

ECS509U - Probability & Matrices

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Week 1

What is this module about?

- The module aims to:
 - introduce (mathematical) topics that are relevant to computer applications, including **probability** and **basic linear algebra**
 - increase the students' capability to think abstractly and rigorously
 - focus on tools & problem solving

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Lectures & Exercise Classes

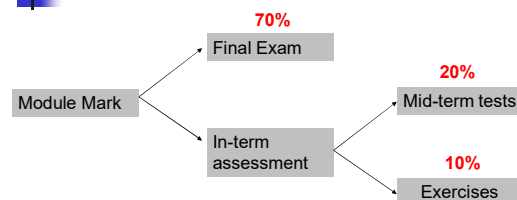
- **Lectures**
 - Monday 15:00-16:00 @ **Arts 2 LT**
 - Thursday 14:00-15:00 @ **the Great Hall**
- **Tutorial/Exercise Classes**
 - Fridays, there are timetabling issues for now watch this space
- **Exercise Classes start THIS FRIDAY**

You will be assigned to a 1-hour slot, no changes will be negotiated in the assignment

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Module Assessment



- Mid-Term tests: Friday of **Weeks 7 and 12**, times TBC
- Exercises: Weekly at the Exercise Classes

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Why Probability? Why Matrices?

- Both provide useful **tools** for tackling many CS problems
 - network traffic modelling
 - software risk assessment
 - machine learning
 - computer graphics
 - computer vision & image processing
 - etc. etc.
- Both topics have extensive links to future CS modules

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Modules that may use probabilistic techniques and/or matrices

- Data Mining
- Bayesian Decision & Risk Analysis
- Semi-structured Data and Advanced Data Modelling
- Artificial Intelligence
- Distributed Systems
- Computer graphics
- Image Processing
- etc. etc.

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Week 1: Learning Objectives

- **Introduction to Probability**
- At the end of Week 1 you should be able to:
 - understand the concept of probability
 - differentiate between the various approaches for calculating probability values
 - work with sample spaces and events
 - understand the basic probability laws
 - apply these laws for solving simple problems

Introduction to Probability

- What does a probability value really represent?
 - chance? likelihood? odds? percentage? proportion?
- Interpreting probabilities can be interesting:
 - "The chance of winning a prize in an instant lottery is 7.74%"
 - How can it be so precise? Where does the number come from?
 - If the chance of rain for tomorrow is 30%, does it mean it will not rain because it is less than 50%?
 - 70% of students will pass this module on the first sit

So, what is probability?

- Typically, a value **between 0 and 1** that reflects the **likelihood** of the **occurrence** of a specific **event**
- Calculating probability values is harder some times than others
 - e.g. probability of observing a specific volume of network traffic in a given network connection for a given time period vs. probability of rolling a 3 with a die
- Probability values can be calculated in a variety of ways

The 4 approaches to calculating probabilities

- **Subjective**
 - The most vague and least scientific way, based on personal views, hopes, etc.
 - What do you think the chance that your favorite football team will win the Premier League is?
- **Classical**
 - Mathematical approach, using rules and formulas (more in the coming weeks)
 - Roll the dice!!!

The 4 approaches to calculating probabilities

- **Frequency-based**
 - Base calculations on observed data, and calculate the percentage of times that the event has occurred in the observed data (*relative frequency*)
 - Probabilities are estimates, since they are based on finite sample size (your estimates will be only as good as the data you collect)
- **Simulation-based**
 - We create the data by setting up a scenario, playing out the scenario a large number of times, and counting the percentage of times a certain outcome occurs

Some first formulas

- For the classical approach:

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{number of ways } A \text{ can occur}}{\text{number of ways the experiment can proceed}}$$

- This only works **if all outcomes are equally likely**

- For the frequency-based approach:

$$P(A) = \frac{\text{number of times event } A \text{ occurred}}{\text{number of ways the experiment was run}}$$

Think...

- a) We roll a die:
- What is the probability of getting a 2?
 - What is the probability of getting a 2 or a 6?

$$P(\text{rolling a 2}) = 1/6$$

$$P(\text{rolling a 2 or a 6}) = 1/6 + 1/6 = 2/6$$

- b) How would I be able to calculate the probability of any student passing a module that I have been teaching for the past 6 years?

Basic terms & definitions

- It all comes down to:
 - understanding the **event** for which you want to estimate the probability
 - calculating all the **possible outcomes** of the process at hand
- Think of the single die example:
 - experiment**: throwing one die
 - event**: e.g. throwing an odd number
 - all possible outcomes** (sample space): 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
- Now let's define these concepts in a more formal way

Basic terms: Experiment

- A 'probabilistic' **experiment** is basically an activity that we do not know what will happen for sure but we 'observe' what happens
 - a random process
- Some examples:
 - we toss one coin and observe whether it shows heads or tails
 - we will observe the temperature at mid-day tomorrow
 - we will ask someone whether or not they have bought our product in the last 12 months

Outcomes: Sample Spaces

- The list all the **possible outcomes** of an experiment is called the **Sample Space**
 - we will use the letter S for sample spaces
 - any collection of items in probability is called a set, and so S is also a set
- If your experiment is rolling a single die:
 $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- If your experiment is tossing a coin twice:
 $S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
- Note that an outcome is essentially one of the possible things that can happen in the experiment
 - in any experiment, one and only one outcome occurs

Think...

- What we perceive as random and what is actually random are two separate things
- Assume we flip a coin 10 times, which of the following two sequences is more random?

H T H H T H T T H T
H T H T T T T T H H

Both outcomes are equally likely, each with probability $1/1024$ (we flip a coin 10 times so the total number of possible outcomes is $2^{10} = 1024$)

Types of sample spaces

- Finite**
 - If you can write & count all elements in S . **Example**: rolling a single die, $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- Countably infinite**
 - There is a way to show the progression of the values in S , but they can go to infinity
 - Example**: the number of accesses to a web server during a week's time, $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$
- Uncountably infinite**
 - The possible outcomes are too numerous to write down in a listing, so we use an interval to describe them
 - Example**: length of time it takes a computer to complete a task, with a max of 5 sec. $S = \{\text{all real numbers } x \text{ such that } 0 < x \leq 5\}$

Events: subsets of sample spaces

- An **event** is a **set of outcomes** and is a **subset of the sample space S**
 - The empty set \emptyset is called the **impossible event**
 - The subset S is called the **certain event**
- We **measure the probability of an event: P(event)**
 - probability of the temperature tomorrow mid-day being less than 20 degrees – the event is made up of all outcomes where the temperature is less than 20 degrees – $P(\text{temp} < 20)$
 - probability of observing a sum of 3 when rolling 2 dice – the event is made up of all outcomes where the sum of the 2 dice is equal to 3 – $P(\text{sum of 2 dice} = 3)$
 - probability of observing the number 4 when rolling one die – the event is made up of only one outcome – $P(\text{rolling a 4})$

Sample spaces and events

- We roll a single die, $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$:
 - Event A: that we roll an odd number: $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$
 - Event B: that we roll a number greater than 2: $B = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- We toss one coin 3 times. What is the sample space S? Use H, T to show the two possible outcomes
 $S = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$
- In general, when in an 'experiment you have n possible outcomes and k repetitions, the sample space will consist of n^k events
 - apply this to the example with the coin above

For the next few slides...

- You will need to remember some of the basic **set theory** covered in Logic & Discrete Structures:
 - Union** of two events (sets): $A \cup B$ (i.e. A or B)
 - Intersection** of two events (sets): $A \cap B$ (i.e. A and B)
 - Complement** of an event (set) A : A' (i.e. not A)
- Example: Roll a single die
 - Event A: roll an odd number
 - Event B: roll a number larger than 2
 - Event C: roll an even number

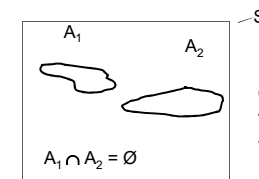
Example continued

- Sample space $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- Turn events into sets
 - $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$, $B = \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$, $C = \{2, 4, 6\}$
- $A \cup B = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- $A \cup C = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} = S$
- $A \cap B = \{3, 5\}$
- $A \cap C = \emptyset$
- $A' = \{2, 4, 6\} = C$

Mutually exclusive events

- Two events A_1 and A_2 are mutually exclusive if and only if $A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$
- Events A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots are mutually exclusive if and only if $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i \neq j$
- In plain words:
 - Two events are mutually exclusive if they can't occur at the same time
 - Three or more events are mutually exclusive if every two of them are mutually exclusive

Mutually exclusive events



If you know A_1 has occurred, then you know that A_2 can not occur, and vice versa

One special case of mutually exclusive events is events that are complements of each other - **Why?**

Complement events **BY DEFINITION** have no intersection (i.e. no common elements, they are the 'opposite' of each other) and therefore they are mutually exclusive events

Some examples

- You roll a die once. Let A be the event that the die comes 2, B the event that the die comes an even number and C the event that the die comes an odd number
- A and B are not mut.excl. because $A \cap B = \{2\}$
- A and C are mut.excl. because $A \cap C = \emptyset$
- B and C are mut.excl. (B and C are actually complements of each other)

Some probability laws

- Kolmogorov's axioms of probability
 - If S the sample space for an experiment, then $P(S) = 1$
 - For every event A, $P(A) \geq 0$
 - Let $A_1, A_2, A_3 \dots$ be a **countable** collection of **mutually exclusive events**. Then:
 $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \dots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \dots$
- These 3 axioms are building blocks on which to develop a more complete system of probability theory

Exercise

- One study on the location of pages found on the Web, showed that **35%** of pages were hosted in the USA, **15%** in the UK, **25%** in the rest of Europe and **25%** in the rest of the world. If we pick one page at random, **what is the probability that it will be from the UK or from the US?**

We are given: $P(\text{USA})=0.35$, $P(\text{UK})=0.15$, $P(\text{EUR})=0.25$, $P(\text{REST_OF_WORLD})=0.25$

We are asked to find $P(\text{UK} \cup \text{US})$. Because our events are mutually exclusive, we apply the 3rd axiom, and get that:

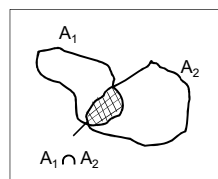
$$P(\text{UK} \cup \text{US}) = P(\text{UK}) + P(\text{US}) = 0.35 + 0.15 = \mathbf{0.5}$$

Some consequences of the axioms

- $P(\emptyset) = 0$
 - the probability assigned to the impossible event is zero
- $P(A') = 1 - P(A)$
 - the probability that an event will not occur, is equal to 1 minus the probability that the event will occur
- For any event A, $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- These can be proven based on the axioms

The general addition rule

- For any two events A_1 and A_2 :
 - $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) - P(A_1 \cap A_2)$



A_1 and A_2 are now **NOT** mutually exclusive events - WHY?

Contrast this rule with the 3rd of Kolmogorov's axioms

Example

- Suppose you roll a die once, and consider the events:
 - A**: the die comes up an even number
 - B**: the die comes up greater than 4
- Find the probability that the die comes up **an even number OR greater than 4**

$$A = \{2, 4, 6\}, B = \{5, 6\}$$

A and B are not mutually exclusive, $A \cap B = \{6\}$

We use the general addition rule to find the probability of the union of the two events:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) = 3/6 + 2/6 - 1/6 = 4/6$$

A quick note: Independent events

- Two events are called **independent** if knowledge that one has occurred does not affect the probability of the other event occurring
- For now (in detail next week), we will say that if $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$ then A and B are independent (**and vice-versa**)
 - This is the **multiplication rule for independence**

Some examples

- Rolling a single die, $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - Event A: die comes up odd
 - Event B: die comes up 1
 - Event C: the die is 1 or 2
- Are A and B independent?
- Are A and C independent?

Sample answer

$A = \{1, 3, 5\}$, so $P(A) = 3/6$

$B = \{1\}$, so $P(B) = 1/6$

$C = \{1, 2\}$, so $P(C) = 2/6$

To check if A and B are independent we will check to see if

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

$A \cap B = \{1\}$ so $P(A \cap B) = 1/6$

$P(A) \cdot P(B) = (3/6) \cdot (1/6) = 3/36 \neq P(A \cap B)$ so A and B are not independent

Similarly for A and C, you will check to see if $P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C)$

$A \cap C = \{1\}$, $P(A \cap C) = 1/6$

$P(A) \cdot P(C) = (3/6) \cdot (2/6) = 6/36 = 1/6 = P(A \cap C)$ so A and C are independent

Summary of lecture

- In Week 1 we covered:
 - Basic notion of probability
 - Approaches to calculating probability values
 - Sample spaces and events
 - Basic probability laws
 - How to use these in solving problems
- Don't forget:
 - Work on the exercises for Friday **BEFORE** you come to the class