

COMP2610/COMP6261 - Information Theory

Lecture 4: Bayesian Inference

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- Examples of joint, marginal and conditional distributions
- When can we say that X, Y do not influence each other?
- What, if anything, does $p(X = x|Y = y)$ tell us about $p(Y = y|X = x)$?

Review Exercise

Suppose we have random variables X, Y such that

$$p(X = 1) = 0.6$$

$$p(Y = 1|X = 0) = 0.7$$

$$p(Y = 1|X = 1) = 0.8$$

Then,

$$p(X = 1|Y = 1) =$$

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- More examples on Bayes' theorem:
 - ▶ Eating hamburgers
 - ▶ Detecting terrorists
 - ▶ The Monty Hall problem
 - ▶ Document modelling
- Are there notions of probability beyond frequency counting?

- 1 Bayes' Rule: Examples
 - Eating Hamburgers
 - Detecting Terrorists
 - An Example from Machine Learning
 - The Monty Hall Problem
- 2 The meaning of Probability
- 3 Wrapping Up

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3 Wrapping Up

Bayesian Inference:

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- Probability of someone having McD syndrome: $1/10000$
- Proportion of hamburger eaters is about 50%

What is the probability that a hamburger eater will have McD syndrome?

Bayesian Inference:

Example 1: Formalization

Let $McD \in \{0, 1\}$ be the variable denoting having the McD syndrome and $H \in \{0, 1\}$ be the variable denoting a hamburger eater. Therefore:

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We need to compute $p(McD = 1 | H = 1)$, the probability of a hamburger eater having McD syndrome.

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$$p(H = 1) = 1/2$$

We need to compute $p(McD = 1|H = 1)$, the probability of a hamburger eater having McD syndrome.

Any ballpark estimates of this probability?

Bayesian Inference:

Example 1: Solution

$$\begin{aligned} p(McD = 1|H = 1) &= \frac{p(H = 1|McD = 1)p(McD = 1)}{p(H = 1)} \\ &= 1.8 \times 10^{-4} \end{aligned}$$

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Repeat the above computation if the proportion of hamburger eaters is rather small: (say in France) 0.001.

Example 2: Detecting Terrorists:

From understandinguncertainty.org

- Scanner detects true terrorists with 95% accuracy

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- Scanner detects true terrorists with 95% accuracy
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- There is 1 terrorist on your plane with 100 passengers aboard
- The shifty looking man sitting next to you tests positive

What are the chances of this man being a terrorist?

Example 2: Detecting Terrorists:

Simple Solution Using “Natural Frequencies” (David Spiegelhalter)

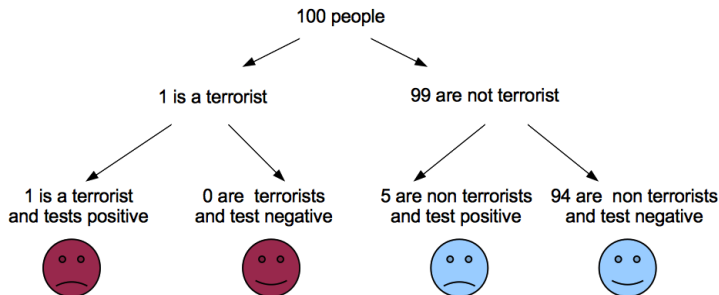


Figure: Figure reproduced from understandinguncertainty.org

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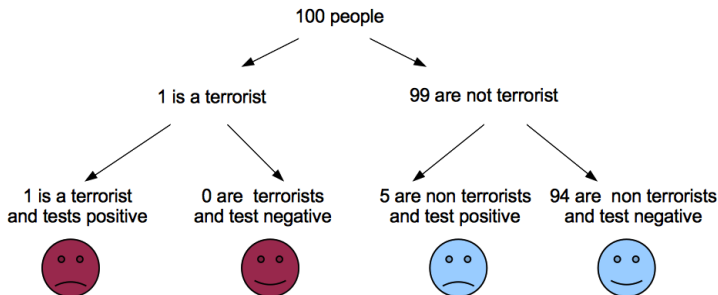


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The chances of the man being a terrorist are $\approx \frac{1}{6}$

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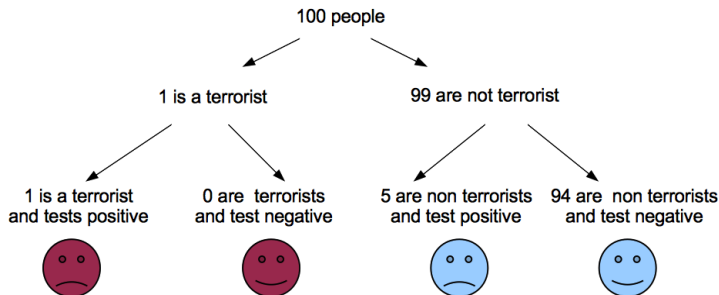


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- Relation to disease example
- Consequences when catching criminals

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Formalization with Actual Probabilities

Let $T \in \{0, 1\}$ denote the variable regarding whether the person is a terrorist and $S \in \{0, 1\}$ denote the outcome of the scanner.

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$$p(S = 1|T = 1) = 0.95$$

$$p(S = 0|T = 1) = 0.05$$

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$$p(T = 1) = 0.01$$

$$p(T = 0) = 0.99$$

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Let $T \in \{0, 1\}$ denote the variable regarding whether the person is a terrorist and $S \in \{0, 1\}$ denote the outcome of the scanner.

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$$p(T = 1) = 0.01$$

$$p(T = 0) = 0.99$$

We want to compute $p(T = 1|S = 1)$, the probability of the man being a terrorist given that he has tested positive.

Example 2: Detecting Terrorists:

Solution with Bayes' Rule

$$p(T = 1|S = 1) = \frac{p(S = 1|T = 1)p(T = 1)}{p(S = 1|T = 1)p(T = 1) + p(S = 1|T = 0)p(T = 0)}$$

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The probability of the man being a terrorist is $\approx \frac{1}{6}$

Example 2: Detecting Terrorists:

Posterior Versus Prior Belief

While the man has a low probability of being a terrorist, our belief has **increased** compared to our prior:

$$\frac{p(T = 1|S = 1)}{p(T = 1)} = \frac{0.16}{0.01} = 16$$

i.e. our belief in him being a terrorist has gone up by **a factor of 16**

Since terrorists are so rare, a factor of 16 does not result in a very high (absolute) probability or belief

Example 3: Document Classification

The screenshot shows a web browser window displaying the Open Directory Project (dmoz) homepage. The browser's address bar shows the URL <http://www.dmoz.org/>. The page features a green header with the dmoz logo and the text "open directory project" and "In partnership with AOL Search.". Below the header is a search bar with a "Search" button and a link to "advanced" search. The main content area is organized into a grid of category links, each with a sub-link. At the bottom, there is a "Become an Editor" button and a copyright notice for 2011 Netscape. A small green dragon logo is visible in the bottom right corner of the page content.

ODP - Open Directory Project

<http://www.dmoz.org/>

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Google

dmoz

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Translate

Autofill

Sign in

[d](#) [m](#) [o](#) [z](#) open directory project

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[Media, Newspapers, Weather...](#)

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[Català, Dansk, Deutsch, Español, Français, Italiano, 日本語, Nederlands, Polski, Русский, Svenska...](#)

Help build the largest human-edited directory of the web

Copyright © 2011 Netscape

4,868,290 sites - 90,614 editors - over 1,006,417 categories

Example 3: Document Classification:

Document Modelling

Bag-of-words: Describe a document as a D -dimensional binary vector \mathbf{x} , indicating the presence/absence of a word in a vocabulary \mathcal{V} .

Example: consider the following tiny vocabulary:

$$\mathcal{V} = \{\text{football, defence, strategy, goal, office}\}$$

Then, a document

$$\mathbf{x} = (1, 0, 0, 1, 1)$$

contains only the words “football”, “goal”, and “office”

- We do **not** care about the order of the words

Example 3: Document Classification:

Binary Classification

We want to classify documents as being about sports (\mathcal{C}_1) or politics (\mathcal{C}_2).

A simple *model* for $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_j)$ is:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathcal{C}_j) = \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i|\mathcal{C}_j)$$

This is called **Naive Bayes** due to its unrealistic assumption of conditional independence of words given the class label

Example 3: Document Classification:

Conditional Probability Tables

Assume the vocabulary:

$$\mathcal{V} = \{\text{football, defence, strategy, goal, office}\}$$

and the conditional probability tables (CPTs) are given by:

$$\begin{array}{ll} p(\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.5 & p(\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.5 \\ p(f = 1|\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.8 & p(f = 1|\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.1 \\ p(d = 1|\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.7 & p(d = 1|\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.7 \\ p(s = 1|\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.2 & p(s = 1|\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.8 \\ p(g = 1|\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.7 & p(g = 1|\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.3 \\ p(o = 1|\mathcal{C}_1) = 0.2 & p(o = 1|\mathcal{C}_2) = 0.7 \end{array}$$

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What is the probability of this document being about sports?

Example 3: Document Classification:

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} p(C_1|\mathbf{x}) &= \frac{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1)}{p(\mathbf{x}|C_1)p(C_1) + p(\mathbf{x}|C_2)p(C_2)} \\ &= \frac{\prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_1) \cdot p(C_1)}{\prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_1) \cdot p(C_1) + \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_2) \cdot p(C_2)} \\ &= \frac{\prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_1)}{\prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_1) + \prod_{d=1}^D p(x_d|C_2)} \end{aligned}$$

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We would classify this document as politics as $p(C_2|\mathbf{x}) \approx 0.74$.

Example 4: The Monty Hall Problem

Problem Statement

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- You select one of the boxes
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Should you switch to the other box? Would that increase your chances of winning the prize?

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Formalization

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WLOG assume the following:

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$$P(C = r) = \frac{1}{3} \qquad p(C = g) = \frac{1}{3} \qquad p(C = b) = \frac{1}{3}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} P(C = r) &= \frac{1}{3} & p(C = g) &= \frac{1}{3} & p(C = b) &= \frac{1}{3} \\ p(H = b|C = r) &= \frac{1}{2} & p(H = b|C = g) &= 1 & p(H = b|C = b) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

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We want to compute $p(C = r|H = b)$ and $p(C = g|H = b)$ to decide if we should switch from our initial choice.

Example 4: The Monty Hall Problem:

Solution

We have that:

$$p(H = b) = \sum_{c \in \{r, g, b\}} p(H = b | C = c) p(C = c)$$

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Solution

We have that:

$$\begin{aligned} p(H = b) &= \sum_{c \in \{r, g, b\}} p(H = b | C = c) p(C = c) \\ &= (1/2)(1/3) + (1)(1/3) + (0)(1/3) \end{aligned}$$

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Solution

We have that:

$$\begin{aligned} p(H = b) &= \sum_{c \in \{r, g, b\}} p(H = b | C = c) p(C = c) \\ &= (1/2)(1/3) + (1)(1/3) + (0)(1/3) \\ &= 1/2 \end{aligned}$$

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Similarly, $p(C = g | H = b) = 2/3$.

You should switch from your initial choice to the other box in order to increase your chances of winning the prize!

Example 4: The Monty Hall Problem:

Illustration of the Solution

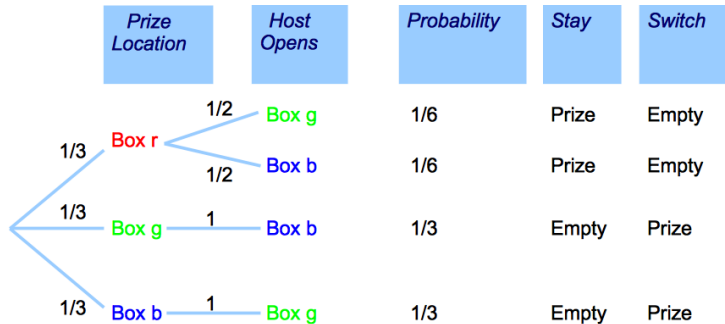


Figure: Illustration of the solution when you have initially selected box r.

Example 4: The Monty Hall Problem:

Another Perspective

Switching is bad if, and only if, we initially picked the prize box (because if not, the other remaining box must contain the prize)

We picked the prize box with probability $1/3$. This is **independent** of the host's action

Hence, with probability $2/3$, switching will reveal the prize box

Example 4: The Monty Hall Problem:

Variants to Ponder

Would switching be rational if:

- The host only revealed a box when he knew we picked the right one?
- The host only revealed a box when he knew we picked the wrong one?
- The host is himself unaware of the prize box, and reveals a box at random, which by chance does not have the prize?

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- 2 The meaning of Probability

- 3 Wrapping Up

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Cox Axioms

Given $B(x)$, $B(\bar{x})$, $B(x, y)$, $B(x|y)$, $B(y)$:

- 1 Degrees of belief can be ordered
- 2 $B(x) = f[B(\bar{x})]$
- 3 $B(x, y) = g[B(x|y), B(y)]$

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If a set of Beliefs satisfy these axioms they can be mapped onto probabilities satisfying the rules of probability.

Frequentists versus Bayesians: Round I

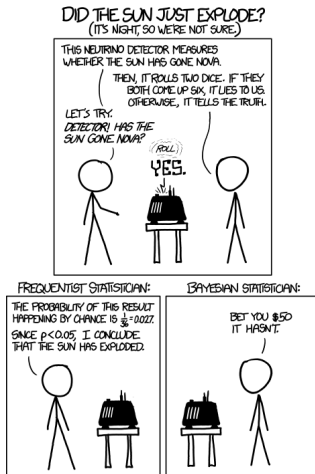


Image from <http://xkcd.com/1132/>

Frequentists versus Bayesians: Round II

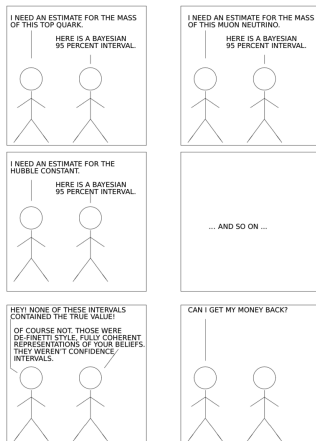


Image from

<http://normaldeviate.wordpress.com/2012/11/09/anti-xkcd/>

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- Examples of application of Bayes' rule
 - ▶ Formalization
 - ▶ Solution by applying Bayes' theorem
- Intuition is usually helpful although it may sometimes deceive us
- Interesting application to document classification
- Frequentist v Bayesian probabilities
- Cox axioms

Next time

- Working through some useful probability distributions
- More on Bayesian inference