

Bayesian decision theory

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Notation

► the notation in DHS is quite sloppy

- e.g. show that

$$P(\textit{error}) = \int P(\textit{error} | z)P(z)dz$$

- really not clear what this means

► we will use the following notation

$$P_{X|Y}(x_0 | y_0)$$

- subscripts are random variables (uppercase)
- arguments are the values of the random variables (lowercase)
- equivalent to $P(X = x_0 | Y = y_0)$

Bayesian decision theory

- ▶ framework for computing optimal decisions on problems involving uncertainty (probabilities)
- ▶ basic concepts:
 - world:
 - has states or classes, drawn from a state or class random variable Y
 - fish classification, $Y \in \{\text{bass}, \text{salmon}\}$
 - student grading, $Y \in \{A, B, C, D, F\}$
 - medical diagnosis $\in \{\text{disease A}, \text{disease B}, \dots, \text{disease M}\}$
 - observer:
 - measures observations (features), drawn from a random process X
 - fish classification, $X = (\text{scale length}, \text{scale width}) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
 - student grading, $X = (\text{HW}_1, \dots, \text{HW}_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - medical diagnosis $X = (\text{symptom 1}, \dots, \text{symptom } n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Bayesian decision theory

- decision function:
 - observer uses the observations to make decisions about the state of the world y
 - if $x \in \Omega$ and $y \in \Psi$ the decision function is the mapping

$$g : \Omega \rightarrow \Psi$$

such that

$$g(x) = y_o$$

and y_o is a prediction of the state y

- loss function:
 - is the cost $L(y_o, y)$ of deciding for y_o when the true state is y
 - usually this is zero if there is no error and positive otherwise
- goal: to determine the optimal decision function for the loss $L(\dots)$

Classification

► we will focus on classification problems

- the observer tries to infer the state of the world

$$g(x) = i, \quad i \in \{1, \dots, M\}$$

- we will also mostly consider the “0-1” loss function

$$L[g(x), y] = \begin{cases} 1, & g(x) \neq y \\ 0, & g(x) = y \end{cases}$$

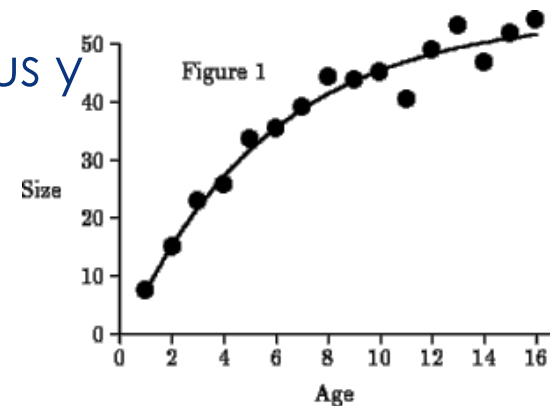
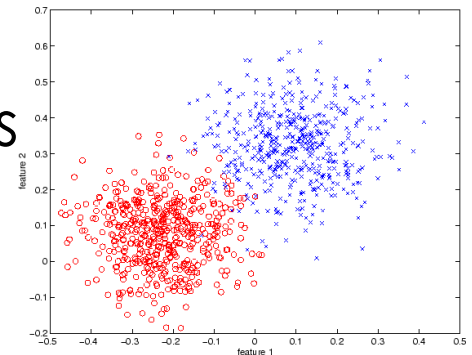
► but the regression case

- the observer tries to predict a continuous y

$$g(x) \in \mathcal{R}$$

- is basically the same, for a suitable loss function, e.g. squared error

$$L[g(x), y] = \|y - g(x)\|^2$$



Tools for solving BDT problem

▶ probabilistic representations

- joint distribution
- class-conditional distributions
- class probabilities

▶ properties of probabilistic inference

- chain rule of probability
- marginalization
- independence
- Bayes rule


Tools for solving BDT problem

► in order to find optimal decision function we need a probabilistic description of the problem

- in the most general form this is the joint distribution

$$P_{X,Y}(x,i)$$

- we frequently decompose it into combination of two terms

$$P_{X,Y}(x,i) = \underbrace{P_{X|Y}(x|i)}_{\text{class conditional distribution}} \underbrace{P_Y(i)}_{\text{class probability}}$$


- these are the “class conditional distribution” and “class probability”
- class probability
 - prior probability of state i , before observer measures anything
 - reflects a “prior belief” that, if all else is equal, the world will be in state i with probability $P_Y(i)$

Tools for solving BDT problem

▶ class-conditional distribution:

- is the model for the observations given the class or state of the world

▶ consider the grading example

- I know, from *experience*, that $a\%$ of the students will get A's, $b\%$ B's, $c\%$ C's, and so forth
- hence, for any student, $P(A) = a/100$, $P(B) = b / 100$, etc.
- these are the state probabilities, *before* I get to see any of the student's work
- the *class-conditional densities* are the models for the grades given the type of student
- let's assume that the grades are *Gaussian*, i.e. they are completely characterized by a mean and a variance

Tools for solving BDT problem

- knowledge of the class changes the mean grade, e.g. I expect
 - A students to have an average HW grade of 90%
 - B students 75%
 - C students 60%, etc
- this means that

$$P_{X|Y}(x|i) = G(x, \mu_i, \sigma)$$

- i.e. the distribution of class i is a Gaussian of mean μ_i and variance σ

► note that the decomposition

$$P_{X,Y}(x,i) = P_{X|Y}(x|i)P_Y(i)$$

is a special case of a very powerful tool in Bayesian inference

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The chain rule of probability

► is an important consequence of the definition of conditional probability

- note that, by recursive application of

$$P_{X,Y}(x, y) = P_{X|Y}(x | y)P_Y(y)$$

- we can write

$$\begin{aligned} P_{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= P_{X_1|X_2, \dots, X_n}(x_1 | x_2, \dots, x_n) \times \\ &\quad \times P_{X_2|X_3, \dots, X_n}(x_2 | x_3, \dots, x_n) \times \dots \\ &\quad \times \dots \times P_{X_{n-1}|X_n}(x_{n-1} | x_n) P_{X_n}(x_n) \end{aligned}$$

► this is called the chain rule of probability

► it allows us to modularize inference problems

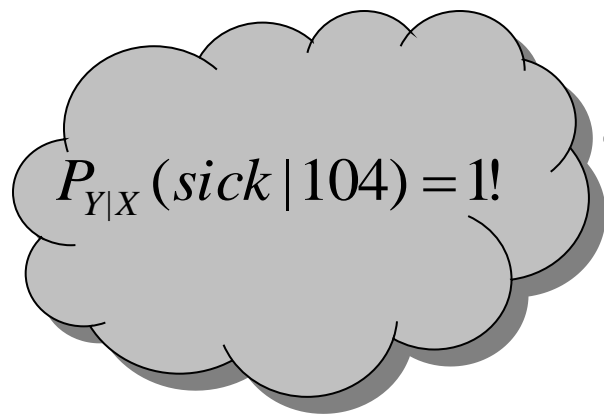
The chain rule of probability

► e.g. in the medical diagnosis scenario

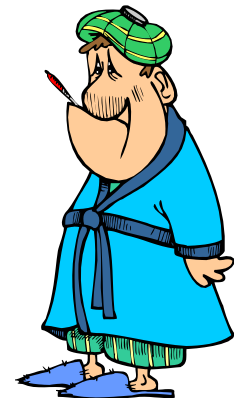
- what is the probability that you will be sick and have 104° of fever?

$$P_{Y,X_1}(sick, 104) = P_{Y|X_1}(sick | 104)P_{X_1}(104)$$

- breaks down a hard question (prob of sick and 104) into two easier questions
- Prob (sick | 104): everyone knows that this is close to one



You have a cold!

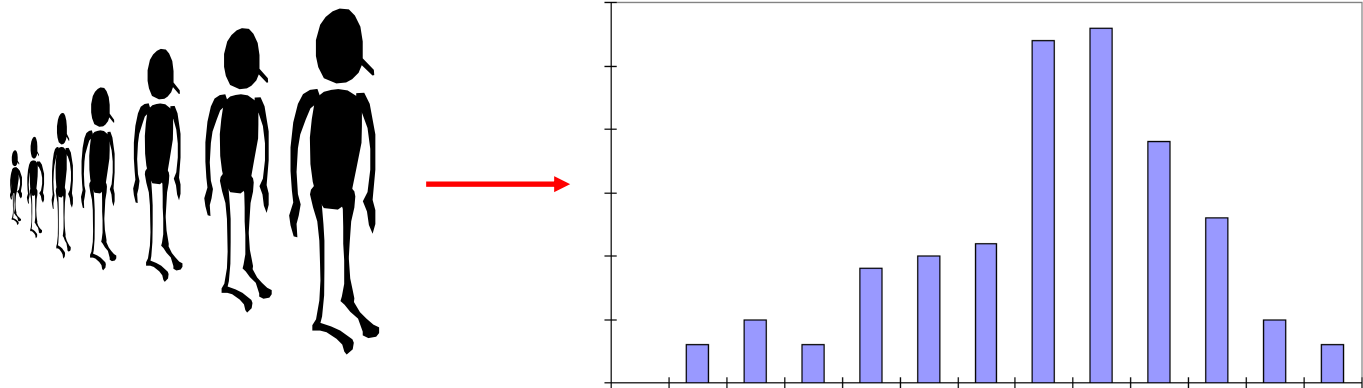


The chain rule of probability

- ▶ e.g. what is the probability that you will be sick and have 104° of fever?

$$P_{Y, X_1}(sick, 104) = P_{Y|X_1}(sick | 104)P_{X_1}(104)$$

- Prob(104): still hard, but easier than $P(sick, 104)$ since we now only have one random variable (temperature)
- does not depend on sickness, it is just the question “what is the probability that someone will have 104° ?”
 - gather a number of people, measure their temperatures and make a histogram that everyone can use after that



Tools for solving BDT problem

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▶ properties of probabilistic inference

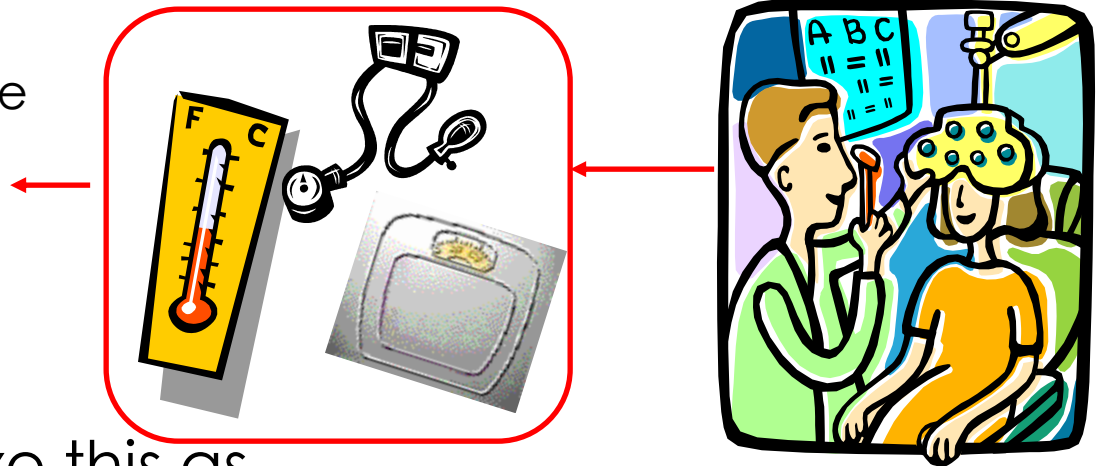
- chain rule of probability
- marginalization
- independence
- Bayes rule

Tools for solving BDT problems

- ▶ frequently we have problems with multiple random variables

- e.g. when in the doctor, you are mostly a collection of random variables

- x_1 : temperature
- x_2 : blood pressure
- x_3 : weight
- x_4 : cough



- ▶ we can summarize this as

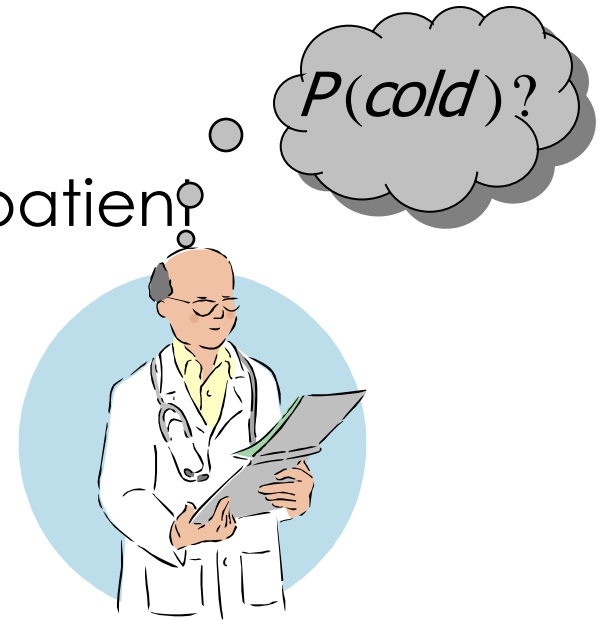
- a vector $\mathbf{X} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of n random variables
- $P_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the joint probability distribution

- ▶ but frequently we only care about a subset of \mathbf{X}

Marginalization

► what if I only want to know if the patient has a cold or not?

- does not depend on blood pressure and weight
- all that matters are fever and cough
- that is, we need to know $P_{X_1, X_4}(a, b)$



► we **marginalize with respect to a subset of variables**

- (in this case X_1 and X_4)
- this is done by **summing (or integrating) the others out**

$$P_{X_1, X_4}(x_1, x_4) = \sum_{x_2, x_3} P_{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$$
$$P_{X_1, X_4}(x_1, x_4) = \int \int P_{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4}(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) dx_2 dx_3$$

Marginalization

► important equation:

- seems trivial, but for large models is a major **computational asset** for probabilistic inference
- for any question, there are lots of variables which are **irrelevant**
- **direct evaluation** is frequently intractable
- typically, we **combine with the chain rule** to explore independence relationships that will allow us to **reduce computation**

► independence:

- X and Y are **independent** random variables if

$$P_{X|Y}(x | y) = P_X(x)$$

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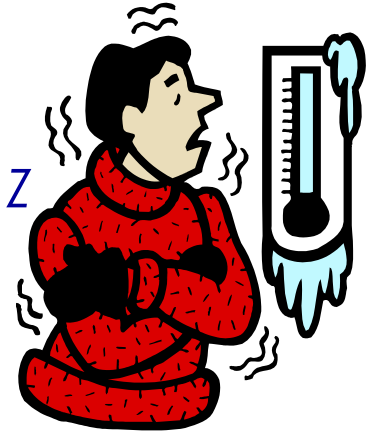
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Independence

► very useful in the design of intelligent systems

- frequently, knowing X makes Y independent of Z
- e.g. consider the shivering symptom:
 - if you have temperature you sometimes shiver
 - it is a symptom of having a cold
 - but once you measure the temperature, the two become independent



$$\begin{aligned}P_{Y,X_1,S}(sick,98,shiver) &= P_{Y|X_1,S}(sick | 98, shiver) \times \\ &\quad P_{S|X_1}(shiver | 98)P_{X_1}(98) \\ &= P_{Y|X_1}(sick | 98) \times \\ &\quad P_{S|X_1}(shiver | 98)P_{X_1}(98)\end{aligned}$$

► simplifies considerably the estimation of the probabilities

Independence

- ▶ combined with marginalization, enables efficient computation

- e.g to compute $P_Y(\text{sick})$

- 1) marginalization

$$P_Y(\text{sick}) = \sum_s \int P_{Y, X_1, S}(\text{sick}, x, s) dx$$

- 2) chain rule

$$P_Y(\text{sick}) = \sum_s \int P_{Y|X_1, S}(\text{sick} | x, s) P_{S|X_1}(s | x) P_{X_1}(x) dx$$

- 3) independence

$$P_Y(\text{sick}) = \int P_{Y|X_1}(\text{sick} | x) P_{X_1}(x) \overset{=1}{\sum_s P_{S|X_1}(s | x)} dx$$

- dividing and grouping terms (divide and conquer) makes the integral simpler

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Tools for solving BDT problems

► Bayes rule

$$P_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{P_{X|Y}(x | y)P_Y(y)}{P_X(x)}$$

- is the central equation of Bayesian inference
- allows us to “switch” the relation between the variables
- this is extremely useful
- e.g. for medical diagnosis doctor needs to know

$$P_{Y|X}(\textit{disease } y | \textit{symptom } x)$$

- this is very complicated because it is not causal
- we are asking for the probability of cause given consequence

Tools for solving BDT problems

- Bayes rule transforms it into the probability of consequence given cause

$$P_{Y|X}(\textit{disease } y | \textit{symptom } x) = \\ = \frac{P_{X|Y}(\textit{symptom } x | \textit{disease } y)P_Y(\textit{disease } y)}{P_X(\textit{symptom } x)}$$

and some other stuff

- note that $P_{X|Y}(\textit{symptom } x | \textit{disease } y)$ is easy – you can get it out of any medical [textbook](#)
- what about the other stuff?
 - $P_Y(\textit{disease } y)$ does not depend on the patient – you can get it by [collecting statistics over the entire population](#)
 - $P_X(\textit{symptom } x)$ is a combination of the two ([marginalization](#))

$$P_X(\textit{symptom } x) = \sum_y P_{X|Y}(\textit{symptom } x | \textit{disease } y)P_Y(\textit{disease } y)$$

Bayes rule

► Bayes rule allows us

- to combine textbook knowledge with prior knowledge to compute the probability of cause given consequence
- e.g. if you heard on the radio that there is an outbreak of “measles”,
 - you increase the prior probability for the measles disease (cause)

$$P_Y(\textit{measles}) \quad \uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$$

- since (relation between cause and consequence)

$$P_{X|Y}(\textit{patient symptoms} \mid \textit{measles})$$

does not change, Bayes rule will give you the “updated”

$$P_{Y|X}(\textit{measles} \mid \textit{patient symptoms})$$

- that accounts for the new information
- this is hard if you work directly with the posterior probability

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▶ we are now ready to make optimal decisions!

Any questions?