



Fundamentals of Probability

Alexander G. Ororbia II and Viet Nguyen

Introduction to Machine Learning

CSCI-335

9/14/2026

NumPy Statistics Functions

Table 2-9. NumPy Functions for Calculating Aggregates of NumPy Arrays

NumPy Function	Description
<code>np.mean</code>	The average of all values in the array
<code>np.std</code>	Standard deviation
<code>np.var</code>	Variance
<code>np.sum</code>	The sum of all elements
<code>np.prod</code>	The product of all elements
<code>np.cumsum</code>	The cumulative sum of all elements
<code>np.cumprod</code>	The cumulative product of all elements
<code>np.min, np.max</code>	The minimum/maximum value in an array
<code>np.argmin, np.argmax</code>	The index of the minimum/maximum value in an array
<code>np.all</code>	Returns True if all elements in the argument array are nonzero
<code>np.any</code>	Returns True if any of the elements in the argument array is nonzero

Σ = summation (capital sigma)

Π = product (capital pi)

- Can calculate certain statistics over tensors

Elementwise composed functions

We compose/create functions out of the basic/elemental elementwise functions we saw before!

- Applied to each element (i, j) of matrix/vector argument
 - *Can build from simple routines:*
 $\cos(\cdot)$, $\sin(\cdot)$, $\exp(\cdot)$, etc. (the “ $\cdot$ ” means argument)

- **Identity:** $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{v}$

- **Logistic Sigmoid:** $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \sigma(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{v}}}$

- **Softmax:** $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{v})}{\sum_{c=1}^C \exp(\mathbf{v}_c)}$

$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^C$$

- **Linear Rectifier:** $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \max(0, \mathbf{v})$


$$\phi\left(\begin{array}{|c|c|}\hline 1.0 & -1.4 \\ \hline -0.69 & 1.8 \\ \hline\end{array}\right) = \begin{array}{|c|c|}\hline \phi(1.0) = 1 & \phi(-1.4) = 0 \\ \hline \phi(-0.69) = 0 & \phi(1.8) = 1.8 \\ \hline\end{array}$$

Tensor logical expression functions

Table 2-10. NumPy Functions for Conditional and Logical Expressions

Function	Description
<code>np.where</code>	Chooses values from two arrays depending on the value of a condition array
<code>np.choose</code>	Chooses values from a list of arrays depending on the values of a given index array
<code>np.select</code>	Chooses values from a list of arrays depending on a list of conditions
<code>np.nonzero</code>	Returns an array with indices of nonzero elements
<code>np.logical_and</code>	Performs an elementwise AND operation
<code>np.logical_or</code> , <code>np.logical_xor</code>	Elementwise OR/XOR operations
<code>np.logical_not</code>	Elementwise NOT operation (inverting)

NumPy aggregation functions (aggregators)

Table 2-9. NumPy Functions for Calculating Aggregates of NumPy Arrays

NumPy Function	Description
<code>np.sum</code>	The sum of all elements ← Σ = summation (capital sigma)
<code>np.prod</code>	The product of all elements ← Π = product (capital pi)
<code>np.min</code> , <code>np.max</code>	The minimum/maximum value in an array
<code>np.argmin</code> , <code>np.argmax</code>	The index of the minimum/maximum value in an array

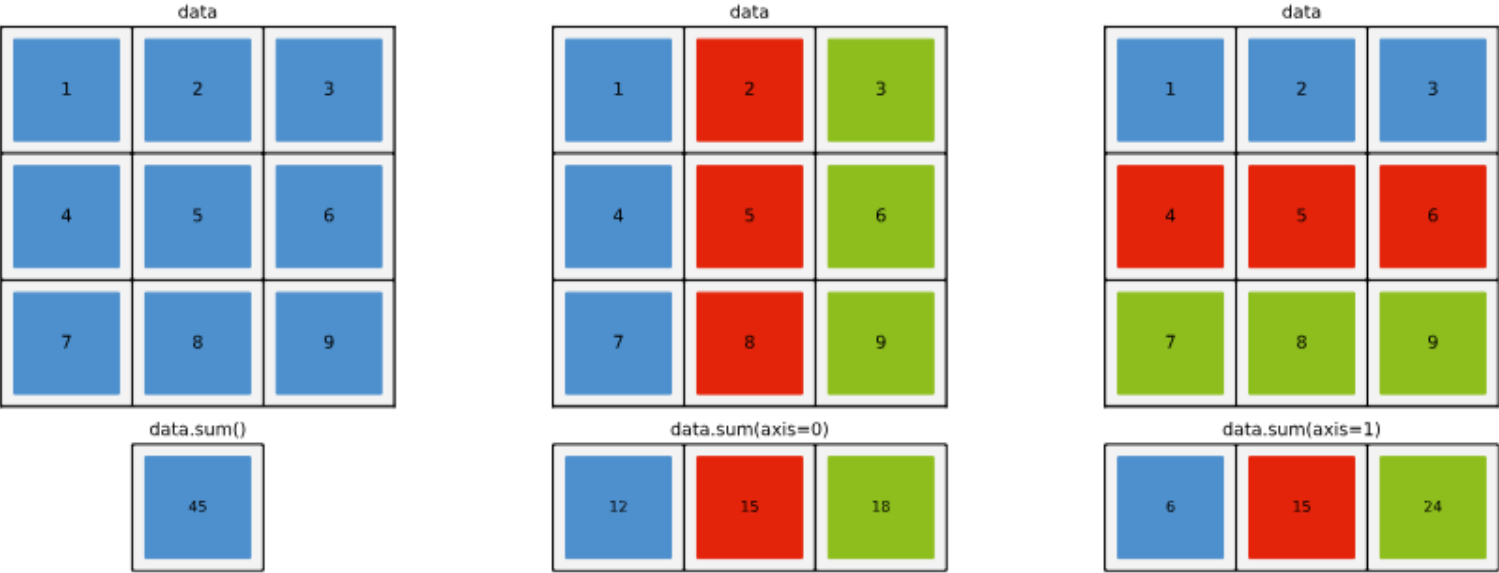


Figure 2-3. Illustration of array aggregation functions along all axes (left), the first axis (center), and the second axis (right) of a two-dimensional array of shape 3 x 3

Elementwise composed functions

- *Can build from simple routines:*
cos(.), sin(.), exp(.), etc. (the “.” means argument)

Softmax: $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{v})}{\sum_{c=1}^C \exp(\mathbf{v}_c)}$

Sigmoid: $\phi(\mathbf{v}) = \sigma(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\mathbf{v}}}$

Let's write these out to
our Python interpreter!

NumPy Function

np.cos, np.sin, np.tan
np.arccos, np.arcsin, np.arctan
np.cosh, np.sinh, np.tanh
np.arccosh, np.arcsinh, np.arctanh
np.sqrt
np.exp
np.log, np.log2, np.log10

NumPy Function

np.add, np.subtract,
np.multiply, np.divide
np.power

np.remainder

np.reciprocal

np.real, np.imag, np.conj

np.sign, np.abs
np.floor, np.ceil, np rint
np.round

Uncertainty

Let action A_t = leave for airport t minutes before flight
Will A_t get me there on time?

Problems:

1. partial observability (road state, other drivers' plans, etc.)
2. noisy sensors (traffic reports)
3. uncertain (non-deterministic) action outcomes (flat tire, etc.)
4. immense complexity of modeling and predicting traffic

Set of actions:

$\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_t, \dots, A_T\}$

Hence a purely logical approach either

1. risks falsehood: " A_{25} will get me there on time", or
2. leads to conclusions that are too weak for decision making: " A_{25} will get me there on time if there's no accident on the bridge and it doesn't rain and my tires remain intact etc etc."

A_{1440} might reasonably be said to get me there on time but I'd have to stay overnight in the airport ...

Probability in Context

Probability theory

- Branch of mathematics concerned with analysis of random phenomena
 - *Randomness*: a non-order or non-coherence in a sequence of symbols or steps, such that there is no intelligible pattern or combination
- Central objects of probability theory are:
random variables, stochastic processes, and **events**
 - Mathematical abstractions of non-deterministic events or measured quantities that may either be single occurrences or evolve over time in an apparently random fashion

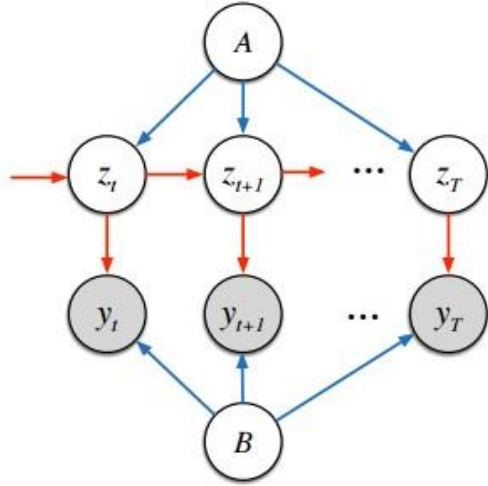
Uncertainty

- A lack of knowledge about an event
- Can be represented by a probability
 - Ex: role a die, draw a card
- Can be represented as an error

A statistic (a measure in **statistics**)

- Can use probability in determining that measure

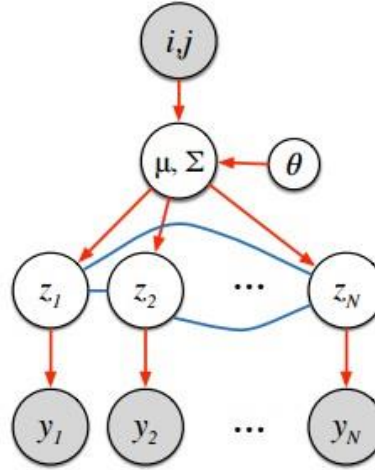
Why do we care? Probability allows us to build models of stochastic, data-generating processes; also, machine learning has historically/originally referred to as *statistical learning*



Gaussian Linear State Space Model
Kalman Filter

$$z_t \sim \mathcal{N}(z_t | Az_{t-1}, \sigma_z^2 I)$$

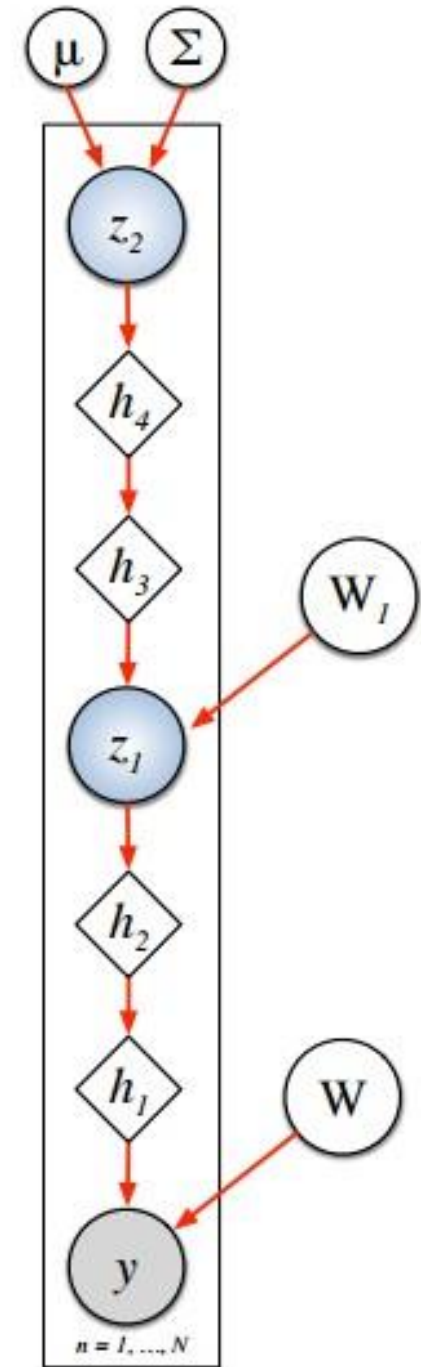
$$y_t \sim \mathcal{N}(y_t | Bz_t, \sigma_y^2 I)$$



Latent Gaussian Cox Point Process

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(x | \mu(i, j), \Sigma(i, j))$$

$$y_{ij} \sim \mathcal{P}(c \exp(x_{ij}))$$



Probabilistic graphical models (PGMs)

Founders of Probability Theory



Blaise Pascal

(1623-1662, France)



Pierre Fermat

(1601-1665, France)

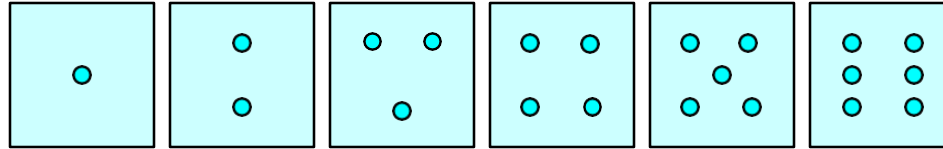
Laid the foundations of the probability theory in a correspondence on a dice game posed by a French nobleman

Sample Spaces: Measures of Events

Collection (list) of all possible outcomes

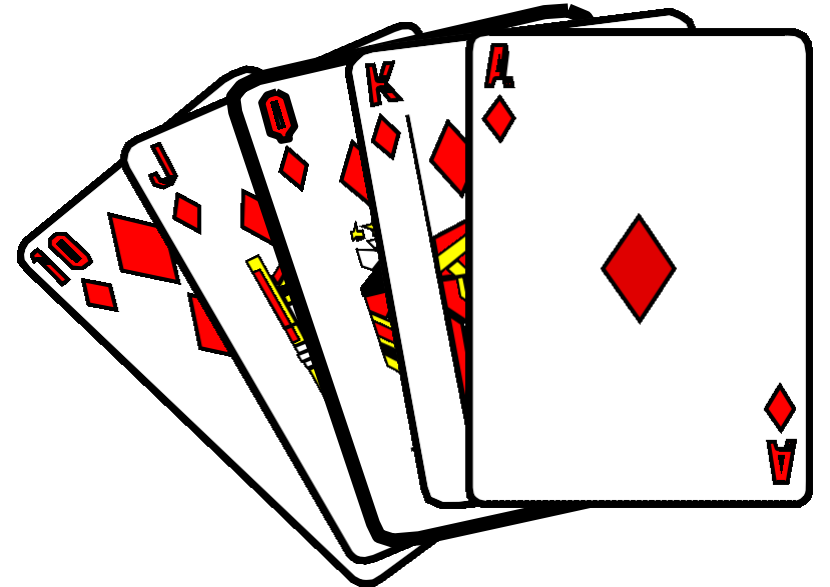
Experiment: Roll a die!

– e.g.: All six faces of a die:



Experiment: Draw a card! (Any card!)

e.g.: All 52 cards in a deck:



Types of Events

Event

- Subset of sample space (set of outcomes of experiment)

Random event

- Different likelihoods of occurrence

Simple event

- Outcome from a sample space with one characteristic in simplest form
- e.g.: King of clubs from a deck of cards

Joint event

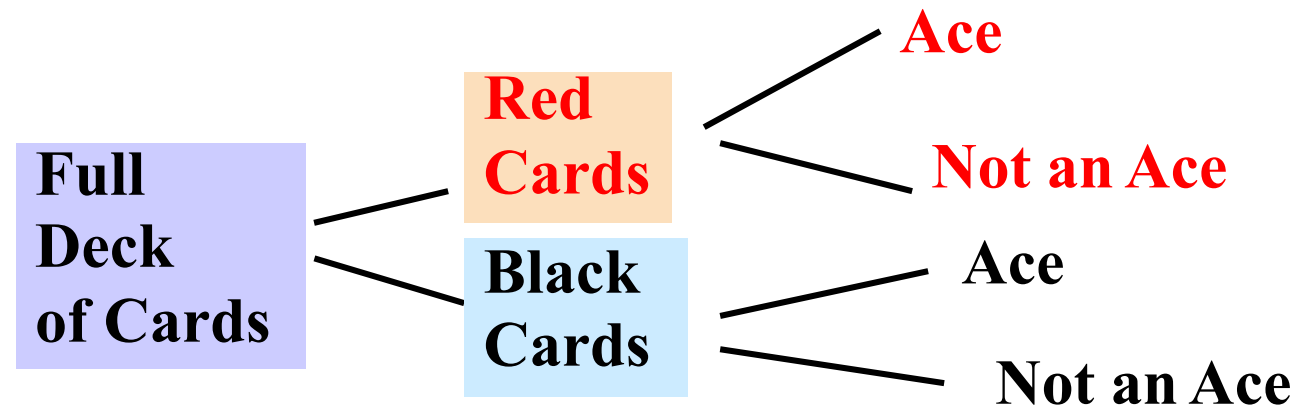
- Conjunction (AND, $\wedge$, “,”); disjunction (OR, $\vee$)
- Contains several simple events
- e.g.: A red ace from a deck of cards – $P(\text{red ace} \vee \text{ace of diamonds})$
(ace on hearts OR ace of diamonds)

Visualizing Events

Excellent ways of determining probabilities, can be built from data
Contingency tables (nice way to look at probability):

	Ace	Not Ace	Total
Black	2	24	26
Red	2	24	26
Total	4	48	52

Tree diagrams:



Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

- Uses relative frequencies as estimates
- Maximizes likelihood of training data D under a simple model M , or $P(D|M)$
- With discrete data, we can employ a *counting function* $\mathbf{c}(A=a)$, that returns frequency of a particular value taken on by attribute A
 - *Note:* $\mathbf{c}(A=a)$ is actually $\mathbf{c}(A=a, D)$, where D is a dataset
- **Issue:** What happens with sparse data?

You're thinking like a frequentist now!

An Example: A Unigram Language Model

w_i is particular word in W ,
where W is set of unique
words (or vocabulary)

- Do not use history:

Probability of a word
given a word
sequence/history

$$\longrightarrow P(w_i | w_1 \dots w_{i-1}) \approx P(w_i) = \frac{c(w_i)}{\sum_{\tilde{w}} c(\tilde{w})}$$

i live in osaka . </s>

i am a graduate student . </s>

my school is in nara . </s>

$$P(\text{nara}) = 1/20 = 0.05$$

$$P(i) = 2/20 = 0.1$$

$$P(</s>) = 3/20 = 0.15$$

$$P(W = \text{i live in nara . </s>}) =$$

$$0.1 * 0.05 * 0.1 * 0.05 * 0.15 * 0.15 = 5.625 * 10^{-7}$$

Axioms of Probability

Given 2 events: x, y

- 1) $P(x \text{ OR } y) = P(x) + P(y) - P(x \text{ AND } y)$;
note for **mutually exclusive events** then $P(x \text{ AND } y) = 0$
- 2) $P(x \text{ and } y) = P(x) * P(y | x)$, also written as $P(y | x) = P(x \text{ and } y) / P(x)$
- 3) If x and y are *independent*, $P(y | x) = P(y)$, thus $P(x \text{ AND } y) = P(x) * P(y)$
- 4) $P(x) > P(x) * P(y)$; $P(y) > P(x) * P(y)$ [a property!]

Probability Mass Function (PMF)

- The domain of P must be the set of all possible states of $\mathbf{x}$.
- $\forall x \in \mathbf{x}, 0 \leq P(x) \leq 1$. An impossible event has probability 0 and no state can be less probable than that. Likewise, an event that is guaranteed to happen has probability 1, and no state can have a greater chance of occurring.
- $\sum_{x \in \mathbf{x}} P(x) = 1$. We refer to this property as being **normalized**. Without this property, we could obtain probabilities greater than one by computing the probability of one of many events occurring.

Example: uniform distribution:
$$P(\mathbf{x} = x_i) = \frac{1}{k}$$

Probability Density Function (PDF)

- The domain of p must be the set of all possible states of x .
- $\forall x \in \mathbf{x}, p(x) \geq 0$. Note that we do not require $p(x) \leq 1$.
- $\int p(x)dx = 1$.

Example: uniform distribution: $u(x; a, b) = \frac{1}{b-a}$.

Computing Marginal Probability with the Sum Rule

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{x}, P(\mathbf{x} = x) = \sum_y P(\mathbf{x} = x, y = y). \quad (3.3)$$

Summation $\rightarrow$ *Discrete*
random variables!

$$p(x) = \int p(x, y) dy. \quad (3.4)$$

Integration $\rightarrow$ *Continuous*
random variables!

Also known as marginalization!

Conditional Probability

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

In probability theory, **conditional probability** is a measure of the probability of an event given that (by assumption, presumption, assertion or evidence) another event has occurred

Chain Rule of Probability

$$P(x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(n)}) = P(x^{(1)}) \prod_{i=2}^n P(x^{(i)} \mid x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(i-1)})$$

In probability theory, the **chain rule** (also called the **general product rule**) permits the calculation of any member of the joint distribution of a set of random variables using only conditional probabilities

Independence

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{x}, y \in \mathbf{y}, p(\mathbf{x} = x, \mathbf{y} = y) = p(\mathbf{x} = x)p(\mathbf{y} = y)$$

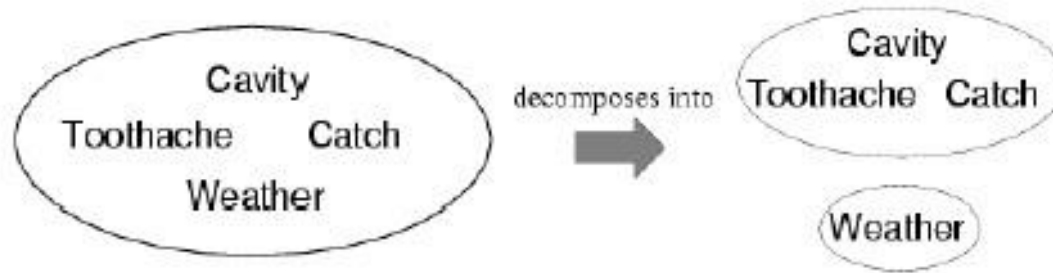
Two events are **independent**, **statistically independent**, or **stochastically independent** if occurrence of one does not affect probability of occurrence of the other

Similarly, two random variables are independent ***if*** realization of one does not affect probability distribution of other

(Absolute) Independence

A and B are independent iff (Note: following are equivalent)

$$\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{P}(B|A) = \mathbf{P}(B) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{P}(A, B) = \mathbf{P}(A) \mathbf{P}(B)$$



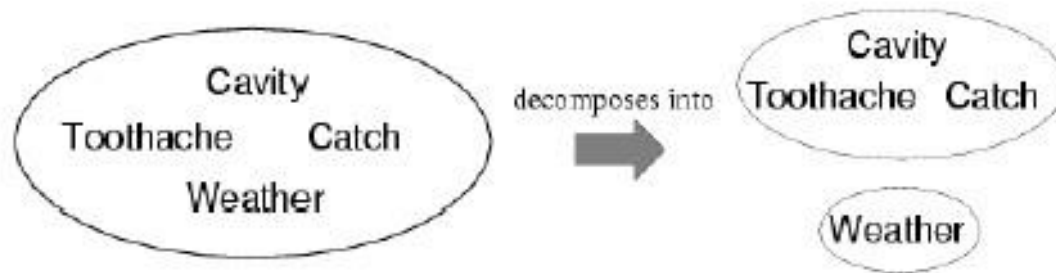
$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}, \textit{Cavity}, \textit{Weather}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}, \textit{Cavity}) \mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}) \end{aligned}$$

**For your
review!**

(Absolute) Independence

A and B are independent iff (Note: following are equivalent)

$$\mathbf{P}(A|B) = \mathbf{P}(A) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{P}(B|A) = \mathbf{P}(B) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{P}(A, B) = \mathbf{P}(A) \mathbf{P}(B)$$



$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}, \textit{Cavity}, \textit{Weather}) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(\textit{Toothache}, \textit{Catch}, \textit{Cavity}) \mathbf{P}(\textit{Weather}) \end{aligned}$$

32 ($2^3 * 4$ (*Weather*)) entries reduced to 12 ($2^3 + 4$ (*Weather*))

Absolute independence is powerful, but rare.

**For your
review!**

Conditional Independence

$$\forall x \in \mathbf{x}, y \in \mathbf{y}, z \in \mathbf{z}, p(x = x, y = y \mid z = z) = p(x = x \mid z = z)p(y = y \mid z = z)$$

Two events x and y are **conditionally independent** given a third event z if occurrence of x *and* occurrence of y are independent events in their conditional probability distribution given z

In other words, x and y are conditionally independent given z if and only if (**iff**), given knowledge that z occurs, knowledge of whether x occurs provides no information on likelihood of y occurring, and knowledge of whether y occurs provides no information on likelihood of x occurring

Conditional Independence

If I have a cavity, probability the probe catches doesn't depend on whether I have a toothache:

$$(1) \mathbf{P}(\text{catch} \mid \text{toothache}, \text{cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{catch} \mid \text{cavity})$$

The same independence holds if I haven't got a cavity:

$$(2) \mathbf{P}(\text{catch} \mid \text{toothache}, \neg \text{cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{catch} \mid \neg \text{cavity})$$

Catch is **conditionally independent** of *Toothache* given *Cavity*:

$$(3) \mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache}, \text{Catch} \mid \text{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Cavity}) \mathbf{P}(\text{Catch} \mid \text{Cavity})$$

Equivalent statements:

$$\mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Catch}, \text{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Toothache} \mid \text{Cavity})$$

$$\mathbf{P}(\text{Catch} \mid \text{Toothache}, \text{Cavity}) = \mathbf{P}(\text{Catch} \mid \text{Cavity})$$

**For your
review!**

Bayes, in English Please?

- What does Bayes' Formula helps to find?
- Helps us to find:

$$P(B | A)$$

- By having already known:

$$P(A | B)$$

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



Thomas Bayes, 1701-1761

Bayes, in English Please?

- What does Bayes' Formula helps to find?

- Helps us to find:

$$P(B | A)$$

**Bayes Theorem
shall return!**

- By having already known:

$$P(A | B)$$

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



Thomas Bayes, 1701-1761

Bayes' Rule

Product rule: $P(a \wedge b) = P(a | b) P(b) = P(b | a) P(a)$

$\Rightarrow$ Bayes' rule: $P(a | b) = P(b | a) P(a) / P(b)$

or in distribution form

$$P(Y|X) = P(X|Y) P(Y) / P(X) = \alpha P(X|Y) P(Y)$$

Causal Probability (useful for diagnostics):

$$P(\text{Cause} | \text{Effect}) = P(\text{Effect} | \text{Cause}) P(\text{Cause}) / P(\text{Effect})$$

E.g., let M be meningitis, S be stiff neck:

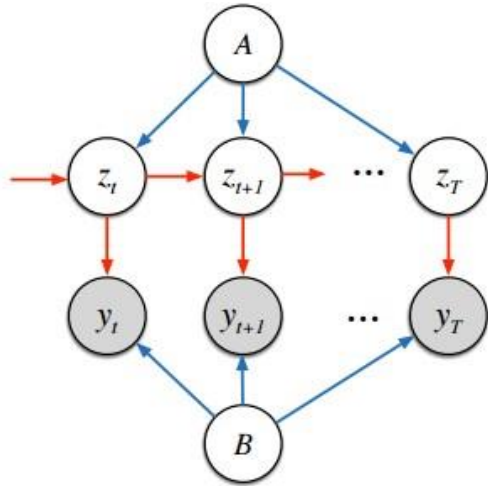
$$P(m|s) = P(s|m) P(m) / P(s) = 0.8 \times 0.0001 / 0.1 = 0.0008$$

Note: posterior probability of meningitis still very small!

Summary of Probability

- Probability is rigorous formalism for *uncertain* knowledge
- Joint probability distribution specifies probability of every atomic event (in sample/event space)
- *Queries* can be answered by summing over atomic events
- For nontrivial domains, we must find ways to reduce joint probability distributional search space
 - *Independence & conditional independence* = your tools for reducing joint probability distribution table size
- **Note:** These ideas/axioms apply equally well to vector/matrix variables

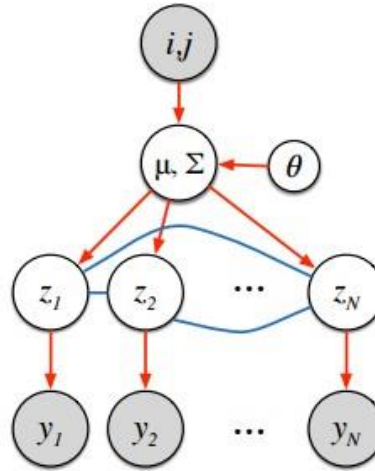
Probability allows us to build models of stochastic, data-generating processes....



Gaussian Linear State Space Model
Kalman Filter

$$z_t \sim \mathcal{N}(z_t | Az_{t-1}, \sigma_z^2 I)$$

$$y_t \sim \mathcal{N}(y_t | Bz_t, \sigma_y^2 I)$$

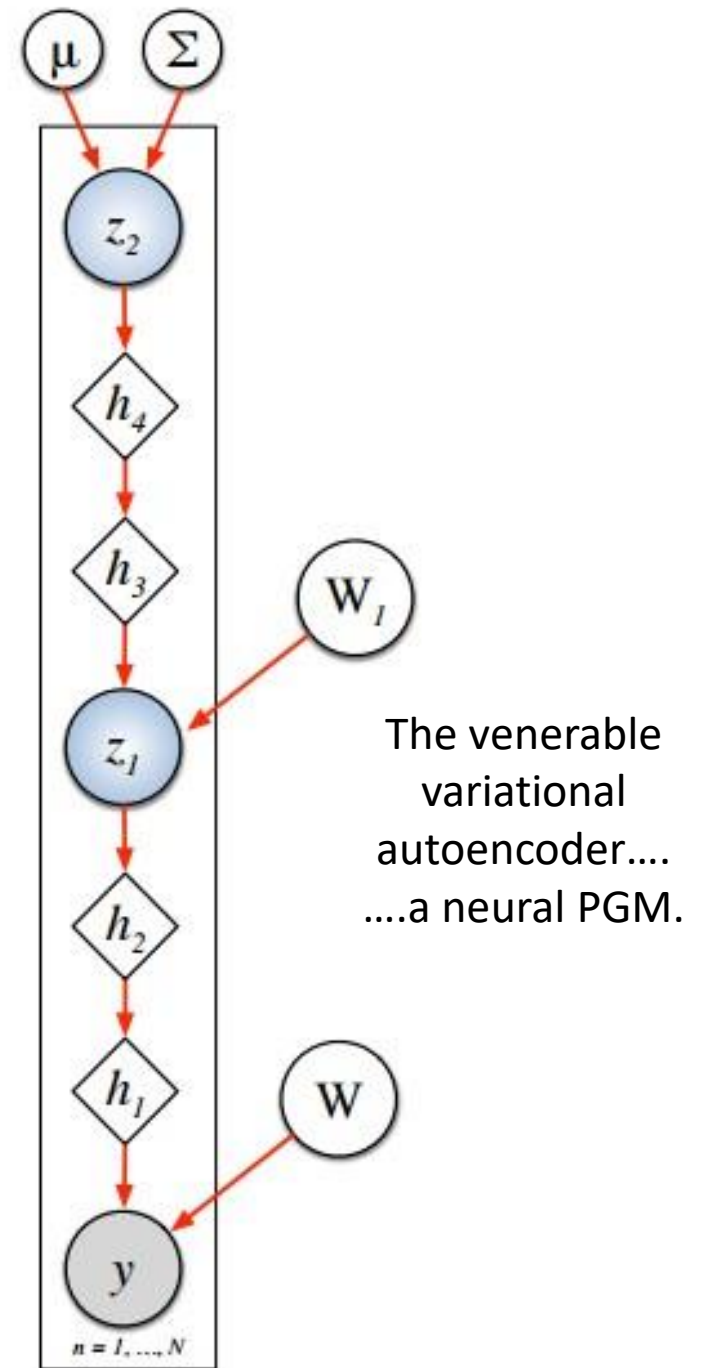


Latent Gaussian Cox Point Process

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(x | \mu(i, j), \Sigma(i, j))$$

$$y_{ij} \sim \mathcal{P}(c \exp(x_{ij}))$$

Probabilistic graphical models (PGMs)



QUESTIONS?

Deep robots!

Deep questions?!

