# VIP Cheatsheet: Supervised Learning

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August 6, 2018

# Introduction to Supervised Learning

Given a set of data points  $\{x^{(1)},...,x^{(m)}\}$  associated to a set of outcomes  $\{y^{(1)},...,y^{(m)}\}$ , we want to build a classifier that learns how to predict y from x.

 $\square$  Type of prediction – The different types of predictive models are summed up in the table below:

Model	Outcome	Examples
Regression	Continuous	Linear regression
Classifier	Class	Logistic regression, SVM, Naive Bayes

☐ **Type of model** – The different models are summed up in the table below:

Model	Goal	Examples
Discriminative	Estimate $P(y x)$	Regressions, SVMs
Generative	Estimate $P(x y)$ Used to deduce $P(y x)$	GDA, Naive Bayes

# Notations and general concepts

 $\square$  Hypothesis – The hypothesis is noted  $h_{\theta}$  and is the model that we choose. For a given input data  $x^{(i)}$ , the model prediction output is  $h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})$ .

□ Loss function – A loss function is a function  $L:(z,y)\in\mathbb{R}\times Y\longmapsto L(z,y)\in\mathbb{R}$  that takes as inputs the predicted value y corresponding to the real data value y and outputs how different they are. The common loss functions are summed up in the table below:

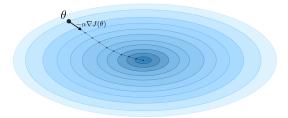
Least squared	Logistic	Hinge	Cross-entropy
$\frac{1}{2}(y-z)^2$	$\log(1 + \exp(-yz))$	$\max(0,1-yz)$	$-\left[y\log(z)+(1-y)\log(1-z)\right]$
$y\in\mathbb{R}$	y = -1 $y = 1$	y=-1 $y=1$	y = 0 $y = 1$ $y = 1$
Linear regression	Logistic regression	SVM	Neural Network

 $\square$  Cost function – The cost function J is commonly used to assess the performance of a model, and is defined with the loss function L as follows:

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} L(h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

□ Gradient descent – By noting  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  the learning rate, the update rule for gradient descent is expressed with the learning rate and the cost function J as follows:

$$\theta \longleftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla J(\theta)$$



Remark: Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) is updating the parameter based on each training example, and batch gradient descent is on a batch of training examples.

□ Likelihood – The likelihood of a model  $L(\theta)$  given parameters  $\theta$  is used to find the optimal parameters  $\theta$  through maximizing the likelihood. In practice, we use the log-likelihood  $\ell(\theta) = \log(L(\theta))$  which is easier to optimize. We have:

$$\theta^{\text{opt}} = \underset{\theta}{\text{arg max } L(\theta)}$$

□ Newton's algorithm – The Newton's algorithm is a numerical method that finds  $\theta$  such that  $\ell'(\theta) = 0$ . Its update rule is as follows:

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \frac{\ell'(\theta)}{\ell''(\theta)}$$

Remark: the multidimensional generalization, also known as the Newton-Raphson method, has the following update rule:

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \left(\nabla_{\theta}^2 \ell(\theta)\right)^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta)$$

### Linear regression

We assume here that  $y|x; \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

 $\square$  Normal equations – By noting X the matrix design, the value of  $\theta$  that minimizes the cost function is a closed-form solution such that:

$$\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y$$

 $\square$  LMS algorithm – By noting  $\alpha$  the learning rate, the update rule of the Least Mean Squares (LMS) algorithm for a training set of m data points, which is also known as the Widrow-Hoff learning rule, is as follows:

$$\forall j, \quad \theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right] x_j^{(i)}$$

Remark: the update rule is a particular case of the gradient ascent.

□ LWR - Locally Weighted Regression, also known as LWR, is a variant of linear regression that weights each training example in its cost function by  $w^{(i)}(x)$ , which is defined with parameter  $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$  as:

$$w^{(i)}(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x^{(i)} - x)^2}{2\tau^2}\right)$$

#### Classification and logistic regression

 $\square$  Sigmoid function – The sigmoid function q, also known as the logistic function, is defined as follows:

$$\forall z \in \mathbb{R}, \quad g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \in ]0,1[$$

 $\square$  Logistic regression – We assume here that  $y|x;\theta \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\phi)$ . We have the following form:

$$\phi = p(y = 1|x; \theta) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta^T x)} = g(\theta^T x)$$

Remark: there is no closed form solution for the case of logistic regressions.

□ Softmax regression – A softmax regression, also called a multiclass logistic regression, is used to generalize logistic regression when there are more than 2 outcome classes. By convention, we set  $\theta_K = 0$ , which makes the Bernoulli parameter  $\phi_i$  of each class i equal to:

$$\phi_i = \frac{\exp(\theta_i^T x)}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(\theta_j^T x)}$$

#### Generalized Linear Models

**Exponential family** – A class of distributions is said to be in the exponential family if it can be written in terms of a natural parameter, also called the canonical parameter or link function,  $\eta$ , a sufficient statistic T(y) and a log-partition function  $a(\eta)$  as follows:

$$p(y; \eta) = b(y) \exp(\eta T(y) - a(\eta))$$

Remark: we will often have T(y) = y. Also,  $\exp(-a(\eta))$  can be seen as a normalization parameter that will make sure that the probabilities sum to one.

Here are the most common exponential distributions summed up in the following table:

Distribution	η	T(y)	$a(\eta)$	b(y)
Bernoulli	$\log\left(\frac{\phi}{1-\phi}\right)$	y	$\log(1 + \exp(\eta))$	1
Gaussian	μ	y	$\frac{\eta^2}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2}\right)$
Poisson	$\log(\lambda)$	y	$e^{\eta}$	$\frac{1}{y!}$
Geometric	$\log(1-\phi)$	y	$\log\left(\frac{e^{\eta}}{1-e^{\eta}}\right)$	1

□ Assumptions of GLMs - Generalized Linear Models (GLM) aim at predicting a random variable y as a function fo  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  and rely on the following 3 assumptions:

(1) 
$$y|x; \theta \sim \text{ExpFamily}(\eta)$$

(2) 
$$h_{\theta}(x) = E[y|x;\theta]$$

$$(3) \quad \boxed{\eta = \theta^T x}$$

Remark: ordinary least squares and logistic regression are special cases of generalized linear

## Support Vector Machines

The goal of support vector machines is to find the line that maximizes the minimum distance to the line.

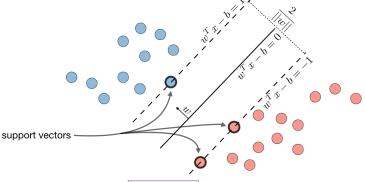
 $\Box$  Optimal margin classifier – The optimal margin classifier h is such that:

$$h(x) = \operatorname{sign}(w^T x - b)$$

where  $(w, b) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  is the solution of the following optimization problem:

$$\boxed{\min \frac{1}{2}||w||^2}$$

such that 
$$y^{(i)}(w^Tx^{(i)}-b) \geqslant 1$$



Remark: the line is defined as  $|w^Tx - b| = 0$ 

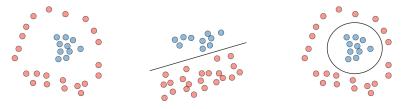
□ Hinge loss – The hinge loss is used in the setting of SVMs and is defined as follows:

$$L(z,y) = [1 - yz]_{+} = \max(0,1 - yz)$$

 $\square$  Kernel – Given a feature mapping  $\phi$ , we define the kernel K to be defined as:

$$K(x,z) = \phi(x)^T \phi(z)$$

In practice, the kernel K defined by  $K(x,z)=\exp\left(-\frac{||x-z||^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$  is called the Gaussian kernel and is commonly used.



Non-linear separability  $\longrightarrow$  Use of a kernel mapping  $\phi$   $\longrightarrow$  Decision boundary in the original space

Remark: we say that we use the "kernel trick" to compute the cost function using the kernel because we actually don't need to know the explicit mapping  $\phi$ , which is often very complicated. Instead, only the values K(x,z) are needed.

□ Lagrangian – We define the Lagrangian  $\mathcal{L}(w,b)$  as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(w,b) = f(w) + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \beta_i h_i(w)$$

Remark: the coefficients  $\beta_i$  are called the Lagrange multipliers.

## Generative Learning

A generative model first tries to learn how the data is generated by estimating P(x|y), which we can then use to estimate P(y|x) by using Bayes' rule.

#### Gaussian Discriminant Analysis

 $\hfill \Box$  Setting – The Gaussian Discriminant Analysis assumes that y and x|y=0 and x|y=1 are such that:

$$\boxed{y \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\phi)}$$
 
$$\boxed{x|y=0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \Sigma)} \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{x|y=1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \Sigma)}$$

 $\square$  **Estimation** – The following table sums up the estimates that we find when maximizing the likelihood:

$\widehat{\phi}$	$\widehat{\mu_j}$ $(j=0,1)$	$\widehat{\Sigma}$
$\boxed{\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1_{\{y^{(i)}=1\}}}$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} 1_{\{y^{(i)}=j\}} x^{(i)}}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} 1_{\{y^{(i)}=j\}}}$	$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}}) (x^{(i)} - \mu_{y^{(i)}})^{T}$

## **Naive Bayes**

 $\hfill \square$  Assumption – The Naive Bayes model supposes that the features of each data point are all independent:

$$P(x|y) = P(x_1, x_2, ...|y) = P(x_1|y)P(x_2|y)... = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|y)$$

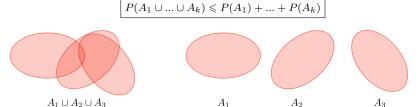
 $\hfill\Box$  Solutions – Maximizing the log-likelihood gives the following solutions, with  $k\in\{0,1\},l\in[\![1,L]\!]$ 

$$P(y=k) = \frac{1}{m} \times \#\{j|y^{(j)} = k\} \quad \text{and} \quad P(x_i = l|y = k) = \frac{\#\{j|y^{(j)} = k \text{ and } x_i^{(j)} = l\}}{\#\{j|y^{(j)} = k\}}$$

Remark: Naive Bayes is widely used for text classification.

# Learning Theory

 $\square$  Union bound – Let  $A_1, ..., A_k$  be k events. We have:



□ Hoeffding inequality – Let  $Z_1,..,Z_m$  be m iid variables drawn from a Bernoulli distribution of parameter  $\phi$ . Let  $\widehat{\phi}$  be their sample mean and  $\gamma > 0$  fixed. We have:

$$P(|\phi - \widehat{\phi}| > \gamma) \leqslant 2 \exp(-2\gamma^2 m)$$

Remark: this inequality is also known as the Chernoff bound.

 $\square$  Training error – For a given classifier h, we define the training error  $\widehat{\epsilon}(h)$ , also known as the empirical risk or empirical error, to be as follows:

$$\widehat{\epsilon}(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} 1_{\{h(x^{(i)}) \neq y^{(i)}\}}$$

- □ Probably Approximately Correct (PAC) PAC is a framework under which numerous results on learning theory were proved, and has the following set of assumptions:
  - the training and testing sets follow the same distribution
  - the training examples are drawn independently

 $\square$  Shattering – Given a set  $S = \{x^{(1)},...,x^{(d)}\}$ , and a set of classifiers  $\mathcal{H}$ , we say that  $\mathcal{H}$  shatters S if for any set of labels  $\{y^{(1)},...,y^{(d)}\}$ , we have:

$$\exists h \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \forall i \in [1,d], \quad h(x^{(i)}) = y^{(i)}$$

□ Upper bound theorem – Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a finite hypothesis class such that  $|\mathcal{H}| = k$  and let  $\delta$  and the sample size m be fixed. Then, with probability of at least  $1 - \delta$ , we have:

$$\widehat{\epsilon(h)} \leqslant \left(\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \epsilon(h)\right) + 2\sqrt{\frac{1}{2m} \log\left(\frac{2k}{\delta}\right)}$$

- □ VC dimension The Vapnik-Chervonenkis (VC) dimension of a given infinite hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ , noted  $VC(\mathcal{H})$  is the size of the largest set that is shattered by  $\mathcal{H}$ .
- Remark: the VC dimension of  $\mathcal{H} = \{set\ of\ linear\ classifiers\ in\ 2\ dimensions\}$  is 3.















**Theorem** (Vapnik) – Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be given, with  $VC(\mathcal{H}) = d$  and m the number of training examples. With probability at least  $1 - \delta$ , we have:

$$\left| \epsilon(\widehat{h}) \leqslant \left( \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \epsilon(h) \right) + O\left( \sqrt{\frac{d}{m} \log\left(\frac{m}{d}\right) + \frac{1}{m} \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)} \right) \right|$$