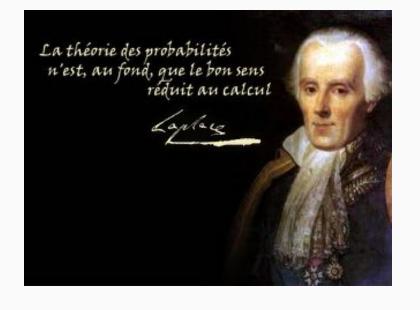
# ORIE 4742 - Info Theory and Bayesian ML

Lecture 1: Probability Review

January 23, 2020

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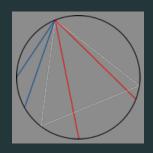
"probability theory is common sense reduced to calculation"

### Bertrand's problem



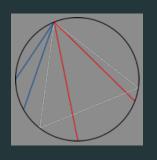
### Bertrand's problem

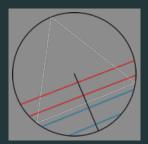
paradox





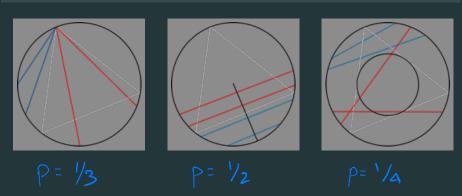
#### Bertrand's problem





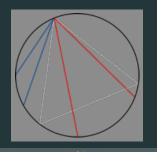


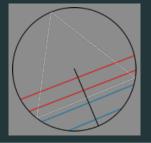
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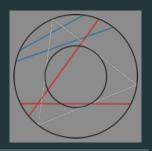


#### Bertrand's problem

given an equilateral triangle inscribed in a circle, and a random chord, what is the probability the chord is longer than the side of the triangle?







the moral (for this course... and for life)

be very precise about defining experiments/random variables/distributions

also see Wikipedia article on Bertrand's paradox

### the essentials

### reading assignment

Bishop: chapter 1, sections 1.2 - 1.2.4

Mackay: chapter 2 (less formal, but much more fun!)

### things you must know and understand

- random variables (rv) and cumulative distribution functions (cdf)
- conditional probabilities and Bayes rule
- expectation and variance of random variables
- independent and mutually exclusive events
- basic inequalities: union bound, Jensen, Markov/Chebyshev
- common rvs (Bernoulli, Binomial, Geometric, Gaussian (Normal))

\_\_\_\_

## sample space, random variable

random experiment: outcome cannot be predicted in advance.

sample space  $\Omega$ : the set of all possible outcomes of the experiment

random variable: any function from  $\Omega o \mathbb{R}$  (random vector: $\Omega o \mathbb{R}^d$ )

example: flip two coins, and let 
$$X = \#$$
 of heads (P[hous] = h)

$$\Omega = \begin{cases}
HH', HT', TH', TT \\
h^2 & h(1-h) & (1-h)h & (1-h)^2 \\
X & \vdots & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{cases}$$

### cumulative distribution function

#### **ALERT!!**

always try to think of probability and rvs through the cdf

for any rv X (discrete or continuous), its probability distribution is defined by its cumulative distribution function (cdf)

$$F(x) = \bigcap X \leq x$$

using the cdf we can compute probabilities

$$\mathbb{P}[a < X \le b] = - \left\lceil \left( b \right) - \left\lceil \left( a \right) \right\rceil \right\rceil$$

# visualizing a cdf

The plot of a cdf obeys 3 essential rules + one convention

Example: consider an  $rv \in [-2, 5]$  with a **jumps** at 1 and 2

1) 
$$F(x) \in [0,1]$$
,  $2 = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$   
3)  $F(x)$  is non-decreasing  
4)  $(x \in x)$   
1 vight continuous, left limits

#### discrete random variables

for a discrete random variable taking values in  $\mathbb{N}$ , another characterization is its probability mass function (pmf)  $p(\cdot)$ 

$$p(x) = \mathbb{P}[X = x]$$

• any pmf p(x) has the following properties:

$$p(x) \in [0,1] \, \forall \, x \in \mathbb{N}$$
 ,  $\sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} p(x) = 1$ 

ullet the pmf  $p(\cdot)$  is related to the cdf  $F(\cdot)$  as

$$F(x) = \sum_{y \le x} P(y)$$

$$p(x) = \left[ (x) - \left[ (x-1) \right] \right]$$

### continuous random variables

for a continuous random variable taking values in  $\mathbb{R}$ , another characterization is its probability density function (pdf)  $f(\cdot)$ 

$$\mathbb{P}[a < X \leq b] = \int_{0}^{b} \int_{0}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

• any pdf f(x) has the following properties:

$$f(x) \ge 0 \, \forall \, x \in \mathbb{R}$$
 ,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ 

• ALERT!! It is not true that  $f(x) = \mathbb{P}[X = x]$ . In fact, for any x,

$$\mathbb{P}[X=x] = \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$

### continuous random variables

thus, for continuous rv X with pdf  $f(\cdot)$  and cdf  $F(\cdot)$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P}[a < X \leq b] = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

now we can go from one function to the other as

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x)$$
 (assuming differentiable...)

# expected value (mean, average)

let X be a random variable, and  $g(\cdot)$  be any real-valued function

• If X is a discrete rv with  $\Omega = \mathbb{Z}$  and pmf  $p(\cdot)$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x} x p(x)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \sum_{x} g(x) p(x) \qquad \left( \text{Eg - } g(x) = (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^{2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \text{Van}(X)$$

• If X is a continuous  $\operatorname{rv}$  with  $\Omega=\mathbb{R}$  and  $\operatorname{pdf} f(\cdot)$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx$$

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_{j}(x) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx$$

### variance and standard deviation

• Definition: 
$$Var(X) = \left[ \begin{array}{c} & & \\ & \\ & \end{array} \right]^2$$

$$\sigma(X) = \int_{Van}(x) dx$$

• (More useful formula for computing variance)

Var(X) = 
$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(X - \mathbb{E}[X]\right)^{2}\right]$$
= 
$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(X^{2} - 2 \times \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[X]^{2}\right]\right]$$
= 
$$\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] - 2\mathbb{E}[X]^{2} + \mathbb{E}[X]^{2}$$
= 
$$\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] - \mathbb{E}[X]^{2} + \mathbb{E}[X]^{2}$$
= 
$$\mathbb{E}\left[X^{2}\right] - \mathbb{E}[X]^{2} + \mathbb{E}[X]^{2}$$
Why? because  $g(x) \ge 0$ 

Universal property!

### independence

what do we mean by "random variables X and Y are independent"? (denoted as  $X \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$ ; similarly,  $X \not \!\! \perp \!\!\! \perp Y$  for 'not independent')

intuitive definition: knowing X gives no information about Y

formal definition: 
$$P[X \in Z, Y \in y] = F(x) F(y) + xy \in \mathbb{R}$$

One measure of independence between rv is their covariance

$$Cov(X,Y) = \mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}[X]] (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])$$
 (for computing)
$$= \mathbb{E}[X - \mathbb{E}[X]] (Y - \mathbb{E}[Y])$$
 (for computing)

### independence and covariance

how are independence and covariance related?

- X and Y are independent, then they are uncorrelated in notation: X ⊥ Y ⇒ Cov(X, Y) = 0
- however, uncorrelated rvs can be dependent
   in notation: Cov(X, Y) = 0 ⇒ X ⊥⊥ Y
- Cov(X, Y) = 0 ⇒ X ⊥⊥ Y only for multivariate Gaussian rv (this though is confusing; see this Wikipedia article)

# linearity of expectation

for any rvs X and Y, and any constants  $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ 

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

note 1: no assumptions! (in particular, does not need independence)

# linearity of expectation

for any rvs X and Y, and any constants  $a,b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

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

note 1: no assumptions! (in particular, does not need independence) note 2: does not hold for variance in general

for general X, Y

$$Var(aX + bY) =$$

when X and Y are independent

$$Var(aX + bY) =$$

### using linearity of expectation

the TAs get lazy and distribute graded assignments among n students uniformly at random. On average, how many students get their own hw?

# using linearity of expectation

the TAs get lazy and distribute graded assignments among n students uniformly at random. On average, how many students get their own hw?

Let 
$$X_i = 1$$
 [student i gets her hw] (indicator rv)

N = number of students who get their own hw  $= \sum_{i=1}^{10} X_i$  then we have:

$$egin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{N}] &= \mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i] \ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}[X_i] \ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{P}[X_i = 1] = \sum_{i=1}^n rac{1}{n} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

### inequality 1: The Union Bound

Let  $A_1, \overline{A_2, \ldots, A_k}$  be events. Then

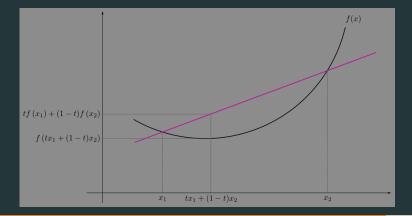
$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_k) \le (P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \cdots + P(A_k))$$

# inequality 2: Jensen's Inequality

If X is a random variable and f is a convex function, then

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)] \geq f(\mathbb{E}[X])$$

Proof sketch (plus way to remember)



# inequality 3: Markov and Chebyshev's inequalities

### Markov's inequality

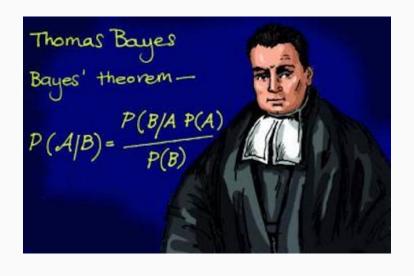
For any rv.  $X \ge 0$  with mean  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ , and for any k > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}\left[X \geq k\right] \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{k}$$

### Chebyshev's inequality

For any rv. X with mean  $\mathbb{E}[X]$ , finite variance  $\sigma^2>0$ , and for any k>0,

$$\mathbb{P}\left[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \ge k\sigma\right] \le \frac{1}{k^2}$$



conditioning and Bayes' rule

### marginals and conditionals

let X and Y be discrete rvs taking values in  $\mathbb{N}$ . denote the joint pmf:

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

marginalization: computing individual pmfs from joint pmfs as

$$p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{N}} p_{XY}(x, y)$$
  $p_Y(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} p_{XY}(x, y)$ 

conditioning: pmf of X given Y = y (with  $p_Y(y) > 0$ ) defined as:

$$\mathbb{P}[X = x | Y = y] \triangleq p_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{p_{XY}(x,y)}{p_{Y}(y)}$$

more generally, can define  $\mathbb{P}[X \in \mathcal{A}|Y \in \mathcal{B}]$  for sets  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{N}$  see also this visual demonstration

# the basic 'rules' of Bayesian inference

let X and Y be discrete rvs taking values in  $\mathbb{N}$ , with joint pmf p(x, y)

### product rule

for  $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have:  $p_{XY}(x, y) = p_X(x)p_{Y|X}(y|x) = p_Y(y)p_{X|Y}(x|y)$ 

### sum rule

for  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have:  $p_X(x) = \sum_{y \in \mathbb{N}} p_{X|Y}(x|y)p_Y(y)$ 

and most importantly!

### Bayes rule

for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have:

$$p_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{p_X(x)p_{Y|X}(y|x)}{\sum_{x \in \mathbb{N}} p_{Y|X}(y|x)p_X(x)}$$

see also this video for an intuitive take on Bayes rule

### Mackay's three cards

We have three cards C1, C2, C3, with C1 having faces Red-Red.

A card is randomly drawn and placed on a table – its upper face is **Red** What is the colour of its lower face?

C1 = Red-Sue, C2 = Sue-Sue; C3 = Red-Red. A card is randomly drawn, and has upper face Red. What is the colour of its lower face?

Let  $X \in \{C1, C2, C3\}$  be the identity of drawn card,  $Y_b \in \{b, r\}$  be the color of bottom face, and  $Y_t \in \{b, r\}$  be the color of top face. Then:

$$\mathbb{P}[Y_b = b | Y_t = b] = \mathbb{P}[X = C2 | Y_t = b] = \frac{\mathbb{P}[Y_t = b | X = C2] \mathbb{P}[X = C2]}{\mathbb{P}[Y_t = b]}$$
$$= \frac{1 \times (1/3)}{(1/2) \times (1/3) + 1 \times (1/3) + 0 \times (1/3)} = 2/3$$

#### **ALERT!!**

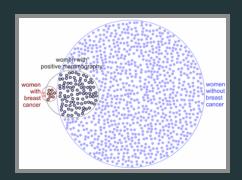
always write down the probability of everything

### Eddy's mammogram problem

The probability a woman at age 40 has breast cancer is 0.01. A mammogram detects the disease 80% of the time, but also mis-detects the disease in healthy patients 9.6% of the time. If a woman at age 40 has a positive mammogram test, what is the probability she has breast cancer?

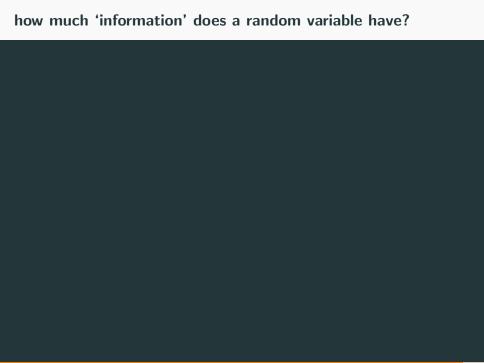
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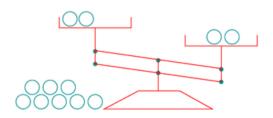
see also this video for more about the odds ratio

credit: Micallef et al.



Mackay's weighing puzzle

# The weighing problem



You are given 12 balls, all equal in weight except for one that is either heavier or lighter.

Design a strategy to determine
which is the odd ball
and whether it is heavier or lighter,
in as few uses of the balance as possible.