

# CSE 5523: Lecture Notes 2

## Probability

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### 2.1 Background: probability and probability spaces [Kolmogorov, 1933]

Probability is defined over a measure space  $\langle O, \mathcal{E}, P \rangle$  where the measure  $P$  (probability) sums to one.

This **probability measure space**  $\langle O, \mathcal{E}, P \rangle$  consists of:

1. a **sample space**  $O$  – a non-empty set of **outcomes**;
2. a **sigma-algebra**  $\mathcal{E} \subseteq 2^O$  – a set of **events** which are subsets in the power set of  $O$  such that:
  - (a)  $\mathcal{E}$  contains  $O$ :  $O \in \mathcal{E}$ ,
  - (b)  $\mathcal{E}$  is closed under complementation:  $\forall A \in \mathcal{E} \ O - A \in \mathcal{E}$ ,
  - (c)  $\mathcal{E}$  is closed under countable union:  $\forall A_1..A_\infty \in \mathcal{E} \ \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i \in \mathcal{E}$

(this set of events will serve as the domain of our probability function);
3. a **probability measure**  $P : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^\infty$  – a function from events to non-negative reals such that:
  - (a) the  $P$  measure is countably additive:  $\forall A_1..A_\infty \in \mathcal{E} \text{ s.t. } \forall i,j \ A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \ P(\bigcup_{i=1}^\infty A_i) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty P(A_i)$ ,
  - (b) the  $P$  measure of entire space is one:  $P(O) = 1$ .

These are the **Kolmogorov axioms of probability**.

This characterization is helpful because it unifies probability spaces that may seem very different:

1. **discrete** spaces – e.g. a coin:

$$\underbrace{\langle \{H, T\} \rangle}_O, \underbrace{\langle \emptyset, \{H\}, \{T\}, \{H, T\} \rangle}_\mathcal{E}, \underbrace{\langle \langle \emptyset, 0 \rangle, \langle \{H\}, .5 \rangle, \langle \{T\}, .5 \rangle, \langle \{H, T\}, 1 \rangle \rangle}_P$$

2. **continuous** spaces – e.g. a dart (here  $2^{\mathbb{R}^2}$  is a Borel algebra: a set of all open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ):

$$\underbrace{\langle \mathbb{R}^2 \rangle}_O, \underbrace{\langle 2^{\mathbb{R}^2} \rangle}_\mathcal{E}, \underbrace{\langle \{ \langle R, p \rangle \mid R \in 2^{\mathbb{R}^2}, p = \iint_{A \in R} \mathcal{N}_{0,1}(x_A, y_A) dA \} \rangle}_P$$

(events must be open sets/ranges of outcomes because point outcomes have zero probability)

3. **joint** spaces using Cartesian products of sample spaces – e.g. two coins ( $\{H, T\} \times \{H, T\}$ ):

$$\underbrace{\langle \{HH, HT, TH, TT\} \rangle}_O, \underbrace{\langle \emptyset, \{HH\}, \dots, \{HH, HT, TH, TT\} \rangle}_\mathcal{E}, \underbrace{\langle \langle \emptyset, 0 \rangle, \langle \{HH\}, .25 \rangle, \dots, \langle \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}, 1 \rangle \rangle}_P$$

Also note: the set of outcomes can be larger than the set of events – e.g. a die used even/odd:

$$\underbrace{\langle \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \rangle}_O, \underbrace{\langle \emptyset, \{1, 3, 5\}, \{2, 4, 6\}, \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \rangle}_\mathcal{E}, \underbrace{\langle \langle \emptyset, 0 \rangle, \langle \{1, 3, 5\}, .5 \rangle, \langle \{2, 4, 6\}, .5 \rangle, \langle \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, 1 \rangle \rangle}_P$$

This axiomatization entails, for any events (sets of outcomes)  $A, B \in \mathcal{E}$ :

1.  $P(A) \in \mathbb{R}_0^1$
2.  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Minimal events – those used as base cases in the closure operations – are called **atomic events**.

Atomic events in continuous models can have any size you want (like even/odd die), but not points.

Though probabilities are defined over sets of outcomes, we often write them using **propositions**.

For example, if  $O = X \times Y$  and therefore  $\forall o \in O \ o = \langle x_o, y_o \rangle$ :

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= P(X=x) &= P(\{o \mid o \in O \wedge x_o=x\}) && \text{(allow any value for } y_o \text{ component)} \\ P(x \wedge y) &= P(X=x \wedge Y=y) &= P(\{o \mid o \in O \wedge x_o=x \wedge y_o=y\}) \\ P(\neg x) &= P(X \neq x) &= P(\{o \mid o \in O \wedge x_o \neq x\}) \end{aligned}$$

**Random variables**  $D$  are functions from outcomes  $x_o, y_o$  to **values**, e.g. distance of point to origin.

Often we will simply use Cartesian factors of a joint sample space  $(X, Y)$  as random variables.

**Distributions** are sometimes written as probabilities over (all values of) random variables:

$$P(X) = P(Y) \iff \forall x \in X \ \forall y \in Y \ P(x) = P(y).$$

We can also define **conditional probabilities** as ratios of these measures:  $P(y|x) = \frac{P(x \wedge y)}{P(x)}$ .

## 2.2 A simple example

We can now distinguish some different kinds of (supervised) learning:

- **classification:**  $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y P(y|x)$  with  $y \in \mathbb{Z}^n$  (countable)
- **regression:**  $\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_y P(y|x)$  with  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (uncountable)

We then define a **frequency space**  $\langle O, \mathcal{E}, F \rangle$  – same measure space with no  $P(O) = 1$  constraint.

We can define a frequency space using **counts** of some set of atomic events in some **training data**.

For example a model for fruits and colors:

$\langle \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle, \langle \text{apple,green} \rangle, \langle \text{pear,red} \rangle, \langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\},$   
 $\{\emptyset, \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{apple,green} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{pear,red} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\}, \dots \}$   
 $\{\langle \emptyset, 0 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle\}, 2 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{apple,green} \rangle\}, 1 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{pear,red} \rangle\}, 0 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\}, 2 \rangle, \dots \rangle$

(Counts for larger sets are simply sums, according to axiom 3a.)

We can now define a very simple machine learning example:

$$P(A) = \frac{F(A)}{F(O)}$$

$\langle \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle, \langle \text{apple,green} \rangle, \langle \text{pear,red} \rangle, \langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\},$   
 $\{\emptyset, \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{apple,green} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{pear,red} \rangle\}, \{\langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\}, \dots \}$   
 $\{\langle \emptyset, 0 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{apple,red} \rangle\}, .4 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{apple,green} \rangle\}, .2 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{pear,red} \rangle\}, 0 \rangle, \langle \{\langle \text{pear,green} \rangle\}, .4 \rangle, \dots \rangle$

(Counts for larger sets are simply sums, according to axiom 3a.)

This is called **relative frequency estimation**.

### 2.3 Optimality of relative frequency estimation

Relative frequency estimation assigns the *highest* probability to your data!

Recall **combination** notation – number of orderings to choose  $n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots$  of each category:

$$\binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots} = \frac{(\sum_j n_j)!}{n_1! n_2! n_3! \dots}$$

Using multinomial parameters  $p_1, p_2, \dots$ , the probability of atomic event counts  $n_1, n_2, \dots$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_1, n_2, \dots} \prod_j (p_j)^{n_j} &= \binom{\sum_j n_j}{\times_j \{n_j\}} \prod_j (p_j)^{n_j} \\ &= \binom{5}{2, 1, 0, 2} P(\text{apple,red})^2 P(\text{apple,green})^1 P(\text{pear,red})^0 P(\text{pear,green})^2 \end{aligned}$$

The parameters  $p_i$  that maximize probability of data are those where slope (derivative) is zero:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \binom{\sum_j n_j}{\times_j \{n_j\}} \prod_j (p_j)^{n_j} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_i} (p_i)^{n_i} \binom{\sum_{j \neq i} n_j}{\times_{j \neq i} \{n_j\}} \prod_{j \neq i} (p_j)^{n_j} && \text{definition of limit product} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_i} (p_i)^{n_i} (1 - p_i)^{\sum_{j \neq i} n_j} && \text{multinomial distribution sums to one} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} (p_i)^{n_i} (1-p_i)^{\sum_{j \neq i} n_j} && \text{product rule} \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} (p_i)^{n_i} (1-p_i)^{\sum_{j \neq i} n_j} && \text{division by } \binom{\sum_j n_j}{n_i} \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial p} p^n (1-p)^m && \text{let } p = p_i, n = n_i, m = \sum_{j \neq i} n_j \\
&= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial p} p^n \right) (1-p)^m + p^n \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial p} (1-p)^m \right) && \text{product rule} \\
&= np^{n-1} (1-p)^m + p^n m (1-p)^{m-1} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial p} 1-p \right) && \text{power rule} \\
&= np^{n-1} (1-p)^m + p^n m (1-p)^{m-1} (-1) && \text{power rule} \\
&= p^{n-1} (1-p)^{m-1} (n(1-p) - mp) && \text{distributive axiom} \\
&= p^{n-1} (1-p)^{m-1} (n - np - mp) && \text{distributive axiom} \\
&= \underbrace{p^{n-1}}_{\text{root: } \hat{p} = 0} \underbrace{(1-p)^{m-1}}_{\text{root: } \hat{p} = 1} \underbrace{(n - (n+m)p)}_{\text{root: } \hat{p} = \frac{n}{n+m}} && \text{distributive axiom}
\end{aligned}$$

So (ignoring the 0 and 1 roots, which are minima) the optimal parameters are all  $\hat{p}_i = \frac{n_i}{\sum_j n_j}$ .

This is called a **maximum likelihood estimate**.

## 2.4 Optimal continuous parameter estimation

‘Normal’ (Gaussian) distributions with parameters for mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ :

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mu, \sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

also have an easy optimal parameter estimate that maximizes the probability of data  $x_1, x_2, \dots$

(If you are designing novel distributions, you may also want easy optimal parameter estimation!)

Again, the parameters  $\mu, \sigma$  that maximize probability are those where slope (derivative) is zero:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \prod_i \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \\
0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln \prod_i \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{max of function is max of log} \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \sum_i \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{log of product is sum of logs} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{sum rule} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \ln \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} + \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{log of product is sum of logs}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{derivative of constant} \\
&= \sum_i -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mu} (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{product rule} \\
&= \sum_i -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (-1) 2(x_i - \mu) && \text{power rule} \\
&= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu) && \text{distributive axiom} \\
&= \sum_i (x_i - \mu) && \text{multiply by } \sigma^2 \\
&= -n\mu + \underbrace{\sum_i^n x_i}_{\text{root: } \hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i^n x_i}
\end{aligned}$$

And for the standard deviation:

$$\begin{aligned}
0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \prod_i \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \\
0 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln \prod_i \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{max of function is max of log} \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \sum_i \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{log of product is sum of logs} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{sum rule} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} + \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{log of product is sum of logs} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} -\ln(\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}) + \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{log of power} \\
&= \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} -\ln(\sqrt{\sigma^2 2\pi}) + \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} && \text{square root of square} \\
&= \sum_i \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} -\frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) + \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{sum rule} \\
&= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} -\frac{n}{2} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) + \sum_i \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \frac{-(x_i - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) && \text{constant in discrete sum} \\
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) + \sum_i \frac{1}{2} \left( -(x_i - \mu)^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right) && \text{product rule} \\
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) + \sum_i \frac{1}{2} \left( -(x_i - \mu)^2 (-2) \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \right) && \text{power rule}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(2\pi\sigma^2) \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{distributive axiom} \\
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(2\pi) + \ln(\sigma^2) \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{log of product is sum of logs} \\
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(\sigma^2) \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{derivative of constant} \\
&= -\frac{n}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} 2 \ln(\sigma) \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{log of power} \\
&= -n \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \ln(\sigma) \right) + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{product rule} \\
&= -\frac{n}{\sigma} + \frac{1}{\sigma^3} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{derivative of log} \\
&= -n + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2 && \text{multiply by } \sigma \\
&\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{root: } \hat{\sigma} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2}}
\end{aligned}$$

## References

[Kolmogorov, 1933] Kolmogorov, A. N. (1933). *Grundbegriffe der Wahrscheinlichkeitsrechnung*. Springer, Berlin. Second English Edition, *Foundations of Probability* 1950, published by Chelsea, New York.