Lecture 1: Introduction to Machine Learning

4F13: Machine Learning

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January 18th, 2008

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: We have organised a "Tutorial Lecture Series on Machine Learning" with a series of guest lecturers (Thursdays, 4-6pm in LT2). Go to talks.cam.ac.uk, search for "Machine Learning" for various local reading groups, lectures, and seminars.

Warning!

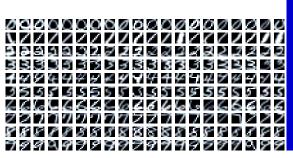
Lecture 1 will overlap somewhat with my lectures in 3f3: Pattern Processing—but don't despair, a lot of new material later!

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



Web Pages

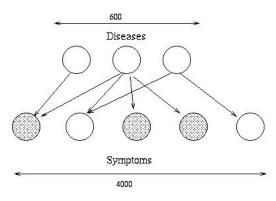
Retrieval Categorisation Clustering Relations between pages

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Financial prediction

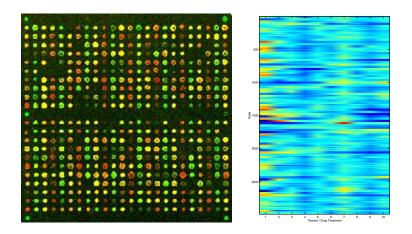


Medical diagnosis



(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 and still ongoing.

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 $y_1, y_2, ...$, 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, \ldots which affect the state of the world, and receives rewards (or punishments) r_1, r_2, \ldots . 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 space¹

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

The elements of 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)}\}\$$

¹This assumption can be relaxed.

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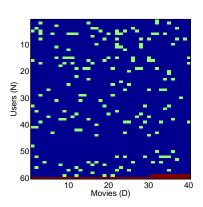
Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_D)$ denote a data point, and $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)}\}\$, a data set

Predictions

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

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 $x_D^{(N+1)}$?



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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, θ .

Given data \mathcal{D} , we learn the model parameters θ , 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 \mathfrak{X} .

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

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:

$$P(x,y) = P(x)P(y|x) = P(y)P(x|y)$$
 \Rightarrow $\left| \frac{P(y|x)}{P(x)} \right|$

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

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 $X = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$.

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 symbol, a, is 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 \mathfrak{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 \mathfrak{X} ?

Shannon's Source Coding Theorem

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

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

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

$$\mathcal{L}_{Q} = \sum_{x} P(x)l(x) = -\sum_{x} P(x)\log_{2}Q(x) = H(X) + KL(P\|Q),$$

where the relative-entropy or Kullback-Leibler divergence is

$$KL(P||Q) = \sum_{x} P(x) \log_2 \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \geqslant 0$$

Take home message: better probabilistic models ≡ more efficient codes

Some distributions

Univariate Gaussian density $(x \in \Re)$:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Some distributions (cont)

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

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

Gamma $(x \ge 0)$:

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

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

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

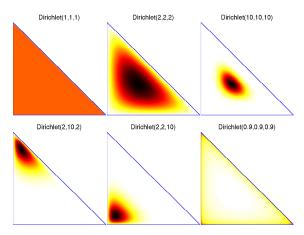
where $\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt$ is the gamma function, a generalisation of the factorial: $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$.

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

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

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:

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

where $\phi(\theta)$ is the vector of natural parameters, **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/ml06/cribsheet.pdf

Here is a useful statistics / pattern recognition glossary:

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