Machine Learning CS 4641



Probability and Statistics

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These slides are based on slides from Le Song, Sam Roweis, Mahdi Roozbahani, and Chao Zhang.

Outline

- Probability Distributions
- Joint and Conditional Probability Distributions
- Bayes' Rule
- Mean and Variance
- Properties of Gaussian Distribution
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Probability

- A sample space S is the set of all possible outcomes of a conceptual or physical, repeatable experiment. (S can be finite or infinite.)
 - E.g., S may be the set of all possible outcomes of a dice roll: S
 (1 2 3 4 5 6)
 - E.g., S may be the set of all possible nucleotides of a DNA site: S
 (A C G T)
 - E.g., S may be the set of all possible time-space positions of an aircraft on a radar screen.
- An Event A is any subset of S
 - Seeing "1" or "6" in a dice roll; observing a "G" at a site; UA007 in space-time interval

Three Key Ingredients in Probability Theory

A sample space is a collection of all possible outcomes

Random variables X represents **outcomes** in sample space

Probability of a random variable to happen

$$p(x) = p(X = x)$$

 $p(x) \ge 0$

Continuous variable

Continuous probability distribution Probability density function Density or likelihood value Temperature (real number) Gaussian Distribution

$$\int_{x} p(x) dx = 1$$

Discrete variable

Discrete probability distribution Probability mass function Probability value Coin flip (integer) Bernoulli distribution

$$\sum_{x \in A} p(x) = 1$$

Continuous Probability Functions

- Examples:
 - Uniform Density Function:

$$f_{x}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a \leq x \leq b\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Exponential Density Function:

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} e^{-\frac{x}{\mu}} \qquad for \ x \ge 0$$
$$F_x(x) = 1 - e^{\frac{-x}{\mu}} \qquad for \ x \ge 0$$

Gaussian(Normal) Density Function

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

Discrete Probability Functions

- Examples:
 - Bernoulli Distribution:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
1-p & for \ x=0\\ p & for \ x=1 \end{array} \right.
\end{array}$$

In Bernoulli, just a **single** trial is conducted

• Binomial Distribution: • $P(X = k) = {n \choose k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$

k is number of successes

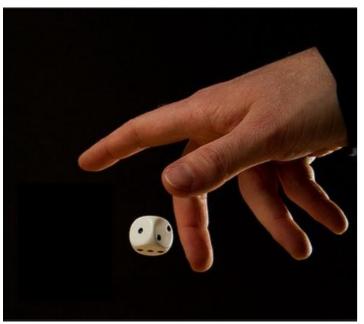
n-k is number of failures

 $\binom{n}{k}$ The total number of ways of selection **k** distinct combinations of **n** trials, **irrespective of order**.

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Example



X = Throw a dice



Y = Flip a coin

X and Y are random variables

- \mathbf{N} = total number of trials
- n_{ij} = Number of occurrences

		Χ						C
Y		-					$x_{i=6} = 6$	
	$y_{j=2} = tail$ $y_{j=1} = head$	$n_{ij} = 3$	$n_{ij} = 4$	$n_{ij} = 2$	$n_{ij} = 5$	$n_{ij} = 1$	$n_{ij} = 5$	20
	$y_{i=1} = head$	$n_{ij} = 2$	$n_{ij} = 2$	$n_{ij} = 4$	$n_{ij} = 2$	$n_{ij} = 4$	$n_{ij} = 1$	15
	C_i						6	

Pr(x=4, y=h)

Pr(x=5)

Pr(y=t | x=3)

Joint from conditional $Pr(x=x_i, y = y_i)$

Probability:

Joint probability:

$$p(X = x_i) = \frac{c_i}{N}$$
$$p(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \frac{n_{ij}}{N}$$

Conditional probability:

$$p(Y = y_j | X = x_i) = \frac{n_{ij}}{c_i}$$

Sum rule

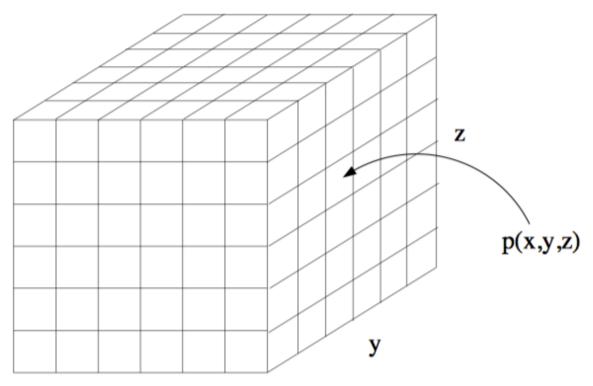
$$p(X = x_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{L} p(X = x_i, Y = y_j) \Rightarrow p(X) = \sum_{Y} P(X, Y)$$

Product rule

$$p(X = x_i, Y = y_j) = \frac{n_{ij}}{N} = \frac{n_{ij}c_i}{c_iN} = p(Y = y_j|X = x_i)p(X = x_i)$$
$$p(X, Y) = p(Y|X)p(X)$$

Joint Distribution

- Key concept: two or more random variables may interact. Thus, the probability of one taking on a certain value depends on which value(s) the others are taking.
- \bullet We call this a joint ensemble and write $p(x,y) = \operatorname{prob}(X = x \text{ and } Y = y)$

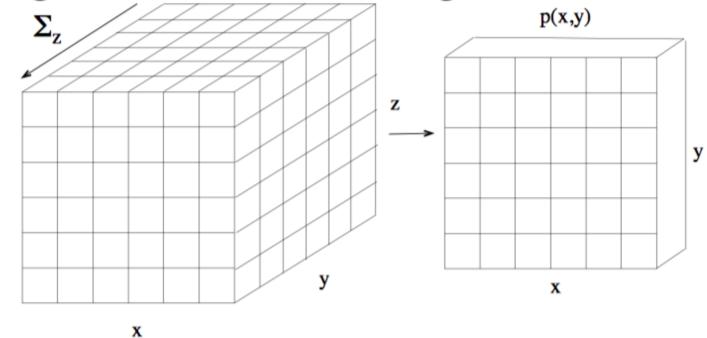


Marginal Distribution

 We can "sum out" part of a joint distribution to get the marginal distribution of a subset of variables:

$$p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x, y)$$

• This is like adding slices of the table together.

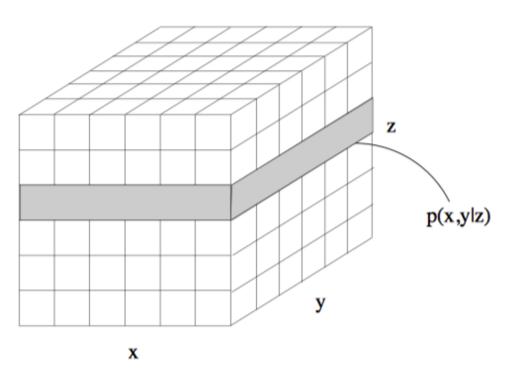


• Another equivalent definition: $p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x|y)p(y)$.

Conditional Distribution

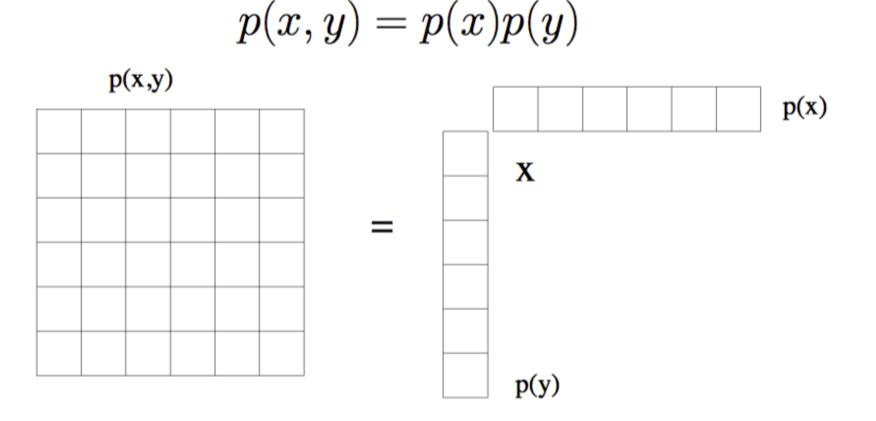
- If we know that some event has occurred, it changes our belief about the probability of other events.
- This is like taking a "slice" through the joint table.

$$p(x|y) = p(x,y)/p(y)$$



Independence & Conditional Independence

• Two variables are independent iff their joint factors:



• Two variables are conditionally independent given a third one if for all values of the conditioning variable, the resulting slice factors:

$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z) \quad \forall z$$

Conditional Independence

Examples:

```
P(Virus | Drink Beer) = P(Virus)
iff Virus is independent of Drink Beer
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P(Flu | Virus;DrinkBeer) = P(Flu | Virus)

iff Flu is independent of Drink Beer, given Virus
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P(Headache | Flu;Virus;DrinkBeer) =
P(Headache | Flu;DrinkBeer)
iff Headache is independent of Virus, given Flu and Drink Beer
```

Assume the above independence, we obtain:

P(Headache;Flu;Virus;DrinkBeer)

=P(Headache | Flu;Virus;DrinkBeer) P(Flu | Virus;DrinkBeer)

P(Virus | Drink Beer) P(DrinkBeer)

=P(Headache|Flu;DrinkBeer) P(Flu|Virus) P(Virus) P(DrinkBeer)

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Bayes' Rule

P(X|Y)= Fraction of the worlds in which X is true given that Y is also true.

- For example:
 - H="Having a headache"
 - F="Coming down with flu"
 - P(Headche|Flu) = fraction of flu-inflicted worlds in which you have a headache. How to calculate?
- Definition:

$$P(X|Y) = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(Y)} = \frac{P(Y|X)P(X)}{P(Y)}$$
$$P(X,Y) = P(Y|X)P(X)$$

Corollary:

Bayes' Rule

•
$$P(Headache|Flu) = \frac{P(Headache,Flu)}{P(Flu)}$$

= $\frac{P(Flu|Headache)P(Headache)}{P(Flu)}$

Other cases:

•
$$P(Y|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{P(X|Y)P(Y) + P(X|\neg Y)P(\neg Y)}$$

• $P(Y = y_i|X) = \frac{P(X|Y)P(Y)}{\sum_{i \in S} P(X|Y = y_i)P(Y = y_i)}$
• $P(Y|X,Z) = \frac{P(X|Y,Z)P(Y,Z)}{P(X,Z)} = \frac{P(X|Y,Z)P(Y,Z)}{P(X|Y,Z)P(Y,Z) + P(X|\neg Y,Z)P(\neg Y,Z)}$

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Mean and Variance

Expectation: The mean value, center of mass, first moment:

$$E_X[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) p_X(x) dx = \mu$$

• N-th moment:
$$g(x) = x^n$$

- N-th central moment: $g(x) = (x \mu)^n$
- Mean: $E_X[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p_X(x) dx$
 - $E[\alpha X] = \alpha E[X]$
 - $E[\alpha + X] = \alpha + E[X]$
- Variance(Second central moment): $Var(x) = E_X[(X E_X[X])^2] = E_X[X^2] E_X[X]^2$
 - $Var(\alpha X) = \alpha^2 Var(X)$
 - $Var(\alpha + X) = Var(X)$

For Joint Distributions

Expectation and Covariance:

- E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]
- $cov(X,Y) = E[(X E_X[X])(Y E_Y(Y)] = E[XY] E[X]E[Y]$

• Var(X + Y) = Var(X) + 2cov(X, Y) + Var(Y)

Outline

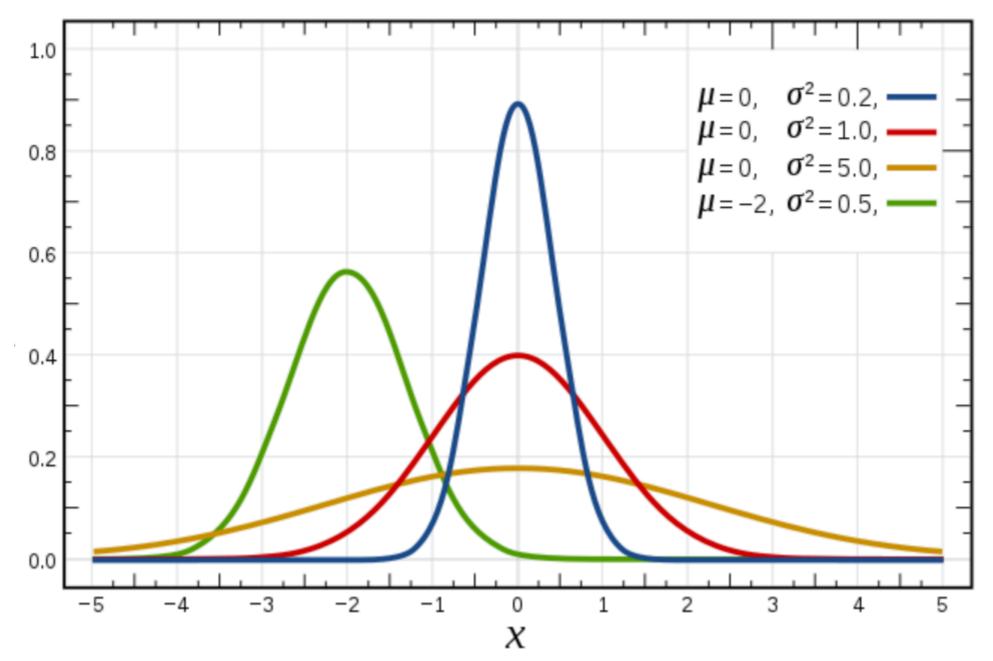
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Gaussian Distribution

Gaussian Distribution:

$$f(x|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Probability density function



Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

$$p(x|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2} (x-\mu)^{\mathsf{T}} \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)\}$$

• Moment Parameterization $\mu = E(X)$

$$\Sigma = Cov(X) = E[(X - \mu)(X - \mu)^{\mathsf{T}}]$$

- Mahalanobis Distance $\Delta^2 = (x \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x \mu)$
- Tons of applications (MoG, FA, PPCA, Kalman filter,...)

Properties of Gaussian Distribution

The linear transform of a Gaussian r.v. is a Gaussian. Remember that no matter how x is distributed

E(AX + b) = AE(X) + b $Cov(AX + b) = ACov(X)A^{T}$ this means that for Gaussian distributed quantities:

$$X \sim N(\mu, \Sigma) \rightarrow AX + b \sim N(A\mu + b, A\Sigma A^{\top})$$

The sum of two independent Gaussian r.v. is a Gaussian

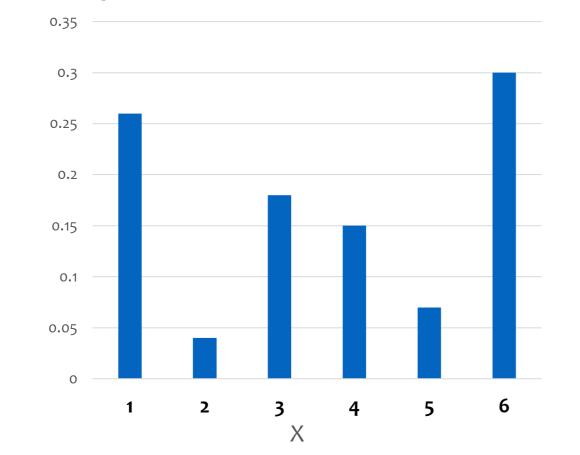
$$Y = X_1 + X_2, X_1 \perp X_2 \rightarrow \mu_y = \mu_1 + \mu_2, \Sigma_y = \Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2$$

 The multiplication of two Gaussian functions is another Gaussian function (although no longer normalized)

$$N(a,A)N(b,B) \propto N(c,C),$$

where $C = (A^{-1} + B^{-1})^{-1}, c = CA^{-1}a + CB^{-1}b$

Central Limit Theorem



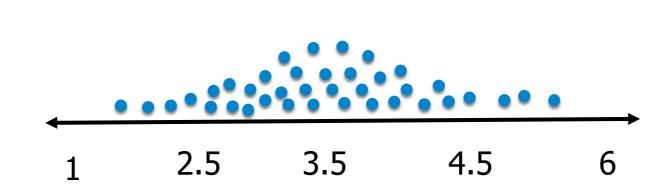
Probability mass function of a **biased** dice

Let's say, I am going to get a sample from this pmf having a size of n = 4

$$S_1 = \{1, 1, 1, 6\} \Rightarrow E(S_1) = 2.25$$

$$S_2 = \{1, 1, 3, 6\} \Rightarrow E(S_2) = 2.75$$

:
$$S_m = \{1,4,6,6\} \Rightarrow E(S_m) = 4.25$$



According to CLT, it will follow a bell curve distribution (normal distribution)

CLT Definition

Statement: The central limit theorem (due to Laplace) tells us that, subject to certain mild conditions, the sum of a set of random variables, which is of course itself a random variable, has a distribution that becomes increasingly Gaussian as the number of terms in the sum increases (Walker, 1969).

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Likelihood, what is it? or Cat or Dog? Do we know? Let's find out!

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Probability: inferring probabilistic quantities for data given fixed models (e.g. prob. of events, marginals, conditionals, etc).
- Statistics: inferring a model given fixed data observations (e.g. clustering, classification, regression).

Main assumption:

Independent and identically distributed random variables i.i.d

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

For Bernoulli (i.e. flip a coin):

Objective function: $f(x_i; p) = p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i}$ $x_i \in \{0,1\} \text{ or } \{head, tail\}$

$$L(p) = p(X = x_1, X = x_2, X = x_3, \dots, X = x_n)$$

i.i.d assumption

$$= p(X = x_1)p(X = x_2) \dots p(X = x_n) = f(p; x_1)f(p; x_2) \dots f(p; x_n)$$
$$L(p) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i; p) = \prod_{i=1}^n p^{x_i}(1-p)^{1-x_i}$$

$$\begin{split} L(p) &= p^{x_1}(1-p)^{1-x_1} \times p^{x_2}(1-p)^{1-x_2} \dots \times p^{x_n}(1-p)^{1-x_n} = \\ &= p^{\sum x_i}(1-p)^{\sum (1-x_i)} \end{split}$$

We don't like multiplication, let's convert it into summation

What's the trick? Take the log $L(p) = p^{\sum x_i} (1-p)^{\sum (1-x_i)}$ $logL(p) = l(p) = \log(p) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \log(1-p) \sum_{i=1}^n (1-x_i)$

How to optimize p?

$$\frac{\partial l(p)}{\partial p} = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{p} - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (1-x_i)}{1-p} = 0$$

 $p = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$