# Machine Learning 2 - Cheat Sheet

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# 1 Probability Theory

# 1.1 Independence

$$p(X,Y) = p(X)p(Y) \Leftrightarrow p(X|Y) = p(X) \Leftrightarrow p(Y|X) = p(Y)$$

# 1.2 Conditional Independence

 $X \perp \!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z \Longleftrightarrow p(X,Y|Z) = p(X|Z)p(Y|Z)$ 

### 1.3 Sum and Product Rules

$$\begin{aligned} p(X,Y) &= p(X)p(Y|X), & p(X,Y,Z) &= p(X)p(Y|X)p(Z|X,Y) \\ p(X) &= \sum_{V} p(X,Y) \end{aligned}$$

# 1.4 Bayes' Theorem

$$p(Y|X) = \frac{p(X|Y)p(Y)}{p(X)}, \qquad p(Y|X,Z) = \frac{p(X|Y,Z)p(Y|Z)}{p(X|Z)}$$

# 2 Distributions

Binary Bernoulli Binomial Beta
Discrete Categorical Multinomial Dirichlet

### 2.1 Bernoulli Distribution

Ber
$$(x|n) = \mu^x (1-\mu)^{1-x}$$
,  $\mathbb{E}[x] = \mu$ ,  $Var[x] = \mu - \mu^2$ ,  $P(D,\mu) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mu^{x_n} (1-\mu)^{1-x_n}$ ,  $\mu_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n$ 

### 2.2 Binomial Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{Bin}(m|N,\mu) = \binom{N}{m} \mu^m (1-\mu)^{N-m}, & \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \binom{n}{k}, \\ & \mathbb{E}[m] = N\mu, & \operatorname{Var}[m] = N\mu (1-\mu), & \mu_{\operatorname{ML}} = \frac{m}{N} \end{aligned}$$

# 2.3 Categorical Distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{k} \mu_{k}^{x_{k}}, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \{0,1\}^{K}, \quad \sum_{k} \mu_{k} = 1, \quad \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{\mathbf{m}}{N}$$
$$m_{k} = \sum_{n} x_{nk}, \quad \mathrm{Mult}(m_{1} \dots, m_{k}|N, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = (\frac{N!}{m_{1}!, \dots, m_{k}} \prod_{k}) \mu_{k}^{mk}$$

# 2.4 Beta Distribution

Beta(
$$\mu|a,b$$
) =  $\frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)}\mu^{a-1}(1-\mu)^{b-1}$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[\mu] = \frac{a}{a+b}$ ,  $Var[x] = \frac{ab}{(a+b)^2(a+b+1)}$ ,  $p(\mu|m,l,a,b) \propto \mu^{m+a-1}(1-\mu)^{l+b-1}$ 

### 2.5 Gamma Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Gamma}(\tau|a,b) &= \tfrac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \tau^{a-1} e^{-b\tau}, & \mathbb{E}[\tau] &= \tfrac{a}{b}, & \operatorname{Var}[\tau] &= \tfrac{a}{b^2}, \\ \operatorname{mode}[\tau] &= \tfrac{a-1}{b} \text{ for } a \geq 1, & \mathbb{E}[\ln \tau] &= \psi(a) - \ln b, \\ H(\tau) &= \ln \Gamma(a) - (a-1) \psi(a) - \ln b + a \end{aligned}$$

### 2.6 Multinomial Distribution

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{x} &= [0,0,0,0,1,0,0]^\mathsf{T}, & \sum_{k=1}^K x_k = 1, & p(\mathbf{x}|\pmb{\mu}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{x_k}, \\ \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_k = 1, & \mu_k^{\mathrm{ML}} = \frac{m_k}{N}, & m_k = \sum_{k=1}^K x_{nk} \end{split}$$

# 2.7 Dirichlet Distribution

$$\operatorname{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_0)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1) \dots \Gamma(\alpha_k)} \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{\alpha_k - 1}, \qquad \alpha_0 = \sum_{k=1}^K \alpha_k$$

### 2.8 Gaussian Distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2),$$
  
$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mu,\mathbf{\Sigma}) = (2\pi)^{-\frac{D}{2}} |\mathbf{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}-\mu)\right\}$$

# 2.8.1 ML for the Gaussian

$$\begin{split} & \ln p(X|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{ND}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{N}{2} \ln |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}), \\ & \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{ML}} = 1/N \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}_n, \qquad \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathrm{ML}} = 1/N \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \end{split}$$

# 2.8.2 Stochastic gradient descent Gaussian

$$\max P(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta), \ \theta^N = \theta^{N-1} + \alpha_{N-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta^{N-1}} \ln p(x_n | \theta^{N-1})$$

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^1 u^{x-1} e^{-u} = 1,$$
  $\Gamma(x+1) = \Gamma(x)x,$   $\Gamma(x+1) = x!$ 

# 2.8.3 Marginal and Conditional Gaussians

Given 
$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$
 and  $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1})$ . We get  $p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}})$  and  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{\Sigma}[\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}], \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$  where  $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\boldsymbol{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{A})^{-1}$ .

### 2.9 Student's T distribution

The heavy tail of the student-t distribution makes it more robust against outliers

outhers. 
$$St(x|\mu,\lambda,\nu) = \frac{\Gamma(\nu/2+1/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(\frac{\lambda^{1/2}}{(\pi\nu)^{D/2}}\right) \left[1 + \frac{\lambda(x-\mu)^2}{\nu}\right]^{-\nu/2 - D/2},$$

$$f_x(x) = \frac{\Gamma[(\nu+p)/2]}{\Gamma(\nu/2)\nu^{p/2}\pi^{p/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}[1+1/\nu(x-\mu)^T\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)]^{(\nu+p)/2}}$$

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\Gamma(D/2+\nu/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \frac{|\Lambda|^{1/2}}{(\pi\nu)^{D/2}} \int \left[1 + \frac{(x-\mu)^T\Lambda(x-\mu)}{\nu}\right]^{-D/2 - \nu/2} x dx$$

# 3 Graphical Models

Capture noise, for reasoning, enormous datasets, for causality, for designing models, CIR are encoded in the graph, for inference.

### 3.1 Directed GMs a.k.a. Bayesian Networks

Nodes are connected by *directed* arrows. The full joint distribution is  $p(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{k=1}^{K} p(x_k|p_a(x_k))$ 

Directed Acyclic Graphs are BNs without directed loops.

### 3.1.1 Blocking Rules

$$\bigcirc \rightarrow \bigcirc \rightarrow \bigcirc \rightarrow \bigcirc \qquad \bigcirc \leftarrow \bigcirc \rightarrow \bigcirc \rightarrow \cdots \bigcirc \cdots \leftarrow \bigcirc$$

# 3.1.2 D-separation

 $A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid C$  holds if each path that connects a node in A with a node in B is blocked, that is

- a) the arrows on the path meet either head-to-tail or tail-to-tail at the node and the node is in C, or
- b) the arrows meed head-to-head at the node and either the node nor any of its descendants is in C.

#### 3.2 Markov Random Fields

Graphical Models with undirected edges (a.k.a. Undirected Graphical Models).

#### 3.2.1 Conditional Independence

 $A \perp \!\!\! \perp B \mid C$  holds if all paths connecting every node in A to every other node in B is 'blocked' by a node in C (blocked means passing through).

# 3.2.2 Cliques and Maximal Cliques

A *clique* is a subset of nodes in the graph such that there exists a link between all pairs of nodes in the subset (the set of nodes in a clique is fully connected). A *maximal clique* is a clique such that it is not possible to include any other nodes from the graph in without it ceasing to be a clique.

### 3.2.3 Factorization

A MRF can be factorized using potential functions over its maximal cliques:  $p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_C \psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$   $Z = \sum_C \prod_C \psi_C(\mathbf{x}_C)$ 

### 3.2.4 Relation to Directed Graphs

To transform a directed graph into an undirected one we have to perform a *moralization* process of "marrying the parents" of each node (by linking them) and removing all remaining arrows.

### 3.3 Markov Blanket

 $p(x_i|x_{\mathrm{MB}_i}, x_{\mathrm{rest}}) = p(x_i|x_{\mathrm{MB}_i})$ 

**Directed case**: The MB of  $x_i$  consists of: the parents of  $x_i$ , the children of  $x_i$  and the co-parents of the children of  $x_i$ .

Undirected case: All neighboring nodes of  $x_i$ .

# 3.4 Naive Bayes

The problem of finding a label  $y^*$  for some previously unobserved vector of features  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , while having previously observed  $\{\mathbf{x}_n, y_n\}_{n=1,\dots,N}$ . We build a generative GM, linking the label  $y_n$  with each feature of the feature vector  $\mathbf{x}_n$ . This implies that all features are independent of each other given the label. For a single data case the joint probability is  $p(y, x_1, \dots, x_D | \boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i) = p(y | \boldsymbol{\eta}) \prod_{i=1}^D p(x_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}_i)$ 

while the probability of the full dataset is  $\prod_{n=1}^{N} p(y_n|\mathbf{\eta}) \prod_{i=1}^{D} p(x_i|\boldsymbol{\theta}_i)$ Note that this generative form is chosen as the other option (features pointing towards the label) would imply a very highly parameterized model, as we would considering  $p(y|x_1,\ldots,x_D)$ .

Finding a label  $y^*$  implies finding

$$y^* = \operatorname{argmax}_y \left\{ \ln p(y|\boldsymbol{\eta}) + \sum_{i=1}^D \ln p(x_i^*|y, \boldsymbol{\theta}_i) \right\}$$

# 3.5 Maximum Likelihood Training in BNs

It is fast because the log-likelihood decomposes into a sum over all variables  $X_i$ . Learning all parameters reduces into a collection of independent tasks of learning  $p(x_i|pa_{x_i})$ .

$$p(x_i|\operatorname{pa}_{x_i}) = \frac{N(x_i,\operatorname{pa}_{x_i})}{N(\operatorname{pa}_{x_i})}$$

is the number of times  $x_i$  co-occurred with  $pa_{x_i}$  divided by the number of times  $pa_{x_i}$  occurred.

# 3.6 Inference in Graphical Models

In which some of the variables are observed and we wish to compute the posterior distribution of one or more subsets of other variables.

### 3.6.1 Inference on a chain

$$\begin{split} p(\mathbf{x}) &= p(x_1, \dots, x_N) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \psi_{1,2}(x_1, x_2) \dots \psi_{N-1,N}(x_{N-1}, x_N) \\ &= \sum_{x_1} \sum_{x_2} \dots \sum_{x_{N-1}} \sum_{x_N} p(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{x_1} \dots \sum_{x_{n-1}} \sum_{x_{n+1}} \dots \sum_{x_{N-1}} \sum_{x_N} p(\mathbf{x}) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{x_1} \dots \sum_{x_{n-1}} \psi_{x_1, x_2} \dots \psi_{x_{n-1}, x_n} \mu_{\beta}(x_n) \\ &\mu_{\beta}(x_n) &= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{x_{n+1}} \psi_{x_n, x_{n+1}} \dots \sum_{x_N} \psi_{x_{N-1}, x_N} \\ &\mu_{\alpha}(x_n) &= \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{x_{n-1}} \psi_{x_{n-1}, x_n} \dots \sum_{x_1} \psi_{x_2, x_1} \\ &p(x_n) &= \frac{1}{z} \mu_{\alpha}(x_n) \mu_{\beta}(x_n) &O(NK^2) \end{split}$$

# 3.6.2 Factor Graphs

A tree is a graph with no loops. Both directed and undirected trees can be converted to a factor graph tree, but a directed tree could result in a non-tree structure when converted to an undirected representation. It is called a poly-tree (and not simply a tree) since its undirected representation (middle graph) includes a loop. The factor graph representation is again a tree. Factor graphs are the most general representation, and since any other tree representation can be easily converted to a factor tree, the sum-product algorithm is defined for factor trees.

# 3.6.3 Sum-product algorithm

Probability of the factor graph:  $p(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \prod_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(\vec{x}_{\alpha})$  factor  $\rightarrow$  variable message  $\mu_{\alpha \to i}(x_i) = \sum_{x_{\alpha \smallsetminus i}} f_{\alpha}(\vec{x}_{\alpha}) \prod_{j \in \alpha \smallsetminus i} \mu_{j \to \alpha}$  variable  $\rightarrow$  factor message  $\mu_{j \to \alpha}(x_j) = \prod_{\beta \in \text{ne}(j) \smallsetminus \alpha} \mu_{\beta \to j}(x_j)$ 

 $\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{leaf node messages} & x_l & \text{ is a leaf node:} & \mu_{l \to \delta}(x_l) = 1 \\ & \varepsilon & \text{ is a leaf node:} & \mu_{\varepsilon \to k}(x_k) = f_\varepsilon(x_k) \end{array}$