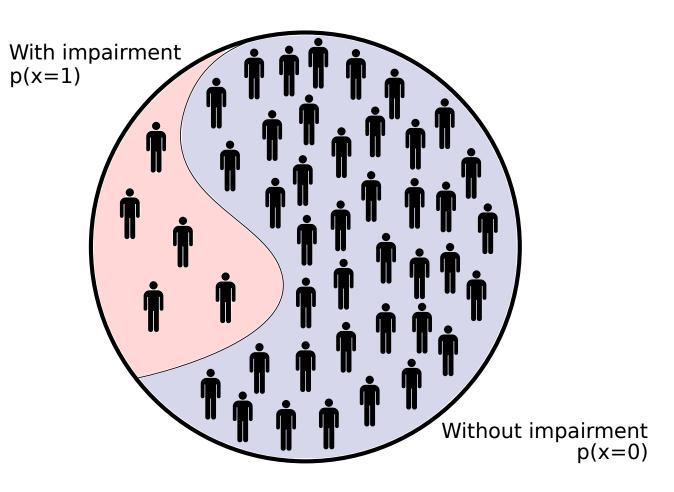
The test outcomes y can be described with probabilities

sensitivity = 0.8
$$\Leftrightarrow$$
 $\Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) = 0.8$
 \Leftrightarrow $\Pr(y = 0 | x = 1) = 0.2$
specificity = 0.95 \Leftrightarrow $\Pr(y = 0 | x = 0) = 0.95$
 \Leftrightarrow $\Pr(y = 1 | x = 0) = 0.05$

- Pr(y|x): model of the test specified in terms of (conditional) probabilities
- $x \in \{0, 1\}$: quantity of interest (cognitive impairment or not)

Prior information

Among people like the patient, $Pr(x = 1) = 5/45 \approx 11\%$ have a cognitive impairment (plausible range: 3% – 22%, Geda, 2014)

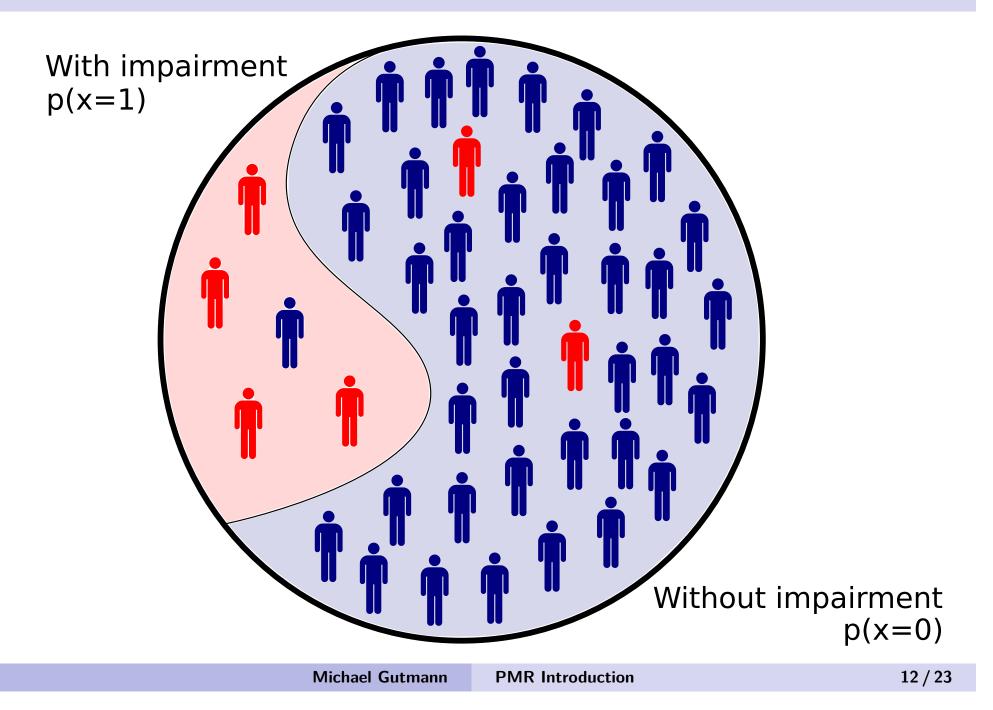


Probabilistic model

- ► Reality:
 - properties/characteristics of the group of people like the patient
 - properties/characteristics of the test
- Probabilistic model:
 - ▶ Pr(*x* = 1)
 - Pr(y = 1|x = 1) or Pr(y = 0|x = 1) Pr(y = 1|x = 0) or Pr(y = 0|x = 0)

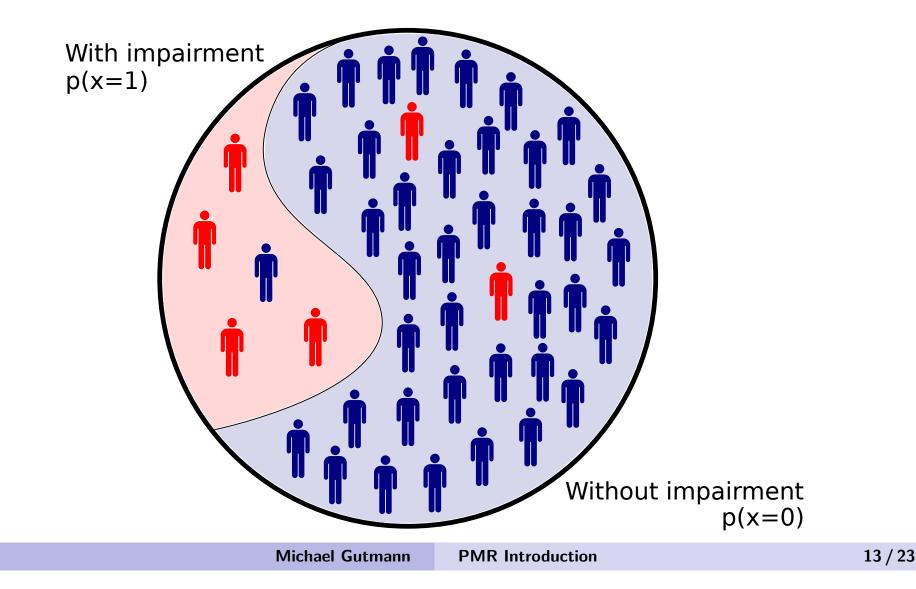
Fully specified by three numbers.

A probabilistic model is an abstraction of reality that uses probability theory to quantify the chance of uncertain events.



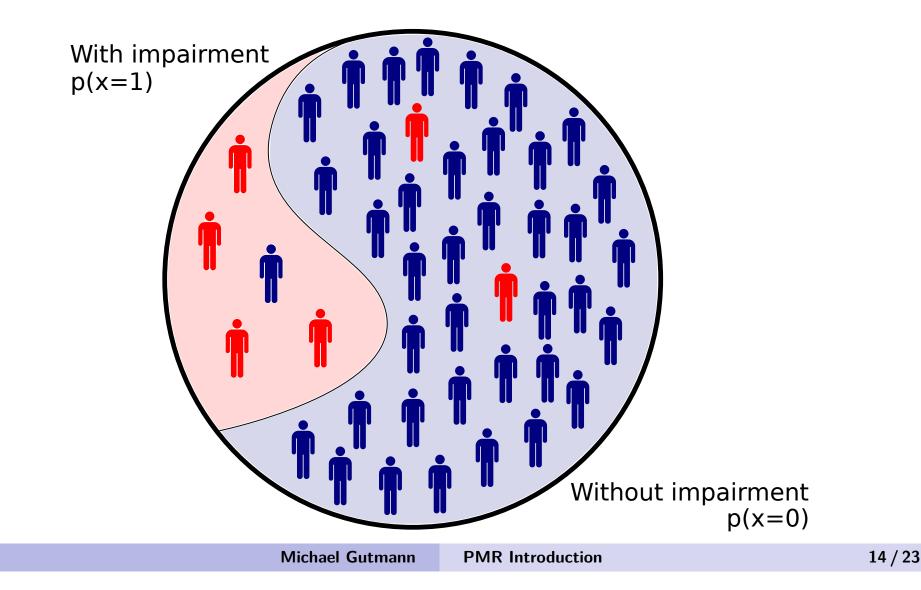
Fraction of people who are impaired and have positive tests:

Pr(x = 1, y = 1) = Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) Pr(x = 1) = 4/45 (product rule)



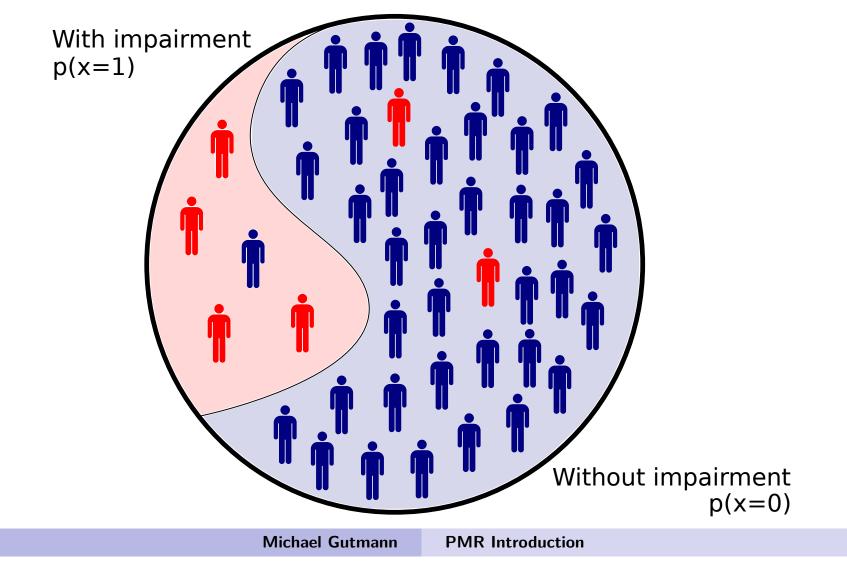
Fraction of people who are not impaired but have positive tests:

Pr(x = 0, y = 1) = Pr(y = 1 | x = 0) Pr(x = 0) = 2/45 (product rule)



Fraction of people where the test is positive:

$$Pr(y = 1) = Pr(x = 1, y = 1) + Pr(x = 0, y = 1) = 6/45$$
 (sum rule)



Putting everything together

Among those with a positive test, fraction with impairment:

$$\Pr(x = 1 | y = 1) = \frac{\Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) \Pr(x = 1)}{\Pr(y = 1)} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Fraction without impairment:

$$\Pr(x=0|y=1) = \frac{\Pr(y=1|x=0)\Pr(x=0)}{\Pr(y=1)} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$$

- Equations are examples of "Bayes' rule".
- Positive test increased probability of cognitive impairment from 11% (prior belief) to 67%, or from 6% to 50%.
- ► $50\% \equiv \text{coin flip}$

Probabilistic reasoning

- Probabilistic reasoning = probabilistic inference: Computing the probability of an event that we have not or cannot observe from an event that we can observe
 - Unobserved/uncertain event, e.g. cognitive impairment x = 1
 - Observed event \equiv evidence \equiv data, e.g. test result y = 1
- "The prior": probability for the uncertain event before having seen evidence, e.g. Pr(x = 1)
- "The posterior": probability for the uncertain event after having seen evidence, e.g. Pr(x = 1|y = 1)
- The posterior is computed from the prior and the evidence via Bayes' rule.

Key rules of probability

(1) Product rule:

$$Pr(x = 1, y = 1) = Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) Pr(x = 1)$$

= $Pr(x = 1 | y = 1) Pr(y = 1)$

(2) Sum rule:

$$\Pr(y = 1) = \Pr(x = 1, y = 1) + \Pr(x = 0, y = 1)$$

Bayes' rule (conditioning) as consequence of the product rule

$$\Pr(x = 1 | y = 1) = \frac{\Pr(x = 1, y = 1)}{\Pr(y = 1)} = \frac{\Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) \Pr(x = 1)}{\Pr(y = 1)}$$

Denominator from sum rule, or sum rule and product rule

$$\Pr(y = 1) = \Pr(y = 1 | x = 1) \Pr(x = 1) + \Pr(y = 1 | x = 0) \Pr(x = 0)$$

Key rules or probability

- The rules generalise to the case of multivariate random variables (discrete or continuous)
- Consider the conditional joint probability density function (pdf) or probability mass function (pmf) of x, y: p(x, y)

(1) Product rule:

 $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})p(\mathbf{y})$ = $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})$

(2) Sum rule:

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = egin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) & ext{for discrete r.v.} \ \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} & ext{for continuous r.v.} \end{cases}$$

Probabilistic modelling and reasoning

- Probabilistic modelling:
 - Identify the quantities that relate to the aspects of reality that you wish to capture with your model.
 - Consider them to be random variables, e.g. x, y, z, with a joint pdf (pmf) p(x, y, z).
- Probabilistic reasoning:
 - Assume you know that $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{E}$ (measurement, evidence)
 - Probabilistic reasoning about x then consists in computing

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{E})$$

or related quantities like $\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{E})$ or posterior expectations of some function g of \mathbf{x} , e.g.

$$\mathsf{E}[g(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{E}] = \int g(\mathbf{u}) p(\mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{E}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}$$

Assume that all variables are discrete valued, that $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{y}_o\}$, and that we know $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$. We would like to know $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_o)$.

- Product rule: $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_o) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}_o)}{p(\mathbf{y}_o)}$
- Sum rule: $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o) = \sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})$
- Sum rule: $p(\mathbf{y}_o) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})$
- Result:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_o) = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_o) = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_o, \mathbf{z})}$$

Assume that $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}$ each are d = 500 dimensional, and that each element of the vectors can take K = 10 values.

Issue 1: To specify p(x, y, z), we need to specify K^{3d} - 1 = 10¹⁵⁰⁰ - 1 non-negative numbers, which is impossible.

Topic 1: Representation What reasonably weak assumptions can we make to efficiently represent $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$?

What we do in PMR

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_{o}) = \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_{o}, \mathbf{z})}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_{o}, \mathbf{z})}$$

▶ Issue 2: The sum in the numerator goes over the order of $K^d = 10^{500}$ non-negative numbers and the sum in the denominator over the order of $K^{2d} = 10^{1000}$, which is impossible to compute.

Topic 2: Exact inference Can we further exploit the assumptions on $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$ to efficiently compute the posterior probability or derived quantities?

Issue 3: Where do the non-negative numbers p(x, y, z) come from?

Topic 3: Learning How can we learn the numbers from data?

Issue 4: For some models, exact inference and learning is too costly even after fully exploiting the assumptions made.

Topic 4: Approximate inference and learning