

# Machine Learning: A Probabilistic Perspective

Summarized from K. Murphy's book, Michaelmas 2021

Oussama Chaib

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Machine learning: what and why?

- Approach of the book: the best way to make machines that can learn from data is to use the tools of probabilistic theory.
- Probability theory: applied to anything involving uncertainties.
  - What is the best prediction?
  - What is the best model?
  - What measurement should I perform next?
- This systematic approach of using probability theory is often referred to as the **Bayesian approach**.
- To avoid upsetting some audiences, we use the more "neutral" term **probabilistic approach** (some of the methods we use like *maximum likelihood* estimation are not Bayesian, but certainly fall under probabilistic methods).
- **Machine learning**: A set of methods that can automatically detect patterns in data, and then use them to predict future data or to perform other kinds of decision making using that data.

## 1.2 Types of machine learning

1. **Supervised (predictive)**: Learn a mapping from inputs  $x$  to outputs  $y$  given a training set  $D = (x_i, y_i)_{i=1}^N$  containing  $N$  samples.
  - (a) **Classification**: When the output  $y_i$  is nominal (categorical) variable of a finite set (i.e: gender).
  - (b) **Regression**: When the output  $y_i$  is real-valued.
2. **Unsupervised (descriptive)**: No specified pattern, no obvious error metric to use (i.e: neural networks).
3. **Reinforcement learning**: Learning how to behave when given occasional reward or punishment signals.

## 1.3 Supervised learning

### 1.3.1 Classification

- Typical example:  $y = f(x)$  with  $y$  is a **finite** number of points ( $x$  can be continuous, discrete, or a combination of both).
- We use the hat symbol to denote an estimate (i.e:  $\hat{y}$  is an estimate of  $y$ ).
- We would like to predict the result on novel input  $x_*$ , meaning ones that weren't seen before.
- **Probability notation**: Probability of output  $y$  given the input  $x$ , the training dataset  $D$ , and the model  $M$ .

- If the model is known and we do not wish to compare models, we drop the  $M$  so that:  
 $p(y|x, D, M) \equiv p(y|x, D)$ .
- Our best guess (most probable class label, mode of the distribution, MAP: maximum a posteriori estimate) will maximize this probability.

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{argmax}_{c=1}^C (p(y|x, D, M))$$

### 1.3.2 Regression

- Just like classification but the response variable  $y$  is **continuous**.
- Will be explored further.

## 1.4 Models for supervised learning

1. **Parametric models:**  $p(y|\mathbf{x})$  Fixed number of parameters. Usually faster but require *stronger assumptions* about the nature of the data distribution.
2. **Non-parametric models:**  $p(\mathbf{x})$  More flexible but computationally hungry for large datasets.

### 1.4.1 Linear regression

Can be written as follow:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} + \epsilon$$

where  $\mathbf{w}^T$  is the vector containing **weights**, and  $\epsilon$  the **residual error** (or noise) between our linear predictions and the input data.

We often assume that the error vector follows a **Gaussian** or **normal** distribution:

$$\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

where  $\mu$  is the **mean** and  $\sigma^2$  the variance, and  $\mathcal{N}$  represents the normal distribution. The parameters of the model can then be defined such that:

$$\theta = (\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$$

Linear regression can be used to model **non-linear** relationships by introducing a **basis function**  $\Phi(x)$ :

$$p(y|x, \theta) = \mathcal{N}(y|w^T \Phi(x), \sigma^2)$$

## 2 A brief review of probability theory

- Probability of a union of two events:

$$p(A \wedge B) = p(A) + p(B) - p(A \vee B)$$

- Joint probability:

$$p(A, B) = p(A \vee B) = p(A|B)p(B)$$

- Marginal distribution:

$$p(A, B) = \sum_b p(A|B=b)p(B=b)$$

- Conditional probability

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(A, B)}{p(B)}$$

- Bayes rule

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(B|A)p(A)}{p(B)}$$

For practical cases:

$$\underbrace{p(\theta|data)}_{\text{posterior}} = \frac{\overbrace{p(data|\theta)}^{\propto \text{likelihood}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}}}{p(data)}$$

- Mean (expected value) and variance

$$\mu_X = E(X) = \sum_{\chi} xp(x) = \int_{\chi} xp(x)dx$$

$$\sigma^2 = var[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \int (x - \mu)^2 p(x)dx$$

- Gaussian (normal) distribution

$$\mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2}$$

- Covariance: Measures the degree of correlation between two random variables X and Y:

$$cov[X, Y] = E((X - E(X)).(Y - E(Y))) = E(XY) - E(X)E(Y)$$

Covariance can be between 0 and infinity. Correlation is normalized between -1 and 1.

- Monte Carlo approximation

$$z = \int f(\chi)p(\chi)d\chi = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{s=1}^S f(x_s)$$