

# 4F13: Machine Learning

## Lectures 1-2: Introduction to Machine Learning

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**Michaelmas, 2006**

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# What is machine learning?

- *Machine learning is an interdisciplinary field focusing on both the mathematical foundations and practical applications of systems that learn, reason and act.*
- Other related terms: Pattern Recognition, Neural Networks, Data Mining, Statistical Modelling ...
- Using ideas from: Statistics, Computer Science, Engineering, Applied Mathematics, Cognitive Science, Psychology, Computational Neuroscience, Economics
- The goal of these lectures: to introduce important concepts, models and algorithms in machine learning.
- For more: I have organised an “Advanced Tutorial Lecture Series on Machine Learning” with a series of guest lecturers (Thursdays, 4-6pm in LR4, starting today with Professor Chris Bishop, Assistant Director, Microsoft Research)

# Warning!

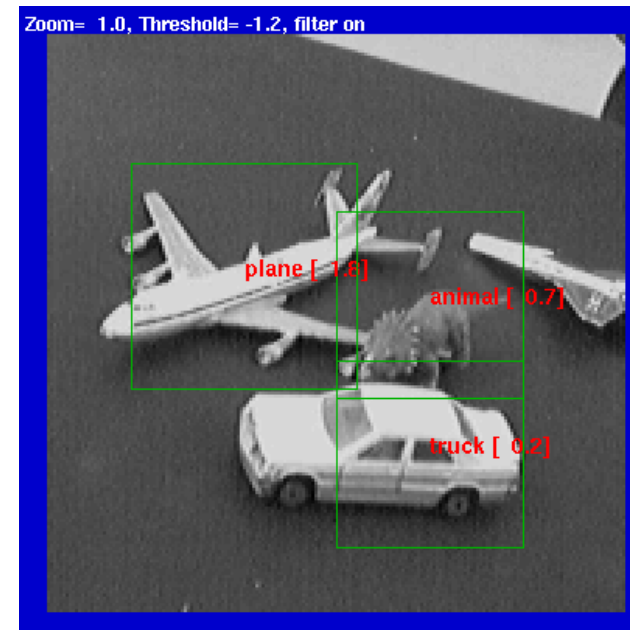
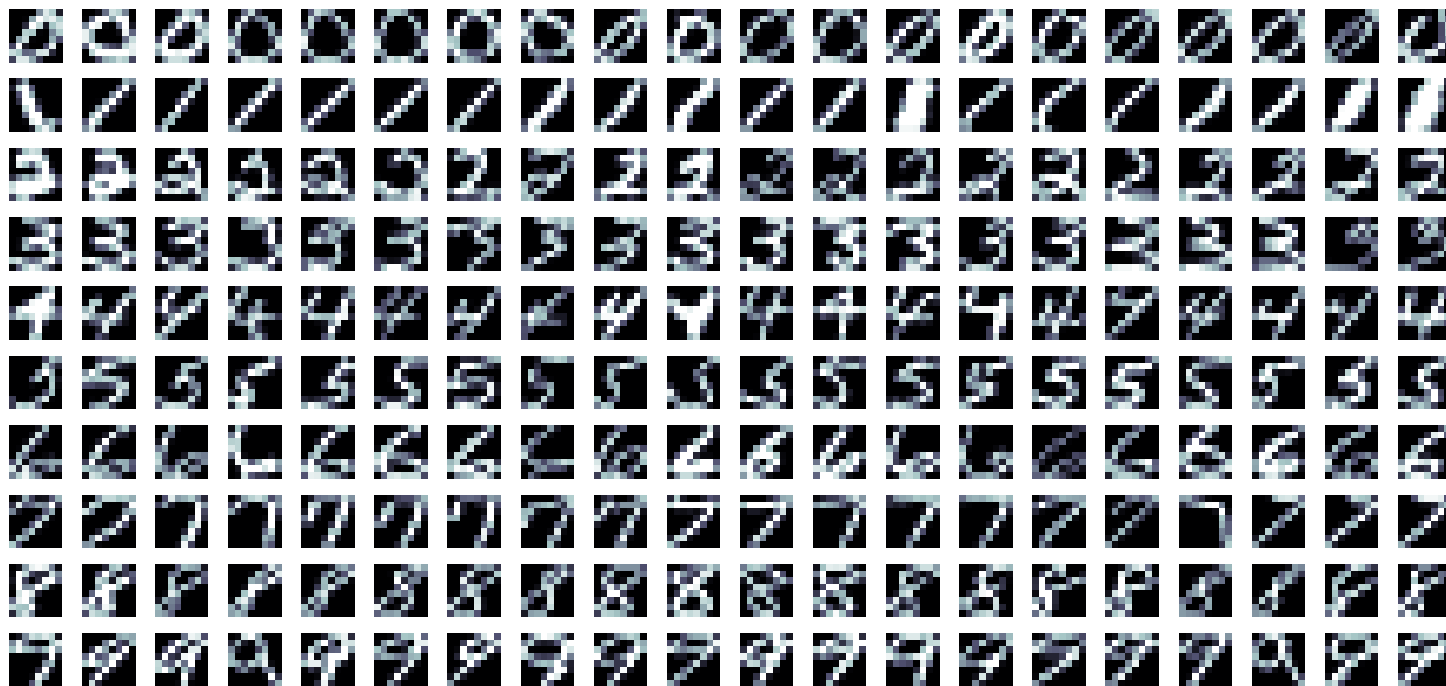
Lecture 1 will overlap somewhat with my lectures in 3f3: Pattern Processing—but don't despair, a lot of new material later!

**What is machine learning useful for?**

# Automatic speech recognition



# Computer vision: e.g. object, face and handwriting recognition



(NORB image from Yann LeCun)

# Information retrieval

Google Search: Unsupervised Learning http://www.google.com/search?q=Unsupervised+Learning&sourceid=fir...

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NIPS'98 Workshop "Integrating Supervised and **Unsupervised Learning**" Friday, December 4, 1998. ... 4:45-5:30. Theories of **Unsupervised Learning** and Missing Values. ...  
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Probabilistic Models for **Unsupervised Learning** Tutorial presented at the 1999 NIPS Conference by Zoubin Ghahramani and Sam Roweis. ...  
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[Gatsby Course: Unsupervised Learning : Homepage](#)  
**Unsupervised Learning** (Fall 2000). ... Syllabus (resources page): 10/10 1 - Introduction to **Unsupervised Learning** Geoff project: (ps, pdf). ...  
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[Unsupervised Learning - The MIT Press](#)  
... From Bradford Books: **Unsupervised Learning** Foundations of Neural Computation Edited by Geoffrey Hinton and Terrence J. Sejnowski Since its founding in 1989 by ...  
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**Unsupervised Learning** of Disambiguation Rules for Part of. Speech Tagging. Eric Brill. 1. ... It is possible to use **unsupervised learning** to train stochastic. ...  
[www.cs.jhu.edu/~brill/acl-wkshp.ps](http://www.cs.jhu.edu/~brill/acl-wkshp.ps) - [Similar pages](#)

[The Unsupervised Learning Group \(ULG\) at UT Austin](#)  
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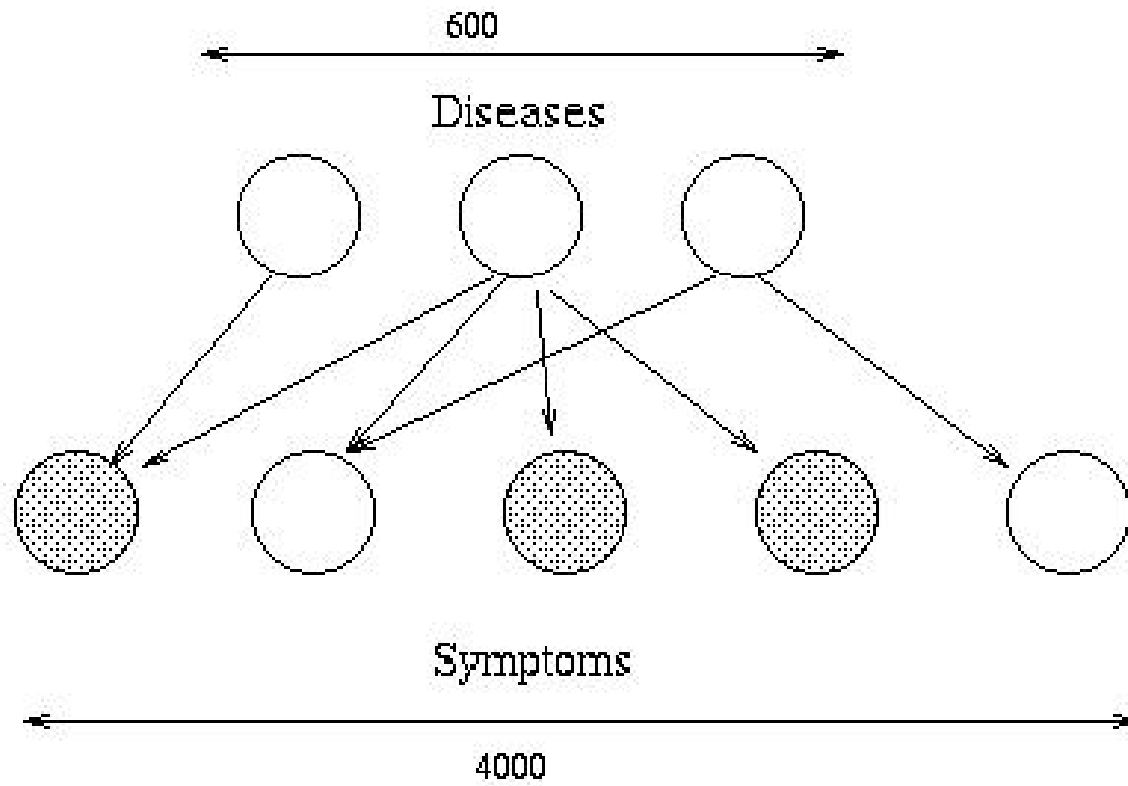
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# Financial prediction



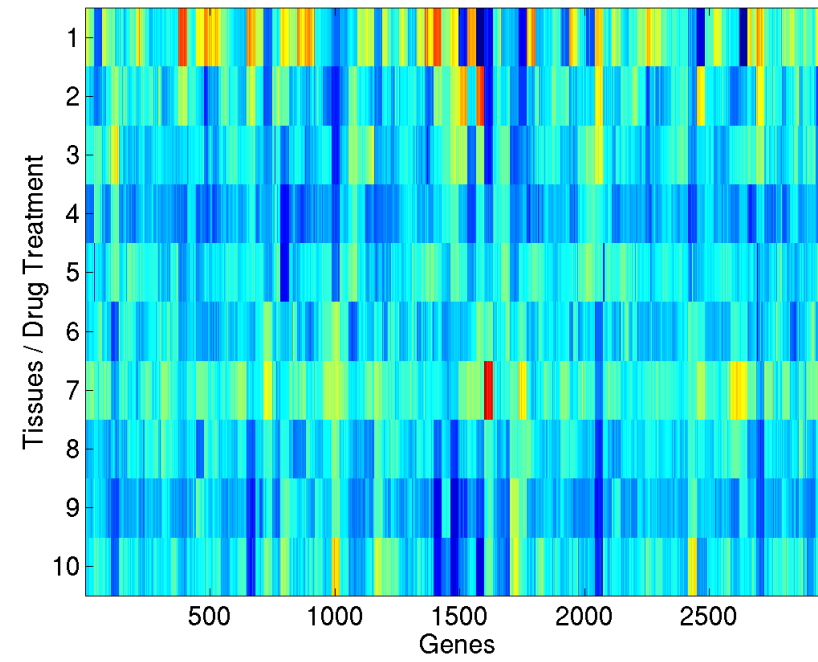
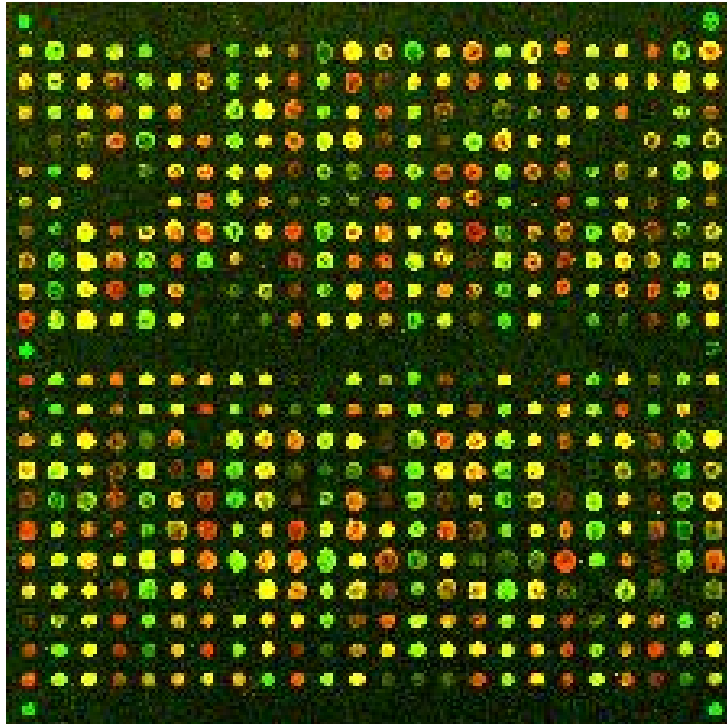


# Medical diagnosis



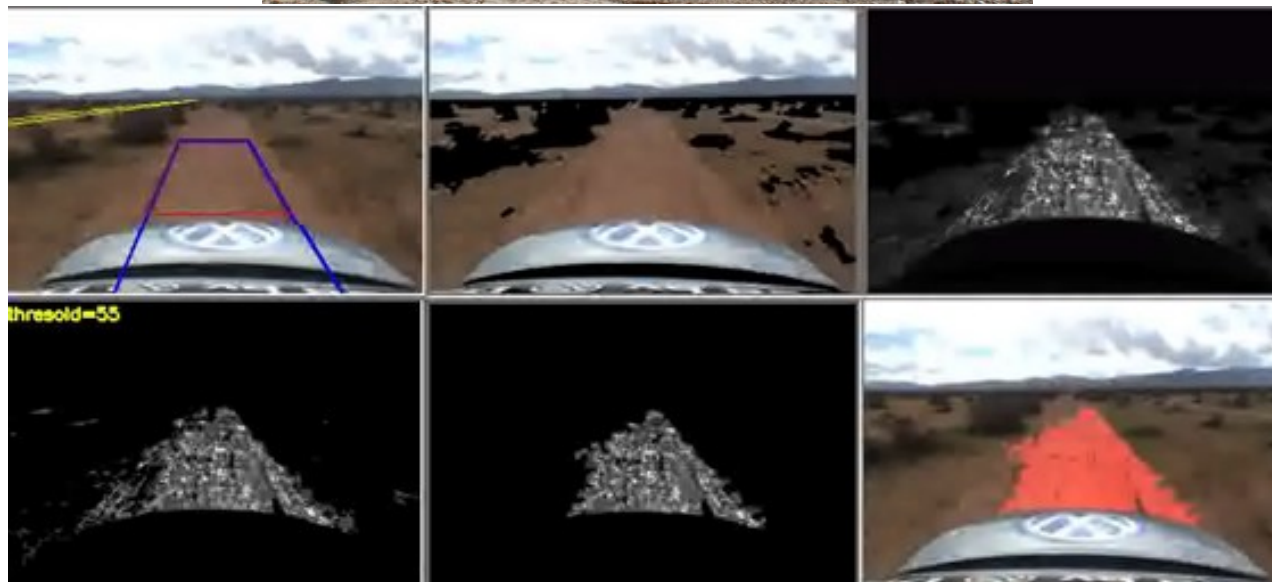
(image from Kevin Murphy)

# Bioinformatics



e.g. modelling gene microarray data, protein structure prediction

# Robotics



DARPA \$2m Grand Challenge

# Movie recommendation systems



Challenge: to improve the accuracy of movie preference predictions  
Netflix \$1m Prize. Competition started Oct 2, 2006!

(In lecture 7 we will discuss some applications of machine learning in more detail)

# Three Types of Learning

Imagine an organism or machine which experiences a series of sensory inputs:

$$x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \dots$$

**Supervised learning:** The machine is also given **desired outputs**  $y_1, y_2, \dots$ , and its goal is to learn to **produce the correct output** given a new input.

**Unsupervised learning:** The goal of the machine is to **build a model** of  $x$  that can be used for reasoning, decision making, predicting things, communicating etc.

**Reinforcement learning:** The machine can also produce **actions**  $a_1, a_2, \dots$  which affect the state of the world, and receives **rewards (or punishments)**  $r_1, r_2, \dots$ . Its goal is to learn to act in a way that **maximises rewards** in the long term.

(In this course we'll focus mostly on unsupervised learning and reinforcement learning.)

# Key Ingredients

## Data

We will represent data by vectors in some vector space<sup>1</sup>

Let  $\mathbf{x}$  denote a **data point** with elements  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D)$

The elements of  $\mathbf{x}$ , e.g.  $x_d$ , represent measured (observed) **features** of the data point;  $D$  denotes the number of measured features of each point.

The **data set**  $\mathcal{D}$  consists of  $N$  data points:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)}\}$$

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<sup>1</sup>This assumption can be relaxed.

# Key Ingredients

## Data

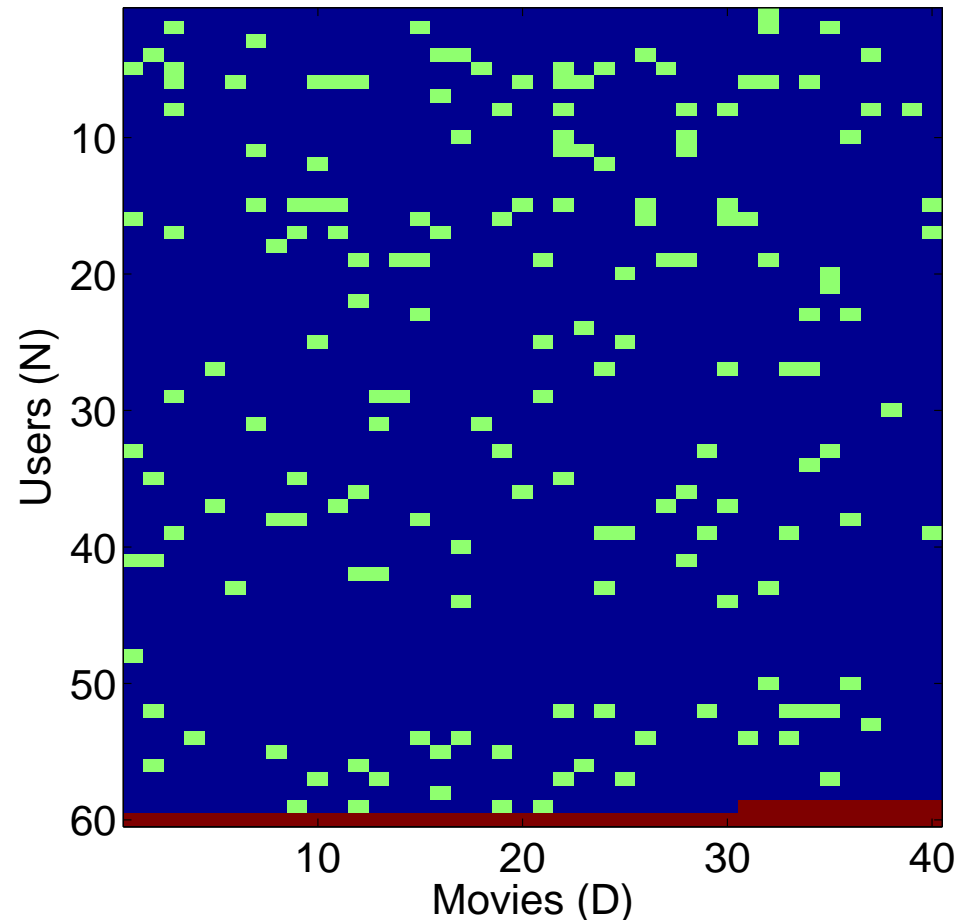
Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D)$  denote a **data point**, and  $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)}\}$ , a **data set**

## Predictions

We are generally interested in predicting something based on the observed data set.

Given  $\mathcal{D}$  what can we say about  $\mathbf{x}^{(N+1)}$ ?

Given  $\mathcal{D}$  and  $x_1^{(N+1)}, x_2^{(N+1)}, \dots, x_{D-1}^{(N+1)}$ ,  
what can we say about  $x_D^{(N+1)}$ ?



# Key Ingredients

## Data

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## Model

To make predictions, we need to make some *assumptions*. We can often express these assumptions in the form of a **model**, with some **parameters**,  $\theta$

Given data  $\mathcal{D}$ , we learn the model parameters  $\theta$ , from which we can predict new data points.

The model can often be expressed as a *probability distribution over data points*



# Basic Rules of Probability

Let  $X$  be a random variable taking values  $x$  in some set  $\mathcal{X}$ .

Probabilities are non-negative  $P(X = x) \geq 0 \forall x$ .

Probabilities normalise:  $\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(X = x) = 1$  for distributions if  $x$  is a discrete variable and  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p(x) dx = 1$  for probability densities over continuous variables

The **joint probability** of  $X = x$  and  $Y = y$  is:  $P(X = x, Y = y)$ .

The **marginal probability** of  $X = x$  is:  $P(X = x) = \sum_y P(X = x, y)$ , assuming  $y$  is discrete. I will generally write  $P(x)$  to mean  $P(X = x)$ .

The **conditional probability** of  $x$  given  $y$  is:  $P(x|y) = P(x, y)/P(y)$

**Bayes Rule:**

$$P(x, y) = P(x)P(y|x) = P(y)P(x|y) \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$P(y|x) = \frac{P(x|y)P(y)}{P(x)}$$

**Warning:** I will not be obsessively careful in my use of  $p$  and  $P$  for probability density and probability distribution. Should be obvious from context.

# Information, Probability and Entropy

Information is the **reduction of uncertainty**. How do we measure uncertainty?

Some axioms (informally):

- if something is certain, its uncertainty = 0
- uncertainty should be maximum if all choices are equally probable
- uncertainty (information) should add for independent sources

This leads to a discrete random variable  $X$  having uncertainty equal to the **entropy** function:

$$H(X) = - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(X = x) \log P(X = x)$$

measured in *bits* (**binary digits**) if the base 2 logarithm is used or *nats* (**natural digits**) if the natural (base  $e$ ) logarithm is used.

# Some Definitions Relating to Information Theory

- **Surprise** (for event  $X = x$ ):  $-\log P(X = x)$
- **Entropy** = average surprise:  $H(X) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(X = x) \log P(X = x)$
- **Conditional entropy**

$$H(X|Y) = -\sum_x \sum_y P(x, y) \log P(x|y)$$

- **Mutual information**

$$I(X; Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X, Y)$$

- Independent random variables:  $P(x, y) = P(x)P(y) \forall x \forall y$

How do we relate information theory and probabilistic modelling?

# The source coding problem

Imagine we have a set of symbols  $\mathcal{X} = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$ .

We want to transmit these symbols over some binary communication channel, i.e. using a sequence of **bits** to represent the symbols.

Since we have 8 symbols, we could use 3 bits per symbol ( $2^3 = 8$ ). For example:  
a = 000, b = 001, c = 010, ..., h = 111

**Is this optimal?**

What if some symbols, e.g. a, are much more probable than other symbols, e.g. f?  
Shouldn't we use fewer bits to transmit the more probable symbols?

Think of a discrete variable  $X$  taking on values in  $\mathcal{X}$ , having probability distribution  $P(X)$ .

How does the probability distribution  $P(X)$  relate to the number of bits we need for each symbol to optimally and losslessly transmit symbols from  $\mathcal{X}$ ?

# Shannon's Source Coding Theorem

A discrete random variable  $X$ , distributed according to  $P(X)$  has **entropy** equal to:

$$H(X) = - \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P(x) \log_2 P(x)$$

**Shannon's source coding theorem:** Consider a random variable  $X$ , with entropy  $H(X)$ . A sequence of  $n$  independent draws from  $X$  can be losslessly compressed into a minimum expected code of length  $n\mathcal{L}$  bits, where  $H(X) \leq \mathcal{L} < H(X) + \frac{1}{n}$ .

If each symbol is given a code length  $l(x) = -\log_2 Q(x)$  then the expected per-symbol length  $\mathcal{L}_Q$  of the code is

$$H(X) + KL(P\|Q) \leq \mathcal{L}_Q < H(X) + KL(P\|Q) + \frac{1}{n},$$

where the **relative-entropy** or **Kullback-Leibler divergence** is

$$KL(P\|Q) = \sum_x P(x) \log_2 \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \geq 0$$

**Take home message:** better probabilistic models  $\equiv$  more efficient codes

## Some distributions

Univariate Gaussian density ( $x \in \mathfrak{R}$ ):

$$p(x|\mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

Multivariate Gaussian density ( $\mathbf{x} \in \mathfrak{R}^D$ ):

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) = |2\pi\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\}$$

Bernoulli distribution ( $x \in \{0, 1\}$ ):

$$p(x|\theta) = \theta^x (1 - \theta)^{1-x}$$

Discrete distribution ( $x \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ ):

$$p(x|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \prod_{\ell=1}^L \theta_\ell^{\delta(x,\ell)}$$

where  $\delta(a, b) = 1$  iff  $a = b$ , and  $\sum_{\ell=1}^L \theta_\ell = 1$  and  $\theta_\ell \geq 0 \forall \ell$ .

## Some distributions (cont)

Uniform ( $x \in [a, b]$ ):

$$p(x|a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Gamma ( $x \geq 0$ ):

$$p(x|a, b) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} \exp\{-bx\}$$

Beta ( $x \in [0, 1]$ ):

$$p(x|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha + \beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$$

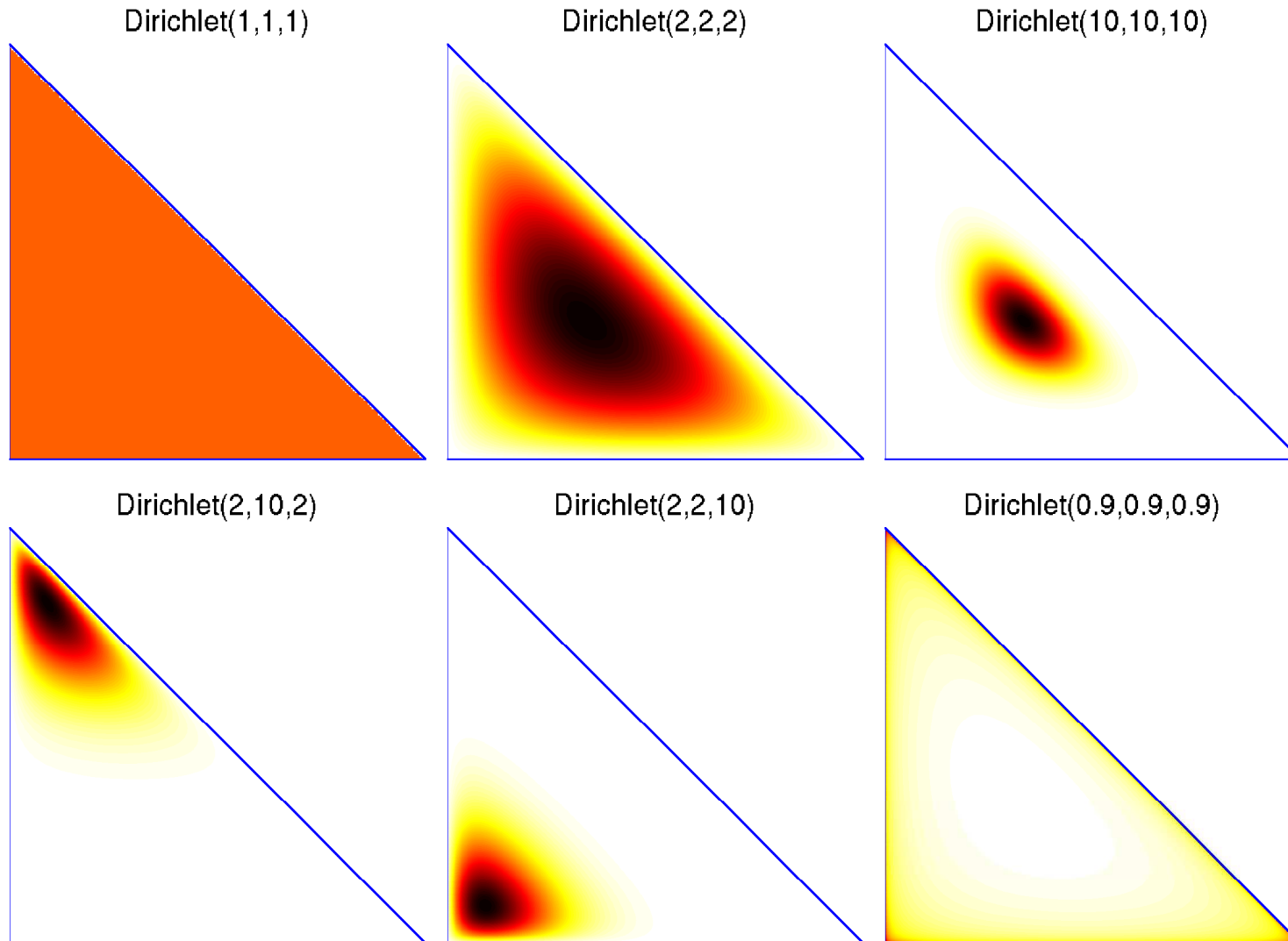
where  $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt$  is the gamma function, a generalisation of the factorial:  
 $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$ .

Dirichlet ( $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ,  $p_d \geq 0$ ,  $\sum_{d=1}^D p_d = 1$ ):

$$p(\mathbf{p}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\sum_{d=1}^D \alpha_d)}{\prod_{d=1}^D \Gamma(\alpha_d)} \prod_{d=1}^D p_d^{\alpha_d-1}$$

# Dirichlet Distributions

Examples of Dirichlet distributions over  $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2, p_3)$  which can be plotted in 2D since  $p_3 = 1 - p_1 - p_2$ :





# Other distributions you should know about...

Exponential family of distributions:

$$P(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = f(\mathbf{x}) g(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \exp \{ \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^\top \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) \}$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is the vector of *natural parameters*,  $\mathbf{u}$  are *sufficient statistics*

- Binomial
- Multinomial
- Poisson
- Student t distribution
- ...

## End Notes

It is very important that you *understand* all the material in the following cribsheet:

<http://learning.eng.cam.ac.uk/zoubin/course04/cribsheet.pdf>

Here is a useful statistics / pattern recognition glossary:

<http://research.microsoft.com/~minka/statlearn/glossary/>