

# Probabilistic Modelling

Miguel Rios

Universiteit van Amsterdam

April 4, 2019

# Content

- ① Introduction
- ② PGM
- ③ Introduction word alignment

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .

For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)
- Probability measure is a function  $P : F \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , we associate a number  $P(A)$  that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur.

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)
- Probability measure is a function  $P : F \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , we associate a number  $P(A)$  that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur.
- satisfies the following properties:

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)
- Probability measure is a function  $P : F \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , we associate a number  $P(A)$  that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur.
- satisfies the following properties:
  - $P(A) \geq 0$

## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)
- Probability measure is a function  $P : F \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , we associate a number  $P(A)$  that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur.
- satisfies the following properties:
  - $P(A) \geq 0$
  - $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are disjoint events (i.e.  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  whenever  $i \neq j$ ), then
$$P(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$$



## Probability review

- The **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment denoted by  $\Omega$ .  
For example, two successive coin tosses the sample space of  $\{hh, tt, ht, th\}$ , where  $h$  heads and  $t$  tails.
- A **event space** is a set whose elements  $A \in F$  (called events) are subsets of  $\Omega$  (i.e.,  $A \subseteq \Omega$  is a collection of possible outcomes of an experiment)
- Probability measure is a function  $P : F \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ , we associate a number  $P(A)$  that measures the probability or degree of belief that the event will occur.
- satisfies the following properties:
  - $P(A) \geq 0$
  - $A_1, A_2, \dots$  are disjoint events (i.e.  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  whenever  $i \neq j$ ), then
$$P(\bigcup_i A_i) = \sum_i P(A_i)$$
  - $P(\Omega) = 1$

## Example

Consider the event of tossing a six-sided die. The sample space is  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .

We can define the simplest event space  $F = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$ . Another event space is the set of all subsets of  $\Omega$ .

For the first event space, the probability measure is given by  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ ,  $P(\Omega) = 1$ .

For the second event space, one valid probability measure is to assign the probability of each set in the event space to be  $\frac{i}{6}$  where  $i$  is the number of elements of that set; for example,  $P(\{1, 2, 3, 4\}) = \frac{4}{6}$  and  $P(\{1, 2, 3\}) = \frac{3}{6}$

# Conditional probability

- Let  $B$  be an event with non-zero probability.  
The conditional probability of any event  $A$  given  $B$  is defined as:

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)} \quad (1)$$

# Conditional probability

- Let  $B$  be an event with non-zero probability.  
The conditional probability of any event  $A$  given  $B$  is defined as:

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)} \quad (1)$$

- $P(A | B)$  is the probability measure of the event  $A$  after observing the occurrence of event  $B$ .

## Chain rule

- Let  $S_1, \dots, S_k$  be events,  $P(S_i) > 0$ . Then the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} &P(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) \\ &= P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1)P(S_3|S_2, S_1) \cdot P(S_k|S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{k-1}) \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

## Chain rule

- Let  $S_1, \dots, S_k$  be events,  $P(S_i) > 0$ . Then the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} &P(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) \\ &= P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1)P(S_3|S_2, S_1) \cdot P(S_k|S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{k-1}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

- With  $k = 2$  events, this is the definition of conditional probability:

$$P(S_1, S_2) = P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1) \quad (3)$$

## Chain rule

- Let  $S_1, \dots, S_k$  be events,  $P(S_i) > 0$ . Then the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} & P(S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k) \\ &= P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1)P(S_3|S_2, S_1) \cdot P(S_k|S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{k-1}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

- With  $k = 2$  events, this is the definition of conditional probability:

$$P(S_1, S_2) = P(S_1)P(S_2|S_1) \quad (3)$$

- In general, the chain rule is derived by applying the definition of conditional probability multiple times, for example:

$$\begin{aligned} & P(S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4) \\ &= P(S_1, S_2, S_3)P(S_4 | S_1, S_2, S_3) \\ &= P(S_1, S_2)P(S_3 | S_1, S_2)P(S_4 | S_1, S_2, S_3) \\ &= P(S_1)P(S_2 | S_1)P(S_3 | S_1, S_2)P(S_4 | S_1, S_2, S_3) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

# Independence

- Two events are called independent if and only if  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ , or  $P(A | B) = P(A)$



# Independence

- Two events are called independent if and only if  $P(A, B) = P(A)P(B)$ , or  $P(A | B) = P(A)$
- Thus, independence is equivalent to saying that observing  $B$  does not have any effect on the probability of  $A$

## Random variables

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.

The sample space  $\Omega$  are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have  $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$ .

## Random variables

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.

The sample space  $\Omega$  are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have  $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$ .

- we care about real-valued functions of outcomes, the number of heads that appear among our 10 tosses.  
These functions are known as [random variables](#).

# Random variables

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.

The sample space  $\Omega$  are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have  $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$ .

- we care about real-valued functions of outcomes, the number of heads that appear among our 10 tosses.

These functions are known as **random variables**.

- A random variable  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ .

## Random variables

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.

The sample space  $\Omega$  are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have  $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$ .

- we care about real-valued functions of outcomes, the number of heads that appear among our 10 tosses.

These functions are known as [random variables](#).

- A random variable  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ .
- We will denote random variables using upper case letters  $X$

# Random variables

- We flip 10 coins, and we want to know the number of coins that come up heads.

The sample space  $\Omega$  are 10-length sequences of heads and tails. For example, we might have  $\omega_0 = \langle H, H, T, H, T, H, H, T, T, T \rangle \in \Omega$ .

- we care about real-valued functions of outcomes, the number of heads that appear among our 10 tosses.

These functions are known as **random variables**.

- A random variable  $X$  is a function  $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$ .
- We will denote random variables using upper case letters  $X$
- We will denote the value that a random variable may take on using lower case letters  $x$ .

Thus,  $X = x$  means that we are assigning the value  $x \in \mathfrak{R}$  to the random variable  $X$

## Cumulative distribution functions

- To specify the probability measures used with random variables, it is convenient to specify alternative functions (CDFs, PDFs, and PMFs).

## Cumulative distribution functions

- To specify the probability measures used with random variables, it is convenient to specify alternative functions (CDFs, PDFs, and PMFs).
- A cumulative distribution function (CDF) is a function  $F_X : \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  which specifies a probability measure as,

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) \tag{5}$$



# Cumulative distribution functions

- To specify the probability measures used with random variables, it is convenient to specify alternative functions (CDFs, PDFs, and PMFs).
- A cumulative distribution function (CDF) is a function  $F_X : \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  which specifies a probability measure as,

$$F_X(x) = P(X \leq x) \quad (5)$$

- Properties:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq F_X(x) \leq 1 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F_X(x) &= 0 \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} F_X(x) &= 1 \\ x \leq y &\rightarrow F_X(x) \leq F_X(y) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

# Probability mass functions

- When a random variable  $X$  takes on a **finite** set of possible values is a **discrete** random variable

# Probability mass functions

- When a random variable  $X$  takes on a **finite** set of possible values is a **discrete** random variable
- A way to represent the probability measure associated with a random variable is to directly specify the probability of each value that the random variable can assume a probability mass function **PMF** is a function

# Probability mass functions

- When a random variable  $X$  takes on a **finite** set of possible values is a **discrete** random variable
- A way to represent the probability measure associated with a random variable is to directly specify the probability of each value that the random variable can assume a probability mass function **PMF** is a function
- $p_X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  such that  $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$

# Probability mass functions

- When a random variable  $X$  takes on a **finite** set of possible values is a **discrete** random variable
- A way to represent the probability measure associated with a random variable is to directly specify the probability of each value that the random variable can assume a probability mass function **PMF** is a function
- $p_X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  such that  $p_X(x) = P(X = x)$
- Properties:

$$\begin{aligned}0 &\leq p_X(x) \leq 1 \\ \sum_{x \in X} p_X(x) &= 1 \\ \sum_{x \in A} p_X(x) &= P(X \in A)\end{aligned}\tag{7}$$

# Probability density functions

- For some continuous random variables, the cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$  is differentiable everywhere. In these cases, we define the Probability Density Function or PDF as the derivative of the CDF

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} \quad (8)$$

# Probability density functions

- For some continuous random variables, the cumulative distribution function  $F_X(x)$  is differentiable everywhere. In these cases, we define the Probability Density Function or PDF as the derivative of the CDF

$$f_X(x) = \frac{dF_X(x)}{dx} \quad (8)$$

- Properties:

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x) &\geq 0 \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) &= 1 \\ \int_{x \in A} f_X(x) dx &= P(X \in A) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

# Expectation

- $X$  is a discrete random variable with PMF  $p_X(x)$  and  $g : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is an arbitrary function.



# Expectation

- $X$  is a discrete random variable with PMF  $p_X(x)$  and  $g : \mathfrak{R} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  is an arbitrary function.
- In this case,  $g(X)$  can be considered a random variable, and we define the **expectation** of  $g(X)$  as

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in X} g(x)p_X(x) \quad (10)$$

# Expectation

- $X$  is a discrete random variable with PMF  $p_X(x)$  and  $g : \mathcal{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is an arbitrary function.
- In this case,  $g(X)$  can be considered a random variable, and we define the expectation of  $g(X)$  as

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x \in X} g(x)p_X(x) \quad (10)$$

- If  $X$  is a continuous random variable with PDF  $f_X(x)$ , then the expected value of  $g(X)$  is defined as:

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f_X(x)dx \quad (11)$$

# Expectation

- Intuitively, the expectation of  $g(X)$  can be thought of as a **weighted average** of the values that  $g(x)$  can take on for different values of  $x$ , where the weights are given by  $p_X(x)$

# Expectation

- Intuitively, the expectation of  $g(X)$  can be thought of as a **weighted average** of the values that  $g(x)$  can take on for different values of  $x$ , where the weights are given by  $p_X(x)$
- Properties:

$$\mathbb{E}[a] = a \text{ for any constant } a \in \mathfrak{R}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[af(X)] = a \mathbb{E}[f(X)] \text{ for any constant } a \in \mathfrak{R}$$

$$\text{Linearity of Expectation } \mathbb{E}[f(X) + g(X)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)] + \mathbb{E}[g(X)] \quad (12)$$

## Discrete random variables

- $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):  
one if a coin with heads probability  $p$  comes up heads, zero otherwise

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } x = 1. \\ 1 - p, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

## Discrete random variables

- $X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):  
one if a coin with heads probability  $p$  comes up heads, zero otherwise

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p, & \text{if } x = 1. \\ 1 - p, & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

- $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  (where  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ ):  
the number of heads in  $n$  independent flips of a coin with heads probability  $p$

$$p = \binom{n}{x} \cdot p^x (1 - p)^{n-x} \quad (14)$$

## Discrete random variables

- $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  (where  $p > 0$ ):  
the number of flips of a coin with heads probability  $p$  until the first heads.

$$p(x) = p(1 - p)^{x-1} \quad (15)$$

## Discrete random variables

- $X \sim \text{Geometric}(p)$  (where  $p > 0$ ):  
the number of flips of a coin with heads probability  $p$  until the first heads.

$$p(x) = p(1 - p)^{x-1} \quad (15)$$

- $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$  (where  $\lambda > 0$ ):  
a probability distribution over the non-negative integers used for modelling the frequency of rare events.

$$p(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} \quad (16)$$



## Continuous random variables

- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  (where  $a < b$ ):  
equal probability density to every value between  $a$  and  $b$  on the real line

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

## Continuous random variables

- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  (where  $a < b$ ):  
equal probability density to every value between  $a$  and  $b$  on the real line

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

- $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$  (where  $\lambda > 0$ ):  
decaying probability density over the non-negative real

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

## Continuous random variables

- $X \sim \text{Uniform}(a, b)$  (where  $a < b$ ):  
equal probability density to every value between  $a$  and  $b$  on the real line

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a}, & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

- $X \sim \text{Exponential}(\lambda)$  (where  $\lambda > 0$ ):  
decaying probability density over the non-negative real

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

- $X \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ : also known as the Gaussian distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (19)$$

## Random variable example

- We cannot talk about the exact value of the random variable but we can reason about it's possible values

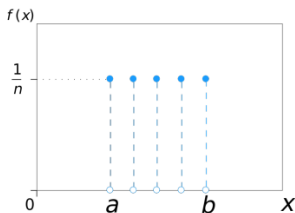
## Random variable example

- We cannot talk about the exact value of the random variable but we can reason about it's possible values
- We quantify the degree of belief we have in each outcome

## Random variable example

- We cannot talk about the exact value of the random variable but we can reason about it's possible values
- We quantify the degree of belief we have in each outcome
- **Uniform distribution**: every outcome is equally likely  
if  $n$  is the size of the set of possible outcomes the probability that  $x$  takes on any value (e.g.  $a$ ) is  $\frac{1}{n}$

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{n} \text{ for all } x \in [a, b] \quad (20)$$



## Random variable example

- A random variable is a function that maps from a sample space  $\Omega$  to  $\mathfrak{R}$   
 $x : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$

## Random variable example

- A random variable is a function that maps from a sample space  $\Omega$  to  $\mathfrak{R}$

$$x : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$$

- Example: which pet do kids love the most?

Sample space:  $\Omega = \{\text{bird, cat, dog}\}$

$$x(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega = \text{bird} \\ 2 & \omega = \text{cat} \\ 3 & \omega = \text{dog} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$



## Random variable example

- A random variable is a function that maps from a sample space  $\Omega$  to  $\mathfrak{R}$

$$x : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$$

- Example: which pet do kids love the most?

Sample space:  $\Omega = \{\text{bird, cat, dog}\}$

$$x(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega = \text{bird} \\ 2 & \omega = \text{cat} \\ 3 & \omega = \text{dog} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

- if say  $x$  we mean the set of outcomes  $\omega : x(\omega) = x$  which is called an event

## Random variable example

- A random variable is a function that maps from a sample space  $\Omega$  to  $\mathfrak{R}$

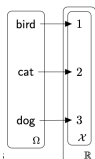
$$x : \Omega \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$$

- Example: which pet do kids love the most?

Sample space:  $\Omega = \{\text{bird, cat, dog}\}$

$$x(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \omega = \text{bird} \\ 2 & \omega = \text{cat} \\ 3 & \omega = \text{dog} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

- if say  $x$  we mean the set of outcomes  $\omega : x(\omega) = x$  which is called an event
- we call  $\mathcal{X}$  the support of  $X$



## Random variable example

- A Categorical variable can model 1 of  $k$  categories  
 $x \sim \text{Cat}(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$

## Random variable example

- A Categorical variable can model 1 of  $k$  categories  
 $x \sim \text{Cat}(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$
- $x = 1, \dots, k$

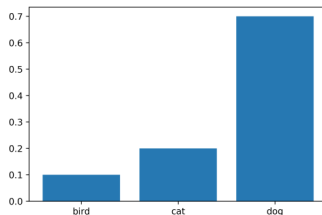
## Random variable example

- A Categorical variable can model 1 of  $k$  categories  
 $x \sim \text{Cat}(\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$
- $x = 1, \dots, k$
- the categorical parameter is a probability vector

$$0 \leq \theta_x \leq 1 \text{ for } x \in [1, k]$$

$$\sum_{x=1}^k \theta_x = 1$$

(22)



## Sum rule and product rule

- $p(x, y)$  is the joint distribution of two random variables  $x, y$ .

## Sum rule and product rule

- $p(x, y)$  is the joint distribution of two random variables  $x, y$ .
- product rule:  $p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$

## Sum rule and product rule

- $p(x, y)$  is the joint distribution of two random variables  $x, y$ .
- product rule:  $p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$
- How does the joint PMF over two variables relate to the PMF for each variable separately?

With the corresponding marginal distributions  $p(x)$  and  $p(y)$



## Sum rule and product rule

- $p(x, y)$  is the joint distribution of two random variables  $x, y$ .
- product rule:  $p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$
- How does the joint PMF over two variables relate to the PMF for each variable separately?

With the corresponding marginal distributions  $p(x)$  and  $p(y)$

- We denote the sum rule as (also known as the marginalization property):

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y), & \text{if } y \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_Y p(x, y) dy, & \text{if } y \text{ is continuous} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

## Sum rule and product rule

- $p(x, y)$  is the joint distribution of two random variables  $x, y$ .
- product rule:  $p(x, y) = p(y | x)p(x)$
- How does the joint PMF over two variables relate to the PMF for each variable separately?

With the corresponding marginal distributions  $p(x)$  and  $p(y)$

- We denote the sum rule as (also known as the marginalization property):

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in Y} p(x, y), & \text{if } y \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_Y p(x, y) dy, & \text{if } y \text{ is continuous} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

- We sum out (or integrate out) the set of states  $y$  of the random variable  $Y$ .

# Bayes' rule

- To derive expressions for conditional probability **Bayes' rule**

$$\underbrace{p(y | x)}_{\text{posterior}} = \frac{\overbrace{p(x | y)}^{\text{likelihood}} \overbrace{p(y)}^{\text{prior}}}{\underbrace{p(x)}_{\text{evidence}}} \quad (24)$$

# Bayes' rule

- To derive expressions for conditional probability [Bayes' rule](#)

# Bayes' rule

- To derive expressions for conditional probability **Bayes' rule**
- In the case of discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$

$$p(y | x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | y)p(y)}{\sum_{y' \in Y} p(x | y')p(y')} \quad (25)$$

# Bayes' rule

- To derive expressions for conditional probability **Bayes' rule**
- In the case of discrete random variables  $X$  and  $Y$

$$p(y | x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | y)p(y)}{\sum_{y' \in Y} p(x | y')p(y')} \quad (25)$$

- If the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous

$$f(y | x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{f_X(x)} = \frac{f(x | y)f(y)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x | y')f(y')dy'} \quad (26)$$

# Probabilistic modelling

- Representation  
How to express a probability distribution that models some real-world phenomenon?

# Probabilistic modelling

- Representation

How to express a probability distribution that models some real-world phenomenon?

- Inference

Given a probabilistic model, how do we obtain answers to relevant questions about the world?

Querying the marginal or conditional probabilities of certain events of interest.



# Probabilistic modelling

- Representation  
How to express a probability distribution that models some real-world phenomenon?
- Inference  
Given a probabilistic model, how do we obtain answers to relevant questions about the world?  
Querying the marginal or conditional probabilities of certain events of interest.
- Learning  
Goal of fitting a model given a dataset. The model can be then use to make predictions about the future.

# Bayesian networks

- Directed graphical models are a family of probability distributions that admit a compact parameterisation that can be described using a directed graph.

# Bayesian networks

- Directed graphical models are a family of probability distributions that admit a compact parameterisation that can be described using a directed graph.
- By the chain rule we can write any probability as:

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2 \mid x_1) \cdots p(x_n \mid x_{n-1}, \dots, x_2, x_1). \quad (27)$$

# Bayesian networks

- Directed graphical models are a family of probability distributions that admit a compact parameterisation that can be described using a directed graph.
- By the chain rule we can write any probability as:

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2 | x_1) \cdots p(x_n | x_{n-1}, \dots, x_2, x_1). \quad (27)$$

- A Bayesian network is a distribution in which each factor on the right hand side depends only on a small number of ancestor variables  $x_{A_i}$ :

$$p(x_i | x_{i-1}, \dots, x_1) = p(x_i | x_{A_i}) \quad (28)$$

# Bayesian networks

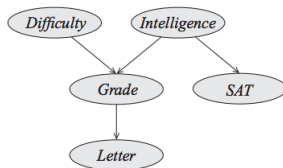
- Distributions of this form can be naturally expressed as directed acyclic graphs (DAG), in which vertices correspond to variables  $x_i$  and edges indicate dependency relationships.

# Bayesian networks

- Distributions of this form can be naturally expressed as directed acyclic graphs (DAG), in which vertices correspond to variables  $x_i$  and edges indicate dependency relationships.

Model of a student's grade  $g$  on an exam. This grade depends on the exam's difficulty  $d$  and the student's intelligence  $i$  it also affects the quality  $l$  of the reference letter from the professor who taught the course. The student's intelligence  $i$  affects his SAT score  $s$  in addition to  $g$ . Each variable is binary, except for  $g$ , which takes 3 possible values.

# Bayesian networks



$$p(l, g, i, d, s) = p(l | g)p(g | i, d)p(i)p(d)p(s | i) \quad (29)$$

# Bayesian networks

- Bayesian network is a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$



# Bayesian networks

- Bayesian network is a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$
- Together with a random variable  $x_i$  for each node  $i \in V$

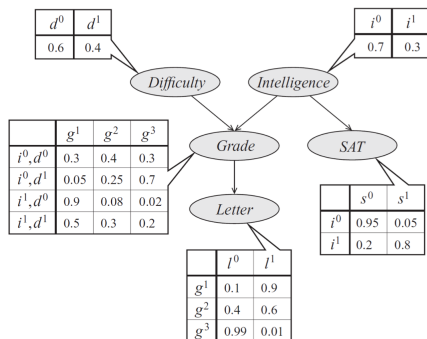
# Bayesian networks

- Bayesian network is a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$
- Together with a random variable  $x_i$  for each node  $i \in V$
- One conditional probability distribution (CPD) conditioned on its parents  
 $p(x_i \mid x_{A_i})$

# Bayesian networks

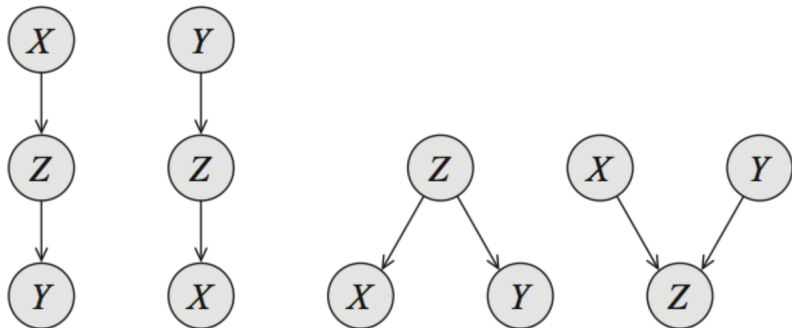
- Bayesian network is a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$
- Together with a random variable  $x_i$  for each node  $i \in V$
- One conditional probability distribution (CPD) conditioned on its parents  
 $p(x_i \mid x_{A_i})$
- probability  $p$  factorizes over a DAG  $G$  if it can be decomposed into a product of factors

# Bayesian networks



$$p(l, g, i, d, s) = p(l | g)p(g | i, d)p(i)p(d)p(s | i) \quad (30)$$

# Bayesian networks



# Probabilistic modelling

- Inference

Given a probabilistic model, how do we obtain answers to relevant questions about the world?

Querying the marginal or conditional probabilities of certain events of interest.

$$p(x_1) = \sum_{x_2} \sum_{x_3} \dots \sum_{x_n} p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n) \quad (31)$$

# Word alignment

- IBM models assume that each word in the French sentence is a translation of exactly zero or one word of the English sentence.

## Word alignment

- IBM models assume that each word in the French sentence is a translation of exactly zero or one word of the English sentence.
- The notation to refer to each word.  
Let a French sentence  $f$  be represented by an array of  $m$  words,  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ ,  
and English sentence  $e$  be represented by an array of  $l$  words,  $\langle e_1, \dots, e_l \rangle$



## Word alignment

- IBM models assume that each word in the French sentence is a translation of exactly zero or one word of the English sentence.
- The notation to refer to each word.  
Let a French sentence  $f$  be represented by an array of  $m$  words,  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ ,  
and English sentence  $e$  be represented by an array of  $l$  words,  $\langle e_1, \dots, e_l \rangle$
- IBM models decompose the joint probability of a sentence pair with the chain rule as:

$$p(e_1^l, f_1^m) = \underbrace{p(e_1^l)}_{\text{language model}} \times \underbrace{p(f_1^m | e_1^l)}_{\text{translation model}} \quad (32)$$

## Word alignment

- IBM models assume that each word in the French sentence is a translation of exactly zero or one word of the English sentence.
- The notation to refer to each word.  
Let a French sentence  $f$  be represented by an array of  $m$  words,  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ ,  
and English sentence  $e$  be represented by an array of  $l$  words,  $\langle e_1, \dots, e_l \rangle$
- IBM models decompose the joint probability of a sentence pair with the chain rule as:

$$p(e_1^l, f_1^m) = \underbrace{p(e_1^l)}_{\text{language model}} \times \underbrace{p(f_1^m | e_1^l)}_{\text{translation model}} \quad (32)$$

- French words are conditionally independent given the English sentence.

## Word alignment

- IBM models assume that each word in the French sentence is a translation of exactly zero or one word of the English sentence.
- The notation to refer to each word.  
Let a French sentence  $f$  be represented by an array of  $m$  words,  $\langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ ,  
and English sentence  $e$  be represented by an array of  $l$  words,  $\langle e_1, \dots, e_l \rangle$
- IBM models decompose the joint probability of a sentence pair with the chain rule as:

$$p(e_1^l, f_1^m) = \underbrace{p(e_1^l)}_{\text{language model}} \times \underbrace{p(f_1^m | e_1^l)}_{\text{translation model}} \quad (32)$$

- French words are conditionally independent given the English sentence.
- Inference can be performed exactly.

# Mixture models

- A mixture model consist of  $c$  mixture components, each defines a distribution over the space  $X$ .

# Mixture models

- A mixture model consist of  $c$  mixture components, each defines a distribution over the space  $X$ .
- Each component can specialise its distribution on a subset of the data.

## Mixture models

- A mixture model consist of  $c$  mixture components, each defines a distribution over the space  $X$ .
- Each component can specialise its distribution on a subset of the data.
- The probability of a mixture model with  $c$  components assigns to  $n$  data point is denoted by:

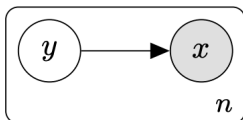
$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1^n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c p(x_i, y_i = j) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c p(y_i = j) p(x_i | y_i = j) \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

## Mixture models

- A mixture model consist of  $c$  mixture components, each defines a distribution over the space  $X$ .
- Each component can specialise its distribution on a subset of the data.
- The probability of a mixture model with  $c$  components assigns to  $n$  data point is denoted by:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x_1^n) &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c p(x_i, y_i = j) \\
 &= \prod_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^c p(y_i = j) p(x_i | y_i = j)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{33}$$

- We introduced the random variable  $y_i$  that ranges over the mixture components



# Word Alignment

- Learn a conditional probabilistic model of a French sentence  $f$  given an English sentence  $e$ , which we denote as  $p(f|e)$ .



# Word Alignment

- Learn a conditional probabilistic model of a French sentence  $f$  given an English sentence  $e$ , which we denote as  $p(f|e)$ .
- A dataset  $D$  of  $N$  sentence pairs that are known to be translations of each other,  
 $D = (f^{(1)}, e^{(1)}) \dots (f^{(N)}, e^{(N)})$

# Word Alignment

- Learn a conditional probabilistic model of a French sentence  $f$  given an English sentence  $e$ , which we denote as  $p(f|e)$ .
- A dataset  $D$  of  $N$  sentence pairs that are known to be translations of each other,  
 $D = (f^{(1)}, e^{(1)}) \dots (f^{(N)}, e^{(N)})$
- **Goal** of our model will be to uncover the hidden word-to-word correspondences in these translation pairs.

# Word Alignment

- Learn a conditional probabilistic model of a French sentence  $f$  given an English sentence  $e$ , which we denote as  $p(f|e)$ .
- A dataset  $D$  of  $N$  sentence pairs that are known to be translations of each other,  
$$D = (f^{(1)}, e^{(1)}) \dots (f^{(N)}, e^{(N)})$$
- **Goal** of our model will be to uncover the hidden word-to-word correspondences in these translation pairs.
- We will learn the model from data, and use it to predict the existence of the missing word alignments

# Generative Process

- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:

# Generative Process

- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:
  - ① Choose French sentence length  $m$  based on the English sentence length  $l$

# Generative Process

- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:
  - ① Choose French sentence length  $m$  based on the English sentence length  $l$
  - ② For each French position  $j$ , choose the English position  $a_j$  that it is generated from

# Generative Process

- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:
  - ① Choose French sentence length  $m$  based on the English sentence length  $l$
  - ② For each French position  $j$ , choose the English position  $a_j$  that it is generated from
  - ③ For each French position  $j$ , choose a French word based on the English word in position  $a_j$

# Generative Process

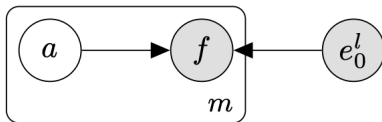
- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:
  - ① Choose French sentence length  $m$  based on the English sentence length  $l$
  - ② For each French position  $j$ , choose the English position  $a_j$  that it is generated from
  - ③ For each French position  $j$ , choose a French word based on the English word in position  $a_j$
- The generative story introduces the alignment variable  $a_j$   
It is an indicator for the mixture component that the French word in position  $j$  is generated from



# Generative Process

- Generative process for the French sentence conditioned on the English sentence:
  - ① Choose French sentence length  $m$  based on the English sentence length  $l$
  - ② For each French position  $j$ , choose the English position  $a_j$  that it is generated from
  - ③ For each French position  $j$ , choose a French word based on the English word in position  $a_j$
- The generative story introduces the alignment variable  $a_j$   
It is an indicator for the mixture component that the French word in position  $j$  is generated from
- The mixture components are English words

## IBM graphical model



Questions?

# References I