

MANAGING UNCERTAINTY

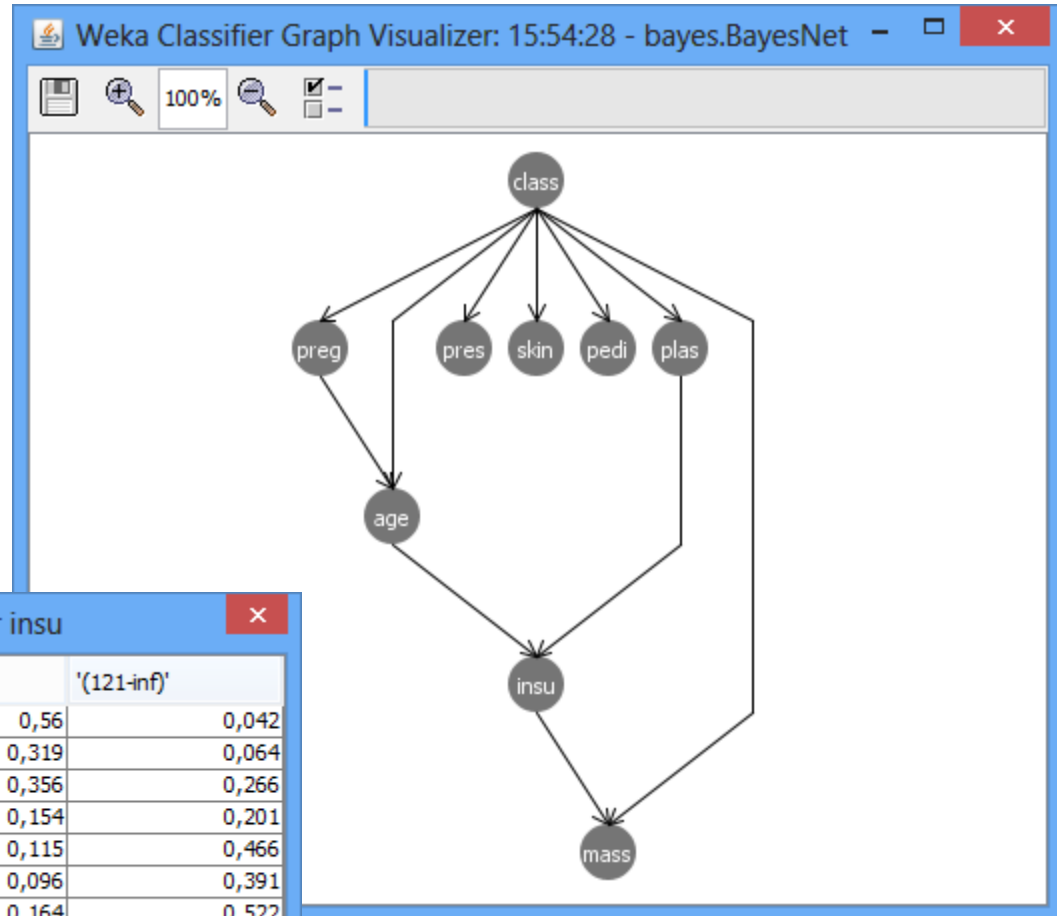
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What is this course about?

- A common issue:
Making (good) **decision** when problem inputs are **uncertain**
- A common powerful paradigm based on **probability theory**:
Bayesian Inference
- A theoretical course with a toolbox of reference methods
 - Graphical Models
 - Gaussian Processes
 - Bayesian Filtering (e.g. Kalman filter)
 - Hidden Markov Models (HMM)
 - MDP/POMDP,
 - Reinforcement learning ...
- Underlying some of the most modern applications

Example of application: Data Analysis and Decision Theory

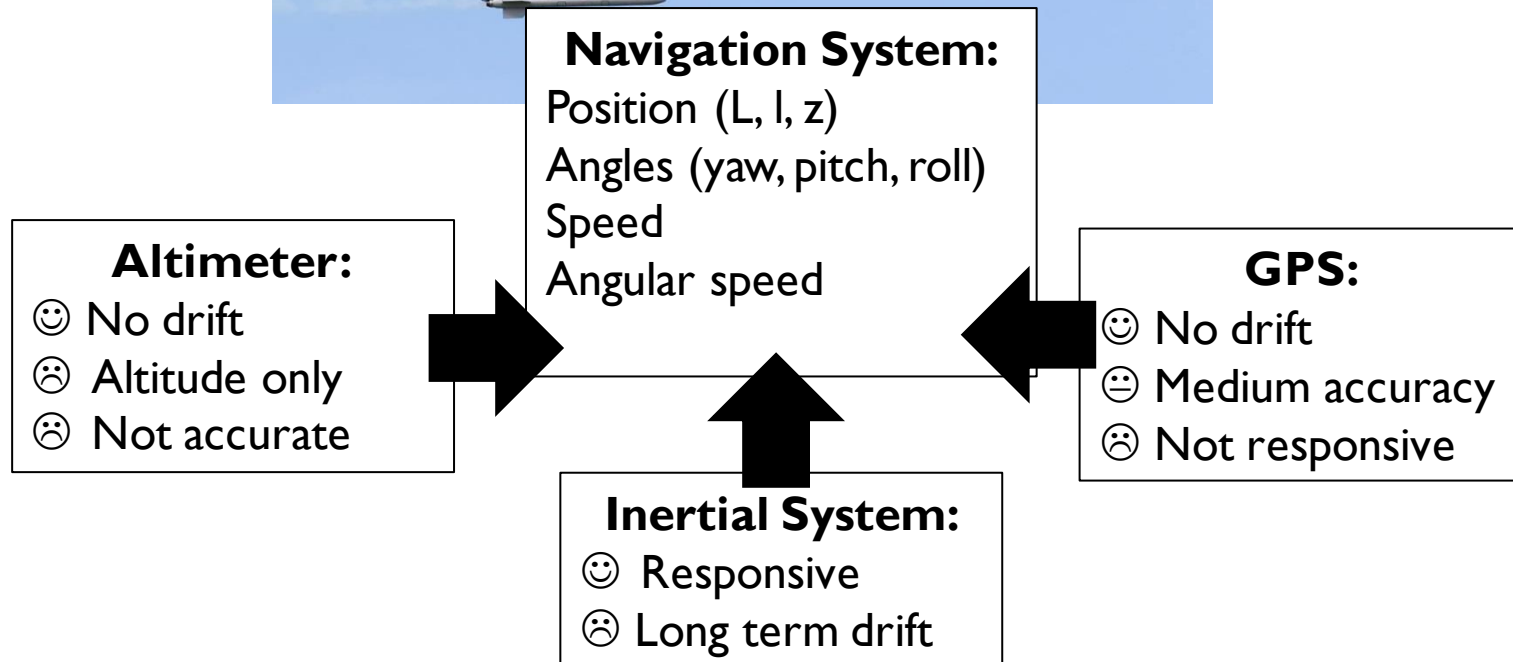


Probability Distribution Table For insu

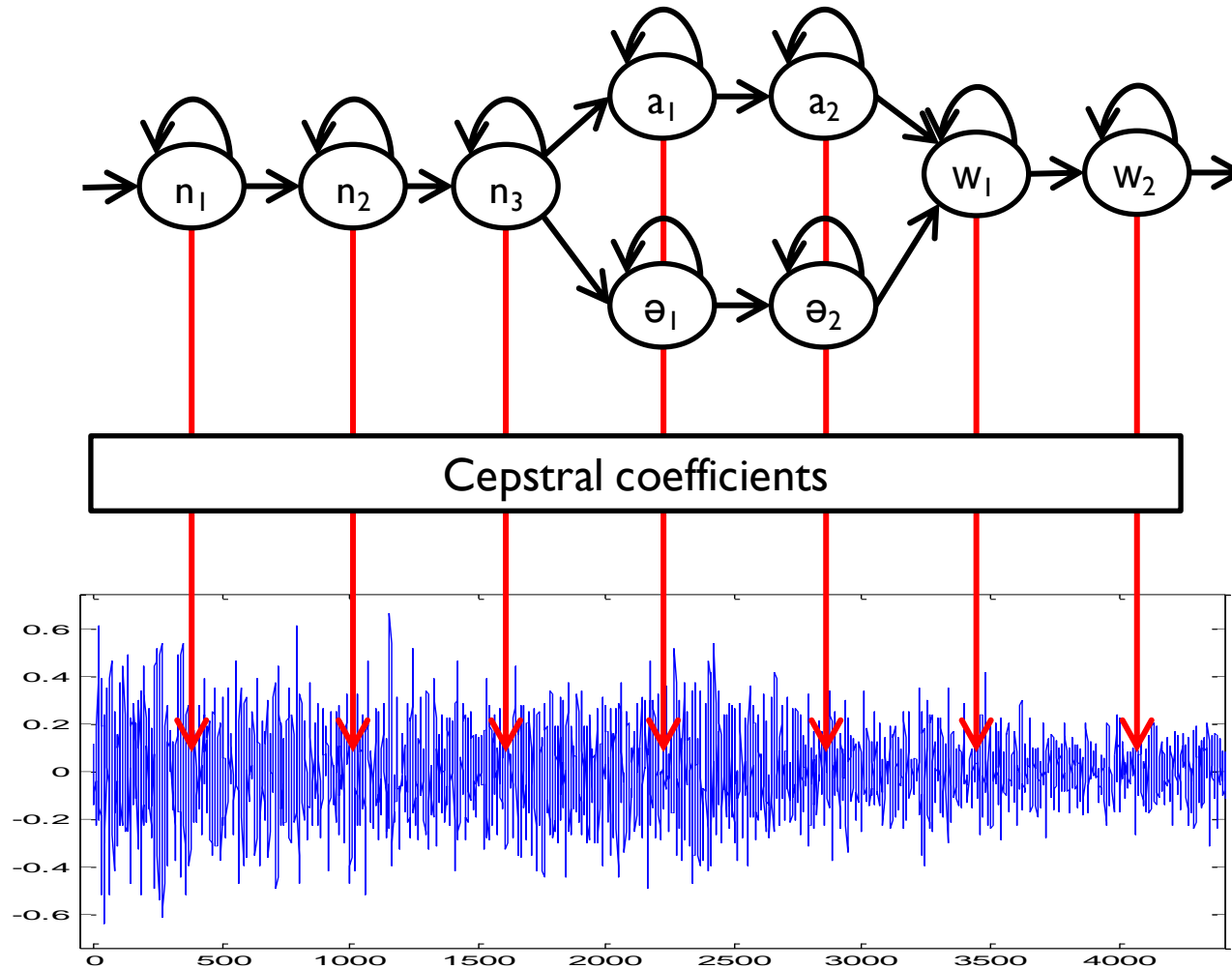
plas	age	'(-inf-14.5]'	'(14.5-121]'	'(121-inf)'
'(-inf-99.5]'	'(-inf-28.5]'	0,398	0,56	0,042
'(-inf-99.5]'	'(28.5-inf)'	0,617	0,319	0,064
'(99.5-127.5]'	'(-inf-28.5]'	0,377	0,356	0,266
'(99.5-127.5]'	'(28.5-inf)'	0,645	0,154	0,201
'(127.5-154.5]'	'(-inf-28.5]'	0,42	0,115	0,466
'(127.5-154.5]'	'(28.5-inf)'	0,513	0,096	0,391
'(154.5-inf)'	'(-inf-28.5]'	0,313	0,164	0,522
'(154.5-inf)'	'(28.5-inf)'	0,508	0,038	0,454

Source: UCI Diabetes dataset

Example of application: Navigation Systems and Data Fusion



Example of application: Speech recognition systems



Plan

Part I: Bayesian inference and graphical models

- Static models + bayesian filtering
- Given by myself
- Lessons from 1 to 4

Part II: Markov models and processes

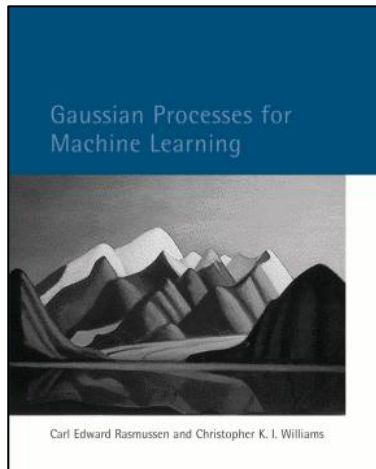
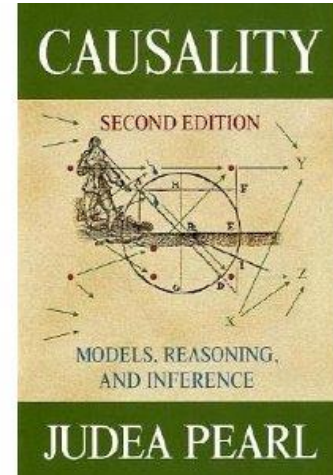
- Dynamic models (Markov Chains, HMM, MDP, POMDP, etc)
- Given by Matthieu Geist
- Lessons from 5 to 8

Detailed Plan of Part I

Part I: lessons 1 to 4 by myself

- Introduction: how to model uncertainty
 - Reminder of basic notions of probability theory
- Bayesian estimation: general principles
 - Bayes' rule
 - Bayes estimators
- Elementary bayesian methods
 - Classification: Naive Bayes
 - Regression: Linear models
 - Clustering: EM
- Gaussian Processes
- Bayesian Filtering and Kalman filters
- Graphical models:
 - Markov Random Fields
 - Bayesian Networks

References



Different types of uncertainty

- From hardly predictable future events (“randomness”)
 - Chaotic events like throwing a dice
- From “myopic” views of reality because
 - Information is not easily observable.
E.g. kinetic energy of a given molecule in a gas?
 - Information is useless/too expensive to be stored
E.g. how many hair does one have on one’s head?
E.g. data streams (logs etc)
- From lack of information/knowledge
 - Information: will I pass the exam?
 - Knowledge: HMM do not match brain perception of spoken languages



Frequentist View

Bayesian View

The Frequentist View

- Historical view of probabilities made by statisticians:

*“How likely is an event to occur, given **past observations of it?**”*

- Probability interpretation: *probabilities are limits of **frequencies***

- Fundamental principle: *law of large numbers* $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} = E(X)$

- Restrictions: assume

- A large number of observations are available
 - Either available from a large reservoir (population, etc)
 - Or outputs of repeatable experiences (throwing dice)
- Stationarity

- At the origin of many useful notions:

- Expected values (as a limit of average)
- Independence and sampling (e.g. polls in a population)
- Confidence intervals. Convergences and concentration inequalities

The Bayesian View

- Modern view of probabilities used in machine learning:

*“How likely is an event to occur, given **what I believe to know?**”*

- Probability interpretation:

*Probabilities are the amount of **confidence** that I grant to some events to occur, given what I know.*

- Fundamental principle: *Bayes' rule and inference*

- Advantages:

- Encompasses frequentist interpretation of probability
- Does **not** assume events are observable or stationary:

E.g. “Will I pass my exam?”

- Limitations:

- Too ambitious to be scalable: every variable or parameter has to be described by its distribution

Before going further: Probability Reminder & Notation

Probability space: (Ω, \mathcal{E}, P)

- A set Ω of possible **outcomes**
- A set \mathcal{E} of events defined as **subsets** of outcomes closed under
 - Conjunction (and): $E_1 \cap E_2$
 - Disjunction (or): $E_1 \cup E_2$
 - Negation (not): $\overline{E} = \Omega \setminus E$
- A function $P: \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0,1]$ mapping events to probabilities s.t.
 - $P(\Omega) = 1$
 - $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) - P(E_1 \cap E_2)$

Random variable:

- A function $X: \Omega \rightarrow D_X$ mapping every outcome to a value in D_X
- Such that the fact X takes its value into some “reasonable” subset $V \in \Sigma$ is mapped to some probability:

$$\forall V \in \Sigma, X^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{E}$$

(where $\Sigma \in 2^{D_X}$ is closed under \cap, \cup, \setminus)

- **Distribution** of X : $P_X(x) = P(X = x) = P(X^{-1}(\{x\}))$

Joint distribution and the curse of dimensionality

Joint distribution :

- Given a set of random variables X_1, \dots, X_n ,
- **Joint variable** is $(X_1, \dots, X_n): \Omega \rightarrow D_{X_1} \times \dots \times D_{X_n}$ whose
- **Joint distribution** is:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{(X_1, \dots, X_n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= P(X_1 = x_1 \cap \dots \cap X_n = x_n) \\ &= P(X_1^{-1}(\{x_1\}) \cap \dots \cap X_n^{-1}(\{x_n\})) \end{aligned}$$

Curse of dimensionality:

- Joint distribution contains all information we need but ...
- But if X_1, \dots, X_n can take each m values, need a table of size m^n
- Probabilistic models do not scale
- Unless further hypothesis (independence, Markov property, etc)

Probability Theory: the two main operations to know

- **Marginalization** \equiv reducing joint distribution to a subset of variables
- Information loss
- Obtained by the **sum rule**:

$$P_{V_1, \dots, V_n}(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \sum_{h_1, \dots, h_m} P_{V_1, \dots, V_n, H_1, \dots, H_m}(v_1, \dots, v_n, h_1, \dots, h_m)$$

- **Conditioning** \equiv restricting joint distribution by a subset of values
- Information gain
- Obtained by the **product rule**:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{V_1, \dots, V_n}(v_1, \dots, v_n | K_1 = k_1, \dots, K_m = k_m) \\ = \frac{P_{V_1, \dots, V_n, K_1, \dots, K_m}(v_1, \dots, v_n, k_1, \dots, k_m)}{P_{K_1, \dots, K_m}(k_1, \dots, k_m)} \end{aligned}$$

- Requires marginalization

Probability Independence

Definition:

- Two events A and B are **independent** iff:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B) \text{ or equiv. } P(A|B) = P(A)$$

- Extension to random variables:

$$\forall x, \forall y, P(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X = x) \times P(Y = y)$$

- Extension to a set of events/variables $(A_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$:

$$P(\cap_{1 \leq i \leq n} A_i) = \prod_{1 \leq i \leq n} P(A_i) \text{ or equiv. } \forall I, P(\cap_I A_i \mid \cap_{[1,n] \setminus I} A_i) = P(\cap_I A_i)$$

Examples:

$$P(\text{dice 1 \& 2 show 1}) = P(\text{dice 1 shows 1}) \times P(\text{dice 2 shows 1})$$

$$P(\text{Hurricane } x \mid \text{Butterfly } y \text{ flaps its wings}) = P(\text{Hurricane } x)$$

Remarks:

- Independence is very common (to a first approximation)
- Independence is scalable (factorizes joint distribution).