

Brief overview of probability theory

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Reasoning under Uncertainty

- Probabilities quantify uncertainty regarding the occurrence of events.

Examples:

- The probability of an email to be spam.
- Observing a blip on radar screen, the distribution over the location of the corresponding target.

Definitions

- Sample Space (Ω) : Set of all possible outcomes for an experiment.

Examples:

- Rolling a die: $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - Tossing a coin: $\Omega = \{H, T\}$
 - Deploy a network of smoke sensors to detect fires in a building: $\Omega = \{(\text{fire, smoke}), (\text{no fire, smoke}), (\text{fire, no smoke}), (\text{no fire, no smoke})\}$
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- Event (A): Any subset of the sample space.
 - Probability $P(A)$: How likely the experiment's actual outcome belongs to A .

The Three Axioms of Probability Theory

For any probability P :

- $P(A) \geq 0$ for any event A .
- $P(\Omega) = 1$ (collectively exhaustive).
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ for any disjoint events A and B . (mutually exclusive).

Example:

	<i>fire</i>	<i>no fire</i>
<i>smoke</i>	0.002	0.003
<i>no smoke</i>	0.001	0.994

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\{(fire, smoke), (no fire, smoke)\}) \\ &= P(\{(fire, smoke)\}) + P(\{(no fire, smoke)\}) \\ &= 0.002 + 0.003 \\ &= 0.005 \end{aligned}$$

Axiom Consequences

Consequence of the axioms:

- $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$
- $P(\phi) = 0$
- If $A \subseteq B$ then $P(A) \leq P(B)$
- $P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Conditional Probability

- Conditional probability allows us to reason with partial information.
- When $P(B) > 0$, the conditional probability of A given B is defined as

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

- It is the fraction of probability mass in **B** that also belongs to **A**.
- $P(A)$ is called the a prior probability of **A** and $P(A|B)$ is called the a posteriori probability of **A** given **B**.

Conditional Probability, Example

Deploy a network of smoke sensors to detect fires in a building.

Sample Space (Ω) =

$\{(fire, smoke), (no\ fire, smoke), (fire, no\ smoke), (no\ fire, no\ smoke)\}$

	<i>fire</i>	<i>no fire</i>
<i>smoke</i>	0.002	0.003
<i>no smoke</i>	0.001	0.994

$$\begin{aligned} &P(\{(fire, smoke)\} \mid \{(fire, smoke), (no\ fire, smoke)\}) \\ &= \frac{P(\{(fire, smoke)\} \cap \{(fire, smoke), (no\ fire, smoke)\})}{P(\{(fire, smoke), (no\ fire, smoke)\})} \\ &= \frac{P(\{(fire, smoke)\})}{P(\{(fire, smoke), (no\ fire, smoke)\})} \\ &= \frac{0.002}{0.005} = 0.4 \end{aligned}$$

Product and Chain Rule

- The probability that **A** and **B** both happen is the probability that A happens times the probability that **B** happens, given **A** has occurred.

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B | A)$$

- Chain Rule:

$$P(\cap_{i=1}^k A_i) = P(A_1)P(A_2 | A_1)P(A_3 | A_1 \cap A_2) \cdots P(A_k | \cap_{i=1}^{k-1} A_i)$$

Bayes Rule

- Bayes' rule translates causal knowledge into diagnostic knowledge:

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

Example: If **A** is an event that a patient has a disease, and **B** is the event that she displays a symptom, then **$P(B|A)$** describes a causal relationship, and **$P(A|B)$** describes a diagnostic one.

Bayes Rule, Example

In a medical diagnosis problem let:

A = Having disease

B = Test result is positive (Showing the symptom)

$P(B|A)$ = Sensitivity = 0.8, **$P(B|A^c)$** = 0.1 (false alarm)

$P(A) = 0.004$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P(A|B)} &= \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B \cap A) + P(B \cap A^c)} = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|A^c)P(A^c)} = \\ &= \frac{0.8 \times 0.004}{0.8 \times 0.004 + 0.1 \times 0.996} = 0.031 \end{aligned}$$

Random Variables

- It is often useful to “pick out” aspects of the experiment’s outcomes.
- A random variable **X** is a function from the sample space Ω .

Example: In drawing a card from a deck

$$\Omega = \{A\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \dots, K\heartsuit, A\diamondsuit, 2\diamondsuit, \dots, K\diamondsuit, A\clubsuit, 2\clubsuit, \dots, K\clubsuit, A\spadesuit, 2\spadesuit, \dots, K\spadesuit\}$$

random variable	example event
$H(\omega) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } \omega \text{ is a } \heartsuit \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$H = \text{true}$
$N(\omega) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } \omega \text{ is the number } n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$2 < N < 6$
$F(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \text{ is a face card} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	$F = 1$

Densities

- Let $X : \Omega \rightarrow E$ be a discrete random variable. The function $p_X : E \rightarrow R$ is the density of X if for all $x \in E$:

$$p_X(x) = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = x\})$$

- When E is continuous, $p_X : E \rightarrow R$ is the density of X if for all $\xi \subseteq E$:

$$P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in \xi\}) = \int_{\xi} p_X(x) \, dx$$

- Note that $\int_E p_X(x) dx = 1$ for a valid density.

Densities (finite), Example

- In drawing a card:

$$\Omega = \{A\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \dots, K\heartsuit, A\diamondsuit, 2\diamondsuit, \dots, K\diamondsuit, A\clubsuit, 2\clubsuit, \dots, K\clubsuit, A\spadesuit, 2\spadesuit, \dots, K\spadesuit\}$$

- Let's define random variable $X = n$ (the number of the outcome), then $E = \{1, 2, \dots, 13\}$, therefore

$$p_X(X=2) = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = 2\}) = 4 / 52$$

Densities (infinite), Example

Let X denote the width in mm of metal pipes from an automated production line. The X has below probability density function:

$$p_X(x) = 10e^{-10(x-5.5)} \quad x \geq 5.5$$

$$p_X(x) = 0 \quad x < 5.5$$

$$P(\{w \mid 5.6 < X(w) \leq 6\}) = \int_{5.6}^6 10e^{-10(x-5.5)} dx = 0.361$$

Joint Densities

- If $X : \Omega \rightarrow E$ and $Y : \Omega \rightarrow Y$ are two finite random variables, then $p_{XY} : E \times Y \rightarrow R$ is their joint density if for all $x \in E$ and $y \in Y$:

$$p_{XY}(x, y) = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = x, Y(\omega) = y\})$$

- When E or Y are infinite, $p_{XY} : E \times Y \rightarrow R$ is the joint density of X and Y if for all $\xi \subseteq E$ and $v \subseteq Y$:

$$\int_{\xi} \int_v p_{XY}(x, y) \, dy \, dx = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in \xi, Y(\omega) \in v\})$$

Marginalization

- Marginalization refers to “summing out” the probability of a random variable X given the joint probability distribution of X with other variable(s).

Discrete Y

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \Upsilon} p_{XY}(x, y)$$

Continuous Y

$$p_X(x) = \int_{\Upsilon} p_{XY}(x, y) \, dy$$

- Marginalization is how to ignore variables.

Conditional Density

- $p_{X|Y}(x, y) : \Xi \times \Upsilon \rightarrow \Re$ is the *conditional density of X given $Y = y$* if

$$p_{X|Y}(x, y) = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) = x\} \mid \{\omega : Y(\omega) = y\})$$

for all $x \in \Xi$ if Ξ is finite, or if

$$\int_{\xi} p_{X|Y}(x, y) \, dx = P(\{\omega : X(\omega) \in \xi\} \mid \{\omega : Y(\omega) = y\})$$

for all $\xi \subseteq \Xi$ if Ξ is infinite.

- Given the joint density $p_{XY}(x, y)$, we can compute $p_{X|Y}$ as follows:

$$p_{X|Y}(x, y) = \frac{p_{XY}(x, y)}{\sum_{x' \in \Xi} p_{XY}(x', y)} \quad \text{or} \quad p_{X|Y}(x, y) = \frac{p_{XY}(x, y)}{\int_{\Xi} p_{XY}(x', y) \, dx'}$$

Independent Events

Two events **A** and **B** are independent if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$$

Therefore $P(A | B) = P(A)$ if $P(B) \neq 0$

Example:

Pick a random number from $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$, and call it **N**. Suppose that all outcomes are equally likely. Let **A** be the event that **N** is less than **7**, and let **B** be the event that **N** is an even number.

Are **A** and **B** independent? Yes

$$P(A)=0.6, P(B)=0.5, P(A \cap B)=0.3$$

Conditional Independent Events

- Two events **A** and **B** are **conditionally independent** given an event **C** with $P(C) > 0$ if:

$$P(A \cap B | C) = P(A | C)P(B | C)$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} P(A | B, C) &= \frac{P(A \cap B | C)}{P(B | C)} \\ &= \frac{P(A | C)P(B | C)}{P(B | C)} \\ &= P(A | C). \end{aligned}$$

Conditional Independent Events

Example:

A box contains two coins: a regular coin and one fake two-headed coin ($P(H)=1$). I choose a coin at random and toss it twice. Define the following events.

A= First coin toss results in an H.

B= Second coin toss results in an H.

C= Coin 1 (regular) has been selected.

We have $P(A|C) = P(B|C) = \frac{1}{2}$. Also, given that Coin 1 is selected, we have $P(A \cap B|C) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$. To find $P(A)$, $P(B)$, and $P(A \cap B)$, we use the law of total probability:

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P(A|C)P(C) + P(A|C^c)P(C^c) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{3}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $P(B) = \frac{3}{4}$. For $P(A \cap B)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cap B) &= P(A \cap B|C)P(C) + P(A \cap B|C^c)P(C^c) \\ &= P(A|C)P(B|C)P(C) + P(A|C^c)P(B|C^c)P(C^c) \\ &\quad \text{(by conditional independence of A and B)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{5}{8}. \end{aligned}$$

Independent Random Variables

We say X and Y are unconditionally independent or marginally independent, denoted $X \perp Y$ if

$$X \perp Y \leftrightarrow p(X, Y) = p(X)p(Y)$$

Unconditional independence is rare, however, usually this influence is mediated via other variables rather than being direct.

We therefore say X and Y are conditionally independent (CI) given Z iff the conditional joint can be written as a product of conditional marginals:

$$X \perp Y | Z \leftrightarrow p(X, Y | Z) = p(X | Z)p(Y | Z)$$

Mean and Variance

- Discrete random variable **X**:

$$E[X] = \mu = \sum_{x \in E} x p(x)$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \sum_E (x - \mu)^2 p(x) dx = E[X^2] - \mu^2$$

- Continuous random variable **X**:

$$E[X] = \mu = \int_E x p(x) dx \quad (\text{if integral is finite})$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \int_E (x - \mu)^2 p(x) dx = E[X^2] - \mu^2$$

Mean and Variance, Example

Binomial distribution:

- Tossing a coin n times, with p as head probability.
- Let $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ be the number of heads. Therefore $E = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- $\text{Bin}(k | n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{(n-k)}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mu &= \sum_{k=0}^n k \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \\&= np \sum_{k=0}^n k \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-k)!k!} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\&= np \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(n-1)!}{((n-1)-(k-1))!(k-1)!} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\&= np \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{(n-1)-(k-1)} \\&= np \sum_{\ell=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{\ell} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{(n-1)-\ell} && \text{with } \ell := k-1 \\&= np \sum_{\ell=0}^m \binom{m}{\ell} p^{\ell} (1-p)^{m-\ell} && \text{with } m := n-1 \\&= np(p + (1-p))^m \\&= np\end{aligned}$$

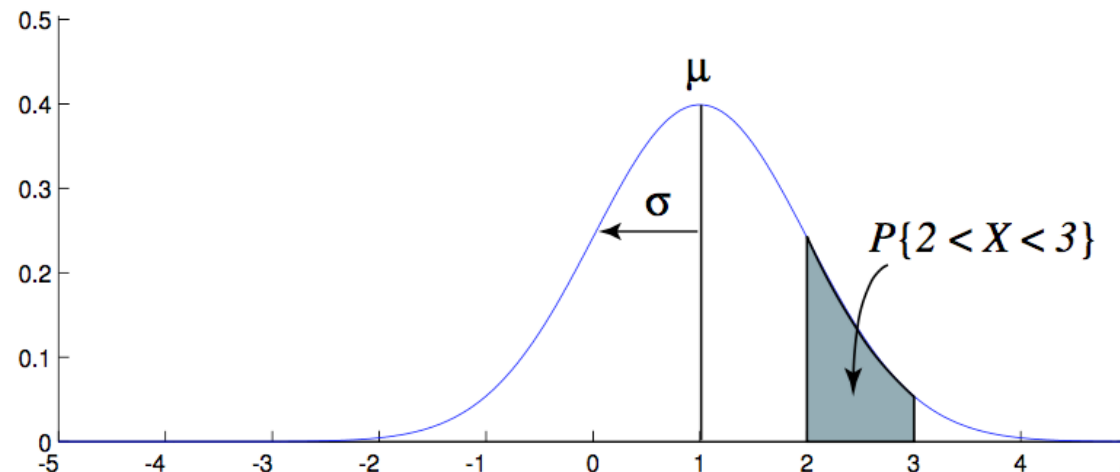
Continuous Density, Example

Gaussian distribution:

- One of the simplest densities for a real random variable.
- It can be represented by two real numbers: the mean μ and variance σ^2 .

$$N(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

- Term $\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}$ is the normalization constant



Covariance and Correlation

The covariance between two rv's X and Y measures the degree to which X and Y are (linearly) related. Covariance is defined as:

$$\text{cov}[X, Y] \triangleq \mathbb{E}[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])(Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

If \mathbf{X} is a d -dimensional random vector, its covariance matrix is defined to be the following symmetric, positive definite matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cov}[\mathbf{x}] &\triangleq \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])^T] \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \text{var}[X_1] & \text{cov}[X_1, X_2] & \cdots & \text{cov}[X_1, X_d] \\ \text{cov}[X_2, X_1] & \text{var}[X_2] & \cdots & \text{cov}[X_2, X_d] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{cov}[X_d, X_1] & \text{cov}[X_d, X_2] & \cdots & \text{var}[X_d] \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

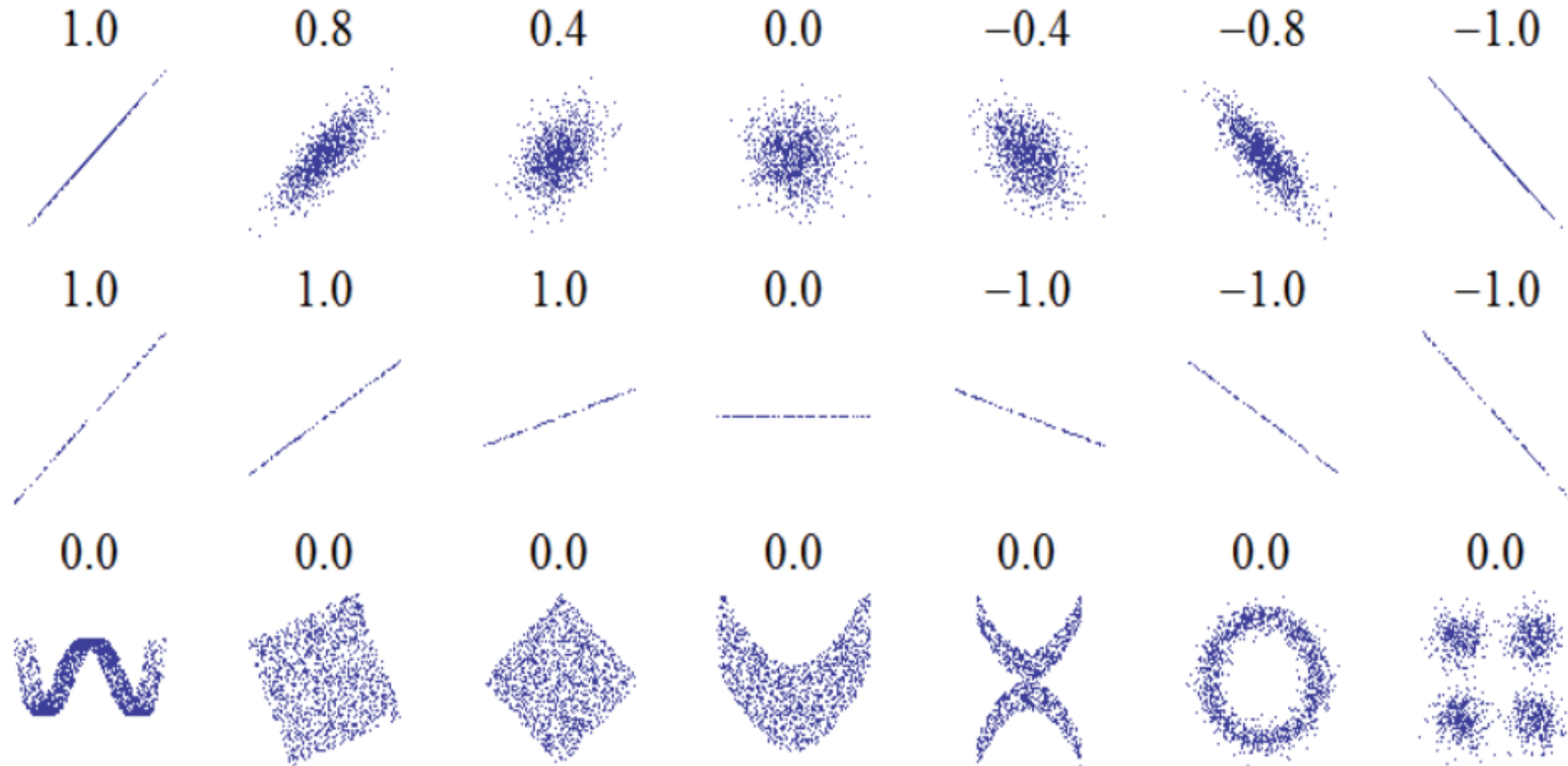
Covariance and Correlation

Covariance can be between 0 and infinity. Sometimes it is more convenient to work with a normalized measure. The correlation coefficient between **X** and **Y** is defined as:

$$\text{corr}[X, Y] \triangleq \frac{\text{cov}[X, Y]}{\sqrt{\text{var}[X] \text{var}[Y]}} \quad -1 \leq \text{corr}[X, Y] \leq 1$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{corr}[X_1, X_1] & \text{corr}[X_1, X_2] & \cdots & \text{corr}[X_1, X_d] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{corr}[X_d, X_1] & \text{corr}[X_d, X_2] & \cdots & \text{corr}[X_d, X_d] \end{pmatrix}$$

Correlation, Example

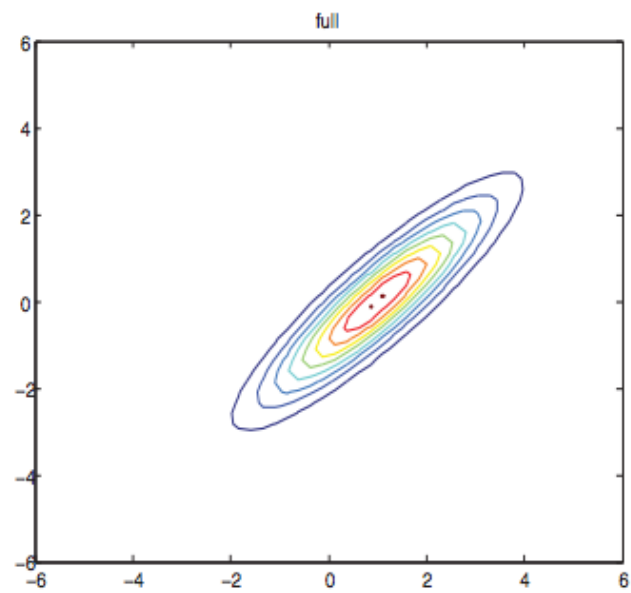


Correlation values (degree of linearity). If X and Y independent then $\text{corr}(X, Y)=0$

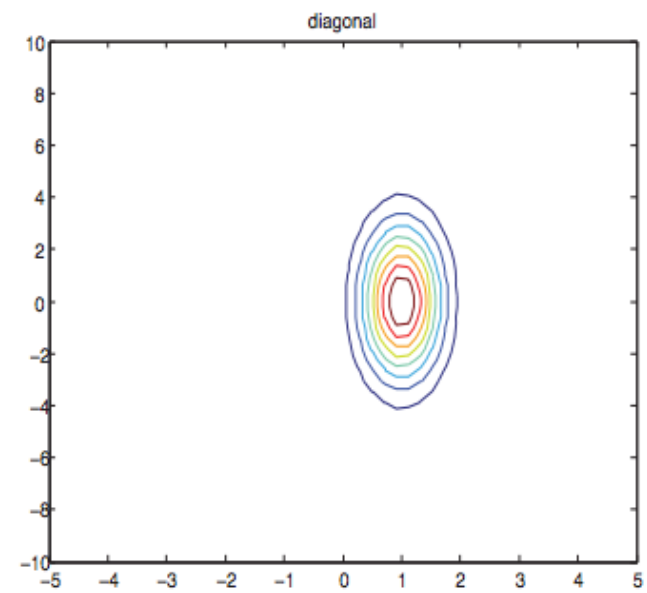
Joint Distribution, Example

- Multivariate Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \triangleq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{D/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right]$$



(a)



(b)

