

# Probability, continued

CMPUT 296: Basics of Machine Learning

§2.2-2.4

# Recap

- Probabilities are a means of **quantifying uncertainty**
- A probability distribution is defined on a measurable space consisting of a **sample space** and an **event space**.
- **Discrete** sample spaces (and random variables) are defined in terms of **probability mass functions** (PMFs)
- **Continuous** sample spaces (and random variables) are defined in terms of **probability density functions** (PDFs)

# Outline

1. Multiple Random Variables
2. Independence
3. Expectations and Moments

# Recap: Random Variables

**Random variables** are a way of reasoning about a complicated underlying probability space in a more straightforward way.

**Example:** Suppose we observe both a die's number, and where it lands.

$$\Omega = \{(left,1), (right,1), (left,2), (right,2), \dots, (right,6)\}$$

We might want to think about the probability that we get a large number, without thinking about where it landed.

We could ask about  $P(X \geq 4)$ , where  $X$  = number that comes up.

# What About Multiple Variables?

- So far, we've really been thinking about a single random variable at a time
- Straightforward to define multiple random variables on a single probability space

**Example:** Suppose we observe both a die's number, and where it lands.

$$\Omega = \{(left,1), (right,1), (left,2), (right,2), \dots, (right,6)\}$$

$$X(\omega) = \omega_2 = \text{number}$$

$$Y(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega_1 = left \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} = 1 \text{ if landed on left}$$

$$P(Y = 1) = P(\{\omega \mid Y(\omega) = 1\})$$

$$P(X \geq 4 \wedge Y = 1) = P(\{\omega \mid X(\omega) \geq 4 \wedge Y(\omega) = 1\})$$

# Joint Distribution

We typically be model the **interactions** of different random variables.

**Joint probability mass function:**  $p(x, y) = P(X = x, Y = y)$

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x, y) = 1$$

**Example:**  $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$  (young, old) and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$  (no arthritis, arthritis)

	<b>Y=0</b>	<b>Y=1</b>
<b>X=0</b>	$P(X=0, Y=0) = \frac{1}{2}$	$P(X=0, Y=1) = \frac{1}{100}$
<b>X=1</b>	$P(X=1, Y=0) = \frac{1}{10}$	$P(X=1, Y=1) = \frac{39}{100}$

# Questions About Multiple Variables

**Example:**  $\mathcal{X} = \{0,1\}$  (young, old) and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  (no arthritis, arthritis)

	<b>Y=0</b>	<b>Y=1</b>
<b>X=0</b>	$P(X=0, Y=0) = 1/2$	$P(X=0, Y=1) = 1/100$
<b>X=1</b>	$P(X=1, Y=0) = 1/10$	$P(X=1, Y=1) = 39/100$

- Are these two variables related at all? Or do they change **independently**?
- Given this distribution, can we determine the distribution over just  $Y$ ?  
I.e., what is  $P(Y = 1)$ ? (**marginal distribution**)
- If we knew something about one variable, does that tell us something about the distribution over the other? E.g., if I know  $X = 0$  (person is young), does that tell me the **conditional probability**  $P(Y = 1 \mid X = 1)$ ? (Prob. that person we know is young has arthritis)

# Conditional Distribution

**Definition:** Conditional probability distribution

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

This same equation will hold for the corresponding PDF or PMF:

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

**Question:** if  $p(x, y)$  is small, does that imply that  $p(y \mid x)$  is small?

e.g., imagine  $x = \text{arthritis}$  and  $y = \text{old}$



# PMFs and PDFs of Many Variables

In general, we can consider a  $d$ -dimensional random variable  $\vec{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$  with vector-valued outcomes  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$ , with each  $x_i$  chosen from some  $\mathcal{X}_i$ . Then,

**Discrete case:**

$p : \mathcal{X}_1 \times \mathcal{X}_2 \times \dots \times \mathcal{X}_d \rightarrow [0,1]$  is a **(joint) probability mass function** if

$$\sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}_1} \sum_{x_2 \in \mathcal{X}_2} \dots \sum_{x_d \in \mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = 1$$

**Continuous case:**

$p : \mathcal{X}_1 \times \mathcal{X}_2 \times \dots \times \mathcal{X}_d \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is a **(joint) probability density function** if

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}_1} \int_{\mathcal{X}_2} \dots \int_{\mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_d = 1$$

# Marginal Distributions

A **marginal distribution** is defined for a subset of  $\vec{X}$  by summing or integrating out the remaining variables. (We will often say that we are "marginalizing over" or "marginalizing out" the remaining variables).

**Discrete case:** 
$$p(x_i) = \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}_1} \cdots \sum_{x_{i-1} \in \mathcal{X}_{i-1}} \sum_{x_{i+1} \in \mathcal{X}_{i+1}} \cdots \sum_{x_d \in \mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d)$$

**Continuous:** 
$$p(x_i) = \int_{\mathcal{X}_1} \cdots \int_{\mathcal{X}_{i-1}} \int_{\mathcal{X}_{i+1}} \cdots \int_{\mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \dots dx_{i-1} dx_{i+1} \dots dx_d$$

# Back to our example

**Example:**  $\mathcal{X} = \{0,1\}$  (young, old) and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  (no arthritis, arthritis)

	<b>Y=0</b>	<b>Y=1</b>
<b>X=0</b>	$P(X=0, Y=0) = 1/2$	$P(X=0, Y=1) = 1/100$
<b>X=1</b>	$P(X=1, Y=0) = 1/10$	$P(X=1, Y=1) = 39/100$

- **Exercise:** Check if  $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} p(x, y) = 1$
- **Exercise:** Compute marginal  $p(y) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} p(x, y)$

# Back to our example (cont)

**Example:**  $\mathcal{X} = \{0,1\}$  (young, old) and  $\mathcal{Y} = \{0,1\}$  (no arthritis, arthritis)

	<b>Y=0</b>	<b>Y=1</b>
<b>X=0</b>	$P(X=0, Y=0) = 1/2$	$P(X=0, Y=1) = 1/100$
<b>X=1</b>	$P(X=1, Y=0) = 1/10$	$P(X=1, Y=1) = 39/100$

• **Exercise:** Check if  $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} p(x, y) = 1/2 + 1/100 + 1/10 + 39/100 = 1$

• **Exercise:** Compute marginal  $p(y = 1) = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}} p(x, y = 1) = 40/100,$

$$p(y = 0) = 1 - p(y = 1) = 60/100$$

# Marginal Distributions

A **marginal distribution** is defined for a subset of  $\vec{X}$  by summing or integrating out the remaining variables. (We will often say that we are "marginalizing over" or "marginalizing out" the remaining variables).

**Discrete case:** 
$$p(x_i) = \sum_{x_1 \in \mathcal{X}_1} \cdots \sum_{x_{i-1} \in \mathcal{X}_{i-1}} \sum_{x_{i+1} \in \mathcal{X}_{i+1}} \cdots \sum_{x_d \in \mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d)$$

**Continuous:** 
$$p(x_i) = \int_{\mathcal{X}_1} \cdots \int_{\mathcal{X}_{i-1}} \int_{\mathcal{X}_{i+1}} \cdots \int_{\mathcal{X}_d} p(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d) dx_1 \cdots dx_{i-1} dx_{i+1} \cdots dx_d$$

**Question:** How do we get  $p(x_i, x_j)$  for some  $i, j$ ?

**Question:** Why  $p$  for  $p(x_i)$  and  $p(x_1, \dots, x_d)$ ?

- They can't be the same function, they have different domains!

# Are these really the same function?

- **No.** They're not the same function.
- But they are **derived** from the **same joint distribution**.
- So for brevity we will write

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

- Even though it would be more precise to write something like

$$p_{Y|X}(y | x) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p_X(x)}$$

- We can tell which function we're talking about from context (i.e., arguments)

# Chain Rule

From the definition of conditional probability:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y | x) &= \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)} \\ \iff p(y | x)p(x) &= \frac{p(x, y)}{p(x)}p(x) \\ \iff p(y | x)p(x) &= p(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

This is called the **Chain Rule**.

# Multiple Variable Chain Rule

The chain rule generalizes to multiple variables:

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x, y | z)p(z) = p(x | y, z) \underbrace{p(y | z)}_{p(y,z)} p(z)$$

**Definition: Chain rule**

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, \dots, x_d) &= p(x_d) \prod_{i=1}^{d-1} p(x_i | x_{i+1}, \dots, x_d) \\ &= p(x_1) \prod_{i=2}^d p(x_i | x_i, \dots, x_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

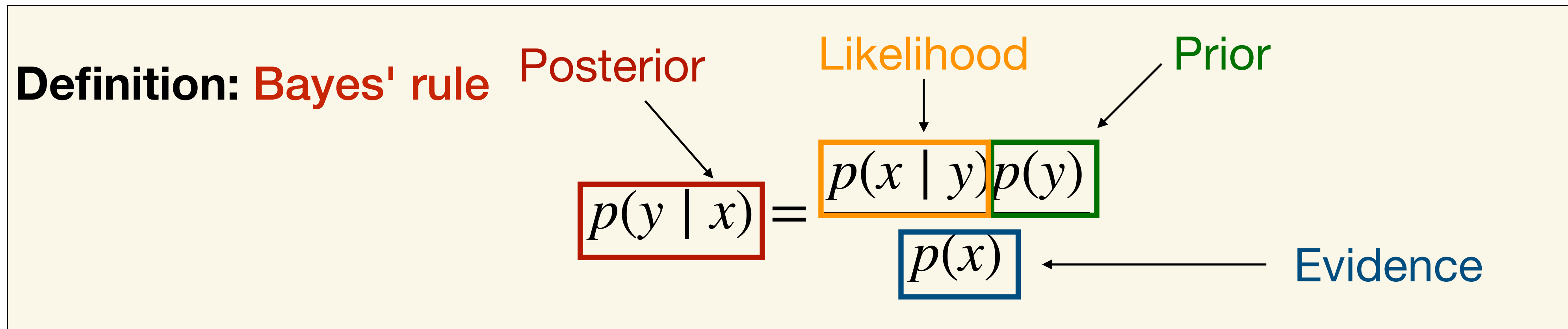


# Bayes' Rule

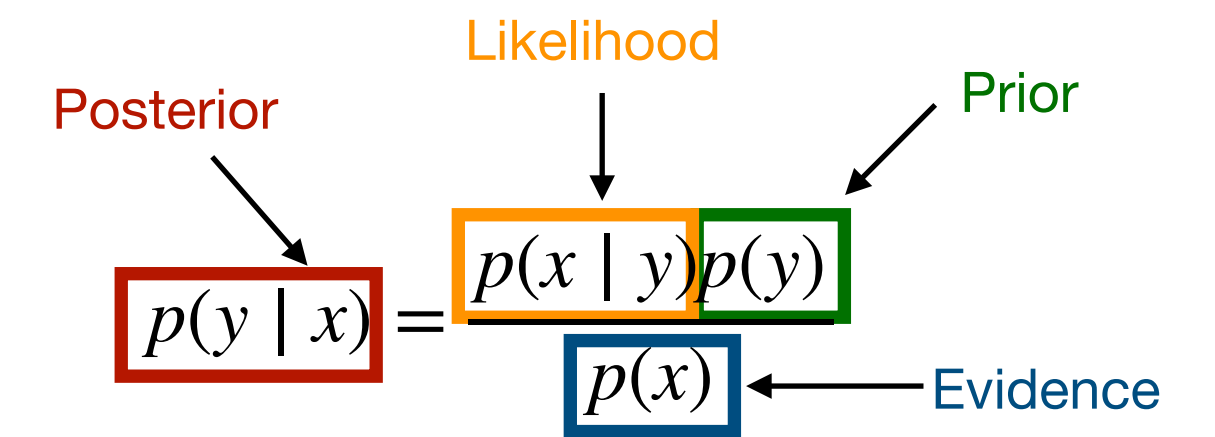
From the chain rule, we have:

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

- Often,  $p(x | y)$  is easier to compute than  $p(y | x)$ 
  - e.g., where  $x$  is **features** and  $y$  is **label**



# Example: Disease Test



## Example:

$$p(\text{Test} = \text{pos} \mid \text{Dis} = T) = 0.99$$

$$p(\text{Test} = \text{pos} \mid \text{Dis} = F) = 0.03$$

$$p(\text{Dis} = T) = 0.005$$

## Questions:

1. What is the likelihood?
2. What is the prior?
3. What is  $p(\text{Dis} = T \mid \text{Test} = \text{pos})$ ?

# Independence of Random Variables

**Definition:**  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent** if:

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

$X$  and  $Y$  are **conditionally independent given  $Z$**  if:

$$p(x, y | z) = p(x | z)p(y | z)$$

# Another Marginalization Example

- Imagine you get to draw two random candies from a bag of treats
- Say there are 5 types of candies (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), equally distributed in the bag
- Let  $X =$  First Candy You Got and  $Y =$  Second Candy You Got
- What is  $p(X = 1)$ ?
- What is  $p(X = 1, Y = 3)$ ?

# Independence of Random Variables

**Definition:**  $X$  and  $Y$  are **independent** if:

$$p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$$

$X$  and  $Y$  are **conditionally independent given  $Z$**  if:

$$p(x, y | z) = p(x | z)p(y | z)$$

# Example: Coins

## (Ex.7 in the course text)

- Suppose you have a biased coin: It does not come up heads with probability 0.5. Instead, it is more likely to come up heads.
- Let  $Z$  be the bias of the coin, with  $\mathcal{Z} = \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}$  and probabilities  $P(Z = 0.3) = 0.7$ ,  $P(Z = 0.5) = 0.2$  and  $P(Z = 0.8) = 0.1$ .
  - **Question:** What other outcome space could we consider?
  - **Question:** What kind of distribution is this?
  - **Question:** What other kinds of distribution could we consider?

# Example: Coins (2)

- Now imagine I told you  $Z = 0.3$  (i.e., probability of heads is 0.3)
- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two consecutive flips of the coin
- What is  $P(X = \text{Heads} \mid Z = 0.3)$ ? What about  $P(X = \text{Tails} \mid Z = 0.3)$ ?
- What is  $P(Y = \text{Heads} \mid Z = 0.3)$ ? What about  $P(Y = \text{Tails} \mid Z = 0.3)$ ?
- Is  $P(X = x, Y = y \mid Z = 0.3) = P(X = x \mid Z = 0.3)P(Y = y \mid Z = 0.3)$ ?

# Example: Coins (3)

- Now imagine we do not know  $Z$
- e.g., you randomly grabbed it from a bin of coins with probabilities  $P(Z = 0.3) = 0.7$ ,  $P(Z = 0.5) = 0.2$  and  $P(Z = 0.8) = 0.1$

- What is  $P(X = Heads)$ ?

$$P(X = Heads) = \sum_{z \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}} P(X = Heads | Z = z) p(Z = z)$$

$$= P(X = Heads | Z = 0.3) p(Z = 0.3)$$

$$+ P(X = Heads | Z = 0.5) p(Z = 0.5)$$

$$+ P(X = Heads | Z = 0.8) p(Z = 0.8)$$

$$= 0.3 \times 0.7 + 0.5 \times 0.2 + 0.8 \times 0.1 = 0.39$$



# Example: Coins (4)

- Now imagine we do not know  $Z$
- e.g., you randomly grabbed it from a bin of coins with probabilities  $P(Z = 0.3) = 0.7$ ,  $P(Z = 0.5) = 0.2$  and  $P(Z = 0.8) = 0.1$
- Is  $P(X = Heads, Y = Heads) = P(X = Heads)p(Y = Heads)$ ?
- For brevity, lets use h for Heads

$$P(X = h, Y = h) = \sum_{z \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}} P(X = h, Y = h | Z = z)p(Z = z)$$

- $= \sum_{z \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}} P(X = h | Z = z)P(Y = h | Z = z)p(Z = z)$

# Example: Coins (4)

- $P(Z = 0.3) = 0.7$ ,  $P(Z = 0.5) = 0.2$  and  $P(Z = 0.8) = 0.1$
- Is  $P(X = Heads, Y = Heads) = P(X = Heads)p(Y = Heads)$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} P(X = h, Y = h) &= \sum_{z \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}} P(X = h, Y = h | Z = z) p(Z = z) \\ &= \sum_{z \in \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}} P(X = h | Z = z) P(Y = h | Z = z) p(Z = z) \\ &= P(X = h | Z = 0.3) P(Y = h | Z = 0.3) p(Z = 0.3) \\ &\quad + P(X = h | Z = 0.5) P(Y = h | Z = 0.5) p(Z = 0.5) \\ &\quad + P(X = h | Z = 0.8) p(Y = h | Z = 0.8) p(Z = 0.8) \\ &= 0.3 \times 0.3 \times 0.7 + 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.2 + 0.8 \times 0.8 \times 0.1 \\ &= 0.177 \neq 0.39 * 0.39 = 0.1521 \end{aligned}$$

# Example: Coins (4)

- Let  $Z$  be the bias of the coin, with  $\mathcal{Z} = \{0.3, 0.5, 0.8\}$  and probabilities  $P(Z = 0.3) = 0.7$ ,  $P(Z = 0.5) = 0.2$  and  $P(Z = 0.8) = 0.1$ .
- Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two consecutive flips of the coin
- **Question:** Are  $X$  and  $Y$  conditionally independent given  $Z$ ?
  - i.e.,  $P(X = x, Y = y | Z = z) = P(X = x | Z = z)P(Y = y | Z = z)$
- **Question:** Are  $X$  and  $Y$  independent?
  - i.e.  $P(X = x, Y = y) = P(X = x)P(Y = y)$

# The Distribution Changes Based on What We Know

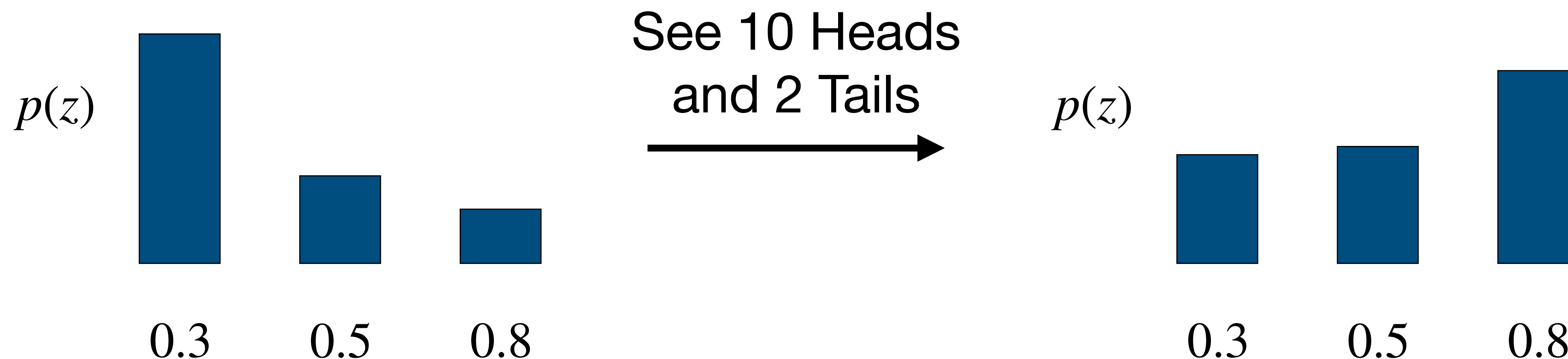
- The coin has some true bias  $z$
- If we know that bias, we reason about  $P(X = x | Z = z)$ 
  - Namely, the probability of  $x$  **given** we know the bias is  $z$
- If we do not know that bias, then from our perspective the coin outcomes follow probabilities  $P(X = x)$ 
  - The world still flips the coin with bias  $z$
- Conditional independence is a property of the distribution we are reasoning about, not an objective truth about outcomes

# A bit more intuition

- If we know do not know that bias, then from our perspective the coin outcomes follows probabilities  $P(X = x, Y = y)$
- and  $X$  and  $Y$  are correlated
- If we know  $X = h$ , do we think it's more likely  $Y = h$ ? i.e., is  $P(X = h, Y = h) > P(X = h, Y = t)$ ?

# My brain hurts, why do I need to know about coins?

- i.e., how is this relevant
- Let's imagine you want to infer (or learn) the bias of the coin, from data
  - data in this case corresponds to a sequence of flips  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$
- You can ask:  $P(Z = z | X_1 = H, X_2 = H, X_3 = T, \dots, X_n = H)$



# More uses for independence and conditional independence

- If I told you  $X = \text{roof type}$  was **independent** of  $Y = \text{house price}$ , would you use  $X$  as a feature to predict  $Y$ ?
- Imagine you want to predict  $Y = \text{Has Lung Cancer}$  and you have an indirect correlation with  $X = \text{Location}$  since in Location 1 more people smoke on average. If you could measure  $Z = \text{Smokes}$ , then  $X$  and  $Y$  would be **conditionally independent** given  $Z$ .
  - Suggests you could look for such causal variables, that explain these correlations
- We will see the utility of conditional independence for learning models

# Expected Value

The expected value of a random variable is the **weighted average** of that variable over its domain.

**Definition: Expected value of a random variable**

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} xp(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{\mathcal{X}} xp(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$



# Relationship to Population Average and Sample Average

- Or Population Mean and Sample Mean
- Population Mean = Expected Value, Sample Mean estimates this number
- e.g., Population Mean = average height of the entire population
- For RV  $X = \text{height}$ ,  $p(x)$  gives the probability that a randomly selected person has height  $x$
- Sample average: you randomly sample  $n$  heights from the population
  - implicitly you are sampling heights proportionally to  $p$
- As  $n$  gets bigger, the sample average approaches the true expected value

# Expected Value with Functions

The expected value of a function  $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  of a random variable is the **weighted average** of that function's value over the domain of the variable.

**Definition: Expected value of a function of a random variable**

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)] = \begin{cases} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)p(x) & \text{if } X \text{ is discrete} \\ \int_{\mathcal{X}} f(x)p(x) dx & \text{if } X \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

**Example:**

Suppose you get \$10 if heads is flipped, or lose \$3 if tails is flipped.

What are your winnings **on expectation**?

# Expected Value Example

## Example:

Suppose you get \$10 if heads is flipped, or lose \$3 if tails is flipped.  
What are your winnings **on expectation**?

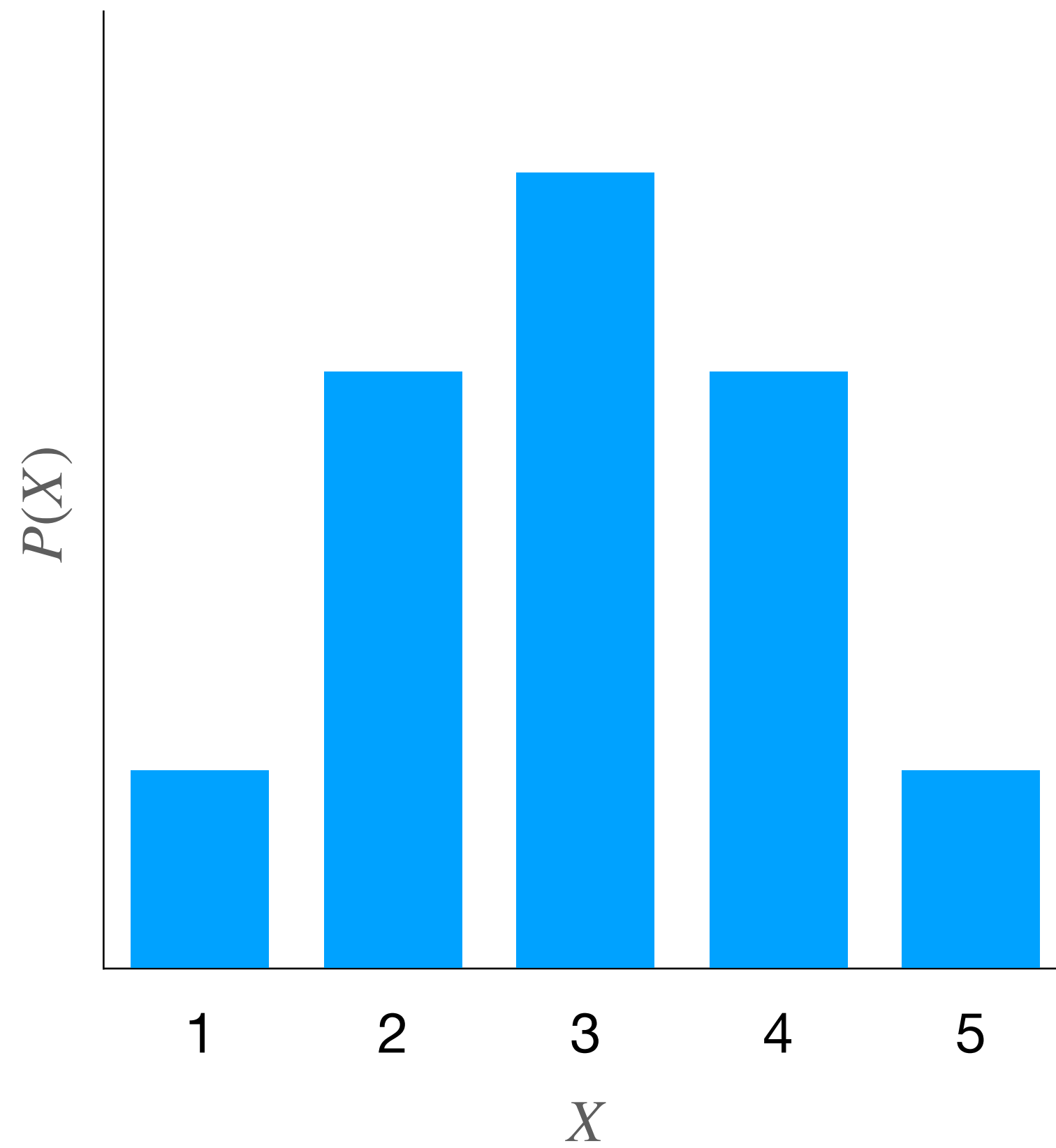
$X$  is the outcome of the coin flip, 1 for heads and 0 for tails

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } X = 0 \\ 10 & \text{if } X = 1 \end{cases}$$

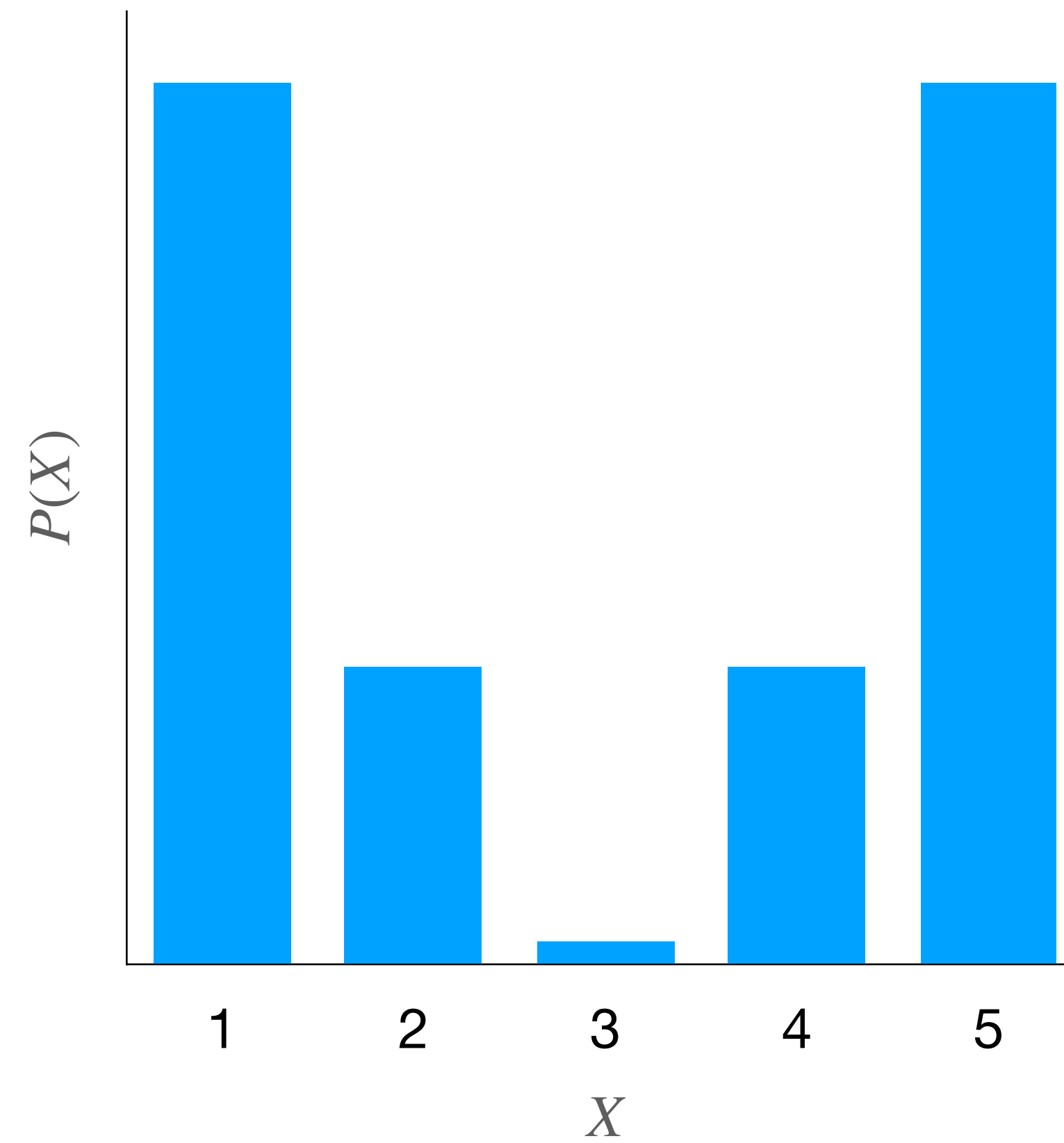
$Y = f(X)$  is a new random variable

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)] = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)p(x) = f(0)p(0) + f(1)p(1) = .5 \times 3 + .5 \times 10 = 6.5$$

# Expected Value is a Lossy Summary



$$\mathbb{E}[X] = 3$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] \simeq 10$$



$$\mathbb{E}[X] = 3$$
$$\mathbb{E}[X^2] \simeq 12$$

# Conditional Expectations

**Definition:**

The **expected value of  $Y$  conditional on  $X = x$**  is

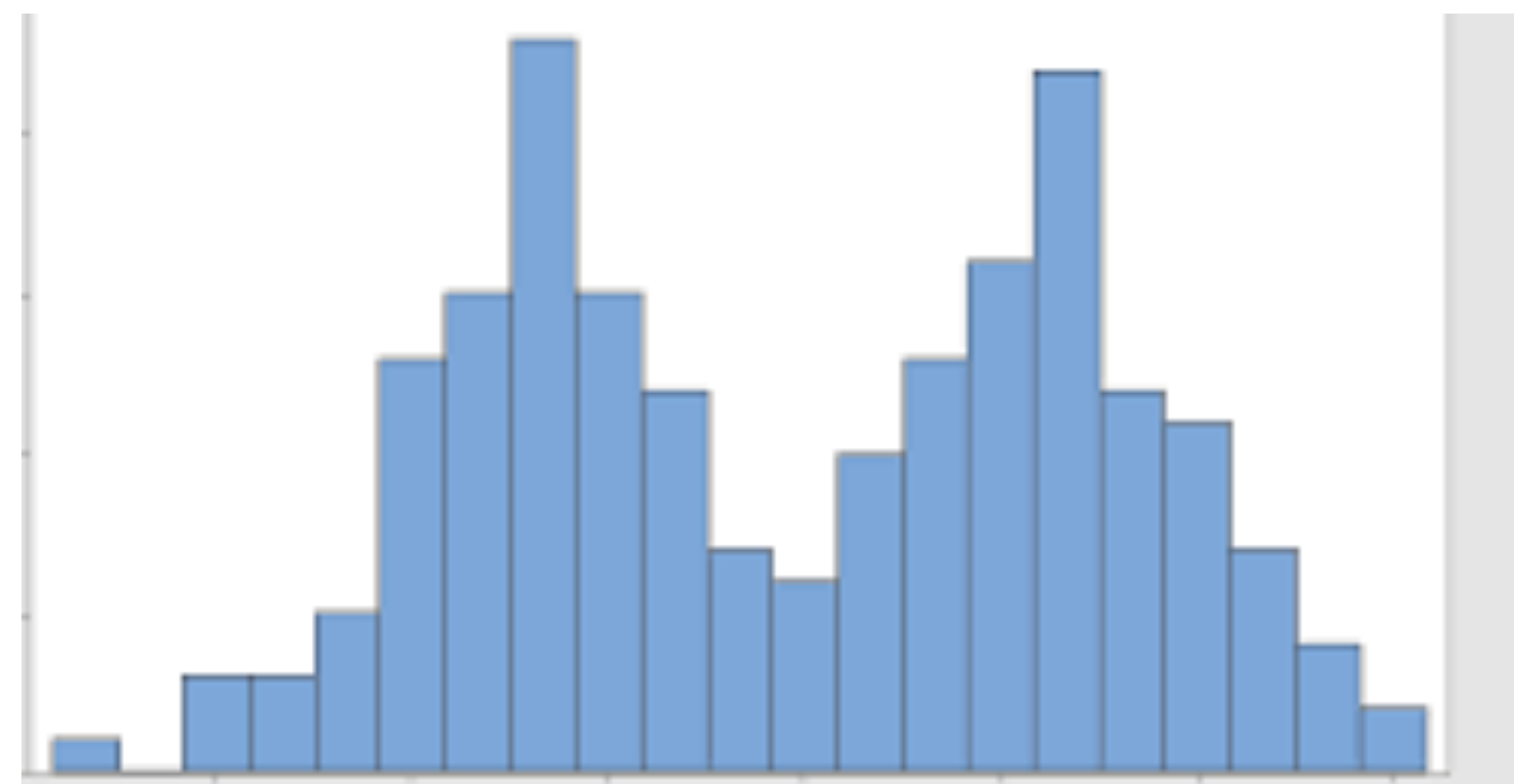
$$\mathbb{E}[Y \mid X = x] = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y \mid x) & \text{if } Y \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{\mathcal{Y}} yp(y \mid x) dy & \text{if } Y \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

# Conditional Expectation Example

- $X$  is the type of a book, 0 for fiction and 1 for non-fiction
  - $p(X = 1)$  is the proportion of all books that are non-fiction
- $Y$  is the number of pages
  - $p(Y = 100)$  is the proportion of all books with 100 pages
- $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 0]$  is different from  $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 1]$ 
  - e.g.  $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 0] = 70$  is different from  $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 1] = 150$
- Another example:  $\mathbb{E}[X | Z = 0.3]$  the expected outcome of the coin flip given that the bias is 0.3 ( $\mathbb{E}[X | Z = 0.3] = 0 \times 0.7 + 1 \times 0.3 = 0.3$ )

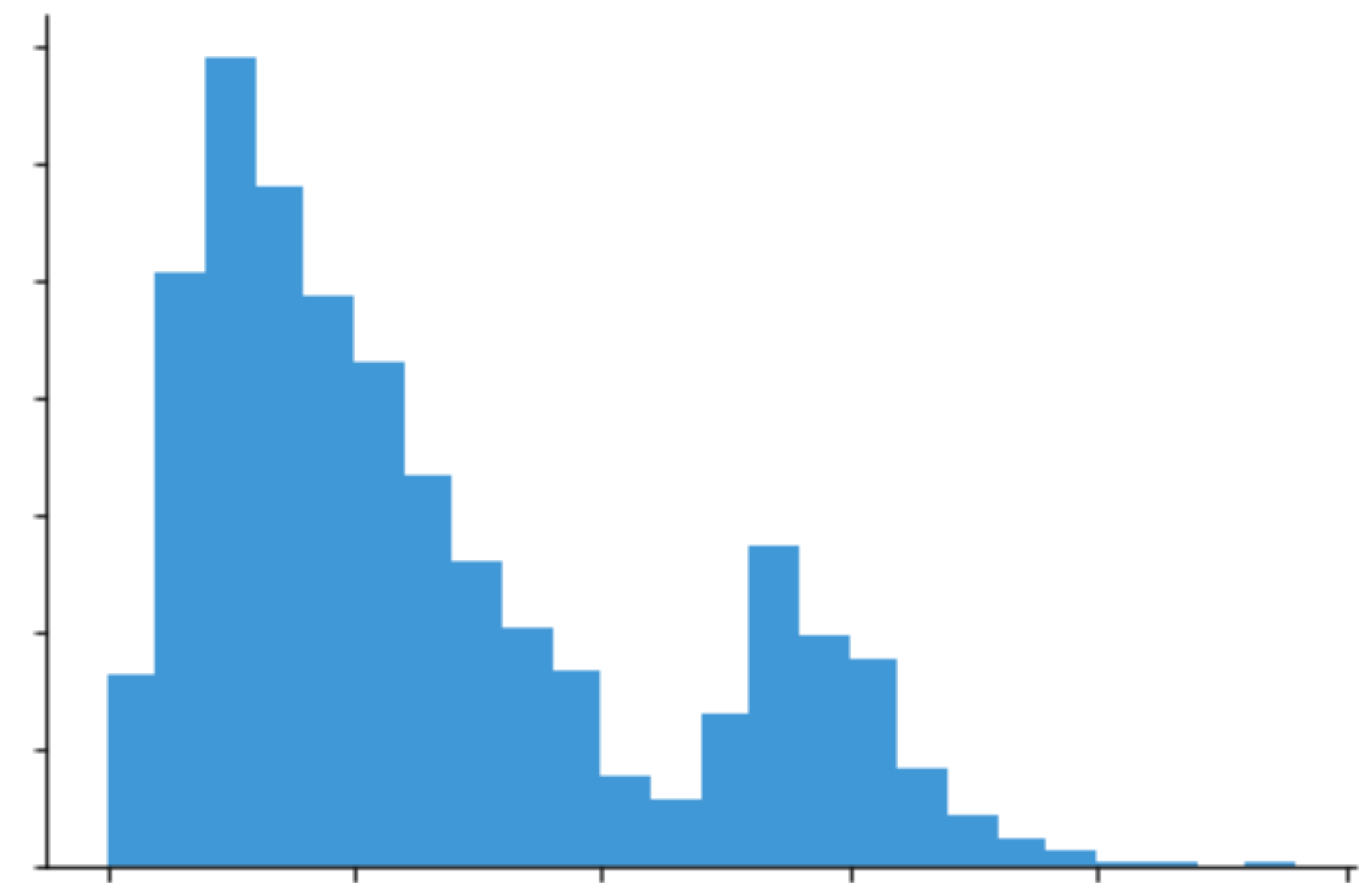
# Conditional Expectation Example (cont)

- What do we mean by  $p(y | X = 0)$ ? How might it differ from  $p(y | X = 1)$



Lots of shorter books

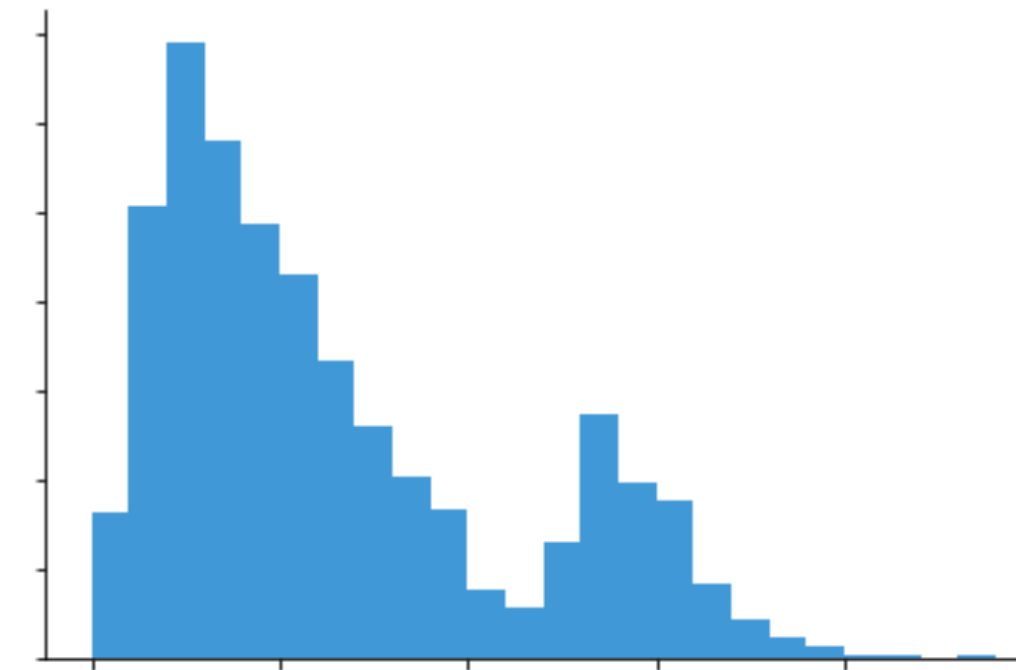
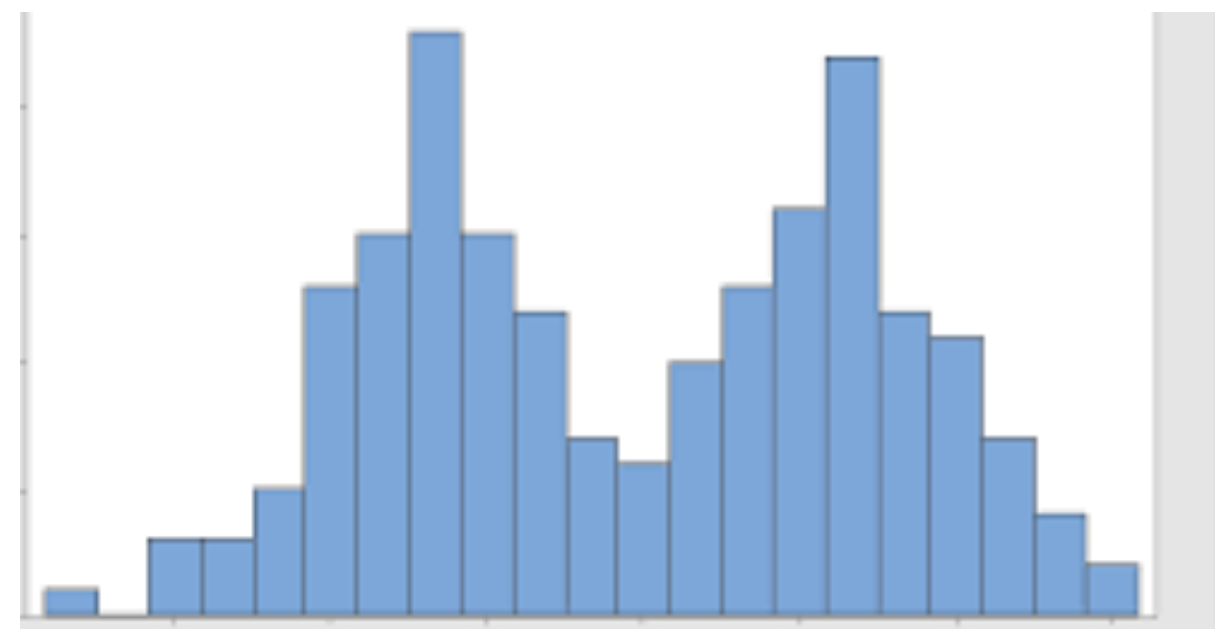
Lots of medium  
length books



A long tail, a few very long books

# Conditional Expectation Example (cont)

- What do we mean by  $p(y | X = 0)$ ? How might it differ from  $p(y | X = 1)$



- $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 0]$  is the expectation over  $Y$  under distribution  $p(y | X = 0)$
- $\mathbb{E}[Y | X = 1]$  is the expectation over  $Y$  under distribution  $p(y | X = 1)$



# Conditional Expectations

**Definition:**

The **expected value of  $Y$  conditional on  $X = x$**  is

$$\mathbb{E}[Y | X = x] = \begin{cases} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y | x) & \text{if } Y \text{ is discrete,} \\ \int_{\mathcal{Y}} yp(y | x) dy & \text{if } Y \text{ is continuous.} \end{cases}$$

**Question:** What is  $\mathbb{E}[Y | X]$ ?

# Properties of Expectations

- Linearity of expectation:
  - $\mathbb{E}[cX] = c\mathbb{E}[X]$  for all constant  $c$
  - $\mathbb{E}[X + Y] = \mathbb{E}[X] + \mathbb{E}[Y]$
- Products of expectations of **independent** random variables  $X, Y$ :
  - $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$
- Law of Total Expectation:
  - $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y | X]] = \mathbb{E}[Y]$
- **Question:** How would you prove these?

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbb{E}[Y] &= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y) && \text{def. } \mathbb{E}[Y] \\
 &= \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} y \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x, y) && \text{def. marginal distribution} \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(x, y) && \text{rearrange sums} \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y | x)p(x) && \text{Chain rule} \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left( \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} yp(y | x) \right) p(x) \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} (\mathbb{E}[Y | X = x]) p(x) && \text{def. } \mathbb{E}[Y | X = x] \\
 &= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} (\mathbb{E}[Y | X = x]) p(x) \\
 &= \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}[Y | X]) \blacksquare && \text{def. expected value of function}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Variance

**Definition:** The **variance** of a random variable is

$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E} \left[ (X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 \right].$$

i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[f(X)]$  where  $f(x) = (x - \mathbb{E}[X])^2$ .

Equivalently,

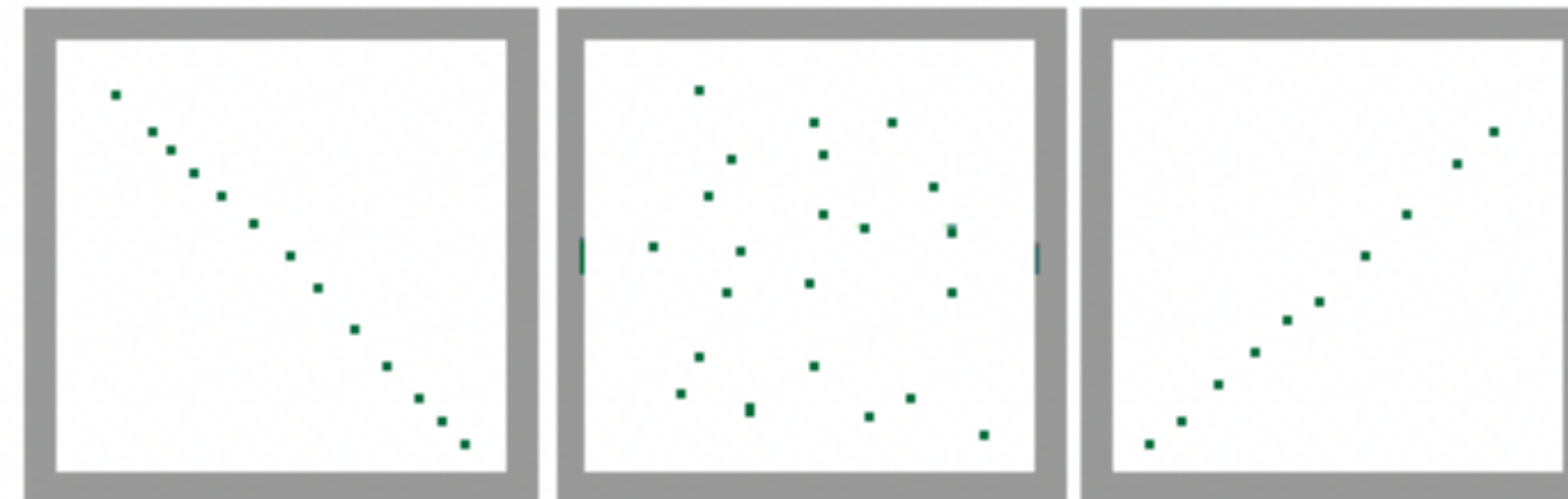
$$\text{Var}(X) = \mathbb{E} \left[ X^2 \right] - (\mathbb{E}[X])^2$$

**(Exercise:** Show that this is true)

# Covariance

**Definition:** The **covariance** of two random variables is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(X, Y) &= \mathbb{E} [(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y].\end{aligned}$$



Large Negative  
Covariance

Near Zero  
Covariance

Large Positive  
Covariance

**Question:** What is the range of  $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ ?

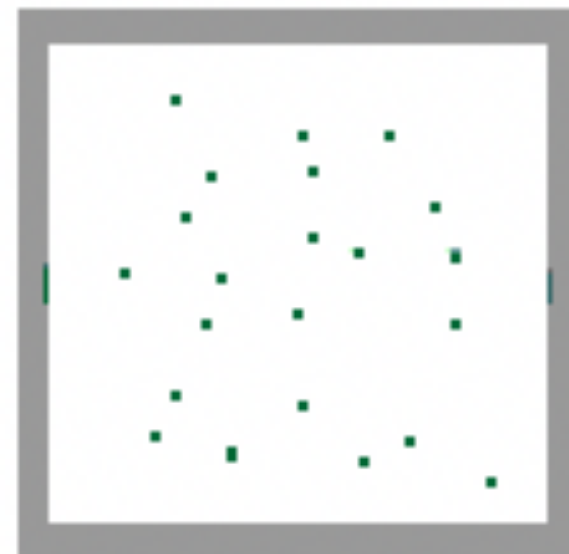
# Correlation

**Definition:** The **correlation** of two random variables is

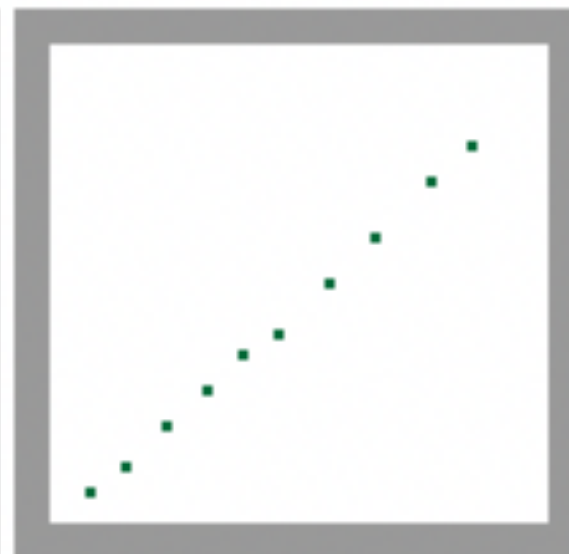
$$\text{Corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)\text{Var}(Y)}}$$



Large Negative  
Covariance



Near Zero  
Covariance



Large Positive  
Covariance

**Question:** What is the range of  $\text{Corr}(X, Y)$ ?

hint:  $\text{Var}(X) = \text{Cov}(X, X)$

# Properties of Variances

- $\text{Var}[c] = 0$  for constant  $c$
- $\text{Var}[cX] = c^2\text{Var}[X]$  for constant  $c$
- $\text{Var}[X + Y] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y] + 2\text{Cov}[X, Y]$
- For **independent**  $X, Y$ ,  
 $\text{Var}[X + Y] = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y]$  (**why?**)

# Independence and Decorrelation

- Recall if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent, then  $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$
- Independent RVs have zero correlation (**why?**)

hint:  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$

- Uncorrelated RVs (i.e.,  $\text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0$ ) **might be dependent** (i.e.,  $p(x, y) \neq p(x)p(y)$ ).
- Correlation (**Pearson's correlation coefficient**) shows linear relationships; but can miss nonlinear relationships
- **Example:**  $X \sim \text{Uniform}\{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$ ,  $Y = X^2$ 
  - $\mathbb{E}[XY] = .2(-2 \times 4) + .2(2 \times 4) + .2(-1 \times 1) + .2(1 \times 1) + .2(0 \times 0)$
  - $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$
  - So  $\mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] = 0 - 0\mathbb{E}[Y] = 0$

# Summary

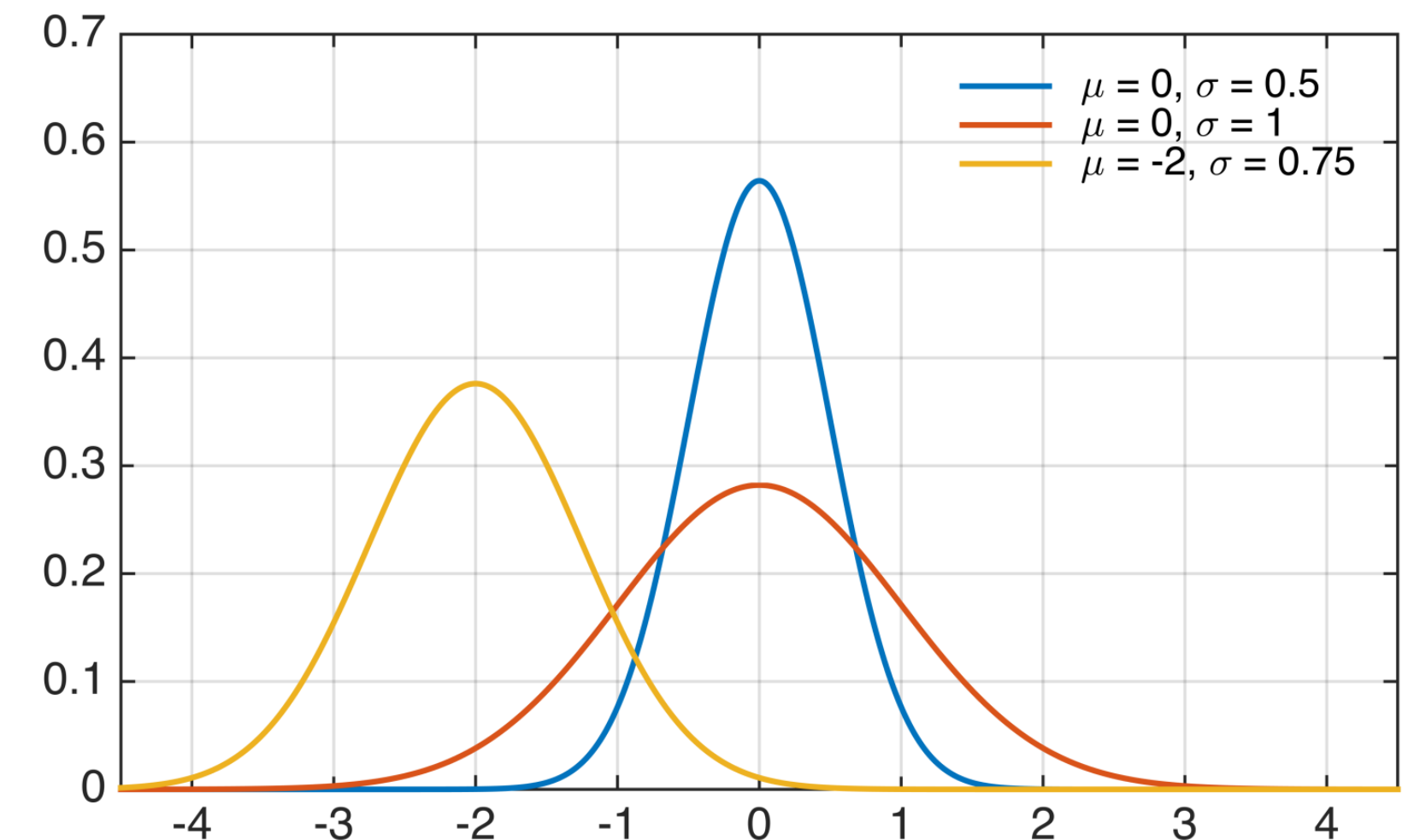
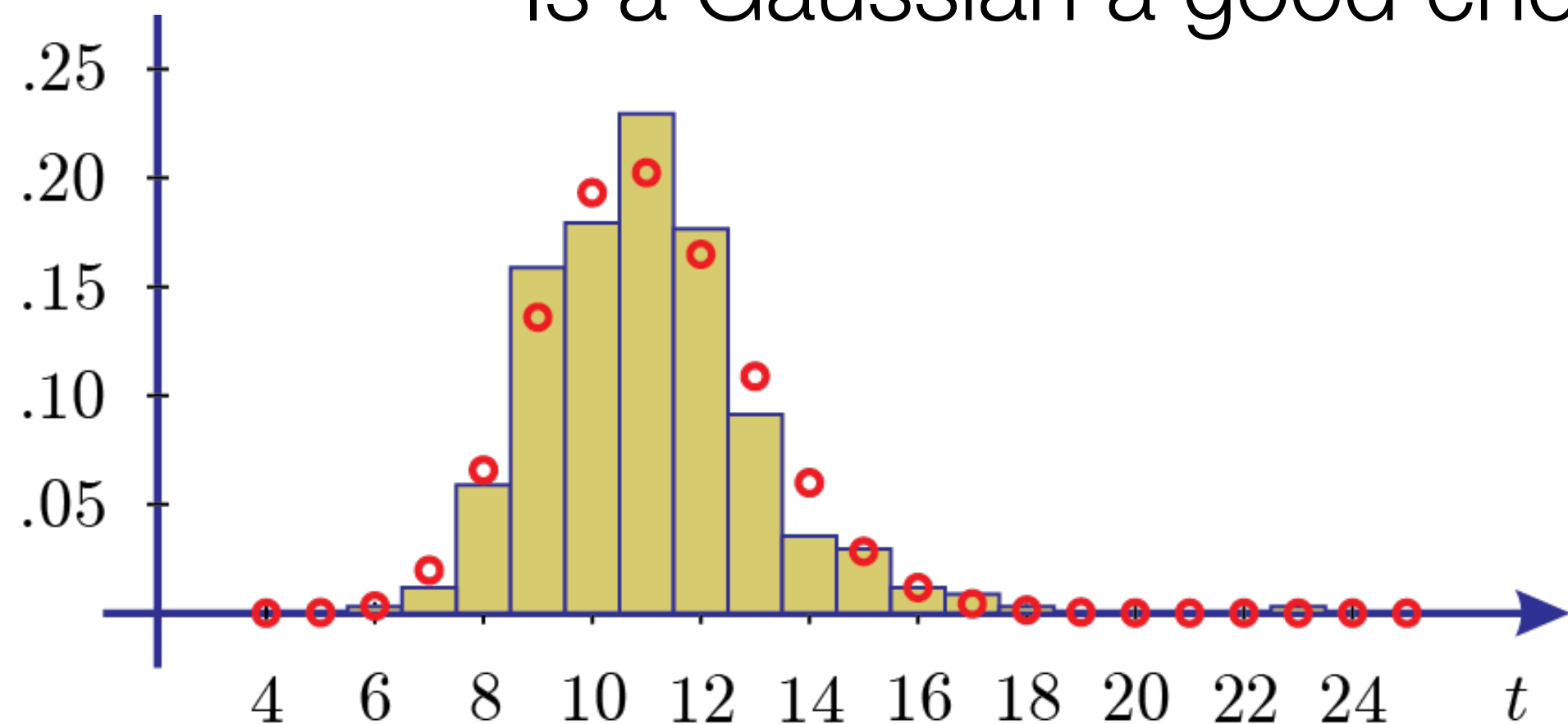
- **Random variables** takes different values with some probability
- The value of one variable can be informative about the value of another
  - Distributions of multiple random variables are described by the **joint** probability distribution (joint PMF or joint PDF)
  - You can have a new distribution over one variable when you **condition** on the other
- The **expected value** of a random variable is an **average** over its values, **weighted** by the probability of each value
- The **variance** of a random variable is the expected squared distance from the mean
- The **covariance** and **correlation** of two random variables can summarize how changes in one are informative about changes in the other.



# Exercise applying your knowledge

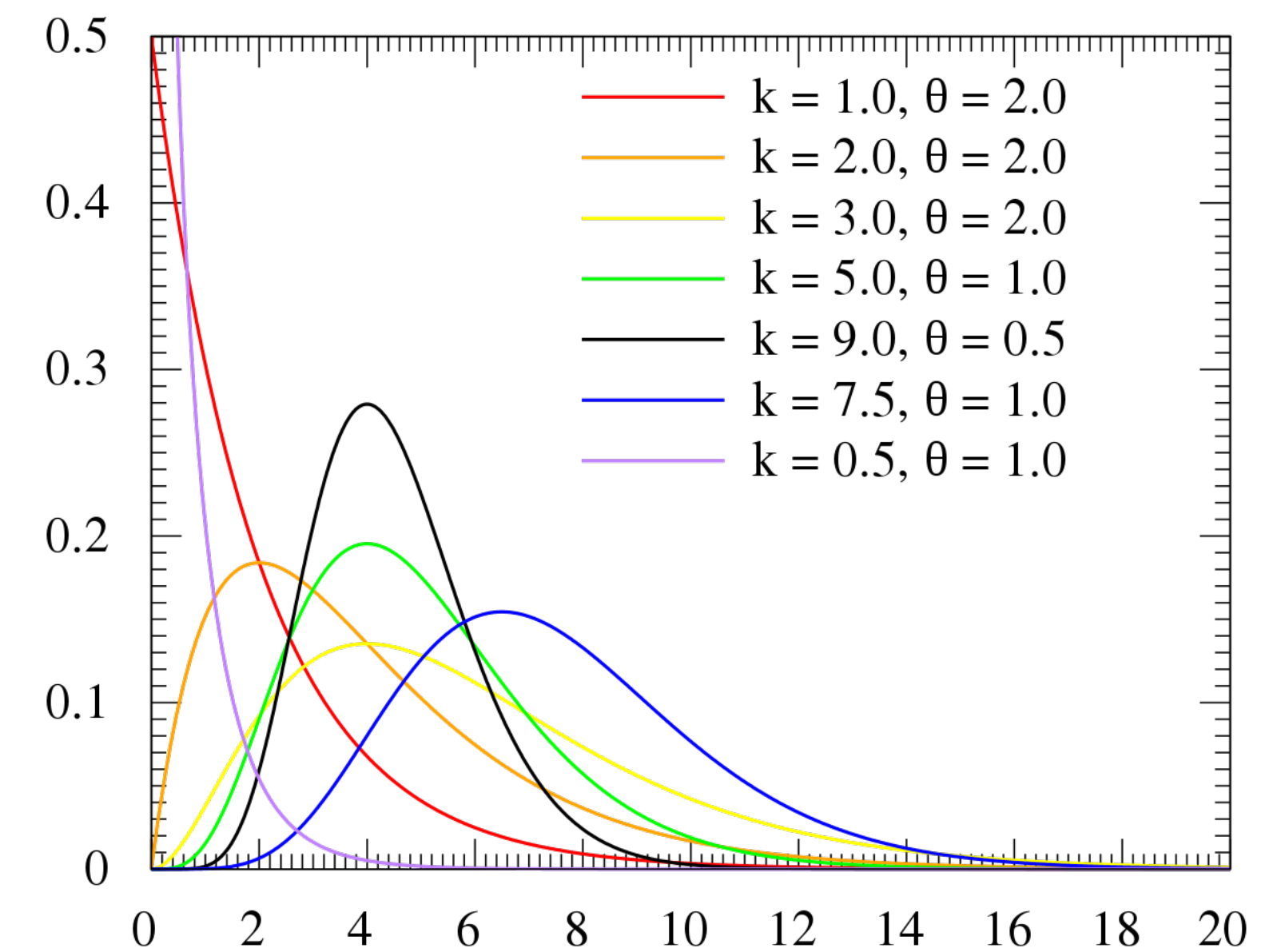
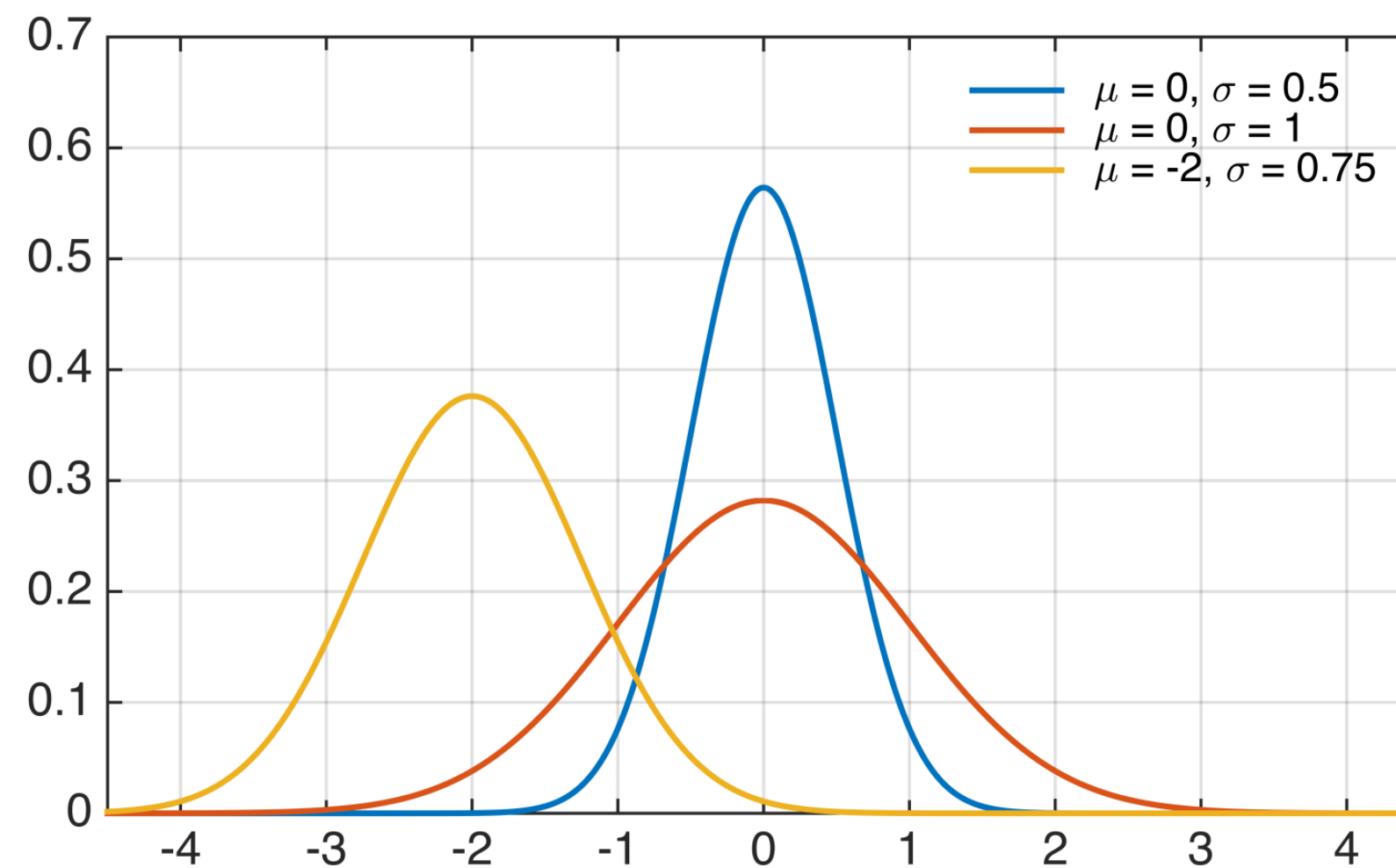
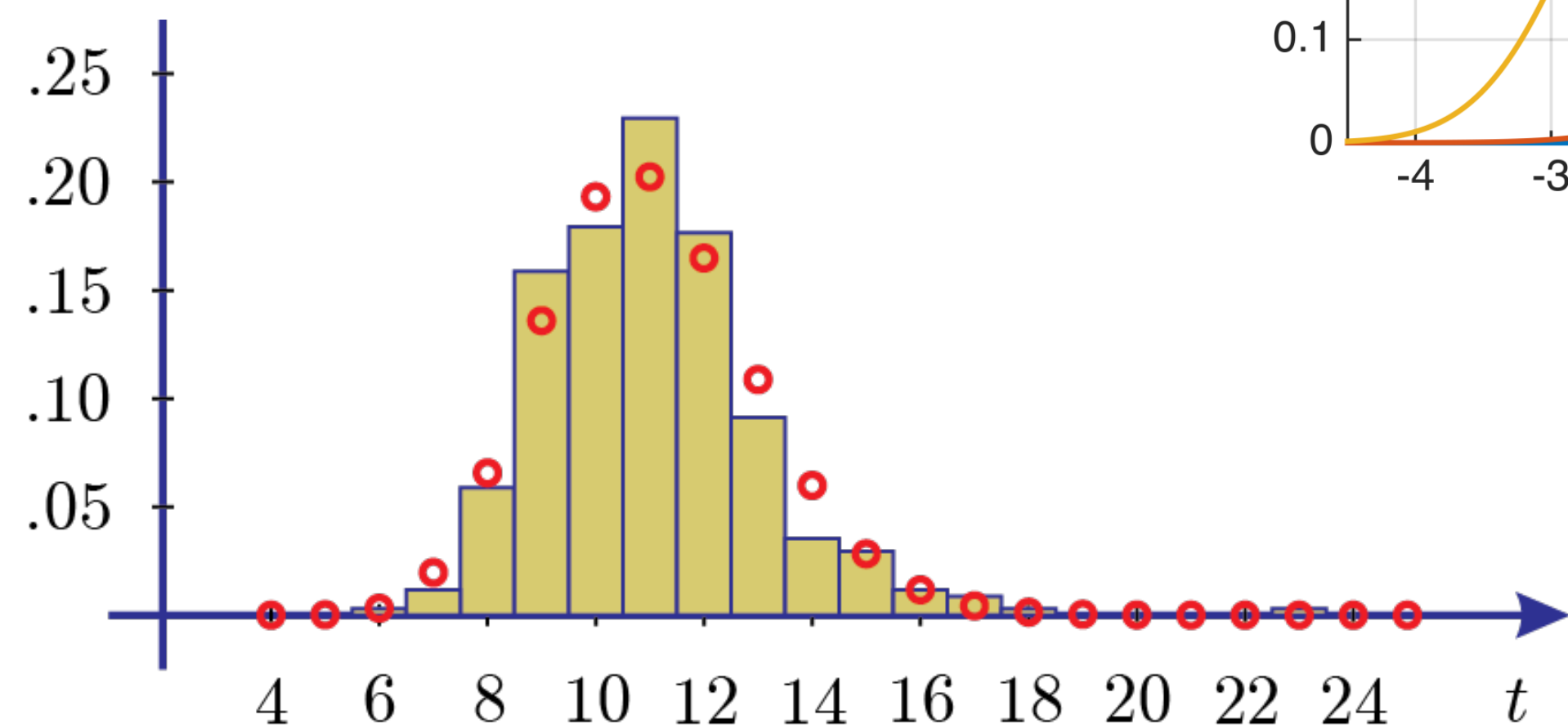
- Let's revisit the commuting example, and assume we collect continuous commute times
- We want to model commute time as a Gaussian
- What parameters do I have to specify (or learn) to model commute times with a Gaussian?
- Is a Gaussian a good choice?

$$p(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\omega-\mu)^2}$$



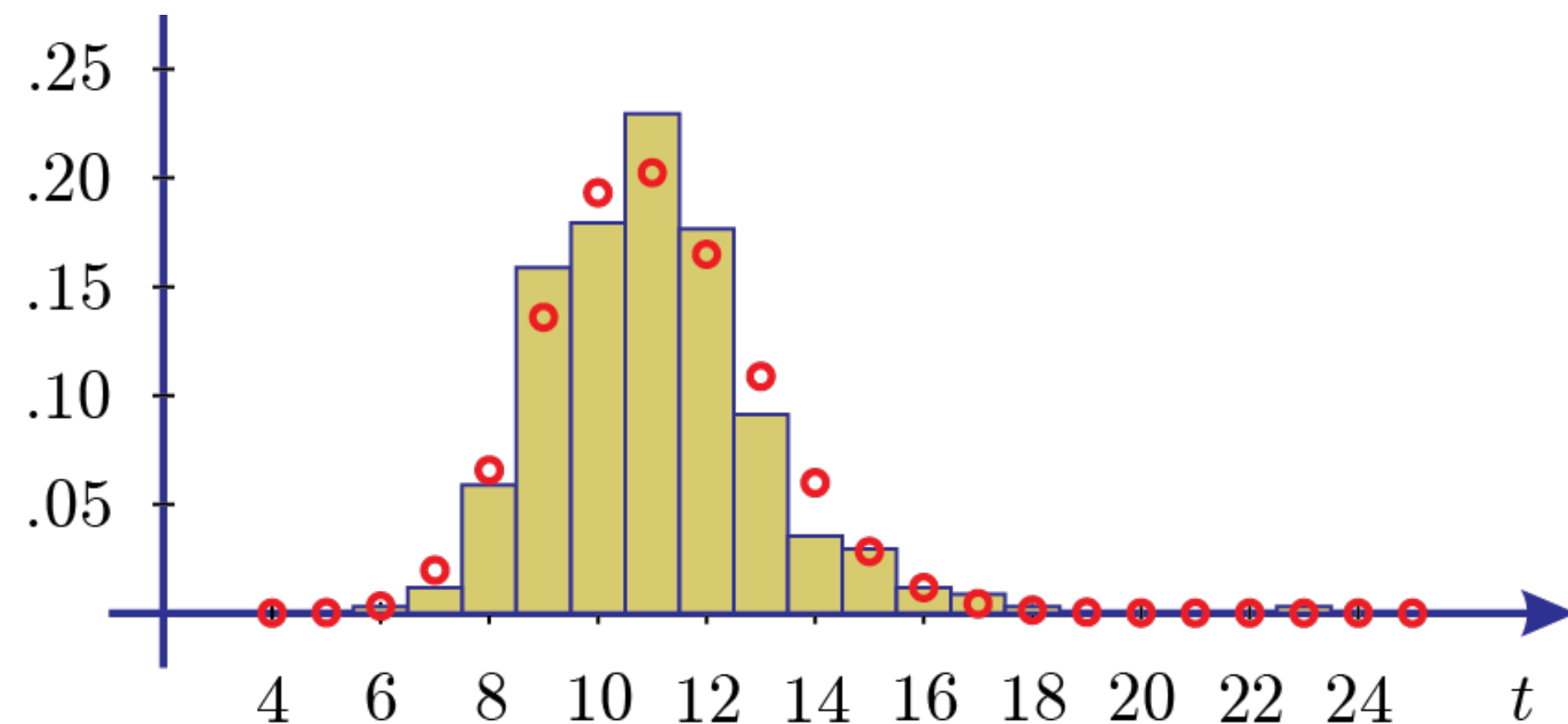
# Exercise applying your knowledge

- A better choice is actually what is called a Gamma distribution



# Exercise applying your knowledge

- We can also consider conditional distributions  $p(y | x)$
- $Y$  is the commute time, let  $X$  be the month
- Why is it useful to know  $p(y | X = \text{Feb})$  and  $p(y | X = \text{Sept})$ ?
- What else could we use for  $X$  and why pick it?



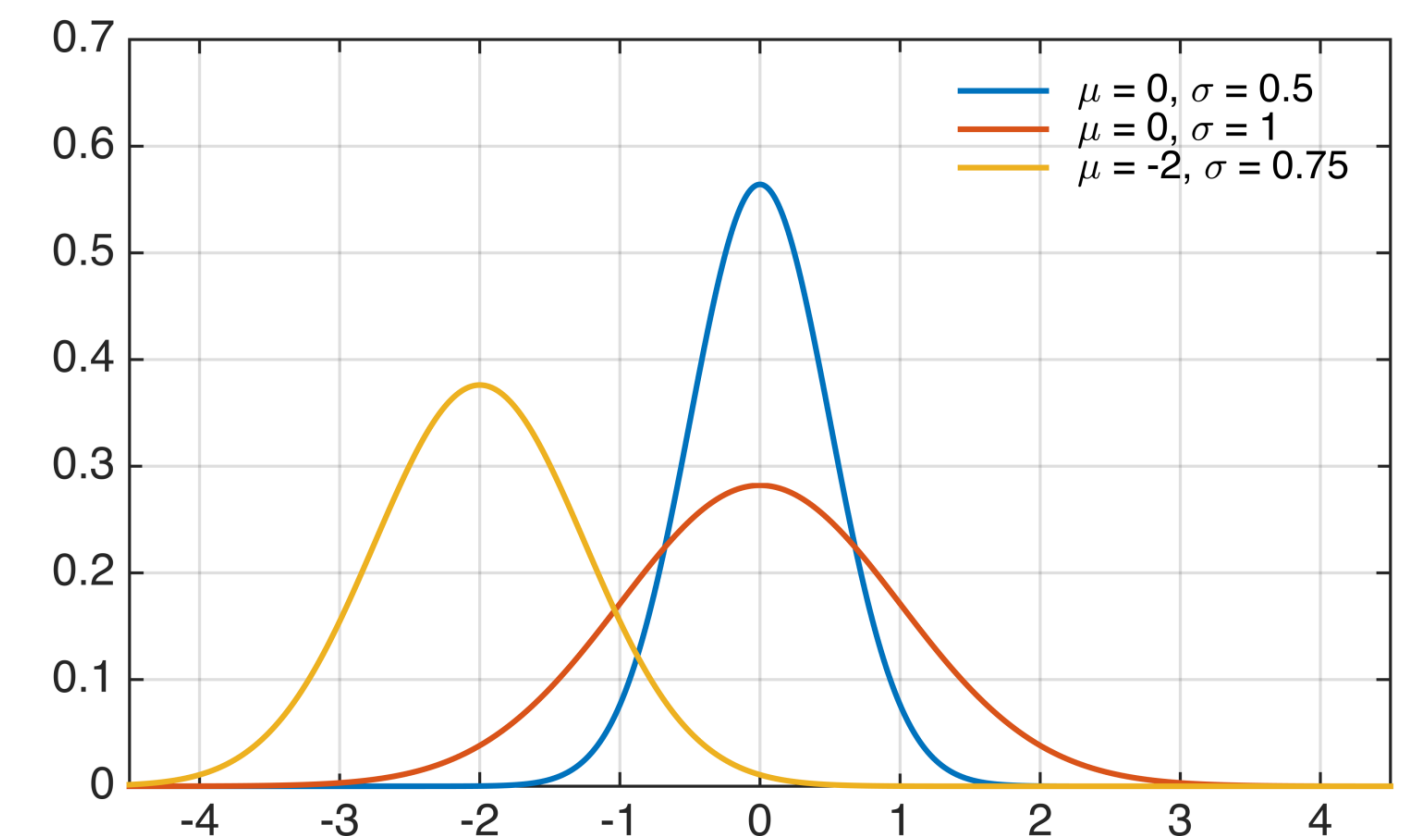
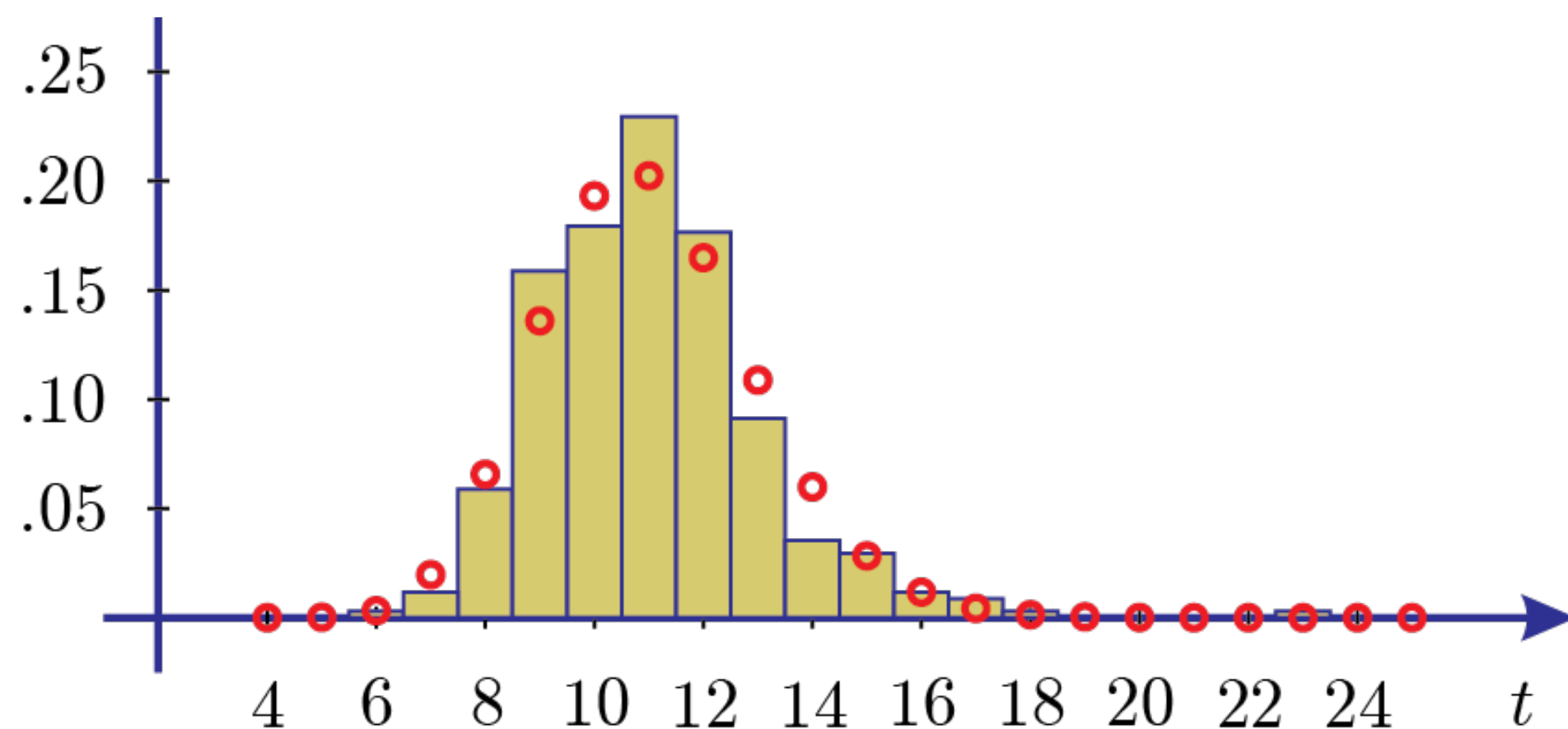
# Exercise applying your knowledge

- Let use a simple  $X$ , where it is 1 if it is slippery out and 0 otherwise
- Then we could model two Gaussians, one for the two types of conditions

$$p(y|X = 0) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$$

$$p(y|X = 1) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$$

Gaussian denoted by N



# Exercise applying your knowledge

- Eventually we will see how to model the distribution over  $Y$  using functions of other variables (features)  $X$

$$p(y|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mu = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_j, \sigma^2\right)$$

