Advanced Machine Learning

Probability

$$Y = g(X)$$
 $g(x_{13})$ $g(x_{14})$ $g(x_{14})$ $g(x_{15})$ $g(x_{15})$ $g(x_{16})$ $g(x_{$

Probability, Random Variables, Expectations

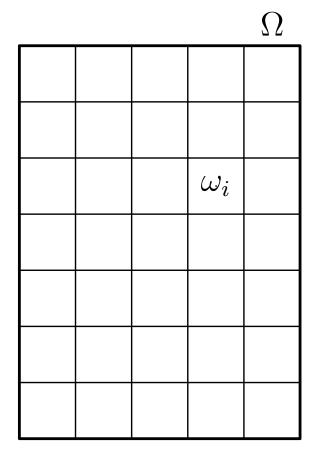
Outline

 \mathcal{O}

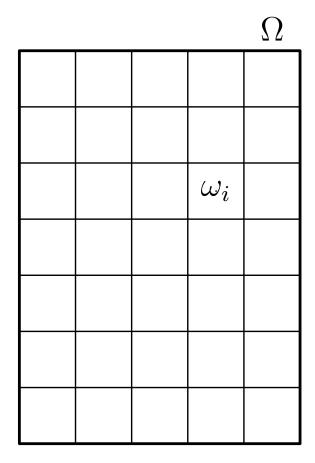
- 1. Random Variables
- 2. Expectations
- 3. Calculus of Probabilities

x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

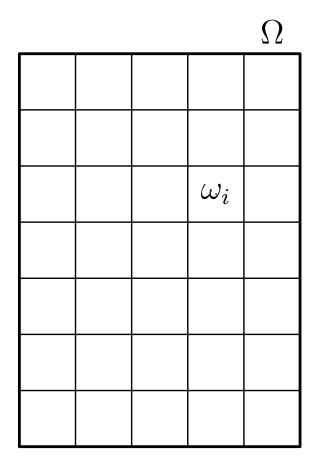
- To model a world with uncertainty we consider some set of **elementary events** or **outcomes** Ω
- For the outcome of rolling a dice $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- The elementary events are mutually exclusive $\omega_i \cap \omega_j = \emptyset$ and exhaustive $\bigcup_i \omega_i = \Omega$
- We consider **events** $\mathcal{E} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \omega_i$
- E.g. For a dice throw $\mathcal{E} = \{2,4,6\}$



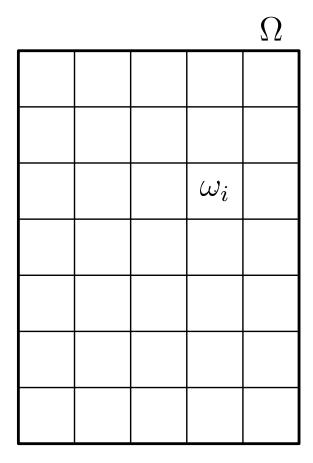
- To model a world with uncertainty we consider some set of **elementary events** or **outcomes** Ω
- For the outcome of rolling a dice $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- The elementary events are mutually exclusive $\omega_i \cap \omega_j = \emptyset$ and exhaustive $\bigcup_i \omega_i = \Omega$
- We consider **events** $\mathcal{E} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \omega_i$
- E.g. For a dice throw $\mathcal{E} = \{2,4,6\}$



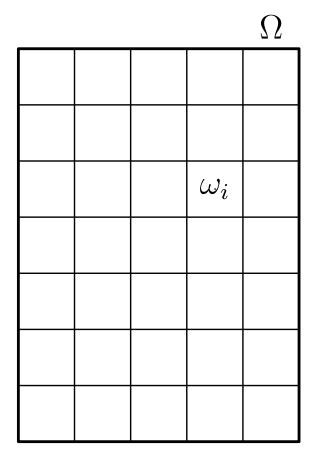
- To model a world with uncertainty we consider some set of **elementary events** or **outcomes** Ω
- For the outcome of rolling a dice $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- The elementary events are mutually exclusive $\omega_i \cap \omega_j = \emptyset$ and exhaustive $\bigcup_i \omega_i = \Omega$
- We consider **events** $\mathcal{E} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \omega_i$
- E.g. For a dice throw $\mathcal{E} = \{2,4,6\}$



- To model a world with uncertainty we consider some set of **elementary events** or **outcomes** Ω
- For the outcome of rolling a dice $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- The elementary events are mutually exclusive $\omega_i \cap \omega_j = \emptyset$ and exhaustive $\bigcup_i \omega_i = \Omega$
- We consider events $\mathcal{E} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \omega_i$
- E.g. For a dice throw $\mathcal{E} = \{2,4,6\}$



- To model a world with uncertainty we consider some set of **elementary events** or **outcomes** Ω
- For the outcome of rolling a dice $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- The elementary events are mutually exclusive $\omega_i \cap \omega_j = \emptyset$ and exhaustive $\bigcup_i \omega_i = \Omega$
- We consider **events** $\mathcal{E} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{I}} \omega_i$
- E.g. For a dice throw $\mathcal{E} = \{2,4,6\}$



$$\begin{array}{l} \star \ 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1 \\ \star \ \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E} \end{array}$$

- In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

```
 \star 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1 
 \star \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}
```

- In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

$$\star 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1$$

$$\star \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}$$

- ullet In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

$$\star 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1$$

$$\star \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}$$

- In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

$$\star 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1$$

$$\star \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}$$

- In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

$$\star 0 \leq \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) \leq 1$$

$$\star \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) + \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathcal{E}) = 1 \text{ where } \neg \mathcal{E} = \Omega \setminus \mathcal{E}$$

- In some cases we can interpret $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E})$ as the expected frequency of occurrence of a repetitive trial
- But $\mathbb{P}(Pass\ COMP6208\ exam)$ is something you do once
- Can think of probability as an informed belief that something might happen
- When our knowledge changes the probability changes

Random Variables

- We can define a **random variable**, X, by partition the set of outcomes Ω and assign a numbers to each partition
- E.g. for a dice

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega \in \{1,3,5\} \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega \in \{2,4,6\} \end{cases}$$

• $\mathbb{P}(X=x_i)=\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}_i)$ where \mathcal{E}_i is the event that corresponding to the partition with value x_i

				7
x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

Random Variables

- We can define a **random variable**, X, by partition the set of outcomes Ω and assign a numbers to each partition
- E.g. for a dice

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega \in \{1,3,5\} \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega \in \{2,4,6\} \end{cases}$$

• $\mathbb{P}(X=x_i)=\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}_i)$ where \mathcal{E}_i is the event that corresponding to the partition with value x_i

				Z
x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

Random Variables

- We can define a **random variable**, X, by partition the set of outcomes Ω and assign a numbers to each partition
- E.g. for a dice

$$X = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega \in \{1,3,5\} \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega \in \{2,4,6\} \end{cases}$$

• $\mathbb{P}(X = x_i) = \mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}_i)$ where \mathcal{E}_i is the event that corresponding to the partition with value x_i

				<u> </u>
x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

- ullet We denote random variables with capital letters, X, Y, Z, etc.
- The symbol denote an object that can take one of a number of different values, but which one is still to be decided by chance
- ullet When we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we can view this as short-hand for

$$(\mathbb{P}(X=x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}) = (\mathbb{P}(X=x_1), \mathbb{P}(X=x_2), \dots \mathbb{P}(X=x_n))$$

where ${\mathcal X}$ is the set of possible values that X can take

- We denote random variables with capital letters, X, Y, Z, etc.
- The symbol denote an object that can take one of a number of different values, but which one is still to be decided by chance
- ullet When we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we can view this as short-hand for

$$(\mathbb{P}(X=x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}) = (\mathbb{P}(X=x_1), \mathbb{P}(X=x_2), \dots \mathbb{P}(X=x_n))$$

where ${\mathcal X}$ is the set of possible values that X can take

- We denote random variables with capital letters, X, Y, Z, etc.
- The symbol denote an object that can take one of a number of different values, but which one is still to be decided by chance
- ullet When we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we can view this as short-hand for

$$(\mathbb{P}(X=x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}) = (\mathbb{P}(X=x_1), \mathbb{P}(X=x_2), \dots \mathbb{P}(X=x_n))$$

where \mathcal{X} is the set of possible values that X can take

- We denote random variables with capital letters, X, Y, Z, etc.
- The symbol denote an object that can take one of a number of different values, but which one is still to be decided by chance
- ullet When we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we can view this as short-hand for

$$(\mathbb{P}(X=x) \mid x \in \mathcal{X}) = (\mathbb{P}(X=x_1), \mathbb{P}(X=x_2), \dots \mathbb{P}(X=x_n))$$

where ${\mathcal X}$ is the set of possible values that X can take

Function of Random Variables

ullet Any function, Y=g(X), of a random variable, X, is a random variable

Function of Random Variables

• Any function, Y=g(X), of a random variable, X, is a random variable

	.		<u> </u>
x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}	x_{16}
x_9	x_{10}	x_{11}	x_{12}
x_5	x_6	x_7	x_8
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4

Function of Random Variables

• Any function, Y=g(X), of a random variable, X, is a random variable

$$Y = g(X)$$
 $y_{13} = g(x_{13})$ $y_{14} = g(x_{14})$ $y_{15} = g(x_{15})$ $y_{16} = g(x_{16})$ $y_{9} = g(x_{9})$ $y_{10} = g(x_{10})$ $y_{11} = g(x_{11})$ $y_{12} = g(x_{12})$ $y_{5} = g(x_{5})$ $y_{6} = g(x_{6})$ $y_{7} = g(x_{7})$ $y_{8} = g(x_{8})$ $y_{1} = g(x_{1})$ $y_{2} = g(x_{2})$ $y_{3} = g(x_{3})$ $y_{4} = g(x_{4})$

- If the space of elementary events is continuous (e.g. for darts $\mathbf{x} = (x,y)$) then $\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = 0$
- ullet But if we consider a region, \mathcal{R} , then we can assign a probability to landing in the region $\mathbb{P}(m{X}\in\mathcal{R})$
- It is useful to work with **probability densities function** (PDF)

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon))}{|\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)|}$$

where $\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)$ is a ball of radius ϵ around the point \boldsymbol{x} and $|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)|$ is the volume of the ball

• If we make a change of variable the volume $|\mathcal{B}(x,\epsilon)|$ might change so $f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(x)$ will change

- If the space of elementary events is continuous (e.g. for darts $\boldsymbol{x}=(x,y)$) then $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{x})=0$
- But if we consider a region, \mathcal{R} , then we can assign a probability to landing in the region $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{R})$
- It is useful to work with probability densities function (PDF)

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon))}{|\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)|}$$

where $\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)$ is a ball of radius ϵ around the point \boldsymbol{x} and $|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)|$ is the volume of the ball

• If we make a change of variable the volume $|\mathcal{B}(x,\epsilon)|$ might change so $f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(x)$ will change

- If the space of elementary events is continuous (e.g. for darts $\boldsymbol{x}=(x,y)$) then $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{x})=0$
- ullet But if we consider a region, \mathcal{R} , then we can assign a probability to landing in the region $\mathbb{P}(m{X}\in\mathcal{R})$
- It is useful to work with probability densities function (PDF)

$$f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x}, \epsilon))}{|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x}, \epsilon)|}$$

where $\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)$ is a ball of radius ϵ around the point \boldsymbol{x} and $|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)|$ is the volume of the ball

• If we make a change of variable the volume $|\mathcal{B}(x,\epsilon)|$ might change so $f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(x)$ will change

- If the space of elementary events is continuous (e.g. for darts $\boldsymbol{x}=(x,y)$) then $\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X}=\boldsymbol{x})=0$
- ullet But if we consider a region, \mathcal{R} , then we can assign a probability to landing in the region $\mathbb{P}(m{X}\in\mathcal{R})$
- It is useful to work with **probability densities function** (PDF)

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon))}{|\mathcal{B}(\mathbf{x}, \epsilon)|}$$

where $\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)$ is a ball of radius ϵ around the point \boldsymbol{x} and $|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)|$ is the volume of the ball

• If we make a change of variable the volume $|\mathcal{B}(\boldsymbol{x},\epsilon)|$ might change so $f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x})$ will change

- Consider a region \mathcal{R} —we can describe this using different coordinate systems x or y=g(x)
- But

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_Y(y) dy$$

- As this is true for any region \mathcal{R} : $f_X(x) dx = \pm f_Y(y) dy$
- Or

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right| = f_Y(g(x)) |g'(x)|$$

- Consider a region \mathcal{R} —we can describe this using different coordinate systems x or y=g(x)
- But

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_Y(y) dy$$

- As this is true for any region \mathcal{R} : $f_X(x) dx = \pm f_Y(y) dy$
- Or

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right| = f_Y(g(x)) |g'(x)|$$

- Consider a region \mathcal{R} —we can describe this using different coordinate systems x or y=g(x)
- But

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_Y(y) dy$$

- As this is true for any region \mathcal{R} : $f_X(x) dx = \pm f_Y(y) dy$
- Or

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right| = f_Y(g(x)) |g'(x)|$$

- Consider a region \mathcal{R} —we can describe this using different coordinate systems x or y=g(x)
- But

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_Y(y) dy$$

- As this is true for any region \mathcal{R} : $f_X(x) dx = \pm f_Y(y) dy$
- Or

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right| = f_Y(g(x)) |g'(x)|$$

- Consider a region \mathcal{R} —we can describe this using different coordinate systems x or y=g(x)
- But

$$\mathbb{P}(X \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_X(x) dx = \mathbb{P}(Y \in \mathcal{R}) = \int_{\mathcal{R}} f_Y(y) dy$$

- As this is true for any region \mathcal{R} : $f_X(x) dx = \pm f_Y(y) dy$
- Or

$$f_X(x) = f_Y(y) \left| \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} \right| = f_Y(g(x)) |g'(x)|$$

Jacobian

- ullet In high dimension if we make a change of variables $m{x} o m{y}(m{x})$ (which can be seen as a change of random variables $m{X} o m{Y}(m{X})$)
- Then

$$f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y})|\det(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{J}})|$$

where J is the Jacobian matrix

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

• Ensures integrals over volumes are the same

Jacobian

- ullet In high dimension if we make a change of variables $oldsymbol{x} o oldsymbol{y}(oldsymbol{x})$ (which can be seen as a change of random variables $oldsymbol{X} o oldsymbol{Y}(oldsymbol{X})$)
- Then

$$f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y})|\det(\mathbf{J})|$$

where J is the Jacobian matrix

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

• Ensures integrals over volumes are the same

Jacobian

- ullet In high dimension if we make a change of variables $oldsymbol{x} o oldsymbol{y}(oldsymbol{x})$ (which can be seen as a change of random variables $oldsymbol{X} o oldsymbol{Y}(oldsymbol{X})$)
- Then

$$f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) = f_{\boldsymbol{Y}}(\boldsymbol{y})|\det(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{J}})|$$

where J is the Jacobian matrix

$$\mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_n}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Ensures integrals over volumes are the same

Meaning of Probability Densities

- Probability densities are not probabilities
- They are positive, but don't need to be less than 1
- Note that

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(x \le X < x + \delta x)}{\delta x}$$

- We can think of $f_X(x)\delta x$ as $\mathbb{P}(x \leq X < x + \delta x)$
- Note that $f_X(x)\delta x \leq 1$

- Probability densities are not probabilities
- They are positive, but don't need to be less than 1
- Note that

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(x \le X < x + \delta x)}{\delta x}$$

- We can think of $f_X(x)\delta x$ as $\mathbb{P}(x \leq X < x + \delta x)$
- Note that $f_X(x)\delta x \leq 1$

- Probability densities are not probabilities
- They are positive, but don't need to be less than 1
- Note that

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(x \le X < x + \delta x)}{\delta x}$$

- We can think of $f_X(x)\delta x$ as $\mathbb{P}(x \leq X < x + \delta x)$
- Note that $f_X(x)\delta x \leq 1$

- Probability densities are not probabilities
- They are positive, but don't need to be less than 1
- Note that

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(x \le X < x + \delta x)}{\delta x}$$

- We can think of $f_X(x)\delta x$ as $\mathbb{P}(x \leq X < x + \delta x)$
- Note that $f_X(x)\delta x \leq 1$

- Probability densities are not probabilities
- They are positive, but don't need to be less than 1
- Note that

$$f_X(x) = \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(x \le X < x + \delta x)}{\delta x}$$

- We can think of $f_X(x)\delta x$ as $\mathbb{P}(x \leq X < x + \delta x)$
- Note that $f_X(x)\delta x \leq 1$

Cumulative Probability Functions

We can define the cumulative probability function (CDF)

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i:x_i \le x} \mathbb{P}(X = x_i) \\ \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(y) \, dy \end{cases}$$

- ullet This is a function that goes from 0 to 1 as x goes from $-\infty$ to ∞
- We note that for continuous random variables

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}F_X(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Cumulative Probability Functions

• We can define the cumulative probability function (CDF)

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i:x_i \le x} \mathbb{P}(X = x_i) \\ \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(y) \, dy \end{cases}$$

- This is a function that goes from 0 to 1 as x goes from $-\infty$ to ∞
- We note that for continuous random variables

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}F_X(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Cumulative Probability Functions

We can define the cumulative probability function (CDF)

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i:x_i \le x} \mathbb{P}(X = x_i) \\ \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(y) \, dy \end{cases}$$

- This is a function that goes from 0 to 1 as x goes from $-\infty$ to ∞
- We note that for continuous random variables

$$f_X(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}F_X(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Outline

 \bigcirc

- 1. Random Variables
- 2. Expectations
- 3. Calculus of Probabilities

x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

Expectation

ullet We can define the expectation of $oldsymbol{Y}=g(oldsymbol{X})$ as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}[g(\boldsymbol{X})] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}} g(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}) \\ \int_{\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x})} f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} \end{cases}$$

ullet The expectation of a constant c is

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[c] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} c\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \\ \int c f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \int f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \end{cases}$$

• Note $\mathbb{E}_X[\mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]] = \mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]$

Expectation

• We can define the expectation of $\boldsymbol{Y} = g(\boldsymbol{X})$ as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}[g(\boldsymbol{X})] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}} g(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}) \\ \int g(\boldsymbol{x}) f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} \end{cases}$$

ullet The expectation of a constant c is

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[c] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} c\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \\ \int c f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \int f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \end{cases}$$

• Note $\mathbb{E}_X[\mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]] = \mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]$

Expectation

• We can define the expectation of ${m Y}=g({m X})$ as

$$\mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{X}}[g(\boldsymbol{X})] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}} g(\boldsymbol{x}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{X} = \boldsymbol{x}) \\ \int g(\boldsymbol{x}) f_{\boldsymbol{X}}(\boldsymbol{x}) d\boldsymbol{x} \end{cases}$$

ullet The expectation of a constant c is

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}}[c] = \begin{cases} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} c\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = c \\ \int c f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \int f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = c \end{cases}$$

• Note $\mathbb{E}_X[\mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]] = \mathbb{E}_X[g(X)]$

Linearity of Expectation

Because sums and integrals are linear operators

$$\sum_{i} (ax_i + by_i) = a \left(\sum_{i} x_i\right) + b \left(\sum_{i} y_i\right)$$
$$\int (af(\mathbf{x}) + bg(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} = a \left(\int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}\right) + b \left(\int g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}\right)$$

then expectations are linear

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + bY] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

• Beware usually $\mathbb{E}[XY] \neq \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ (unless X and Y are independent)

Linearity of Expectation

Because sums and integrals are linear operators

$$\sum_{i} (ax_i + by_i) = a \left(\sum_{i} x_i\right) + b \left(\sum_{i} y_i\right)$$
$$\int (af(\mathbf{x}) + bg(\mathbf{x})) d\mathbf{x} = a \left(\int f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}\right) + b \left(\int g(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}\right)$$

then expectations are linear

$$\mathbb{E}[aX + bY] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y]$$

• Beware usually $\mathbb{E}[XY] \neq \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$ (unless X and Y are independent)

Indicator Functions

An indicator function has the property

$$[\![predicate]\!] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } predicate \text{ is True} \\ 0 & \text{if } predicate \text{ is False} \end{cases}$$

(sometimes written $I_A(x)$ where A(x) is the predicate)

We can obtain probabilities from expectations

$$\mathbb{P}(predicate) = \mathbb{E}[\llbracket predicate \rrbracket]$$

E.g. The CDF is given by

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \mathbb{E}[[X \le x]]$$

Indicator Functions

An indicator function has the property

$$[\![\mathit{predicate}]\!] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathit{predicate} \text{ is True} \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathit{predicate} \text{ is False} \end{cases}$$

(sometimes written $I_A(x)$ where A(x) is the predicate)

We can obtain probabilities from expectations

$$\mathbb{P}(predicate) = \mathbb{E}[\llbracket predicate \rrbracket]$$

E.g. The CDF is given by

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \mathbb{E}[[X \le x]]$$

Indicator Functions

An indicator function has the property

$$[\![predicate]\!] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } predicate \text{ is True} \\ 0 & \text{if } predicate \text{ is False} \end{cases}$$

(sometimes written $I_A(x)$ where A(x) is the predicate)

We can obtain probabilities from expectations

$$\mathbb{P}(predicate) = \mathbb{E}[\llbracket predicate \rrbracket]$$

• E.g. The CDF is given by

$$F_X(x) = \mathbb{P}(X \le x) = \mathbb{E}[[X \le x]]$$

Outline

 Ω

- 1. Random Variables
- 2. Expectations
- 3. Calculus of Probabilities

x_{31}	x_{32}	x_{33}	x_{34}	x_{35}
x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}
x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}
x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5

Joint Probabilities

- Often we want to model complex processes where we have multiple random variables
- We can define the joint probability

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

i.e. the probability of the event where both X=x and Y=y

• Clearly $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y,X)$

Joint Probabilities

- Often we want to model complex processes where we have multiple random variables
- We can define the joint probability

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

i.e. the probability of the event where both X=x and Y=y

• Clearly $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y,X)$

Joint Probabilities

- Often we want to model complex processes where we have multiple random variables
- We can define the joint probability

$$p_{X,Y}(x,y) = \mathbb{P}(X = x, Y = y)$$

i.e. the probability of the event where both X=x and Y=y

• Clearly $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y,X)$

- Probabilities are extremely easy to manipulate (although lots of people struggle)
- One of the most useful properties is known as marginalisation

$$\mathbb{P}(X) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)$$

- Note that when we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we are saying this is true for all values that X can take
- Although obvious and easy this is extremely useful

- Probabilities are extremely easy to manipulate (although lots of people struggle)
- One of the most useful properties is known as marginalisation

$$\mathbb{P}(X) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)$$

- Note that when we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we are saying this is true for all values that X can take
- Although obvious and easy this is extremely useful

- Probabilities are extremely easy to manipulate (although lots of people struggle)
- One of the most useful properties is known as marginalisation

$$\mathbb{P}(X) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)$$

- Note that when we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we are saying this is true for all values that X can take
- Although obvious and easy this is extremely useful

- Probabilities are extremely easy to manipulate (although lots of people struggle)
- One of the most useful properties is known as marginalisation

$$\mathbb{P}(X) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)$$

- Note that when we write $\mathbb{P}(X)$ we are saying this is true for all values that X can take
- Although obvious and easy this is extremely useful

Conditional Probability

ullet We can also define the probability of an event X given that Y=y has occurred

$$\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)}$$

- In constructing a model it is often much easier to specify conditional probabilities (because you know something) rather than joint probabilities
- When manipulating probabilities it is often easier to work with joint probabilities because we can simplify them by marginalising out random variables we are not interested in

Conditional Probability

• We can also define the probability of an event X given that Y=y has occurred

$$\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)}$$

- In constructing a model it is often much easier to specify conditional probabilities (because you know something) rather than joint probabilities
- When manipulating probabilities it is often easier to work with joint probabilities because we can simplify them by marginalising out random variables we are not interested in

Conditional Probability

• We can also define the probability of an event X given that Y=y has occurred

$$\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X, Y = y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y = y)}$$

- In constructing a model it is often much easier to specify conditional probabilities (because you know something) rather than joint probabilities
- When manipulating probabilities it is often easier to work with joint probabilities because we can simplify them by marginalising out random variables we are not interested in

• To obtain the joint probability we can use

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

This generalises to more random variables

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(X,Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y,Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z)$$

We can do this in a number of different ways

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(Y,Z|X)\mathbb{P}(X) = \mathbb{P}(Z|Y,X)\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

To obtain the joint probability we can use

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

This generalises to more random variables

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(X,Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y,Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z)$$

• We can do this in a number of different ways

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(Y,Z|X)\mathbb{P}(X) = \mathbb{P}(Z|Y,X)\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

To obtain the joint probability we can use

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

This generalises to more random variables

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(X,Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y,Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z)$$

We can do this in a number of different ways

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(Y,Z|X)\mathbb{P}(X) = \mathbb{P}(Z|Y,X)\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

To obtain the joint probability we can use

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

This generalises to more random variables

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(X,Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y,Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Y|Z)\,\mathbb{P}(Z)$$

We can do this in a number of different ways

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y,Z) = \mathbb{P}(Y,Z|X)\mathbb{P}(X) = \mathbb{P}(Z|Y,X)\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$$

ullet Conditional probabilities, $\mathbb{P}(X\mid Y)$ are probabilities for X, but not Y

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(X = x \mid Y) = 1$$
$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) \neq 1$$

(in general)

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y}[\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y)] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \mathbb{P}(X | Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X)$$

ullet Conditional probabilities, $\mathbb{P}(X\mid Y)$ are probabilities for X, but not Y

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(X = x \mid Y) = 1$$
$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) \neq 1$$

(in general)

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y}[\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y)] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \mathbb{P}(X | Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X)$$

ullet Conditional probabilities, $\mathbb{P}(X\mid Y)$ are probabilities for X, but not Y

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(X = x \mid Y) = 1$$
$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) \neq 1$$

(in general)

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y}[\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y)] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \mathbb{P}(X | Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X)$$

ullet Conditional probabilities, $\mathbb{P}(X\mid Y)$ are probabilities for X, but not Y

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(X = x \mid Y) = 1$$
$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) \neq 1$$

(in general)

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y}[\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y)] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \mathbb{P}(X | Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X)$$

ullet Conditional probabilities, $\mathbb{P}(X\mid Y)$ are probabilities for X, but not Y

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}(X = x \mid Y) = 1$$
$$\sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X \mid Y = y) \neq 1$$

(in general)

$$\mathbb{E}_{Y}[\mathbb{P}(X \mid Y)] = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(Y = y) \mathbb{P}(X | Y = y)$$
$$= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathbb{P}(X, Y = y) = \mathbb{P}(X)$$

- Conditional probabilities does not imply causality
- We might have causal relationships

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) = 0.9$$
 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2$

• But if we know $\mathbb{P}(\text{study}) = 0.8$ then we can compute

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass},\mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study}) = 0.9 \times 0.8 = 0.72$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$
 and

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study} \mid \mathsf{pass}) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass})} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study})} = \frac{0.72}{0.72 + 0.04} \approx 0.947 \end{split}$$

- Conditional probabilities does not imply causality
- We might have causal relationships

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) = 0.9$$
 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2$

• But if we know $\mathbb{P}(\text{study}) = 0.8$ then we can compute

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass},\mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study}) = 0.9 \times 0.8 = 0.72$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$
 and

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study} \mid \mathsf{pass}) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass})} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study})} = \frac{0.72}{0.72 + 0.04} \approx 0.947 \end{split}$$

- Conditional probabilities does not imply causality
- We might have causal relationships

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) = 0.9$$
 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2$

• But if we know $\mathbb{P}(\text{study}) = 0.8$ then we can compute

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass},\mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study}) = 0.9 \times 0.8 = 0.72$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$
 and

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study} \mid \mathsf{pass}) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass})} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study})} = \frac{0.72}{0.72 + 0.04} \approx 0.947 \end{split}$$

- Conditional probabilities does not imply causality
- We might have causal relationships

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) = 0.9$$
 $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2$

• But if we know $\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study}) = 0.8$ then we can compute

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass},\mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study}) = 0.9 \times 0.8 = 0.72$$

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study}) = \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass} \mid \neg \mathsf{study}) \mathbb{P}(\neg \mathsf{study}) = 0.2 \times 0.2 = 0.04$$
 and

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{study} \mid \mathsf{pass}) &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass})} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study})}{\mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \mathsf{study}) + \mathbb{P}(\mathsf{pass}, \neg \mathsf{study})} = \frac{0.72}{0.72 + 0.04} \approx 0.947 \end{split}$$

Random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X)\,\mathbb{P}(Y)$$

• Because $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y)$ and $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$ independence implies

$$\mathbb{P}(X|Y) = \mathbb{P}(X) \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \mathbb{P}(Y)$$

- Probabilistic independence implies a mathematical co-incident not necessarily causal independence
- However causal independence implies probabilistic independence
- If $X \in \{0,1\}$ represents the outcome of tossing a coin and $Y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ the outcome of rolling a dice then X and Y are independent

Random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X)\,\mathbb{P}(Y)$$

• Because $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y)$ and $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$ independence implies

$$\mathbb{P}(X|Y) = \mathbb{P}(X) \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \mathbb{P}(Y)$$

- Probabilistic independence implies a mathematical co-incident not necessarily causal independence
- However causal independence implies probabilistic independence
- If $X \in \{0,1\}$ represents the outcome of tossing a coin and $Y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ the outcome of rolling a dice then X and Y are independent

Random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X)\,\mathbb{P}(Y)$$

• Because $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y)$ and $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$ independence implies

$$\mathbb{P}(X|Y) = \mathbb{P}(X) \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \mathbb{P}(Y)$$

- Probabilistic independence implies a mathematical co-incident not necessarily causal independence
- However causal independence implies probabilistic independence
- If $X \in \{0,1\}$ represents the outcome of tossing a coin and $Y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ the outcome of rolling a dice then X and Y are independent

Random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X)\,\mathbb{P}(Y)$$

• Because $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y)$ and $\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$ independence implies

$$\mathbb{P}(X|Y) = \mathbb{P}(X) \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \mathbb{P}(Y)$$

- Probabilistic independence implies a mathematical co-incident not necessarily causal independence
- However causal independence implies probabilistic independence
- If $X \in \{0,1\}$ represents the outcome of tossing a coin and $Y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ the outcome of rolling a dice then X and Y are independent

Random variables X and Y are said to be independent if

$$\mathbb{P}(X,Y) = \mathbb{P}(X)\,\mathbb{P}(Y)$$

• Because $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(X|Y)\mathbb{P}(Y)$ and $\mathbb{P}(X,Y)=\mathbb{P}(Y|X)\mathbb{P}(X)$ independence implies

$$\mathbb{P}(X|Y) = \mathbb{P}(X) \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(Y|X) = \mathbb{P}(Y)$$

- Probabilistic independence implies a mathematical co-incident not necessarily causal independence
- However causal independence implies probabilistic independence
- If $X \in \{0,1\}$ represents the outcome of tossing a coin and $Y \in \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ the outcome of rolling a dice then X and Y are independent

- In well conducted experiments we expect the results we obtain are independent
- Let $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ represents possible outcomes from a set of m well conducted experiments then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(X_i)$$

• Denoting a possible sentence I might tell you is $S = (W_1, W_2, ..., W_m)$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) \neq \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(W_i)$$

- In well conducted experiments we expect the results we obtain are independent
- Let $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ represents possible outcomes from a set of m well conducted experiments then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(X_i)$$

• Denoting a possible sentence I might tell you is $\mathcal{S} = (W_1, W_2, ..., W_m)$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) \neq \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(W_i)$$

- In well conducted experiments we expect the results we obtain are independent
- Let $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ represents possible outcomes from a set of m well conducted experiments then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(X_i)$$

• Denoting a possible sentence I might tell you is $S = (W_1, W_2, ..., W_m)$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) \neq \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(W_i)$$

- In well conducted experiments we expect the results we obtain are independent
- Let $\mathcal{D} = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ represents possible outcomes from a set of m well conducted experiments then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(X_i)$$

• Denoting a possible sentence I might tell you is $S = (W_1, W_2, ..., W_m)$ then

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{S}) \neq \prod_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{P}(W_i)$$

otherwise it time I retired

- Let K(d) be a random variable measuring the amount you know about ML on day d of your revision
- From you revision schedule you can write down your belief

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), ...K(1))$$

But a very reasonable model is

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), \dots K(1)) = \mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1))$$

what you are going to know today will just depend on what you knew yesterday

- Let K(d) be a random variable measuring the amount you know about ML on day d of your revision
- From you revision schedule you can write down your belief

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), ... K(1))$$

But a very reasonable model is

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), \dots K(1)) = \mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1))$$

what you are going to know today will just depend on what you knew yesterday

- Let K(d) be a random variable measuring the amount you know about ML on day d of your revision
- From you revision schedule you can write down your belief

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), ...K(1))$$

But a very reasonable model is

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), \dots K(1)) = \mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1))$$

what you are going to know today will just depend on what you knew yesterday

- Let K(d) be a random variable measuring the amount you know about ML on day d of your revision
- From you revision schedule you can write down your belief

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), ...K(1))$$

But a very reasonable model is

$$\mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1), K(d-2), \dots K(1)) = \mathbb{P}(K(d) \mid K(d-1))$$

what you are going to know today will just depend on what you knew yesterday

- To work with probabilities you need to know
 - How to go back and forward between joint probabilities and conditional probabilities
 - * How to marginalise out variables
- You need to understand that for continuous outcomes that it makes sense to talk about the probability density
- You need to know that expectations are linear operators and the expectation of a constant is the constant
- You need to understand independence

- To work with probabilities you need to know
 - How to go back and forward between joint probabilities and conditional probabilities
 - ★ How to marginalise out variables
- You need to understand that for continuous outcomes that it makes sense to talk about the probability density
- You need to know that expectations are linear operators and the expectation of a constant is the constant
- You need to understand independence

- To work with probabilities you need to know
 - How to go back and forward between joint probabilities and conditional probabilities
 - ★ How to marginalise out variables
- You need to understand that for continuous outcomes that it makes sense to talk about the probability density
- You need to know that expectations are linear operators and the expectation of a constant is the constant
- You need to understand independence

- To work with probabilities you need to know
 - How to go back and forward between joint probabilities and conditional probabilities
 - ★ How to marginalise out variables
- You need to understand that for continuous outcomes that it makes sense to talk about the probability density
- You need to know that expectations are linear operators and the expectation of a constant is the constant
- You need to understand independence