# Introduction to Probability and Bayesian Inference 

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Motivation

## A "data assimilation problem"

- Consider a simple problem where we consider the temperature at some point at some instants of time (say in days)
- Let the temperature at the $n^{\text {th }}$ instant be $T_{n}$
- Suppose we think the temperature evolves in the following way

$$
T_{n+1}=T_{n}+I_{n} .
$$

- This is a model which we use to think about the temperature, maybe to even predict the temperature

- We could think of $I_{n}=I$ a constant parameter
- What is $I$ in Bangalore?
- Where do we get $I$ from?


## A "data assimilation problem"

- Temperature model

$$
T_{n+1}=T_{n}+I
$$

- We have temperature measurements
- Do you think it would like?

$$
M_{n}=T_{n}
$$

- Or


$$
M_{n}=T_{n}+N_{n}
$$

## A "data assimilation problem"

- How do we think about or model $N_{n}$ ?
- How do we find out $I$ from data?
- We need the framework of probability and inference for this!

Introduction to probability

## Sample Space

## Definition

- The set of all possible outcomes
- Mutually exclusive
- Exhaustive with as much granularity as required
- The sample space is usually denoted by $\Omega$
- Individual outcomes are represented by $\omega$


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## Examples

- For a coin toss: $\{$ Head, Tail\}
- For a die roll: $\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- Position of a sensor: $[0,1] \times[0,1]$


## Events

## Definition

- A subset of the sample space
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## Examples

- The number on the rolled dice is even
- The sensor lies within a distance of 0.25 meters from a relay


## Probability

## Definition

- Is a function that maps events to real numbers
- The function value can be interpreted as the long term fraction of time an event occurs
- The function value can also be interpreted as an amount of belief in the occurrence in the event
- The probability of an event $E$ is denoted as $\operatorname{Pr}(E)$


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- The probability of an event $E$ is denoted as $\operatorname{Pr}(E)$
- $\operatorname{Pr}(\Omega)=1$
- $0 \leq \operatorname{Pr}(E) \leq 1$
- $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}, \ldots\right)$ are disjoint; $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left(A_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}\right)$


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## Examples

- Die roll: $\operatorname{Pr}(\{f\})=\frac{1}{6}$
- Probability of sensor in an area $A$ inside $[0,1] \times[0,1]$ is $\operatorname{Pr}(A)=A$


## Conditional probability

## Definition

- $A$ and $B$ are two events
- Probability of $A$ given that $B$ has occurred; denoted by $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B)$
- Universe is now $B$
- If $\operatorname{Pr}(B)>0$, then $\operatorname{Pr}\{A \mid B\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{A \cap B\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{B\}}$
- If $\operatorname{Pr}(B)=0$, then $\operatorname{Pr}\{A \mid B\}$ is undefined


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## Example

- Suppose you roll a fair six sided die
- What is the probability that the face is two given that the face is even?

Total probability theorem

## Definition

- Suppose $B \subseteq \Omega$
- Suppose $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right)$ are disjoint and $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}=\Omega$
- The total probability theorem states that

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\operatorname{Pr}\{B\}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{A_{i}\right\} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{B \mid A_{i}\right\}
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$$

## Question

How to derive the above theorem?

## Independent events

## Definition

- Events $A$ and $B$ are independent if

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\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\{A \cap B\} & =\operatorname{Pr}\{A\} \times \operatorname{Pr}\{B\} \\
\operatorname{Pr}\{A \mid B\} & =\operatorname{Pr}\{A\}
\end{aligned}
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$$

## Question

- Assume $A$ and $B$ are independent
- Now suppose an event $C$ has occurred
- Are $A$ and $B$ independent given that $C$ has occurred?


## Discrete Random Variable

## Definition

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- $X$ could be discrete or continuous valued
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## Examples

- $X$ is the number of heads in 10 tosses of a coin with bias $p$
- $X$ is the number of tosses until the first head


## Probability Mass Function

## Definition

- The probability mass function $p_{X}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\}$
- $p_{X}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{\omega: X(\omega)=x\}$
- $p_{X}(x) \geq 0$ and $\sum_{x} p_{X}(x)=1$


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## Examples

- $X$ is the number of heads in $N$ tosses of a coin with bias $p$. Then $X$ is $\operatorname{Binomial}(N, p)$
- $X$ is the number of tosses until the first head. Then $X$ is a $\operatorname{Geometric}(p)$ random variable


## Probability Distributions

- The cumulative distribution function $F_{X}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{X \leq x\}$
- The complementary cumulative distribution function $F_{X}^{c}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{X>x\}$


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- The cumulative distribution function $F_{X}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{X \leq x\}$
- The complementary cumulative distribution function $F_{X}^{c}(x)=\operatorname{Pr}\{X>x\}$
- $F_{X}(-\infty)=0, F_{X}(\infty)=1$
- $F_{X}(x)=1-F_{X}^{c}(x)$


## Some standard distributions

- Binomial random variable
- Geometric random variable
- Poisson random variable


Binomial



- $p=0.2$
- $p=0.5$
- $p=0.8$


## Expectation of a discrete random variable

## Definition

- $X$ is a non-negative discrete random variable
- The expectation of $X$ is defined as $\sum_{x} p_{X}(x) x$
- The expectation is denoted as $\mathbb{E} X$


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## Question

- Suppose $X$ is Uniform on $\{1,2,3, \ldots, 10\}$. What is $\mathbb{E} X$ ?
- If $X$ is not restricted to be non-negative, how do you think $\mathbb{E} X$ will be defined?


## Expectation of a discrete random variable

## Properties

- The expectation is linear. Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are two random variables,g then $\mathbb{E}[\alpha X+\beta Y]=\alpha \mathbb{E} X+\beta \mathbb{E} Y$
- Suppose $Y=g(X)$, then $\mathbb{E} Y=\sum_{x} g(x) p_{X}(x)$


## Higher moments and Variance

## Definition

- The $n^{\text {th }}$ moment of a random variable $X$ is $\mathbb{E} X^{n}$
- The variance of a random variable $X$ is $\mathbb{E}(X-\mathbb{E} X)^{2}$

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## A question

- Find an expression for variance of $X$ in terms of the mean and second moment of $X$


## Conditional expectation

- Conditional probability: $p_{X \mid A}(x)$
- Conditional expectation: $\mathbb{E}[X \mid A]$
- Total expectation theorem: Suppose $\left(A_{1}, A_{2}, \ldots, A_{n}\right)$ are disjoint. Then $\mathbb{X}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{A_{1}\right\} \mathbb{E}\left[X \mid A_{1}\right]+\cdots+\operatorname{Pr}\left\{A_{n}\right\} \mathbb{E}\left[X \mid A_{n}\right]$


## Multiple discrete random variables

- $X$ and $Y$ are two discrete random variables
- The joint probability mass function $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x, Y=y\}$ is denoted as $p_{X, Y}(x, y)$
- The marginal probability mass function $p_{X}(x)=\sum_{y} p_{X, Y}(x, y)$
- The conditional probability mass function $p_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=\frac{p_{X, Y}(x, y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$
- Suppose $X$ and $Y$ are discrete random variables with probability mass functions $p_{X}(x)$ and $p_{Y}(y)$
- $X$ and $Y$ are independent if $p_{X, Y}(x, y)=p_{X}(x) p_{Y}(y)$ for all $x$ and $y$
- $X$ and $Y$ are independent if $p_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=p_{X}(x)$ for all $x$ and $y$
- $\mathbb{E}[X Y]=\mathbb{E} X \mathbb{E} Y$


## Continuous Random Variable

## Definition

- $X: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- $X$ is described by a probability density function $f_{X}$
- $\operatorname{Pr}\{a \leq X<b\}=\int_{a}^{b} f_{X}(x) d x$
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{X}(x) d x=1$
- $\mathbb{E} X=\int_{0}^{\infty} x f_{X}(x) d x$ for non-negative $X$
- Similar definitions for CDF and CCDF


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## Example

- $X$ is Uniform $[a, b] . f_{X}(x)=\frac{1}{b-a}$ for $a \leq x \leq b$
- $X$ is Normal with mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2} . f_{X}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}}$


## Multiple continuous random variables

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- $X$ and $Y$ are two continuous random variables
- The joint distribution is $f_{X, Y}(x, y)$
- Marginal distribution of $X$ is $f_{X}(x)$
- Conditional distribution is $f_{X \mid Y=y}(x)$ defined as $\frac{f_{X, Y}(x, y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$
- $X$ and $Y$ are independent if $f_{X, Y}(x, y)=f_{X}(x) f_{Y}(y)$ for all $x$ and $y$


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## Question

- Suppose you have a stick of length $l$
- You break it once at a position uniformly distributed in $[0, l]$ and then again break the left portion at a uniformly distributed position
- What is the joint distribution of the two "left" portions?


## Bayes' rule

## Definition

- $X$ and $Y$ are two random variables
- $p_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=\frac{p_{X}(x) p_{Y \mid X=x}(y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$
- $p_{X \mid Y=y}(x)=\frac{p_{X}(x) f_{Y \mid X=x}(y)}{f_{Y}(y)}$
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## A question

- Suppose $X$ takes values -1 and 1 with probability $p$ and $1-p$
- $Y$ is normally distributed with mean $X$ and variance of 1
- Suppose you have observed $Y=-0.5$
- What is $p_{X \mid Y=-0.5}(1)$ ?

Bayesian Inference

## Our example problem

- Temperature model

$$
T_{n+1}=T_{n}+I
$$

- We have temperature measurements

$$
M_{n}=T_{n}+N_{n}
$$

- $N_{n}$ is measurement noise - modelled as a Normal ( $0, \sigma^{2}$ ) random variable - independent
 across $n$.
- How do we find $I$ ?


## Another example

| No. | $\operatorname{Vr}(\mathrm{V})$ | $\operatorname{Ir}(\mathrm{A})$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 0.909091 | 0.909091 |
| 1 | 1.000091 | 0.999092 |
| 2 | 1.182033 | 1.179673 |
| 3 | 1.363636 | 1.363636 |
| 4 | 1.818182 | 1.818182 |
| 5 | 2.455656 | 2.443439 |
| 6 | 2.728752 |  |
| 7 | 1.455465 |  |
| 8 | 1.092377 |  |
| 9 | 4.555556 |  |

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| 6 | 2.728752 | 2.712477 |
| 7 | 1.455465 | 1.445348 |
| 8 | 1.092377 | 1.076233 |
| 9 | 4.555556 | 4.444444 |



## An example



| No. | $\mathrm{Vr}(\mathrm{V})$ | $\operatorname{Ir}(\mathrm{A})$ | $\mathrm{T}(\mathrm{C})$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 0.909091 | 0.909091 | 25 |
| 1 | 1.000091 | 0.999092 | 26 |
| 2 | 1.182033 | 1.179673 | 27 |
| 3 | 1.363636 | 1.363636 | 25 |
| 4 | 1.818182 | 1.818182 | 25 |
| 5 | 2.455656 | 2.443439 | 30 |
| 6 | 2.728752 |  | 31 |
| 7 | 1.455465 |  | 32 |
| 8 | 1.092377 |  | 40 |
| 9 | 4.555556 |  | 50 |

## An example



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| $\mathrm{Ir}=\mathrm{Vr} /(1+0.01 *(T-25))$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

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## Problem ingredients

- Data


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
- A model


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
- A model with parameters


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
- A model with parameters
- A method of choosing parameters for the model


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- Data with features
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## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
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- A model with parameters
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- A method to predict using the model


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
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- A method of choosing parameters for the model from the data (Inference)
- A method to predict using the model (Prediction)


## Problem ingredients

- Data with features
- A model with parameters
- A method of choosing parameters for the model from the data (Inference)
- A method to predict using the model (Prediction)
- Iterate, evaluate and select models (Model selection)


## Example - Regression problem



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- An approach which is widely used is to form a loss function or objective function that measures how good the model predicts on training data and use optimization techniques


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- In other problems, similar optimization approaches can be used.
- Another approach is the Bayesian approach.

A question - interpretation of results


$$
y=22.6232 x+4.1200
$$

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$$
y=18.0137 x+2.9210
$$

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- We measure the value of a DC voltage source.



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| No. | $\mathrm{Vm}(\mathrm{V})$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 3.6923 |
| 2 | 4.5664 |
| 3 | 5.3426 |
| 4 | 8.5784 |
| 5 | 7.7694 |

## Measuring a voltage source

- We measure the value of a DC voltage source.

| No. | $\mathrm{Vm}(\mathrm{V})$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 5.5377 |
| 2 | 6.8339 |
| 3 | 2.7412 |
| 4 | 5.8622 |
| 5 | 5.3188 |

- We report the average 5.2587.
- When we report the average we are fitting a constant to the data using minimum squared error.
- We again measure!

| No. | $\mathrm{Vm}(\mathrm{V})$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 3.6923 |
| 2 | 4.5664 |
| 3 | 5.3426 |
| 4 | 8.5784 |
| 5 | 7.7694 |

- The new average is 5.9898 .


## Measuring a voltage source



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## Measuring a voltage source



- We measure the value of a DC voltage source.
- For each measurement there is variation from a constant DC value because of some noise or some source of randomness
- So we will say that the $i^{t h}$ measurement is $5+X_{i} ; X_{i}$ is Gaussian (0, 1).
- What interval shall we report?


## Example: Coin bias

- You have a coin, which you use for deciding who gets to bat first
- You want to know(infer) whether the coin is fair or not
- We observe the following sequence as the result of coin tosses

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- So is the coin biased? What is the bias?
- What if you know that the coin is not from a government mint?


## What have we seen?

- A plethora of seemingly unconnected procedures for doing inference
- A not so easily understood way of reporting results
- An inability to incorporate prior information or domain information


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- Bayesian belief: A quantification of how much we believe a particular statement is true.


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- Then we observe data which depends on the statement
- We update our belief on the basis of our data (inference)
- We use the updated belief to make predictions and model selection.


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## Connections to probability

- Do we need to develop a new system of thinking based on belief quantities, a new arithmetic for beliefs?
- Probability comes to the rescue
- Any coherent belief quantification system should satisfy the rules of probability
- Cox's axiomatic approach
- Dutch book theorem
- A statement can have a set of possible values; each value has an associated belief
- A random variable can have a set of possible values; the belief is given by the probability distribution


## Priors beliefs or prior probabilities



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## Priors beliefs or prior probabilities




## Digression: Bayes' Rule

- $X$ and $Y$ are two discrete random variables
- $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x, Y=y\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y\}}$
- Bayes' rule: $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\} \operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid X=x\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y\}}$
- Another form: $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x \mid Y=y\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\} \operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid X=x\}}{\sum_{x^{\prime}} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{X=x^{\prime}\right\} \operatorname{Pr}\left\{Y \mid X=x^{\prime}\right\}}$


## Digression: An example for Bayes rule

|  | Y |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| X | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1 | 0.05 | 0.10 | 0.05 |
| 2 | 0.10 | 0.02 | 0.20 |
| 3 | 0.10 | 0.28 | 0.10 |

Table: Joint probability distribution $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x, Y=y\}$

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## Digression: An example for Bayes rule

| $X$ | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 0.20 | 0.32 | 0.48 |

Table: Marginal probability distribution $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\}$

|  | Y |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| X | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1 | 0.2500 | 0.5000 | 0.2500 |
| 2 | 0.3125 | 0.0625 | 0.6250 |
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## Example: Bayesian inference of bias of a coin

- We observe the following sequence as the result of coin tosses

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- $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta=0.4 \mid Y=y\}=\frac{0.2 \times(0.4)^{7}(0.6)^{3}}{0.001}=0.07$
- $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta=0.5 \mid Y=y\}=\frac{0.6 \times(0.5)^{10}}{0.001}=0.58$
- $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta=0.6 \mid Y=y\}=\frac{0.2 \times(0.6)^{7}(0.4)^{3}}{0.001}=0.35$

The Bayesian Procedure

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\}=
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- We believe that the coin is unfair - the prior represents our belief
- We count 70 heads happening in 100 tosses of the coin
- Our posterior belief is as shown.


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- Introduction to Bayesian approach
- Probability for Bayesian inference - Bayes rule
- Examples of Bayesian inference


## Computing the posterior

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\}=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta\} \operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid \Theta\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y\}}
$$

- Computing the term in the denominator is hard!


## Approximating the prior and likelihood

- The prior and likelihood functions are chosen such that the posterior distribution is known in closed form.
- Furthermore, the posterior distribution is "similar" to the prior distribution
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- The likelihood $\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid \Theta\}=\Theta^{y}(1-\Theta)^{10-y}$
- Suppose the posterior $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\}$ needs to have the same mathematical form as the likelihood
- Choose $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta\} \propto \Theta^{a}(1-\Theta)^{b}$
- In fact, choose $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta\}=\frac{\Theta^{a-1}(1-\Theta)^{b-1}}{B(a, b)}$ (actually, this is the PDF $f_{\Theta}($.$) of a Beta distribution)$

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- $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\} \propto \Theta^{a-1+y}(1-\Theta)^{b+9-y}$

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- Then $\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\}=\frac{\Theta^{a-1+y}(1-\Theta)^{b+9-y}}{B(a-1+y, b+9-y)}$


## Samples from the posterior distribution

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\} & =\frac{\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta\} \operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid \Theta\}}{\operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y\}} \\
\operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta \mid Y=y\} \quad & \propto \operatorname{Pr}\{\Theta\} \operatorname{Pr}\{Y=y \mid \Theta\}
\end{aligned}
$$

- We do not know what the normalized posterior distribution is!
- Suppose we have a mechanism for generating samples using the unnormalized posterior distribution
- The empirical distribution of the samples closely approximates the normalized posterior distribution.
- Markov chain Monte Carlo is a technique for obtaining samples from the unnormalized posterior distribution.

Sampling from a distribution

- You want to generate samples from the given distribution

| $x$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| PMF | 0 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| CDF | 0 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 1 |

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```
import numpy as np
CDF = [0,0.1,0.3,0.5,0.6,1]
def sampleFromCDF():
    unifSample = np.random.rand()
    for i in [0,1,2,3,4]:
        if (unifSample > CDF[i] and
            unifSample <= CDF[i + 1]):
            return i + 1
```


## Acceptance-Rejection sampling



You want to generate samples from the given distribution

| $x$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| PMF | 0 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
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| PMF | 0 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
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## Acceptance-Rejection sampling



You want to generate samples from the given distribution

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- Let the number of accepted points be $N(x)$ and total points be $N$
- Then $N(x) \approx \frac{1}{6} N \times \operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\}$ for every large $N$
- Empirical probability or $\frac{N(x)}{N}$ is $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\}$
- Note that even if $\operatorname{Pr}\{X=x\}$ is not normalized, this would work! How?


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- Acceptance rate is $\frac{1}{M}$
- Low acceptance rate, inefficient especially in high dimensions
- Suppose there is a distribution $P_{X}(x)$ that you want to draw samples from
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## Metropolis-Hastings sampler

- Suppose there is a distribution $P_{X}(x)$ that you want to draw samples from
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- Suppose we pick an initial point $x_{0}$ in the domain of $P_{X}$
- We sample a $x_{1}$ according to a proposal distribution $Q_{X \mid X^{\prime}}\left(x \mid x^{\prime}\right)$
- We accept $x_{1}$ with the probability $\min \left(1, \frac{P_{X}\left(x_{1}\right) Q_{X \mid X^{\prime}}\left(x_{0} \mid x_{1}\right)}{P_{X}\left(x_{0}\right) Q_{X \mid X^{\prime}}\left(x_{1} \mid x_{0}\right)}\right)$.


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## How to do Bayesian voltage measurement?

```
import pymc
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
number_measurements = 200;
y = np.random.normal(5, l, number_measurements)
# Prior
mu = pymc.Uniform('mu', lower = 4.5, upper = 5.5)
# Likelihood
y_obs = pymc.Normal('y_obs', mu = mu, tau = l, value = y, observed = True)
#-Inference
m = pymc.Model([mu, y])
mc = pymc.MCMC(m)
mc.sample(iter=15000, burn=10000)
# Posterior
plt.hist(mu.trace(), 25, normed=True, label='post');
```


## How to find the bias of a coin?

```
n}=10
h = 70
alpha = 1
beta = 3
p = pymc.Beta('p', alpha=alpha, beta=beta)
y = pymc.Binomial'('y', n=n, p=p, value=h, observed=True)
m = pymc.Model([p, y])
mc = pymc.MCMC(m, )
mc.sample(iter=11000, burn=10000)
plt.hist(p.trace(), 25, normed=True, label='post');
plt.xlabel('Theta')
plt.show()
```


## How to do Bayesian regression?

```
# Generating sampled observed data
n = 21
a = 6
b}=
sigma = 2
x = np.linspace(0, l, n)
y_obs = a*x + b + np.random.normal(0, sigma, n)
data = pd.DataFrame(np.array([x, y_obs]).T, columns=['x', 'y'])
data.plot(x = 'x', y = ' y', kind ='scatter', s = 50);
plt.grid()
# Define priors
a = pymc.Normal('slope', mu=0, tau=1.0/10**2)
b = pymc.Normal('intercept', mu=0, tau=1.0/10**2)
tau = pymc.Gamma("tau", alpha=0.1, beta=0.1)
# Define likelihood
@pymc.deterministic
def mu(a=a, b=b, x=x):
    return a*x + b
y = pymc.Normal('y', mu=mu, tau=tau, value=y_obs, observed=True)
# Inference
m = pymc.Model([a, b, tau, x, y])
mc = pymc.MCMC(m)
mc.sample(iter=11000, burn=10000)
# Posterior
abar = a.stats()['mean']
bbar = b.stats()['mean']
data.plot( }\textrm{x}=\mp@subsup{'}{}{\prime}\mp@subsup{x}{}{\prime},\textrm{y}=\mp@subsup{'}{}{\prime}\mp@subsup{y}{}{\prime}\mathrm{ , kind='scatter', s=50);
xp = np.array([x.min(),' x.max()])
plt.plot(a.trace()*xp[!, None] + b.trace(), c='red', alpha=0.01)
plt.plot(xp, abar*xp + bbar, linewidth=2, c='red');
plt.show()
```


## Revisiting conditional independence

- Conditional independence for events
- $A, B, C$ are three events, which are subsets of $\Omega$ and elements of $\mathcal{F}$
- The events $A$ and $B$ are said to be independent if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(A B)=\operatorname{Pr}(A) \operatorname{Pr}(B)
$$

- The events $A$ and $B$ are said to be conditionally independent given the event $C$ if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(A B \mid C)=\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid C) \operatorname{Pr}(B \mid C)
$$

- Conditional independence for discrete random variables
- Let us consider discrete random variables $X, Y$, and $Z$.
- $X$ and $Y$ are conditionally independent given $Z$ if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x, Y=y \mid Z=z)=\operatorname{Pr}(X=x \mid Z=z) \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y \mid Z=z)
$$

for every $x, y, z$

- The joint conditional probability distribution factors into the product of the individual conditional probability distributions


## Discrete time Markov Chains

- We are modelling a system evolution in discrete time
- The state space is assumed to be discrete: $\mathcal{S}=\{0,1,2,3, \ldots, s\}$
- The system evolution

$$
\left(X_{0}, X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, \ldots, X_{n}, \ldots\right)
$$

is a discrete time Markov chain (DTMC) iff

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n+1}=j \mid X_{n}=i, X_{n-1}=i_{n-1}, \ldots\right\}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n+1}=j \mid X_{n}=i\right\}
$$

- Note that the LHS contains three parameters $-n, i, j$ and is denoted by $p_{i, j}(n)$
- The probability $p_{i, j}(n)$ is the transition probability of the Markov chain from state $i$ to state $j$ at time $n$.
- The above conditional independence property is called the Markov property.
- The Markov property says that given the present the future probabilistic evolution of the random process is independent of the past


## Exercise - I

- Suppose I take a coin and toss it continuously. Each toss is independent of any other toss.
- Whenever I see a heads on a coin toss I get Re. 1
- Let the probability of getting a heads be $p$. Suppose $p$ does not change with the tosses.
- Let the amount that I earn on the $n^{\text {th }}$ coin toss be $X_{n}$
- Then $\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n}=1\right\}=p$ and $\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n}=1\right\}=1-p$
- Consider

$$
\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, \ldots, X_{n}, \ldots\right)
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- Is the above random process a Markov chain?


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- Is the above random process a Markov chain?
- Yes!
- $\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n}=1 \mid X_{n-1}=i, X_{n-2}=i_{n-2}, \ldots\right\}=p$.
- Any IID process is Markov!


## Exercise - II

- Let us continue with the coin tossing experiment in the previous slide
- Consider

$$
\left(X_{1}, X_{2}, X_{3}, \ldots, X_{n}, \ldots\right)
$$

as before

- Now let $Y_{n}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} X_{k}$.
- Consider

$$
\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}, Y_{3}, \ldots, Y_{n}, \ldots\right)
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- Is the above process Markov?


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- Is the above process Markov?
- Yes!
- What all values can $Y_{n}$ take?
- $\operatorname{Pr}\left\{Y_{n}=j \mid Y_{n-1}=i, Y_{n-2}=i_{n-2}, \ldots\right\}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n}=j-i \mid Y_{n-1}=i\right\}$
- The probability on the RHS is non-zero only for $j=i$ or $j=i+1$


## Simulating DTMCs

```
transition_probability_matrix = [0.1, 0.1, 0.8;
    0.5, 0.3, 0.2;
    0.4, 0.1, 0.5];
initial_state = 1;
current_state = initial_state;
for i = 1: number_of_simulated_steps
    transition_probability = transition_probability_matrix( current_state , : ) ;
    next_state = sample_from_pmf (transition_probability);
    current_state = next_state;
end
```


## Specification of a DTMC model

- Specification of the state space $\mathcal{S}$
- Specification of the transistion probability $p_{i, j}(n)$
- Starting state*



## Homogeneous DTMCs

- A DTMC is said to be (time) homogeneous iff the transition probabilities $p_{i, j}(n)$ do not depend on time, i.e.,

$$
p_{i, j}(n)=p_{i, j}
$$

- A homogeneous DTMC is then fully represented by its transition probability matrix $P$, where $[P]_{i, j}=p_{i, j}$
- For a homogeneous DTMC we can talk about $n$ step transition probabilities

$$
p_{i, j}^{(n)}=\operatorname{Pr}\left\{X_{n}=j \mid X_{0}=i\right\}
$$

i.e., the probability that the Markov chain will move from $i$ to $j$ in $n \geq 1$ steps.

- We can also talk about an $n$ step transition probability matrix $P^{(n)}$, where $\left[P^{(n)}\right]_{i, j}=p_{i, j}^{(n)}$.


## State after $n$ steps

- Suppose $X_{0}=i$
- We let the DTMC evolve and we are interested in the state after $n$ steps
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- Is this a random variable? This is the random variable $X_{n}$
- What is the distribution of $X_{n}$ ? This is the $n$-step probabilities $p_{i, j}^{(n)}$


## Stationary distribution






$$
P=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
0.1 & 0.1 & 0.8 \\
0.5 & 0.3 & 0.2 \\
0.4 & 0.1 & 0.5
\end{array}\right]
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- $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{i, j}^{(n)}=\pi_{j}$
- A solution to $\pi=\pi P$ is $\pi=[0.3173,0.1250,0.5577]$


## Markov Chain Monte Carlo Samplers

- A Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampler is basically a Markov chain with the stationary distribution being the posterior that we want to sample from.


## References

- MIT Opencourseware - 6.041 (notes, exercises, video lectures)
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Thank you!
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