Machine Learning

Lecture 01-1: Basics of Probability Theory

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Outline

- 1 Basic Concepts in Probability Theory
- 2 Interpretation of Probability
- 3 Univariate Probability Distributions
- 4 Multivariate Probability
 - Bayes' Theorem
- 5 Parameter Estimation

Random Experiments

- Probability associated with a random experiment a process with uncertain outcomes
- Often kept implicit











Tail

Head

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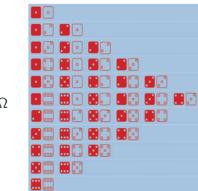


Head

In machine learning, we often assume that data are generated by a hypothetical process (or a model), and task is to determine the structure and parameters of the model from data.

Sample Space

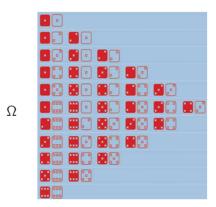
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- Example: Rolling two dices.



Ω

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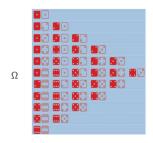
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Elements in a sample space are outcomes.

Events

Event: A subset of the sample space.



Example: The two results add to 4.



Probability Weight Function

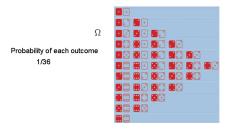
■ A **probability weight** $P(\omega)$ is assigned to each outcome.

 $$\Omega$$ Probability of each outcome 1/36



Probability Weight Function

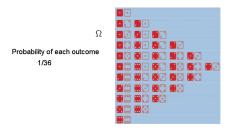
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Probability Weight Function

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In Machine Learning, we often need to determine the probability weights, or related parameters, from data. This task is called **parameter learning**.

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that satisfies Kolmogorov's axioms:

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In a more advanced treatment of Probability Theory, we would start with the concept of probability measure, instead of probability weights.

Random Variables

- A random variable is a function over the sample space.
 - Example: X = sum of the two results. X((2,5)) = 7; X((3,1)) = 4)



■ Why is it random?

Random Variables

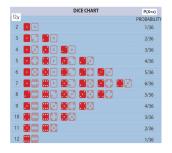
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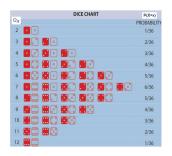
- Why is it random? The experiment.
- **Domain** of a random variable: Set of all its possible values.

$$\Omega_X = \{2, 3, \dots, 12\}$$

Random Variables and Event

• A random variable X taking a specific value x is an event:

$$\Omega_{X=x} = \{\omega \in \Omega | X(\omega) = x\}$$



Probability Mass Function (Distribution)

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- $P(X = 4) = P(\{(1,3),(2,2,)(3,1)\}) = \frac{3}{36}.$
- If X is continuous, we have a **density function** p(X).

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■ The frequentist interpretation is meaningful only when experiment can be repeated under the same condition.

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 - Doesn't make sense under frequentist interpretation.
 - Subjectivist: degree of belief based on state of knowledge
 - Primary school student: 0.5
 - Me: 0.8
 - Geographer: 1 or 0
- Arguments such as **Dutch book** are used to explain why one's probability beliefs must satisfy Kolmogorov's axioms.

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 - As more and more data become available, we rely less and less on subjective beliefs.
 - Often, we also use **prior probabilities** to impose some **bias** on the kind of results we want from a machine learning algorithm.
- The subjectivist interpretation makes concepts such as conditional independence easy to understand.

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- Let X be the number of heads. Then X follows the **binomial** distribution, written as $X \sim Bin(n, \theta)$:

$$Bin(X = k|n, \theta) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{k} \theta^k (1 - \theta)^{n-k} & \text{if } 0 \le k \le n \\ 0 & \text{if } k < 0 \text{ or } k > n \end{cases}$$

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■ If n = 1, then X follows the **Bernoulli distribution**, written as $X \sim Ber(\theta)$

$$Ber(X = x | \theta) = \begin{cases} \theta & \text{if } x = 1\\ 1 - \theta & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Multinomial Distribution

■ Suppose we toss a K-sided die n times. At each time, the probability of getting result j is θ_i . Let $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_K)^\top$.

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- Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_K)$ be a random vector, where x_j is the number of times side j of the die occurs. Then \mathbf{x} follows the **multinomial distribution**, written as $\mathbf{x} \sim Multi(n, \boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$Multi(\mathbf{x}|n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_K} \prod_{j=1}^K \theta_k^{x_j},$$

where
$$\binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_K} = \frac{n!}{x_1! \dots x_K!}$$
 is the multinomial coefficient

Categorical Distribution

- In the previous slide, if n = 1, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, ..., x_K)$ has one component being 1 and the others are 0. In other words, it is a **one-hot** vector.
- In this case, \mathbf{x} follows the **categorical distribution**, written as $\mathbf{x} \sim \textit{Cat}(\theta)$

$$Cat(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \prod_{j=1}^{K} \theta_j^{\mathbf{1}(x_j=1)},$$

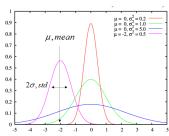
where $\mathbf{1}(x_j = 1)$ is the indicator function, whose value is 1 when $x_j = 1$ and 0 otherwise.

Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

- The most widely used distribution in statistics and machine learning is the Gaussian or normal distribution.
- Its probability density is given by

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$$

Here $\mu = E[X]$ is the mean (and mode), and $\sigma^2 = var[X]$ is the variance



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■ **Probability mass function** of a random variable *X*:

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■ Suppose there are *n* random variables $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$.

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- A **joint probability mass function**, $P(X_1, X_2, ..., X_n)$, over those random variables is:
 - a function defined on the Cartesian product of their state spaces:

$$\prod_{i=1}^n\Omega_{X_i}\to [0,1]$$

$$P(X_1 = x_1, X_2 = x_2, \dots, X_n = x_n) = P(\Omega_{X_1 = x_1} \cap \Omega_{X_2 = x_2} \cap \dots \cap \Omega_{X_n = x_n}).$$

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	public	private	others
low	.17	.01	.02
medium	.44	.03	.01
upper medium	.09	.07	.01
high	0	0.14	0.1

Multivariate Gaussian Distributions

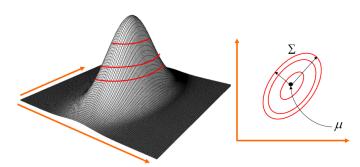
■ For continuous variables, the most commonly used joint distribution is the multivariate Gaussian distribution: $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|}} exp\left[-\frac{(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}{2} \right]$$

- D: dimensionality.
- **x**: vector of *D* random variables, representing data
- lacksquare μ : vector of means
- lacksquare Σ : covariance matrix. $|\Sigma|$ denotes the determinant of Σ .

Multivariate Gaussian Distributions

- A 2-D Gaussian distribution.
- $\blacksquare \mu$: center of contours
- \blacksquare Σ : orientation and size of contours



Marginal probability

What is the probability of a randomly selected apartment being a public one?

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What is the probability of a randomly selected apartment being a public one? (Law of total probability)

```
P(Type=pulic) = P(Type=public, Rent=low)+
```

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	public	private	others	P(Rent)
low	.17	.01	.02	.2
medium	.44	.03	.01	.48
upper medium	.09	.07	.01	.17
high	0	0.14	0.1	.15
P(Type)	.7	.25	.05	

 What is the probability of a randomly selected apartment being a public one? (Law of total probability)

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P(Type=pulic) = P(Type=public, Rent=low)+P(Type=public, Rent=medium)+ P(Type=public, Rent=upper medium)+ P(Type=public, Rent=high) = .7
P(Type=private) = P(Type=private, Rent=low)+ P(Type=private, Rent=medium)+ P(Type=private, Rent=upper medium)+ P(Type=private, Rent=high)= .25
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	public	private	others	P(Rent)
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medium	.44	.03	.01	.48
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Called marginal probability because written on the margins.

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A,B)}{P(B)} \left(= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}\right)$$

■ For events A and B:

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- Meaning:
 - \blacksquare P(A): My probability on A (without any knowledge about B)
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$$P(Rent=low|Type=private)$$

= $\frac{P(Rent=Low, Type=private)}{P(Type=private)}$ = .01/.25=.04

■ For events A and B:

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- What is the probability of a randomly selected private apartment having "low" rent?

$$P(Rent=low|Type=private)$$

= $\frac{P(Rent=Low, Type=private)}{P(Type=private)}$ = .01/.25=.04

In contrast:

$$P(Rent=low) = 0.2.$$

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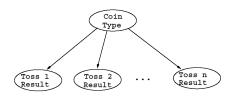
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Outline

- 1 Basic Concepts in Probability Theory
- 2 Interpretation of Probability
- 3 Univariate Probability Distributions
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 - If the doctor finds that the eyes of the patient are yellow, his belief about patient suffering from Hepatitis B would be > 0.1.

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That is: $posterior \propto prior \times likelihood$

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X: result of tossing a thumbtack







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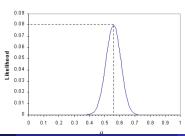
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MLE best explains data or best fits data.



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■ Taking the derivative of $\frac{dI(\theta|\mathcal{D})}{d\theta}$ and setting it to zero, we get

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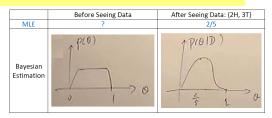
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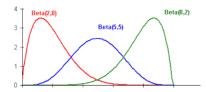
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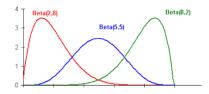
$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) \propto \theta^{m_h + \alpha_h - 1} (1 - \theta)^{m_t + \alpha_t - 1} \tag{2}$$



■ The normalization constant for the Beta distribution $B(\alpha_h, \alpha_t)$

$$\frac{\Gamma(\alpha_t + \alpha_h)}{\Gamma(\alpha_t)\Gamma(\alpha_h)}$$

where $\Gamma(.)$ is the **Gamma** function. For any integer α , $\Gamma(\alpha) = (\alpha - 1)!$. It is also defined for non-integers.



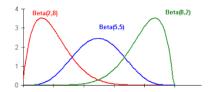
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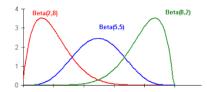
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- The larger the equivalent sample size, the more confident we are in our prior.

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- Conjugate families allow closed-form for posterior distribution of parameters and closed-form solution for prediction.

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■ After taking data \mathcal{D} into consideration, now our **updated belief** on X = T is $\frac{m_t + \alpha_t}{m_t + \alpha_t}$.

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■ In case 2,

$$P(D_{m+1} = H|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{30,000 + 100}{100,0000 + 100 + 100} \approx 0.3$$

Data prevail.



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- In this course, we will focus on MLE.