

ISTA 421/521 Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 5:
Probability Review,
Expectation, Distributions

Clayton T. Morrison

clayton@sista.arizona.edu Gould-Simpson 819 Phone 621-6609

Special Thanks to Rev. Dawson

9 September 2014



Next Topics

- Probability Basics
- Expectation
- Continuous probability
- Distributions
- Likelihood

Least Squares (Linear) Regression

- ▶ Model *t* as a *linear* function of $x_1, x_2, ...$
- ► Choose the "best" model, of the form

$$\hat{t} = \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_K x_K$$
 (1)

▶ "Best": select **w** to minimize the *loss*

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{t}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (t_n - \hat{f}(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{w}))^2$$
 (2)

▶ Can generalize to non-linear models, but principle is the same: pick the function \hat{f} in a particular *function class*, \mathcal{F} that "minimizes badness".



Why Squared Error?

- ▶ Squared error loss has a natural geometric definition that gives a vector of "retrodictions", $\hat{\mathbf{t}} = (\hat{t}_1, \dots, \hat{t}_N)$ that is as close as possible to the vector of observations $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N)$ while respecting the linear constraint.
- ► "Closeness" measured by the usual Euclidean distance between two points in a (*K*-dimensional) vector space

$$|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{K} (u_k - v_k)^2$$
 (3)

(in 2D this is the Pythagorean theorem)



Okay, But Why Really?

Short Answers:

- ► It "feels right".
- ▶ It often works well in practice.

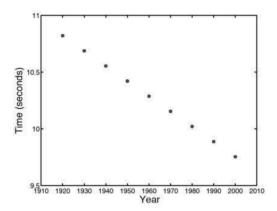
Deeper answer:

▶ it is the **maximum likelihood** solution under a natural probabilistic generative model.



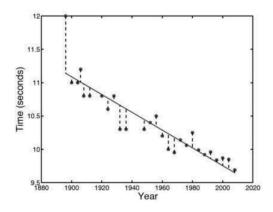
Maximum What? Generative What?

Our original formulation of the model was deterministic: for a given x, the model yields the same t every time.



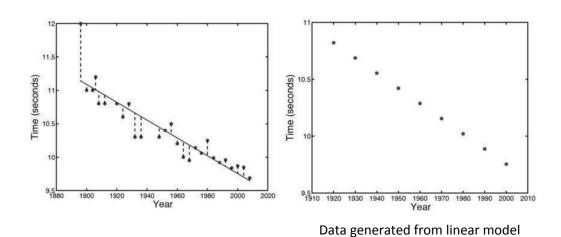
A More Realistic Model

In most interesting applications, life is more complicated.





Think Generatively



Want degree of confidence in predictions and parameter values



′

Adding Error to the Model

• We capture this added complexity with a "catchall" error term, ε .

$$t = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_k x_k + \varepsilon \tag{4}$$

- \triangleright ε is sometimes positive, sometimes negative, and can be different for two cases even if all their x values are the same.
- ▶ It is a different beast from the variables *x*, *w* and *t*: it is a random variable.
- ► Captures all the factors that we are not modeling.



Sample Space

Sample Space

A **sample space**, *S*, is

- 1. Classical/objectivist defintion: a collection of possible **outcomes** of a **random experiment** (The coin will come up heads or tails. The die will come up 1,2,3,4,5 or 6.)
- 2. Bayesian/subjectivist definition: a collection of "possible worlds" that we might be in (The coin has come up heads or tails. The cat is alive or dead.)

When needed, we denote a generic individual outcome by ω , and can say, e.g., "for each $\omega \in S$, ..."

Events

Event

An **event** is a *subset* of the sample space that does or does not contain (is true or false for) a particular outcome/possible world.

- ► The coin comes up heads.
- ► The cat is alive.
- ► The die shows an even number.

Semantics of Set Operations

Equivalence between "set" and "proposition" representations.

- 1. Set *E*: outcomes s.t. proposition *E* is true.
- 2. Union, $E \cup F$: logical OR between propositions E and F.
- 3. Intersection, $E \cap F$: logical AND
- 4. Complement, E^{C} : logical negation



Probability Space

Probability Space

A **probability space** is a sample space, S, augmented with a function, P, that assigns a **probability** to each event, $E \subset S$.

Kolmogorov Axioms

- 1. $0 \le P(E) \le 1$ for all $E \subset S$.
- 2. P(S) = 1.
- 3. If $E \cap F = \emptyset$ then $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F)$.

Important Consequences

- 1. $P(\emptyset) = 0$.
- 2. $P(E^{C}) = 1 P(E)$
- 3. In general, $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) P(E \cap F)$.

Random Variable

Random Variable

- ▶ Formally, a **random variable** is a function, X, that assigns a number to each outcome in S (e.g., dead \rightarrow 0, alive \rightarrow 1).
- ► Key consequence: a random variable divides the sample space into **equivalence classes**: sets of outcomes that share some property (differ only in ways irrelevant to *X*)

Example

- ▶ Let S = all sequences of 3 coin tosses.
- ▶ We can define a r.v. *X* that counts number of heads.
- ► Then *HHT* and *HTH* are equivalent in the eyes of *X*:

$$X(HHT) = X(HTH) = 2$$

13