

Recording

The class will be recorded and the recordings made available via Canvas

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DS 4400

Machine Learning and Data Mining I

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September 17 2020

Announcements

- HW 1
 - Will be out today
 - Will be due on Monday, Sept. 28
- Python tutorials
 - Numpy tutorial by Matthew Jagielski
 - Friday, Sept. 18, 1-2pm
 - Panda data frames tutorial by Alex Wang
 - Wed, Sept. 23, 5-6pm
 - Same Zoom links as office hours

Recap

- ML is a subset of AI designing learning algorithms
- Learning tasks are *supervised* (e.g., classification and regression) or *unsupervised* (e.g., clustering)
 - Supervised learning uses labeled training data
- Learning the “best” model is challenging
 - Design algorithm to minimize the error
 - Bias-Variance tradeoff
 - Need to generalize on new, unseen test data
 - Occam’s razor (prefer simplest model with good performance)

Outline

- Probability review
 - Conditional probabilities
 - Bayes Theorem
- Linear algebra review
 - Matrix and vector operations
 - Transpose, inverse
 - Rank of a matrix
- Covariance and correlation coefficient

Probability review

Probability Resources

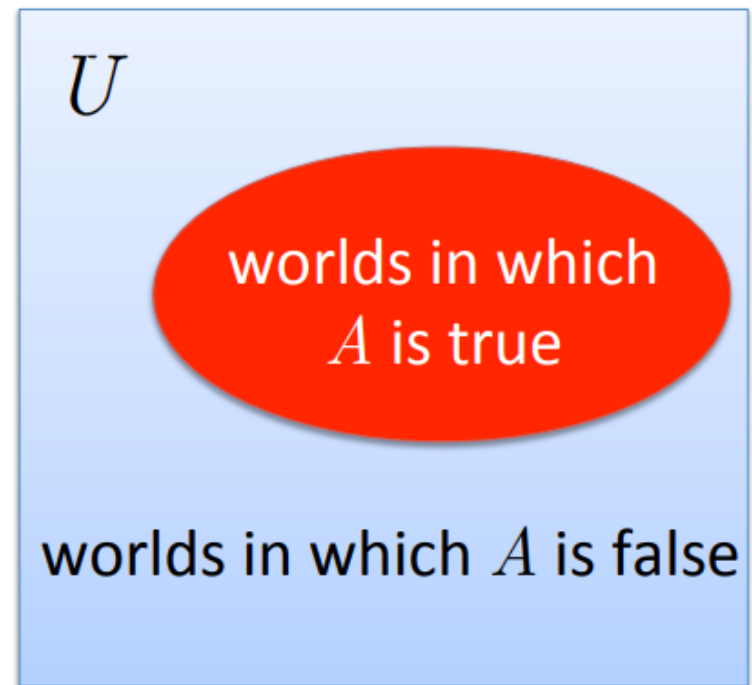
- [Review notes](#) from Stanford's machine learning class
- Sam Roweis's [probability review](#)
- David Blei's [probability review](#)
- Books:
 - Sheldon Ross, A First course in probability

Discrete Random Variables

- Let A denote a random variable
 - A represents an event that can take on certain values
 - Each value has an associated probability
- Examples of binary random variables:
 - A = I have a headache
 - A = Sally will be the US president in 2020
- $P(A)$ is “the fraction of possible worlds in which A is true”

Visualizing A

- Universe U is the event space of all possible worlds
 - Its area is 1
 - $P(U) = 1$
- $P(A) = \text{area of red oval}$
- Therefore:
$$P(A) + P(\neg A) = 1$$
$$P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A)$$

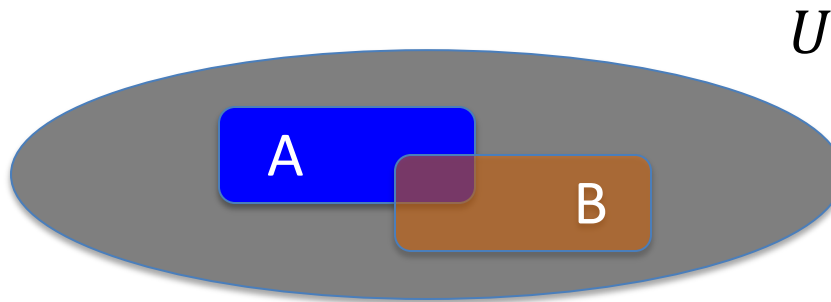


Working with Probabilities

- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- $P(U) = 1; P(\Phi) = 0$
- $P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A)$

Working with Probabilities

- $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$
- $P(U) = 1; P(\Phi) = 0$
- $P(\neg A) = 1 - P(A)$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$



Union bound

$$P(A \cup B) \leq P(A) + P(B)$$

Examples discrete RV

- Bernoulli RV
 - X is modelling a coin toss
 - Output: 1 (head) or 0 (tail)
 - $P[X=1] = p$; $P[X=0] = 1-p$
- Y is the number of points in a fair dice
 - $P[Y = k] = ?$ for $k \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$?
 - $P[Y = \text{even}] = ?$

Example discrete RV

- Z is the sum of two fair dice
 - What is $P[Z = k]$ for $k \in \{2, \dots, 12\}$?
 - What is k for which this probability is maximum?

Expectation and variance

Expectation for discrete random variable X

$$E[X] = \sum_v v \Pr[X = v]$$

Properties

- $E[aX] = a E[X]$
- $E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$
- $E[f(X)] = \sum_v f(v) \Pr[X = v]$

Variance

$$Var[X] \triangleq E[(X - E(X))^2]$$

Expectation and variance

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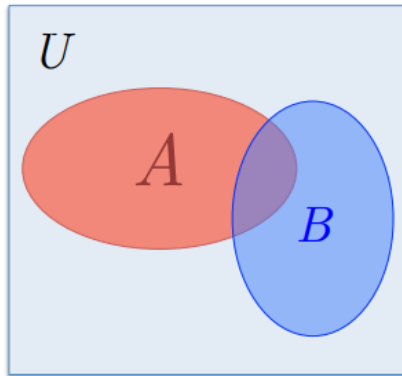
Variance

$$\text{Var}[X] \triangleq E[(X - E(X))^2]$$

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

Conditional Probability

- $P(A \mid B)$ = Fraction of worlds in which B is true that also have A true



What if we already know that B is true?

That knowledge changes the probability of A

- Because we know we're in a world where B is true

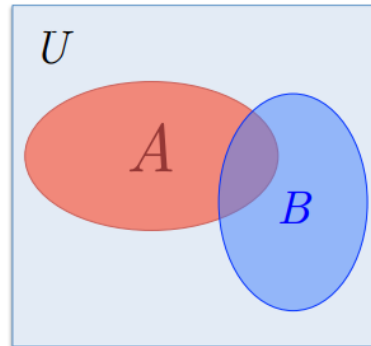
$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A \mid B) \times P(B)$$

Events A and B are **independent** if $\Pr[A \cap B] = \Pr[A] \cdot \Pr[B]$

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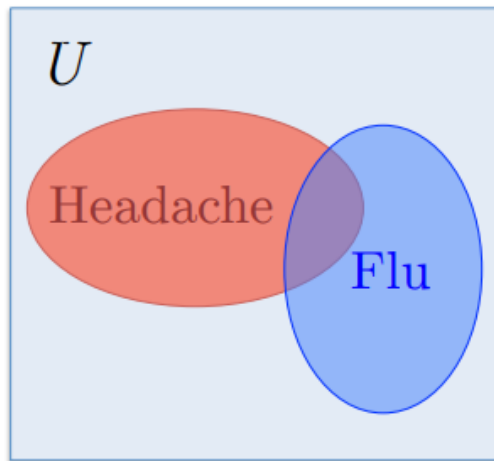
If A and B are independent

$$\Pr[A|B] = \frac{\Pr[A \cap B]}{\Pr[B]} = \frac{\Pr[A]\Pr[B]}{\Pr[B]} = \Pr[A]$$

Inference from Conditional Probability

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A \mid B) \times P(B)$$



$$P(\text{headache}) = 1/10$$

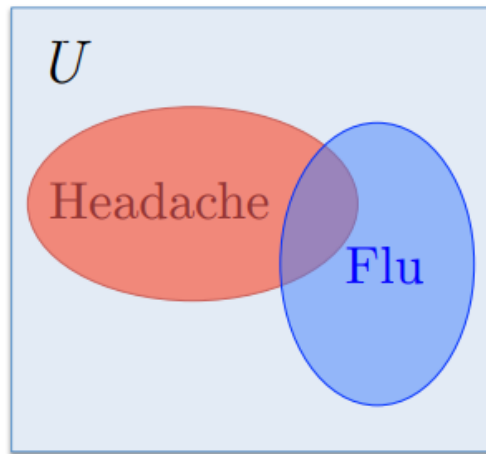
$$P(\text{flu}) = 1/40$$

$$P(\text{headache} \mid \text{flu}) = 1/2$$

“Headaches are rare and flu is rarer, but if you’re coming down with the flu there’s a 50-50 chance you’ll have a headache.”

Inference from Conditional Probability

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$
$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A | B) \times P(B)$$



$$P(\text{headache}) = 1/10$$

$$P(\text{flu}) = 1/40$$

$$P(\text{headache} | \text{flu}) = 1/2$$

One day you wake up with a headache.
You think: “Drat! 50% of flus are associated with headaches so I must have a 50-50 chance of coming down with flu.”

Is this reasoning good?

Inference from Conditional Probability

$$P(A \mid B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A \mid B) \times P(B)$$

$$P(\text{headache}) = 1/10$$

$$P(\text{flu}) = 1/40$$

$$P(\text{headache} \mid \text{flu}) = 1/2$$

Want to solve for:

$$P(\text{headache} \wedge \text{flu}) = ?$$

$$P(\text{flu} \mid \text{headache}) = ?$$

⋮

Exercises

1. Compute Expectation and Variance for a Bernoulli RV

$$- P[X = 1] = p; P[X = 0] = 1 - p$$

2. Conditional probabilities

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$$

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A | B) \times P(B)$$

$$P(\text{headache}) = 1/10$$

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Want to solve for:

$$P(\text{headache} \wedge \text{flu}) = ?$$

$$P(\text{flu} | \text{headache}) = ?$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{headache} \wedge \text{flu}) &= P(\text{headache} | \text{flu}) \times P(\text{flu}) \\ &= 1/2 \times 1/40 = 0.0125 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{flu} | \text{headache}) &= P(\text{headache} \wedge \text{flu}) / P(\text{headache}) \\ &= 0.0125 / 0.1 = 0.125 \end{aligned}$$

Bayes Theorem

Bayes' Rule

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A) \times P(A)}{P(B)}$$

- Exactly the process we just used
- The most important formula in probabilistic machine learning



Bayes, Thomas (1763) An essay towards solving a problem in the doctrine of chances. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, 53:370-418

Bayes' Rule

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(Super Easy) Derivation:

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A | B) \times P(B)$$

$$P(B \wedge A) = P(B | A) \times P(A)$$

these are the same

Just set equal...

$$P(A | B) \times P(B) = P(B | A) \times P(A)$$

and solve...



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Multi-Value Random Variable

- Suppose A can take on more than 2 values
- A is a *random variable with arity k* if it can take on exactly one value out of $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$
- Thus...

$$P(A = v_i \wedge A = v_j) = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq j$$

$$P(A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee \dots \vee A = v_k) = 1$$

$$1 = \sum_{i=1}^k P(A = v_i)$$

EXAMPLE

Multi-Value Random Variable

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A: Month of the Year

EXAMPLE

$$P(A = Jan) = \frac{31}{365} \quad P(A = Feb) = \frac{28}{365}$$

Marginalization

- We can also show that:

$$P(B) = P(B \wedge [A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee \dots \vee A = v_k])$$

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B \wedge A = v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B | A = v_i) P(A = v_i)$$

- This is called **marginalization** over A

EXAMPLE

Marginalization

- We can also show that:

$$P(B) = P(B \wedge [A = v_1 \vee A = v_2 \vee \dots \vee A = v_k])$$

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B \wedge A = v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k P(B | A = v_i) P(A = v_i)$$

- This is called **marginalization** over A

EXAMPLE A: Month of the Year; B: Tomorrow is sunny

$$P(\text{Sunny}) = \sum_{i=1}^{12} P(\text{Sunny} | A = \text{Month } i) P(A = \text{Month } i)$$

Linear algebra review

Resources


- Zico Kolter, [Linear algebra review](#)
- Sam Roweis's [linear algebra review](#)
- Books:
 - O. Bretscher, Linear Algebra with Applications

Vectors and matrices

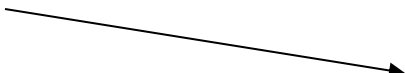
- **Vector** in \mathbb{R}^n is an ordered set of n real numbers.

- e.g. $v = (1, 6, 3, 4)$ is in \mathbb{R}^4

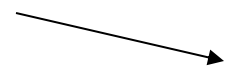
- A column vector:


$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

- A row vector:


$$(1 \ 6 \ 3 \ 4)$$

- m -by- n **matrix** is an object in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with m rows and n columns, each entry filled with a (typically) real number:


$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 8 \\ 4 & 78 & 6 \\ 9 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Vector operations

- Addition component by component

$$[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] + [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n] = [a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n]$$

$$[1, -2, 5] + [0, 3, 7] =$$

- Subtraction is also done component by component

$$[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] - [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n] = [a_1 - b_1, \dots, a_n - b_n]$$

– Can add and subtract row or column vectors of same dimension

- Dot product

– Only works for row and column vector of same size

$$[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \dots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix} = [a_1 b_1, \dots, a_n b_n]$$

$$[1, -2, 5] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} =$$

Matrix multiplication

We will use upper case letters for matrices. The elements are referred by $A_{i,j}$.

- **Matrix product:**

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$$

$$C = AB \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

e.g.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix transpose

Transpose: You can think of it as

– “flipping” the rows and columns

OR

– “reflecting” vector/matrix on line

e.g. $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}^T = (a \quad b)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

- $(A^T)^T = A$

- $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

- $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$

A is a **symmetric matrix** if $A = A^T$

Linear independence

- A set of vectors is **linearly independent** if none of them can be written as a linear combination of the others.
- Vectors x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly independent if $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_kx_k = 0$ implies $c_1 = \dots = c_k = 0$
- Otherwise they are **linearly dependent**

$$x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Linear independence

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$$x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad (c_1, c_2) = (0, 0), \text{ i.e. the columns are linearly independent.}$$

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Linearly dependent}$$
$$x_3 = -2x_1 + x_2$$

Rank of a Matrix

- $\text{rank}(A)$ (the rank of a m -by- n matrix A) is
 - The maximal number of linearly independent columns
 - The maximal number of linearly independent rows

- If A is n by m , then
 - $\text{rank}(A) \leq \min(m, n)$

- Examples $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

Inverse of a matrix

- Inverse of a square matrix A , denoted by A^{-1} is the *unique* matrix s.t.
 - $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ (identity matrix)
- Inverse of a square matrix exists only if the matrix is **full rank**
- If A^{-1} and B^{-1} exist, then
 - $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
 - $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$

Diagonal matrices

System of linear equations

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} 4x_1 & - & 5x_2 & = & -13 \\ -2x_1 & + & 3x_2 & = & 9. \end{array}$$

Matrix formulation

$$Ax = b$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}.$$

If A has an inverse, solution is $x = A^{-1}b$