UVA CS 6316/4501 – Fall 2016 Machine Learning

Lecture 11: Probability Review

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10/17/16

Announcements: Schedule

- Midterm Nov. 26 Wed / 3:30pm 4:45pm / open notes
- HW4 includes sample midterm questions
- Grading of HW1 is available on Collab
- Solution of HW1 is available on Collab
- Grading of HW2 will be available next week
- Solution of HW2 will be available next week

Where are we ? Five major sections of this course

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

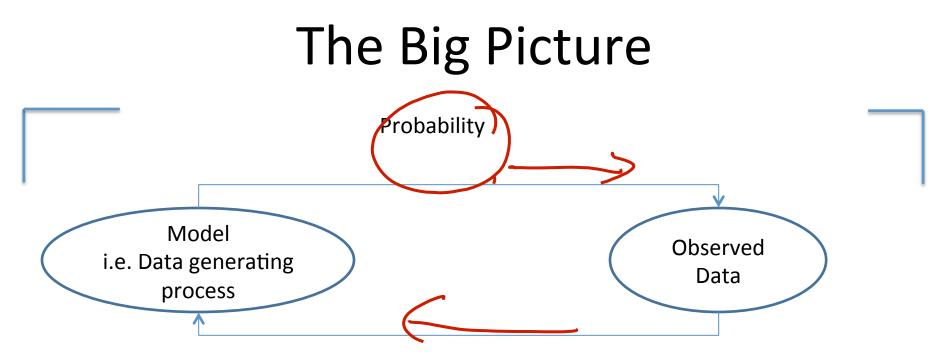
Where are we ? \rightarrow

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.
- Structural properties
 - Independence, conditional independence



Estimation / learning / Inference / Data mining

But how to specify a model?

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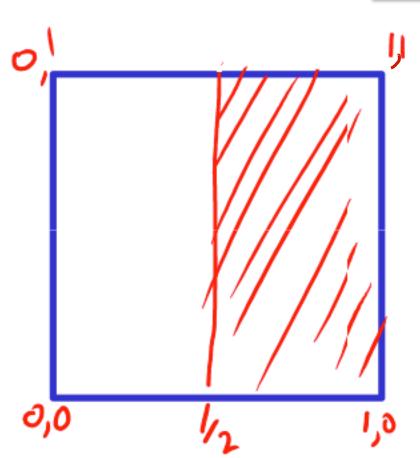
Probability as frequency

- Consider the following questions:
 - 1. What is the probability that when I flip a coin it is "heads"? We can count ~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.

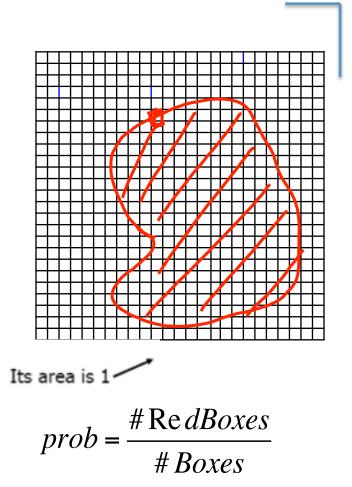
Probability as a measure of uncertainty

- 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?



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.



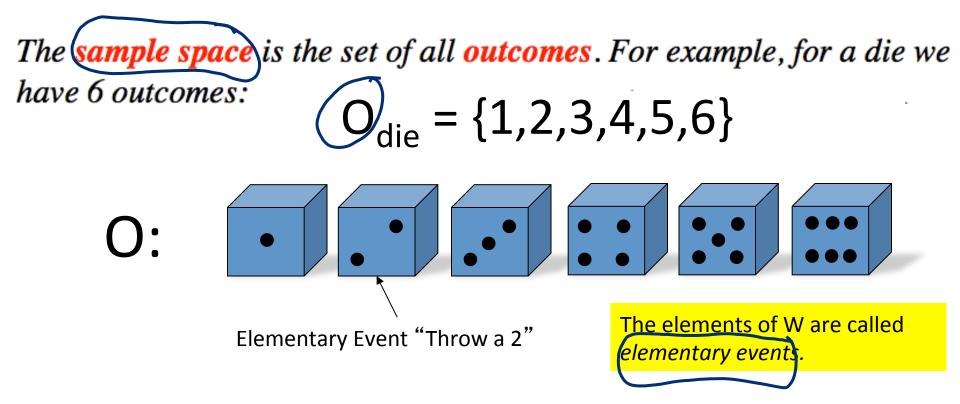
Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides

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Probability

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



Probability

- Probability allows us to measure many events.
- The events are subsets of the sample space O. For example, for a die we may consider the following events: e.g., GREATER = {5, 6}

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

• Assign probabilities to these events: e.g.,

Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides

P(EVEN) = 1/2

Sample space and Events

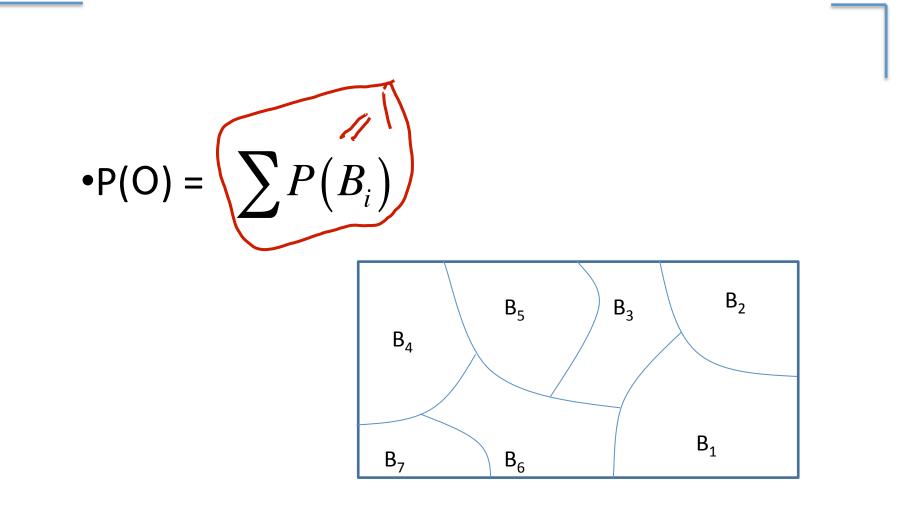
- O: Sample Space,
 - result of an experiment / set of all outcomes
 - If you toss a coin twice O = {HH,HT,TH,TT}
- Event: a subset of O
 - First toss is head = {HH,HT}
- S: event space, a set of events:
- ^{10/17/16} Contains the empty event and O

 $\int P(\vec{Q}) = 0$ $P(\vec{D}) = 1$

Axioms for Probability Sample Space event space

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

Axioms for Probability

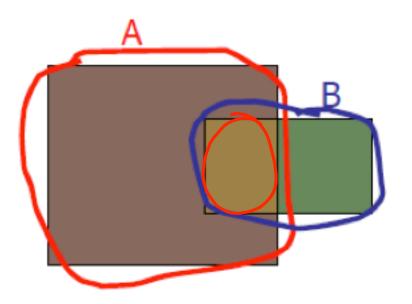


OR operation for Probability

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

P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A and B)

P(Union of A and B)

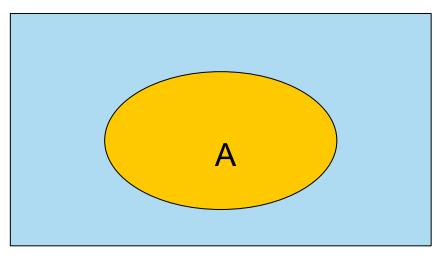


Theorems from the Axioms

- 0 <= P(A) <= 1,
- P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A and B)

From these we can prove:

$$P(not A) = P(\sim A) = 1 - P(A)$$



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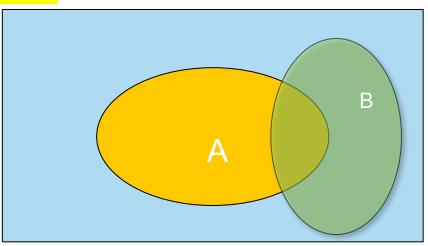
Another important theorem

- 0 <= P(A) <= 1,
- P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A and B)

From these we can prove:

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

P(Intersection of A and B)



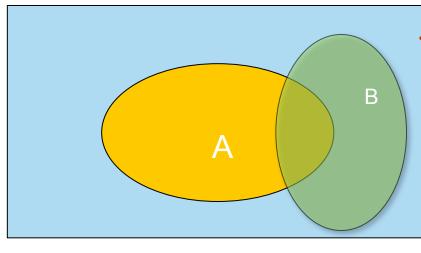
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 $= p(A \Lambda)$

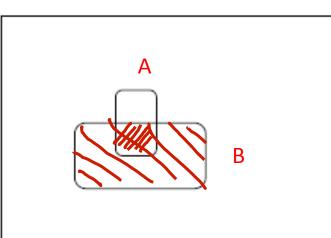
Another important theorem

- 0 <= P(A) <= 1,
- P(A or B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A and B)
 From these we can prove:

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



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



Dr. Yanjun Qi / UVA CS 6316 / f16 Conditional Probability P(A given B) = P(A 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 tule

For short we write: P(A|B) = P(AB)/P(B); of 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.

P(ABC) = P(A|BC) P(R|C) P(C) = P(A|BC)(B|C)If we have more events, we use the chain rule:

from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review

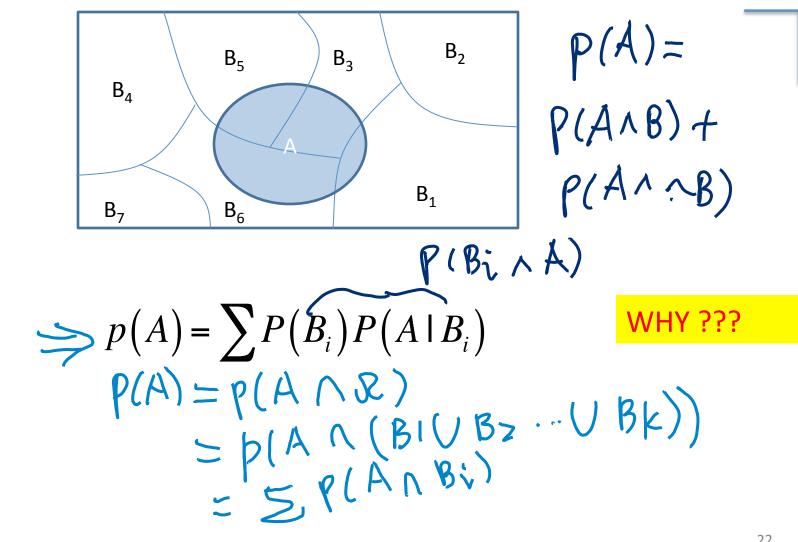
Conditional Probability / Chain Rule

• More ways to write out chain rule

$$P(A,B) = p(B|A)p(A) \longrightarrow morgina$$

$$P(A,B) = p(A|B)p(B)$$

Rule of total probability => Marginalization



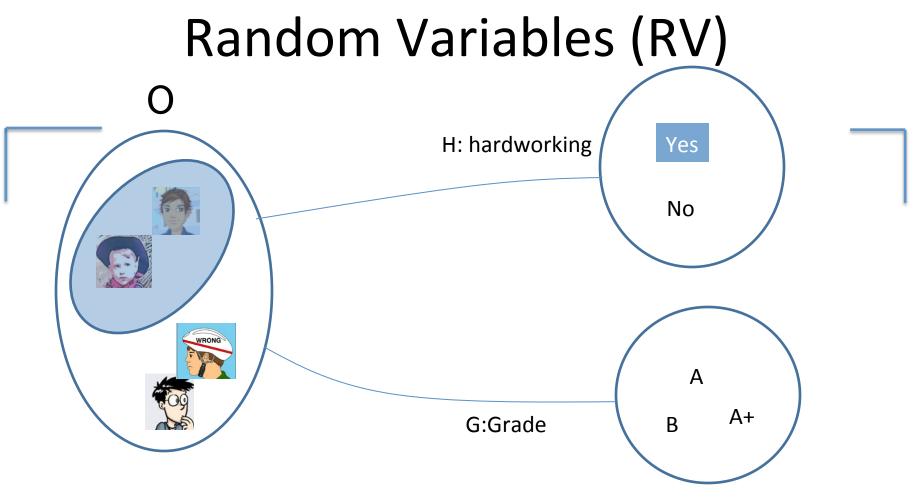
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From Events to Random Variable

- 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 = YES) = P({student ∈ O : H(student) = YES})

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

• "functions" that maps from O to an attribute space T.

Notation Digression

- P(A) is shorthand for P(A=true)
- P(~A) is shorthand for P(A=false)
- Same notation applies to other binary RVs: P(Gender=M), P(Gender=F)
- Same notation applies to *multivalued* RVs: P(Major=history), P(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 {x₁, ..., x_k}

Probability of Discrete RV

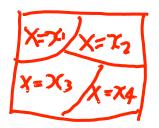
- Probability mass function (pmf): $P(X = x_i)$
- Easy facts about pmf

•
$$\Sigma_i P(X = x_i) = 1$$

•
$$P(X = x_i \cap X = x_j) = 0$$
 if $i \neq j$

•
$$P(X = x_i \cup X = x_j) = P(X = x_i) + P(X = x_j)$$
 if $i \neq j$

• $P(X = x_1 \cup X = x_2 \cup ... \cup X = x_k) = 1$



e.g. Coin Flips

• You flip a coin

– Head with probability 0.5

• You flip 100 coins

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 *k* coins
 - How many heads would you expect
 - Number of heads X: discrete random variable
 - Binomial distribution with parameters k and p

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 $\{x_1, ..., x_k\}$
 - E.g. the possible values that X can take on are 0, 1, 2,..., 100

e.g., two Common Distributions

- Uniform $X \sim U[1,...,N]$
 - X takes values 1, 2, ..., N

$$- P(X=i) = 1/N$$

– E.g. picking balls of different colors from a box

• Binomial $X \sim Bin(k, p)$ - X takes values 0, 1, ..., k - $P(X = i) = {k \choose i} p^i (1-p)^{k-i}$ - E.g. coin flips k times

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e.g., Coin Flips by Two Persons

- Your friend and you both flip coins
 - Head with probability 0.5
 - You flip 50 times; your friend flip 100 times
 - How many heads will both of you get

Joint Distribution

- Given two discrete RVs X and Y, their **joint distribution** is the distribution of X and Y together $P((\chi=21) \land (\Im=70))$
 - E.g. P(You get 21 heads AND you friend get 70 heads)

Joint Distribution

- Given two discrete RVs X and Y, their **joint distribution** is the distribution of X and Y together $P((\chi=21) \land (\Im=70))$
 - E.g. P(You get 21 heads AND you friend get 70 heads)

-E.g. sum
$$\sum_{x} \sum_{y} P(X = x \cap Y = y) = 1$$

 $\sum_{i=0}^{50} \sum_{j=0}^{100} P(\text{You get } i \text{ heads AND your friend get } j \text{ heads}) = 1$

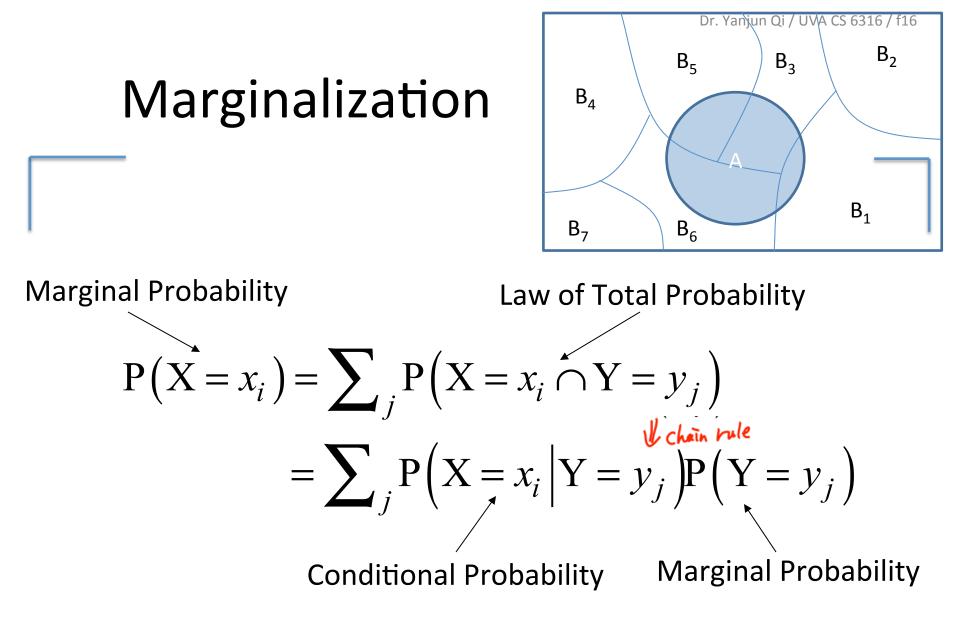
Conditional Probability

- P(X = x | Y = y) is the probability of X = x, given the occurrence of Y = y
 - E.g. you get 0 heads, given that your friend gets 61 heads

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

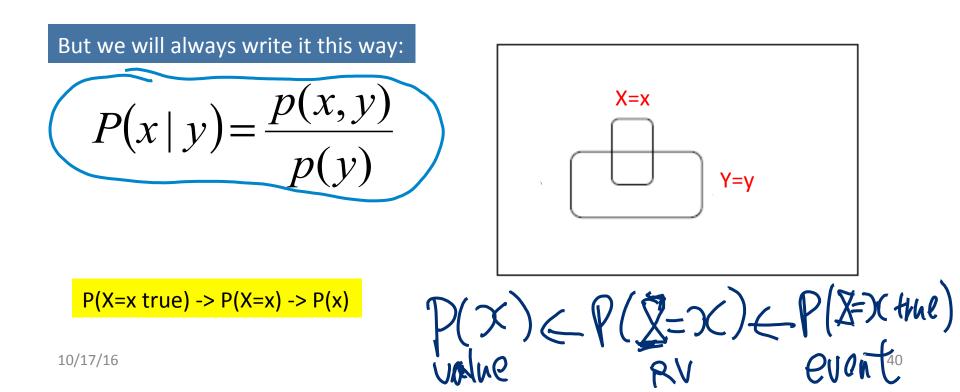
Law of Total Probability

Given two discrete RVs X and Y, which take values in $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ and $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$, We have $= P(X = X i \land \Omega)$ $P(X = x_i) = \sum_{j} P(X = x_i \cap Y = y_j)$ $= \sum_{i} P(\mathbf{X} = x_i | \mathbf{Y} = y_j) P(\mathbf{Y} = y_j)$



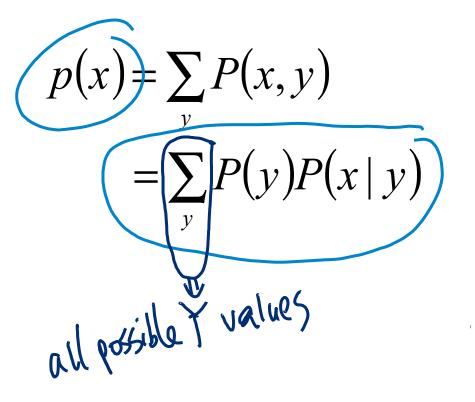
Simplify Notation: Dr. Yanjun Qi / UVA CS 6316 / f16
Conditional Probability

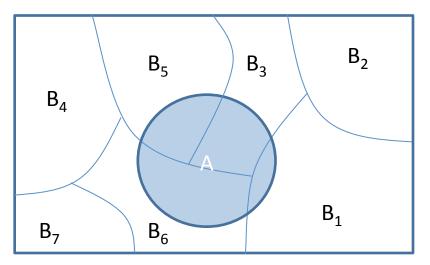
$$P(X = x | Y = y) = \frac{P(X = x \cap Y = y)}{P(Y = y)}$$



Simplify Notation: Dr. Yanjun Qi / UVA CS 6316 / f16 Marginalization

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





Marginalization Cont.

• Another example $p(x) = \sum_{y,z} P(x, y, z) \not \models y \not z$ $= \sum_{z,y} P(y,z) P(x \mid y, z)$

Bayes Rule

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

Bayes Rule

• We know that P(rain) = 0.5

P(W=S) wet)

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

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

Bayes Rule

• X and Y are discrete RVs...

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

$$P(X = x_i | Y = y_j) = \frac{P(Y = y_j | X = x_i)P(X = x_i)}{\sum_{k \in I} P(Y = y_j | X = x_k)P(X = x_k)}$$

What we just did... P(A ^ B) P(A|B) P(B) P(B|A) = ---- = ----- P(A) 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

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

1

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?

$$P(B_{1}=r,B_{2}=r) = P(B_{1}=r) P(B_{2}=r | B_{1}=r)$$

$$P(B_{1}=r) = \frac{3}{4}$$

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

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

Adapt from Prof. Nando de Freitas's review slides

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?

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

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

Conditional Probability Example

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

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

Toint

Conditional Probability Example

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

Using marginalization, $P(B_2 = r) = P(B_2 = r \land B_1 = r)$ + $P(B_2 = r \land B_1 = b)$ = $P(B_1 = r) P(B_2 = r \mid B_1 = r) + P(B_1 = b) P(B_2 = r \mid B_1 = b)$ martined Conditioned

$$\begin{bmatrix} P(B_{2}-F) \\ P(B_{2}-F) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P(B_{1}=F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{1}-F) + P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{1}-F) + P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{1}-F) + P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-B)P(B_{1}-B) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F) \\ P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{1}-F)P(B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{2}-F|B_{$$

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

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- Random variables
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- Structural properties
 - Independence, conditional independence

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

•
$$P(X | Y=y) = P(X)$$

- The above should hold for all x_i, y_i
- 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

Conditionally Independent RVs

(High vs. Low) ice-cream Y = rate of Dnawning (High vs. Low) Z: wartner is Hot (or not)



More on Conditional Independence

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

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

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

Today Recap : Probability Review

- The big picture : data <-> probabilistic model
- Sample space, Events and Event spaces
- Random variables
- Joint probability, Marginal probability, conditional probability,
- Chain rule, Bayes Rule, Law of total probability, etc.
- Independence, conditional independence

References

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