

# UVA CS 4501 - 001 / 6501 – 007 Introduction to Machine Learning and Data Mining

## Lecture 12: Probability and Statistics Review

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10/02/14

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## Where are we ? →

### Five major sections of this course

- Regression (supervised)
- Classification (supervised)
- Unsupervised models
- Learning theory
- Graphical models

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## Where are we ? →

### Three major sections for classification

- We can divide the large variety of classification approaches into roughly three major types

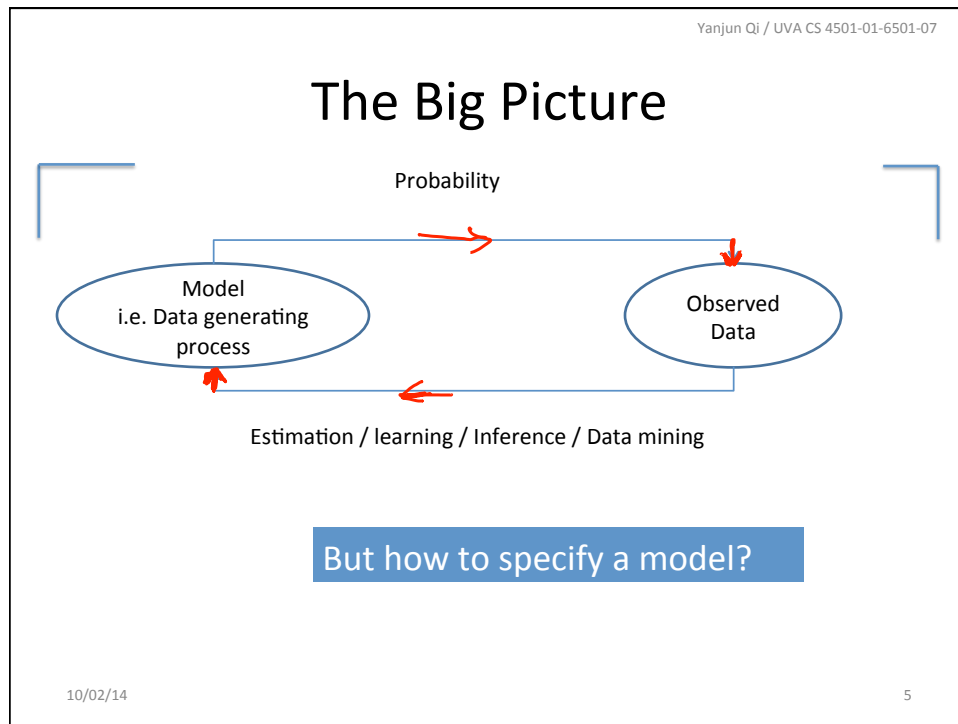
1. Discriminative
  - directly estimate a decision rule/boundary
  - e.g., support vector machine, decision tree

2. Generative:
  - build a generative statistical model
  - e.g., naïve bayes classifier, Bayesian networks

3. Instance based classifiers
  - Use observation directly (no models)
  - e.g. K nearest neighbors

## 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.



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## Probability as frequency

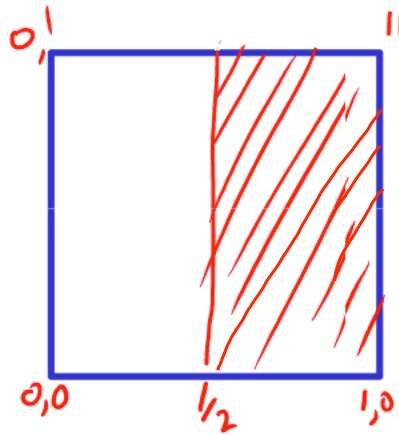
- Consider the following questions:
  - 1. What is the probability that when I flip a coin it is “heads”? **We can count →  $\sim 1/2$**
  - 2. why ?
  - 3. What is the probability of Blue Ridge Mountains to have an erupting volcano in the near future ? **→ could not count**

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

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Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides

## Probability as a measure of uncertainty

- Imagine we are throwing darts at a wall of size 1x1 and that all darts are guaranteed to fall within this 1x1 wall.
- What is the probability that a dart will hit the shaded area?

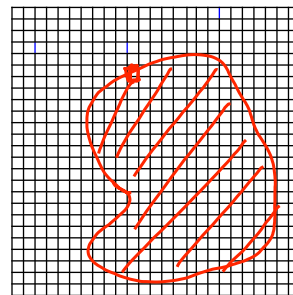


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Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides 7

## 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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Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides 8

## Today : Probability Review

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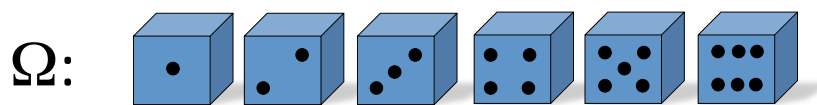
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## Probability

**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:

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



Elementary Event "Throw a 2"

The elements of  $\Omega$  are called **elementary events**.

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$$\Omega_{\text{coin}} = \{H, T\}$$

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## Probability

- *Probability allows us to measure many **events**.*
- *The **events are subsets of the sample space**  $\Omega$ . 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

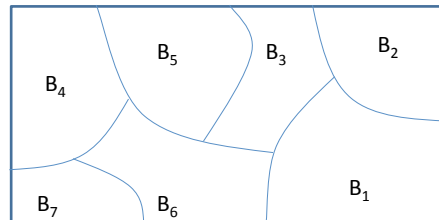
- $\Omega$  : **Sample Space**, result of an experiment
  - If you toss a coin twice  $\Omega = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$
- **Event**: a subset of  $\Omega$ 
  - First toss is head =  $\{HH, HT\}$
- **S**: **event space, a set of events**:
  - Contains the empty event and  $\Omega$

$$\Omega_{\text{toss. once}} = \{H, T\}$$

## Axioms for Probability

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

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

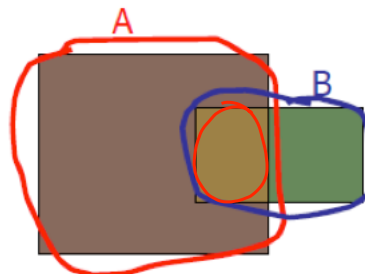


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## OR operation for Probability

- We can deduce other axioms from the above ones
    - Ex:  $P(A \cup B)$  for **non-disjoint** events
- $$P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \text{ and } B)$$



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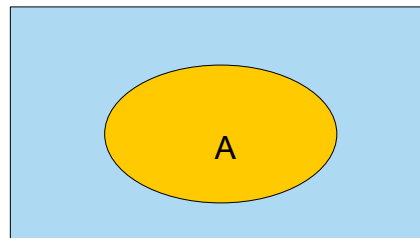
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## Theorems from the Axioms

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

From these we can prove:

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



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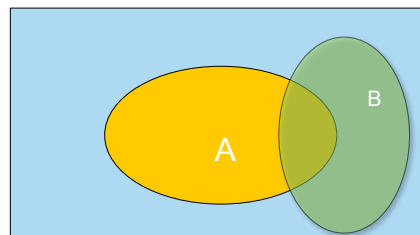
## Another important theorem

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

From these we can prove:

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

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

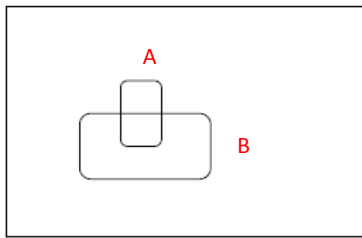


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## Conditional Probability

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

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.

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:

from Prof. Nando de  
Freitas's review

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

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## Conditional Probability / Chain Rule

- More ways to write out chain rule ...

$$P(A,B) = p(\underline{B|A})p(A)$$

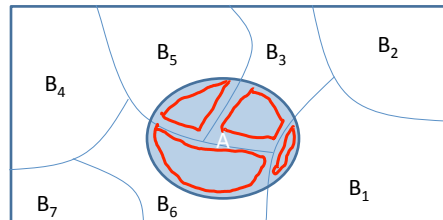
$$P(A,B) = p(\underline{A|B})p(B)$$

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## Rule of total probability => Marginalization

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

WHY ???

$$\begin{aligned} p(A) &= P(A \cap \mathcal{U}) = P(A \cap (B_1 \cup B_2 \dots \cup B_k)) \\ &= P((A \cap B_1) \cup (A \cap B_2) \cup (A \cap B_3) \dots \cup (A \cap B_k)) \\ &= P(A \cap B_1) + P(A \cap B_2) + \dots + P(A \cap B_k) \\ &= P(B_1)P(A|B_1) + P(B_2)P(A|B_2) + \dots + P(B_k)P(A|B_k) \end{aligned}$$

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## Today : Probability Review

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## From Events to Random Variable

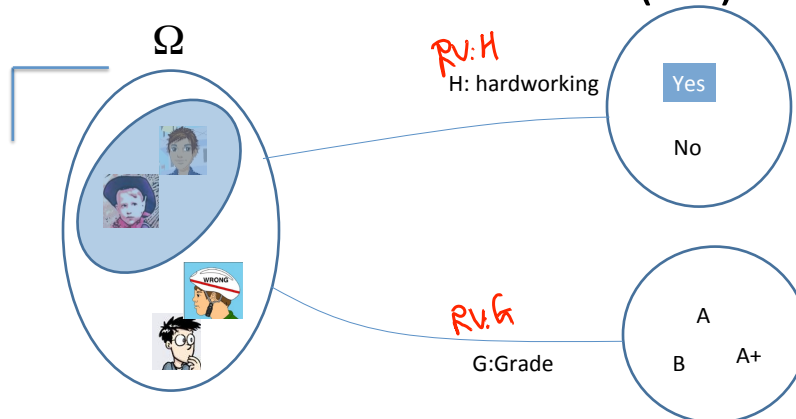
- Concise way of specifying attributes of outcomes
- Modeling students (Grade and Intelligence):
  - $\Omega$  = all possible students (sample space)
  - What are events (subset of sample space)
    - Grade\_A = all students with grade A
    - Grade\_B = all students with grade B
    - HardWorking\_Yes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

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RV

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## Random Variables (RV)



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

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## Notation Digression

- $P(A)$  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  $i \neq j$
  - $P(X = x_1 \cup X = x_2 \cup \dots \cup X = x_k) = 1$



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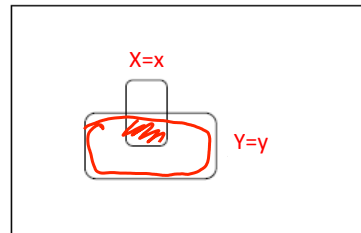
## Conditional Probability

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

events

But we will always write it this way:

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



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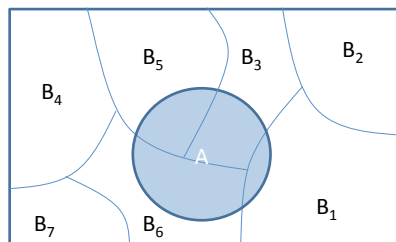
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## [ Marginalization ]

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

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{p(x)} &= \sum_y P(x, y) \\ &= \sum_y P(y)P(x|y) \end{aligned}$$

*total prob. law*  
*margin prob.*  
*chain rule*



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## Marginalization Cont.

- Another example

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(x) &= \sum_{y,z} P(x, y, z) \\
 &= \sum_{z,y} P(y, z) P(x | y, z)
 \end{aligned}$$

*chain Rule*

## Bayes Rule

- 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?

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

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

## 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



## More General Forms of Bayes Rule

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

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

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



## Bayes Rule cont.

- You can condition on more variables

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

## Conditional Probability Example

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?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \overset{\text{Joint}}{P(B_1=r, B_2=r)} &= \overset{\text{chain Rule}}{P(B_1=r) P(B_2=r | B_1=r)} \\
 &= \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Conditional Probability Example

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

Using marginalization,  $P(B_2 = r) = P(B_2 = r, B_1 = r) + P(B_2 = r, B_1 = b)$  *total prob. law*

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

*chain rule*

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

$$= \frac{3}{4}$$

## Conditional Probability Example

### → Matrix Notation

- $X_1$ : random variable representing first draw
- $X_2$ : random variable representing second draw
- $X = 1$  means “red ball”, 0 mean “blue ball”

use the math notation:  $X \in \{0,1\}$

drawn from the set  $\{r,r,r,b\}$

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## Conditional Probability Example

### → Matrix Notation

- $P(X_1=0) =$
- $P(X_1=1) =$
- $P(X_2=0 | X_1=0) =$
- $P(X_2=1 | X_1=0) =$
- $P(X_2=0 | X_1=1) =$
- $P(X_2=1 | X_1=1) =$
  
- →  $P(X_2=0)$
- →  $P(X_2=1)$

$\pi_2^T$

2x1 vector

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} P(X_2=1) \\ P(X_2=0) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} P(X_2=1, X_1=0) + P(X_2=1, X_1=1) \\ P(X_2=0, X_1=0) + P(X_2=0, X_1=1) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} P(X_2=1 | X_1=0) P(X_1=0) + P(X_2=1 | X_1=1) P(X_1=1) \\ P(X_2=0 | X_1=0) P(X_1=0) + P(X_2=0 | X_1=1) P(X_1=1) \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} P(X_2=1 | X_1=1) & P(X_2=1 | X_1=0) \\ P(X_2=0 | X_1=1) & P(X_2=0 | X_1=0) \end{bmatrix}}_{G^T} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} P(X_1=1) \\ P(X_1=0) \end{bmatrix}}_{\pi_1^T} \end{aligned}$$

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## Conditional Probability Example

### → Matrix Notation

Blue → {0,1}

Red → {0,1}

*We can obtain an expression for  $P(X_2)$  easily using matrix notation:*

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \overset{x_2}{1} \\ \overset{0}{3/4} & \overset{0}{1/4} \end{bmatrix}}_{\pi_2^T} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \overset{x_1}{1} \\ \overset{0}{3/4} & \overset{0}{1/4} \end{bmatrix}}_{\pi_1^T} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \overset{x_2|x_1}{1} & \overset{0}{2/3} \\ \overset{0}{1} & \overset{0}{1/3} \end{bmatrix}}_{G}$$

$$\pi_2^T = G^T \pi_1^T \iff \pi_2^T = \pi_1^T G$$

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## Conditional Probability Example

### → Matrix Notation

We can obtain an expression for  $P(X_2)$  easily using matrix notation:

$$P(X_2) = \sum_{X_1 \in \{0,1\}} P(X_1) P(X_2|X_1)$$

For short, we write this using vectors and a **stochastic matrix**:

$$\overset{1 \times 2}{\pi_1^T} \overset{2 \times 2}{G} = \overset{1 \times 2}{\pi_2^T} \quad \equiv \quad \pi_2(j) = \sum_{i=0}^1 \pi_1(i) G(i,j)$$

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Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides<sup>39</sup>

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## References

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