

# CS 461: Machine Learning Principles

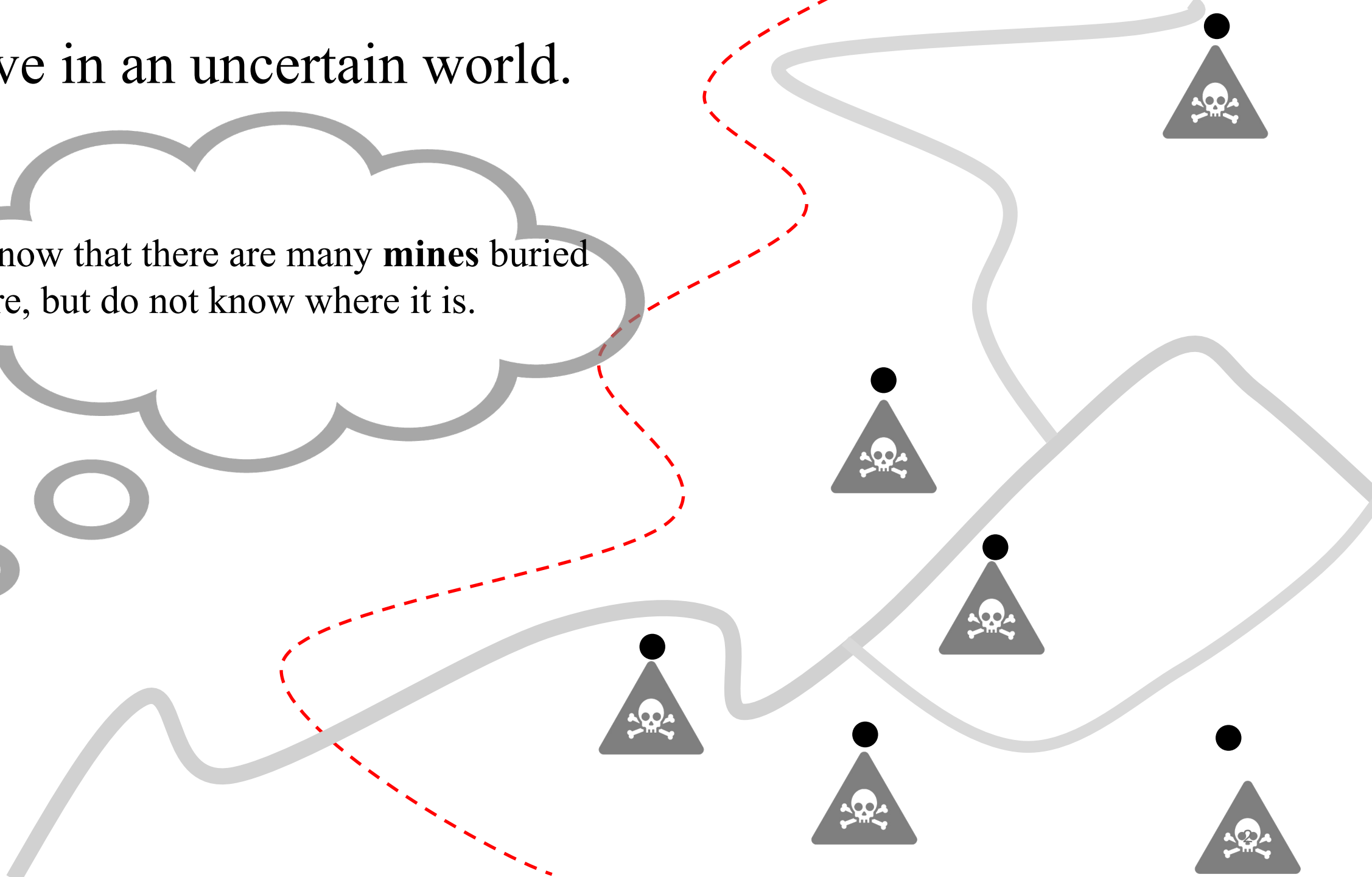
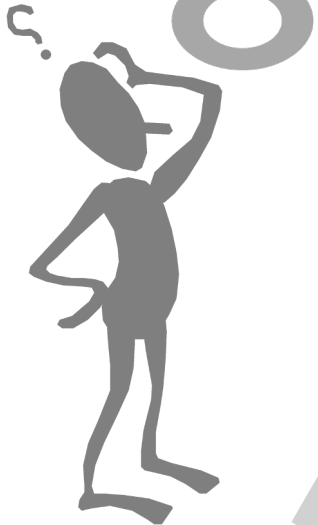
Class 2: Sept. 9

Probability 101 and Machine Learning

Instructor: Diana Kim

# We live in an uncertain world.

I know that there are many **mines** buried here, but do not know where it is.



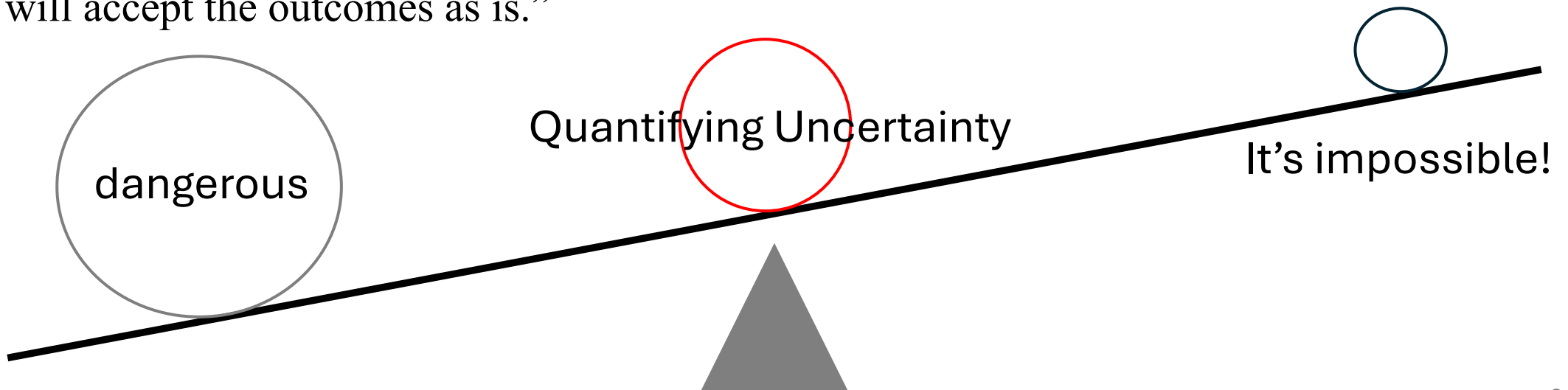
## Two Extreme Strategies to Uncertainty

### Random World:

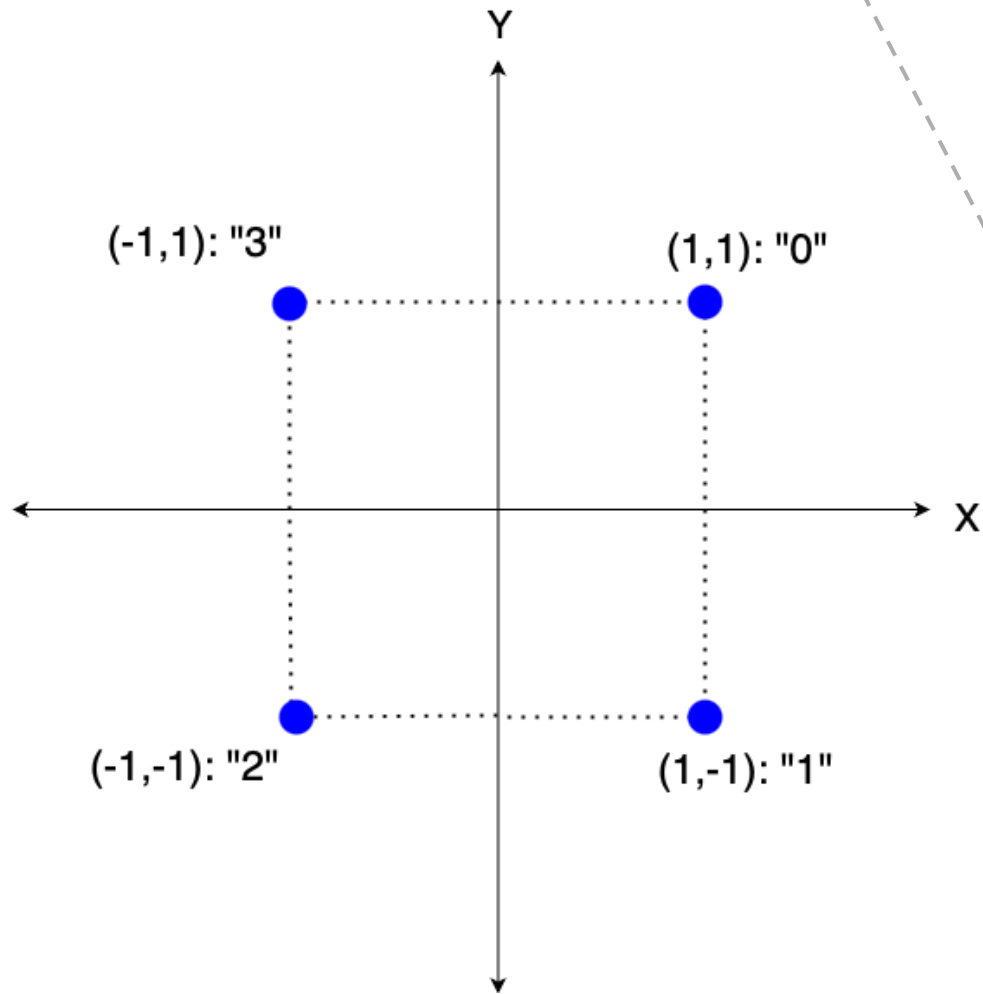
"Life is Random; no strategy.  
I will accept the outcomes as is."

### Omni-Knowledge World:

I know everything!  
so can predict what will be happened.

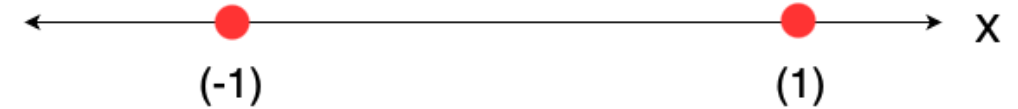


In the real world we have limited knowledge.



**SENDER:** Two Channels-X and Y

**RECEIVER:** One Channel-X



+ as miss to detect channel Y  
+ as we don't know the channel Y exist  
+ we don't know the map

- If we receive (1)

"0"

"1"

- If we receive (-1)

"2"

"3"

We have limited knowledge.  
Our world is uncertain.  
We need to measure uncertainty to make a rational/safe decision.

**Probability Theory** is to provide mathematical machinery to measure uncertainty associated events.

# Probability in ML?

# Probability in ML?

## 1. Probabilistic Modeling (target to learn):

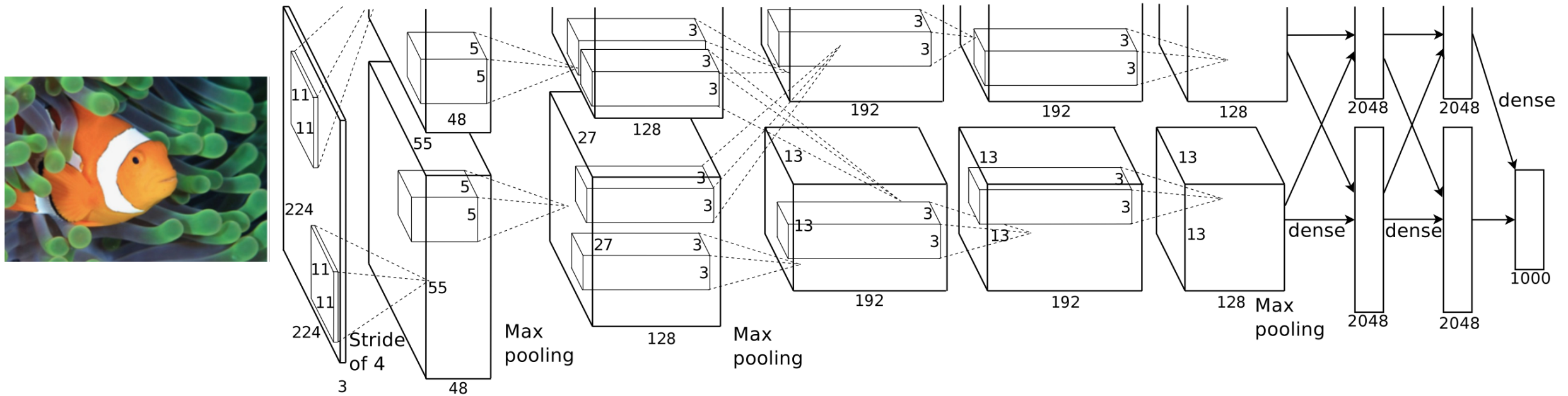
- Discriminative modeling:  $P(y|x)$  output layer: sigmoid /softmax
- Generative modeling:  $P(x, y)$  encodes a joint density (implicit/ explicit)



# Probability in ML?

## 1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn a joint/ conditional density)

- Discriminative modeling:  $P(y|x)$  softmax/ logistic



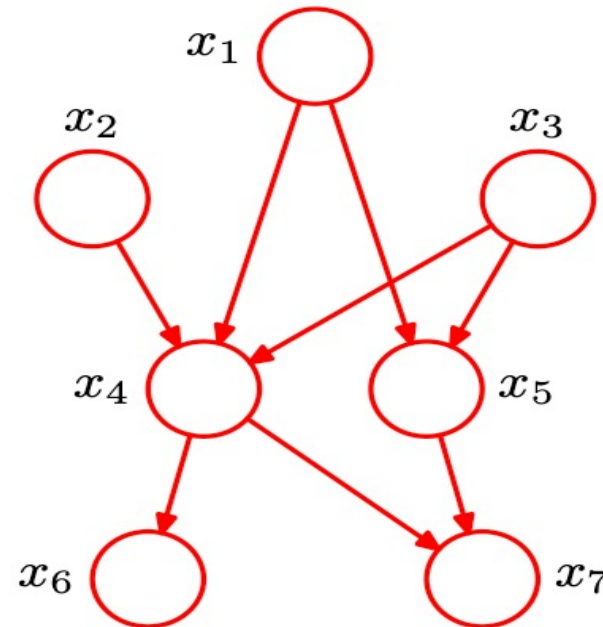
AlexNet (Deep-CNN) to learn  $P(y = \textit{object class} \mid x)$

From the paper “ImageNet Classification with Deep Convolutional Neural Networks” by Alex Krizhevsky et al.

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)

- Generative Modeling:  $P(x, y), P(x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots, x_n)$



Bayes-net

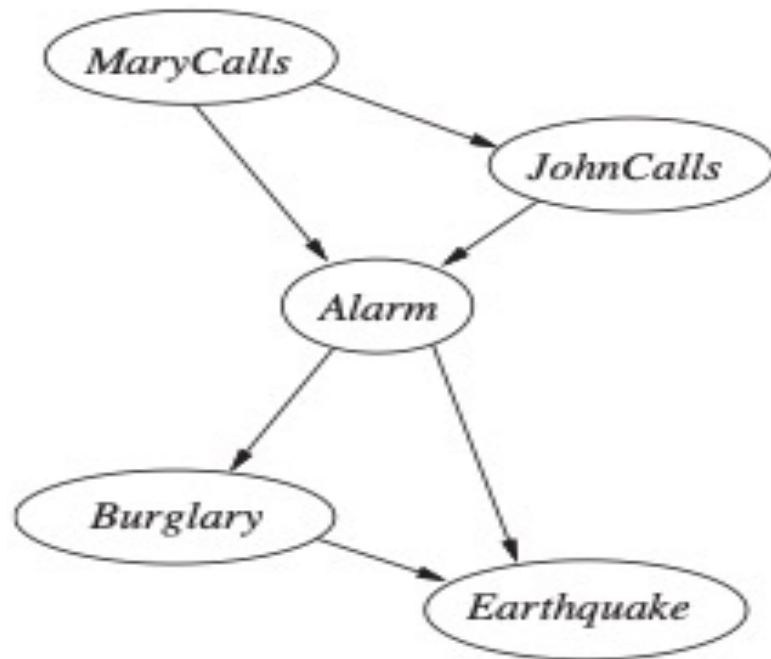
from Bishop Figure 8.2

Bayesian net describing the joint distribution:

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_7) = p(x_1)p(x_2)p(x_3)p(x_4|x_1, x_2, x_3)p(x_5|x_1, x_3)p(x_6|x_4)p(x_7|x_4, x_5).$$

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)
  - Generative Modeling:  $P(x, y), P(x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots, x_n)$

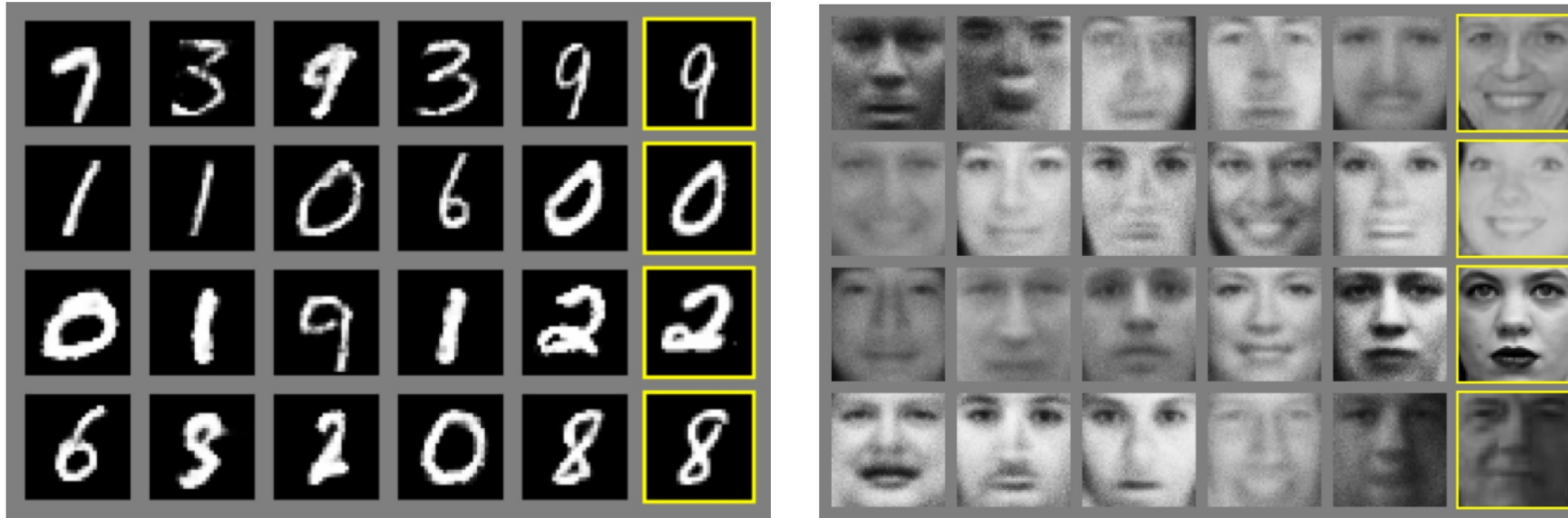


From Figure 14.3 “Artificial Intelligence, A modern Approach”

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)

- Generative Modeling:  $P(x, y), P(x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots, x_n)$



from the paper “Generative Adversarial Nets” by Ian J. Goodfellow et al.

Generative Adversarial Nets (GAN) learns a joint density to generate new images not in the training set. The figure shows the sample from the model. Rightmost column shows the nearest training example of the neighboring sample.

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)
2. Error modeling: even for non-probabilistic/deterministic modeling, we need to consider the random error possible in it and proceed ML or MAP estimation to  $f_w(x)$  given data for  $x$  and  $y$

$$y = f_w(x) + \epsilon$$

errors from :

- + imperfect feature / data set
- + imperfect hypothesis space
- + measurement error
- + outlier/ (intrinsic error)
- + small number of data points

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)
2. Error modeling: even for non-probabilistic/deterministic modeling, we need to consider the random error possible in it and proceed ML or MAP estimation for  $f_w(x)$  given data for  $x$  and  $y$

$$y = f_w(x) + \varepsilon$$

Learning  $f(x)$  becomes an estimation problem  
given observations for  $x$  and  $y$  and  $\varepsilon$  following a certain density.

ex)  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  then  $y \sim$

# Probability in ML?

1. Probabilistic Modeling: (target to learn joint/ conditional density)
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$$y = f_w(x) + \varepsilon$$

According the density we assumed for  $\varepsilon$ ,  
learning  $f(x)$  becomes an estimation problem given observations for  $x$  and  $y$ .  
ex)  $\varepsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  then  $y \sim$

- $w = \operatorname{argmax} P(y|w, x)$ : Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) w as a fixed point
- $w = \operatorname{argmax} p(w|y, x) = \frac{p(y|w, x)p(w)}{p(y|x)}$ : Maximum A posteriori Estimation (MAP)

$P(w)$  encodes prior knowledge/ expert knowledge

# Probability in ML?

## 3. Making an optimal decision/ choice under an uncertain situation

### Ex) Bayesian Binary Hypothesis Testing

- Hypothesis  $\begin{cases} H_0: Y \sim f(y|H_0) \\ H_1: Y \sim f(y|H_1) \end{cases}$
- Decision region  $\begin{cases} y_0 = \{y | \delta(y) = 0\} \\ y_1 = \{y | \delta(y) = 1\} \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} E[R] &= \pi_0 \cdot E[R|H_0] + \pi_1 E[R|H_1] = \pi_1 \cdot \int_{y_0} f(y|H_1) dy + \pi_0 \cdot \int_{y_1} f(y|H_0) dy \\ &= \pi_1 \cdot \int_{y_0} f(y|H_1) dy + \pi_0 \cdot (1 - \int_{y_0} f(y|H_0) dy) \\ &= \pi_0 + \int_{y_0} \pi_1 \cdot f(y|H_1) - \pi_0 \cdot f(y|H_0) dy \end{aligned}$$

Q: How should we set the decision rule for  $y_0$ ? we need to set decision region for y-0 getting inside of the integral negative



# Probability in ML?

- Average Risk  $E[R] = \pi_0 \cdot E[R|H_0] + \pi_1 E[R|H_1] = \pi_1 \cdot \int_{y_0} f(y|H_1)dy + \pi_0 \cdot \int_{y_1} f(y|H_0)dy$ 
$$= \pi_1 \cdot \int_{y_0} f(y|H_1)dy + \pi_0 \cdot (1 - \int_{y_0} f(y|H_0)dy)$$
$$= \pi_0 + \int_{y_0} \pi_1 \cdot f(y|H_1) - \pi_0 \cdot f(y|H_0)dy$$

Q: How should we set the decision rule for  $y_0$ ?

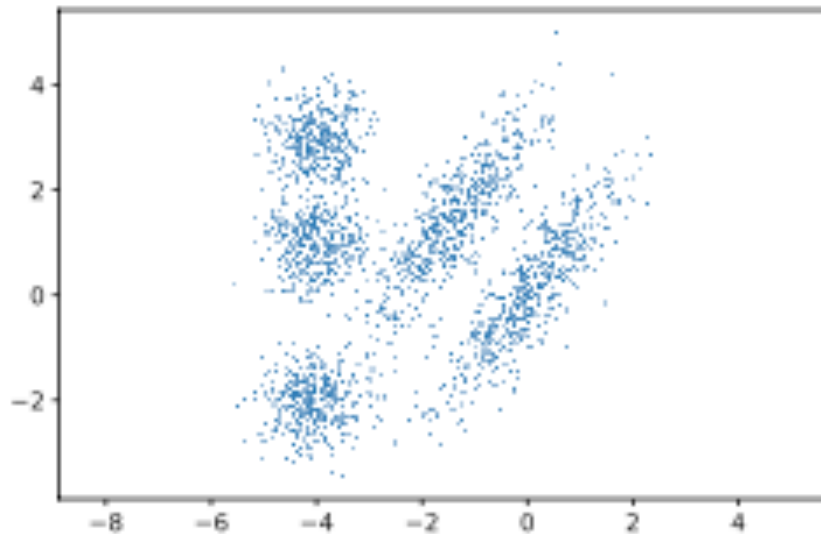
for  $y$ , if  $\pi_1 \cdot f(y|H_1) - \pi_0 \cdot f(y|H_0) < 0$  then detect as  $H_0$   
else if  $\pi_1 \cdot f(y|H_1) - \pi_0 \cdot f(y|H_0) \geq 0$  then detect as  $H_1$

$$\frac{p(y|H_1)}{P(y|H_0)} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}} \frac{\pi_0}{\pi_1}$$

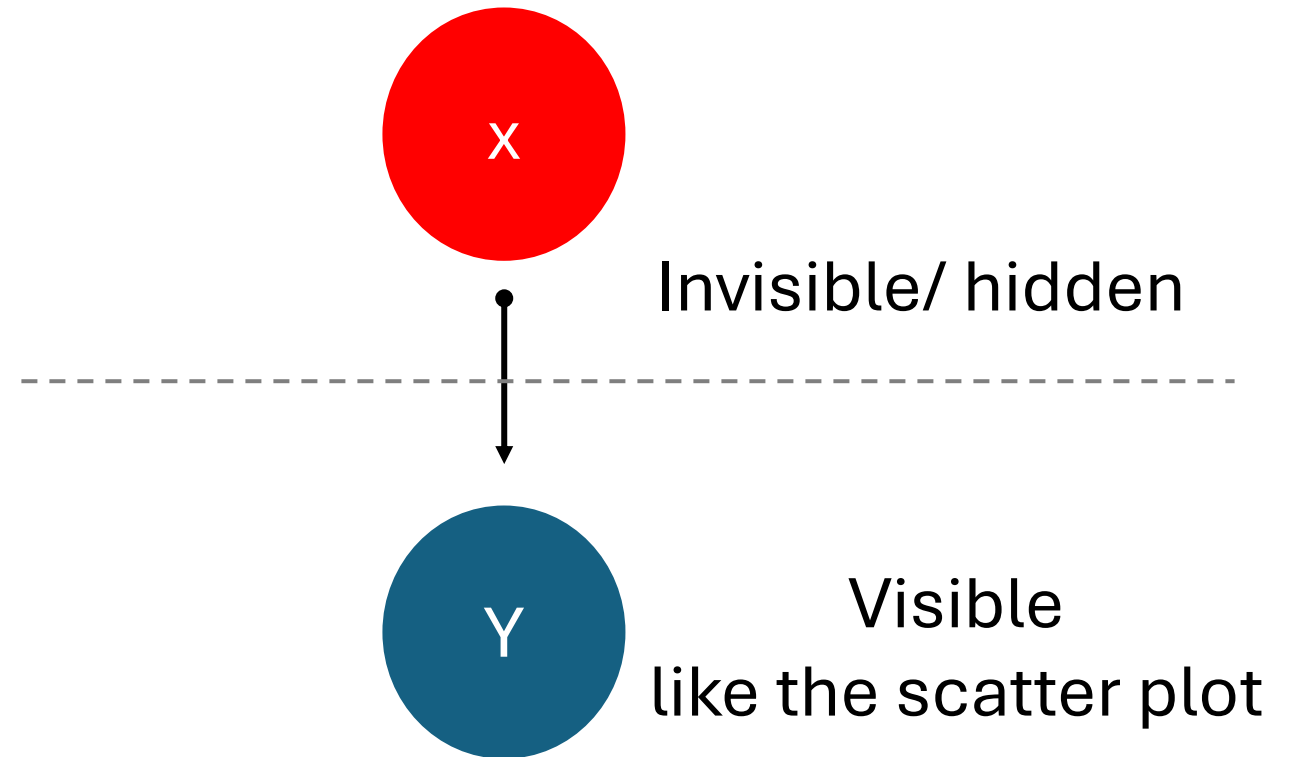
# Probability in ML?

## 4. Representation of hidden information

Ex) Mixture Gaussian Density



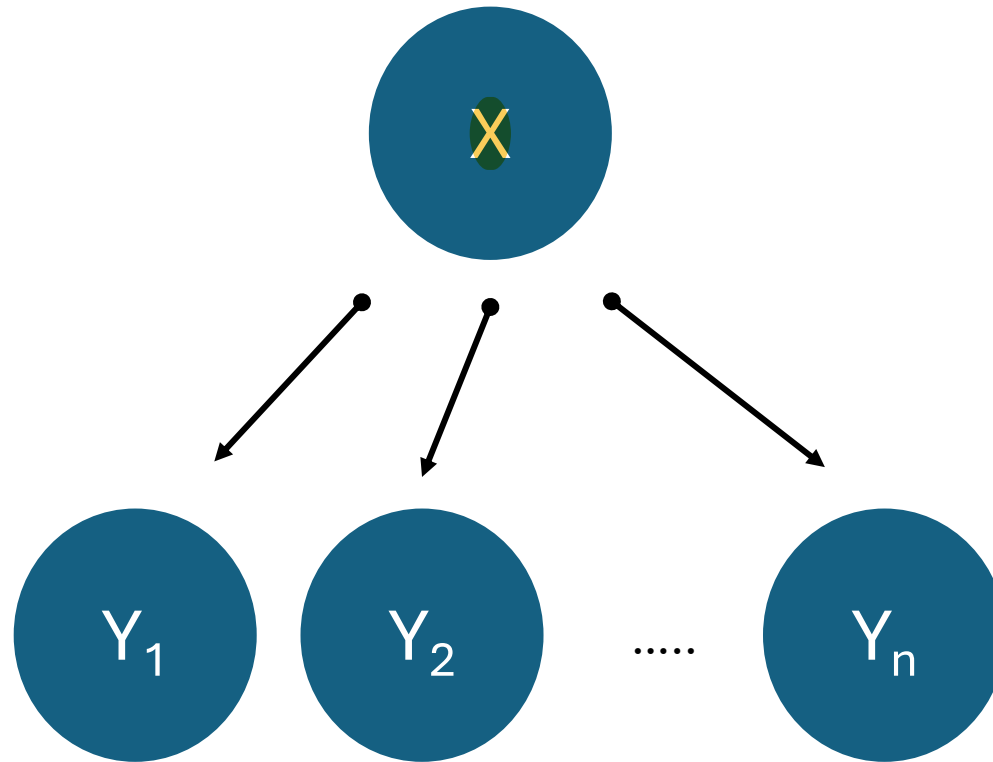
from Figure 3.11 Murphy, An Introduction



Q: Can you see a hidden variable in the 2-D scatter plot?  
How would you encode the information?

# Q: Naïve Bayes Classification?

Naive Bayes classifier  
is a generative modeling because it need to learn joint density  $P(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, Y_n)$



# Probability 101

## Probability Space $[\Omega, 2^{|\Omega|}, P]$

[1] **Experiment:** any process of obtaining or generating an observation

Ex] Inspection of an instance item **is defective or non-defective**

[2] **Sample Space ( $\Omega$ ):** a set of all possible outcomes

Ex]  $\Omega = \{\text{non-defective, defective}\}$

[3] **Events Set:** ( $A \subset \Omega$  or  $A \in 2^{|\Omega|}$ ): a set of all possible subsets of  $\Omega$

Ex]  $2^{|\Omega|} = \{\emptyset, \{\text{non-defective}\}, \{\text{defective}\}, \Omega\}$

[4] **Probability Measure  $P[E]$ :** a function  $P: 2^{|\Omega|} \rightarrow [0, 1]$

Ex]  $P[\{\text{defective}\}] =$  monitor assembly line for a period of time,  
compute **the relative frequency**.

Probability Measure follows **the three axioms**.

- Non-negativity:  $P[A] \geq 0$
- Total Probability:  $P[\Omega] = 1$
- Countable Additive:  $A_i \cap A_j = \phi \text{ if } i \neq j \implies P[\cup_k A_k] = \sum_k P[A_k]$

## The three axioms derives corollaries.

- Non-negativity:  $P[A] \geq 0$
- Total Probability:  $P[\Omega] = 1$
- Countable Additive:  $A_i \cap A_j = \phi \text{ if } i \neq j \implies P[\cup_k A_k] = \sum_k P[A_k]$
- $P[A^c] = 1 - P[A]$   
by **countable additivity** and **total probability**,  $P[A^c \cup A] = P[A] + P[A^c] = 1$
- $P[\phi] = 1 - P[\Omega] = 0$

Are we ready to define a measure  $P$ ?



As **equally likely outcomes**,  $P[A]$  becomes counting problem.

$$P[A] = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

Ex] When tossing **a fair coin**  $N$  times, compute  $P[k \text{ times H}]$

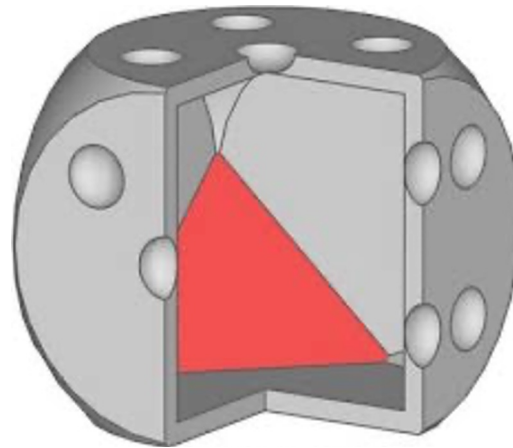
$$P[k \text{ times H}] = \binom{N}{k} \frac{1}{2^N}$$

- $|\Omega|$  = choose H or T  $N$  times :  $2^N$
- $|A|$  = choose  $k$  among different  $N$  without orders:



2000, Denver Native American One Dollar coin

However,  
not always the outcomes are equally and likely.



Corner is loaded with lead!

However, if outcomes are **not** equally likely?

$$\begin{aligned} P[A] &= \sum_{\omega_k \in A} P[\{\omega_k\}] \\ &= \sum_{A_k \subset A} P[A_k], A_k \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ if } k \neq j \end{aligned}$$

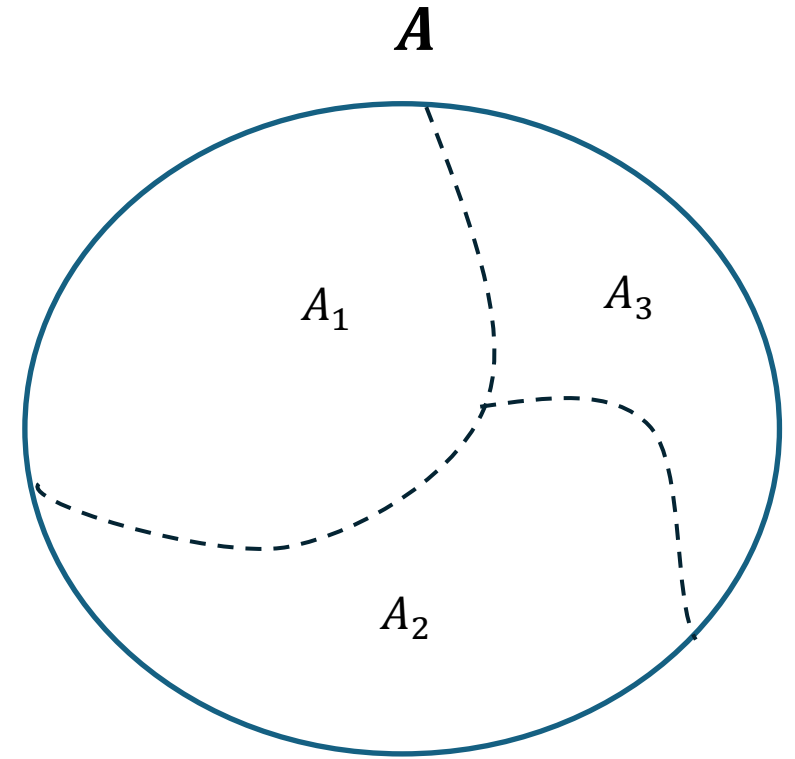


Fig: Event A can be divided into three disjoint sets.

We can divide a complex event into disjoint events, which are tractable, we can compute its probability in easier way often.

# Conditional Probability

# Conditional Probability:

## [1] Computing Diagnostic Probability (Posterior Prob)

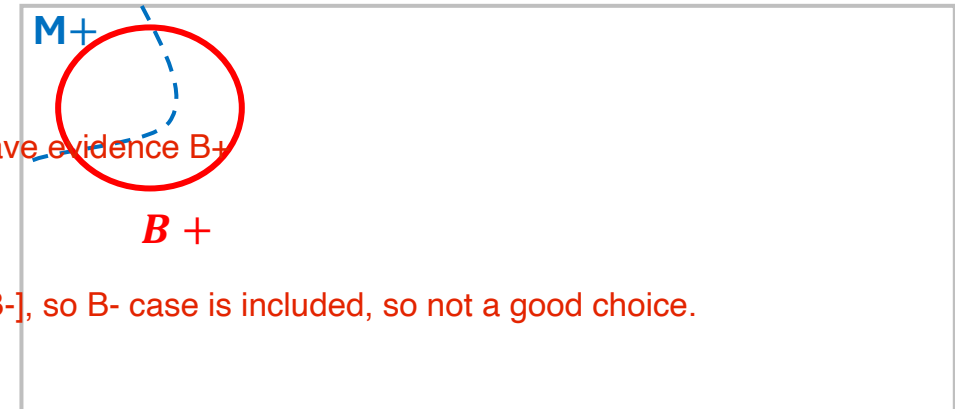
EX] **Breast Cancer** is a deadly disease that claims thousands of lives every year.

If you are a doctor who had a patient having a **positive** mammogram.

You know that **mammogram accuracy is between 90% - 95%.**

**Which probability would you tell the patient?**

- $P[B+] = 0.008?$  this may not be a good choice, we have evidence  $B+$
- $P[M \text{ accurate}] = ?$   $P[M \text{ accurate}] = P[M+ B+] + P[M- B-]$ , so  $B-$  case is included, so not a good choice.
- $P[B+ | M+] = 9\%$



$\Omega$

$$P[M^+] : 1 = P[B^+ \cap M^+] : x$$

$$P[B^+ | M^+] = \frac{P[B^+ \cap M^+]}{P[M^+]}$$

## Joint probability and Conditional Probability

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A] \cdot P[B|A] = P[B] \cdot P[A|B]$$

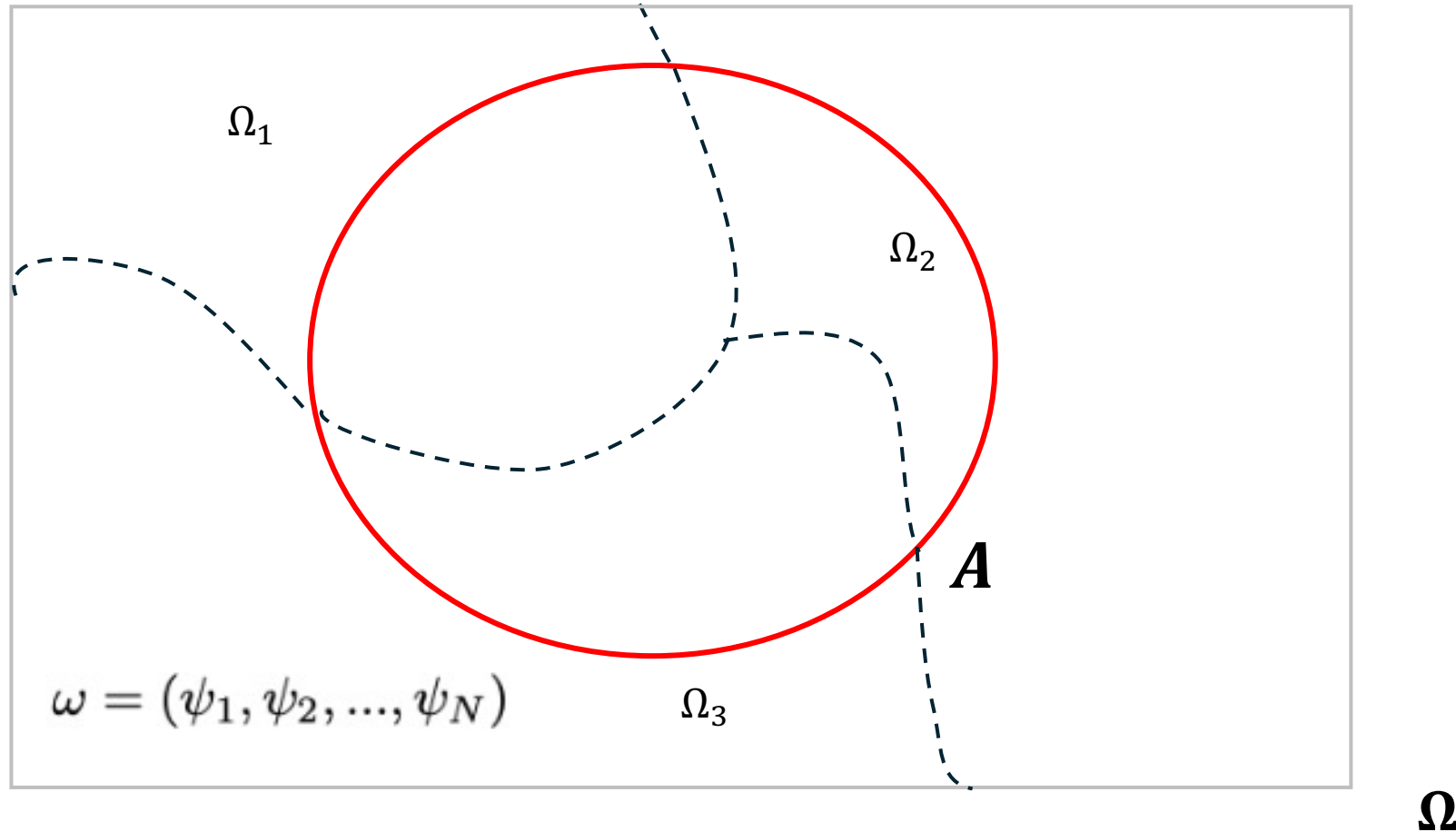
$$P[A \cap B \cap C] = P[A] \cdot P[B|A] \cdot P[C|A \cap B]$$

Independent Events  $\leftrightarrow$

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A] \cdot P[B]$$

$$P[A \cap B \cap C] = P[A] \cdot P[B] \cdot P[C]$$

**Partition** the sample space  $\Omega$  and **measure** the probability  $A$

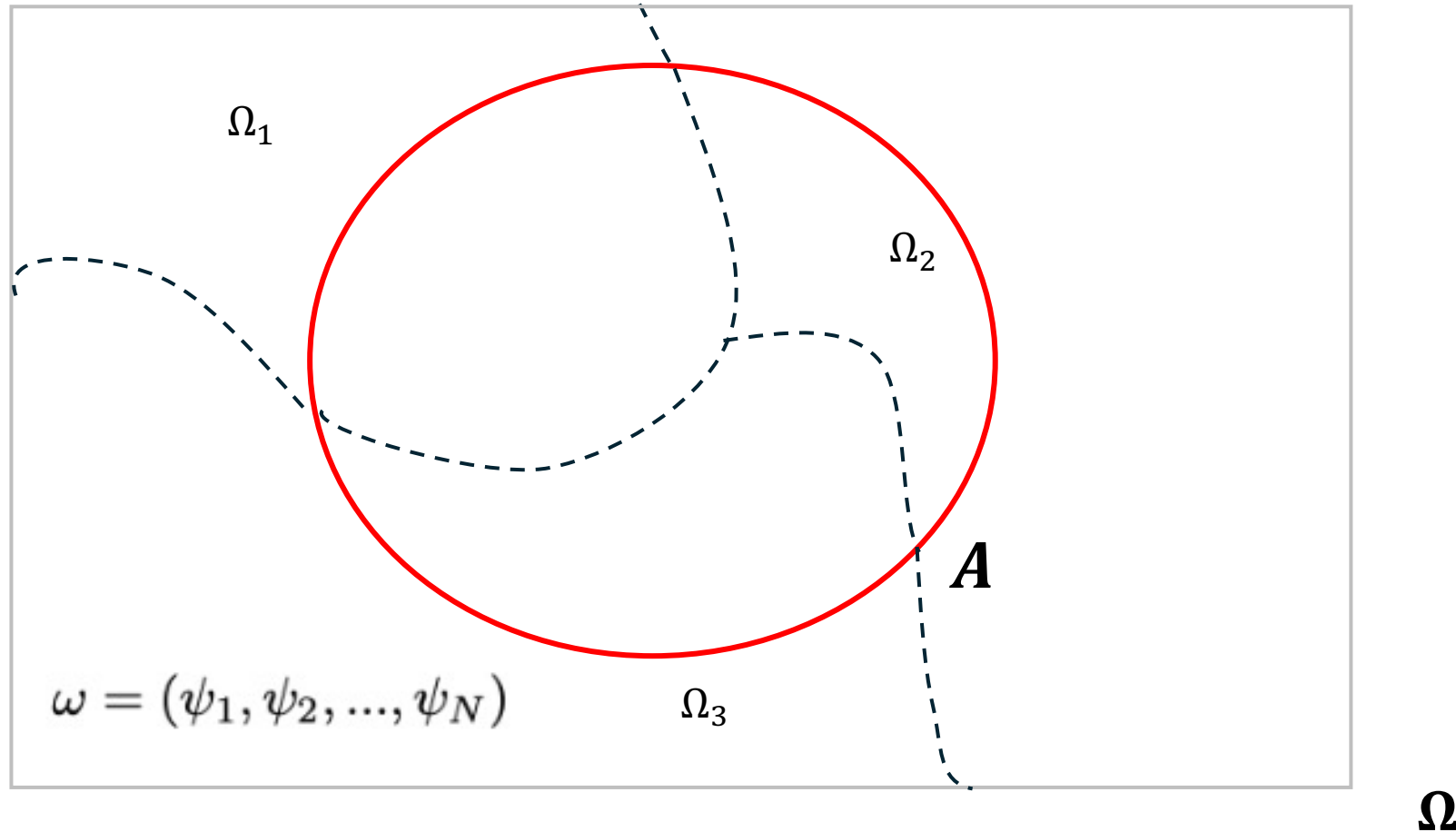


$$P[A] = P[A \cap \Omega_1] + P[A \cap \Omega_2] + P[A \cap \Omega_3]$$

$$P[A] = P[A|\Omega_1]P[\Omega_1] + P[A|\Omega_2]P[\Omega_2] + P[A|\Omega_3]P[\Omega_3]$$



Marginalization: **Partition** the sample space  $\Omega$  and **measure** the probability  $A$



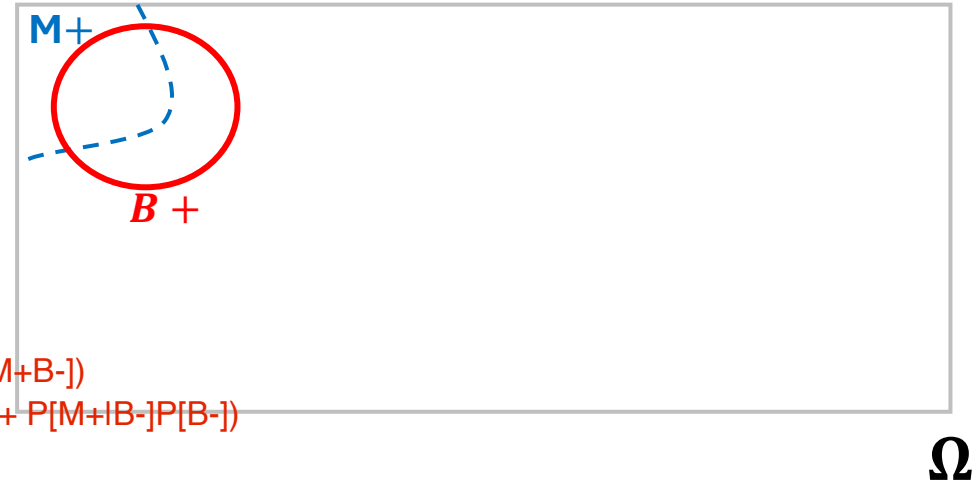
$$P[A] = P[A \cap \Omega_1] + P[A \cap \Omega_2] + P[A \cap \Omega_3]$$

$$P[A] = P[A|\Omega_1]P[\Omega_1] + P[A|\Omega_2]P[\Omega_2] + P[A|\Omega_3]P[\Omega_3]$$

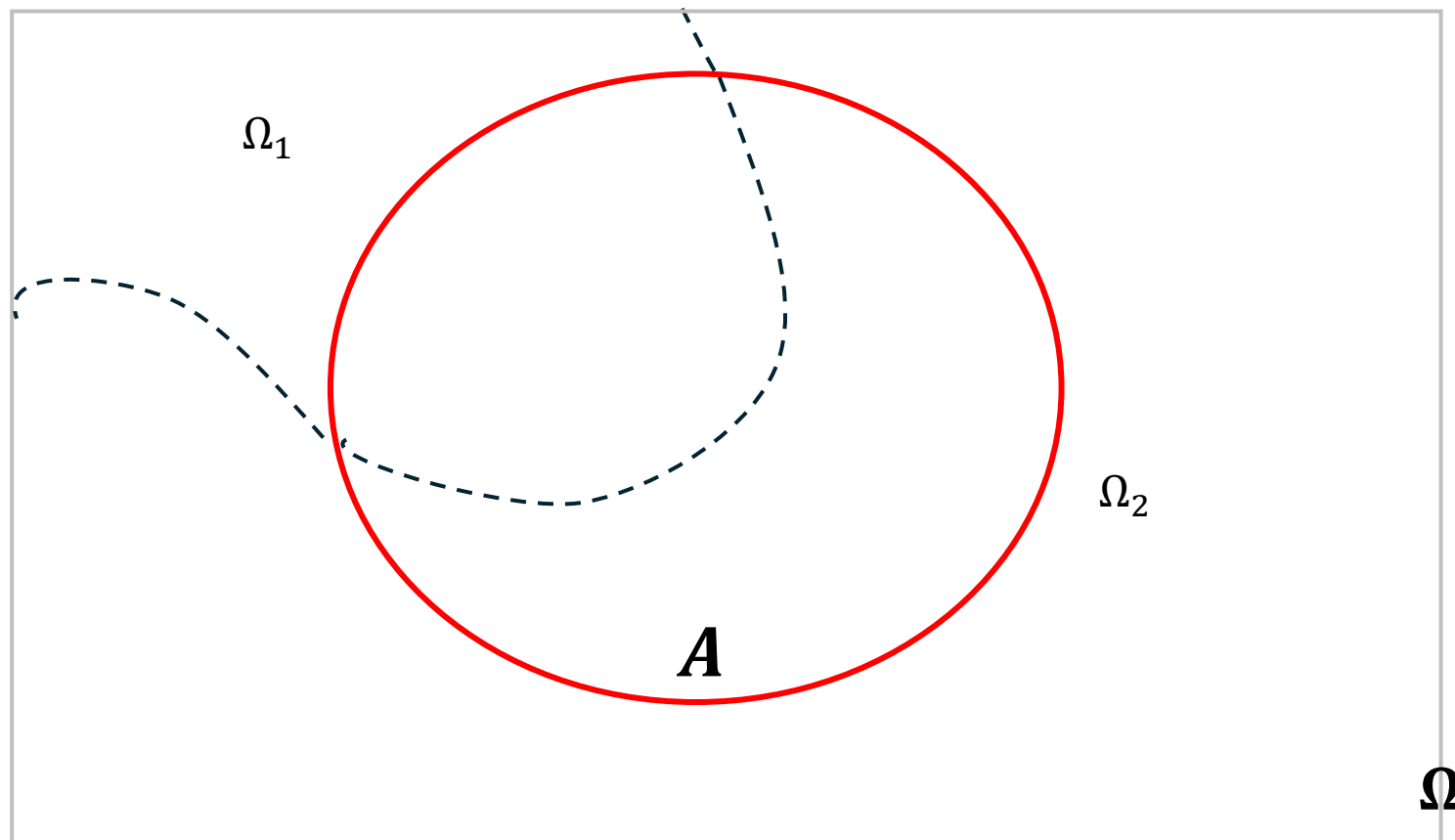
# Revisit the breast cancer example and compute the diagnostic probability

- Given Information
- $P[B+] = 0.008$
  - $P[M+|B+] = 0.9$  and  $P[M+|B-] = 0.07$
  - $P[B+|M+] = ?$

$$\begin{aligned} & P[B+M+] / P[M+] \\ &= P[M+|B+] P[B+] / (P[M+|B+] P[B+] + P[M+|B-] P[B-]) \\ &= P[M+|B+] P[B+] / (P[M+|B+] P[B+] + P[M+|B-] P[B-]) \end{aligned}$$



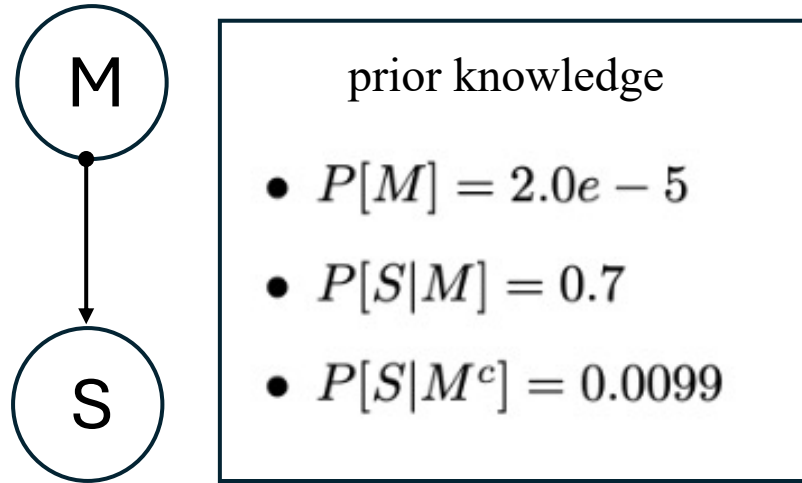
# Bayes Theorem



$$P[\Omega_1|A] = \frac{P[A|\Omega_1] \cdot P[\Omega_1]}{P[A|\Omega_1] \cdot P[\Omega_1] + P[A|\Omega_2] \cdot P[\Omega_2]}$$

# Computation of Posterior Probability and its Sensitivity to Prior Probability.

EX] Suppose there are two events in **causal relationship** like **meningitis** and **stiff neck**



$$\begin{aligned} P[M|S] &= \frac{P[M \cap S]}{P[S]} \\ &= \frac{P[M \cap S]}{P[S \cap M] + P[S \cap M^c]} \\ &= \frac{P[S|M] \cdot P[M]}{P[S|M] \cdot P[M] + P[S|M^c] \cdot P[M^c]} = 0.0014 \end{aligned}$$

**Posterior  $P[M|S]$  is more fragile** than the causal direction  $P[S|M]$  because of  $P[M]$ .  $P[M]$  is affected by epidemic, while causal  $P[S|M]$  reflects the way meningitis works.

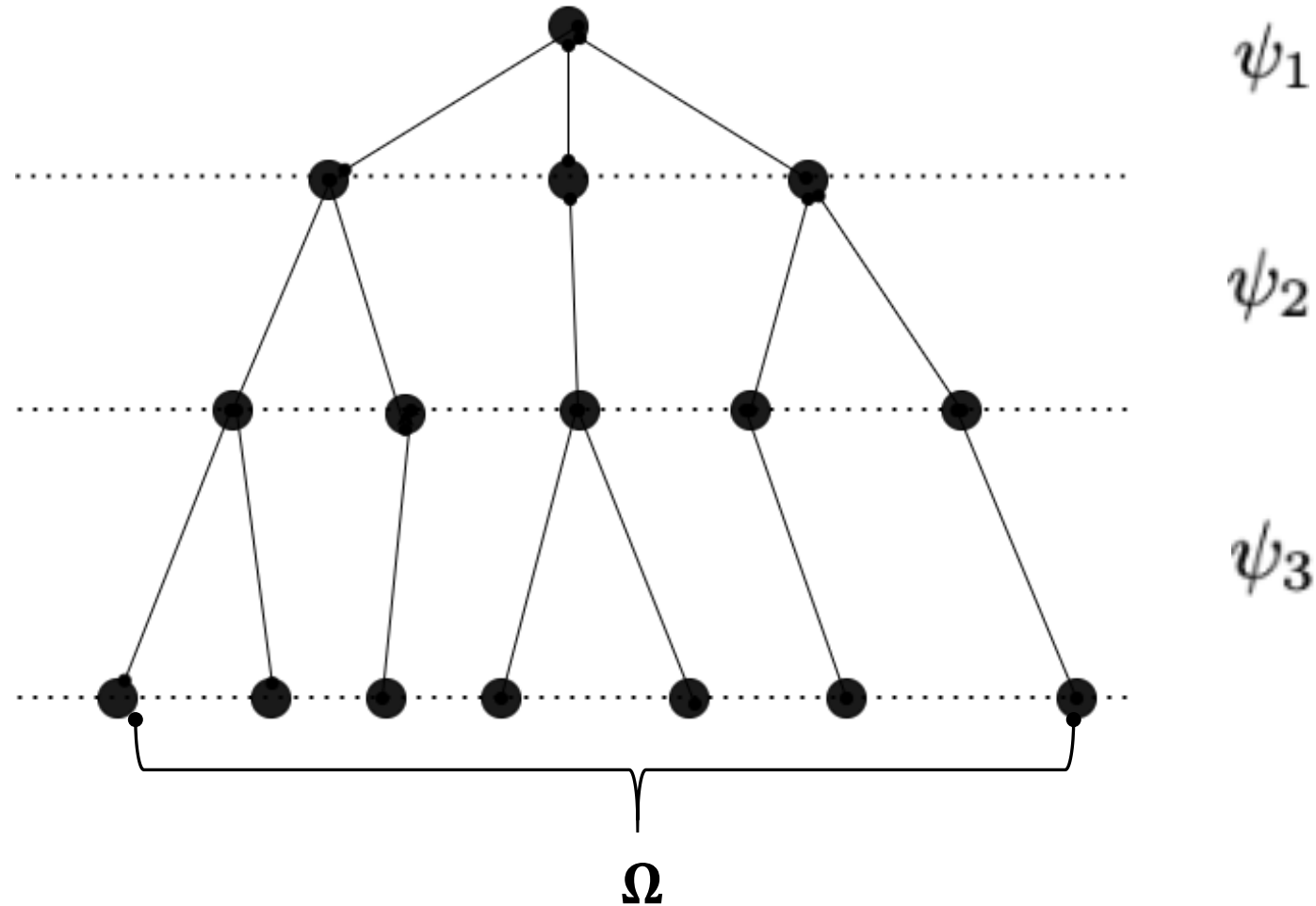
The Conditioning Probability for

- computing diagnostic probability (posterior probability)
- solving complex problem

# Conditional Probability: TA recitation

## [1] Solving Complex Problem (Tree Diagram)

We can draw a sample space in a tree diagram.  $\omega = (\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_N)$



# Conditional Probability:

## [1] Solving Complex Problem (Tree Diagrams)

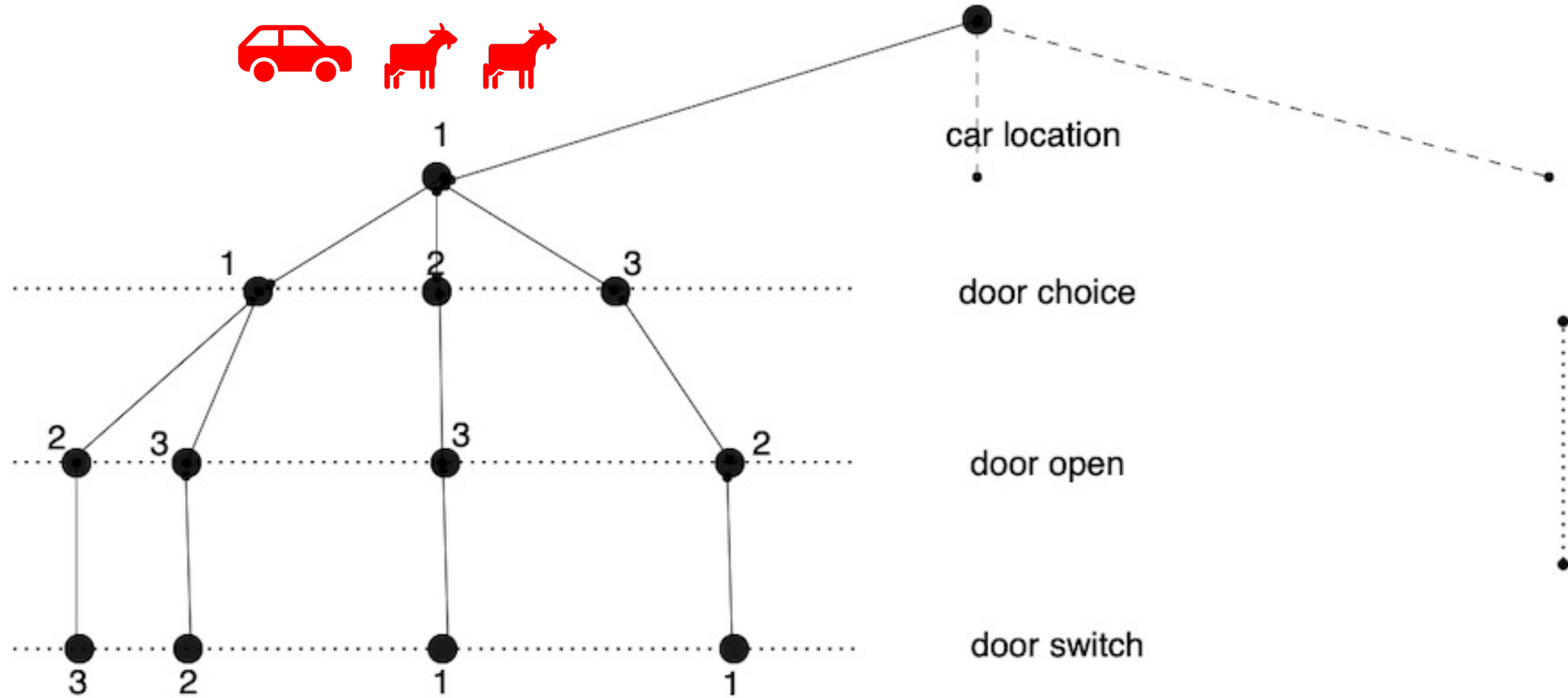
### Monty Hall Problem



Suppose you're on a game show, and you're given the choice of three doors. Behind one door is a car, behind the others, goats. You pick a door, say number 1, and the host opens another door, say number 2, which has a goat. He says to you, "Do you want to pick door number 3?" Is it to your advantage to switch your choice of doors?

$P_{\text{no-switch}}[\text{Win}]$  vs.  $P_{\text{switch}}[\text{Win}]$

# Monty Hall Problem





# Conditional Probability: TA recitation

## [2] Solving Complex Problem (Tree diagrams and Induction)



A game with a deck of 52 cards, 26 are red and 26 are black.

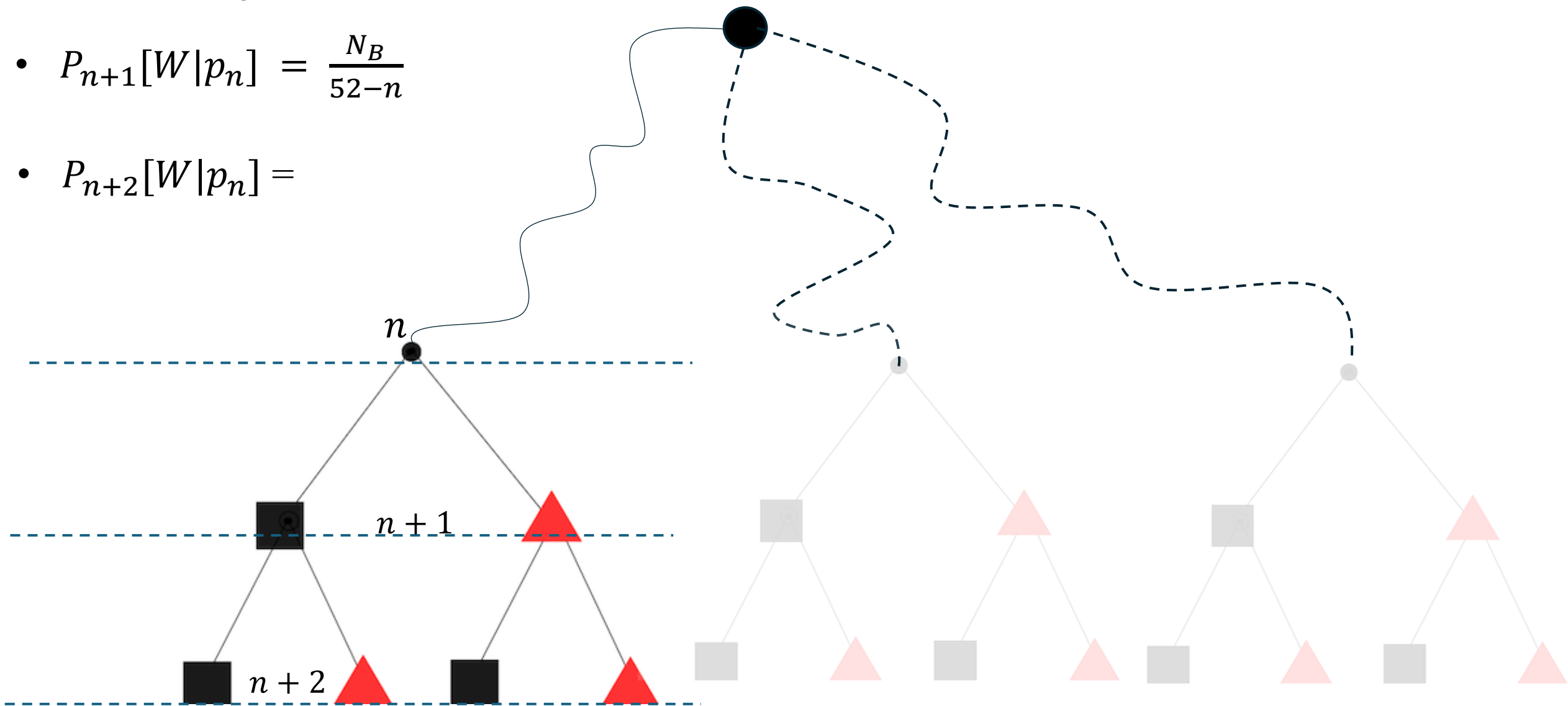
Two options of “taking” or “skipping” the top card.

If you **skip** the top card, then that card is revealed and we continue playing with the remaining deck.

If you **take** the top card, then the game ends; you win if the card is black, and you lose if it was red. If we get to a point where there is only one card left in the deck, you must take it.

- Prove that you have no better strategy than to take the top card.
- $P_1[W] = \frac{26}{52} = \frac{1}{2}$
- $P_{n+1}[W] = P_{n+2}[W]$

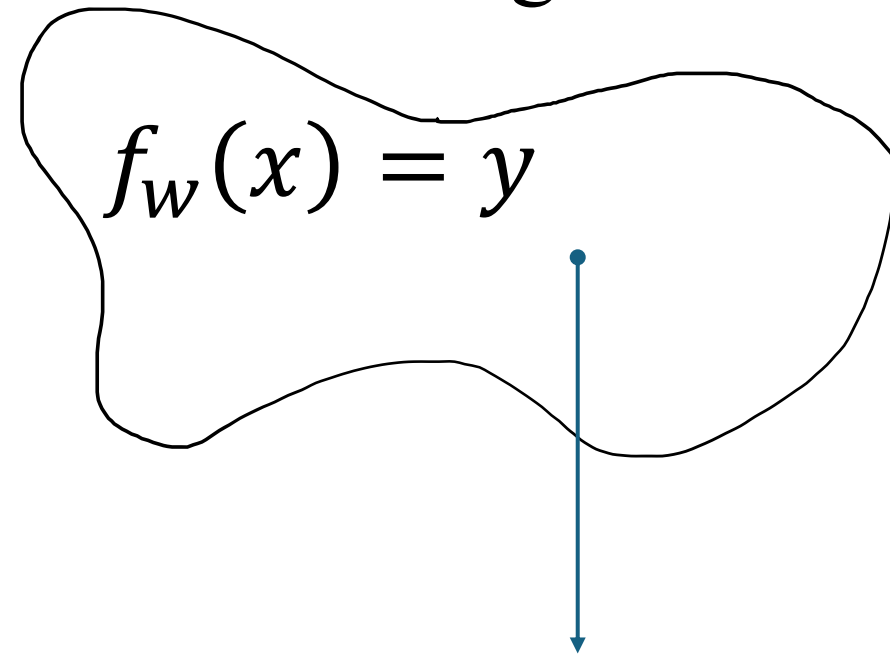
- $P_1[W] = \frac{26}{52} = \frac{1}{2}$
- $P_{n+1}[W|p_n] = \frac{N_B}{52-n}$
- $P_{n+2}[W|p_n] =$



# Bayes Rule in ML as an Inference Method

# Inference in Machine Learning

+ unknown  
+ inaccessible  
+ hidden



+accessible  $D: (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_{n-1}, y_{n-1}), (x_n, y_n)$

- ML assumes there exist a model that generates the data
- ML learns  $w$  from the data.
- Q:  $\operatorname{argmax}_w P(W|D)$

# Bayes Rule in Machine Learning as an Inference Method

$$P(w|D) = \frac{p(w, D)}{P(D)} = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)}$$

Bayesian Probability	Frequentist Probability
+ quantification uncertainty  + prior density (expert knowledge)	+ relative frequency as # trials goes $\infty$  + $w$ exists as a fixed point
Q: The chances of detecting life on Mars?  This questions is asking Bayesian probability, which is belief, degree of certainty. This cannot be about relative occurrence.	

# Bayes Rule in Machine Learning as an Inference Method

$$P(w|D) = \frac{p(w, D)}{P(D)} = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)}$$

## Frequentist vs. Bayes Estimation

- $w = \operatorname{argmax} P(D|w)$ : Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) Frequentist
- $w = \operatorname{argmax} p(w|D) = \frac{p(D|w)p(w)}{p(D)}$ : Maximum A posteriori Estimation (MAP) Bayes

# Going back to Probability 101

Random Variable

$$X(\omega): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

- Bernoulli
- Binomial
- Gaussian density

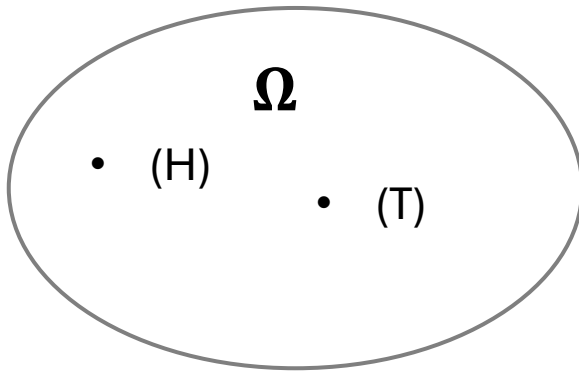
Random Variable  $X(\omega): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- Real-Valued Function
- PMF / PDF 

## (1) Bernoulli R.V

Ex] Suppose a coin tossed one time.

Let  $X$  be the indicator function for Tail event.





PDF / PMF as the derivative of CDF  $F_X(x) = P[X \leq x]$

$$\begin{aligned} P[x < X \leq x + h] &= F_X(x + h) - F_X(x) \\ &= \frac{F_X(x + h) - F_X(x)}{h} \cdot h \\ &= F'_X(x) \cdot h \\ &= f_X(x) \cdot h \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_a^b f_X(x) dx = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$$

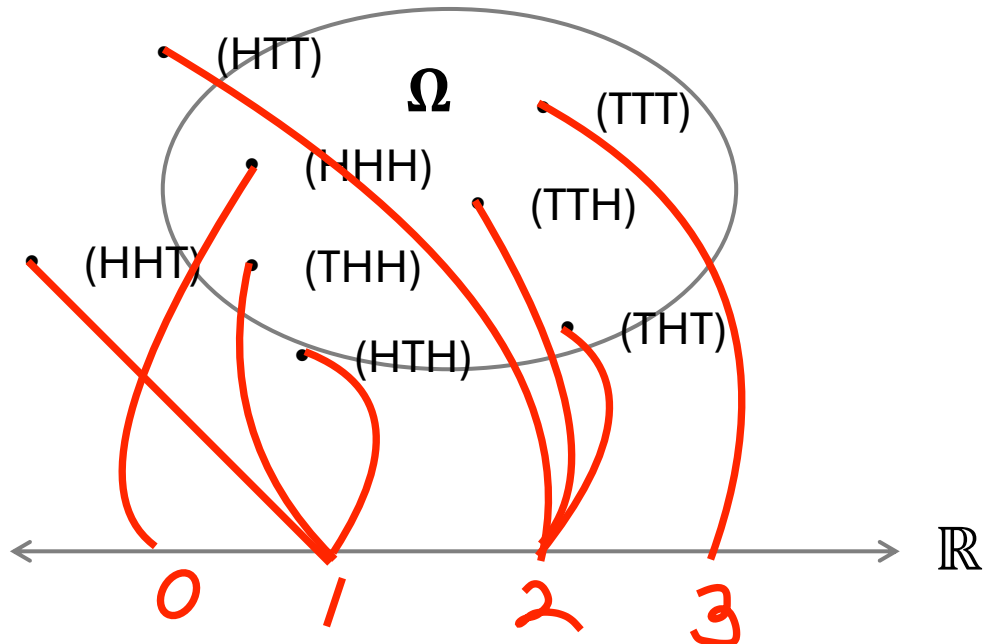
Random Variable  $X(\omega): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- Real-Valued Function 
- PMF / PDF.

## (1) Binomial R.V

Ex] Suppose a coin tossed 3 time.

Let  $X$  be the count for Tail event among  $N$  trials.



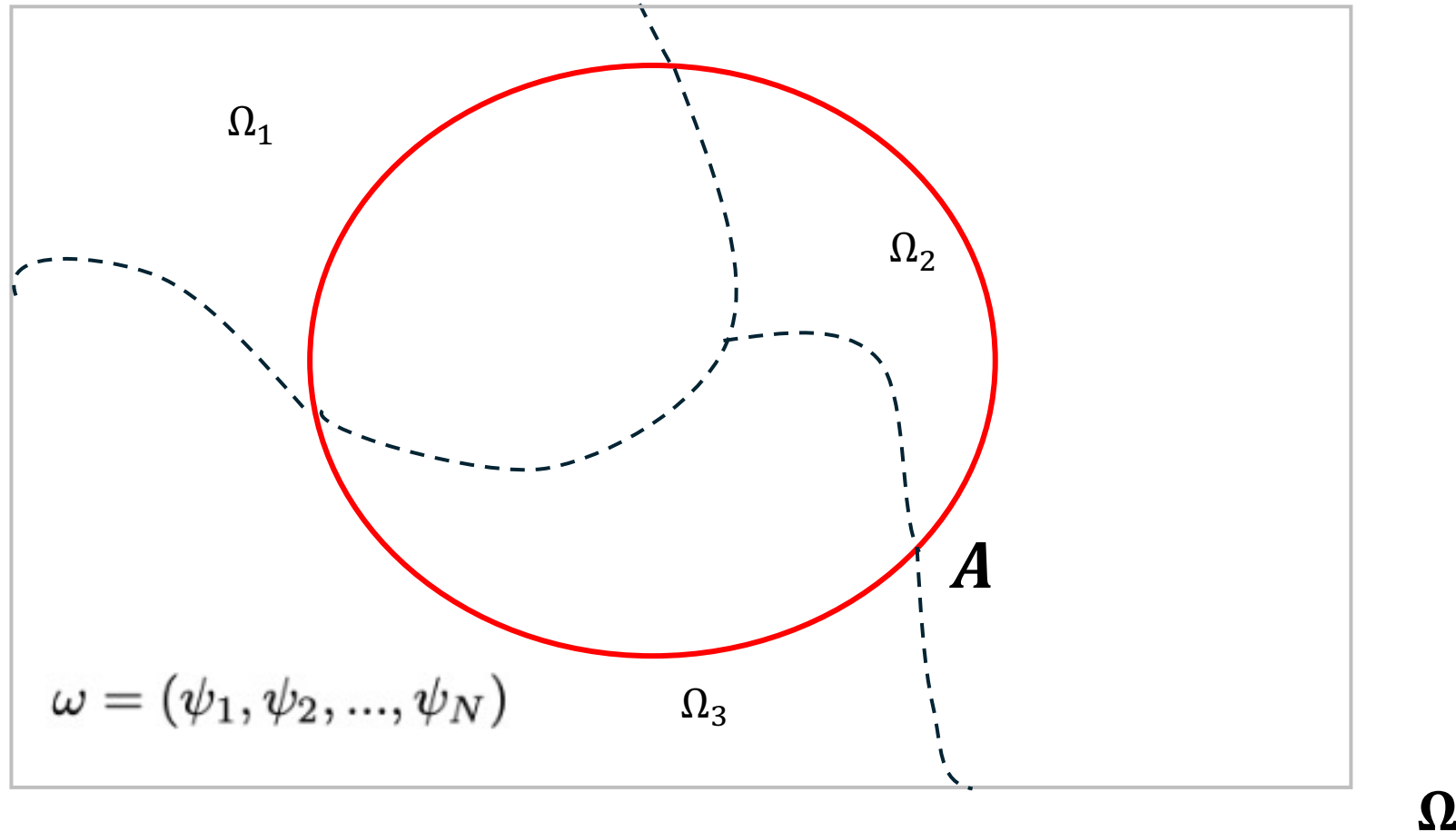
# Again, Independence and Marginalization

Independent Events  $\leftrightarrow$

$$P[A \cap B] = P[A] \cdot P[B]$$

$$P[A \cap B \cap C] = P[A] \cdot P[B] \cdot P[C]$$

Marginalization: **Partition** the sample space  $\Omega$  and **measure** the probability  $A$



$$P[A] = P[A \cap \Omega_1] + P[A \cap \Omega_2] + P[A \cap \Omega_3]$$

$$P[A] = P[A|\Omega_1]P[\Omega_1] + P[A|\Omega_2]P[\Omega_2] + P[A|\Omega_3]P[\Omega_3]$$

X and Y are independent  $\leftrightarrow$

$$P(x, y) = P(x) \cdot P(y) \quad \forall x, y$$

$$f(x, y) = f(x) \cdot f(y) \quad \forall x, y$$

$$\text{EX1) } f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 e^{-x} e^{-y}, & 0 \leq y \leq x < \infty \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \text{ independent?}$$

$$\text{EX) } f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{\frac{-(x^2 + y^2)}{2}}?$$

# Marginalization

$$P_X(x) = \sum_y P_{XY}(x, y)$$

$$f_X(x) = \int_y f_{XY}(x, y) dy$$

## Mean and Variance

:two statistics to describe the behavior of a random variable



- Expectation / Mean

$$E[X] = \sum_x x P(X)$$

- Linearity of Expectation

$$E[aX + b] = \sum_x ax P(x) + bP(x) = aE[X] + b$$

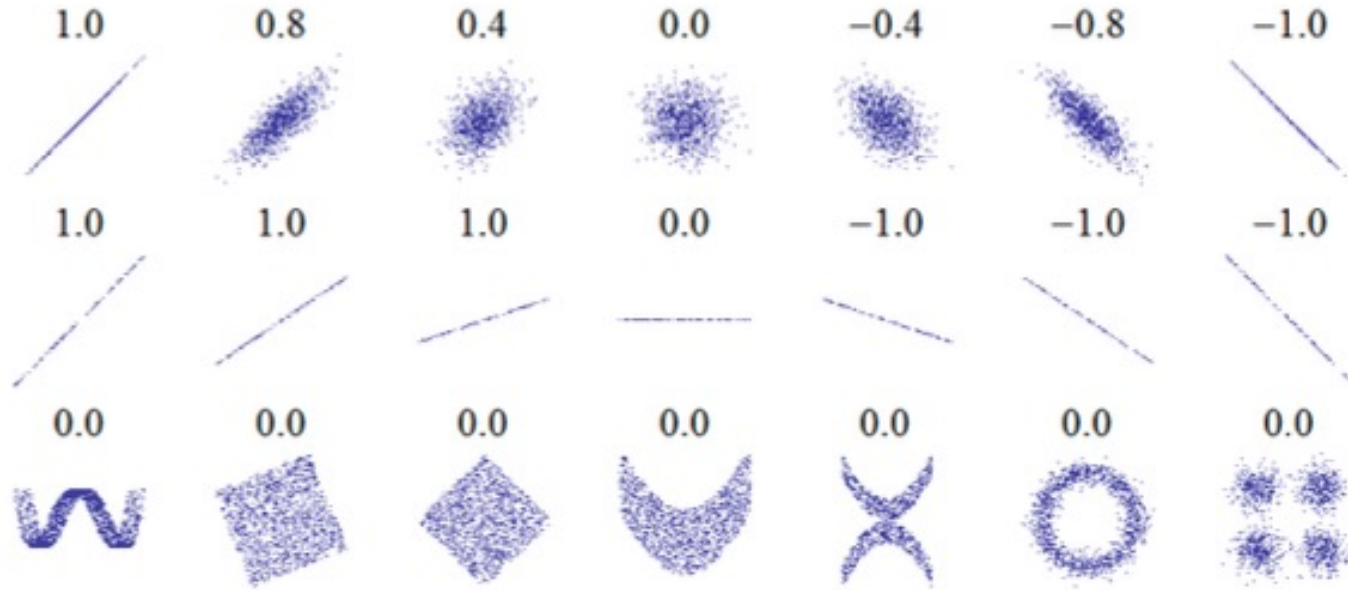
- Variance

$$VAR[X] = \sum_x (x - E[x])^2 P(X) = E((X - E[X])^2) = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

$$VAR[aX + b] = a^2 VAR[X]$$

$$\begin{aligned} VAR[aX + bY] &= E[(aX + bY - a\mu_X - b\mu_Y)^2] \\ &= E[a^2(X - \mu_X)^2 + b^2(Y - \mu_Y)^2 + 2ab(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= E[a^2(X - \mu_X)^2 + b^2(Y - \mu_Y)^2 + 2ab(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= a^2 E[(X - \mu_X)^2] + b^2 E[(Y - \mu_Y)^2] + 2ab E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \\ &= a^2 VAR[X] + b^2 VAR[Y] + 2ab E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] \end{aligned}$$

# Covariance shows how X and Y linearly related



From Figure 3.1 Murphy, Introduction

This figure presents correlation coefficient  $\rho = \frac{COV(X,Y)}{\sqrt{VAR(X)}\sqrt{VAR(Y)}}$  for several sets of data points.

## Multiple Variable/ Random Vector

In practice,

we can access to the population only through data points.

**Data is the *realization* of the *repetitive* process of the *R.V.***

One data point does not show much information,

but what if we observe 100, 1,000, 10,000 realization?

$$\vec{X} = (X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_N)$$

Random Vector  $\vec{X} = \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ \vdots \\ X_D \end{bmatrix}$

- Mean vector:  $E[\vec{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} E[X_1] \\ E[X_2] \\ \vdots \\ E[X_D] \end{bmatrix}$

- **Covariance Matrix**  $\text{Cov}[\mathbf{x}] \triangleq \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}])^T] \triangleq \mathbf{\Sigma}$   
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{V}[X_1] & \text{Cov}[X_1, X_2] & \cdots & \text{Cov}[X_1, X_D] \\ \text{Cov}[X_2, X_1] & \mathbb{V}[X_2] & \cdots & \text{Cov}[X_2, X_D] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \text{Cov}[X_D, X_1] & \text{Cov}[X_D, X_2] & \cdots & \mathbb{V}[X_D] \end{pmatrix}$$

Q: The R.Vs are independent and identical,  
how can we express the Covariance Matrix?