

UVA CS 4501: Machine Learning

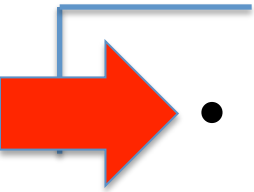
Lecture 11: Probability Review

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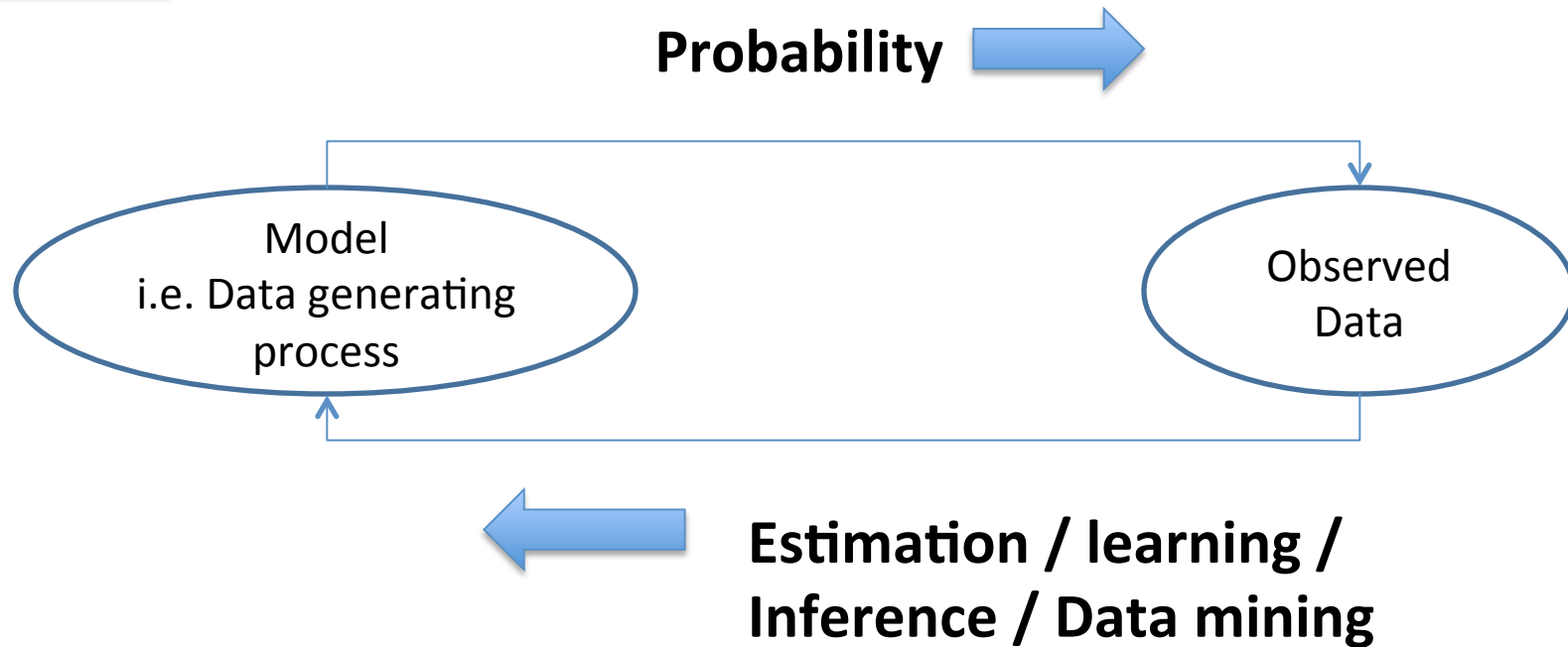
Department of
Computer Science

Today : Probability Review



- The big picture
- Events and Event spaces
- Random variables
- Joint probability, Marginalization, conditioning, chain rule, Bayes Rule, law of total probability, etc.
- Structural properties, e.g., Independence, conditional independence
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation

The Big Picture



Probability

- Counting
- Basics of probability
- Conditional probability
- Random variables
- Discrete and continuous distributions
- Expectation and variance
- Tail bounds and central limit theorem
-

Statistics

- Maximum likelihood estimation
- Bayesian estimation
- Hypothesis testing
- Linear regression
- [Machine learning]
-

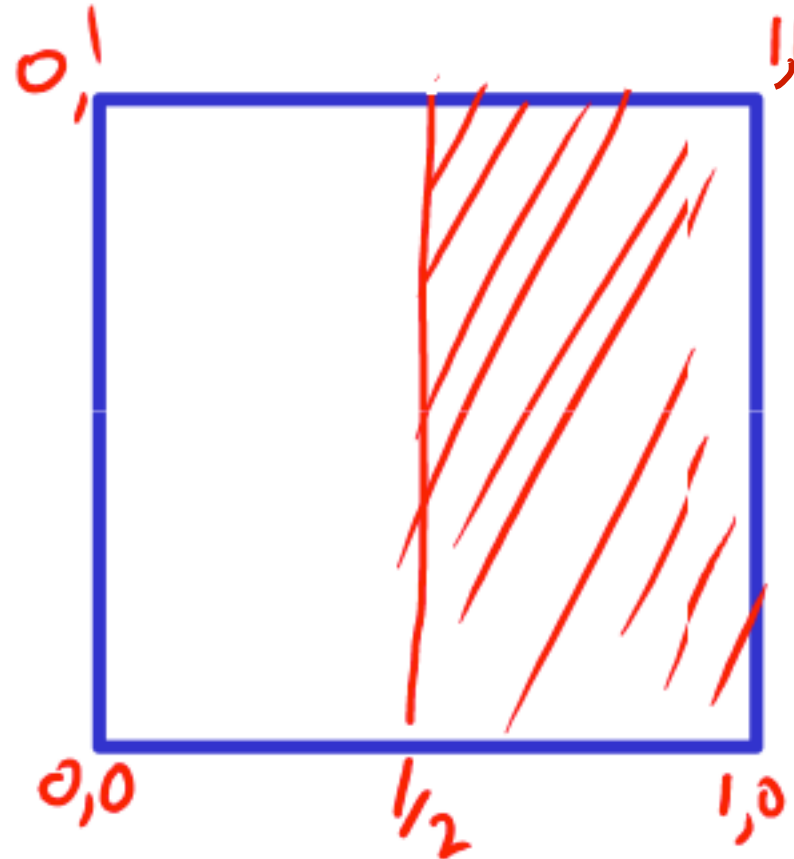
Probability as frequency

- Consider the following questions:
 - 1. What is the probability that when I flip a coin it is “heads”? **We can count → $\sim 1/2$**
 - 2. why ?
 - 3. What is the probability of Blue Ridge Mountains to have an erupting volcano in the near future ? **→ could not count**

Message: *The **frequentist** view is very useful, but it seems that we can also use **domain knowledge** to come up with probabilities.*

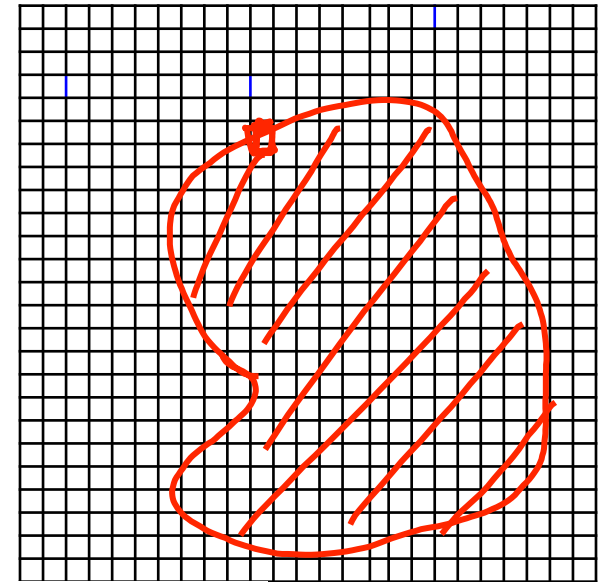
Probability as a measure of uncertainty

- Imagine we are throwing darts at a wall of size 1×1 and that all darts are guaranteed to fall within this 1×1 wall.
- What is the probability that a dart will hit the shaded area?



Probability as a measure of uncertainty

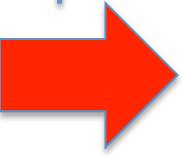
- *Probability is a measure of certainty of an event taking place.*
- *i.e. in the example, we were measuring the chances of hitting the shaded area.*



Its area is 1

$$prob = \frac{\# RedBoxes}{\# Boxes}$$

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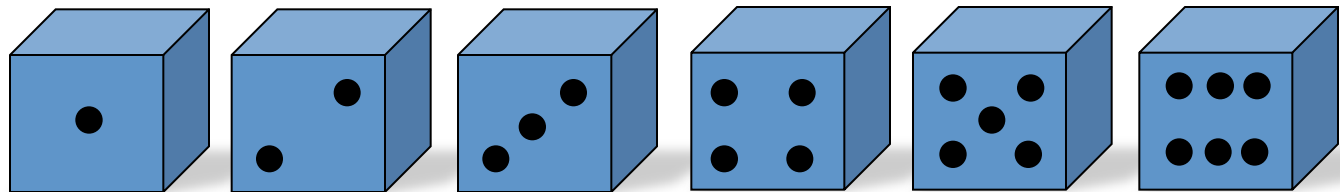
Probability

Probability is the formal study of the laws of chance. Probability allows us to **manage uncertainty**.

The **sample space** is the set of all **outcomes**. For example, for a die we have 6 outcomes:

$$O_{\text{die}} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

O:



Elementary Event "Throw 2"

The elements of O are called *elementary events*.

Probability

- *Probability allows us to measure many **events**.*
- ***The events are subsets of the sample space Ω .***
For example, for a die we may consider the following events: e.g.,

$$\text{GREATER} = \{5, 6\}$$

$$\text{EVEN} = \{2, 4, 6\}$$

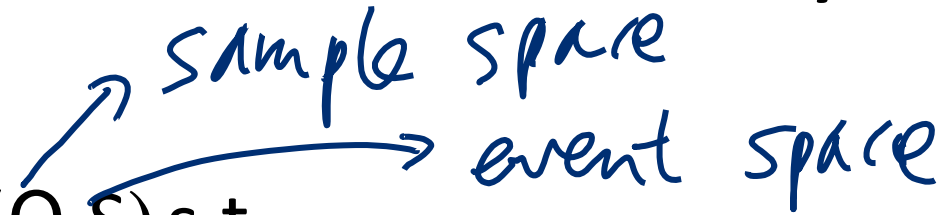
- ***Assign probabilities to these events: e.g.,***

$$P(\text{EVEN}) = 1/2$$

Sample space and Events

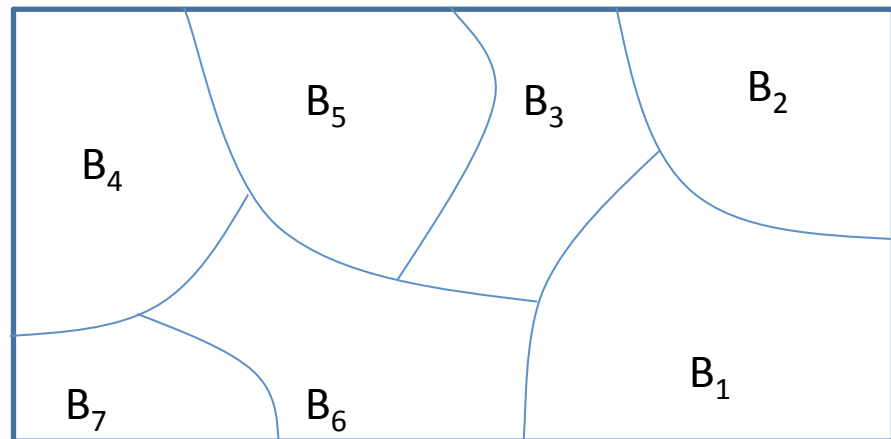
- Ω : **Sample Space**,
 - result of an experiment / set of all outcomes
 - If you toss a coin **twice** $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
- **Event**: a subset of Ω
 - First toss is head = $\{HH, HT\}$
- \mathcal{S} : **event space, a set of events**:
 - Contains the empty event and Ω

Axioms for Probability

- 
- Defined over (Ω, \mathcal{F}) s.t.
 - $1 \geq P(A) \geq 0$ for all A in \mathcal{F}
 - $P(\Omega) = 1$
 - If A, B are **disjoint**, then
 - $P(A \cup B) = p(A) + p(B)$

Axioms for Probability

$$\bullet P(\Omega) = \sum P(B_i)$$

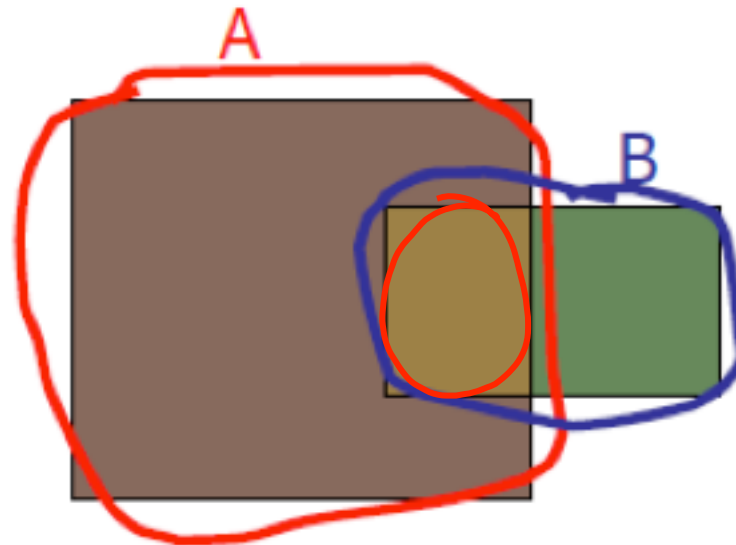


OR operation for Probability

- We can deduce other axioms from the above ones
 - Ex: $P(A \cup B)$ for **non-disjoint** events

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

P(Union of A set and B set)



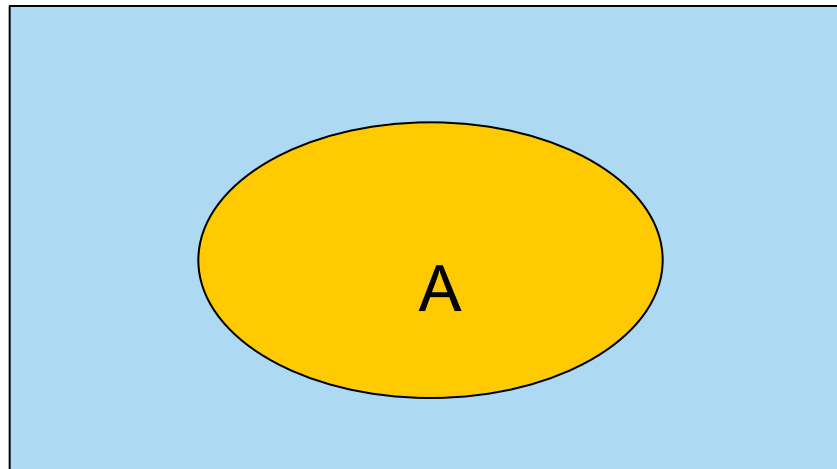
Theorems from the Axioms

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

From these we can prove:

$$P(\text{not } A) = P(\sim A) = 1 - P(A)$$

Complement



Another important theorem

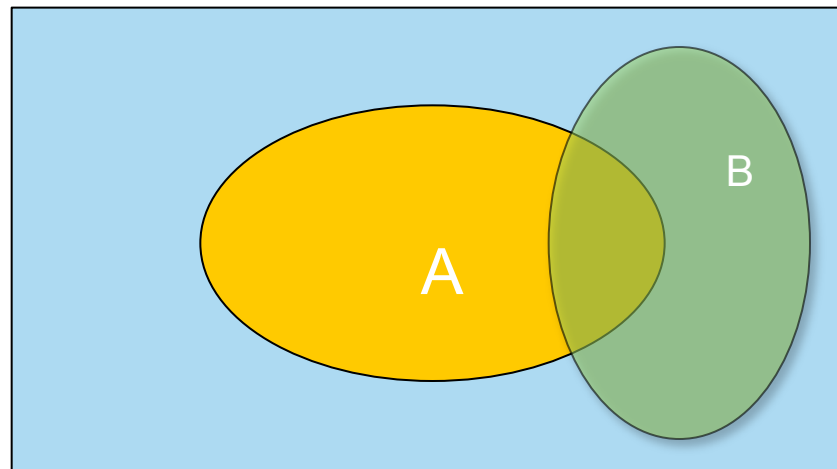
- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$,
- $P(\text{A or B}) = P(\text{A}) + P(\text{B}) - P(\text{A and B})$

From these we can prove:

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



P(Intersection of A and B)

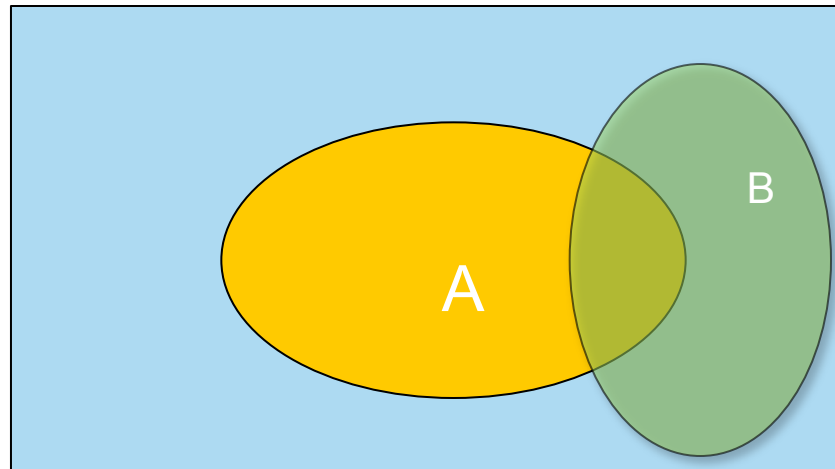


Another important theorem

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

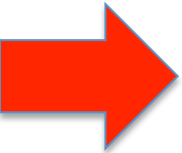
From these we can prove:

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



$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A) &= P(A \cap \Omega) \\
 &= P(A \cap (B \cup \sim B)) \\
 &= P((A \cap B) \cup (A \cap \sim B)) \\
 &= P(A \cap B) + P(A \cap \sim B)
 \end{aligned}$$

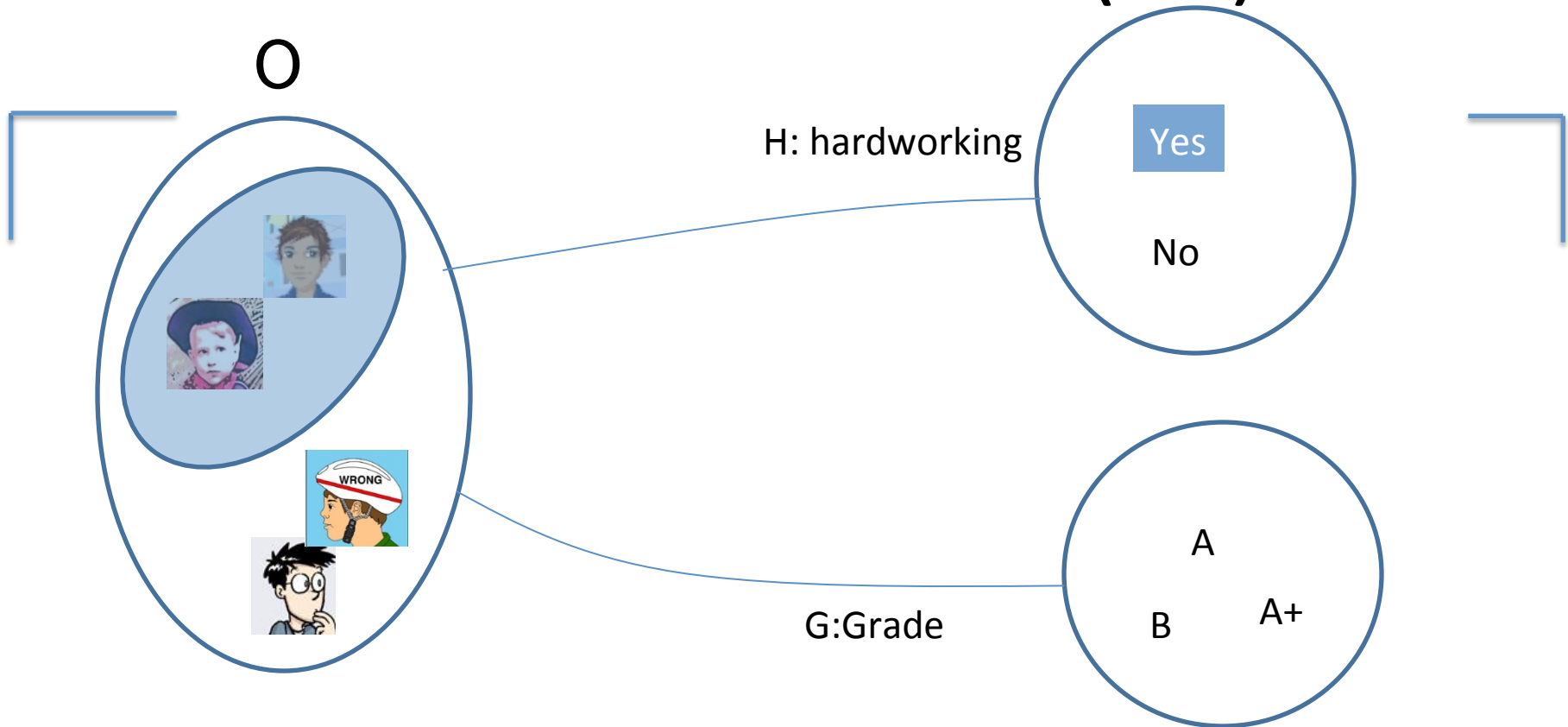
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From Events to Random Variable

- Concise way of specifying attributes of outcomes
- Modeling students (Grade and Intelligence):
 - O = all possible students (sample space)
 - What are events (subset of sample space)
 - Grade_A = all students with grade A
 - Grade_B = all students with grade B
 - HardWorking_Yes = ... who works hard
 - Very cumbersome
- Need “functions” that maps from O to an attribute space T .
- $P(H = \text{YES}) = P(\{\text{student} \in O : H(\text{student}) = \text{YES}\})$

Random Variables (RV)



$P(H = \text{Yes}) = P(\{\text{all students who is working hard on the course}\})$

- “functions” that maps from O to an attribute space T .

Notations

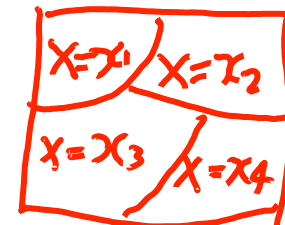
- $P(A)$ is shorthand for $P(A=\text{true})$
- $P(\sim A)$ is shorthand for $P(A=\text{false})$
- Same notation applies to other **binary** RVs:
 $P(\text{Gender}=\text{M})$, $P(\text{Gender}=\text{F})$
- Same notation applies to **multivalued** RVs:
 $P(\text{Major}=\text{history})$, $P(\text{Age}=19)$, $P(Q=c)$
- Note: **upper case letters/names for *variables***,
lower case letters/names for *values*

Discrete Random Variables

- Random variables (RVs) which may take on only a **countable** number of **distinct** values
- X is a RV with arity k if it can take on exactly one value out of $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$

Probability of Discrete RV

- Probability mass function (pmf): $P(X = x_i)$
- Easy facts about pmf
 - $\sum_i P(X = x_i) = 1$
 - $P(X = x_i \cap X = x_j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$
 - $P(X = x_i \cup X = x_j) = P(X = x_i) + P(X = x_j)$ if $i \neq j$
 - $P(X = x_1 \cup X = x_2 \cup \dots \cup X = x_k) = 1$



e.g. Coin Flips

- You flip a coin
 - Head with probability p , e.g. $=0.5$
- You flip a coin for k , e.g., $=100$ times
 - How many heads would you expect

e.g. Coin Flips cont.

- You flip a coin
 - Head with probability p
 - **Binary** random variable
 - **Bernoulli trial** with success probability p
- You flip a coin for k times
 - How many heads would you expect
 - **Number** of heads X is a discrete random variable
 - **Binomial distribution** with parameters k and p

 $\{H, T\}$

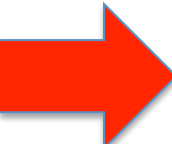
Discrete Random Variables

- Random variables (RVs) which may take on only a **countable** number of **distinct** values
 - E.g. the total number of heads X you get if you flip 100 coins
- X is a RV with arity k if it can take on exactly one value out of $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$
 - E.g. the possible values that X can take on are 0, 1, 2, ..., 100

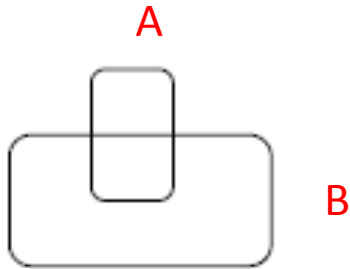
e.g., two Common Distributions

- Uniform $X \sim U[1, \dots, N]$
 - X takes values 1, 2, ..., N
 - $P(X=i) = 1/N$
 - E.g. picking balls of different colors from a box
- Binomial $X \sim \text{Bin}(k, p)$
 - X takes values 0, 1, ..., k
 - $P(X=i) = \binom{k}{i} p^i (1-p)^{k-i}$
 - E.g. coin flips k times

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 - Structural properties
 - Independence, conditional independence

Conditional / Joint / Marginal Probability



$$P(A \text{ given } B) = P(A \text{ and } B) / P(B)$$

That is, in the frequentist interpretation, we calculate the ratio of the number of times both A and B occurred and divide it by the number of times B occurred.

Chain rule

For short we write: $P(A|B) = P(AB)/P(B)$; or $P(AB) = P(A|B)P(B)$, where $P(A|B)$ is the conditional probability, $P(AB)$ is the joint, and $P(B)$ is the marginal.

If we have more events, we use the chain rule:

$$P(ABC) = P(A|BC) P(B|C) P(C)$$

If hard to directly estimate from data, most likely we can estimate

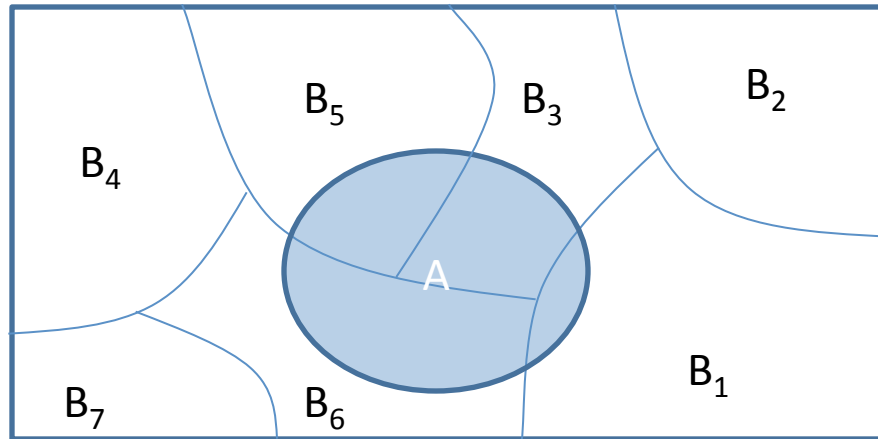
- 1. Joint probability
 - Use Chain Rule
- 2. Marginal probability
 - Use the total law of probability
- 3. Conditional probability
 - Use the Bayes Rule

(1). To calculate Joint Probability: Use Chain Rule

- Two ways to use chain rules on joint probability

$$\begin{array}{l} \nearrow \text{joint} \quad \nearrow \text{conditional} \\ P(A,B) = p(B|A)p(A) \rightarrow \text{marginal} \\ P(A,B) = p(A|B)p(B) \end{array}$$

(2). To calculate **Marginal Probability**:
Use Rule of total probability (Event)



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

$$P(B_i \cap A)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(A) = \sum P(B_i) P(A|B_i)$$

WHY ???

$$\begin{aligned} P(A) &= P(A \cap \mathcal{R}) \\ &= P(A \cap (B_1 \cup B_2 \dots \cup B_k)) \\ &= \sum P(A \cap B_i) \end{aligned}$$

(2). To calculate **Marginal Probability**: **Use Rule of total probability (RV)**

- Given two discrete RVs X and Y , which take values in $\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ and $\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$, We have

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = x_i) &= \sum_j P(X = x_i \cap Y = y_j) \\ &= \sum_j P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) P(Y = y_j) \end{aligned}$$



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

(3). To calculate **Conditional Probability: Use Bayes Rule**

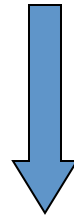
- $P(X = x | Y = y)$ is the probability of $X = x$, given the occurrence of $Y = y$

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x \cap Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$

Bayes Rule

- X and Y are discrete RVs...

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x \cap Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$



$$P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) = \frac{P(Y = y_j | X = x_i) P(X = x_i)}{\sum_{\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}} P(Y = y_j | X = x_k) P(X = x_k)}$$

Bayes Rule

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

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**



More General Forms of Bayes Rule

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

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

$$P(A = a_1 | B) = \frac{P(B | A = a_1)P(A = a_1)}{\sum_i P(B | A = a_i)P(A = a_i)}$$

One Example: Joint

Assume we have a dark box with 3 red balls and 1 blue ball. That is, we have the set $\{\textcolor{red}{r}, \textcolor{red}{r}, \textcolor{red}{r}, \textcolor{blue}{b}\}$. What is the probability of drawing 2 red balls in the first 2 tries?

$$P(B_1 = r, B_2 = r) =$$

One Example: Joint

Assume we have a dark box with 3 red balls and 1 blue ball. That is, we have the set $\{r, r, r, b\}$. What is the probability of drawing 2 red balls in the first 2 tries?

$$P(B_1 = r, B_2 = r) = P(B_1 = r) \underbrace{P(B_2 = r \mid B_1 = r)}_{\substack{2 \\ \downarrow \\ 3}}$$

$$P(B_1 = r) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$P(B_1 = b) = \frac{1}{4}$$

One Example: Joint

Assume we have a dark box with 3 red balls and 1 blue ball. That is, we have the set $\{r, r, r, b\}$. What is the probability of drawing 2 red balls in the first 2 tries?

$$P(B_1 = r, B_2 = r) = P(B_1 = r) P(B_2 = r | B_1 = r)$$

$$= \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

One Example: Marginal

What is the probability that the 2nd ball drawn from the set $\{\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{b}\}$ will be red?

Using marginalization, $P(\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{r}) = P(\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{B}_1 = \mathbf{r}) + P(\mathbf{B}_2 = \mathbf{r}, \mathbf{B}_1 = \mathbf{b})$

One Example: Marginal

What is the probability that the 2nd ball drawn from the set $\{r, r, r, b\}$ will be red?

Using marginalization, $P(B_2 = r) = P(B_2 = r \wedge B_1 = r) + P(B_2 = r \wedge B_1 = b)$

$$= P(B_1 = r) P(B_2 = r | B_1 = r) + P(B_1 = b) P(B_2 = r | B_1 = b)$$

$$= \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \times 1$$

One Example: Conditional

$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(B_1 = r \mid B_2 = r) \\
 = & \frac{P(B_2 = r \mid B_1 = r) P(B_1 = r)}{P(B_2 = r)} \Rightarrow \text{lost last page} \\
 & \Downarrow \text{Last paper} \\
 = &
 \end{aligned}$$

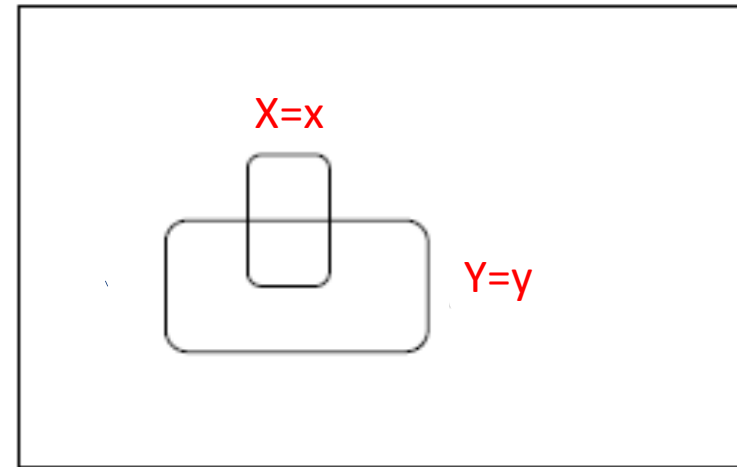
Simplify Notation: Conditional Probability

$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x \cap Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$

events

But we will always write it this way:

$$P(x | y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(y)}$$



$P(X=x \text{ true}) \rightarrow P(X=x) \rightarrow P(x)$

$P(x) \leftarrow P(\underline{X}=x) \leftarrow P(\underline{X}=x \text{ true})$
 value RV event

Simplify Notation: Marginal

- We know $p(X, Y)$, what is $P(X=x)$?
- We can use the law of total probability, why?

$$p(x) = \sum_y P(x, y)$$
$$= \sum_y P(y)P(x|y)$$

all possible Y values
 $\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$

$$p(x) = \sum_{y,z} P(x, y, z)$$
$$= \sum_{z,y} P(y, z)P(x|y, z)$$
$$\sum_y \sum_z p(y, z) = 1$$

Simplify Notation: Conditional

- Bayes Rule

$$P(x | y) = \frac{P(x)P(y | x)}{P(y)}$$

- You can condition on more variables

$$P(x | y, z) = \frac{P(x | z)P(y | x, z)}{P(y | z)}$$

Simplify Notation:

An Example

- We know that $P(\text{rain}) = 0.5$
 - If we also know that the grass is wet, then how this affects our belief about whether it rains or not?

$$P(\text{rain} \mid \text{wet}) = \frac{P(\text{rain})P(\text{wet} \mid \text{rain})}{P(\text{wet})}$$

Simplify Notation:

An Example

- We know that $P(\text{rain}) = 0.5$
- If we also know that the grass is wet, then how this affects our belief about whether it rains or not?

$$P(\overset{W=}{\text{rain}} \mid \overset{G=}{\text{wet}}) = \frac{P(\text{rain})P(\text{wet} \mid \text{rain})}{P(\text{wet})}$$

$$P(W=S \mid \text{wet})$$

$$P(x \mid y) = \frac{P(x)P(y \mid x)}{P(y)} = \frac{p(x,y)}{p(y)}$$

Simplify Notation:

An Example

- We know that $P(\text{rain}) = 0.5$
- If we also know that the grass is wet, then how this affects our belief about whether it rains or not?

$$P(\text{rain} | \text{wet}) = \frac{P(\text{rain})P(\text{wet} | \text{rain})}{P(\text{wet})}$$

Handwritten annotations:

- $P(\text{rain})$ is annotated with 0.5 and an arrow.
- $P(\text{wet} | \text{rain})$ is annotated with 1 and an arrow.
- $P(\text{wet})$ is annotated with $P(\text{wet, rain}) + P(\text{wet, sunny})$ and an arrow.
- The denominator is annotated with $P(\text{rain})P(\text{wet} | \text{rain}) + P(\text{sunny})P(\text{wet} | \text{sunny})$.
- Below the equation, there are two sets of variables:
 - Weather: $\{\text{rain, sunny}\}$
 - Grass: $\{\text{wet, dry}\}$

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Independent RVs

- Intuition: X and Y are independent means that $X = x$ **neither** makes it **more or less** probable that $Y = y$
- Definition: X and Y are independent *iff*
$$P(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$$

More on Independence

$$P(X = x \cap Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$$



$$P(X = x | Y = y) = P(X = x)$$



$$P(Y = y | X = x) = P(Y = y)$$

- **E.g.** no matter how many heads you get, your friend will not be affected, and vice versa

More on Independence

- X is independent of Y means that knowing Y does not change our belief about X. The following forms are **equivalent**:
 - $P(X=x, Y=y) = P(X=x) P(Y=y)$
 - $P(X=x | Y=y) = P(X=x)$
- The above should hold for all x_i, y_j
- It is symmetric and **written as** $X \perp Y$

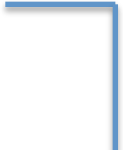

Conditionally Independent RVs

- Intuition: X and Y are conditionally independent given Z means that once Z is **known**, the value of X does not add any **additional** information about Y
- Definition: X and Y are conditionally independent given Z *iff*

$$P(X = x \cap Y = y | Z = z) = P(X = x | Z = z) P(Y = y | Z = z)$$

If holding for all x_i, y_j, z_k $X \perp Y | Z$

More on Conditional Independence


$$P(X = x \cap Y = y | Z = z) = P(X = x | Z = z) P(Y = y | Z = z)$$



$$P(X = x | Y = y, Z = z) = P(X = x | Z = z)$$



$$P(Y = y | X = x, Z = z) = P(Y = y | Z = z)$$

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- The big picture
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- Random variables
- Joint probability, Marginalization, conditioning, chain rule, Bayes Rule, law of total probability, etc.
- Structural properties, e.g., Independence, conditional independence
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (next class)

References

- Prof. Andrew Moore's review tutorial
- Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides
- Prof. Carlos Guestrin recitation slides