

Probability review

Adopted from notes of Andrew W. Moore and Eric Xing from CMU

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 1

So far our classifiers are deterministic!

- For a given X , the classifiers we learned so far give a single predicted y value
- In contrast, a probabilistic prediction returns a probability over the output space
 $P(y=0|X)$, $P(y=1|X)$
- We can easily think of situations when this would be very useful!
 - Given $P(y=1|X) = 0.49$, $P(y=-1|X) = 0.51$, how would you predict?
 - What if I tell you it is much more costly to miss an positive example than the other way around?

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 2

Discrete Random Variables

- A is a Boolean-valued random variable if A denotes an event, and there is some degree of uncertainty as to whether A occurs.
- Examples
 - A = The US president in 2023 will be male
 - A = You wake up tomorrow with a headache
 - A = You have Ebola

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 3

Probabilities

- We write $P(A)$ as “the fraction of possible worlds in which A is true”
- We could at this point spend 2 hours on the philosophy of this.
- But we won't.

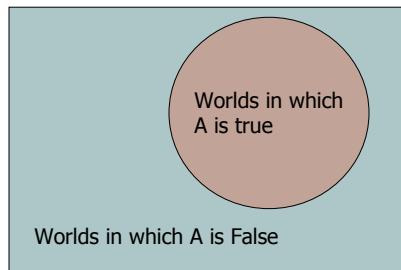
Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 4

Visualizing A

Event space of
all possible
worlds

Its area is 1



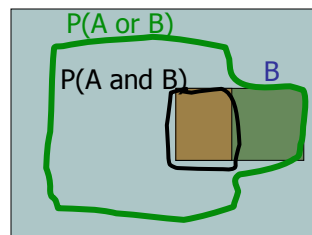
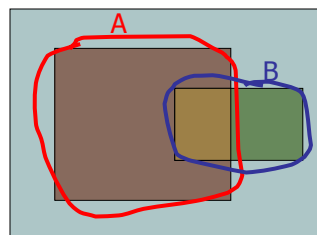
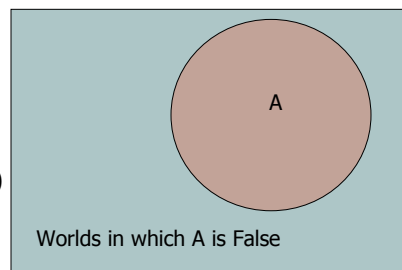
$P(A)$ = Area of
reddish oval

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 5

Basic axioms

- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- $P(\text{True}) = 1$
- $P(\text{False}) = 0$
- $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$



Simple addition and subtraction

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 6

Elementary Probability Theorems

- $P(\sim A) + P(A) = 1$
- $P(B) = P(B \wedge A) + P(B \wedge \sim A)$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 7

Multivalued Random Variables

- Suppose A can take on more than 2 values
- A is a *random variable with arity k* if it can take on exactly one value out of $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$
- Thus...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee \dots \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 8

An easy fact about Multivalued Random Variables:

- Using the axioms of probability...

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, P(\text{True}) = 1, P(\text{False}) = 0$$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

- And assuming that A obeys...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

- It's easy to prove that

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^i P(A = v_j)$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 9

An easy fact about Multivalued Random Variables:

- Using the axioms of probability...

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, P(\text{True}) = 1, P(\text{False}) = 0$$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

- And assuming that A obeys...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

- It's easy to prove that

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_i) = \sum_{j=1}^i P(A = v_j)$$

- And thus we can prove

$$\sum_{j=1}^k P(A = v_j) = 1$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 10

Another fact about Multivalued Random Variables:

- Using the axioms of probability...

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, P(\text{True}) = 1, P(\text{False}) = 0$$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

- And assuming that A obeys...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

- It's easy to prove that

$$P(B \wedge [A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_i]) = \sum_{j=1}^i P(B \wedge A = v_j)$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 11

Another fact about Multivalued Random Variables:

- Using the axioms of probability...

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, P(\text{True}) = 1, P(\text{False}) = 0$$

$$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$

- And assuming that A obeys...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

- It's easy to prove that

$$P(B \wedge [A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee A = v_i]) = \sum_{j=1}^i P(B \wedge A = v_j)$$

- And thus we can prove

$$P(B) = \sum_{j=1}^k P(B \wedge A = v_j)$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 12

Elementary Probability in Pictures

$$\sum_{j=1}^k P(A = v_j) = 1$$

$$P(B) = \sum_{j=1}^k P(B \wedge A = v_j)$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

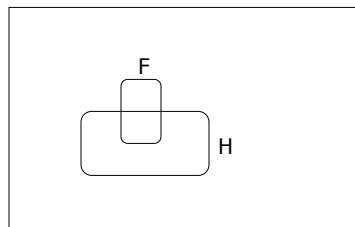
Slide 13

Conditional Probability

- $P(A|B)$ = Fraction of worlds in which B is true that also have A true

H = "Have a headache"
F = "Coming down with Flu"

$P(H) = 1/10$
 $P(F) = 1/40$
 $P(H|F) = 1/2$

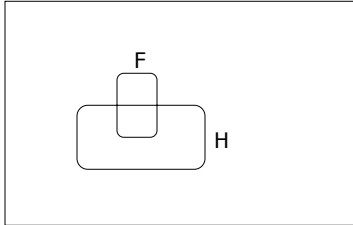


"Headaches are rare and flu is rarer, but if you're coming down with 'flu there's a 50-50 chance you'll have a headache."

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 14

Conditional Probability



H = "Have a headache"
F = "Coming down with Flu"

$P(H) = 1/10$
 $P(F) = 1/40$
 $P(H|F) = 1/2$

$P(H|F)$ = Fraction of flu-inflicted worlds in which you have a headache

= #worlds with flu and headache

#worlds with flu

= Area of "H and F" region

Area of "F" region

= $P(H \wedge F)$

 $P(F)$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 15

Definition of Conditional Probability

$$P(A/B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

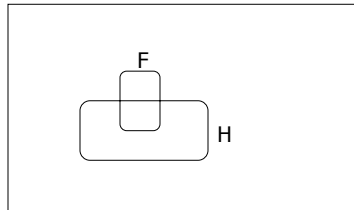
Corollary: The Chain Rule

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A/B) P(B)$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 16

Probabilistic Inference



H = "Have a headache"
F = "Coming down with Flu"

$$P(H) = 1/10$$
$$P(F) = 1/40$$
$$P(H|F) = 1/2$$

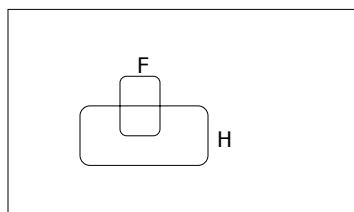
One day you wake up with a headache. You think: "Drat! 50% of flus are associated with headaches so I must have a 50-50 chance of coming down with flu"

Is this reasoning good?

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 17

Probabilistic Inference



H = "Have a headache"
F = "Coming down with Flu"

$$P(H) = 1/10$$
$$P(F) = 1/40$$
$$P(H|F) = 1/2$$

$$P(F \wedge H) = \dots$$

$$P(F|H) = \dots$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 18

What we just did...

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

This is Bayes Rule

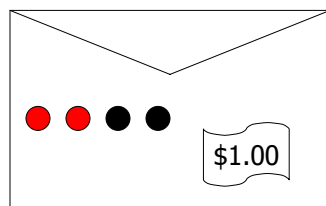
Bayes, Thomas (1763) An essay towards solving a problem in the doctrine of chances. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, **53:370-418**



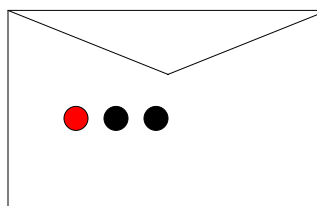
Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 19

Using Bayes Rule to Gamble



The "Win" envelope has a dollar and four beads in it



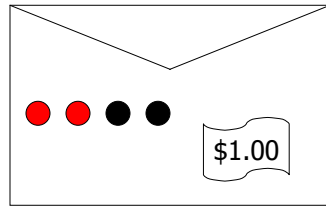
The "Lose" envelope has three beads and no money

Trivial question: someone draws an envelope at random and offers to sell it to you. How much should you pay?

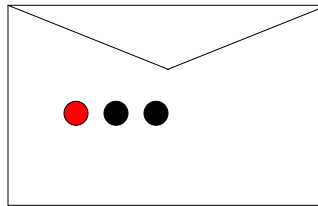
Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 20

Using Bayes Rule to Gamble



The "Win" envelope
has a dollar and four
beads in it



The "Lose" envelope
has three beads and
no money

Interesting question: before deciding, you are allowed to see one bead
drawn from the envelope.

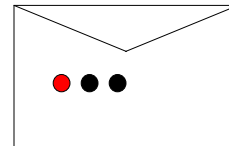
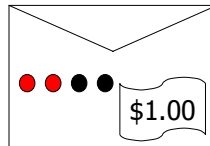
Suppose it's black: How much should you pay?

Suppose it's red: How much should you pay?

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 21

Calculation...



Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 22

Continuous Probability Distribution

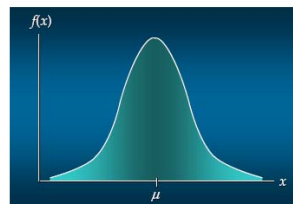
- A continuous random variable x can take any value in an interval on the real line
 - X usually corresponds to some real-valued measurements, e.g., today's lowest temperature
 - It is not possible to talk about the probability of a continuous random variable taking an exact value --- $P(x=56.2)=0$
 - Instead we talk about the probability of the random variable taking a value within a given interval $P(x \in [50, 60])$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 23

PDF: probability density function

- The probability of X taking value in a given range $[x_1, x_2]$ is defined to be the area under the PDF curve between x_1 and x_2
- We use $f(x)$ to represent the PDF of x
- Note:
 - $f(x) \geq 0$
 - $f(x)$ can be larger than 1
 - $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$
 - $P(X \in [x_1, x_2]) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$



Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 24

What is the intuitive meaning of $f(x)$?

If $f(x_1) = \alpha \cdot a$ and $f(x_2) = a$

Then when x is sampled from this distribution, you are α times more likely to see that x is “very close to” x_1 than that x is “very close to” x_2

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 25

Some commonly used distributions

Bernoulli distribution: $\text{Ber}(p)$

$$P(x) = \begin{cases} 1-p & \text{for } x=0 \\ p & \text{for } x=1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow P(x) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$$



Binomial distribution: $\text{Binomial}(n, p)$

the probability to see x heads out of n flips

$$P(x) = \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-x+1)}{x!} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$$

Multinomial distribution: $\text{Multinomial}(n, [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k])$

The probability to see x_1 ones, x_2 twos, etc, out of n dice rolls

$$P([x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k]) = \frac{n!}{x_1! x_2! \cdots x_k!} \theta_1^{x_1} \theta_2^{x_2} \cdots \theta_k^{x_k}$$



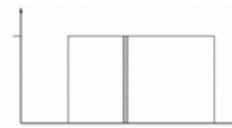
Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 26

Continuous Distributions

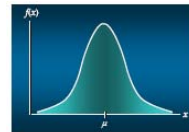
Uniform Probability Density Function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1/(b-a) & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$



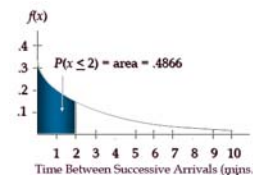
Normal (Gaussian) Probability Density Function

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



Exponential Probability Distribution

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} e^{-x/\mu}$$



Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 27

The Joint Distribution

Example: Boolean variables A, B, C

Recipe for making a joint distribution
of M variables:

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 28

The Joint Distribution

Example: Boolean variables A, B, C

Recipe for making a joint distribution of M variables:

1. Make a truth table listing all combinations of values of your variables (if there are M Boolean variables then the table will have 2^M rows).

A	B	C
0	0	0
0	0	1
0	1	0
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	1

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 29

The Joint Distribution

Example: Boolean variables A, B, C

Recipe for making a joint distribution of M variables:

1. Make a truth table listing all combinations of values of your variables (if there are M Boolean variables then the table will have 2^M rows).
2. For each combination of values, say how probable it is.

A	B	C	Prob
0	0	0	0.30
0	0	1	0.05
0	1	0	0.10
0	1	1	0.05
1	0	0	0.05
1	0	1	0.10
1	1	0	0.25
1	1	1	0.10

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 30

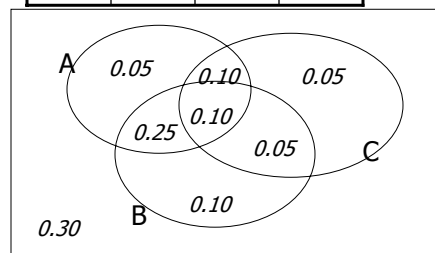
The Joint Distribution

Example: Boolean variables A, B, C

Recipe for making a joint distribution of M variables:

1. Make a truth table listing all combinations of values of your variables (if there are M Boolean variables then the table will have 2^M rows).
2. For each combination of values, say how probable it is.
3. If you subscribe to the axioms of probability, those numbers must sum to 1.

A	B	C	Prob
0	0	0	0.30
0	0	1	0.05
0	1	0	0.10
0	1	1	0.05
1	0	0	0.05
1	0	1	0.10
1	1	0	0.25
1	1	1	0.10



Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 31

Using the Joint

gender	hours_worked	wealth	
Female	v0:40.5-	poor	0.253122
		rich	0.0245895
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.0421768
		rich	0.0116293
Male	v0:40.5-	poor	0.331313
		rich	0.0971295
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.134106
		rich	0.105933









One you have the JD you can ask for the probability of any logical expression involving your attribute

$$P(E) = \sum_{\text{rows matching } E} P(\text{row})$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 32

Using the Joint

gender	hours_worked	wealth	
Female	v0:40.5-	poor	0.253122 
		rich	0.0245895 
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.0421768 
		rich	0.0116293 
Male	v0:40.5-	poor	0.331313 
		rich	0.0971295 
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.134106 
		rich	0.105933 









$$P(\text{Poor Male}) = 0.4654$$

$$P(E) = \sum_{\text{rows matching } E} P(\text{row})$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 33

Inference with the Joint

gender	hours_worked	wealth	
Female	v0:40.5-	poor	0.253122 
		rich	0.0245895 
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.0421768 
		rich	0.0116293 
Male	v0:40.5-	poor	0.331313 
		rich	0.0971295 
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.134106 
		rich	0.105933 

$$P(E_1 | E_2) = \frac{P(E_1 \wedge E_2)}{P(E_2)} = \frac{\sum_{\text{rows matching } E_1 \text{ and } E_2} P(\text{row})}{\sum_{\text{rows matching } E_2} P(\text{row})}$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 34

Inference with the Joint

gender	hours_worked	wealth	
Female	v0:40.5-	poor	0.253122
		rich	0.0245895
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.0421768
		rich	0.0116293
Male	v0:40.5-	poor	0.331313
		rich	0.0971295
	v1:40.5+	poor	0.134106
		rich	0.105933

$$P(E_1 | E_2) = \frac{P(E_1 \wedge E_2)}{P(E_2)} = \frac{\sum_{\text{rows matching } E_1 \text{ and } E_2} P(\text{row})}{\sum_{\text{rows matching } E_2} P(\text{row})}$$

$$P(\text{Male} | \text{Poor}) = 0.4654 / 0.7604 = 0.612$$

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 35

So we have learned that

- Joint distribution is extremely useful!
we can do all kinds of cool inference
 - I've got a sore neck: how likely am I to have meningitis?
 - Many industries grow around Bayesian Inference: examples include medicine, pharma, Engine diagnosis etc.
- But, **HOW** do we get them?
 - We can learn from data

Copyright © Andrew W. Moore

Slide 36

Learning a joint distribution

Build a JD table for your attributes in which the probabilities are unspecified

A	B	C	Prob
0	0	0	?
0	0	1	?
0	1	0	?
0	1	1	?
1	0	0	?
1	0	1	?
1	1	0	?
1	1	1	?

The fill in each row with

$$\hat{P}(\text{row}) = \frac{\text{records matching row}}{\text{total number of records}}$$

A	B	C	Prob
0	0	0	0.30
0	0	1	0.05
0	1	0	0.10
0	1	1	0.05
1	0	0	0.05
1	0	1	0.10
1	1	0	0.25
1	1	1	0.10

Fraction of all records in which
A and B are True but C is False