

Data Mining & Machine Learning

CS37300

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Today's topics

- Independence
- Expectation, variance
- Common distributions
- Maximum likelihood estimation

Recall from previous lecture...

- Probability is useful to model uncertainty

- Joint probability $P(A, B)$

- Marginal probability $P(A) = \sum_b P(A, B = b)$

- Conditional probability $P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$

$$P(A, B) = P(A \mid B)P(B)$$

Note: We use the notation $P(A \wedge B) = P(A, B)$


Independence


- Events A and B are independent iff
 - $P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B)$
 - Equivalently: $P(A | B) = P(A)$ or $P(B | A) = P(B)$
 - *Knowing B happens tells you nothing about whether A happens*
- Random variables X and Y are independent iff every event about X is independent of every event about Y.
 - Equivalently: joint distribution $P_{(X,Y)}$ is equal $P_X P_Y$ product of marginal distributions
 - If discrete variables: $P(Y=y, X=x) = P(Y=y)P(X=x)$, or $P(Y=y|X=x) = P(Y=y)$
- Examples
 - Coin flip 1 and coin flip 2?
 - Weather and storm warning?
 - Weather and coin flip=H?


Example of independent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	Y = 1	Y = 2	Y = 3	
X = 1	0.025	0.15	0.075	→ $P(X=1) = 0.25$
X = 2	0.075	0.45	0.225	→ $P(X=2) = 0.75$


 $P(Y=1) = 0.1$


 $P(Y=2) = 0.6$


 $P(Y=3) = 0.3$

- $P(X=1, Y=1) = P(X=1) P(Y=1) ?$ $P(X=2, Y=1) = P(X=2) P(Y=1) ?$
- $P(X=1, Y=2) = P(X=1) P(Y=2) ?$ $P(X=2, Y=2) = P(X=2) P(Y=2) ?$
- $P(X=1, Y=3) = P(X=1) P(Y=3) ?$ $P(X=2, Y=3) = P(X=2) P(Y=3) ?$
- If the answer to the 6 questions above is “Yes”, then X and Y are independent

Example of independent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	Y = 1	Y = 2	Y = 3	
X = 1	0.025	0.15	0.075	$\rightarrow P(X=1) = 0.25$
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\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow

$P(Y=1) = 0.1$ $P(Y=2) = 0.6$ $P(Y=3) = 0.3$

- $0.025 = 0.25 * 0.1$ (Yes) $0.075 = 0.75 * 0.1$ (Yes)
 - $0.15 = 0.25 * 0.6$ (Yes) $0.45 = 0.75 * 0.6$ (Yes)
 - $0.075 = 0.25 * 0.3$ (Yes) $0.225 = 0.75 * 0.3$ (Yes)
- The answer to the 6 questions above is “Yes”. **X and Y are independent.**

Example of independent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	$Y = 1$	$Y = 2$	$Y = 3$	
$X = 1$	0.025	0.15	0.075	$\rightarrow P(X=1) = 0.25$
$X = 2$	0.075	0.45	0.225	$\rightarrow P(X=2) = 0.75$


$\downarrow \qquad \downarrow \qquad \downarrow$
 $P(Y=1) = 0.1 \quad P(Y=2) = 0.6 \quad P(Y=3) = 0.3$


- Quick way to check:
 - In every column, values have proportions 1:3
 - So conditional distribution X given $Y=y$ doesn't depend on y
 - $P(X=x|Y=y) = P(X=x)$


Example of dependent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	Y = 1	Y = 2	Y = 3	
X = 1	0.025	0.125	0.1	→ $P(X=1) = 0.25$
X = 2	0.075	0.475	0.2	→ $P(X=2) = 0.75$


 $P(Y=1) = 0.1$


 $P(Y=2) = 0.6$


 $P(Y=3) = 0.3$

- $P(X=1, Y=1) = P(X=1) P(Y=1) ?$ $P(X=2, Y=1) = P(X=2) P(Y=1) ?$
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- $P(X=1, Y=3) = P(X=1) P(Y=3) ?$ $P(X=2, Y=3) = P(X=2) P(Y=3) ?$
- If the answer to the 6 questions above is “Yes”, then X and Y are independent

Example of dependent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	Y = 1	Y = 2	Y = 3	
X = 1	0.025	0.125	0.1	$\rightarrow P(X=1) = 0.25$
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\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow

$P(Y=1) = 0.1$ $P(Y=2) = 0.6$ $P(Y=3) = 0.3$

- $0.025 = 0.25 * 0.1$ (Yes) $0.075 = 0.75 * 0.1$ (Yes)
 - $0.125 = 0.25 * 0.6$ (No) $0.475 = 0.75 * 0.6$ (No)
 - $0.1 = 0.25 * 0.3$ (No) $0.2 = 0.75 * 0.3$ (No)
- The answer to at least 1 question above is “No”. **X and Y are NOT independent.**

Example of dependent variables

- How to check for independence?
- Joint probability $P(X,Y)$

	Y = 1	Y = 2	Y = 3	
X = 1	0.025	0.125	0.1	$\rightarrow P(X=1) = 0.25$
X = 2	0.075	0.475	0.2	$\rightarrow P(X=2) = 0.75$

\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow

$P(Y=1) = 0.1$ $P(Y=2) = 0.6$ $P(Y=3) = 0.3$

- First column has proportions 1:3
- Third column has proportions 1:2
- $P(X=x|Y=y)$ depends on y .
- They can't be independent.

Mutual Independence

- Multiple events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are **(mutually) independent** iff
- Every $I \subset \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and $J \subset \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ have

$$P\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \cap \bigcap_{j \in J} A_j\right) = P\left(\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i\right) P\left(\bigcap_{j \in J} A_j\right)$$

- Random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are (mutually) independent iff
- Every event A_1 about X_1 , event A_2 about X_2, \dots event A_n about X_n
- satisfy that A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are mutually independent

Conditional independence

- Two events A and B are **conditionally** independent given C iff:
 - $P(A \wedge B \mid C) = P(A \mid C) P(B \mid C)$
 - Equivalently: $P(A \mid B \wedge C) = P(A \mid C)$ or $P(B \mid A \wedge C) = P(B \mid C)$
- Two random variables X and Y are conditionally independent given Z iff:
 - For all events A for X , B for Y , C for Z :
 A and B are conditionally independent given C
 - (discrete variables) Equivalently: $P(X=x, Y=y \mid Z=z) = P(X=x \mid Z=z) P(Y=y \mid Z=z)$
- **Note:** *independence does not imply conditional independence or vice versa*

Example I

- **Conditional independence does not imply independence**

- On a random day,
 - A = event that Alice attends a lecture
 - B = event that Bob attends a lecture

$$P(A) = 3/7, \quad P(B) = 0.2$$

- Given the event D that the day is either Mon, Wed or Fri

$$P(A|D) = 1, \quad P(B|D) = 0.7$$

- Alice and Bob don't know each other, say $P(A \wedge B | D) = P(A|D)P(B|D)$
- If Alice attends lecture, it's definitely M,W or F i.e. A,D are “duplicates”

$$P(B|A) = 0.7 \neq 0.2 = P(B)$$

- A and B not independent, but are conditionally independent given D

Example 2

- **Independence does not imply conditional independence**

- Flip 2 coins.
- A = event coin 1 is heads
- B = event coin 2 is heads

$$P(A|B) = P(A) \quad A \text{ and } B \text{ independent}$$

- C = event exactly one coin was heads: $C=\{HT,TH\}$

$$P(A|C) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad P(B|C) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(A \wedge B \mid C) = 0 \neq P(A|C)P(B|C)$$

- A and B not conditionally independent given C

Expectation

- Denotes the expected value or mean value of a random variable X

- Discrete

$$E[X] = \sum_x x \, p(x)$$

- Continuous

$$E[X] = \int_x x \, p(x) dx$$

- Expectation of a function

$$E[aX + b] = a \, E[X] + b$$

$$E[h(X)] = \sum_x h(x) \, p(x)$$

$$E[h(X)] = \int_x h(x) p(x) dx$$

Called the “law of the unconscious statistician” (seriously)

Example

- Let X be a random variable that represents the number of heads which appear when a fair coin is tossed three times.
- $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
- Sample space: HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT
- **$X=0$** (TTT), **$X=1$** (HTT, THT, TTH), **$X=2$** (HHT, HTH, THH), **$X=3$** (HHH)
- $P(\mathbf{X=0}) = 1/8$; $P(\mathbf{X=1}) = 3/8$; $P(\mathbf{X=2}) = 3/8$; $P(\mathbf{X=3}) = 1/8$
- What is the expected value of X , $E[X]$?

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= (0 \cdot \frac{1}{8}) + (1 \cdot \frac{3}{8}) + (2 \cdot \frac{3}{8}) + (3 \cdot \frac{1}{8}) \\ &= \frac{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Variance

- Denotes the squared deviation of X from its mean

$$\begin{aligned}Var(X) &= E[(X - E[X])^2] \\ &= E[X^2] - (E[X])^2\end{aligned}$$

- Variance

- Standard deviation

$$\sigma = \sqrt{Var(X)}$$

- Variance of a function

$$Var(aX + b) = a^2 Var(X)$$

$$Var(h(X)) = \sum_x (h(x) - E[h(X)])^2 p(x)$$

Example

- Let X be a random variable that represents the number of heads which appear when a fair coin is tossed three times.
- $X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= (0 \cdot \frac{1}{8}) + (1 \cdot \frac{3}{8}) + (2 \cdot \frac{3}{8}) + (3 \cdot \frac{1}{8}) \\ &= \frac{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

- What is the variance of X , $\text{Var}(X)$?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}(X) &= \left(\left[0 - \frac{3}{2} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \right) + \left(\left[1 - \frac{3}{2} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{3}{8} \right) + \left(\left[2 - \frac{3}{2} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{3}{8} \right) + \left(\left[3 - \frac{3}{2} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{1}{8} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{9}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{8} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{8} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{8} \right) + \left(\frac{9}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{8} \right) \\ &= \frac{3}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Common distributions

- Bernoulli
- Binomial
- Multinomial
- Normal

Bernoulli

- Binary variable $X \in \{0, 1\}$ that takes the value of 1 with probability $p \in [0, 1]$
- E.g., Outcome of a fair coin toss is Bernoulli with $p=0.5$. Here $x=1$ means that the coin landed heads up, $x=0$ means the the coin landed tails up

$$P(x) = p^x (1 - p)^{1-x}$$

$$E[X] = 1(p) + 0(1 - p) = p$$

$$\begin{aligned} Var(X) &= E[X^2] - (E[X])^2 \\ &= 1^2(p) + 0^2(1 - p) - p^2 \\ &= p(1 - p) \end{aligned}$$

Binomial

- Describes the number of successful outcomes in n independent Bernoulli(p) trials

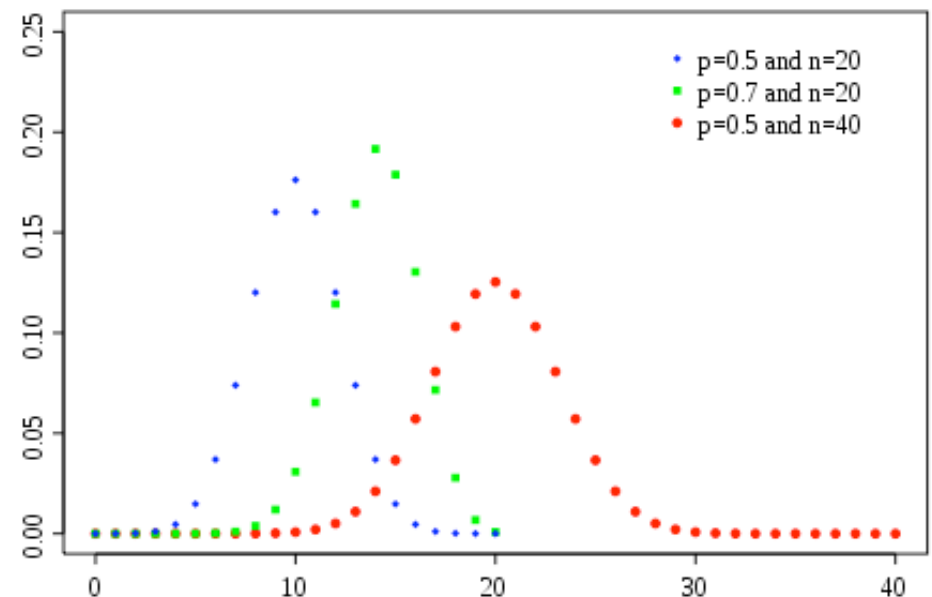
$$X \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}, \quad p \in [0, 1]$$

- E.g., Number of heads in a sequence of 10 tosses of a fair coin is Binomial with $n=10$ and $p=0.5$. Here x is the number of heads.

$$P(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}$$

$$E[X] = np$$

$$Var[X] = np(1 - p)$$



Multinomial

- Generalization of binomial to k possible outcomes; outcome i has probability p_i of occurring; x_i is the number of times the i -th outcome occurs in n trials
- E.g., Number of {outs, singles, doubles, triples, homeruns} in a sequence of $n=10$ times at bat is Multinomial. Here $k=5$, x_1 is the number of “outs”, p_1 is the probability of “out”, ..., x_5 is the number of “homeruns”, p_5 is the probability of “homerun”.

$$x_i \in \{0,1,\dots,n\}, \quad p_i \in [0,1], \quad \sum_{i=1}^k x_i = n, \quad \sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1$$

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_k} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \dots p_k^{x_k}$$

$$E[X_i] = np_i$$

$$Var(X_i) = np_i(1 - p_i)$$

Normal (Gaussian)

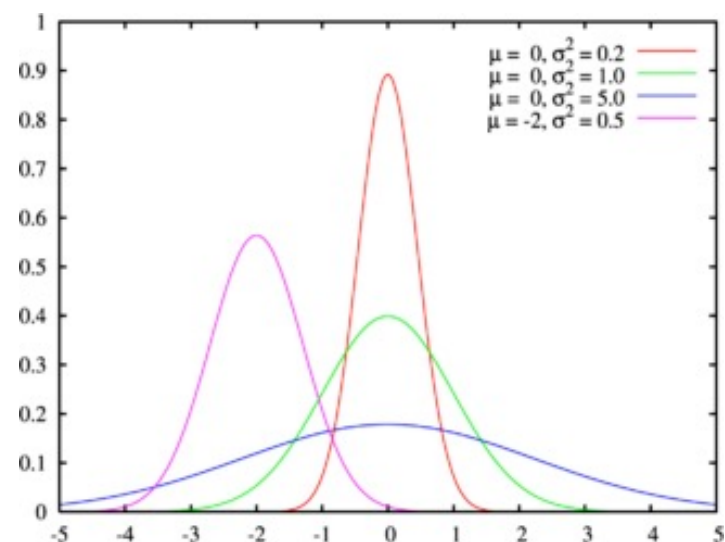
- Important distribution gives well-known bell shape
- Central limit theorem:
 - Distribution of \sqrt{n} times the average of n independent zero-mean samples becomes normally distributed as $n \rightarrow \infty$, regardless of the distribution of the underlying population



$$P(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

$$E[X] = \mu$$

$$Var(X) = \sigma^2$$



Likelihood function

- A random variable \underline{x} has **parameters** θ and probability $P(\underline{x};\theta)$

e.g., Bernoulli: $\theta = p$, $P(x;\theta) = p^x (1-p)^{1-x}$

multinomial: $\theta = (p_1, \dots, p_k)$, $P(\underline{x};\theta) = \binom{n}{x_1, \dots, x_k} p_1^{x_1} p_2^{x_2} \dots p_k^{x_k}$

- Assume we have n **independent** samples $\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \dots, \underline{x}_n$
- Define the dataset $D = \{\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \dots, \underline{x}_n\}$
- The likelihood function represents the probability of the dataset D as a function of the model parameters θ

$$L(D;\theta) = P(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \dots, \underline{x}_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(\underline{x}_i; \theta)$$

by independence

Likelihood function

- The likelihood function represents the probability of the dataset D as a function of the model parameters θ

$$L(D; \theta) = P(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \dots, \underline{x}_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(\underline{x}_i; \theta)$$

- Gives **relative probability of data given a parameter**
- We can compare two values θ and θ' by comparing their likelihoods
- We say that θ is better for explaining the dataset D than θ' if

$$L(D; \theta) > L(D; \theta')$$

Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

- Most widely used method of parameter estimation
- **Intuition:** a θ with higher likelihood explains better the data
- “Learn” the best parameters θ that maximizes likelihood:

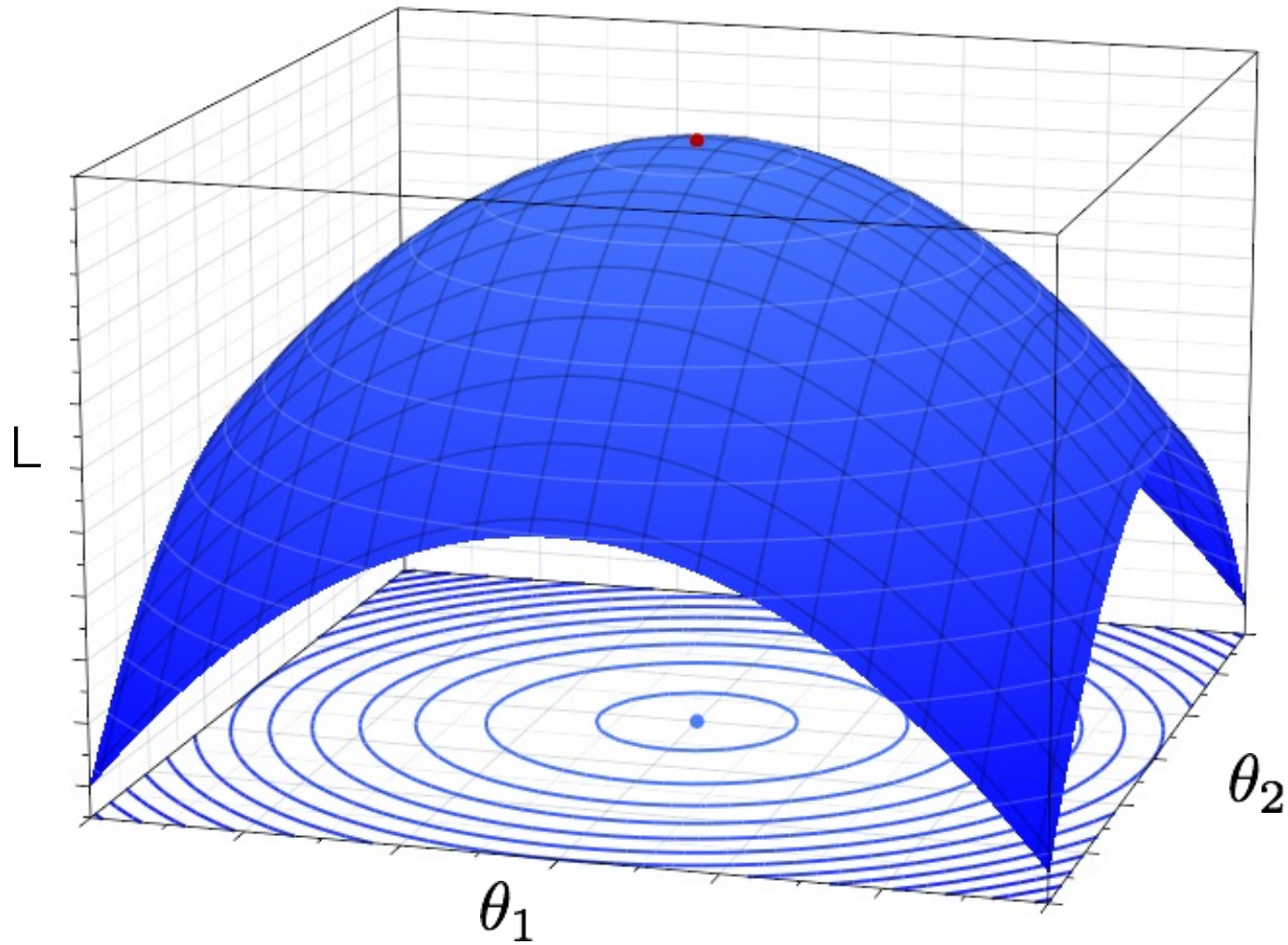
$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} L(D; \theta)$$

- Often easier to work with log-likelihood:

$$l(D; \theta) = \log L(D; \theta) = \log \prod_{i=1}^n P(\underline{x}_i; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(\underline{x}_i; \theta)$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} l(D; \theta)$$

Likelihood surface



If the log-likelihood surface is concave, we can often determine the parameters that maximize the function analytically

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) for Bernoulli

- For a Bernoulli r.v. $x_i \in \{0,1\}$, $\theta = p$, $P(x_i; \theta) = p^{x_i} (1-p)^{1-x_i}$
- Clearly: $\log P(x_i; \theta) = x_i \log p + (1-x_i) \log(1-p)$
- The **log-likelihood function** is:

$$\begin{aligned} l(D; \theta) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(x_i; \theta) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \log p + (1-x_i) \log(1-p)) \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) \log p + \left(n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) \log(1-p) \end{aligned}$$

- Recall that the **MLE** is:

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ l(D; \theta)$$

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) for Bernoulli

- For a Bernoulli r.v. $x_i \in \{0,1\}$, $\theta = p$, $P(x_i; \theta) = p^{x_i} (1 - p)^{1-x_i}$
- The **log-likelihood function** is:

$$l(D; \theta) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) \log p + \left(n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right) \log(1 - p)$$

- Recall that the **MLE** is:

$$\hat{\theta} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} l(D; \theta)$$

- We can maximize $l(D; \theta)$ by taking derivative equal to zero:

$$\frac{\partial l(D; \theta)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{p} - \frac{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{1 - p} = 0 \quad \text{then} \quad \hat{p} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}$$

- The MLE $\hat{\theta} = \hat{p}$ is the **proportion of ones in the dataset**. This is intuitive since the parameter $\theta = p = \mathbb{E}[X]$ is the **expected proportion of ones**.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) for Bernoulli

```
import numpy as np
def example_bernoulli(n):
    z = np.random.randint(0,2,n)
    return 1.0/n * np.sum(z)
```

```
>>> example_bernoulli(10)
0.8
>>> example_bernoulli(100)
0.44
>>> example_bernoulli(10000)
0.5138
```

Returns n random integers ≥ 0 and < 2 , each value with equal probability. In this case (0 or 1) then $p = 0.5$ in the Bernoulli distribution

Computes average

From the terminal, use your Career account to start a session:

```
ssh username@data.cs.purdue.edu
```

From the terminal:

```
python
```