

# Review of Probability

#### Applied Machine Learning

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## What is a probability

- A belief, a confidence, a likelihood
- "There's a 60% chance it will rain tomorrow."
	- Based on the information I have, if we were to simulate the future 100 times, I'd expect it to rain 60 of them.
	- I think it's a little more likely to rain than not
- You have a 1/18 chance of rolling a 3 with two dice.
	- If you roll an infinite number of pairs of dice, 1 out of 18 of them will sum to 3.
- Probabilities are expectations, according to some information and assumptions.
	- E.g., it will either rain tomorrow or not

#### Why do we care about probability in machine learning?

- ML problems are often formulated as maximizing a conditional probability  $P(y|X)$ , e.g. the probability of the true label given features, or maximizing the data likelihood  $P(X)$
- Algorithms involving probabilistic objectives include logistic regression, naïve Bayes, decision trees, boosting, random forests, deep networks, EM algorithm, and more

### Example

There are two movies showing: "Bumblebee", with 40 attendees, and "Apocalypse" with 60 attendees.

What is the probability that a random person is watching Apocalypse?  $P(X=A)$ 

– Out of all events, what fraction satisfy the criterion



100 total people

Of those 60 are watching Apocalypse

So  $P(M = A) = 60 / 100 = 0.6$ 

## Joint Probability

Suppose we also know whether each movie-goer is a child or adult

What is the probability that a movie-goer watches Bumblebee and is an adult?

– Out of all events, what fraction satisfy all criteria





## Conditional Probability

Given that a movie-goer is a child, what is the probability that he or she is watching Bumblebee?

– Out of all events that satisfy the condition, what fraction satisfy the criterion



$$
P(M = B | Age = Child) = 20 / (20 + 10) = 0.667
$$

## Conditional Probability

If I know a movie-goer watching Bumblebee, what is the probability he or she is a child?

– Out of all events that satisfy the condition, what fraction satisfy the criterion



$$
P(M = B | Age = Child) = 20 / (20 + 20) = 0.5
$$

#### Relationships between joint and conditional/marginal probabilities

Joint probability is the product of the conditional probability and the probability that the condition is true.

$$
P(X,Y) = P(X|Y)P(Y) = P(Y|X)P(X)
$$

This extends to many variables with a chain rule.

$$
P(X, Y, Z) = P(X|Y, Z)P(Y|Z)P(Z)
$$

*Marginalize* out a variable by summing over its possible values

$$
P(X) = \sum_{i} P(X, Y = y_i) = \sum_{i} P(X|Y = y_i)P(y = y_i)
$$





From the joint probability table, you can always compute probabilities of subsets of variables or conditional probabilities with those variables.

 $P(Adult) = 0.2 + 0.5$   $P(Bumblebee) = 0.2 + 0.2$   $P(Adult | Bumblebee) = 0.2/(0.2 + 0.2)$ 

A is independent of B if (and only if)

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

$$
P(A|B) = P(A), \qquad P(B|A) = P(B)
$$

A and B are conditionally independent of C if (and only if)

$$
P(A, B|C) = P(A|C)P(B|C)
$$

#### Estimate a discrete probability function by counting



### Probability density functions of continuous variables

What if the variable is continuous?

Precise values may never occur and be infinitesimally unlikely, e.g.  $P(A \text{ge} = 11.05) = 0$ 

We replace the probability function with the probability *density* function, which can be integrated over a range to give a probability.

$$
P(10 \le Age < 11) = \int_{10}^{11} p(Age = a) da
$$



#### Probability density function (PDF)  $\rightarrow$  Probability



### How to estimate probability density functions from samples

1. Discretize and count (histogram)

2. Kernel density estimation

3. Fit parameters of a model Gaussian:  $\mu = -0.015 \space \sigma = 1.004$ 



#### What must be true about probability functions?

1. Probabilities cannot be negative

- 2. The sum (for discrete) or integral (for continuous) must be 1
	- For discrete, this means that each value must be between 0 and 1
	- But values can be greater than 1 in a probability density function

#### Expectation and Variance

• The *expected value* or *mean* of a random variable  $X \in \{v_1, ..., v_N\}$  is the average value we'd get if we took an infinitely large sample:

$$
E(X) = \lim_{M \to \infty} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{x_i \sim P(X)} x_i = \sum_{i=1..N} P(X = v_i) v_i
$$

• We can take the expectation of a function  $f(X)$ :

$$
E(f(X)) = \sum_{i=1..N} P(X = v_i) f(v_i)
$$

• The *variance* of X measures the expected square difference of the values from the mean

$$
Var(X) = E\big((E(X) - X)^2\big) = \sum_{i=1..N} P(X = v_i)(E(x) - v_i)^2
$$

• We can also take the mean or variance of a sample  $S = [s_0, ..., s_K]$ , called the empirical mean or variance

$$
E(S) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1..K} s_i \quad \text{Var}(S) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1..K} (E(S) - s_i)^2
$$

#### How do we measure the amount of data required to store a value of a variable?

- First, let's consider the likelihood of a set of values  $x \sim P(X)$ :  $P(x) = \prod_i P(x_i)$ , assuming the values are independent. However, this will become inconveniently small, so we can equivalently consider  $\log P(x) =$  $\sum_i \log P(x_i)$ . The expected value of this log likelihood gives us a measure of predictability.
- Entropy  $H(X)$  is the expected negative log likelihood of variable  $X \in \{v_1, ..., v_N\}$

$$
H(X) = \sum_{i=1..N} -P(X = v_i) \log_2 P(X = v_i)
$$

- Greater entropy means that the value of X is less predictable
	- If  $H(X) = 0$ , then  $P(X = x_i) = 1$  for some  $x_i$  (and 0 for others)
	- If  $H(X) = \log_2 P(N)$ , then  $P(X = x_i) = \frac{1}{N}$ for all N values
- If the values are less predictable, more bits are needed. Shannon's source coding theorem shows that the minimum expected number of bits required to encode a string of K i.i.d. values sampled from  $P(X)$  is  $KH(X)$ 
	- Complicated to prove, but think of each bit as dividing the possible values into two equally likely sets
	- E.g. let P(X=1)=1/4, P(X=2)=1/4, P(X=3)=0, P(X=4)=1/2. One bit can split ([1,2], 4) and, if needed, a second bit can split between 1 and 2. To encode, 1→00, 2→01, 4→1. This requires 1.5 bits on average.  $H(X) = 0.25 * 2 + 0.25 * 2 + 0.5 * 1 = 1.5$ . 1-1-1-01-<br>00-10-1 = 4,4,4,2,1,4,2

## Typical machine learning problem: predict Y from  $X$

- Given some features X, we want to predict target variable  $y$ , e.g.
	- $-X$  = email text and header; y= spam or not spam
	- $-X$  = meteorological data;  $y$  = next day's high temperature
	- $-X =$  image of a handwritten number;  $y = 0, 1, ...,$  or 9
- We often frame this probabilistically
	- $-$  To predict, select  $\mathrm{y}^*$ =  $\mathrm{argmax}_{\mathrm{y}}\,P(\mathrm{y}|X)$ , i.e. choose the  $\mathrm{y}$  that is most likely given  $X$
	- To train, optimize parameters that maximize the likelihood of the labels of the training data given the features of the training data

## Basics of vector/matrix multiplication

• 
$$
\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \sum_i w_i x_i
$$

- Element  $(i, j)$  of  $AB$  is the dot product of the ith row of A with the *j*th column of  $B$
- $AB \neq BA$
- If A is  $N \times M$  size matrix and B is  $M \times K$ , then AB is  $N \times K$
- If A is  $N \times M$  size matrix and B is  $L \times K$  with  $L \neq M$  then A cannot be multiplied by  $B$

#### Partial derivatives

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \sum_i w_i x_i = x_i
$$

## Classification by maximizing label likelihood

Suppose we want to predict a label  $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$  from an image  $X_i$ . Given a set of N training examples, solve for model parameters w to maximize  $P(y_1 ... y_n | X_1 ... X_N)$ . I.e., find the model parameters that make the training labels most likely, given the training features.

- 1. Assume each training sample is a sample from an identical and independent distribution (iid assumption):  $P(y_1 ... y_n | X_1 ... X_N) = \prod_{i=1}^N P(y_i | X_i)$
- 2. Maximizing a product is hard because the derivative is complicated. Instead, we can maximize a sum of logs

$$
\log \prod_{i=1..N} P(y_i|X_i) = \sum_{i=1..N} \log P(y_i|X_i)
$$

3. We need a function (a.k.a. a model) to output the probability given the label. Let's use linear logistic regression

$$
f(X_i, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^T X_i = \log P(y_i = 1 | X_i) - \log P(y_i = -1 | X_i) = \log \frac{P(y_i = 1 | X_i)}{P(y_i = -1 | X_i)}
$$

4. This is called a logistic score or logit. We can convert the logit to a probability:

$$
\frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(-\log\frac{P(y_i = 1 | X_i)}{P(y_i = -1 | X_i)}\right)} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{P(y_i = -1 | X_i)}{P(y_i = 1 | X_i)}} = \frac{P(y_i = 1 | X_i)}{P(y_i = 1 | X_i) + P(y_i = -1 | X_i)} = P(y_i = 1 | X_i)
$$

5. This function  $\sigma(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-x))$  is called a sigmoid. So  $\sigma(w^T X_i) = P(y_i = 1 | X)$ . Also,  $\sigma(-w^T X_i) = P(y_i = -1 | X)$ .

6. Now we can write our objective in terms of parameters, image features, and labels:

$$
\mathbf{w}_{opt} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i} \log(y_i \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T X_i)) = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i} -\log(y_i \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T X_i))
$$

7. The argmin expression is the "loss". We can optimize by taking the derivative of this expression wrt  $w$  and performing gradient descent.

#### Problems

[https://us.prairielearn.com/pl/course\\_instance/157430/assessm](https://us.prairielearn.com/pl/course_instance/157430/assessment/2432153) [ent/2432153](https://us.prairielearn.com/pl/course_instance/157430/assessment/2432153)