

# *Introduction to Probabilistic Reasoning*

## *3. Inferring values – propagating uncertainties.*

Giulio D'Agostini

Dipartimento di Fisica  
Università di Roma La Sapienza

## Summary on probabilistic approach

---

- Probability means how much we believe something
  - Probability depends on available information  
→ subjective
  - Probability values obey the following basic rules
    1.  $0 \leq P(A | I) \leq 1$
    2.  $P(\Omega | I) = 1$
    3.  $P(A \cup B | I) = P(A | I) + P(B | I)$  [if  $P(A \cap B | I) = \emptyset$ ]
    4.  $P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I) = P(B | A, I) \cdot P(A | I)$
  - All the rest by logic
- And, please, **be coherent!**

## Summary on probabilistic approach

- Probability means how much we believe something
  - Probability depends on available information  
→ subjective
  - Probability values obey the following basic rules
    1.  $0 \leq P(A | I) \leq 1$
    2.  $P(\Omega | I) = 1$
    3.  $P(A \cup B | I) = P(A | I) + P(B | I)$  [if  $P(A \cap B | I) = \emptyset$ ]
    4.  $P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I) = P(B | A, I) \cdot P(A | I)$
  - All the rest by logic
- And, please, **be coherent!**

⇒ more comments on  $P(A | B, I)$  →

## Rule 4 does not define conditional probability

---

$$4. \quad P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I) = P(B | A, I) \cdot P(A | I)$$

is not a definition of conditional probability (at least in this framework):

- probability is always conditioned by some hypotheses;
- rule nr 4 just relates one belief to the other two  
( $\Rightarrow$  e.g.: detector efficiency to a 70 GeV Higgs)

## Condition is, in general, hypothetical

---

$A$  = Berlin wins the football match against Athens

$B$  = It rains

$$P(A | B, I) = p \quad (1)$$

with  $I$  indicating whatever I know about Berlin, Athens, football, etc.

does not mean “how much I believe Berlin will win once I know it rains”,

but, simpler, “how much I believe Berlin will win under the hypothesis that it rains”

## Condition is, in general, hypothetical

$A$  = Berlin wins the football match against Athens

$B$  = It rains

$$P(A | B, I) = p \quad (2)$$

with  $I$  indicating whatever I know about Berlin, Athens, football, etc.

does not mean “how much I believe Berlin will win once I know it rains”,

but, simpler, “how much I believe Berlin will win under the hypothesis that it rains”

$$P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I)$$

$P(A \cap B | I)$  is then usually different ( $\rightarrow$  smaller) than  $P(A | B, I)$

## Condition is, in general, hypothetical

---

$A$  = Berlin wins the football match against Athens

$B$  = It rains

$$P(A | B, I) = p \quad (3)$$

with  $I$  indicating whatever I know about Berlin, Athens, football, etc.

does not mean “how much I believe Berlin will win once I know it rains”,

but, simpler, “how much I believe Berlin will win under the hypothesis that it rains”

$$P(A \cap B | I) = P(A | B, I) \cdot P(B | I)$$

$P(A \cap B | I)$  is then usually different ( $\rightarrow$  smaller) than  $P(A | B, I)$  if we know  $B$ , then  $P(B) = 1$  and  $P(A \cap B)$  would be equal to  $P(A | B)$

## Conditioned events in terms of bets

---

$A | B$

True:  $B$  occurs and  $A$  occurs:  
→ I win the bet

False:  $B$  occurs and  $A$  does not:  
→ I lose the bet

Undefined:  $B$  does not occur: → bet invalidated



## Independence

We remind that two events are called *independent* if

$$P(E \cap H) = P(E) P(H).$$

This is equivalent to saying that

- $P(E | H) = P(E)$  and
- $P(H | E) = P(H)$ ,

i.e. the hypothesis that one event has occurs does not change the probability of the other.

## Independence

We remind that two events are called *independent* if

$$P(E \cap H) = P(E) P(H).$$

This is equivalent to saying that

- $P(E | H) = P(E)$  and
- $P(H | E) = P(H)$ ,

i.e. the hypothesis that one event has occurs does not change the probability of the other. If  $P(E | H) \neq P(E)$ , then the events  $E$  and  $H$  are *correlated*. In particular:

- if  $P(E | H) > P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *positively* correlated;
- if  $P(E | H) < P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *negatively* correlated.

## Independence

We remind that two events are called *independent* if

$$P(E \cap H) = P(E) P(H).$$

This is equivalent to saying that

- $P(E | H) = P(E)$  and
- $P(H | E) = P(H)$ ,

i.e. the hypothesis that one event has occurs does not change the probability of the other. If  $P(E | H) \neq P(E)$ , then the events  $E$  and  $H$  are *correlated*. In particular:

- if  $P(E | H) > P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *positively* correlated;
- if  $P(E | H) < P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *negatively* correlated.

[By the way,  $P(E \cap H | I) = P(E | I) P(H | I)$ , and so on.]

## Independence

We remind that two events are called *independent* if

$$P(E \cap H) = P(E) P(H).$$

This is equivalent to saying that

- $P(E | H) = P(E)$  and
- $P(H | E) = P(H)$ ,

i.e. the hypothesis that one event has occurs does not change the probability of the other. If  $P(E | H) \neq P(E)$ , then the events  $E$  and  $H$  are *correlated*. In particular:

- if  $P(E | H) > P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *positively* correlated;
- if  $P(E | H) < P(E)$  then  $E$  and  $H$  are *negatively* correlated.

[By the way,  $P(E \cap H | I) = P(E | I) P(H | I)$ , and so on.]

→ comment on definition Vs use of ‘independence’

## Example from six box problem

---

$$P(W | I) = 1/2$$

$$P(B | I) = 1/2$$

$$P(W | H_j, I) = j/5$$

$$P(W | H_j, I) = (1 - j)/5$$

$W$  is positively correlated with  $H_4$ ,  
negatively correlated with  $H_2$ , etc

## Stochastical dependence vs physical dependence

---

See slides on logical  
independence Vs **stochastical**  
**(probabilistic) independence**

... not always intuitive

# Events and sets

Convenient event  $\leftrightarrow$  set analogy:

		Symbol
event	set	$E$
certain	sample space	$\Omega$
impossible	empty	$\emptyset$
implication	inclusion	$E_1 \subseteq E_2$
opposite (complementary)	complementary	$\overline{E}$ $(E \cup \overline{E} = \Omega)$
logical product	intersection	$E_1 \cap E_2$
logical sum	union	$E_1 \cup E_2$
incompatible	disjoint	$E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$
<b>complete class</b>	finite partition	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j \\ \cup_i E_i = \Omega \end{array} \right.$

## Rules of probability

---

- $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$  if  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j$   
(just an extension of the basic rule 3).
- $P(E) = 1 - P(\bar{E})$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  (generalization of '3')
- $P(E) = P(E \cap H) + P(E \cap \bar{H})$



## Rules of probability

- $P(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$  if  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j$   
(just an extension of the basic rule 3).
- $P(E) = 1 - P(\bar{E})$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  (generalization of '3')
- $P(E) = P(E \cap H) + P(E \cap \bar{H})$

→ Extension to complete class of events:

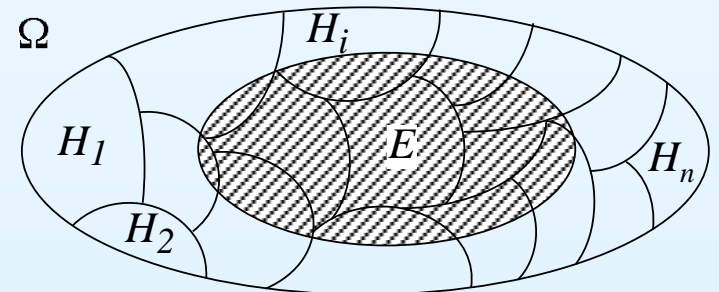
$$P(E) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n (E \cap H_i)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E \cap H_i)$$

and, applying '4'

$$P(E) = \sum_i P(H_i) \cdot P(E | H_i)$$

('decomposition law')

→ weighted average of  $P(E | H_i)$



$$E = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (E \cap H_i)$$

## Rules of probability

- $P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E_i)$  if  $E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j$   
(just an extension of the basic rule 3).
- $P(E) = 1 - P(\bar{E})$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$  (generalization of '3')
- $P(E) = P(E \cap H) + P(E \cap \bar{H})$

→ Extension to complete class of events:

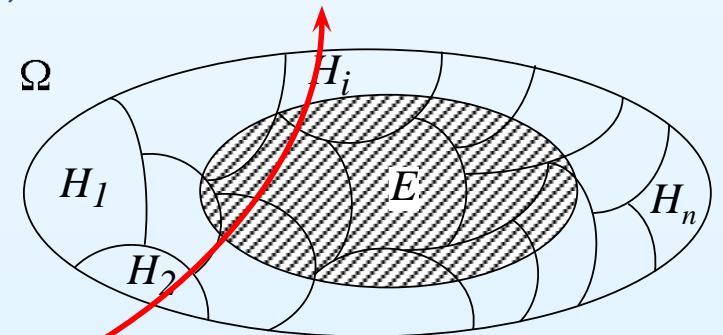
$$P(E) = P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n (E \cap H_i)\right) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(E \cap H_i)$$

and, applying '4'

$$P(E) = \sum_i P(H_i) \cdot P(E | H_i)$$

('decomposition law')

→ basis of 'marginalization'



$$E = \bigcup_{i=1}^n (E \cap H_i)$$

## Recovering the combinatorial evaluation formula

---

$$p = \frac{\# \text{ favorable cases}}{\# \text{ possible equiprobable cases}}$$

Given the ‘elementary’, equiprobable  $n$  events  $e_i$  forming a complete class, i.e.  $\cup_i e_i = \Omega$ , we are interested in  $P(E)$ , where  $E = “\cup m \text{ elementary events}”$

## Recovering the combinatorial evaluation formula

---

$$p = \frac{\# \text{ favorable cases}}{\# \text{ possible equiprobable cases}}$$

Given the ‘elementary’, equiprobable  $n$  events  $e_i$  forming a complete class, i.e.  $\cup_i e_i = \Omega$ , we are interested in  $P(E)$ , where  $E = “\cup m \text{ elementary events}”$

$$P(e_i) = p_0$$

$$P(\cup_i e_i) = \sum_i P(e_i) = n p_0 = 1$$

$$\rightarrow p_0 = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\rightarrow P(E) = \sum_{e_i \subset E} P(e_i) = m p_0 = \frac{m}{n}$$

# Teoria della probabilità Vs calcolo combinatorio

---

Capitolo 3 della dispense di Probabilità: **da saltare!**

- troppo spesso si confondono corsi di probabilità con corsi di calcolo combinatorio

# Teoria della probabilità Vs calcolo combinatorio

---

Capitolo 3 della dispense di Probabilità: **da saltare!**

- troppo spesso si confondono corsi di probabilità con corsi di calcolo combinatorio  
a volte lo si confonde con rudimenti di statistica descrittiva

# Teoria della probabilità Vs calcolo combinatorio

---

Capitolo 3 della dispense di Probabilità: **da saltare!**

- troppo spesso si confondono corsi di probabilità con corsi di calcolo combinatorio

a volte lo si confonde con rudimenti di statistica descrittiva

quasi sempre manca la parte inferenziale (“il problema essenziale del metodo sperimentale”, secondo Poincaré).

## Recovery frequency based “evaluation rule”

---

Reminder:

$p \rightarrow f_n$ : Bernoulli theorem

$f_n \rightarrow p$ : Bayes' Theorem

(under well defined assumptions – Laplace rule of succession)

→ If we know exactly the box composition there is little to learn about the proportion  $p$



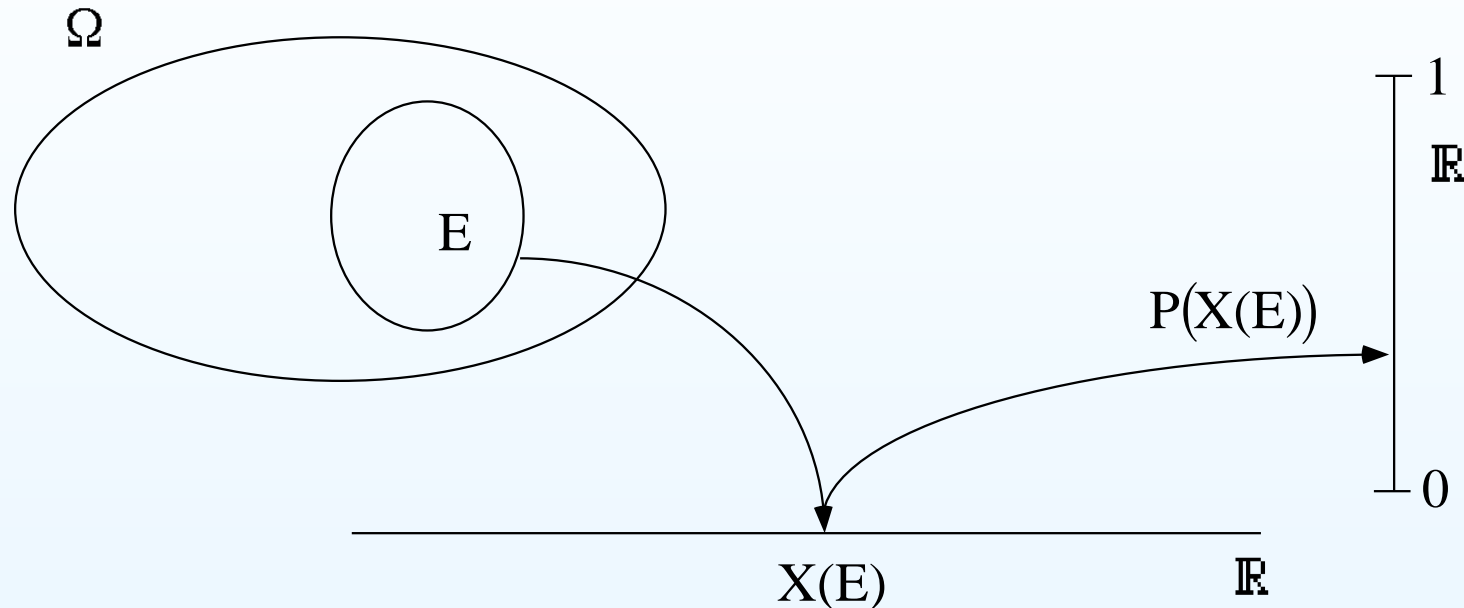
## Errori dei giocatori del lotto (e non solo...)

---

**Numeri ritardatari:** si confonde il teorema di Bernoulli (“mal raccontato...”) come una **Legge** e quindi sembra che i numeri in ritardo si precipitino verso il foro di uscita, sgomitando, per mettersi in regola con la “legge dei grandi numeri” (forse temono qualche terribile sanzione...).

**Numeri caldi:** si confondono distribuzioni statistiche (un dato empirico di statistica descrittiva) con distribuzioni di probabilità, tendendo così a credere che ci siano dei numeri particolarmente vivaci e anche ‘sovversivi’ che tentano di uscire, irrispettosi della “legge dei grandi numeri”.

## From events to uncertain numbers

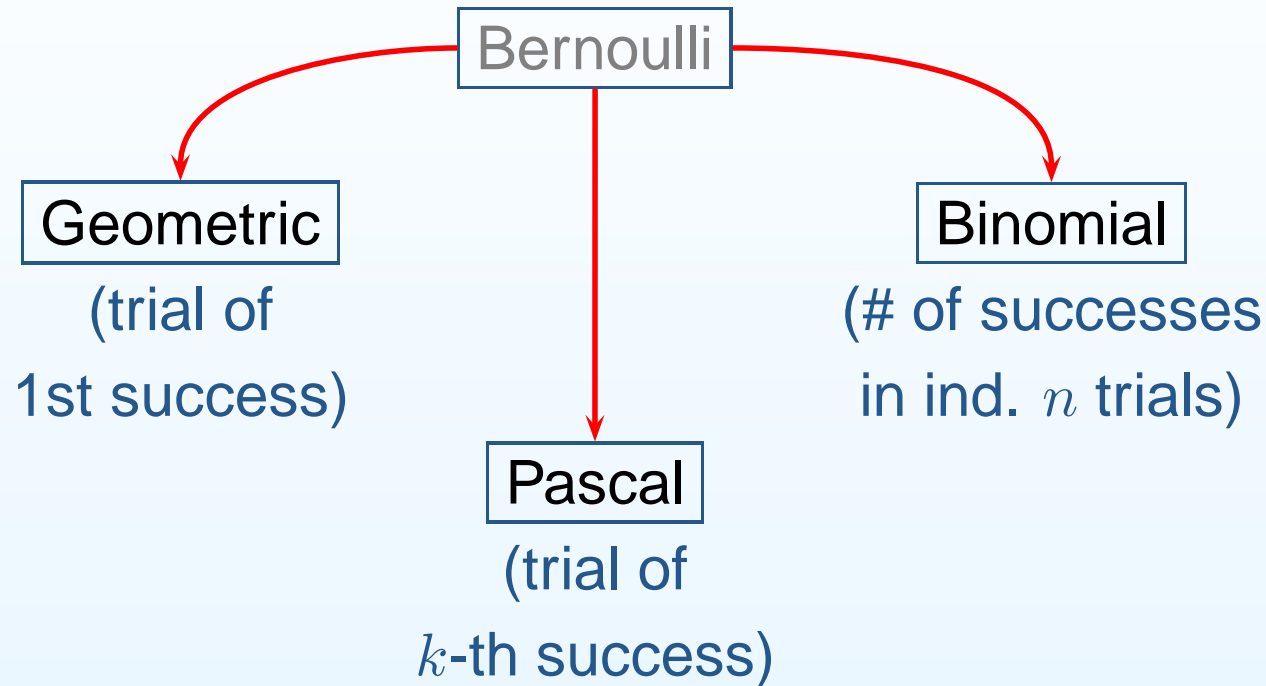


Uncertain numbers are associated to events

- Rolling one die:  $X = 4 \leftrightarrow$  'face marked with 4'  
(note: no intrinsic order in the numbers associated a die)
- $\rightarrow P(X = 4) = P(\text{'face marked with 4'})$

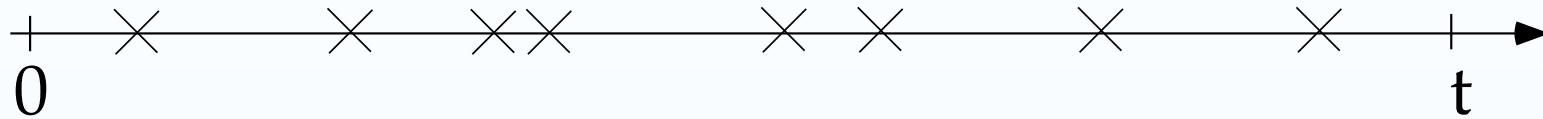
## Distributions derived from the Bernoulli process

---



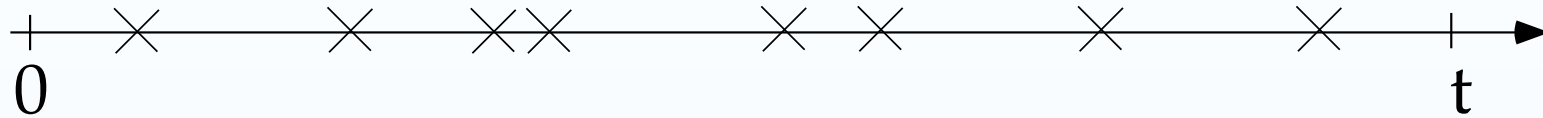
(Binomial well known. We shall not use the Pascal)

## Poisson process



Phenomena that might occur or not at a give time (or at a give position), with  $r$  the intensity of the process.

# Poisson process

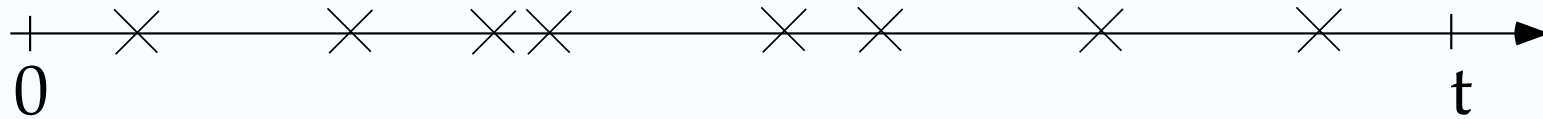


Phenomena that might occur or not at a give time (or at a give position), with  $r$  the intensity of the process.

- direct probability problems:
  - given a fixed 'measuring' time  $T$ , how many counts do we expect?  
→ Poisson distribution:  $\lambda = r T$ ;
  - How much time do we have to wait before the first event occurs? → exponential distribution:  $\tau = 1/r$ ;

$$\lambda \leftrightarrow \tau$$

# Poisson process



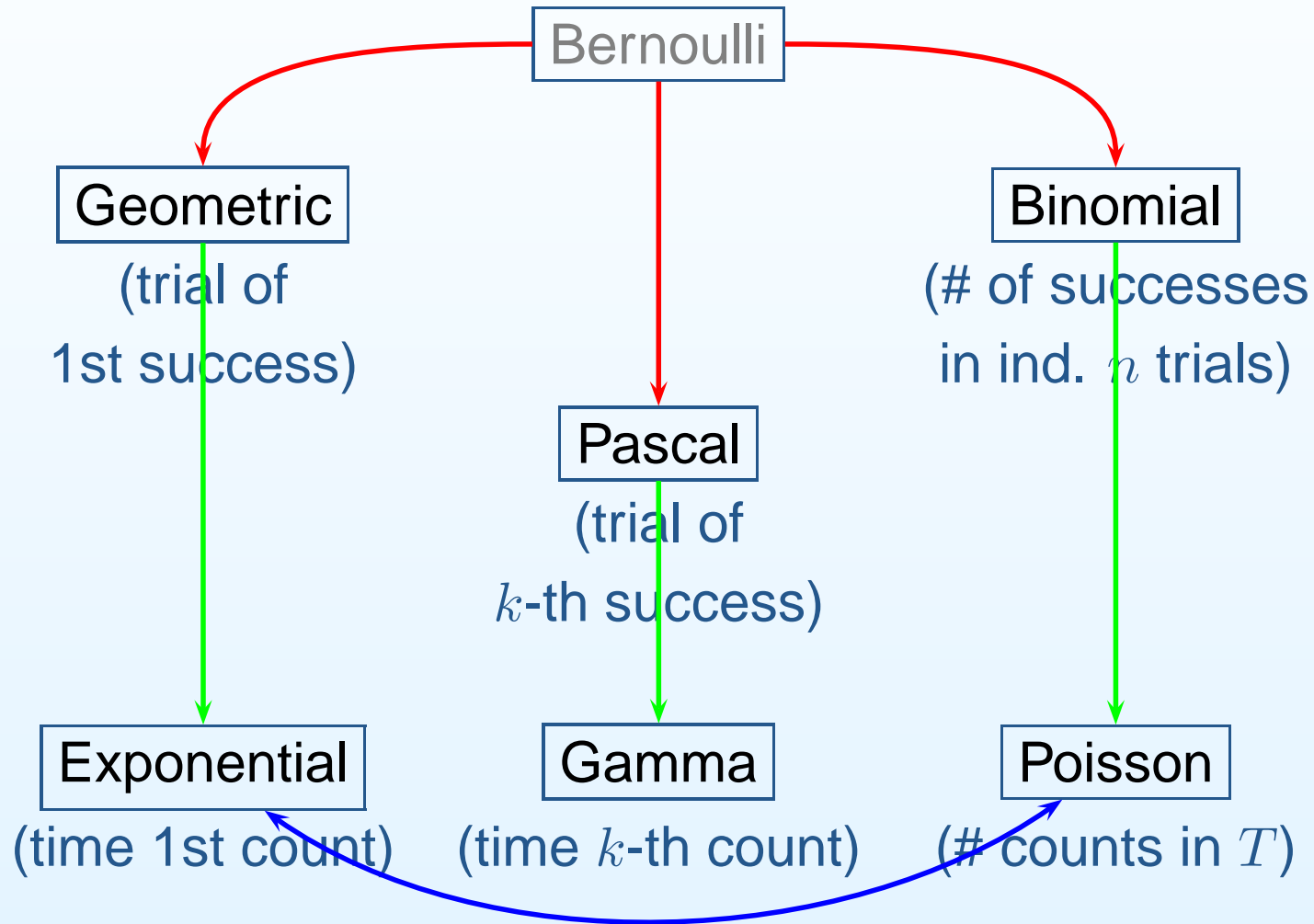
Phenomena that might occur or not at a give time (or at a give position), with  $r$  the intensity of the process.

- direct probability problems:
  - given a fixed 'measuring' time  $T$ , how many counts do we expect?  
→ Poisson distribution:  $\lambda = r T$ ;
  - How much time do we have to wait before the first event occurs? → exponential distribution:  $\tau = 1/r$ ;

$$\lambda \leftrightarrow \tau$$

- **inverse probability** problems:  
⇒ infer  $r$  from nr. of counts, from timing of counts, etc.

# Distributions derived from the Bernoulli process



## Seguita su lucidi tradizionali. . .

---

- Distribuzioni di variabili continue: uniforme; triangolari; esponenziale; gaussiana.
- Distribuzioni 'vettori aleatori': generalità (in particolare, covarianza, coefficiente di correlazione e distribuzioni condizionate).
- Distribuzione normale bivariata e multivariata; distribuzione condizionata nel caso bivariato.
- Propagazione delle incertezze: dal problema generale al caso particolare di combinazione lineare ed estensione mediante linearizzazione (con caveat sull'uso della linearizzazione); soluzione generale mediante campionamento (Monte Carlo); trasformazione della matrice di covarianza (combinazioni lineari e linearizzazioni).



## ... seguita su lucidi tradizionali...

---

- Teorema centrale del limite e applicazioni; dal processo di Bernoulli al random walk con limite gaussiano ed estensioni varie (dalla rovina del giocatore alla distribuzione di Maxwell delle molecole).
- Inferenza parametrica applicata a  $\mu$  di una gaussiana, inclusa distribuzione predittiva.
- Quadro generale inferenziale-predittivo in termini di reti bayesiane.

Per riferimenti, link, etc. vedi sul sito.

End

FINE