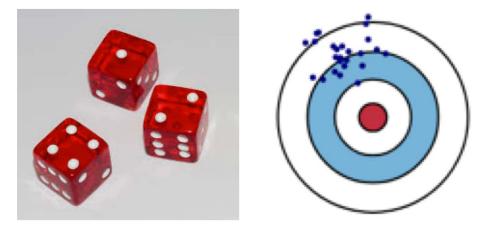
Tufts COMP 135: Introduction to Machine Learning https://www.cs.tufts.edu/comp/135/2019s/

Probability and Statistical Decision Theory



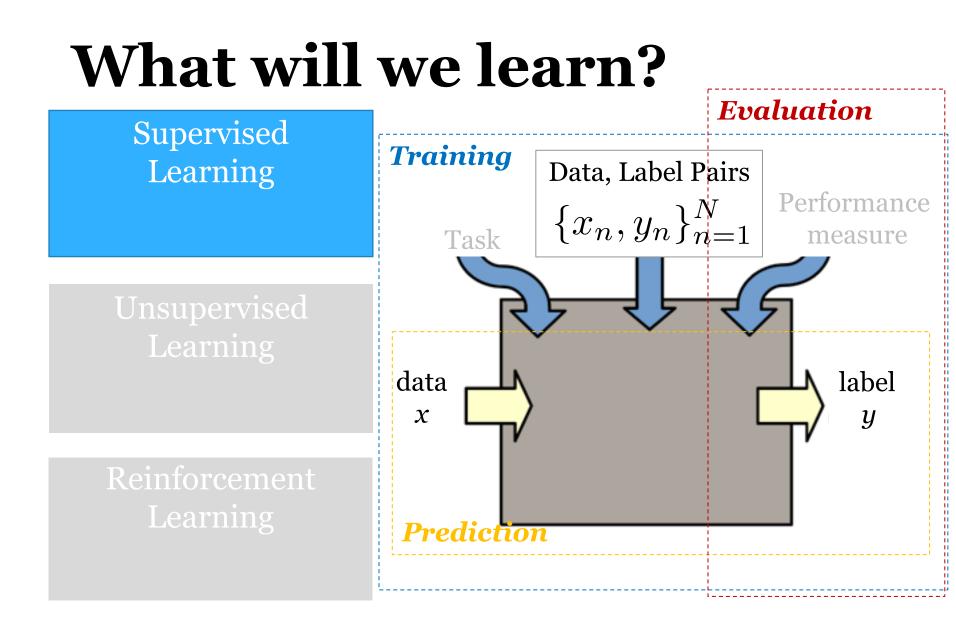
Many slides attributable to: Erik Sudderth (UCI) Finale Doshi-Velez (Harvard) James, Witten, Hastie, Tibshirani (ISL/ESL books)

Logistics

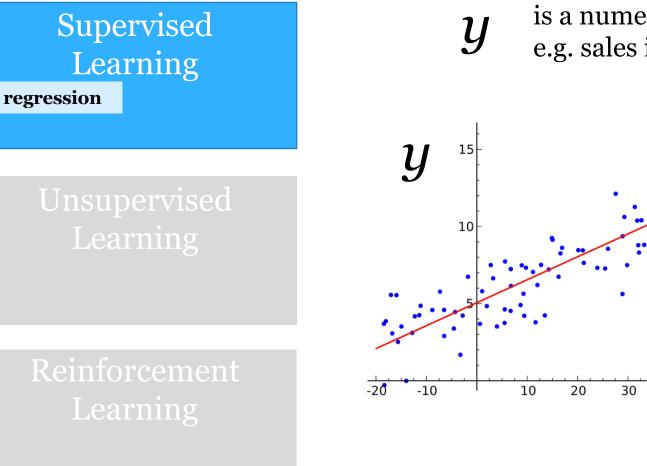
- Recitation tonight: 730-830pm, Halligan 111B
 - More on pipelines and feature transforms
 - Cross validation

Unit Objectives

- Probability Basics
 - Discrete random variables
 - Continuous random variables
- Decision Theory: Making optimal predictions
- Limits of learning
 - The curse of dimensionality
 - The bias-variance tradeoff



Task: Regression



is a numeric variable e.g. sales in \$\$

Mike Hughes - Tufts COMP 135 - Spring 2019

50

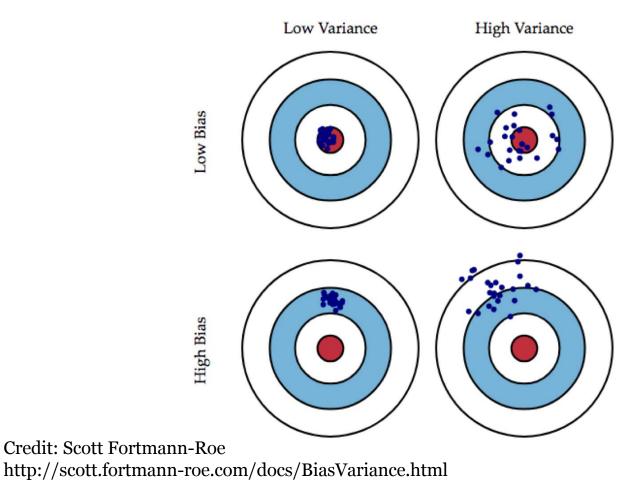
 \mathcal{X}

60

40

Model Complexity vs Error Predictive Error Error on Test Data Error on Training Data Model Complexity **Overfitting** Underfitting Ideal Range for Model Complexity

Today: Bias and Variance



Model Complexity vs Error Predictive Error Error on Test Data Error on Training Data Model Complexity High Variance **High Bias** Ideal Range for Model Complexity

Discrete Random Variable

Examples:

- Coin flip! Heads or tails?
- Dice roll! 1 or 2 or ... 6?

In general, random variable is defined by:

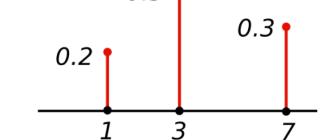
- Countable set of **all possible** outcomes
- **Probability value** for each outcome

Probability Mass Function

Notation:

- X is random variable
- x is a particular observed value
- Probability of observation: p(X = x)

Function p is a probability mass function (pmf) Maps possible values to probabilities in [0, 1] Must sum to one over domain of X 0.5



Pair exercise

- Draw the pmf for a normal 6-sided dice roll
- Draw pmf if there are:
 - 2 sides with 1 pip
 - 0 sides with 2 pips



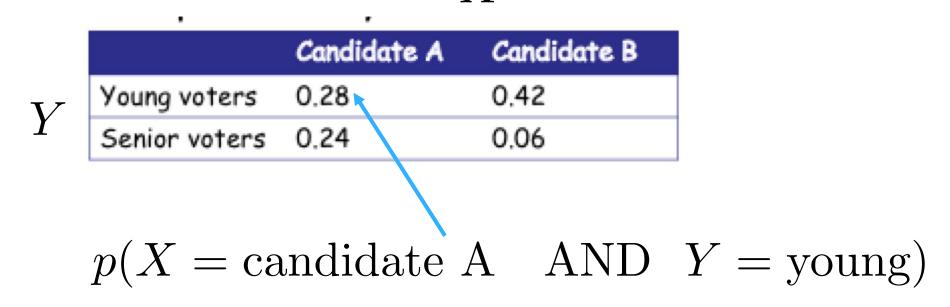
Expected Values

What is the *expected* value of a dice roll?

Expected means probability-weighted average

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x} p(X = x)x$$

Joint Probability



X

Marginal Probability

•	,	
	Candidate A	Candidate B
 Young voters 	0.28	0.42
Senior voters	0.24	0.06
Marginal p(X):	0.52	0.48

Marginal p(Y):

0.7	
0.3	

Mike Hughes - Tufts COMP 135 - Spring 2019

X

Conditional Probability

What is the probability of support for candidate A, *if we assume* that the voter is young?



		Candidate A	Candidate B	Marginal p(Y):
V	Young voters	0.28	0.42	0.7
Ĩ	Senior voters	0.24	0.06	0.3

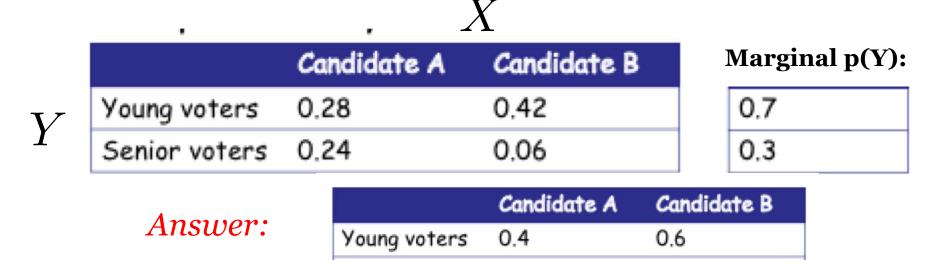
 ${V}$

Try it with your partner!

Conditional Probability

What is the probability of support for candidate A, *if we assume* that the voter is young?





The Rules of Probability

sum rule $p(X) = \sum_{Y} p(X,Y)$ product rulep(X,Y) = p(Y|X)p(X)= p(X|Y)p(Y)

Continuous Random Variables

Any r.v. whose possible outcomes are not a discrete set, but take values on a number line

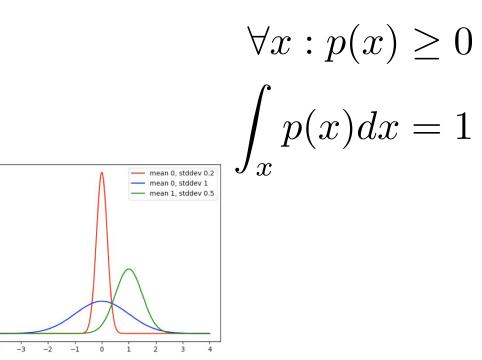
Examples:

uniform draw between 0 and 1

draw from Gaussian "bell curve" distribution

Probability Density Function

- Generalizes pmf for discrete r.v. to continuous
- Any pdf p(x) must satisfy two properties:



2.00

1.75

1.50 1.25 1.00 0.75 0.50 0.25 0.00

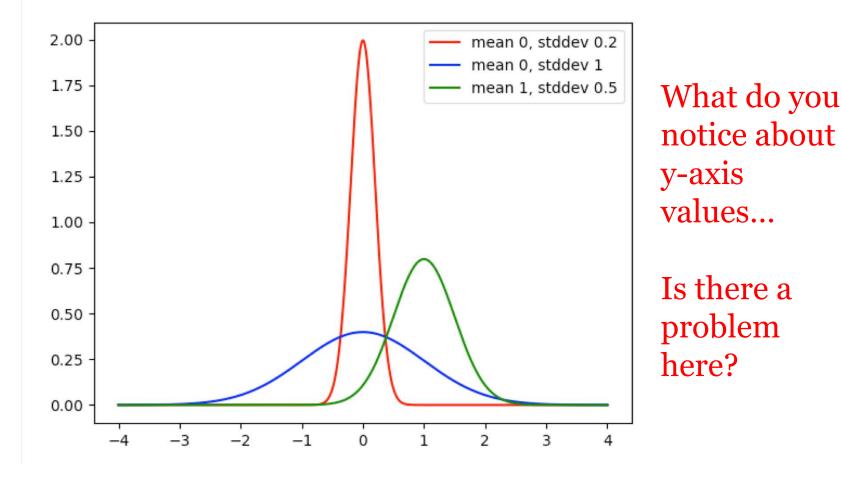
Example

Consider a uniform distribution over entire real line (from -inf to + inf)

Draw the pdf, verify that it can meet the required conditions (nonnegative, integrates to one).

Is there a problem here?

Plots of Gaussian pdf



Probability Density Function

- Generalizes pmf for discrete r.v. to continuous
- Any pdf p(x) must satisfy two properties:

$$\forall x : p(x) \ge 0$$
$$\int_x p(x) dx = 1$$

Value of p(x) can take ANY value > 0, even sometimes larger than 1

Should NOT interpret as "probability of drawing exactly x"

Should interpret as "density at vanishingly small interval around x" Remember: density = mass / volume

Continuous Expectations

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \int_{x \in \text{domain}(X)} xp(x) dx$$

$$\mathbb{E}[h(X)] = \int_{x \in \text{domain}(X)} h(x)p(x)dx$$

Approximating Expectations

Use "Monte Carlo": average of a sample!

• 1) Draw S i.i.d. samples from distribution

 $x^1, x^2, \dots x^S \sim p(x)$

• 2) Compute mean of these sampled values

$$\mathbb{E}[h(X)] \approx \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} h(x^s)$$

For any function h, the mean of this random estimator is unbiased. As number of samples S increases, variance of estimator decreases.

Statistical Decision Theory

• See ESL textbook in Ch. 2 and Ch. 7

How to predict best if we know conditional probability?

Assume we have: a specific x input of interest a known "true" conditional p(Y | X) error metric we care about

How should we set our predictor \hat{y} ? *Minimize the expected error!*

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \quad \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y, \hat{y}) | X = x]$$

Key ideas:

prediction will be a scalar conditional distribution p(Y|X) tells us everything we need to know

Expected y at a given fixed x

$$\mathbb{E}[Y|X=x] = \int_{y} y \ p(y|X=x) dy$$

Recall from HW1

- Two constant value estimators
 - Mean of training set
 - Median of training set
- Two possible error metrics
 - Squared error
 - Absolute error

Which estimator did best under which error metric?

Minimize expected squared error

Assume we have: a specific x input of interest a known "true" conditional p(y | x)

$$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y,\hat{y})|X=x] = \int_{y} (y-\hat{y})^2 \ p(y|X=x)dy$$

What is your intuition from HW1? Express in terms of p(Y|X=x)...

How should we set our predictor \hat{y} to minimize the expected error?

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \quad \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y, \hat{y}) | X = x]$$

Minimize expected squared error

Assume we have: a specific x input of interest a known "true" conditional p(y | x)

$$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y,\hat{y})|X=x] = \int_{y} (y-\hat{y})^2 \ p(y|X=x)dy$$

How should we set our predictor \hat{y} to minimize the expected error?

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \quad \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y, \hat{y}) | X = x]$$

Optimal predictor for squared error: mean y value under p(Y|X=x)

$$\hat{y} = \mathbb{E}[Y|X = x]$$
 In practice, mean of sampled y values at/around x

Minimize expected absolute error

Assume we have: a specific x input of interest a known "true" conditional p(y | x)

$$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y,\hat{y})|X=x] = \int_{y} ||y-\hat{y}|| p(y|X=x)dy$$

How should we set our predictor \hat{y} to minimize the expected error?

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \quad \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y, \hat{y}) | X = x]$$

What is your intuition from HW 1?

Minimize expected absolute error

Assume we have: a specific x input of interest a known "true" conditional p(y | x)

$$\mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y,\hat{y})|X=x] = \int_{y} |y-\hat{y}| p(y|X=x) dy$$

How should we set our predictor \hat{y} to minimize the expected error?

$$\min_{\hat{y}} \quad \mathbb{E}[\operatorname{err}(Y, \hat{y}) | X = x]$$

Optimal predictor for squared error: **median** y value under p(Y|X=x)

$$\hat{y}^* = \operatorname{median}(p(Y|X=x))$$

In practice, median of sampled y values at/around x

Minimizing error with K-NN

Ideal

know "true" conditional p(y | x)

Approximation

- Use neighborhood around x
- Take average of y values in neighborhood

If we have enough training data, K-NN is **good approximation**

Some theorems say KNN estimate ideal as *#* examples (N) gets infinitely large

Problem in practice: we **never** have enough data, esp. if feature dimensions are large

Curse of Dimensionality

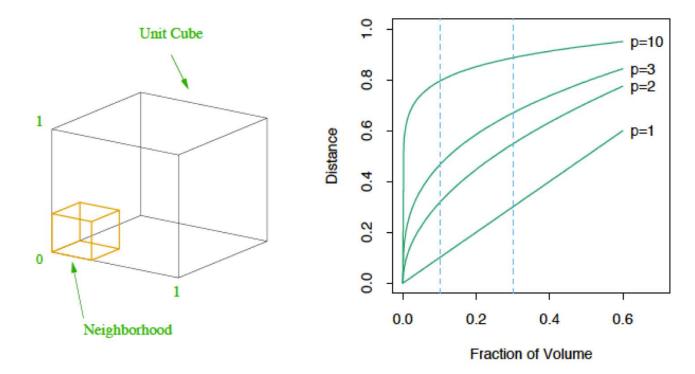
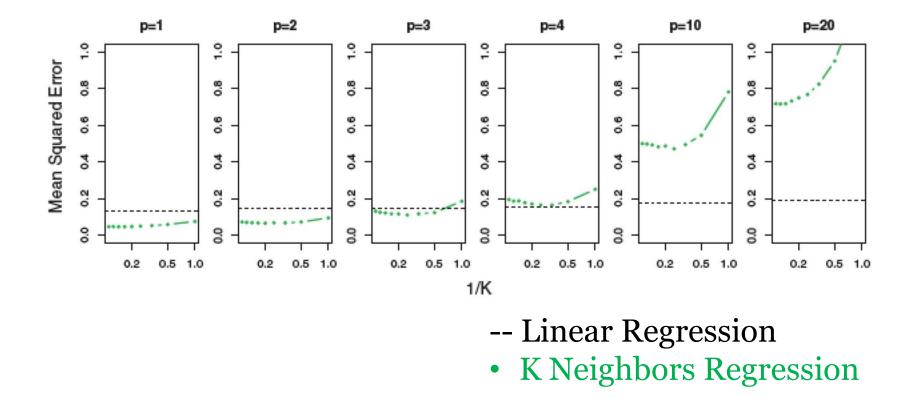


FIGURE 2.6. The curse of dimensionality is well illustrated by a subcubical neighborhood for uniform data in a unit cube. The figure on the right shows the side-length of the subcube needed to capture a fraction r of the volume of the data, for different dimensions p. In ten dimensions we need to cover 80% of the range of each coordinate to capture 10% of the data.

MSE as dimension increases



Credit: ISL textbook, Fig 3.20

Write MSE via Bias & Variance

y is known "true" response value at given fixed input x

 $\hat{y}_{\rm sample}$ is a Random Variable obtained by fitting estimator to random sample of N training data examples, then predicting at fixed x

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{y}(x^{tr}, y^{tr}) - y\right)^{2}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{y} - y\right)^{2}\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^{2} - 2\hat{y}y + y^{2}\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^{2}\right] - 2\bar{y}y + y^{2}$$
$$\bar{y} \triangleq \mathbb{E}[\hat{y}]$$

Write MSE via Bias & Variance

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{y}(x^{tr}, y^{tr}) - y\right)^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\left(\hat{y} - y\right)^2\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2 - 2\hat{y}y + y^2\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$$

Add net value of zero
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - \bar{y}^2 + \bar{y}^2 - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$$
$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - \bar{y}^2 + \bar{y}^2 - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$$

Write MSE via Bias & Variance

 $\mathbb{E}\left|\left(\hat{y}(x^{tr}, y^{tr}) - y\right)^{2}\right| = \mathbb{E}\left|\left(\hat{y} - y\right)^{2}\right|$ $= \mathbb{E} \left[\hat{y}^2 - 2\hat{y}y + y^2 \right]$ $= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$ $= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - \bar{y}^2 + \left|\bar{y}^2 - 2\bar{y}y + y^2\right|$ $(\bar{y} - y)^2$ bias² bias $\triangleq \bar{y} - y$

MSE = Variance + Bias²

 $\mathbb{E}\left|\left(\hat{y}(x^{tr}, y^{tr}) - y\right)^{2}\right| = \mathbb{E}\left|\left(\hat{y} - y\right)^{2}\right|$ $= \mathbb{E} \left[\hat{y}^2 - 2\hat{y}y + y^2 \right]$ $= \mathbb{E}\left[\hat{y}^2\right] - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$ $= \left| \mathbb{E} \left[\hat{y}^2 \right] - \bar{y}^2 \right| + \bar{y}^2 - 2\bar{y}y + y^2$ $\operatorname{Var}[X] \triangleq \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}^2$ = Var (\hat{y}) + $(\bar{y} - y)^2$

Punchline

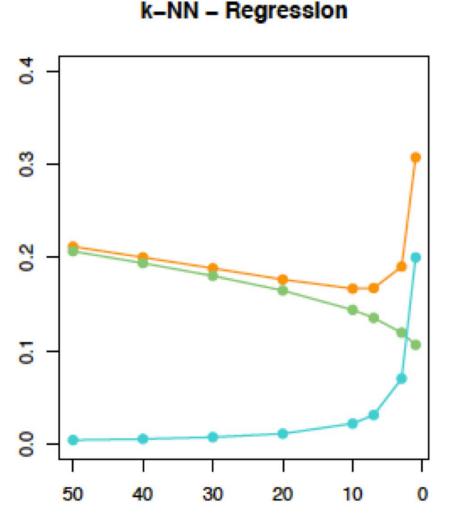
mean squared error = variance + bias^2

We can use this framing to explain tradeoffs of different prediction approaches on finite training datasets.

Toy example: ESL Fig. 7.3

Figure 7.3 shows the bias-variance tradeoff for two simulated examples. There are 80 observations and 20 predictors, uniformly distributed in the hypercube $[0, 1]^{20}$. The situations are as follows:

Left panels: Y is 0 if $X_1 \leq 1/2$ and 1 if $X_1 > 1/2$, and we apply k-nearest neighbors.



Number of Neighbors k More flexible

total error

bias

Error due to inability of average model to capture true predictive relationship

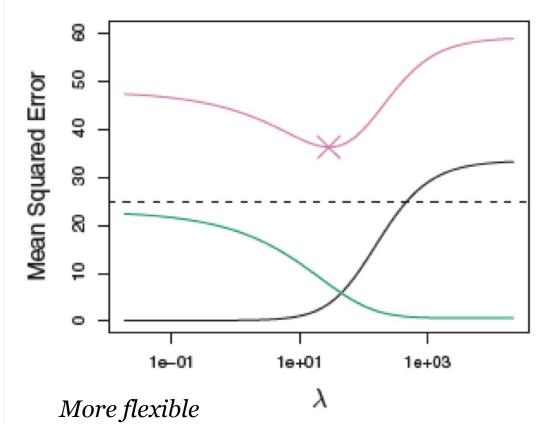
variance

Error due to estimating from a single finite sample

Toy example: ISL Fig. 6.5

Why Does Ridge Regression Improve Over Least Squares?

Ridge regression's advantage over least squares is rooted in the *bias-variance* trade-off. As λ increases, the flexibility of the ridge regression fit decreases, leading to decreased variance but increased bias. This is illustrated in the left-hand panel of Figure 6.5, using a simulated data set containing p = 45 predictors and n = 50 observations. The green curve in the left-hand panel



total error

bias

Error due to inability of average fit to capture true predictive relationship

variance

Error due to estimating from a single finite sample

Can Also Treat True Y as R.V.

 $Y = f(X) + \epsilon$

True signal function

Noise Random Variable Symmetric (zero mean)

Often, Gaussian

The Final MSE decomposition

$\mathbb{E}[MSE] = \operatorname{Var}(\hat{y}) + \operatorname{bias}^2 + \operatorname{irreducible \ error}$

For more, see Sec. 7.3 of ESL textbook...

As in Chapter 2, if we assume that $Y = f(X) + \varepsilon$ where $E(\varepsilon) = 0$ and $Var(\varepsilon) = \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2$, we can derive an expression for the expected prediction error of a regression fit $\hat{f}(X)$ at an input point $X = x_0$, using squared-error loss:

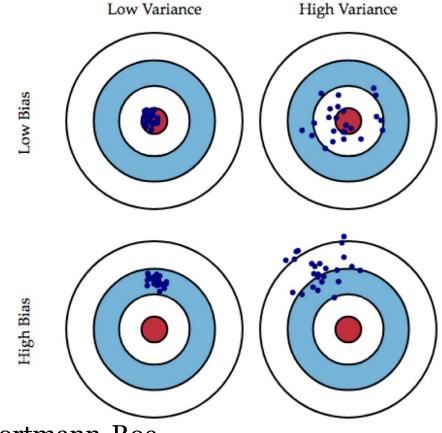
$$\operatorname{Err}(x_0) = E[(Y - \hat{f}(x_0))^2 | X = x_0]$$

$$= \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 + [\mathrm{E}\hat{f}(x_0) - f(x_0)]^2 + E[\hat{f}(x_0) - \mathrm{E}\hat{f}(x_0)]^2$$

$$= \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 + \operatorname{Bias}^2(\hat{f}(x_0)) + \operatorname{Var}(\hat{f}(x_0))$$

$$= \operatorname{Irreducible} \operatorname{Error} + \operatorname{Bias}^2 + \operatorname{Variance.}$$
(7.9)

Bias and Variance



Credit: Scott Fortmann-Roe http://scott.fortmann-roe.com/docs/BiasVariance.html