# Lecture 4: Statistical Learning CS480/680 Intro to Machine Learning 

Pascal Poupart<br>David R. Cheriton School of Computer Science

## Statistical Learning

- View: we have uncertain knowledge of the world
- Idea: learning simply reduces this uncertainty


## Terminology

- Probability distribution:
- A specification of a probability for each event in our sample space
- Probabilities must sum to 1
- Assume the world is described by two (or more) random variables
- Joint probability distribution
- Specification of probabilities for all combinations of events


## Joint distribution

- Given two random variables $A$ and $B$ :
- Joint distribution:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(A=a \Lambda B=b) \text { for all } a, b
$$

- Marginalisation (sumout rule):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(A=a)=\Sigma_{b} \operatorname{Pr}(A=a \Lambda B=b) \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(B=b)=\Sigma_{a} \operatorname{Pr}(A=a \Lambda B=b)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example: Joint Distribution

|  | cold | $\sim$ cold |  | cold | $\sim$ cold |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| headache | 0.108 | 0.012 | headache | 0.072 | 0.008 |
| ~headache | 0.016 | 0.064 | $\sim$ headache | 0.144 | 0.576 |


marginalization

## Conditional Probability

- $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B)$ : fraction of worlds in which $B$ is true that also have $A$ true

$H=$ "Have headache"
F="Have Flu"

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}(H)=1 / 10 \\
\operatorname{Pr}(F)=1 / 40 \\
\operatorname{Pr}(H \mid F)=1 / 2
\end{gathered}
$$

Headaches are rare and flu is rarer, but if you have the flu, then there is a 50-50 chance you will have a headache

## Conditional Probability



H="Have headache" F="Have Flu"

$$
\begin{gathered}
\operatorname{Pr}(H)=1 / 10 \\
\operatorname{Pr}(F)=1 / 40 \\
\operatorname{Pr}(H \mid F)=1 / 2
\end{gathered}
$$

$\operatorname{Pr}(H \mid F)=$ Fraction of flu inflicted worlds in which you have a headache = (\# worlds with flu and headache)/(\# worlds with flu)
= (Area of "H and F" region)/(Area of "F" region)
$=\operatorname{Pr}(H \Lambda F) / \operatorname{Pr}(F)$

## Conditional Probability

- Definition: $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B)=\operatorname{Pr}(A \Lambda B) / \operatorname{Pr}(B)$
- Chain rule: $\operatorname{Pr}(A \Lambda B)=\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{Pr}(B)$

Memorize these rules!

## Inference



## $H=" H a v e ~ h e a d a c h e " ~$

 F="Have Flu"$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(H)=1 / 10 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(F)=1 / 40 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(H \mid F)=1 / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

One day you wake up with a headache. You think "Drat! 50\% of flues are associated with headaches so I must have a 50-50 chance of coming down with the flu"

Is your reasoning correct?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}(F \Lambda H)=P(F) P(H \mid F)=1 / 40(1 / 2)=\frac{1}{80} \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(F \mid H)=\frac{P(F, H)}{P(H)}=\frac{1 / 80}{1 /\left(\delta_{\text {NVEESS }}\right.}=\frac{1}{8} \\
& \text { WATERLOO }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example: Joint Distribution

$\operatorname{Pr}($ headache $\Lambda$ cold $\mid$ sunny $)=\frac{P\left(h_{1} c_{r} s\right)}{P(s)}=\frac{0.108}{0.108+0.012+0.016+0.064}$


WATERLOO

## Bayes Rule

- Note: $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B) \operatorname{Pr}(B)=\operatorname{Pr}(A \Lambda B)=\operatorname{Pr}(B \Lambda A)=\operatorname{Pr}(B \mid A) \operatorname{Pr}(A)$
- Bayes Rule: $\quad \operatorname{Pr}(B \mid A)=\frac{\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{A} \mid \mathrm{B}) \operatorname{Pr}(B)}{\operatorname{Pr}(A)}$

Memorize this!

## Using Bayes Rule for inference

- Often, we want to form a hypothesis about the world based on what we have observed
- Bayes rule is vitally important when viewed in terms of stating the belief given to hypothesis $H$, given evidence $e$



## Bayesian Learning

- Prior: $\operatorname{Pr}(H)$
- Likelihood: $\operatorname{Pr}(e \mid H)$
- Evidence: $\boldsymbol{e}=<e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{N}>$
- Bayesian Learning amounts to computing the posterior using Bayes' Theorem:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(H \mid \boldsymbol{e})=\underset{ }{k} \operatorname{Pr}(\boldsymbol{e} \mid H) \operatorname{Pr}(H) \quad 1 / P(e) \underset{\text { constantization }}{\text { contin }}
$$

## Bayesian Prediction

- Suppose we want to make a prediction about an unknown quantity $X$
- $\operatorname{Pr}(X \mid \boldsymbol{e})=\Sigma_{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left(X \mid \boldsymbol{e}, h_{i}\right) P\left(h_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{e}\right)$

$$
=\Sigma_{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left(X \mid h_{i}\right) P\left(h_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{e}\right)
$$

- Predictions are weighted averages of the predictions of the individual hypotheses
- Hypotheses serve as "intermediaries" between raw data and prediction


## Candy Example

- Favorite candy sold in two flavors:
- Lime (hugh)
- Cherry (yum)
- Same wrapper for both flavors
- Sold in bags with different ratios:
- 100\% cherry
- $75 \%$ cherry $+25 \%$ lime
- $50 \%$ cherry $+50 \%$ lime
- $25 \%$ cherry $+75 \%$ lime
- 100\% lime


## Candy Example

- You bought a bag of candy but don't know its flavor ratio
- After eating $k$ candies:
- What's the flavor ratio of the bag?
- What will be the flavor of the next candy?


## Statistical Learning

- Hypothesis H: probabilistic theory of the world
- $h_{1}$ : 100\% cherry
- $h_{2}: 75 \%$ cherry $+25 \%$ lime
- $h_{3}: 50 \%$ cherry $+50 \%$ lime
- $h_{4}: 25 \%$ cherry $+75 \%$ lime
- $h_{5}$ : 100\% lime
- Examples E: evidence about the world
- $e_{1}: 1^{\text {st }}$ candy is cherry
- $e_{2}: 2^{\text {nd }}$ candy is lime
- $e_{3}: 3^{\text {rd }}$ candy is lime
- ...


## Candy Example

- Assume prior $\operatorname{Pr}(H)=<0.1,0.2,0.4,0.2,0.1>$
- Assume candies are i.i.d. (identically and independently distributed)

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h)=\Pi_{n} P\left(e_{n} \mid h\right)
$$

- Suppose first 10 candies all taste lime:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h_{5}\right)=1^{10}=1 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h_{3}\right)=0.5^{10}=0.00097 \\
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h_{1}\right)=0^{10}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Posterior



## Prediction



## Bayesian Learning

- Bayesian learning properties:
- Optimal (i.e., given prior, no other prediction is correct more often than the Bayesian one)
- No overfitting (all hypotheses are considered and weighted)
- There is a price to pay:
- When hypothesis space is large, Bayesian learning may be intractable
- i.e., sum (or integral) over hypothesis often intractable
- Solution: approximate Bayesian learning


## Maximum a posteriori (MAP)

- Idea: make prediction based on most probable hypothesis $h_{M A P}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{M A P}=\operatorname{argmax}_{h_{i}} \operatorname{Pr}\left(h_{i} \mid \boldsymbol{e}\right) \\
& \operatorname{Pr}(X \mid \boldsymbol{e}) \approx \operatorname{Pr}\left(X \mid h_{M A P}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- In contrast, Bayesian learning makes prediction based on all hypotheses weighted by their probability


## MAP properties

- MAP prediction less accurate than Bayesian prediction since it relies only on one hypothesis $h_{M A P}$
- But MAP and Bayesian predictions converge as data increases
- Controlled overfitting (prior can be used to penalize complex hypotheses)
- Finding $h_{M A P}$ may be intractable:
- $h_{M A P}=\operatorname{argmax}_{h} \operatorname{Pr}(h \mid \boldsymbol{e})$
- Optimization may be difficult


## Maximum Likelihood (ML)

- Idea: simplify MAP by assuming uniform prior (i.e., $\left.\operatorname{Pr}\left(h_{i}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(h_{j}\right) \forall i, j\right)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& h_{M A P}=\operatorname{argmax}_{h} \operatorname{Pr}(h) \operatorname{Pr}(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h) \\
& h_{M L}=\operatorname{argmax}_{h} \operatorname{Pr}(\boldsymbol{e} \mid h)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Make prediction based on $h_{M L}$ only:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X \mid \boldsymbol{e}) \approx \operatorname{Pr}\left(X \mid h_{M L}\right)
$$

## Maximum Likelihood (ML) properties

- ML prediction less accurate than Bayesian and MAP predictions since it ignores prior info and relies only on one hypothesis $h_{M L}$
- But ML, MAP and Bayesian predictions converge as data increases
- Subject to overfitting (no prior to penalize complex hypothesis that could exploit statistically insignificant data patterns)
- Finding $h_{M L}$ is often easier than $h_{M A P}$

$$
h_{M L}=\operatorname{argmax}_{h} \Sigma_{n} \log \operatorname{Pr}\left(e_{n} \mid h\right)
$$

